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### ***Background***

The Joint Statement on Physical Punishment of Children and Youth was developed by a national partnership of organizations concerned with the well-being of children and their families. It has been formally endorsed by many Canadian organizations and, by invitation, some individuals involved in a broad range of issues related to children and youth.

### ***Purpose and audience***

Based on extensive research evidence, the statement provides an overview of the developmental outcomes associated with the use of physical punishment on children and youth. Scenarios depicting disciplinary situations ground the document in the realities well known to parents and caregivers. The statement will also be of interest to professionals, policy and program planners, members of the public and children and youth themselves. Resources are identified for those interested in learning more about effective discipline and parenting.

### ***Highlights of findings***

The research evidence now available permits us to move beyond the debate about whether physical punishment is harmful to children and youth or is even effective as discipline.

- There is no clear evidence of any benefit from the use of physical punishment on children.
- There is strong evidence that physical punishment places children at risk for physical injury poorer mental health, impaired relationships with parents, weaker internalization of moral values, antisocial behaviour poorer adult adjustment and tolerance of violence in adulthood.
- Few parents believe that physical punishment is effective, most believe it is unnecessary and harmful, and a majority think the most common outcome is parental guilt or regret.
- Parents are more likely to use physical punishment if they approve of it, experienced it themselves as children feel anger in response to their children's behaviour are subject to depression, or are burdened by particular forms of stress.

### ***Conclusion and implications***

On the basis of the clear and compelling evidence—that the physical punishment of children and youth plays no useful role in their upbringing and poses only risks to their development—parents should be strongly encouraged to develop alternative and positive approaches to discipline. The implications of this evidence and this goal are examined in relation to Canadian law human rights and actions taken by other countries.

### ***Recommendations***

Recommendations for action in Canada include: (1) delivery of public awareness messages to inform all Canadians that physical punishment is harmful to children's development and is ineffective as discipline; (2) development of universal parenting education; and (3) provision of the same protection of children from physical assault as is given to Canadian adults and to children in a growing number of countries. Responsibility for action lies within the jurisdiction of national, provincial and territorial and local levels of government, the mandates of organizations, and the expertise of professionals who serve children and youth. The statement as a whole may be considered an urge to action by professionals and by parents and caregivers—within and beyond their families.



## Preface

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This Joint Statement on Physical Punishment of Children and Youth is dedicated to the healthy development of the children of Canada and to those most responsible for it—their parents and caregivers.

The joint statement began as an initiative of the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario, and grew into a partnership. Many organizations and individuals supported its development, and many more have endorsed it. All who have contributed to this document hope that it will be a resource for everyone committed to sharing and acting on the now persuasive evidence—that the physical punishment of children and youth plays no useful role in their upbringing and poses only risks to their development.

Every effort has been made to ensure that the information in this statement is based on research evidence and expert opinion current at the time of publication. References are provided to enable readers to verify findings and extend their own inquiry into the critical and contentious issues which have surrounded physical punishment of children and youth.

**About endorsement:**— Endorsement of the joint statement signifies confidence in its review of research on physical punishment and conclusions drawn from the review, and support of its recommendations. There are no legal, financial or follow-up obligations associated with endorsement of the joint statement. Many organizations use it for their own educational and/or advocacy purposes.

The names of organizations and distinguished Canadians who endorsed the joint statement prior to the first printing of this first edition are acknowledged on the cover and in Appendices E and F. In the third and fourth printings, the names of those who endorsed the document after the first printing were added to the appendices. Endorsements continue to be received and are welcome. The list of endorsers is updated monthly on the website of the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario ([www.cheo.on.ca](http://www.cheo.on.ca)).

**About the pre-publication and first editions of the joint statement:**— The content of this first edition of the joint statement has been updated from the pre-publication edition. It includes summaries of: (1) a Decima poll of Canadians' views on the section of the Criminal Code of Canada central to the issue of physical punishment of children; (2) the decision by the Supreme Court of Canada on the constitutionality of that law; and (3) the second review of Canada's compliance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child by the Committee on the Rights of the Child, all of which took place after the release of the pre-publication edition. No changes have been made to the review of research, conclusion or recommendations.



## Statement of purpose

The purposes of the Joint Statement on Physical Punishment of Children and Youth are to:

- create a common understanding of the ways in which physical punishment can affect children’s development
- summarize the evidence of its risks
- identify the factors that perpetuate its use
- encourage parents<sup>a</sup> and other caregivers to choose approaches to discipline that do not rely on physical punishment.

## Audience

This statement has been researched and written for parents and others who care for children and youth, professionals who provide services to them, those who develop policy and programs which affect children and families, interested members of the public and children and youth themselves.

## What physical punishment is

*Physical punishment is an action intended to cause physical discomfort or pain to correct a child’s behaviour* to ‘teach a lesson’, or deter

**Some other words for hitting children**

- ◆ spanking
- ◆ smacking
- ◆ slapping
- ◆ paddling
- ◆ whupping
- ◆ hiding
- ◆ whacking
- ◆ thrashing

the child from repeating the behaviour. The intended effect is a change in the child’s behaviour. Physical punishment may be administered with the hand or may involve the use of objects, such as rulers, belts and wooden spoons. In some cases it does not involve striking the child—for example, requiring a child to hold an uncomfortable position, kneel on hard objects, or place a foul tasting substance in her mouth.

There is no clear distinction between physical punishment and physical abuse. Attempts to distinguish them in terms of degree of force, parental intent or even extent of injury have not been successful<sup>1 2</sup>. Health Canada<sup>3</sup> recognizes that “child physical abuse is usually connected to physical punishment or is confused with child discipline”.

**Some physical punishments that don’t involve hitting**

- ◆ washing a child’s mouth out with soap
- ◆ requiring a child to remain motionless or in a sitting position without a chair
- ◆ forcing a child to kneel on a floor grate
- ◆ isolation in a confined space
- ◆ denying a child use of the toilet
- ◆ forced physical exertion
- ◆ placing hot pepper sauce in a child’s mouth
- ◆ denying access to needed water food or sleep

<sup>a</sup> Throughout this document - except where specific studies are cited - the terms ‘parent’, ‘caregiver’ and ‘adult’ are used interchangeably and include parents, guardians, grandparents and other relatives, members of caring communities, child care providers, babysitters and any other adult responsible for the care and supervision of children or youth.

## **What physical punishment is not**

*Physical punishment should not be confused with protective physical restraint, which is the application of external control not to punish, but to protect the child or others from physical pain and harm.* Examples of protective restraint are holding a child back from a busy road pulling a child's hand away from a hot stove or holding a child who is hurting another.

Physical punishment should not be confused with self-defence, which is not intended to correct behaviour but to *protect oneself* from harm.

## **Terms used in this document**

While 'physical discipline', 'corporal punishment' and 'spanking' are commonly used terms, 'physical punishment' will be used in this document for the following reasons.

