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ON CRIME PREVENTION
AND CONTROL

Minnesota
CHILDREN AND THE LAW

PROJECT EVALUATION

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Minnesota
CHILDREN AND THE LAW

An Evaluation

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SUMMARY

The Children and the Law program was developed in Ramsey County in the mid-sixties in response to rising rates of juvenile delinquency and a felt need for educating children about law and the legal system. In 1970 it was expanded to include schools throughout the state and came under the sponsorship of the Minnesota Bar Association. For the school years 1972-1973 and 1973-1974 it received \$35,327.00 in federal funding and \$2,057.00 in state funding. During this time, the Minnesota Bar Association and the Minnesota Bar Foundation contributed \$13,015.00 of which \$4,850.00 was in-kind match services. The program aims to provide fifth grade students with information about law and the legal system, to familiarize them with persons in legal roles, and as much as possible, to affect their future behavior with relation to the law. The program generally is allocated ten to fifteen hours of class time and includes six twenty-minute films, assignments in a short workbook, a panel discussion and perhaps a tour of police or court facilities. Individual teachers organize these activities as they see fit and frequently supplement them with additional discussions or activities based on suggestions in the teacher materials for the program.

This study was undertaken to evaluate the effects of the program on students. Three questions have been dealt with. (1) Does increased comprehension and learning about the legal system occur? (2) Do students develop an understanding of the societal concept of law or the theory of law? (3) Are students' law-related attitudes and beliefs changed? As much as possible this evaluation aims to give quantitative answers to these questions

and to precisely describe what is and what is not learned. It also aims to describe the effects of the program within the long-term context of a child's law-related development. The first step in this evaluation was the development of an instrument to evaluate the three above questions. This instrument was administered to fifth grade students in four schools both before and after their participation in the Children and the Law program. Results were analyzed to determine where learning and change had occurred. These results indicate that learning and change occurred in some areas but did not occur in other important areas.

A. COMPREHENSION AND LEARNING

Comprehension and learning were evaluated by twenty-three objective items. It was found that of eight items which the average student did not answer correctly on the pre-test, he or she learned the correct answer to slightly more than one. Girls accounted for twice as much of this learning as boys. The amount of learning varied from school to school, suggesting that teachers play a major role in the effectiveness of the program. Learning was not confined to students with initial knowledge but occurred across all students.

The learning that occurred centered on structural and factual aspects of the legal system. A large proportion of students learned that the police do not make laws and many learned about the position of the police in relation to the government. Some students appear to have learned that police are limited by laws, that citizens should help with the process of law enforcement, and that the court is the ultimate source of decision. A

substantial number of students learned about the role of lawyers and about probation. A large proportion of students learned juvenile offenders are brought to a juvenile court and many learned that children are treated differently than adults. Students also learned that legal professions are open to all adults, specifically that the position of judge is open to women.

Some learning occurred as to the lawmaking system, but the data suggests that this learning was the result of individual teaching at two schools rather than a result of the common elements of the program. Students did not learn the important fact that the people who make laws work for "us, the people." They also appear not to have learned that laws must be interpreted from their general form to specific situations. Very little or no learning occurred among the thirty percent of the students who thought that a person could be sent to prison without going to court. The most notable absence of learning existed as to the rights of the accused. No learning occurred as to the principle of presumed innocence and no learning occurred as to the fact that the accused is still protected by the law. Further, little or no learning occurred as to the differences between civil and criminal court.

In summary, the program conveys some information to some students about the structure and workings of the legal system. However, it apparently fails to convey an understanding of individual rights, the system of governmental recourse and the interpretable nature of law.

B. THEORY OF LAW

Little change was found to occur in children's understanding of the societal concept of law. Of seven items dealing with the theory of law, only one showed significant change. In this domain, two open-ended questions from the work of Tapp (1971) were used to provide a linkage to the developmental construct of legal and moral reasoning (Tapp and Kohlberg, 1971). This construct or model specifies stages of children's understanding of law beginning from an orientation of law as serving an ordering and ethical function. Measured change on these items would have permitted some substantial inferences about the quantity, value and permanence of change. However, none was found. After exposure to Children and the Law, children had no greater tendency to describe the nature of laws as beneficial nor to see law from a societal perspective.

A significant percentage of students did come to see laws as more changeable but few or none gained an understanding that laws are changed in response to new problems. Further, no change occurred in the perceptions of the 30% of the population that believed that a law is like "a rule that a boss makes for his workers," rather than "a rule that the people in a club agree to follow."

The implication of these results is that the program maintains in children a prohibitive and prescriptive notion of law. Though theory of law is treated heavily in the "cavemen" sequence of the films, it appears that little increased understanding of the rational and beneficial nature of law occurs.

C. ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS

The program was found to have a positive effect on students' attitudes toward the police and to increase students' perception of the severity of the consequences for breaking the law. Attitudes toward police were measured by seven items asking about students' possible police-related actions and about stereotypes of the police. Two items showed notable change. One asks, "If you needed help, would you go to the police?" The other asks for agreement or disagreement with the statement "The police shoot off their guns too much." The implication is that the program has some positive effect on children's attitude toward the police and their beliefs about the police.

The question dealing with the severity of the consequences of breaking the law asks about the likely effect on a person of a criminal record for the theft of a camera from a store. Results showed that after the program, an increased proportion of students said that "he will not be able to get a job or do anything." While it is desirable that students understand the full nature of criminal sanctions, beliefs in this case have perhaps become exaggerated.

No change occurred on a scale of five items asking about students' willingness to obey the law in circumstances where there are competing personal motives. No change occurred in students' perception of their own position within the legal system as active agents rather than passive subjects.

D. LONG-TERM CONTEXT: KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDES, BEHAVIOR

It is reasonable to assume that the increased comprehension resultant from the program will be long-lasting. It is generally accepted that knowledge which is used is remembered and may serve as a stimulus for acquiring new knowledge (Bracht). It is likely that children will use knowledge about the legal system. Thus, the program most likely has some enduring effects on their understanding.

There is less of a basis for projecting the endurance of attitudinal changes. It is likely that, with time, present attitudes will be altered by competing impressions. Nonetheless, the familiarity with police and perhaps with other figures conveyed by the program has short-term value.

There is little basis to infer that the program has an effect on law-related behavior. Research suggests that a person's behavior with respect to the law has deep-seated origins. Attitude, which is the central target of the program, is only one component of behavior (DeFleur and Westie, 1963; Wicker, 1969). Measurable attitudinal change does not always result in behavioral change (Deutscher, 1966). In this program, there was not even a measurable attitudinal change in willingness to obey the law. Thus, attitudinal evaluation provides little basis for inferring behavioral change.

Increased understanding by students of the societal concept of law and the role of law in an ethical order would provide another basis upon which an inference of behavioral change could conceivably be made. However, no change was found to occur. A last way in which law-related behavior

could conceivably be affected is by a change in students' perception of law-related situations. The learning about the legal system and the change in students' perception of the severity of the consequences of breaking the law which occurred in the program might constitute such an effect, though it would be slight. The clear implication is that behavioral effects, if existent, are very minor. But in fact, one could not seriously expect very major effects on behavior from a program which involves only ten to fifteen hours.

E. STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT CHILDREN AND THE LAW

A nearly unanimous proportion of students reported that they liked the films and the program as a whole. Slightly fewer, but still a large majority, reported that they liked the student workbooks.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are made on the basis of this study.

