E-CONTENT

UNIT III: MORAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

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Concept of Development and Moral Development, Cognitive Developmental Approach: Jean. Piaget , Lawrence Kohlberg, , Karl Gillgen

1. CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Moral Development focuses on the emergence, change, and understanding of morality from infancy through adulthood. In the field of moral development, morality is defined as principles for how individuals ought to treat one another, with respect to justice, others' welfare, and rights. In order to investigate how individuals understand morality, it is essential to measure their beliefs, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors that contribute to moral understanding. The field of moral development studies the role of peers and parents in facilitating moral development, the role of conscience and values, socialization and cultural influences, empathy and altruism, and positive development. The interest in morality spans many disciplines (e.g., philosophy, economics, biology, and political science) and specializations within psychology (e.g., social, cognitive, and cultural). Moral developmental psychology research focuses on questions of origins and change in morality across the lifespan.

The founder of psychoanalysis, Freud (1962), proposed the existence of a tension between the needs of society and the individual. According to Freud, the moral development proceeds when the individual's selfish desires are repressed and replaced by the values of important socializing agents in one's life (for instance, one's parents). A proponent of behaviorism, Skinner (1972) similarly focused on socialization as the primary force behind moral development. In contrast to Freud's notion of a struggle between internal and external forces, Skinner focused on the power of external forces (reinforcement contingencies) to shape an individual's development. While both Freud and Skinner focused on the external forces that bear on morality (parents in the case of Freud, and behavioral contingencies in the case of Skinner), Piaget (1965) focused on the individual's construction, construal, and interpretation of morality from a social-cognitive and social-emotional perspective.

To understand adult morality, Piaget believed that it was necessary to study both how morality manifests in the child's world as well as the factors that contribute to the emergence of central moral concepts such as welfare, justice, and rights. Interviewing children using the Clinical Interview Method, Piaget (1965) found that young children were focused on authority mandates, and that with age children become autonomous, evaluating actions from

a set of independent principles of morality. Kohlberg (1963) expanded upon Piagetian notions of moral development.[4] While they both viewed moral development as a result of a deliberate attempt to increase the coordination and integration of one's orientation to the world, Kohlberg's studies and research provided a systematic 3-level, 6-stage sequence reflecting changes in moral judgment throughout the lifespan. Specifically, Kohlberg argued that development proceeds from a selfish desire to avoid punishment (personal), to a concern for group functioning (societal), to a concern for the consistent application of universal ethical principles (moral).Furthermore, Kohlberg believed that in order for a child to advance to a more developed level of morality, he or she must develop an equivalent level of intellectual ability. In the words of Kohlberg, " The child can internalize the moral values of his parents and culture and make them his own only as he comes to relate these values to a comprehended social order and to his own goals as a social self".[5] Although Kohlberg is praised for his work there have been many questions raised whether or not it is 100% accurate. Many people believe his six-stage theory was sexist because only males were in the test group for this study. Regardless, Kolberg's research cemented his expanded ideas on moral development as legitimate in the field of developmental psychology.

CONCEPT OF DEVELOPMENT

Development is a continues process - First development is a continuous process. Development does not stop at any time. It continues from the moment of conception until the individual reaches maturity. It takes place at a slow or a rapid rate but at a regular pace rather than by leaps and bounds.

The fact that development is continuous emphasises the point that each stage of development has its foundations built upon a preceding stage and has a definite influence on the succeeding stage of development. There may be a break in the continuity of growth due to illness, starvation or malnutrition or other environmental factors or some abnormal conditions in the child's life. According to Growth and Development, the life of an individual can be divided into the following major developmental periods :

- Pre-natal period (from conception to birth)
- Neo-natal period (birth to 10-14 days)
- Babyhood (2 weeks to 2 years)
- Early childhood (2 years to 6 years)

- Late childhood (6 years to 12-13 years)
- Adolescence (from 12-13 years to 18-19 years)
- Adulthood (from 18-19 years and onwards)

Development follows a pattern : Secondly, development occurs in orderly manner and follows a certain sequences. In nature we find that every species or organism follows a pattern of development. The same is the case with human beings. Development occurs in orderly manner and follows a certain sequence which, in general is the same for most children. Each stage of development leads to the next. For instance, all children first learn to sit up without support before they stand. Similarly, they learn to draw a circle before attempting to draw a square.

