The first part of the paper presents a description of Piaget's theory of moral judgment and makes a case for the relationship between the theory and the phenomenological approach to self concept development. It is proposed that both the development of self concept and moral judgment are greatly influenced by the examples of and interaction with significant others and that there is a parallel relationship between this interaction and moral development. Research related to parents, teachers, and schools is presented. The second part of the paper presents ideas for teachers of kindergarten through sixth grade which the authors feel will enhance the self concept and the moral judgment of students. Ideas for utilizing commercial and noncommercial activities are presented. (Author/SE)
ENHANCING YOUNG CHILDREN'S MORAL JUDGMENTS:

THE PIAGETIAN CONNECTION

A PAPER

SUBMITTED TO THE ANNUAL NAECY Convention

by

JACQUES S. BENNINGA
UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

AND

RUTH MEREDITH
WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

NOVEMBER, 1977
ABSTRACT

The present paper presents a description of Piaget's theory of moral judgment and makes a case for the relationship between the theory and the phenomenological approach to self concept development. Research related to parents, teachers and schools is presented. A second part of the paper presents ideas for teachers (K-6) which the authors feel will enhance the self concept and the moral judgment of students. Ideas for utilizing commercial and non commercial activities are presented.
Egocentrism in Children

For Jean Piaget, development results in learning. His theory is comprised of a series of hierarchical stages and sub-stages, each dependent upon the ones more basic and conjunctly serving as a preparatory base for the subsequent stages. The theory is invariant from the standpoint that the child cannot conceptualize certain aspects before he has developmentally reached the appropriate conceptual stage. Thus, contrary to Jerome Bruner's hypothesis that "...any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development" (1960), the Genevan school holds that certain concepts cannot be assimilated by a child at a particular stage of development regardless of the teaching strategy involved.

The development process is influenced by four factors:

a) maturation—both physical and psychological
b) experience—both physical (acting on objects) and logico-mathematical (knowledge derived from actions)
c) social transmission in its broad sense
d) equilibration "by self regulation"

between affective and cognitive domains, and between assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation refers to the taking in of environmental data and accommodation to the "outgoing process of an operative action oriented toward some particular reality state."

Egocentrism in the child is characterized not by his or her refusal to think in terms of others, but by his inability to decenter himself from his actions and thoughts and thus his inability to take into account another's point of view. This would account for the fact that the five year old, though able to identify his right hand from his left, is unable to identify that the right hand
of another child sitting across from him is on his left. According to Furth,

...since this preoperational logic, like all natural logic, derives from actions, and since external actions are sequentially ordered in one direction, preoperational functions lack reversibility by being limited to a specific direction. The reason for this is that preoperational knowledge in general is still tied to external action, not exclusively in a sensorimotor sense, but mainly through too great a dependence on symbolic representation (1969, p. 97).

Furth states further that the symbols by which the child comprehends internal structures and thus the external world, are drawn "most closely from personal, individual actions that emphasize the particular here-and-now aspect of an event. They are internalized imitations and retain the personal flavor of the particular accommodations. The more knowledge is dependent on such symbols, the more it is ego-centered..."(1969, p. 97-98).

Piaget has greatly elaborated on children's egocentrism in the following books: Language and Thought of the Child (1971); Play, Dream and Imitation in Childhood (1962); The Child's Conception of the World (1967); Judgment and Reasoning in the Child (1972); The Early Growth of Logic in the Child (1964). In addition, Piaget and Inhelder's The Psychology of the Child (1969) and Ginsburg and Oppen's Piaget's Theory of Intellectual Development (1969) provide a comprehensive overview of this period.

Piaget's Theory of Moral Judgment

To study the development of moral judgment, Piaget, in The Moral Judgment of the Child, interviewed children in order to establish their concepts of rules, the impact of adult constraint and the development of the idea of justice.