- 'Physical discipline' confuses the concepts of *discipline* and *punishment*. Discipline encompasses a wide range of philosophies and methods properly aimed at protecting, socializing and guiding children toward self-control independence, and respect for oneself and others. The practice of physical punishment is at odds with the concept of discipline.
- 'Corporal punishment' has a connotation of severity and is associated with acts such as caning and belting.
- 'Spanking' connotes triviality and is associated with light taps and slaps of hands and buttocks.

### **Myths about child rearing**

- ◆ shaking a baby<sup>b</sup> will teach him not to cry
- ◆ biting a child will teach her not to bite
- ◆ hitting a child will teach him not to hit
- ◆ the threat of a spanking will encourage better eating
- ◆ spankings will speed up toilet training
- ◆ a good slap will end a tantrum
- ◆ striking a 'rebellious' teenager will prevent delinquency

***In fact, in all of these situations physical punishment is likely to worsen the behaviour, increasing the parent's frustration and, in turn, the intensity of the punishment.***

'Physical punishment' includes the entire range of potentially painful and injurious acts, whatever their degree or outcome and regardless of the intent behind them.

## **Prevalence**

To estimate the true prevalence of physical punishment is a challenge. Because physical punishment does not occur frequently throughout the day in most families, it is difficult for researchers to observe and record. As a result, estimates of its prevalence are most often based on parental reports, which are subject to errors of recall and parents' willingness to report behaviour they often regret<sup>4 5 6</sup>. Further variation in methods of data collection—from questionnaires to telephone surveys to in-person interviews—can lead to variations in responses. Therefore *prevalence estimates are likely to underestimate actual rates of the use of physical punishment and lead to conflicting findings.*

<sup>b</sup> Physical punishment of infants and toddlers sometimes takes the form of shaking. For information on Shaken Baby Syndrome, see Joint Statement on Shaken Baby Syndrome, Health Canada, Minister of Public Works and Government Services, Ottawa, 2001.

### ***National surveys of Canadian parents***

- In a 1988 survey <sup>7</sup> 21% reported that they use physical punishment (19% occasionally 2% often or very often).
- In a 2001 survey <sup>8</sup> 10% reported that they use physical punishment when their children break the rules.
- In a 2002 survey <sup>9</sup> 50% reported that they or their spouse had “inflicted light corporal punishment, like a slap” on their children; 6% reported that they or their spouse had “inflicted painful corporal punishment”.

### ***Regional surveys***

- In a sample of Ontario parents <sup>10</sup> 85% reported having slapped or spanked their children and 20% reported having hit their children with objects.
- In a sample of mothers of preschoolers in Manitoba and Ontario 70% reported having used physical punishment; one-third of those who used it did so at least once per week <sup>5</sup>.
- In another sample of mothers of preschoolers in Manitoba, 59% reported having used physical punishment in the previous two weeks <sup>11</sup>.
- In a 1999 survey of Quebec mothers <sup>12</sup> 48% reported having physically punished their children in the 12 previous months by pinching, shaking or hitting the child on the buttocks. Acts of severe violence such as shaking an infant, hitting a child on the face or head, punching, kicking or slapping, or hitting with an object within the previous 12 months were reported by 7% of mothers in the sample.
- In a 2000 survey of university students in Manitoba and British Columbia, 75% reported having received physical punishment as children or adolescents. Thirty-seven percent of these reported being slapped on the head 34% being hit with an object and 18% being whipped <sup>13</sup>.

### ***Public attitudes***

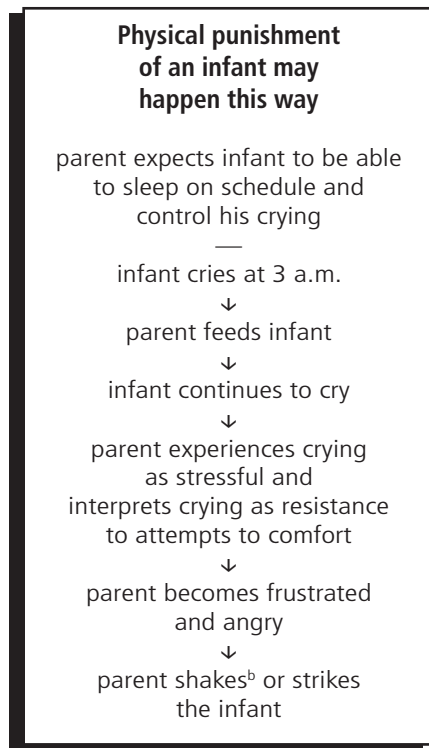
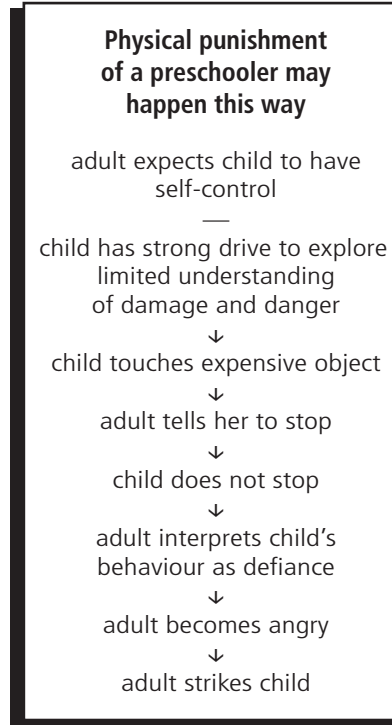
*Although physical punishment is common, several studies suggest that many Canadian parents think that it is not constructive. Only 2% of parents surveyed in 1988 <sup>7</sup> believed that physical punishment is the most effective way to change children’s behaviour while more than three-quarters believed that physical punishment is harmful to children and unnecessary.*

Similarly the majority of a sample of mothers of preschoolers in Manitoba and Ontario believed that physical punishment is ineffective, unnecessary and harmful <sup>5</sup>. Fewer than one-third of Canadians surveyed in Manitoba and Ontario viewed physical punishment as a reliable method of increasing obedience, learning or respect for the parent. In fact, a majority believed the most common outcome of physical punishment is parental guilt or regret <sup>4</sup>. A survey of more than 1000 parents in the United States revealed similar findings. More than 60% believed that spanking will not lead to better self-control and is likely to lead to increased child aggression <sup>14</sup>.

Most parents would prefer to use alternative methods to teach their children resolve conflict and deal with their own frustration <sup>6</sup>. In a study of the educational needs of Canadian parents of young children 91% reported that they believe information about discipline should be made available on a wide scale <sup>15</sup>. Mothers are less likely to use physical punishment when they are exposed to clear and intense messages from professionals and from the media that discourage its use <sup>16</sup>. Public education seems, therefore a potentially powerful mechanism for decreasing caregivers' use of physical punishment and increasing their use of effective discipline strategies.