The rate and speed of development may vary in individual cases, but the sequence of the pattern is the same. A child from a disadvantaged home and a child from an affluent home, both follow the same pattern of development, although the latter may develop at a faster rate due to the facilities available at home.

One of the sequential patterns of development relate to the two directions in which development proceeds. Firstly, development proceeds from the upper portions of the body toward the lower portions. This is referred to as “head to toe” sequence. This means that improvements in the structure and function in a child’s body come first in the head region, then in the trunk and last in the leg region. This growth pattern helps to explain why children sit before they can stand and crawl before they can walk.

Secondly, development proceeds from the centre line of the body outward towards the distance or peripheral parts referred to as “near to far” sequence. Hence, in a foetus, the head and the trunk are fairly well developed before the rudimentary limb buds appear, gradually the arm buds lengthen and then develop into hands and fingers. This growth pattern explains, for instance, why children in the early years are more adept at controlling larger muscles than the whole limbs. They are unable to control finer muscles that are required for the manipulation of tiny objects with fingers.

Development proceeds from general to specific responses: Thirdly, it makes from a generalized to localized behaviour.In studying the development pattern of children, it is observed that general activity always precedes specific activity. The early responses of the baby are very general in nature which is gradually replaced with specific ones. The earliest

emotional responses of the new born are generally diffused excitement and this slowly gives way to specific emotional patterns of anger, joy, fear, etc. Babies wave their arms in general, random movements before they are capable of such specific responses as reaching for an object held before them. Similarly, in early stages of language development the child may use a particular word for any type of animal/ eatable. Gradually, as his / her vocabulary increases, he/she will learn to use correct specific words. Thus, uncoordinated movements/ responses are gradually replaced by specific ones.

Development involves change: Development involves a progressive series of changes. The human being is never static. From the moment of conception to the time of death, the person is undergoing changes. Nature shapes development most clearly through genetic programming that may determine whole sequences of later development. It refers to a progressive series of orderly coherent changes. Growth on the other hand refers to quantitative changes increasing in size and structure. Development implies both quantitative and qualitative changes.

Development is a product of interaction of the heredity and environment: Child at any stage of his growth and development is a joint products of both heredity and environment. But it is not possible to indicate exactly in what proportion heredity and environment contribute to the development of an individual. The two work hand in hand from the very conceptions. The environment bears upon the new organism from the beginning. Among, the environmental factors like nutrition, climate, the conditions in the home, the type of social organisation in which individual move and live, the roles they have to play and other.

Principle of uniqueness: Development is individualized process. Although the pattern of development is similar for all children, they follow the pattern at their own rate. These individual differences arise because each child is controlled by a unique combination of hereditary endowment and environmental factors. Every child follows a developmental timetable that is characteristically unique for each child. All children therefore do not reach the same point of development at the same age.

Individual differences are caused by the both hereditary and environmental conditions. The child's physical development, for example, depends partly on the hereditary potential and partly on the environmental factors such as diet, general health, climate etc.

Development is also affected by the genetic factors. A child should be provided with opportunities for experiences and learning. These include:

- A stimulating environment where the child can explore. The environment must include materials which arouse curiosity and facilitate learning and
- Encouragement and guidance from parents and teachers.

Each child is a unique individual. No two children can be expected to behave or develop in an identical manner although they are of the same age. For example, in the same class, a child who comes from a deprived environment cannot be expected to do as well in studies as a child of the same ability whose parents put high value on education and encourage the child to study.