The game of marbles was used to study morality, because he felt that, "all morality is to be sought for in the respect which the individual acquires for these rules (Piaget, p. 13). Through his now famous methode clinique, he distinguished four successive stages of play and three successive stages of consciousness of rules in the game.
During the first stage of play, the motor stage, the young child handles the marbles at his whim, which leads to the formation of more or less ritualized schemes. The second, egocentric stage begins at the moment which the child receives rules from others. Children of this stage play alone, even in groups, and without regard for any codification of rules, and all children can be winners in each game. During the third and fourth stages, the game becomes increasingly social. The third stage, that of incipient cooperation, is in evidence when the children begin to concern themselves with the questions of mutual control and unification of the rules. Each player now tries to win under a set of predetermined, but as yet rather vague, rules. The fourth stage, that of codification, emerges when every rule is fixed and observed.

The overlapping stages of consciousness of rules include: 1) the repetition of motor schemes without obligatory rules; 2) the regarding of rules as sacred and untouchable, emanating from adults and lasting forever. Every suggested alteration strikes the child as a transgression and is thus avoided. 3) The codification stage, in which a rule is looked upon as a law due to mutual consent. For the child at this stage, "all opinions are tolerated so long as their protagonists urge their acceptance by legal methods. Of course, some opinions are more reasonable than others" (Piaget, p. 65). In the end, the child ceases to look upon rules as eternal and as having been handed down unchanged from one generation to another, and realizes that their origin gradually developed due to the initiative of the children themselves.

The stages and the ages that Piaget assigns to them overlap. The complexity of the problem is greatly reduced if two, more global, stages are substituted for the interweaving, overlapping ones. Piaget and Inhelder suggest using the terms heteronomous and autonomous.

The heteronomous stage, lasting from approximately age three to age seven, is characterized by unilateral respect and the coercive rule. This in reference
to the fact that the child at this stage sees rules as absolute and as handed down from adults. He is egocentric in that he plays for himself and fails to take into account the point of view of others.

According to Piaget, the more mature stage, the autonomous, begins at about age seven or eight, and lasts until the child is 12 or 13. During this stage the child is less and less dominated by older children and adults, cooperation takes the place of constraint and autonomy takes the place of conformity. It is during this stage that the child begins to believe that rules can be changed, that they originated through human intervention, and that they are maintained only by mutual consent among equals. Thus children become more flexible and process oriented because, as they go to school, they become progressively free of parental and other adult supervision (Piaget, p. 63).

Through the identification of unilateral respect and moral constraint, Piaget set forth to study moral realism, "the tendency which the child has to regard duty and the value attached to it as self subsistent and independent of the mind, as imposing itself regardless of the circumstances in which the individual may find himself" (Piaget, p. 111). Moral realism is composed of three features: 1) conformity to an adult imposed rule and obedience to it as his duty and is thus good; nonconformity is bad; 2) the letter rather than the spirit of the law is to be obeyed; 3) the evaluation of acts is not in accordance with their motive, but in terms of their exact conformity with established rules.

Pairs of stories were told to the children, one involving a well intentioned child who caused a lot of damage, and the other involving an ill intentioned act that involved little damage (see appendix). Two questions were then asked of each child: 1) Are these children equally guilty, and 2) which of the two is naughtiest and why?

Upon examination of the results, Piaget determined that up to the age of seven, on the average, children evidenced objective responsibility. Thus to
them the material damage outweighed the intention. After the age of nine, on the average, children demonstrated subjective responsibility, taking into account the motive or intention of the act. To Piaget, "it is when the child is accustomed to act from the point of view of those around him, when he tries to please rather than to obey, that he will judge in terms of intentions. So that taking intentions into account presupposes cooperation and mutual respect (p. 137). It is always cooperation that gives intention precedence over literalism.

Further research on the attitudes of children towards lying uncovered the fact that heteronomous children consider lies in a purely realistic manner, independent of intentions. Mistakes and "naughty words" are considered lies. Because of their unilateral respect for authority, children at this stage feel that lying is bad because the act is punished. The older, autonomous children have a correct definition of lying, in that they feel that any statement that is intentionally false is a lie. Children at this level think subjectively about intentions.