1. Continue the program.

A number of researchers have suggested that the late elementary years are crucial to attitude and law-related development (Tapp, 1970; Portune, 1971; Easton and Dennis, 1969). Certainly education about the legal system should begin at this age. This evaluation has found that Children and the Law has some positive effects and causes some learning. The nearly unanimous liking of the program by the students further suggests the value of the program and confirms the impression that it deserves to be continued.

2. Develop different strategies of conveying an understanding of the theoretical concept of law.

Evidence is presented in this evaluation which suggests that a sense of the consensual and affirmative nature of law by children is highly valuable. Kohlberg (1973, page 375) states that the core of moral behavior is a sense of justice. Apparently the "cavemen" sequence in the films is not effective in conveying this understanding of law. Research suggests that teaching strategies which engage the students in legal and moral dilemmas can effectively raise children's understanding of the legal and moral order. It is suggested that the "cavemen" sequence is too vicarious and that the use of role playing, confrontation, or simulation game strategies should be explored. It is also suggested that the "cavemen" as well as the "hero" sequences could be spliced out of the films with no loss to the program.

3. Increase emphasis in the program on the position of children as active members of the legal system possessing rights.

Students who feel more a part of the legal system are likely to behave more responsibly within it. The fact that students did not learn about rights is a blatant gap in the program. Students should learn about their rights and about their responsibilities in the political system. Simultaneous with these increased emphases, it is suggested that there be a decreased emphasis on criminal sanctions. It is acceptable to give students a realistic perception of what the consequences of breaking the law are, but to exaggerate the consequences is not justifiable. Emphasis on punishment and mindless obedience treats children as objects. It is not likely to have the enduring positive value which a feeling of active participation will. Again, the suggestion of this study is to develop more participatory activities in the program.

4. Consider developing different materials for rural schools.

Several persons at rural schools indicated to this researcher that some of the materials were not relevant to their students. While development of two separate sets of materials is probably not worth the effort, some attention should be directed to this issue.

5. Continue and expand all sources of information about strategies of legal education.

Flow of ideas and communication are the most essential elements of improving and refining the effectiveness of such a program. Teachers have a professional expertise and should be used as consultants when considering

any changes or supplements to the program. They can also be used for gathering information on the responsiveness of students to different aspects of the program. Student evaluations should be employed on a regular basis. The experience of this research has been that teachers are very willing to cooperate, students like questionnaires, and students learn from answering them. Contacts should be developed with other similar programs in the country. Lastly, an eye should be maintained on present research in the area of children and law.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

The Children and the Law program is sponsored by the Minnesota Bar Association. It has received federal funding for two school years. In 1972-1973, it received \$17,729.00 and in 1973-1974 it received \$17,598.00, totaling \$35,327.00. In 1973-1974 it received an additional \$2,057.00 from the state. During these two years, the state Bar Association and Bar Foundation have contributed \$13,015.00. In 1972-1973 they contributed \$3,561.00 in monies and \$2,350.00 in in-kind match services. In 1973-1974 they contributed \$4,606.00 in monies and \$2,500.00 in in-kind match services. The \$61,108.00 of federal monies granted in 1970 for the making of the Children and the Law films has been included in the tabulation of the Children and the Law funding. However, these monies requested for the production of these films was sponsored by a film-making organization, not by the Bar Association. This organization produced the films primarily for the independent purposes of periodically broadcasting them on television. The Bar Association included the films in their Children and the Law program only after their request for funds to produce their own films was denied. Thus, the money spent on production of the films should not be included as funding for the Children and the Law program of the Bar Association, but as a separate program.

Children and the Law is one of many programs throughout the country intended to effect the course of children's developing orientation to law and to provide legal education. The Directory of Law-Related Educational Activities printed in 1972 by the Special Committee on Youth Education for

Citizenship of the American Bar Association lists over 175 different law-related educational programs. Thirty-seven of these include children in later elementary grades. Regrettably, very little evaluation of these programs exists, thus there is little basis to compare the effectiveness of their approaches with that of Children and the Law.

The stated objectives for Children and the Law are diverse. They include behavioral, attitudinal, and learning objectives. The priorities among these vary among the people involved in the program. The 1972 publication Children and the Law: A Program of Prevention: Community Guidelines stresses the role of the program in "preventative action." It describes the objective of the program as ". . . to arrest a tendency toward juvenile delinquency before it develops . . ." (page 2) and implies that it will clear out "crowded detention homes." The Guidelines for Panel Members (1972) states the objective of the program as encouraging a "respectful attitude" toward the law and toward people who work with the law (page 1). A goal of understanding is emphasized by the Teachers Guidelines (1972) which states: "'Children and the Law' is . . . an attempt to explain some of the formal procedures for peacemaking and resolving conflict that must be followed if people are to live together harmoniously." (page 1). Among these various objectives, it has been the impression of this researcher in talking with people involved in the program that the attitudinal objective, with the underlying implication of behavioral change, receives most stress. Understanding and informational objectives are frequently mentioned, but often they are seen as means to attitudinal and ultimately behavioral ends.

The materials of the program provide only a loose structure. The actual shape and the emphases of the program are determined by the teacher. Thus the content of the program, as well as the objectives, vary from class to class.

A model lesson plan is sent to teachers with the Children and the Law materials to provide suggestions for planning of the program. It lays out activities for six weeks in periods of about thirty minutes per day (fifteen hours total). These include additional films, discussions, and other classroom activities. Examples are: "Ask children to list laws they know to exist locally . . . Obtain from local Police Department a list of local ordinances," "Invite a speaker from the community (owner of a store, Better Business Bureau, etc.) to talk to the class on shoplifting." In most schools the program is confined to three or four weeks and involves ten to fifteen hours. Most teachers use some of these suggested activities, take suggestions from the teachers' guidelines, or create their own activities. In some schools, a tour of local police or court facilities is arranged. In most schools the Bar Association brings in a panel consisting of an attorney or judge and a police officer to speak with the class. The common core of the program used by almost all of the schools is the Children and the Law films and the student workbook.

A. THE FILMS

There are six films, each of which is approximately twenty minutes in length. A common structure exists in each. In the first five minutes there are continuing segments of a melodrama-mime sequence in the genre of Laurel

and Hardy or the Three Stooges. In this sequence a "hero" is mistakenly put into prison as a result of the scheming of a bully who, in succeeding segments, reappears to harass the hero as head of the jury and as the prison guard. The face value implication of the sequence is that crime is caused by "bad" people, humans are incompetent, and chaos is the natural state of human affairs. This researcher is puzzled as to whether there is any educational intent in this regressive farce, but presumably the major intent is entertainment.

In each film, a second continuing skit follows the first. In this sequence the viewer is transported to a "not-to-be-taken-too-literally" "cave-man" culture. In contrast to the Hobbsian atmosphere of the first skit, these "cave"-people live in a Rousseauian state of harmony with nature without laws. A custom develops among these blunderingly stupid people to roll round rocks which results in assorted conflicts. In response to these conflicts and other difficulties, the people by consensus initiate laws and a legal system to enforce laws. Each stage of the development of this system is presented sarcastically by the narrator as the obvious course. The objective of this sequence, as described by the Teachers' Manual is to bring students to an understanding of ". . . law as 'process', everchanging as society's needs require it" (page 2). The sequence attempts to show how every aspect of the legal system serves a functional need. At the end of each installment there is a time acceleration into the present to translate some of the concepts delineated in "cave" society to our own.