The Principle of Interaction of Maturation and Learning: Another important principle of development is that it occurs as a result of both maturation and learning. Maturation refers to changes in a developed organism due to the unfolding ripening of abilities, characteristics, traits and potentialities present at birth. Learning denotes the changes in behaviour due to training and or experiences. Maturation is the inner growth process unaffected by training. Another factor that causes growth is 'learning'. Learning implies exercise and experience on the part of an individual. Learning may result from practice, which in due course of time may bring about a change in the individual's behaviour. Maturation and learning are closely related and one influences the other. This means that traits potentially present will not develop to their maximum without effort or learning. Thus, learning have a great influence on growth and development, maturation provides the raw material for learning and determines to a large extent the more general patterns of the individual's behaviour.evelopment is often predictable-

Development psychologists have observed that each developmental phase has certain common traits and characteristics. We have seen that the rate of development for each child is fairly constant. The consequence is that it is possible for us to predict at an early age the range within which the mature development of the child is likely to fall. But all types of development, particularly mental development, cannot be predicted with the same degree of accuracy. It is more easily predictable for children whose mental development falls within the normal range rather than for those whose mental development shows marked deviation from the average.

2. CONGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT APPROACH:

2.1. PIAGET'S STAGES OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Fundamental Concepts

Schemas - A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to interpret and understand the world.

In Piaget's view, a schema includes both a category of knowledge and the process of obtaining that knowledge. As experiences happen, this new information is used to modify, add to, or change previously existing schemas.

For example, a child may have a schema about a type of animal, such as a dog. If the child's sole experience has been with small dogs, a child might believe that all dogs are small, furry, and have four legs. Suppose then that the child encounters an enormous dog. The child will take in this new information, modifying the previously existing schema to include these new observations.

Assimilation - The process of taking in new information into our already existing schemas is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective because we tend to modify experiences and information slightly to fit in with our preexisting beliefs. In the example above, seeing a dog and labeling it "dog" is a case of assimilating the animal into the child's dog schema.

Accommodation - Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves modifying existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

Equilibration - Piaget believed that all children try to strike a balance between assimilation and accommodation, which is achieved through a mechanism Piaget called equilibration. As children progress through the stages of cognitive development, it is important to maintain a balance between applying previous knowledge (assimilation) and changing behavior to account for new knowledge (accommodation). Equilibration helps explain how children can move from one stage of thought into the next.

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

According to psychologist Jean Piaget, children progress through a series of four critical stages of cognitive development. Each stage is marked by shifts in how kids understand the world. Piaget believed that children are like "little scientists" and that they actively try to explore and make sense of the world around them.

Through his observations of his children, Piaget developed a stage theory of intellectual development that included four distinct stages:

- The sensorimotor stage, from birth to age 2
- The preoperational stage, from age 2 to about age 7
- The concrete operational stage, from age 7 to 11
- The formal operational stage, which begins in adolescence and spans into adulthood.

Characteristics of the Sensorimotor Stage

The first stage of Piaget's theory lasts from birth to approximately age two and is centred on the infant trying to make sense of the world.

Some key things to remember about the sensorimotor stage:

- During the sensorimotor stage, an infant's knowledge of the world is limited to his or her sensory perceptions and motor activities.
- Behaviours are limited to simple motor responses caused by sensory stimuli.
- Children utilize skills and abilities they were born with (such as looking, sucking, grasping, and listening) to learn more about the environment.
- Object Permanence
- According to Piaget, the development of object permanence is one of the most important accomplishments at the sensorimotor stage of development. Object permanence is a child's understanding that objects continue to exist even though they cannot be seen or heard.
- Imagine a game of peek-a-boo, for example. A very young infant will believe that the other person or object has actually vanished and will act shocked or startled when the object reappears. Older infants who understand object permanence will realize that the person or object continues to exist even when unseen.

Sub stages of the Sensorimotor Stage

The sensorimotor stage can be divided into six separate sub stages that are characterized by the development of a new skill.