Another area of moral judgment explored by Piaget was the development in children of the idea of justice. Again presenting stories and eliciting reactions, Piaget determined that children in the heteronomous stage favored expiatory punishment for wrongdoing, and believed in the concepts of immanent and retributive justice. The autonomous children, on the contrary, favored punishment relating to the misdeed (reciprocal punishment), and evidenced a decline in their belief in immanent justice.

The Relation of Self Concept and Moral Judgment

Like most morality theorists, Piaget states that the relationship between the child and his parents, significant others and his environment enhances the specific moral feelings unique to each individual. Yet, despite individual variation due to environmental factors, Piaget postulates a theory based on
the consistency of personality in moral judgment. Further research supports a perspective of the consistency of personality in both moral behavior and judgment (Kohlberg, 1964; Haan, Smith and Block, 1968; DePalma, 1974; LaVoie, 1974; Dreman and Greenbaum, 1973).

The research on self concept by such phenomenological theorists as Combs and Snygg, Rogers and Maslow, describes the self as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself (Turkey, 1970). The self thus described is organized and dynamic, and everything is observed, interpreted and comprehended from this personal point of view.

This parallel development permits the theoretic integration of the phenomenological research with the developmental cognitive theory of Piaget, an aim of this paper as suggested by Graham's criticism that psychologists have not, in general, directed much attention to empirical studies of the self concept specifically in relation to moral learning and development. It looks as if this should now be a profitable line to pursue, particularly in association with cognitive-developmental theory (Graham, 1972, p. 279).

Piaget places much emphasis on the role of parents and significant others in the development of moral judgment in the young child (Piaget, 1965). Parents with their authority and their rules become, for the young child, the focus through which he interacts with his environment. In a similar manner, the self concept, according to Fitts (1971), is learned "by each person through his lifetime of experience with himself, with other people, and with realities of the external world."

Piaget postulates that in an environment where a "moral education depends more upon the contagion of example than upon constant parental supervision the idea of equality will be able to develop much earlier" (1965, p. 267). For Piaget, the ideas of equality and cooperation are the highest level of moral judgment and indicate mature levels of functioning. The psychologist concerned
with self concept hold similar views. The general view is that high achieving children are more optimistic, self confident, and hold a higher opinion of themselves, and that high achievement in children correlates with high levels of parental acceptance (Taylor, 1964; Gill, 1969; Carroll, 1973).

Several studies relate Piaget's stages of cognitive development with the development of self concept. Lunzer and Morris (1968) state that the process of self concept formation begins during Piaget's sensori-motor stage through representational or dramatic play; and define the concept of self as "the interaction of all representational schemata having the self as referent" (p. 334), in which the experiences of the child are compared by him with the behavior of others.

Flink (1973) investigated the relationship between the child's ability to conserve and his self concept, and found that for non conservers, cognitive training improved self concept, and affective training improved the child's conservation acquisition.

Parents and Children

It is more than interesting to note that Piaget devotes considerable attention to parent-child relationships in his discussion of moral judgment, an otherwise cognitive aspect of development. He concludes that, "in homes where punishment is meted out in large quantities and where rules are rigid and weigh heavily on the children, these, if they are not secretly rebellious, will continue for a long time to believe in the superiority of punishment over equality of treatment."

More contemporary inquiries relating parental behavior to various characteristics of their children are equally as conclusive. Martin Hoffman, in a review of various parental disciplinary approaches states, "the use of techniques that involve physical coercion or that directly assert that parent's power over the child...are more conducive to the development of a moral orientation based
on fear of external detection and punishment" (Hoffman, p. 295-318).

The situation is circular. Parents of children who displayed adjustment difficulties were found to be "less well adjusted and sociable, less democratic, and to experience more disciplinary contention than the parents of children with no manifest problems" (Peterson, et. al., 1959). When parents are more permissive and process oriented, their children tend to be more initiating and independent, more cooperative, less hostile and more spontaneous, and creative (Watson, 1957).

Children, Teachers and Schools

The way in which children view themselves greatly affects their actions. With I.Q. held stable, underachievers rated themselves higher on negative values—immodest, reckless, argumentative—while overachievers responded to more positive values—stable, optimistic, reliable, intelligent (Shaw, Edson and Bell, 1960).