**Which children are most likely to receive physical punishment?**

Physical punishment is most commonly used with preschoolers <sup>12 17</sup> who are in a stage of high activity exploration and drive for independence. Children in this age



group also are likely to exhibit negativism, impulsivity and limited understanding of harm and danger. In the Quebec survey 70% of parents of three- to six-year-olds reported using physical punishment in the year preceding the study.

Of course, younger children also are physically punished <sup>17 18 19</sup>. In the Quebec survey <sup>12</sup> 49% of parents of children aged zero to two years reported physically punishing them within the previous 12 months <sup>b</sup>.

A substantial proportion of older children also experience physical punishment <sup>13 17 20</sup>. In the Quebec survey 57% of parents of 7- to 10-year olds, 37% of parents of 11- to 14-year-olds and 19% of parents of 15- to 17-year-olds reported using physical punishment within the previous year <sup>12</sup>. Adolescents were the victims in 38% of substantiated cases of inappropriate punishment reported to Canadian child protection agencies in 1998 <sup>19</sup>.



Children are most likely to be physically punished for behaviours that can harm themselves or others. It is ironic that caregivers are most likely to strike children when they are trying to either prevent injury to the child or teach her that hitting is wrong<sup>4 21 22 23 24 25</sup>.

**Physical punishment of a school age child may happen this way**

adult expects child to 'know better' than to hurt others

—

child and younger sibling argue over toy

↓

adult instructs child to take turns

↓

child tries to grab toy anyway

↓

adult warns child that toy will be taken away if behaviour continues

↓

child hits sibling and grabs toy

↓

adult interprets child's behaviour as defiant and aggressive; believes child must learn that aggression is a serious misbehaviour

↓

adult strikes child

Boys are more likely to be physically punished than girls<sup>12 26 27 28 29 30 31</sup> although some studies suggest this gender difference may be small<sup>32 33 34</sup>.

**What are the risk factors for use of physical punishment?**

Several factors increase the risk of use of physical punishment. The more of these risk factors present in a parent's life, the greater the likelihood the parent will use physical punishment.

**Parental anger in response to conflict with a child**

The more anger a parent feels in response to conflict with a child, the more likely it is that physical punishment will occur<sup>24 35 36</sup>.

**Parent's own experience of physical punishment as a child or youth**

Parents who were themselves physically punished in childhood or adolescence are more likely to respond to their own children's behaviour this way than are parents who do not have a history of being physically punished<sup>6 31 37 38 39 40</sup>.

**Parental belief systems**

Parents who interpret child misbehaviour as intentional and serious—as defiance rather than a developmental stage—are more

likely to use physical punishment<sup>6 11 37</sup>. *Parents' approval of physical punishment is a very important factor in its use*<sup>25 40</sup>. It has been found to be more important than parental mood<sup>24</sup> anger<sup>35 38</sup> or childhood experience of physical punishment<sup>35</sup>. In a study examining the power of eight parental variables to predict mothers' use of physical punishment with their preschoolers, approval of its use was found to be the most powerful predictor<sup>11</sup>.

**Parent's gender**

In some studies that ask parents to describe their child rearing practices, mothers report using physical punishment more than fathers<sup>26 28 34 39</sup>. Other studies find no gender difference<sup>25 41 42</sup>.

**Physical punishment of an adolescent may happen this way**

adult expects youth to obey all rules

—

youth has strong drive to develop an independent identity

↓

youth breaks curfew

↓

adult interprets youth's behaviour as a challenge to authority; adult grounds youth

↓

youth leaves house without permission

↓

adult interprets youth's behaviour as continued defiance

↓

adult becomes angry; feels powerless; may have relied upon physical punishment in the past

↓

adult strikes youth

When children or adults are asked to describe their childhood experiences, some studies indicate more mothers use physical punishment than do fathers<sup>43 44</sup> others find that fathers use it more than mothers<sup>30</sup> while other studies find no gender difference<sup>45</sup>.

### ***Parent's level of education***

Studies on the relationship between parents' education and use of physical punishment have conflicting findings. In some, parents with lower levels of education report greater use of physical punishment<sup>46 47</sup>; others link lower levels of education to less use of physical punishment<sup>48</sup>; and others find no relationship<sup>49</sup> or an unclear one<sup>42</sup>.

### ***Parent's age***

The relationship between parental age and use of physical punishment is unclear. In some studies, younger parents report they use physical punishment more often than older parents<sup>25 31 42 48</sup>. In other studies, older parents report higher rates<sup>46 50</sup>. Some find no relationship to parental age<sup>49</sup>.

### ***Parental depression***

Depressed parents report using physical punishment more often than parents who are not depressed<sup>42 46 50</sup>.

### ***Stress***

Some studies suggest that physical punishment is more frequent in families experiencing economic stress<sup>18 25 46 48 51</sup> although other studies find no relationship<sup>49 31</sup> or an unclear one<sup>42 47</sup>. The more children in the family the greater the likelihood the children will be physically punished<sup>47 50 52</sup>. Marital conflict or violence, relationship stress and parenting stress are associated with increased use of physical punishment<sup>18 31 34 42 46 47</sup>.

## ***When is physical punishment most likely to be used?***

*A typical situation resulting in physical punishment begins with a parent whose sense of control is threatened by a child's behaviour.* For example, when a child has difficulty with self-control or when a child exhibits a desire for independence or a teenager tests the standards of the family and the community a parent may perceive the behaviour as defiance. Believing that the behaviour is an intentional challenge to parental authority the parent becomes angry. If this parent experienced physical punishment as a child, or believes that it is an appropriate means of gaining control or feels desperate to maintain authority physical punishment is a likely outcome.

On the other hand, a parent with knowledge of child development who has appropriate expectations for a child's behaviour is likely to interpret a drive for independence, or testing, as just that. This parent is less likely to become angry in response to the child's behaviour and is, therefore less likely to use physical punishment. Rather this parent will guide the child to understanding how to behave in the circumstances.

However even a parent who understands a child's motivations and knows effective techniques for guiding behaviour will, at some time, feel frustrated and angry. This is particularly likely to happen when the parent is in a bad mood tired or stressed by life's demands. At such a time, a parent can respond emotionally rather than intellectually and strike a child. *Physical punishment is often an impulsive act, driven by emotion, rather than by reason.* In fact, the majority of parents, even many of those who think that physical punishment is acceptable, do not think that it works<sup>14</sup>. Most feel regret after striking their children<sup>4 5 6</sup>. Sometimes it is not so much punishment as retaliation.

### **Are there risks associated with use of physical punishment?**

Many studies have been conducted on physical punishment and its relationship to the well-being of children and youth. A landmark analysis by Gershoff<sup>53</sup> of the findings of 88 studies has demonstrated that even common forms of physical punishment put children's development at risk in a number of areas.