- **Reflexes (0-1 month):** During this substage, the child understands the environment purely through inborn reflexes such as sucking and looking.
- **Primary Circular Reactions (1-4 months):** This substage involves coordinating sensation and new schemas. For example, a child may such his or her thumb by accident and then later intentionally repeat the action. These actions are repeated because the infant finds them pleasurable.
- **Secondary Circular Reactions (4-8 months):** During this substage, the child becomes more focused on the world and begins to intentionally repeat an action in order to trigger a response in the environment. For example, a child will purposefully pick up a toy in order to put it in his or her mouth.
- **Coordination of Reactions (8-12 months):** During this substage, the child starts to show clearly intentional actions. The child may also combine schemas in order to achieve a desired effect. Children begin exploring the environment around them and will often imitate the observed behavior of others. The understanding of objects also begins during this time and children begin to recognize certain objects as having specific qualities. For example, a child might realize that a rattle will make a sound when shaken.
- **Tertiary Circular Reactions (12-18 months):** Children begin a period of trial-and-error experimentation during the fifth substage. For example, a child may try out different sounds or actions as a way of getting attention from a caregiver.
- **Early Representational Thought (18-24 months):** Children begin to develop symbols to represent events or objects in the world in the final sensorimotor substage. During this time, children begin to move towards understanding the world through mental operations rather than purely through actions. The preoperational stage is the second stage in Piaget's theory of cognitive development. This stage begins around age two as children start to talks and last until approximately age seven. During this stage, children begin to engage in symbolic play and learn to manipulate symbols. However, Piaget noted that they do not yet understand concrete logic.

Characteristics of the Preoperational Stage

The preoperational stage occurs roughly between the ages two and seven. Language development is one of the hallmarks of this period. Piaget noted that children in this stage do not yet understand concrete logic, cannot mentally manipulate information, and are unable to take the point of view of other people, which he termed egocentrism. During the preoperational stage, children also become increasingly adept at using symbols, as evidenced by the increase in playing and pretending. For example, a child is able to use an object to represent something else, such as pretending a broom is a horse. Role playing also becomes important during the preoperational stage. Children often play the roles of "mommy," "daddy," "doctor" and many other characters.

Egocentrism

Piaget used a number of creative and clever techniques to study the mental abilities of children. One of the famous techniques to demonstrate egocentrism involved using a three-dimensional display of a mountain scene. Often referred to as the "Three Mountain Task," children are asked to choose a picture that showed the scene they had observed. Most children are able to do this with little difficulty. Next, children are asked to select a picture showing what someone else would have observed when looking at the mountain from a different viewpoint. Invariably, children almost always choose the scene showing their own view of the mountain scene. According to Piaget, children experience this difficulty because they are unable to take on another person's perspective.

Conservation

Another well-known experiment involves demonstrating a child's understanding of conservation. In one conservation experiment, equal amounts of liquid are poured into two identical containers. The liquid in one container is then poured into a different shaped cup, such as a tall and thin cup or a short and wide cup. Children are then asked which cup holds the most liquid. Despite seeing that the liquid amounts were equal, children almost always choose the cup that appears fuller. Piaget conducted a number of similar experiments on the conservation of number, length, mass, weight, volume, and quantity. He found that few children showed any understanding of conservation prior to the age of five.

THE CONCRETE OPERATIONAL STAGE

The third in Piaget's theory of cognitive development. This period spans the time of middle childhood and is characterized by the development of **logical thought**. While kids at this age become more logical about concrete and specific things, they still struggle with abstract ideas.

Characteristics of the Concrete Operational Stage

The concrete operational stage begins around **age seven and continues until approximately age eleven**. During this time, children gain a better understanding of mental operations. Children begin thinking logically about concrete events, but have difficulty understanding abstract or hypothetical concepts.

Logic

Piaget determined that children in the concrete operational stage were fairly good at the use of**inductive logic (inductive reasoning)**. Inductive logic involves going from a specific experience to a general principle. An example of inductive logic would be noticing that every time you are around a cat, you have an itchy eyes, a runny nose, and a swollen throat. You might then reason from that experience that you are allergic to cats. On the other hand, children at this age have difficulty using deductive logic, which involves using a general principle to determine the outcome of a specific event. For example, a child might learn that A=B, and B=C, but might still struggle to understand that A=C.

Reversibility

One of the most important developments in this stage is an understanding of **reversibility**, or awareness that actions can be reversed. An example of this is being able to reverse the order of relationships between mental categories. For example, a child might be able to recognize that his or her dog is a Labrador, that a Labrador is a dog, and that a dog is an animal.

Other Key Characteristics

Another key development at this stage is the understanding that when something changes in shape or appearance it is still the same, a concept known as **conservation**.