Studies relating success in school and positive self concept to perceived evaluations by others have been conducted by Brookover, Thomas and Paterson (1964) and Gill (1969). Gill stated that there is a significant relationship between patterns of achievement—underachievement, average achievement, and overachievement—and the perceived self. He concluded that a "positive feeling of acceptance by teachers and peers was more commonly associated with overachievement than with underachievement," demonstrating that teacher attitudes are important in shaping the self concepts of students. Brookover, Thomas and Paterson supported Gill's findings and further concluded that, in their seventh grade subjects, a positive and significant correlation existed between self concept and grade point average, and that a low, but significant correlation existed between a student's I.Q. and his self concept.

A review of the literature of the relationship between personality traits and perceived self concept uncovered a unanimous conclusion. Not surprisingly, a positive self concept is related to a generally positive outlook on life. Taylor (1964), in a review of the literature from 1933-1963, found that over-
Achievers tend to describe themselves in self derogatory terms and see themselves as inadequate and unadjusted (1964). Davidson and Lang (1960), in a study of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders, found that children's perceptions of their teachers' feeling towards them correlated positively and significantly with their self perceptions. The higher their self concept, the more these children felt their teachers liked them, and the more positive their perception of the teachers' feelings, the better was their academic achievement and their classroom behavior. These conclusions were supported for reading achievement (Zimmerman and Allebrand, 1965), for boys only (Lewis, 1971), for kindergarten children's reading readiness (Guiliani, 1968), and for relationships with significant others (Brookover, Thomas, and Paterson).

In general, the literature tends to support Purkey's conclusion that:

Judging from the preponderance of available research, it seems reasonable to assume that unsuccessful students whether underachievers, nonachievers, or poor readers, are likely to hold attitudes about themselves and their abilities which are pervasively negative. They tend to see themselves as less able, less adequate, and less self-radiant than their more successful peers.

Further support comes from Fitts who concludes that, "if one likes and values himself, he tends to assume that others perceive him in the same light. If he dislikes and devalues himself, he expects similar reactions from others (1971, p. 38).

The preceding evidence clearly assumes that a positive relationship exists between the development of self concept and the individual's interaction with his environment. The evidence also suggests a parallel relationship between the interaction of the child with adults and other children and his moral development. An extension of this line of reasoning suggests a correlation between moral judgment, a cognitive factor, and self concept, an affective factor.
**Teachers Can Make A Difference**

In attempting to enhance a child's self-concept, the teacher of young children has the perplexing task of trying to effect change in a relatively stable characteristic. Several research studies (Combs & Snygg, 1959; Fhitts, 1971) have indicated that early family experiences are the most important influences in the development of self-concept. So by the time the child enters school, he has listened to those family messages and from them has determined who he is and how he can best operate in the world.

However, the child's self-concept is hardly a finished product. Since the child responds to cues from others, his image of self can be enhanced in positive ways by his classroom experiences. Fhitts (1971) has stated three factors which influence the developing self-concept. These are experiences--especially interpersonal ones which generate positive feelings and a sense of value and worth; competence--the ability to perform in areas that are valued by the individual and by others; and self-actualization--the implementation and realization of one's own true personal potentialities. In planning specific activities related to these three areas, the teacher will be effecting a learning environment which will promote the development of a child's positive image.

The child's self-concept might be described as one in the process of becoming, and defined as my self in relation to. For children in school, this means my self in relation to other children, my self in relation to the teacher, and my self in relation to my parent's educational expectations for me.

The activities described here are those which give children the opportunity to relate affectively to others. If they are regularly included in the curriculum, and if they are experienced with an accepting teacher and sharing classmates, they do give the positive feedback so necessary for the child who views himself as my self in relation to.
Classroom Activities That Promote Self-Concept

Children enjoy talking about themselves and this natural tendency can be utilized to initiate discussion groups. Small group discussion gives children an opportunity to verbalize feelings and to understand that these feelings are common to others.

* * *

Activity: Discussion of "What Makes Me Angry"

Purpose: To help children realize that anger is a common emotion and that differing behavior responses to anger have varying consequences.