#### **Child injury**

*Physical punishment places children at risk of physical injury.* Most cases of child physical abuse occur during episodes of physical punishment<sup>54 55 56 57</sup>. In a 1998 national study of child maltreatment, it was estimated that more than 10,000 substantiated cases of child physical abuse in Canada took place within the context of punishment<sup>58</sup>. These constituted over two-thirds of all substantiated child physical abuse cases in that year<sup>58</sup>. Of the 10 studies of this relationship examined by Gershoff, physical punishment was found to be a risk factor for physical harm in all 10<sup>53</sup>. Although caregivers may be attempting to protect children from danger when they punish them physically they are actually increasing the likelihood that they themselves will harm the children.

*The more strongly caregivers approve of physical punishment, the more harshly they administer it<sup>10 59 60</sup>. And the more often caregivers use even mild physical punishment, the more likely they are to inflict severe violence<sup>61</sup>.* In the Quebec study<sup>12</sup> children who experienced minor physical violence (e.g., pinching, shaking, spanking) were seven times more likely to experience severe violence (e.g., punching, kicking, hitting with an object) than those who had not been subjected to minor physical violence. Therefore, physical punishment is likely to escalate into injurious violence in the lives of many children.

#### **Parent-child relationship**

Deliberately inflicted pain can lead to fear anxiety insecurity and anger in a child<sup>6 18 62</sup> eroding the parent-child relationship as he learns to avoid his parent<sup>63 64 65 66</sup>. In fact, all of the 13 studies in Gershoff's analysis that addressed this question revealed that *physical punishment is linked to*

#### **Four ways in which physical punishment can escalate to injury**

1. Caregiver believes that physical punishment works; when the child does not respond, the caregiver increases the intensity of the punishment.
2. Caregiver may have a disciplinary intent, but her frustration, anger or stress increases the level of force beyond what was intended.
3. Caregiver feels powerless and desperate to regain control.
4. Caregiver's motive is not only punitive but retaliatory.

*impaired parent-child relationships*<sup>53</sup>. Even at two years of age, children who are physically punished are more likely to distance themselves from their mothers than those who are not physically punished<sup>62</sup>. Over time, parent-child communication may be impaired such that by adolescence, a youth with this earlier experience would be less likely to turn to her parents for advice or help.

### **Child mental health**

*Physical punishment is a risk factor for poorer child mental health* as demonstrated in all 12 studies of this relationship in Gershoff's analysis<sup>53</sup>. It is associated with depression<sup>67 68</sup> unhappiness and anxiety<sup>46 69</sup> and feelings of hopelessness in children and youth<sup>70</sup>.

#### **How does physical punishment contribute to child behaviour problems?**

1. Physical punishment serves as a model, rather than an inhibitor of aggression.
2. Physical punishment may interfere with the development of trust in the relationship with the parent, reducing the child's desire to comply.
3. If compliance is controlled by physical punishment, the child's internal motive to comply in the punisher's absence is weakened.
4. Fear of physical punishment focuses the child's attention on consequences to himself rather than the consequences of his behaviour for others.

### **Child reasoning and problem solving**

*Children who receive physical punishment are less likely to internalize moral values* than children who are not physically punished. This relationship was found in 13 of 15 studies examined by Gershoff<sup>53</sup>. Physical punishment is associated with lower levels of resistance to temptation, lower levels of altruistic behaviour and lower levels of empathy and moral judgment<sup>71</sup>. This could be because it relies on external controls, rather than building on internal ones. Physical punishment may focus the child's attention on the consequences of his behaviour for himself, rather than on how it affects others<sup>72</sup>. The erosion of the parent-child relationship associated with physical punishment may also decrease children's motivation to internalize their parents' values<sup>53 73</sup>.

### **Child behaviour**

Given the above findings, it is not surprising that *physical punishment has been associated consistently with increased levels of aggression in children and youth*. In her analysis of 27 studies of this relationship Gershoff found that physical punishment was associated with increased child aggression in all 27<sup>53</sup>. Children who receive physical punishment have an increased tendency to act out<sup>74 75</sup> attack their siblings<sup>76 77</sup> hit their parents<sup>76 78 79</sup> and retaliate aggressively against peers<sup>80</sup>. Another study<sup>81</sup> demonstrated that physical punishment of 13-year-old boys predisposes them to physically assaulting their girlfriends several years later.

Physical punishment has been associated with increased antisocial behaviour in children and youth (e.g., bullying, lying, lack of remorse) in 11 of 12 studies of this relationship<sup>53</sup>. While many parents believe that physical punishment will keep their children out of trouble, *delinquency and antisocial behaviour have been found to increase over the long term in children who are physically punished*<sup>20 82 83</sup>.

*Parents who use physical punishment to teach their children not to hit or bully others are actually more likely to increase their children's aggression and antisocial behaviour over the long term.*

### **Adult adjustment**

*Childhood experience of physical punishment is related to negative outcomes long into adulthood.* Since decreased levels of moral internalization and increased levels of aggression are among these outcomes, it is not surprising that physical punishment in childhood has been linked to the development of adult antisocial behaviour. Physical punishment was consistently associated with higher levels of adult aggression (4 of 4 studies), criminal and antisocial behaviour (4 of 5 studies), and abuse of one's own child or spouse (5 of 5 studies) in Gershoff's analysis<sup>53</sup>. Childhood experience of physical punishment also was found to be associated with poorer adult mental health (e.g., depression alcoholism) in all of the eight studies in this analysis<sup>53</sup>. In a study of Ontario residents, those who reported having been slapped or spanked as children but not physically or sexually abused, had an increased lifetime rate of anxiety disorders and alcohol use or dependence<sup>84</sup>.

### **Adult definitions of violence**

*Another long-term effect of physical punishment that is evident in adulthood is greater tolerance of violence.* For example, the strongest predictor of adult approval of a particular punishment is having experienced that punishment as a child<sup>85</sup>. The rate of approval of common (e.g., shaking, hitting with a belt) and severe (e.g., burning, tying up) physical punishments is two to three times greater among those who have experienced them than among those who have not<sup>85</sup>. Even among those who have been severely punished (e.g., punched, choked), the majority do not consider these acts to have been abusive<sup>40 86 87 88 89</sup>.

*Clearly seriously abusive behaviour can be perceived as normal if it is part of one's early personal experience*<sup>54 90</sup>. Personal definitions of normal and abusive discipline are then carried into parenting practice where they will influence the likelihood of the cycle of maltreatment continuing<sup>8 33 40 91</sup>. It is important to note, however that risk is not destiny. Many adults who were physically punished as children commit themselves to never striking their own children.

### **Does physical punishment have any benefits?**

Research findings on the association between physical punishment and immediate compliance are unclear. Of five studies that examined this relationship three found that physical punishment can result in short-term compliance<sup>53</sup>. However its effectiveness in increasing compliance is questionable. In one of these studies, for example, an average of eight spankings was required in a short period to achieve children's compliance<sup>92</sup>. This suggests not only that the short-term effectiveness of physical punishment is limited but that the risk of its escalation is high. The studies summarized above that have examined the relationship of physical punishment to child reasoning and problem solving demonstrate that this practice is not associated with long-term compliance.