In each film the host uses this transition to introduce a respective

branch of the legal system and a guest representing that branch. Guests include a lawyer, a policeman, a judge, a probation officer, and a student council president. The host and a group of children ask questions of the guest. The films show pictures of respective facilities and in a few of the cases show the guest in that context. For example, one film shows a juvenile offender consulting with a probation officer. The emphasis in this last segment of each film is upon the roles of the guests. Although some important information is provided in this segment, the primary intent seems to be to convey familiarity and to establish a positive conventional image of the particular role. For example, the policeman is shown coaching an athletic team. It is made clear that he has children of his own and is like anyone else. Questions of the judge include: Does she have a hard time making decisions? What does she do if she does not like the person on trial? Each film ends with the host repeating a central theme such as "When society requires it, laws can be changed . . .," and ". . . law is everyone's responsibility. . ."

B. THE STUDENT WORKBOOK

The thirty-page Children and the Law student workbook is divided into four parts. In each part, hypothetical cases are used to present the material and pose questions to the students. There are also additional assignments and suggested activities.

The first part, which is the largest, presents examples of children breaking the law. It deals with these cases on a "feelings" level, showing the motive for the law violation and asking questions about the probable

feelings of the different people involved. For example, in a section on a girl who ran away from home, the questions are asked: "Have you ever wanted to run away from home?" and "How would your parents feel if you left home?" (page 2). Some of the questions probe alternate, non-criminal solutions to the problems and alternate ways of managing one's emotions. Other philosophical questions ask what is right behavior in a situation and what the law should be. For example, students are asked to agree or disagree with the statement "It may be all right to take something if you intend to return it." (page 4) and whether it is fair for job applications to ask about one's criminal record (page 9).

In the same pattern, Part II deals with police and law enforcement, Part III with the courts, and Part IV with law-making. The tone of the material avoids a "hard sell" of idealized stereotypes.* The questions permit children latitude to form their own opinions about such things as whether "Adults always act wisely" (page 15), "The police usually arrest the right person" (page 19), and "Lawyers and courts treat rich people better than poor people" (page 27). Of course, in the hands of a moralizing teacher these questions could be used as part of a "hard sell" approach, as in the case of one teacher who had students turn in their workbooks to be corrected.

In describing the program one always comes back to the teacher as the ultimate determinate. The teacher, occasionally with some help from the

*One exception to this is the entirely false implication that persons who break the law are almost always caught (page 11). Clark (1970, page 101) reports that barely one in nine of reported crimes results in a conviction.

principal or someone else, selects the materials to be used and shapes the tone and atmosphere of discussions. Thus, the program to be evaluated is in part a varying unknown. Due to the limitations of this study, it was not possible to isolate or control all varying factors. For purposes of evaluation the program has been considered as essentially uniform.

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The most significant research in the domain of children and law has been done by Glueck and Glueck (1950, 1968, 1972). Though it focuses on the delinquent minority, it carries implications for the generally law-abiding majority. The authors performed longitudinal research with one thousand boys in Boston to determine the origins of juvenile delinquency. They found parental treatment and early physical and personality elements to be highly correlated with the occurrence of delinquent behavior. From this research the Gluecks developed a table for predicting delinquency based on five familial factors. In eleven retrospective studies in the United States and several others in Europe and Japan, the tables were found to correctly identify as "likely delinquents" between 81 to 100 percent of persons in delinquent groups (Glueck and Glueck, 1972). A more thorough prospective study was conducted by the New York City Youth Board (Glick, 1972). They made predictions on the likely delinquency of 301 boys at ages five and six, based upon three familial factors specified by Glueck and Glueck. The boys were evaluated eleven years later at age seventeen. It was found that 28 of the 33 boys who had been predicted to become delinquent in fact had. Of 25 boys who had been predicted to have an "even" probability of becoming delinquent, nine were classed as delinquent. And in the larger group of those who had been predicted not to become delinquents, only nine of 243 had become delinquent.

The clear implication is that patterns of law-related behavior have early, deep-seated origins. In light of this research, it should be understood that a ten to fifteen hour program is not likely to have a dramatic

effect on the long-term pattern of behavior. While negative attitudes toward law and toward police may be symptomatic of developing delinquency, it is hardly probable that a brief, symptomatic treatment is going to overcome the more formidable underlying causes.

One researcher who might object to this statement is Portune. He developed a scale to measure attitudes toward police and has given it to many groups of children and adolescents in Cincinnati (Portune, 1971). He found that attitudes toward the police deteriorated in junior high years simultaneously with an increase in juvenile delinquency and that juvenile delinquent behavior tends to occur more frequently in persons with negative attitudes.* He found that six-week educational programs on law and the police in junior high affected measured attitudes toward police and presumes that behavior in turn was affected.

Hess and Turney (1967) also found a decline with age in attitudes toward police. But they found that attitudes toward other public figures such as the President and Senators followed a parallel and equivalent decline. Further, they found that teachers showed attitudes more negative than students. The implication is that the decline in attitude is more a product of unrealistically positive attitudes in young children than overwhelming cynicism in the junior high years. Tapp and Levine (1970, page 576) confirm this impression, stating that young children have a strong affective attachment to authority figures. Adelson, Green and O'Neil (1969, page 327) have contributed the supplemental finding that children at this age have an Orwellian

*The data which supported these findings was not presented (Portune, 1971, pages 23 - 24).

notion of the legal system, perceiving the police as omnipotent and having unlimited power to deal severe punishments to wrongdoers. Thus, if the highly positive attitudes of younger children are understood as a combination of strong affection and fear, Portune may be right in suggesting that deterioration of these attitudes toward police is linked to the onset of juvenile delinquency. But his implication that positive attitudes toward police are the necessary and only ingredient to law-abiding behavior is hardly adequate.

Another body of research has offered an alternate model for understanding what happens when a child's unrealistic fear and affection wears off. (Tapp and Kohlberg, 1971; Kohlberg, 1963; 1969; Kohlberg and Turiel, unpublished.) This research has examined the logic used by children (and adults) in dealing with moral and legal situations. It suggests that children advance through qualitatively distinct stages of ethical reasoning. At each level of reasoning their perception of the moral and legal order is reorganized to accommodate a more complex understanding of human society and their position in it. In the first level, morality exists as an egocentric balance of compliance and rewards or non-compliance and punishments. A child (or adult) at this level of thought deals with a situation in terms of personal outcome. He or she obeys the laws because of fear of punishment or more indirectly because of authority approval. This is the level at which a young child's strong affection and fear is effective in controlling his (or her) behavior but at which the increasing realism of an older child may permit delinquency. At the second level, morality exists as conformity with social norms. A child at this level comes to identify with societal patterns of behavior. She (or he) sees the value of rules as a source of order and

perceives law as essential to avoidance of societal chaos. This person obeys the law out of conformity and concern for societal order. At the third level, a person becomes oriented to the principles behind law. A person at this level obeys laws out of respect for the principles which they were designed to serve. The value of law is seen in terms of the affirmative role it plays in organizing society.