Materials: Space for a small group of children to sit in a circle. Center of circle should be large enough for pantomime.

Procedure: 1. Each child is asked to respond to the question "What makes you angry?"
2. Succeeding questions focus on the behavior following anger ("What do you do after you get angry?") and the consequences of that behavior ("What happens to you when you do that?").
3. Children can pantomime their actions which depict their angry behavior.
4. In summary, children are asked how many different ways did persons in this group respond to anger.

Comments: This activity may be used in discussing happiness, sadness, loneliness, etc. Accept improbable responses ("I'd jump out the window and run away") without undue comment. Children will be exposed to more realistic behavior examples.

* * *

Activity: Who's Afraid?

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for children to verbalize their fears; to help distinguish between real objects of fear and imaginative objects which are sometimes fun.
Materials: Filmstrip "Who's Afraid?"
(Kindle: How Do I Learn. Scholastic)

Procedure: 1. Open activity with discussion of things which make us fearful.
2. List children's responses on board. Have them determine which objects are real (snakes, dogs, etc.) and which are imaginary (witches, robbers, etc.).
3. Discuss whether objects listed cause fear or fun-filled excitement.
4. View filmstrip. Have children tell their reactions to the incidents seen in the filmstrip.
5. Children may create stories or pictures of a fearful incident in their lives.

Comments: Children find this filmstrip extremely interesting. The group suggested several ways to experience its impact more vividly. First they viewed it with the classroom normally darkened; then they suggested total darkness and discussed the difference. At the conclusion a suggestion was made to view it again backwards. As the filmstrip rolled from back to front, each frame was carefully examined for content and affect.

Activity: Things I Will (or Won't) Share

Purpose: To help children examine their feelings about sharing and to determine if and when they will share; to look at the consequences of sharing behavior.

Materials: Filmstrip "How the Lollipop Dragon Got His Name"
(The Lollipop Dragon Series. SVE)

Procedure: 1. View filmstrip in large group.
2. In smaller groups, initiate a general discussion on classroom materials that are shared. Focus on reasons for sharing common
materials.

3. Invite examples of individual sharing behavior. Discuss reasons why a person may or may not wish to share personal possessions. Emphasize that sharing of personal belongings is a matter of choice. Encourage the children to predict the consequences of this behavior.

Comments: This activity may be culminated with several art or writing experiences. It may be used to springboard class discussions on rules. One group created a mural of a large dragon sharing with the children.

***

Activity: "What My Body Does For Me"

Purpose: Provides children the opportunity to integrate body movements and feelings about their body; helps promote a feeling of competency.

Materials: Space for children to move arms and legs freely.

Procedure: 1. Children are seated with teacher in a circle. Start a general discussion on the hard work children do at school and the need to relax their bodies. Talk about the task that each particular part of the body does (hands write, hold books, eyes look at things to copy, etc.).

2. Concentrate on one particular body member. Have children say something positive aloud to that part. (Example: "Eye, I like the way you help me work. You are good to me.") After speaking to the body part, exercise that part. (Eyes may be rolled; hands, arms, legs contracted and expanded; trunks rotated; feet and legs jump or kick in place).

3. End movements with deep breathing. Have children lie quietly and "fill up your lungs as much as possible."

4. Activity may be culminated with a picture drawing of "My Beautiful Body".
Comments: Some children think talking to their bodies is ridiculous, but most join in the fun. If group is large, divide into two circles, have one circle work while the other rests. There may be a need to alternate vigorous activities with slower paced ones since children may tire easily.

***

Activity: Body Relaxation and Fantasy Journey

Purpose: To provide deep relaxation experiences; to enjoy the effect of free-floating fantasy while relaxed.

Materials: Space for children to lie down without touching another; recorded short story.

Procedure: 1. Seat children in a circle. Explain that we are going to work with our bodies by tensing and relaxing the muscles. Begin with the face. Tense and relax the brow, nostrils, cheeks, lips and tongue. Tensing will bring a contorted face (which children love) and relaxation causes a drooping mouth and head.