## Summary of the risks and benefits of physical punishment

Research findings on physical punishment are remarkably consistent. *They link its use to many negative developmental outcomes in children. As well, no positive long-term developmental outcomes have been identified by the research on physical punishment.* It is a risk factor for physical injury of a child and erosion of the parent-child relationship as well as for poorer psychological adjustment and increased levels of aggression throughout life. Furthermore, it perpetuates the use of violence by the next generation.

### What can parents and caregivers do instead?

An important goal of parenting is to provide children with a repertoire of problem-solving skills and the competence and confidence to use them throughout their lives. *The choices that parents make in disciplinary situations provide powerful models to children of aggression or self-control, retaliation or problem-solving intimidation or communication, bullying or empathy.* These choices provide children with a set of enabling or disabling responses for contending with everyday challenges in child care settings, schools, neighbourhoods and in sports.

Because physical punishment is at best ineffective in teaching socially appropriate behaviour—and potentially physically and emotionally harmful—caregivers should be strongly encouraged

to develop alternative positive approaches to discipline. In 1995, the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child recommended that Canada launch educational campaigns to decrease public support for physical punishment<sup>93</sup>.

#### Methods of guiding behaviour of older children and youth

- ◆ *communicating* expectations clearly
- ◆ *recognizing* positive behaviour
- ◆ *respecting* the child's growing need for independence
- ◆ *modeling* negotiation and problem-solving
- ◆ *explaining* the reasons for rules and limits
- ◆ *listening* to the child's perspective
- ◆ *helping* the child to find ways to express himself
- ◆ *teaching* fairness and justice

#### Methods of guiding young children's behaviour

- ◆ *restructuring* the environment so that the child can explore safely
- ◆ *distracting* the child from dangerous objects
- ◆ *modeling* appropriate behaviour
- ◆ *explaining* and teaching
- ◆ *supervising* the child
- ◆ *reinforcing* desired behaviour
- ◆ *preparing* the child for transitions
- ◆ *planning* for challenging situations
- ◆ *establishing expectations and limits* ahead of time

In order to build their caregiving competence parents can:

- improve their problem-solving skills
- understand the child's point of view
- learn more about normal developmental stages
- learn effective ways of communicating with children
- model and reinforce positive behaviours
- develop skills to prevent parent-child conflict
- recognize anger triggers and form strategies for managing them
- reduce personal and family stress.

A list of resources representing a wide range of child rearing philosophies and approaches is provided in Appendix A.

























Wolfe, J., *I'm three years old: Everything your three-year-old wants you to know about parenting*. 1998, New York, NY: Becker & Mayer Books.

### **Video and audiotapes**

Alvey Kerby T.: *Yelling Threatening & Putting Down: What To Do Instead*. Gold Bell Productions, P.O. Box 171103, Salt Lake City UT 84117-1103 (801-272-3670). (videotape)

Bavolek, Stephen J.: *Shaking Hitting Spanking: What To Do Instead*. Gold Bell Productions, P.O. Box 171103, Salt Lake City UT 84117-1103 (801-272-3670). (videotape)

Coloroso Barbara: *Winning at Parenting . . . without beating your kids*. kids are worth it!, inc., P.O. Box 621108, Littleton, CO 80162. (videotape, audiotape)

Faber Adele & Mazlish, Elaine: *How to Be the Parent You Always Wanted to Be*. Faber/Mazlish Workshops, P.O. Box 1072, Carmel, NY 10512. (audiotapes and book)

Lynn, Kathy: *Discipline: Steps to Success*. Parenting Today 2762 Wall St., Vancouver BC, V5K 1A9. (audiotapes)

### **Websites**

The following websites are a rich source of information about parenting, families, child care and the health and development of children. These sites also provide links to other websites where even more information may be found.

Canadian Association for Young Children [www.cayc.ca](http://www.cayc.ca)

Canadian Association of Paediatric Health Centres [www.caphc.org](http://www.caphc.org)

Canadian Child Care Federation [www.cccf-fcsge.ca](http://www.cccf-fcsge.ca)

Canadian Council on Social Development [www.ccsd.ca](http://www.ccsd.ca)

Canadian Institute of Child Health [www.cich.ca](http://www.cich.ca)

Canadian Paediatric Society [www.cps.ca](http://www.cps.ca)

Canadian Public Health Association [www.cpha.ca](http://www.cpha.ca)

Child Welfare League of Canada [www.cwlc.ca](http://www.cwlc.ca)

Family Service Canada [www.familyservicecanada.org](http://www.familyservicecanada.org)

Health Canada [www.hc-sc.gc.ca](http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca)

Invest in Kids [www.investinkids.ca](http://www.investinkids.ca)

National Youth in Care Network [www.youthincare.ca](http://www.youthincare.ca)

### **Community information and support services for parents**

**Parenting courses** are offered by some family resource centres, family service agencies, community health centres and school boards. They provide information on child and adolescent development, the parenting role, communicating with children and youth, effective discipline strategies, and other issues related to raising children. They usually provide reference materials. Access to professional consultation on parenting problems and referral to other parenting services may be available.

**Parent support groups** are often provided by the same organizations as above, as well as by some children's mental health services and pediatric hospitals. Their format is small-group professionally-guided discussion, and their atmosphere is respectful and supportive. These groups enable parents to identify their needs, share their concerns, learn from and support one another reduce feelings of isolation and ineffectiveness, gain skills and confidence, and learn about resources and services in their community.

**Child care centres, day care and home care programs preschools and after-school programs** in a variety of forms are depended upon by parents to provide reliable away-from-home care for their children. These programs, for the most part, must meet provincial and territorial government standards. Most programs affiliated with organizations and supervised by professionals provide parenting information. Some can provide guidance with regard to particular parenting issues and problems and make referrals to community services.

**Parent child play groups and physical activity programs** are offered by family resource centres, community health centres, recreational programs and private parent groups. They provide opportunities for parents to have fun with their children learn new skills together and strengthen family relationships. They also provide opportunities for parents to get together share experiences and form informal support networks.

**Family physicians and pediatricians** are able to provide parenting guidance or make referrals to community services for particular parenting needs and problems.

**Public health, community health centres and family resource centres** offer a variety of services and programs for parents and families, as well as information on community resources.

**Aboriginal and First Nations child and family service agencies** provide child welfare services according to provincial and territorial child welfare legislation to Aboriginal children. First Nations child and family service agencies provide services to residents on-reserve and in some cases off-reserve, whereas Metis and Urban Aboriginal family service agencies provide services off-reserve only. Increasing numbers of these agencies are working toward establishing tribal child welfare laws in keeping with treaties or other self-government agreements. A list of these agencies is available on-line at [www.fncfcs.com](http://www.fncfcs.com).