Some children advance to the higher levels; some do not. Assorted evidence suggests that such advancement is desirable. Kohlberg (1969, page 394) found level of moral reasoning to correlate with teachers' ratings of fair-mindedness (.54), teachers' ratings of conscientiousness (.46), and peer ratings of moral character (.58). Other research evaluated the tendency of sixth graders at different levels of moral reasoning to cheat in correcting test papers (Kohlberg, 1969, page 395). It was found that only twenty percent of the level three children cheated, while 67 percent of the level two children did, and 75 percent of the children at level one did. In Milgram's noted compliance study, in which subjects were asked to administer what appeared to be fatal charges of electricity to other persons, only 25 percent of the persons at the highest level of moral reasoning were willing to go along, while 87 percent of all others did (Kohlberg, 1969, page 395). Kohlberg concludes: "In our studies, we have found that youths who understand justice act more justly, and the man who understands justice helps create a moral climate which goes far beyond his immediate and personal acts." (Kohlberg, 1968.)

How moral development occurs and the causal relation of moral reasoning

and behavior are not entirely grasped by these researchers. However, it has been found that level of reasoning is very stable. Once a person advances she (or he) rarely regresses.* Level of reasoning at age sixteen was found to correlate at a rate of .78 with level of reasoning in the mid-twenties (Kohlberg, 1969, page 389). It has also been found that level of moral reasoning can be raised by intervention programs which engage the child in taking roles and exposing him or her to reasoning at a higher level (Kohlberg, 1969, pages 400 - 403). Kohlberg and Turiel (unpublished, page 55) suggest that the ages between ten and thirteen are crucial transitional ages and that moral education at this time may have a long-term effect.

While this model provides a broader perspective of the cognitive dimension of a child's developing relation to the law, it must be understood again that it represents only one dimension. It has not been shown that all children can be brought up to level three reasoning nor that everyone at level three will be law-supporting citizens.

*The exceptions occur when persons are put into lower level environments like prisons (Kohlberg, 1969, page 388).

METHOD

A. INSTRUMENTATION

1. Development of the Instrument

While a number of more direct behavioral evaluative strategies were considered, it was concluded that paper and pencil evaluation, with its limitation to essentially indirect verbal measurements, was the only strategy feasible for a study of this size. A multi-method paper and pencil evaluation instrument was developed to evaluate the multiple objectives stated for Children and the Law. This instrument includes objective comprehension items to evaluate learning, two open-ended questions from the work of Tapp (1971) to evaluate legal reasoning, and a variety of graded response items to evaluate attitudes and supplement the other areas. The instrument is presented in Appendix I.

The instrument was developed according to procedures prescribed in recent literature on educational evaluation (Bloom, Hasting and Madans, 1971; Gronbach, 1960; Diedrich, 1967; Gronlund, 1971; Nunnally, 1968; Yarrow, 1960). In the first stage objectives of the program were specifically broken down and defined. The content areas to be learned were explicated and the target attitudes to be changed were specified. This breakdown is presented in Table I (displayed on following page). The specification of objectives was based in part upon the materials in the films and workbooks and in part upon a judgment as to what basic knowledge about the legal system a fifth grade student should learn. In the second stage, open-ended items

TABLE I SPECIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES	
OBJECTIVES	ITEM
<u>Comprehension and Learning Objectives (pages 3 - 5)</u>	
1) The system of law-making	
a) laws are made and exist on the federal, state and local level	3
b) laws are permanent	4
c) the people who make laws work for the people	5
d) laws can be changed	14 (page 2)
2) The process of law enforcement	
a) police serve the government	8, 12
b) the police are limited by laws	6, 10
c) the police interpret the laws to specific situations	7, 9
d) citizens should help with law enforcement	11
3) The role of the courts and the criminal justice system	
a) court is a necessary step to prison	15
b) the court is the ultimate source of decision	13
c) lawyers are experts on the law	14
d) the accused has rights	16, 18
e) civil court vs. criminal court	19
f) probation	17
4) The special position of children in relation to the law	
a) children are treated differently from adults	20
b) child offenders are brought to juvenile court	21
5) The openness of roles in the legal system to women and to Blacks	
a) women	24, 25
b) Blacks	26, 27

TABLE I CONTINUED SPECIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES	
OBJECTIVES	ITEM
<u>The Theory of Law (page 2)</u>	
1) Legal reasoning	23, 24
2) Laws can be changed	14
3) Breakability of laws in certain circumstances	13
4) Laws are changed in response to new problems	22 (page 4)
5) Law is a relative system of order	2 (page 3)
6) Laws have a consensual basis	21
<u>Attitudes and Beliefs (pages 1 - 2)</u>	
1) Attitudes toward the role of the police	1 - 7
2) Willingness to obey the law in reasonable circumstances	8 - 12
3) Perception of the flexibility of the law	19, 20
4) Perception of students' position as active agent	15, 16
5) Perception of the severity of consequences of breaking the law	22, 1 (page 3)
6) Opinion of appropriate sanction for criminals	17

were generated for each of these objectives. These were administered to a sample of fifth graders and their responses were used in part for writing a large pool of objective items. This pool of items was administered to two successive sample groups to gauge which items would be most effective. The researcher also spent two days discussing items with individual students. Those which appeared to be unclear, too difficult, or too easy were changed or eliminated. Further, the items were discussed with a fifth grade teacher

and several persons familiar with law and with the Children and the Law program. Through this process of refinement and elimination, a final collection of items was selected which represented all of the specified areas of objectives. This constituted the final evaluation instrument.

The instrument contains three groups of questions dealing with three types of objectives. The first of these groups evaluated comprehension and learning. The second evaluates understanding of the theory of law and includes an evaluation of legal reasoning. The third evaluates attitudes and beliefs. Each of these groups is divided into sub-areas parallel with the breakdown of objectives specified in Table I.

2. Comprehension Items

The comprehension questions were intended to evaluate learning in five content areas. These five areas are: (1) the system of law-making, (2) the process of law enforcement, (3) the role of the courts and the criminal justice system, (4) the special position of children in relation to the law, and (5) the openness of roles in the legal system to women and to blacks. Items were based on essential concepts that had been specified for each area. About half of the items directly ask for knowledge of the concept. The other half pose hypothetical situations to test the ability to apply concepts to actual situations. On each of these items the student is given the choice of responding "I don't know."

3. Theory of Law

The central focus under theory of law was legal reasoning. Raising

level of legal reasoning as defined by Tapp and Kohlberg (1971) and less directly by others (Kohlberg, 1968, 1969, 1973; Kohlberg and Turiel, unpublished; Tapp and Levine, 1970; Adelson, Green and O'Neil, 1969) was included as an objective as it is congruent with the strong emphasis in the program on theory of law and because it provides reference to established constructs. Two open-ended questions used by Tapp (1971) were employed as the major means of evaluating legal reasoning: "What is a law?" and "Why should people follow rules?" They were coded according to categories specified by Tapp. Responses to these questions were coded by the author.

Five additional objective items were employed as supplementary to this domain of theory of law. These included two items on the breakability and the changeability of laws, which have been used by Tapp (1971) as open-ended questions.

4. Attitudes and Beliefs

Attitudinal questions deal with two major and several minor areas. The two major attitudinal areas are: (1) attitude toward and perception of the role of the police, and (2) willingness to obey and support the law in all reasonable circumstances. For each of these an intra-correlating attitudinal scale was constructed. In the first scale there are two items which ask about students' behavior relevant to police and five which ask about the students' belief about or perception of the police. The five items on the second scale ask students about what their behavior would be in hypothetical situations where the average person's obedience to the law might be questionable. A few of the questions are subject to criticism and negative

answers from persons thinking at a high level of legal and moral reasoning. It can be reasonably assumed, however, that virtually all of the fifth grade students are at lower levels. The scale is included to evaluate the strong (level one and two) emphasis that is placed in the program on obedience to the law.