2. Invite children to lie down and breathe deeply several times. Exercise every muscle by tensing and relaxing. Invite comparisons about how it feels when the body is tense and when it is relaxed. After each part has been exercised separately, tense and relax the whole body.

3. Begin total body relaxation by having children "tell" their body parts to relax (teacher speaks aloud while children send silent messages). Begin with feet and continue through top of head. As children lie relaxed suggest that floor is a soft pillow that will comfort them.

4. Invite children to enjoy fantasy journey as they listen to recorded story while relaxed. Lights may be lowered.

5. End activity quietly. After story ends, ask children to sit slowly,
stand and stretch slowly. An art activity where children may draw what they heard in the story or what they felt about their bodies may be used in conclusion.

Comments: The group engaged in this activity relaxed so completely that several children went to sleep during the story.

***

Activity: "What I Like About My Body"

Purpose: To help the child develop feelings of acceptance toward their bodies.

Materials: Paper for drawing, colors or paints.


2. Each child presents his or her portrait to the class and tells the class things they like about themselves.

Comments: If children are reticent, use structure. Ask each child (or print list on board if children read) to say something positive about their hair, face, arms, hands, legs, feet, trunk, etc. Accept positive comments only. If negative ones are offered say "I see you have some bad feelings about this, but tell me one good thing you feel about it." By asking "What do you like about being a girl? a boy?", the teacher will gain insight into the child's sex-role feelings.

***

Activity: "What I Can Do"

Purpose: To help children feel good about their abilities; to help them determine their areas of competence.

Materials: None required. Poster or worksheet showing figure of an outer-space creature may be used if desired.

Procedure: 1. Propose an imaginary journey to outer space. Travelers are invited to come along if they have some skills which will prove useful in establishing a new space colony.

2. Children may list, draw, or tell about their areas of competence.
School work, home responsibilities, hobbies, recreation and social interaction are categories which may be used.

3. As children tell about their skills, ask them why they think these competencies would prove useful to a new colony.

Comments: It will soon be apparent that every child has some skill. Children will enjoy exchanging information and some will find out that their classmates may have a heretofore unknown talent. Children who used a worksheet were quick to name the outer-space figure the Can-Do Man and Can-Do Woman, and had a good time decorating the figure.

* * *

Activity: "Things I Love To Do"

Purpose: To help children determine what it is they value; to help them understand that their values may be different from those of another person.

Materials: Paper, pencils.

Procedure: 1. Have children make a list of things they love to do. (The younger the child, the smaller the number. Start with five for K. and first grade. Children in the third grade could handle 10 - 15).

2. Children will discuss and share their lists. Note common and unusual interests.

3. Depending upon the maturity of the children, a simple code can be applied to the list. Code items can be 1. number from one to five your top choices, 2. put a star by items you do every week, 3. put a plus (+) by things you do with people, 4. put a minus (-) by things you do alone. Keep code simple.

4. After applying code, have children tell what they learned about themselves.

Comments: Discussion may develop an understanding that people have different values, and that what you spend your time doing indicates a strong value.
Interpersonal Relationships Between Teacher and Child

There are several activities that teachers can initiate that will enhance interpersonal relationships between teacher and child. One is the teacher-child conference. These conferences can be held for no longer than five or ten minutes, and can be conducted at odd moments while the class is resting after recess, cleaning up before going home, or finishing work before lunch. It is to be understood that class members have other duties at this time, and that teacher and child are not to be disturbed. Conference topics can be introduced by either child or teacher and can be any item or object of interest. Misbehavior should not be discussed, unless it is the topic selected by the child. Children's participation should be voluntary, and by scheduling at least one conference daily, within a month or six weeks each child will have enjoyed a private personal time with the teacher.

Another simple approach is the use of eye contact and touching. There are a thousand demands made on a teacher's time, and it is impossible to give each child great amounts of individual attention. But a positive message delivered with eye-level contact and a touch (hug or pat, whichever the child tolerates) says "Hey, I think you are important!"

Working With Parents

The research of Bronfenbrenner (1975) suggests that the parent remains the primary figure responsible for the elementary school child's development as a person. His research also indicated that early intervention programs involving parents proved to have longer lasting effects than those where there was no parental involvement. So it could seem that efforts to involve parents in their child's education would have the effect of aligning a powerful force in support of the child's work at school.