Kids at this stage understand that if you break a candy bar up into smaller pieces it is still the same amount at when the candy was whole.

The concrete operational stage is also marked by the disappearance of **egocentrism**. While children in the preceding stage of development (the preoperational stage) struggle to take the perspective of others, kids in the concrete stage are able to think about things the way that others see them. In Piaget's Three-Mountain Task, for example, children in the concrete operational stage can describe how a mountain scene would look to an observer seated opposite them.

THE FORMAL OPERATIONAL STAGE

Is the fourth and final stage of Piaget's theory of cognitive development. The emergence of abstract thought and hypothetical reasoning mark this phase of development. At this point in development, thinking becomes much more sophisticated and advanced. Kids can think about abstract and theoretical concepts and use logic to come up with creative solutions to problems.

Characteristics of the Formal Operational Stage

- The formal operational stage begins at approximately **age twelve and lasts into adulthood**.
- During this time, people develop the ability to think about abstract concepts.
- Skills such as logical thought, deductive reasoning, and systematic planning also emerge during this stage.

How Did Piaget Test Formal Operations?

Piaget tested formal operational thought in a few different ways:

- One task involved having children of different ages balance a scale by hooking weights on the each end.
- To balance the scale, the children needed to understand that both the heaviness of the weights and the distance from the center played a role.

Younger children around the ages of 3 and 5 were unable to complete the task because they did not understand the concept of balance. Seven-year-olds knew that they could adjust the scale by placing weights on each end, but failed to understand that where they put the weights was also important. By age 10, the kids considered location as well as weight but had to arrive at the correct answer using trial-and-error. It wasn't until around age 13 that children

could use logic to form a hypothesis about where to place the weights to balance the scale and then complete the task.

Logic

Piaget believed that **deductive reasoning** became necessary during the formal operational stage. Deductive logic requires the ability to use a general principle to determine a particular outcome. Science and mathematics often require this type of thinking about hypothetical situations and concepts.

Abstract Thought

While children tend to think very concretely and specifically in earlier stages, the ability to think about **abstract concepts** emerges during the formal operational stage. Instead of relying solely on previous experiences, children begin to consider possible outcomes and consequences of actions. This type of thinking is important in long-term planning.

Problem-Solving

In earlier stages, children used trial-and-error to solve problems. During the formal operational stage, the ability to **systematically solve a problem** in a logical and methodical way emerges. Children at the formal operational stage of cognitive development are often able to plan quickly an organized approach to solving a problem.

Other Characteristics of the Formal Operational Stage

Piaget believed that what he referred to as "hypothetico-deductive reasoning" was essential at this stage of intellectual development. At this point, teens become capable of thinking about **abstract and hypothetical ideas**. They often ponder "what-if" type situations and questions and can think about multiple solutions or possible outcomes.

While kids in the previous stage (concrete operations) are very particular in their thoughts, kids in the formal operational stage become increasingly abstract in their thinking. They also develop what is known as **metacognition**, or the ability to think about their thoughts as well as the ideas of others.

2.2. KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT:

Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children, which he believed follows a series of stages.Kohlberg defined three levels of moral development: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Each level has two distinct stages.During the preconventional level, a child's sense of morality is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of authority figures, such as parents and teachers, and they judge an action based on its consequences.During the conventional level, an individual's sense of morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Children continue to accept the rules of authority figures, but this is now because they believe that this is necessary to ensure positive relationships and societal order.During the postconventional level, a person's sense of morality is defined in terms of more abstract principles and values. People now believe that some laws are unjust and should be changed or eliminated.Kohlberg's theory has been criticized for its cultural and gendered bias toward white, upper-class men and boys. It also fails to account for inconsistencies within moral judgments.