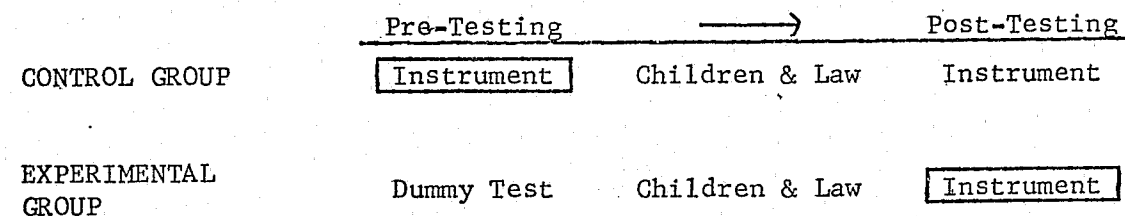
The first of the minor areas deals with students' perception of the flexibility of the legal system. The two questions for this domain involve a hypothetical situation in which the preservation of a life is in conflict with the law. The second of these minor areas deals with a perception by students of their own position as active agents rather than objects in the legal system. The third deals with students' understanding of the severity of the consequences of breaking the law, something which received major stress in the first years of the program and is still strongly emphasized. The fourth deals with the type of sanction which students feel appropriate for convicted criminals.

The majority of questions used for evaluation of attitudinal objectives were adapted from questions used by other researchers. Questions 1, 2, 4, and 11 were adapted from questions used by Bouma (1969). Questions 6 and 7 were adapted from questions used by Portune (1971). Questions 3 and 18 were adapted from items used by Hess and Turney (1969). Questions 9 and 19 were adapted from questions used by Lockhardt (1930).

On the post-test form of the instrument, three additional questions appeared asking students whether they liked the films, the workbook and the program as a whole.

B. PROCEDURE

The experimental measurement was based upon a comparison between pre- and post-tests. At the time of the pre-test each class was randomly divided into two groups. One group was given the actual instrument at that time. They were the control group. Their responses served as an estimate of the knowledge and attitudes of students in the class before any contact with Children and the Law. The other group was given a dummy test so that at the time of the post-test they had never seen the instrument. They were the experimental group. Their responses on the post-test served as an estimate of the knowledge and attitudes of students in the class after participation in Children and the Law. A comparison between the responses of the control (pre-test) group and the experimental (post-test) group indicated the learning and change which occurred within the class due to Children and the Law. This design can be diagrammed as follows:



The boxes demarcate the focal pre- and post-tests. It is noted that the control group also received the instrument at the time of post-testing. The data suggests that their responses on this testing were significantly affected by the fact that they had previously seen the instrument at the time of the pre-test (see "RESULTS" section.) However, responses on this testing have been used from time to time in the analysis of results to verify or disconfirm apparent trends in learning or change. This group of scores will be referred to as the "other post-test group."

This experimental design is among those given by Campbell and Stanley (1963) and has several advantages over more conventional designs. It avoids the problem of obtaining matched experimental and control groups. Randomization within classes assures that there are no population differences between students in the two groups. Also, it avoids unwanted effects of the pre-test on the learning of the experimental group, a source of error not controlled in the standard pre-test -- post-test control group design. As indicated above, a comparison of the post-tests of the experimental group with the "other post-test group" showed that with this instrument exposure to the pre-test significantly affected post-test responses and almost certainly would have distorted conclusions had the more standard design been used.

Campbell and Stanley (1963, page 53) suggest the possibility of three sources of error in this design: (1) the effects of history during the experimental period which affects the experimental (post-test) group but not the control (pre-test) group, (2) the effects of maturation during the experimental period which likewise affect the experimental but not the control group, and (3) an instrumentation effect resultant from different expectancies by the administrator at the time of the pre- and post-test.* Maturation or history effects over four or five weeks are very small. The experimental periods of the different schools was staggered, which Campbell and Stanley suggest largely controls effects due to history. They also suggest that maturational effects are not likely to be significant even in a

*A fourth source of error, listed by Campbell and Stanley for this design, "local trends" does not apply here as schools from four different localities were used.

survey extending several months. Instrumentation effects were minimized by standardization of administration procedure. All of the test administration was done by this researcher and a specific procedure was followed each time. The only possible effects in this category might occur from motivation linked to the administrator in the experimental group as a result of the dummy test. All of these possible sources of error, it is felt, could have been at most very small.

The students were divided into experimental and control groups, at the time of pre-testing, by simply mixing together the instrument and the dummy test and randomly passing them out. Half received the dummy and half received the actual instrument. Those who received the instrument constituted the control or pre-test group. Students were asked to write their birthdays on their forms and this information was used to match pre- and post-test forms. Any post-test form that did not have a matching pre-test (among the actual tests) was included in the focal post-test group. Those which did have a matching pre-test were included in the "other post-test group." Persons absent at the time of pre-testing, which in one case amounted to 40 percent of the students, were included in the post-test group. The possible imbalance in number of students in control and experimental groups due to absentees was avoided by administering slightly fewer dummy tests than actual instruments at the time of pre-testing.

A policy of anonymity was maintained for students, teachers, and the schools. Students were explicitly told that the questionnaire had nothing to do with their grades and that no one in the school would see what they

wrote down. No results were tabulated for individual teachers within schools. No schools are identified in this report.

The pre-test was given approximately one week before the beginning of the program and the post-test approximately one week after its completion. This resulted in experimental periods from four to five weeks in length.

At the time of the post-test, a special questionnaire was given to the teachers to identify variations in their presentation of the program (Appendix 2). The questionnaire asked for the amount of class time spent, the activities undertaken, the objectives of the teacher in presenting the program, a characterization of the teacher's teaching approach, and the teacher's opinion of the program.

C. SAMPLE

The evaluation sample consisted of 315 fifth grade students from four schools. Schools were selected on the criteria of locality in the state, school size, urban versus rural location, and an economic status estimate based on data obtained from the state board of education on the number of students in each school eligible for free lunches. The sample was intended to represent the range of schools presently participating in the Children and the Law program. Because selection of schools was limited to those schools participating in the program during the evaluation period, it was not possible to obtain an inner-city school or a school from a large non-metropolitan town.

A description of each of the four schools was obtained from the schools!

principals and from the state board of education. The four schools are briefly described as follows: (1) a school of 470 students in a southern Minnesota town of 1,600. The population is white, middle class and the crime rate is low. Though it had been expected that these students would represent a mid-sized town population, it was found that only about thirty percent of the students lived in the town and seventy percent lived on farms. (2) A suburban school of 680 students. The population is white, upper-middle class and the crime rate is moderate. The school had a police-liaison program and thus the students had probably had higher than average police contact. (3) A Roman Catholic school of 280 students in a town of 1,300 to the west of the Twin Cities. The population is white, middle class and the crime rate is low. Over half of the students live outside the town. (4) A school of 490 students in a town of 900 in north central Minnesota. The population is middle and lower class and there are about thirty minority students in the school. The crime rate is low. A majority of the students live outside the town.

In each of the schools all of the fifth grade students participated in the evaluation. As the suburban school was substantially larger, approximately forty percent of the students in the sample were from the Twin Cities metropolitan area. Another twenty percent lived in small towns and about forty percent were rural.