There are numerous things teachers can do. The use of volunteers taps a large resource pool of persons willing to help. Don't wait until your school inaugurates a fancy parent volunteer program. Ask parents at a parent meeting, or separately, if they have some time to give, and tell them some of the things they
could do. The list is endless: helping with skill drills, playing games, reading, teaching a craft, providing a job model. Any of these activities will provide for the interaction between child, adult and materials; and it is this interaction which promotes emotional growth.

Another area is teacher-parent communication. Notes sent home have a poor record as a means of contact, but notes telling something positive that Johney or Jane did may be more successful in reaching their destination. Parenting in our culture is a lonely business, and one that is not often rewarded. Any feedback given to the parent that their child acted in a credible manner will be rewarding to the parent, who in turn will feel more inclined to be supportive of the child's educational endeavors.

The parent-child-teacher conference can be used as an additional means to promote positive interaction between adults and children. All three conference participants could give a report; the child on his accomplishments, the teacher on the child's growth in relation to goals, and the parent on the contributions of the home environment. In this way the importance of the contributing factors of home and school, and the responsibility of each person involved will be recognized and given due credit.
1. A. A little boy who is called John is in his room. He is called to dinner. He goes into the dining room. But behind the door there was a chair, and on the chair there was a tray with fifteen cups on it. John couldn't have known there was all this behind the door. He goes in, the door knocks against the tray, bang go the fifteen cups, and they all get broken.

B. Once there was a little boy whose name was Henry. One day when his mother was out he tried to get some cookies out of the cupboard. He climbed on a chair and stretched out his arm. But the cookies were too high up and he couldn't reach them and have any. But while he was trying to get them he knocked over a cup. The cup fell down and broke.

QUESTIONS:
Which child was the naughtiest,
John, who bumped into the door and broke 15 cups?
Henry, who tried to get the cookies and broke one cup?

Why is that one the naughtiest?

2. Once there were two children who were stealing apples in an orchard. Suddenly a policeman comes along and the two children run away. One of them is caught. The other one, going home by a roundabout way, crosses a river on a rotten bridge and falls into the water.

Now, what do you think? If he had not stolen the apples and had crossed the river on that rotten bridge all the same, would he have still fallen into the water?

3. A mother had two little girls, one obedient (that means that she listens to her) and the other disobedient (that means that she didn't listen to her). The mother liked the obedient one the best and gave her the biggest piece of cake.

What do you think of that? Do you think that the mother was right? Or do you think that what the mother did was fair?
THE MORAL JUDGMENT TEST

1. A. A little boy who is called John is in his room. He is
called to dinner. He goes into the dining room. But
behind the door there was a chair, and on the chair there
was a tray with fifteen cups on it. John couldn't have
known there was all this behind the door. He goes in, the
door knocks against the tray, bang go the fifteen cups,
and they all get broken.

B. Once there was a little boy whose name was Henry. One
day when his mother was out he tried to get some cookies
out of the cupboard. He climbed on a chair and
stretched out his arm. But the cookies were too high up
and he couldn't reach them and have any. But while he
was trying to get them he knocked over a cup. The cup
fell down and broke.

QUESTIONS:
Which child was the naughtiest,
John, who bumped into the door and broke 15 cups?
Henry, who tried to get the cookies and broke one cup?
Why is that one the naughtiest?

2. Once there were two children who were stealing apples in an
orchard. Suddenly a policeman comes along and the two children
run away. One of them is caught. The other one, going home
by a roundabout way, crosses a river on a rotten bridge and
falls into the water.

Now, what do you think? If he had not stolen the apples and
had crossed the river on that rotten bridge all the same,
would he have still fallen into the water?

3. A mother had two little girls, one obedient (that means that
she listens to her) and the other disobedient (that means
that she didn't listen to her). The mother liked the
obedient one the best and gave her the biggest piece of
cake.

What do you think of that? Do you think that the mother
was right? or Do you think that what the mother did was
fair?
References