Morality

Recognition of the distinction between good and evil or between right and wrong; respect for and obedience to the rules of right conduct; the mental disposition or characteristic of behaving in a manner intended to produce good results. Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children. Kohlberg believed that moral development, like cognitive development, follows a series of stages. He used the idea of moral dilemmas—stories that present conflicting ideas about two moral values—to teach 10 to 16 year-old boys about morality and values. The best known moral dilemma created by Kohlberg is the "Heinz" dilemma, which discusses the idea of obeying the law versus saving a life. Kohlberg emphasized that it is the way an individual reasons about a dilemma that determines positive moral development. After presenting people with various moral dilemmas, Kohlberg reviewed people’s responses and placed them in different stages of moral reasoning. According to Kohlberg, an individual progresses from the capacity for pre-conventional morality (before age 9) to the capacity for conventional morality (early adolescence), and toward attaining post-conventional morality (once Piaget's idea of formal operational thought is attained), which only a few fully achieve. Each level of

morality contains two stages, which provide the basis for moral development in various contexts.

KOHLBERG'S STAGES OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Kohlberg identified three levels of moral reasoning: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. Each level is associated with increasingly complex stages of moral development.

LEVEL 1: PRECONVENTION

Throughout the preconvention level, a child's sense of morality is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of authority figures, such as parents and teachers. A child with pre-conventional morality has not yet adopted or internalized society's conventions regarding what is right or wrong, but instead focuses largely on external consequences that certain actions may bring.

- **Stage 1: Obedience-and-Punishment Orientation** Stage 1 focuses on the child's desire to obey rules and avoid being punished. For example, an action is perceived as morally wrong because the perpetrator is punished; the worse the punishment for the act is, the more "bad" the act is perceived to be.
- **Stage 2: Instrumental Orientation** Stage 2 expresses the "what's in it for me?" position, in which right behavior is defined by whatever the individual believes to be in their best interest. Stage two reasoning shows a limited interest in the needs of others, only to the point where it might further the individual's own interests. As a result, concern for others is not based on loyalty or intrinsic respect, but rather a "you scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours" mentality. An example would be when a child is asked by his parents to do a chore. The child asks "what's in it for me?" and the parents offer the child an incentive by giving him an allowance.

LEVEL 2: CONVENTIONAL

Throughout the conventional level, a child's sense of morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Children continue to accept the rules of authority figures, but this is now due to their belief that this is necessary to ensure positive relationships and societal order. Adherence to rules and conventions is somewhat rigid during these stages, and a rule's appropriateness or fairness is seldom questioned.

Stage 3: Good Boy, Nice Girl Orientation In stage 3, children want the approval of others and act in ways to avoid disapproval. Emphasis is placed on good behavior and people being "nice" to others.

Stage 4: Law-and-Order Orientation In stage 4, the child blindly accepts rules and convention because of their importance in maintaining a functioning society. Rules are seen as being the same for everyone, and obeying rules by doing what one is "supposed" to do is seen as valuable and important. Moral reasoning in stage four is beyond the need for individual approval exhibited in stage three. If one person violates a law, perhaps everyone would—thus there is an obligation and a duty to uphold laws and rules. Most active members of society remain at stage four, where morality is still predominantly dictated by an outside force.

LEVEL 3: POST-CONVENTIONAL

Throughout the post conventional level, a person's sense of morality is defined in terms of more abstract principles and values. People now believe that some laws are unjust and should be changed or eliminated. This level is marked by a growing realization that individuals are separate entities from society and that individuals may disobey rules inconsistent with their own principles. Post-conventional moralists live by their own ethical principles—principles that typically include such basic human rights as life, liberty, and justice—and view rules as useful but changeable mechanisms, rather than absolute dictates that must be obeyed without question. Because post-conventional individuals elevate their own moral evaluation of a situation over social conventions, their behavior, especially at stage six, can sometimes be confused with that of those at the pre-conventional level. Some theorists have speculated that many people may never reach this level of abstract moral reasoning.

Stage 5: Social-Contract Orientation In stage 5, the world is viewed as holding different opinions, rights, and values. Such perspectives should be mutually respected as unique to each person or community. Laws are regarded as social contracts rather than rigid edicts. Those that do not promote the general welfare should be changed when necessary to meet the greatest good for the greatest number of people. This is achieved through majority decision and inevitable compromise. Democratic government is theoretically based on stage five reasoning.