The presentation of Children and the Law varied from school to school. (1) In the suburban school, the program was presented by one teacher to all of three sections. About fifteen hours was spent in each section. It was the first time that this teacher had presented the program. He used several

supplementary films in addition to the regular activities. The guest panel was scheduled to take place some time after the post-test, thus its effects have not been included in the measurement. He said that he put a fifty-fifty emphasis on conveying information and affecting attitudes. (2) In the suburban school two teachers each presented the program to two classes. Both had presented it once before. Each spent a total of ten hours on the program with their classes. A panel consisting of a police officer and an attorney had appeared before all four classes. One teacher held practice trials on the cases in the workbook. One saw her objective largely in terms of affecting attitudes, the other in terms of conveying information. (3) In the western school one teacher presented the program to both of two sections, spending about ten hours on it with each. She had not presented the program before. Supplementary activities had included role playing. There was no guest panel. (4) In the north central school the program was presented by two teachers. One spent eight hours, the other spent twelve. Though the program was complete at the time of the post-test, the panel discussion was still in the process of being scheduled. Additional activities in these classes included role playing and collecting newspaper articles. Both teachers stated their objectives as partly attitudinal and partly informational. Neither had presented the program before. Both criticized the fantasy, repetitiousness, and absence of "actual information" in the films (all of the other teachers used superlative language in reference to the films) but liked the workbooks.

With the exception of the two teachers in this last school, all expressed a high level of enthusiasm for the program. All teachers including these two said that they would consider presenting the program again. All of the

teachers characterized their approach as leading students to make their own decisions, rather than teaching them right from wrong. All said that the fact that they were part of an evaluation did not affect their presentation of the program.

RESULTS

Data was analyzed for the three groups of items: comprehension items, legal reasoning items, and attitudinal items.

A. COMPREHENSION

1. Overall

Analysis of data indicates that some learning occurred between pre- and post-tests. For the 23 comprehension items, the mean pre-test score was 14.9 and the mean post-test score was 16.2. This difference was highly significant ($df = 314$; $t = 3.33$; $sign .001$; one-tailed test). It can be inferred that of the eight items that the average student did not know at the time of the pre-test, he or she learned the answer to slightly more than one, a gain of about sixteen percent. This statistic will be given more meaning in the item by item analysis below.

The distribution of scores for pre- and post-test groups is plotted in Figure 1. This plot shows that there is both a decrease in the number of students receiving lower scores (9 - 12) and an increase in the number of students receiving higher scores (19 - 22). Thus, the increase in the mean score was probably not due exclusively to learning by students with high or low initial knowledge but represents an increase in comprehension by all of the students. An analysis of scores by sex indicates that a great proportion of the learning occurred in girls (see Table 2).

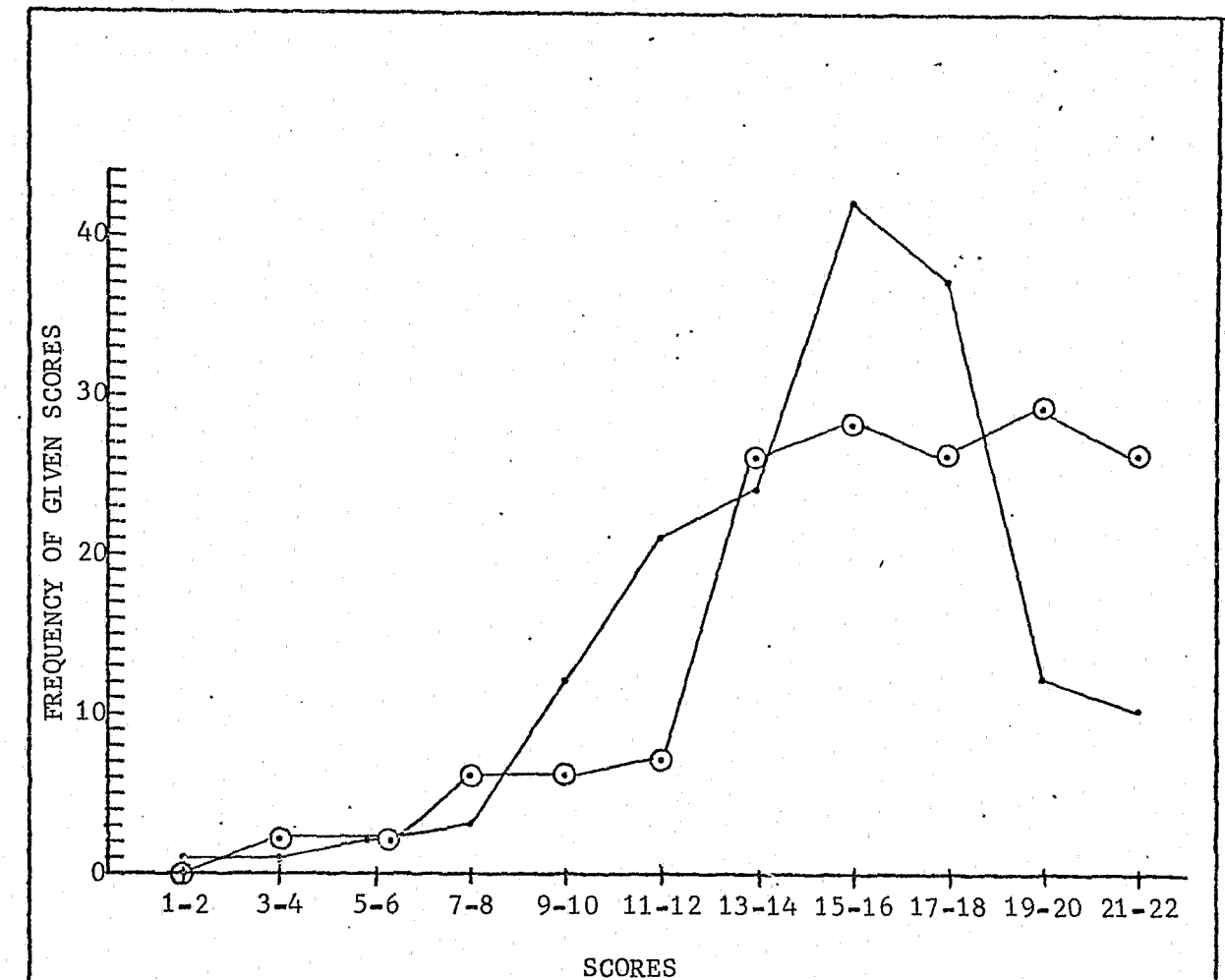


FIGURE 1

Frequency of scores on the comprehension items for the pre- and post-test groups. Solid points indicate the frequency of scores among the pre-test group. Circled points indicate the frequency of scores for the post-test group.

TABLE 2
AVERAGE SCORES ON COMPREHENSION ITEMS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Other Post-Test Group		Significance Pre-Test vs. Post-Test
	N	Average	N	Average	N	Average	
Girls	80	14.6	88	16.4	68	17.0	.002
Boys	87	15.2	71	16.1	81	16.6	---
TOTAL	167	14.9	159	16.2	149	16.8	.002

Girls appear to have learned twice as much as boys. There were also differences between schools as delineated in Table 3.