**Native friendship centres, Metis and Inuit organizations** offer a range of support, educational and recreational services within a cultural framework. Information and concrete supports related to parenting, school health and other family needs are offered in respectful and practical ways.

**Multicultural, ethnocultural and immigrant centres and services** provide a range of assistance to new Canadian parents and families, ethnic and cultural groups. Information and concrete supports related to parenting, school health and other family needs are offered in respectful and practical ways.

**Provincial and territorial child welfare/child protection services** are able to provide parents with information about local parenting resources. A growing number of native, Aboriginal and First Nations communities in Canada are responsible for their own child welfare/protection services, which they provide in keeping with their culture and traditions. Some child welfare services operate parent or family support programs of their own, as well as supervised parent-child access and visitation.

**Parent help/support lines and crisis/distress lines** operated by a variety of professional services have been growing in number and popularity. Callers speak with a professional or trained volunteer able to provide parenting information and guidance and referrals to other resources. These phone services operate on a provincial and territorial, regional or local basis. The national Parent Help Line operates on a 24-hour basis and can be reached, toll-free, at 1-888-603-9100.

**Child and youth help/support lines** are available in some Canadian communities. Children and youth with concerns about physical punishment can call local child and youth help lines or the national Kids Help Phone which operates 24-hours a day toll-free, at 1-800-668-6868.

**Churches and other religious communities** may be able to provide some assistance with parenting needs and problems. Parents may feel comfortable in speaking with clergy pastoral counsellors, or family support volunteers to ask for guidance or referral for particular parenting issues and problems.

**Community information services, lines and directories** are found in many urban centres. They generally have information about a broad range of community services.

**Community libraries** offer many resource materials for parents such as those described earlier in the section on reading and audiovisual references on parenting.

**Parenting conferences and lectures** are organized in many communities from time to time. They may offer particular perspectives on parenting issues, and usually provide participants with information about community parenting and family resources.

## **Appendix B**

### **Nations that have prohibited physical punishment in all forms and in all settings<sup>g</sup>**

#### **Sweden**

Physical punishment was banned in all schools and childcare settings in 1962. The Penal Code defence for physical punishment of children was repealed in 1957. Physical punishment was explicitly prohibited in 1979.

The parent or guardian shall exercise necessary supervision in accordance with the child's age and other circumstances. The child may not be subjected to physical punishment or other injurious or humiliating treatment. (*Parenthood and Guardianship Code, 1979*)

This provision was amended in 1983 to include an affirmation of children's rights.

Children are entitled to care, security, and a good upbringing. Children are to be treated with respect for their person and individuality and may not be subjected to corporal punishment or any other humiliating treatment. (*Parenthood and Guardianship Code, 1983*)

#### **Finland**

Physical punishment was banned in schools in 1914. The defence of "lawful chastisement" was removed from the Criminal Code in 1969. Physical punishment was explicitly prohibited in 1983.

A child shall be brought up in the spirit of understanding, security and love. He shall not be subdued, corporally punished or otherwise humiliated. His growth towards independence, responsibility and adulthood shall be encouraged, supported and assisted. (*Child Custody and Rights of Access Act, 1983*)

#### **Norway**

Physical punishment was banned in schools in 1936. The Criminal Code defence for physical punishment was repealed in 1972. Physical punishment was explicitly prohibited in 1987.

The child shall not be exposed to physical violence or to treatment which can threaten his physical or mental health. (*Parent and Child Act, 1987*)

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<sup>g</sup> sources: Boyson, R. (2002). *Equal Protection for Children: An Overview of the Experience of Countries that Accord Children Full Legal Protection from Physical Punishment*. London: National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children; and the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children ([www.endcorporalpunishment.org](http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org)), which maintains an updated list of prohibiting nations.

**Austria**

Physical punishment was banned in all schools in 1974. The criminal defence of “reasonable” punishment was repealed in 1977. Physical punishment was explicitly abolished in 1989.

The minor child must follow the parents’ orders. In their orders and in the implementation thereof, parents must consider the age, development and personality of the child; the use of force and infliction of physical or psychological suffering are not permitted. (*section 146a, General Civil Code, 1989*)

**Cyprus**

Physical punishment of children was banned in 1994 in a law that prohibits all forms of violence within the family.

Any unlawful or controlling behaviour which results in direct actual physical, sexual or psychological injury to any member of the family [is prohibited]. (*Violence in the Family Law: Prevention and Protecting Victims, 1994*)

**Denmark**

Physical punishment was banned in schools in 1967. It was completely abolished in 1997.

A child has the right to care and security. He or she shall be treated with respect as an individual and may not be subjected to corporal punishment or other degrading treatment. (*Parental Custody and Care Act, 1997*)

**Latvia**

Physical punishment was explicitly abolished in 1998.

A child shall not be treated cruelly, tortured or physically punished, and his or her dignity or honour shall not be violated. (*Law on Protection of the Rights of the Child, 1998*)

**Croatia**

Physical punishment was explicitly abolished in 1998.

Parents and other family members must not subject the child to degrading treatment, mental or physical punishment and abuse. (*Family Act, 1998*)

**Israel**

The Israeli Parliament (Knesset) removed the common law defence of “reasonable chastisement” in 2000. A ruling of the Supreme Court in the same year outlawed all violence in child rearing.

[Physical punishment] injures [the child’s] body, feelings, dignity and proper development. Such punishment distances us from our goal of a society free of violence. Accordingly, let it be known that in our society, parents are now forbidden to make use of corporal punishments or methods that demean and humiliate the child as an educational system. (*Justice D. Beinisch, Supreme Court, 2000*)

### **Germany**

Physical punishment was prohibited in schools and residential care facilities in the 1970s. It was completely banned in 2000.

Children have a right to be brought up without the use of force. Physical punishment, the causing of psychological harm and other degrading measures are forbidden. (*Civil Law, 2000*)

### **Bulgaria**

Corporal punishment appears to be unlawful according to the Child Protection Act of 2000. It is not yet clear how this law is interpreted.

Every child has a right to protection against all methods of upbringing that undermine his or her dignity; against physical, psychical or other types of violence; against all forms of influence, which go against his or her interests. (*Article 11.2, Child Protection Act, 2000*)

### **Iceland**

Physical punishment was abolished in the Children's Act, passed in March 2003 and entered into effect on November 1, 2003.

It is the parents' obligation to protect their child against any physical or mental violence and other degrading or humiliating behaviour. (*Article 28, Children's Act, 2003*)

### **Ukraine**

A new Family Code came into force in January 2004, banning all corporal punishment.

### **Romania**

A new Law on Protection and Promotion of the Rights of the Child in Romania prohibits all corporal punishment. The law passed both Chambers of the Romanian Parliament on June 15, 2004. It will come into force on January 1, 2005.