Stage 6: Universal-Ethical-Principal Orientation In stage 6, moral reasoning is based on abstract reasoning using universal ethical principles. Generally, the chosen principles are abstract rather than concrete and focus on ideas such as equality, dignity, or respect. Laws are valid only insofar as they are grounded in justice, and a commitment to justice carries with it an obligation to disobey unjust laws. People choose the ethical principles they want to follow, and if they violate those principles, they feel guilty. In this way, the individual acts because it is morally right to do so (and not because he or she wants to avoid punishment), it is in their best interest, it is expected, it is legal, or it is previously agreed upon. Although Kohlberg insisted that stage six exists, he found it difficult to identify individuals who consistently operated at that level.

2.3. CAROL GILLIGAN: MORAL DEVELOPMENT

Carol Gilligan was born on November 28, 1936, in New York City. She has received her doctorate degree in social psychology from Harvard University in 1964 and began teaching at Harvard in 1967. Then in 1970 she became a research assistant for the great theorist of moral development, Lawrence Kohlberg. Eventually Gilligan became independent and began to criticize some of Kohlberg' s work. Her opinions were presented in her famous book, " In a different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women ' s Development " which was published in 1982. She felt that Kohlberg only studied " privileged, white men and boys. " Gilligan said that this caused a biased opinion against women. She felt that , in Kohlberg ' s stage theory of moral development, the male view of individual rights and rules was considered a higher stage than women's point of view of development in terms of its caring effect on human relationships. “Gilligan ' s goal is was to prove that women are not " moral midgets " , she was going against many psychological opinions. Another famous theorist, Freud thought women’s moral sense was stunted because they stayed attached to their mothers. Another great theorist, Erik Erickson, thought the tasks of development were separation from mother and the family , If women did not succeed in this scale, then they were obviously lacking. Therefore Gilligan’s goal was a good cause.

BOOKS

She has authored and coauthored numerous books and publications. Considered her principal publications in addition to *In a Different Voice* are: *Women, Girls, and Psychotherapy: Reframing Resistance*(1991), *Meeting at the Crossroads* (1992), *Between Voice and Silence:*

Women and Girls, Race and Relationship (1995), and her soon to be published book titled *The Birth of Pleasure* which is due out in 2002.

Stages of Ethics of Care

Like Kohlberg, Gilligan proposed three stages in her Ethics of Care theory: preconvention, conventional and post conventional. Within each stage there are goals and specific transition points that move the individual through the stages. Gilligan suggests that these transitions are fuelled by changes in the sense of self rather than in changes in cognitive capability

Her theory is divided into three stages of moral development beginning from " selfish , to social or conventional morality , and finally to post conventional or principled morality . " Women must learn to deal to their own interests and to the interests of others. She thinks that women hesitate to judge because they see the complexities of relationships.

Pre Conventional

Person only cares for themselves in order to ensure survival This is how everyone is as children In this transitional phase, the person 's attitude is considered selfish, and the person sees the connection between themselves and others.

Conventional

Responsibility more cares shown for other people. Gilligan says this is shown in the role of Mother & Wife Situation sometimes carries on to ignoring needs of self. In this transitional phase, tensions between responsibility of caring for others and caring for self are faced.

Post Conventional

Acceptance of the principle of care for self and others is shown. Some people never reach this level.

Gilligan’s Theory and Society

Gilligan's ideas are against the struggle of women against our society's idea of their " genderdetermined " role. According to Gilligan , women can gain personal independence after they forget about the idea that their proper role is to overcome their interests to the interests of their husbands, children, or other people they care about. Gilligan says that in our

society women really like to help others, however they should care just as much about themselves as the do about others.

Gilligan's Theory and Education

Carol Gilligan's theory helps both men and women in seeing each other in a different perspective. In terms of education everyone should focus on it and everyone's need for education is important. A person should not put the needs of others in front of their own, especially in the case of education

Gilligan's Theory and the Workplace

A person could undergo this process of "the ethic of care" when entering a new job. The conventional stage is shown when the job is just acuired, and a good impression is trying to be made. This is followed by the conventional stage, which can be seen after developing relationships with colleagues. This might be followed by the post conventional stage when care for oneself and another colleague might be equal. (Not everyone reaches the post conventional stage)

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