TABLE 3
AVERAGE SCORES ON COMPREHENSION ITEMS FOR DIFFERENT SCHOOLS

School	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Other Post-Test Group		Significance Pre-Test vs. Post-Test
	N	Average	N	Average	N	Average	
Southern School	41	14.6	34	16.6	37	17.7	.05
Suburban School	59	15.9	63	16.8	51	17.5	---
Western School	30	13.5	26	12.8	27	13.7	---
North Cent. School	37	14.8	36	17.4	34	17.2	.002

All schools show increased mean scores from pre-test to post-test.

except for the western school. The scores of this school stimulated a thorough checking of key punching accuracy and other aspects of data analysis, but no errors were found. No explanation is available to explain this lack of change except lack of learning. Chance sampling factors may have been a partial cause but not an entire one. This post-test was given on the morning of Valentine's Day, but there was no evidence to suggest that this was a major factor.

The size of the total sample permitted an item-by-item significance analysis. Differences between the percentage of students answering an item correctly on the pre-test and the post-test were analyzed by a one-tailed proportional significance test (Walker and Lev, 1969, page 188). With a sample of 315, a difference of ten percent is detected as significant at the .05 level when percentages are near fifty percent. When the percentages are nearer to 0 or 100, a smaller difference is needed to be assessed as significant. A criteria of .05 has been used for significance testing. Differences with a significance of .10 have been reported as "marginally" significant. The percentages of the "other post-test group" serve as additional support for the significance of change on items. In all of the cases where marginal significance is reported, the percentages of the group reiterate the implication that change has occurred. It is noted that significance testing is not a measure of the quantity of learning but merely a measure of the assurance that learning occurred. An item can be assessed as significant though eighty percent of the population who did not know the answer at the time of the pre-test still did not know the answer at the time of the post-test.

Differences in pre- and post-test percentages were found to be significant on 7 of the 23 comprehension items. Four additional items were found to be marginally significant at the .10 level. The percentages for each item are presented in Table 4 (displayed on following page).

2. The System of Law-Making

In the first comprehension area, the system of law-making, one of the three items showed marginal significance. This item (4*) deals with the permanence of laws, asking "How long does a law passed in 1916 last?" for which the answer is "forever unless it is changed." A total of 52 percent of the students on the pre-test answered it correctly and sixty percent answered it correctly on the post-test. This difference is accounted for by two schools where the differences in percentages are much greater and the item is significant at the .05 level. The clear implication is that the learning of this concept that occurred resulted from individual teaching efforts, rather than from the shared materials of the program.

For the group as a whole, it cannot be said with assurity that any learning occurred on the other two items in this domain. The first (3) asked for an understanding that laws are made and exist on the local, state, and federal level. This distinction of levels of government is indirectly referred to in the student workbook (page 28) but the forty percent of the population that did not understand it at the time of the pre-test apparently did not learn it in the program. The other question in this domain (5) asks

* All comprehension items are found on pages 3, 4, and 5 of the instrument.

Item	Pre-Test Group N = 166	Post-Test Group N = 159	Other Post-Group N = 149	Significance Pre-Test vs. Post-Test
2*	27	22	24	
3	60	63	68	
4	52	60	67	.10
5	36	38	47	
6	44	52	49	.10
7	52	39	49	
8	39	55	58	.01
9	78	81	79	
10	96	91	91	
11	83	89	92	.10
12	50	88	86	.001
13	83	89	92	.10
14	31	55	56	.001
15	73	68	71	
16	39	39	43	
17	37	63	57	.001
18	79	77	81	
19	71	72	77	
20	69	80	84	.05
21	62	86	88	.001
22*	82	79	84	
24	93	97	99	.05
25	96	96	99	
26	95	97	97	
27	100	97	98	

* These items are "theory of law" items.

for whom the people who make laws work. That they work for "us, the people" seems like a decisive fact that should be transmitted in such a program, yet for all schools no significant learning occurred among the 64 percent of the population not answering the item correctly on the pre-test. A slight increase in the percentage for the totals is accounted for by one school where differences in percentages were significant at the .05 level.

Elsewhere it will be shown that some students did learn that laws were changable, a fourth concept in this area (Table 8, page 57). Aside from this it appears that very little knowledge about the system of law-making was transmitted by the common elements of the program. Rather, it is suggested that the learning that took place in this area resulted from the unique activities or teachers' efforts at individual schools.

3. Law Enforcement

Of the seven questions in the second comprehension area, law enforcement, two were highly significant and two had marginal significance. The two highly significant items deal with an understanding that police serve the government. Question 12 asks "Do police make laws?" The fact that they do not is written on the cover of the student workbook. Of the fifty percent of the population that did not answer the item correctly on the pre-test, 77 percent appear to have learned this fact during the program. Question 8 carries this concept a little further asking whether the police must enforce a new law. The pre-test percentage was 39; the post-test percentage was 55, a difference significant at the .01 level. Learning on both of these items appears to have occurred across all of the schools.

Change was not as remarkable on the two items dealing with the limitations of police by law. Question 6 asks, "If the police know that somebody broke the law, can they do anything they want to catch the criminal and get evidence?" An increase in percentages on the pre- and post-tests from 44 to 52 was marginally significant. Question 10 poses the hypothetical situation of a police officer driving through a red light to get home to his family and asks whether he is breaking the law. A total of 96 percent of the students said "yes" on the pre-test so there existed little latitude for change.

No significant learning was found to occur as to the role of the police in interpreting laws to specific situations. Question 7 asks "Do laws tell the police exactly what to do in a situation?" The percentage correct on this item dropped from 52 on the pre-test to 39 on the post-test; however, this negative trend was not supported by the data for the other post-test group. Question 9, which asks whether two police officers watching someone might possibly disagree about whether to arrest that person, showed no significant change.

Question 11 deals with the citizen's responsibility to help enforce laws, an idea expressed in the films. It asks whether someone should volunteer the fact that he or she witnessed an accident or should stay out of the way of the police. Difference in percentages on this item are marginally significant. However, the fact that 83 percent of all students answered correctly on the pre-test somewhat inhibited the latitude of measurement. Change on this item occurred across three of the four schools.

In summary, in the area of law enforcement major learning occurred as

to the relation of the police to the government, some learning possibly occurred as to the limitations of police by the law, substantial learning probably occurred as to the citizen's role in helping to enforce laws, and an insignificant amount of learning, if any, occurred as to the role of the police in interpreting laws. The fact that changes occurred across schools suggests that learning was stimulated by the common materials of Children and the Law.

4. Courts and Criminal Justice

In the third comprehension area, the role of the courts and the criminal justice system, of seven items two were highly significant and one had marginal significance. The first question in this area (13) evaluated understanding of the role of the court as the ultimate source of decision: "A police officer says that Bonnie broke the law. Bonnie says that she did not. Who will decide whether she broke the law?" A total of 83 percent of the pre-test group answered "the court" and 89 percent of the post-test group did. While representing an increase of 35 percent among the naive population, because of the high initial percentage this change is only marginally significant and thus a conclusion that this increase is due to learning is somewhat unsure. The increment in percentage occurred across three of the four schools.

The second question dealing with the role of the court (15) showed no learning. It asks whether a person could be sent to prison without going to court if everybody knew that he was guilty. The question is intended to test an understanding of the necessity of a conviction in court prior to a

prison sentence. Percentages on the pre- and post-tests were 73 and 68, indicating little or no learning. Unfortunately, the question is subject to some criticism on the possibility that children did not distinguish prison from jail. Discussion of the item with individual children suggested that this was generally not the case. Even with occasional misunderstanding one would expect the item to show an increase if learning had occurred.