## **Other legal developments**

### **Italy**

Physical punishment was banned from schools in 1928. In 1996, the Court of Cassation (Supreme Court) declared that physical punishment can no longer be considered lawful.

The very expression 'correction of children', which expresses a view of child-rearing that is both culturally anachronistic and historically outdated, should in fact be re-defined, abolishing any connotation of hierarchy or authoritarianism and introducing the ideas of social and responsible commitment which should characterise the position of the educator vis à vis the learner.

This law has not yet been confirmed in legislation.

***Belgium***

In 2000, a new clause was added to the constitution to confirm that children have an absolute right to moral, physical, psychological and sexual integrity.

***South Africa***

The law commission reviewing child care legislation has delivered a draft law that includes a provision that effectively prohibits all physical punishment.

***The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe***

The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe recommended on June 24, 2004, a Europe-wide ban on corporal punishment of children. It noted that:

According to the European Committee of Social Rights, in order to comply with the European Social Charter and the Revised Social Charter, states must ban all forms of corporal punishment and any other forms of degrading punishment or treatment of children. (*Recommendation 1666 [2004]*)

## Appendix C

### **Nations that have prohibited physical punishment in their schools<sup>h</sup>**

Albania	Haiti	Norway
Algeria	Honduras	Oman
Andorra	Hong Kong	Papua New Guinea
Armenia	Hungary	Philippines
Austria	Iceland	Poland
Azerbaijan	Iran, Islamic Republic of	Portugal
Bahrain	Iraq	Qatar
Belarus	Ireland	Romania
Belgium	Isle of Man	Russian Federation
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Israel	Saint Helena
Bulgaria	Italy	Samoa
Burkina Faso	Japan	San Marino
Cambodia	Jordan	Saudi Arabia
Cameroon	Kazakhstan	Serbia and Montenegro
China	Kenya	Slovak Republic
Colombia	Korea, DPR	Slovenia
Congo	Kuwait	South Africa
Costa Rica	Latvia	Spain
Croatia	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	Suriname
Cyprus	Liechtenstein	Sweden
Czech Republic	Lithuania	Switzerland
Denmark	Luxembourg	Taiwan
Djibouti	Macedonia <sup>i</sup>	Thailand
Dominican Republic	Malawi	Trinidad & Tobago
Egypt	Maldives	Turkey
El Salvador	Malta	Uganda
Eritrea	Mauritius	Ukraine
Estonia	Moldova Republic of	United Arab Emirates
Ethiopia	Monaco	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
Finland	Mongolia	Uzbekistan
France	Morocco	Viet Nam
Georgia	Namibia <sup>j</sup>	Yemen
Germany	Netherlands, The	Zambia
Greece	Netherlands Antilles	Zimbabwe
Guinea-Bissau	New Zealand	

#### Note

In Canada, physical punishment has been prohibited in the schools of British Columbia, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, Yukon Northwest Territories and Nunavut. See section on federal legislation in joint statement for a summary of the Supreme Court's decision regarding its use by teachers.

In the United States, physical punishment has been abolished in schools in 28 states.

In Australia, it is prohibited in all schools in New South Wales and Tasmania, as well as the state schools of the Capital Territory South Australia and Victoria.

<sup>h</sup> source: website of the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children [www.endcorporalpunishment.org](http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org)

<sup>i</sup> legislation is in the process of going through Parliament

<sup>j</sup> Supreme Court ruling declared school physical punishment unconstitutional and unlawful



## **Appendix D**

### ***Some organizations that have documented their opposition to physical punishment***

#### ***Canadian organizations***

The Canadian organizations listed in Appendix E and on the cover have documented their opposition to physical punishment of children by endorsing this statement. Many more than are listed oppose physical punishment.

#### ***International organizations***<sup>k</sup>

Consortium for Street Children  
Defence for Children International  
International Federation of Medical Students' Associations  
International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW)  
International Society for the Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect (ISPCAN)  
NGO Group for the Convention on the Rights of the Child  
OMCT – World Organisation Against Torture  
UNESCO  
UNICEF  
World Congress on Family Law and the Rights of Children and Youth, 2001

#### ***Organizations in other nations***<sup>k</sup>

Action for Children & Youth Aotearoa New Zealand  
Activating Bridgebuilders, Finland  
African Caribbean Family Mediation Service  
African Network for the Prevention and Protection of Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN Regional Office Kenya  
Africans Unite Against Child Abuse  
Albanian Children's Rights Network  
Americans for Constitutional Protection of Children  
Association of Directors of Social Services, UK  
Association of Educational Psychologists, UK  
Association of Lawyers for Children UK  
Association pour la Lutte contre le Travail des Enfants au Niger  
Barnardo's, UK  
Børnerådet – National Council for Children in Denmark  
Boys and Girls Welfare Society UK  
Brainwave Trust, New Zealand

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<sup>k</sup> sources: websites of the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children [www.endcorporalpunishment.org](http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org) and "Children are unbeatable!" [www.childrenareunbeatable.org.uk](http://www.childrenareunbeatable.org.uk)

Bridgend & District Resource for Children with Disabilities, UK  
Brighton Unemployed Centre Families Project, UK  
British Agencies for Adoption and Fostering UK  
British Association for Community Child Health  
British Association for Early Childhood Education  
British Association of Psychotherapists, Child & Adolescent Training Committee  
British Association of Social Workers  
British Association of Social Workers – Northern Ireland  
British Association for the Study & Prevention of Child Abuse & Neglect  
CECODAP CRC Coalition, Venezuela  
Carers UK  
Catholic Child Welfare Council, UK  
Catholic Children’s Society (Arundel & Brighton, Portsmouth and Southwark)  
Catholic Children’s Society (R.C. Diocese of Nottingham)  
Catholic Children’s Society (Westminster)  
Center for Effective Discipline, USA  
Center for Non-Violent Education and Parenting, USA  
Central Union for Child Welfare, Finland  
Centre for Child Rights, Somaliland  
Centre for Human Rights, Republic of Macedonia  
Centre for the Protection of Children Kyrgyzstan  
Child Poverty Action Group UK  
Child Protection Alliance The Gambia  
Child Protection Service National Public Health Service Wales  
Child Safe Wales  
Child Workers in Asia, Thailand  
Children 1st / Parentline (The Royal Scottish Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children  
Children of the Andes, United Kingdom  
Children Law UK  
Children in Northern Ireland  
Children in Scotland  
Children’s Agenda, New Zealand  
Children’s Fund of the Slovak Republic – Defence for Children International, Slovak Section  
Children’s Human Rights Centre of Albania  
Children’s Law Centre, Northern Ireland  
Children’s Legal Centre, UK  
Children’s Rights Alliance for England  
Coalition Against Child Labour Pakistan  
Coalition Camerounaise des ONG pour les Droits de l’Enfant, Cameroon  
Colectivo Mexicano de Apoyo a la Ninez, Mexico  
Communities That Care, Wales  
Community Practitioners’ and Health Visitors’ Association  
Coordinadora de Instituciones Privadas Por los Ninos Ninas y sus Derechos, Honduras























## **Appendix F**

### **Canadians who have endorsed the joint statement by invitation**

**Dr. John P. Anderson** former Director, Child Protection Service, IWK Grace Health Centre, Halifax

**Dr. Katherine Covell** Director, Cape Breton University Children's Rights Centre

**Lieutenant-General The Honourable Roméo Dallaire (Ret'd)** former Commander, United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda; Special Advisor on War-Affected Children to CIDA and to Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade on non-proliferation of small arms; Member of Senate Standing Committee on Human Rights \*

**Germain Duclos** psycho-educator, speaker and author on child development and children with special needs; clinician, L'Hôpital Ste-Justine; Professor, universities of Sherbrooke and Montreal \*

**Dr. Peter Jaffe** Founding Director, Centre for Children and Families in the Justice System/London Family Court Clinic

**Craig Kielburger** Founder and Chair, Free The Children \*

**The Honourable Stephen Lewis** UN Special Envoy for HIV/AIDS in Africa; former Canadian Ambassador to the United Nations; former Deputy Executive Director, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

**The Honourable Claire L'Heureux-Dubé** Justice of the Supreme Court of Canada 1987-2002; President of the International Commission of Jurists, Geneva, 1998; Companion of the Order of Canada \*

**Anne McGillivray** Professor, Faculty of Law, University of Manitoba

**Dr. Marcellina Mian** President, International Society for Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect; former Director, Suspected Child Abuse and Neglect Program, Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto

**Dr. Fraser Mustard** Founding President, Canadian Institute for Advanced Research

**Dr. Dan Offord** Founding Director, Offord Centre for Child Studies (formerly the Canadian Centre for Studies of Children at Risk); Camp Director, Christie Lake Camp

**Senator Landon Pearson** Past President, Canadian Council on Children and Youth; Advisor on Children's Rights to the Minister of Foreign Affairs

**George Thomson** Executive Director, National Judicial Institute; former Deputy Minister of Justice and Attorney General of Canada; former judge Provincial Court, Province of Ontario

**Dr. Marc Tourigny** Associate Professor, Department of Psychoeducation, Faculty of Education, University of Sherbrooke

**Dr. Richard Tremblay** Founding Director, Centre of Excellence for Early Child Development, University of Montreal

**Dr. Nico Trocmé** Director of Centre of Excellence for Child Welfare and of the Bell Canada Child Welfare Research Unit, University of Toronto

**Dr. Susan Turner** author, *Something to Cry About: An Argument against Corporal Punishment of Children in Canada*, University of Victoria

**Dr. David Wolfe** Academic Director, Centre for Research on Violence Against Women and Children, University of Western Ontario

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\* endorsement received after the first printing of the Joint Statement

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Airdrie Family Services Society • BC Institute Against Family Violence • Catholic Family Services of Saskatchewan  
Social Services; Edmonton • First all: Child & Youth Advocacy Coalition • Provincial Advisory on Child Abuse  
Sociale • Ottawa Community Committee on Child Abuse • kidsLINK • Fondation de la Visite, Montréal  
Discoveries Child and Family Centre • Canadian Institute of Child Health • Developmental Disabilities Association  
Forbes Community Resource Centre • Child Welfare League of Canada • BC Association of Social Workers  
Education Saskatchewan • Centre de santé communautaire de l'Estrie • City of Ottawa Public Health  
Saskatchewan Institute on Prevention of Handicaps • YWCA Canada • Success By 6 Saskatoon  
Children's Aid Society of Ottawa • Association of Early Childhood Educators, Ontario • Comité hospitalier  
l'enfance du CHUL (CHUQ) • Repeal 43 Committee • George Thomson • Ombudsman, Legislative Assembly  
Columbia • Community Safety and Crime Prevention Council of the Waterloo Region • Children's Aid Society  
Canadian Child Care Federation • Association des centres jeunesse du Québec • Family Service Saskatoon  
Arts and Culture Centre • Child and Family Centre • Children's Aid Society of the United Counties of Stormont, Dundas  
Child and Youth Services • Mr. John P. Anderson • Ontario Association of Social Workers • Senator Larry  
Youth Friendly Ottawa • Western Ottawa Community Resource Centre • Canadian Association for Community  
Service Canada • Toronto Child Abuse Centre • Alliance for Children and Youth of Waterloo Region •  
Canadian Association of Family Resource Programs • Family Service London • Family Service Durham •  
Sudbury • London Middlesex Child Abuse Council • Early Years Council of London and Middlesex • Mr. J.

Homes • The Montreal Children's Hospital – MUHC, Child Protection Committee • Justice for Children and  
Community Health Centres • Canadian Council of Montessori Administrators • The Family Centre of  
Care Resource Centre • Children's Aid Society of Toronto • Family Enrichment & Counselling Services  
Canadian Public Health Association • Parenting Today Productions Inc. • Janice Berger & Associates •  
Advocate • Centre for Children and Families in the Justice System • Pacific Community Resources •  
Children's Aid Society of Toronto • Roberts/Smart Centre • The Canadian Association for Young Children  
Anne McGillivray • South East Ottawa Centre for a Healthy Community • Kingston General Hospital  
Family and Children's Services of Guelph and Wellington County • Carleton Place & District Memorial Hospital  
Oliver School Centre for Children • Canadian Association of Social Workers • University of Ottawa  
Children's Aid Society of London and Middlesex • SMARTRISK • The Society for Children and Youth  
Kootenay Region Branch of the United Nations Association in Canada • New Brunswick Association of Social  
Capital Region • West Kootenay Early Childhood Diversity Education Group • Somerset West Community  
Dr. Susan Turner • Canadian Foundation for Children, Youth and the Law • Save the Children Canada  
Janeway Children's Health and Rehabilitation Centre, Child Protection Co-ordinating Committee  
Children's Aid Society of Owen Sound and the County of Grey • Crossroads Children's Centre  
Ontario Prevention Clearinghouse • Children's Aid Society of the County of Lanark and the Town of St.  
Advocates • Children's Aid Society of the City of Kingston and County of Frontenac • Westside Community  
Network • LaMarsh Centre for Research on Violence and Conflict Resolution • Children's Hospital  
Ontario Association of Child and Youth Counsellors • Mr. Marc Tourigny • Manitoba Child  
Ontario Early Years Centres of London-Fanshawe, London North Centre and London West • Perth and Stormont  
Canada • McMaster Children's Hospital, Child Advocacy and Assessment Program • Yorktown Family  
St. John's • Council for the Prevention of Child Abuse of Windsor and Essex County • Children's Aid Society  
Children's Hospital, Child Protection Unit • Sandy Hill Community Health Centre • Services à la Famille  
Dr. David Wolfe • Yukon Family Services Association • Stollery Children's Hospital, Child and Adolescent