Understanding of the role of a lawyer as an expert on the law was evaluated by Question 14. It was significant at a .001 level, leaving little doubt that learning occurred. Percentages on the pre- and post-tests were 31 and 55. This difference occurred across all schools.

Questions 16 and 18 indicate that little or no learning occurred as to the principle of presumed innocence and as to the rights of the accused. The first question poses a situation where "the police look everywhere and ask everyone" but cannot prove that their suspect robbed a house. The question asks whether the court will "let her go free" or "give her a punishment." In both pre- and post- groups, 39 percent answered correctly, indicating little or no learning. In discussion of this question, children tended not to be satisfied that everyone had been asked and every clue followed. They believed "truth" would eventually come out and refused to answer the question as may have been the case among the respondents in this sample, where fifty percent marked "I don't know." Nonetheless, if learning occurred one would expect it to be reflected in the question. The films spend several minutes trying to demonstrate how witnesses can have unclear remembrances of an event but apparently do not communicate the fate of the accused if the

evidence is unclear. Question 18 indicates the same absence of learning with respect to the rights of the accused. It states: "Mr. Hopkins is arrested and taken to jail for breaking the law. Is he still protected by the law?" A total of 79 percent answered "yes" on the pre-test and 77 percent did on the post-test.

An increased understanding of the process of probation is indicated by responses to Question 17. It poses the indirect question: "If a person is on 'probation,' where does he stay?" The pre- and post- percentages were 37 and 63, which indicates change significant at the .001 level. The occurrence of learning is indicated across three of the four schools.

Question 19 queries the difference between civil and criminal court, a distinction emphasized in the student workbook (pages 20 - 21). It poses the hypothetical situation of someone seeking damages from a car accident. Percentages for this question were 71 and 72, which is not significant and indicates little or no learning.

In summary, definite learning occurred as to the role of a lawyer and the process of probation; some learning may have occurred as to the role of the court; and little or no learning occurred as to the principle of presumed innocence, the rights of the accused, and the difference between civil and criminal court. Learning and absence of learning on items was essentially even across schools.

5. The Special Position of Children in Relation to the Law

Responses to Questions 20 and 21 indicate that very substantial learning

occurred as to the special position of children in relation to the law. Question 20 asks: "If a 12 year-old is caught breaking the law, will he or she be treated in a different way from an adult?" The pre-test percentage was 69 and the post-test percentage was 80, a difference significant at the .05 level. The difference occurred across three of the schools. Question 21 asks: "What kind of court deals with children who have broken the law?" The correct answer, "a juvenile court," was marked by 62 percent of the students on the pre-test and 86 percent on the post-test, which is significant at the .001 level. Significant change occurred on the question in three of the four schools. The fact that only six students chose the (presumably) humorous choice "a tennis court" assures confidence that the questions were taken seriously by students.

6. Openness of Roles in the Legal System to Women and to Blacks

The last four questions (24 - 27), asking if blacks and women can be judges and police officers, received over ninety percent on the pre-test, allowing little latitude for learning. In spite of this, Question 24, which asks "Could a woman be a judge?" did show a significant change at the .05 level. This rise is likely attributable to the appearance of a woman judge as a guest in one of the films.

B. THEORY OF LAW

Items in the domain of theory of law, which includes legal reasoning, showed little change from pre- to post-test. The distribution of responses on the two open-ended questions was essentially identical before and after

the program. The first question asks, "What is a law?" Responses were coded into one of six categories:

1. Prohibitive: a law is something one should not do.
2. Sanction: breaking a law invokes punishment.
3. Negative Consequences for Others: breaking a rule may cause harm to groups or individuals.
4. Prescriptive: a law is something you have to follow.
5. Rational/Beneficial: a law has affirmative benefits. (Also includes responses emphasizing consensual nature of law.)
6. Uncodable.

(Tapp, 1971)

One other coding category used by Tapp (1971) was never employed. The category of a student's response is an indicant of his or her level of legal and moral reasoning (Tapp and Kohlberg, 1971). Responses in the first two categories tend to indicate level one reasoning (the lowest level). Responses in the third and fourth categories tend to indicate level two reasoning. And responses in the fifth category tend to indicate higher level two or level three reasoning. The distribution of responses for pre- and post-test groups is presented in Table 5 (displayed on following page).

Responses describing law as beneficial (or consensual) and indicating higher level of legal reasoning increased from thirty percent on the pre-test to only 32 percent on the post-test. A chi-square test of the first five categories indicated that there existed no significant difference between groups on the distribution of these responses for the whole or for any individual schools. On the post-test, there was a higher proportion of

"uncodable" ratings due to an increase in the frequency of the response, "a rule." This response, it is felt, shows no greater understanding of the nature of law.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION "WHAT IS A LAW?"

Category	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Other Post Test Group
1.) Prohibitive	11	9	7
2.) Sanction	4	4	4
3.) Negative Consequences for Others	7	3	2
4.) Prescriptive	79	65	59
5.) Rational/Beneficial	44	39	40
6.) Uncodable	21	39	37
TOTAL	166	159	149

The second legal reasoning item asks, "Why should people follow rules?"

Responses were coded into eight categories:

1. Avoid negative consequences.
2. Authority approval.
3. Personal conformity: equates following rules with being "good."
4. Immediate and personal safety: examples -- "for safety," "so they don't get hurt."
5. Social conformity: sees rules as embodying moral "good" and preventing chaos.

6. Rational - Beneficial - Utilitarian: sees rules as generally beneficial for human society.
7. Participation: conformity is required because of consensual rule-making process.
8. Uncodable.

(Tapp, 1971)

The fourth category is not among those defined by Tapp (1971). With the exception of 4 and 7, the categories parallel the course of development (Tapp and Kohlberg, 1971). Responses in the first two categories tend to indicate level one reasoning. Responses in the third and fifth categories tend to indicate level two reasoning. And responses in the sixth category tend to indicate level three reasoning. The fourth category was added to deal with a class of responses that could indicate either level one or two reasoning. It was placed in the fourth position because it seems to suggest some understanding of the functional nature of rules but lacks the more sophisticated societal perspective of category five. The distribution of responses for pre- and post-test groups is shown in Table 6 (displayed on following page).

Responses in the desirable fifth category increased from 22 percent to 27 percent and not at all in the sixth category. Chi-square analysis of the first seven categories indicates that changes are not significant. This absence of significance existed across schools.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION
"WHY SHOULD PEOPLE FOLLOW RULES?"

Category	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Other Post Test Group
1.) Avoid Negative Consequence	31	29	28
2.) Authority Approval	1	1	0
3.) Personal Conformity	9	3	4
4.) Immediate and Personal Safety	78	63	76
5.) Social Conformity	35	39	21
6.) Rational - Beneficial	5	5	5
7.) Participation	1	4	2
8.) Uncodable	6	15	13
TOTAL	166	159	149

Of the two other questions drawn from the Tapp research, one showed significant change in a positive direction and one in a negative direction.* Question 14 (page 2) asks, "Can laws be changed?" and provides graded response choices from "all laws can be changed" to "laws cannot be changed." "All laws" responses increased from 13 percent on the pre-test to 34 percent on the post-test (Table 8). The trend in this direction is significant on a two-tailed Kolmogorov-Smirnov (Siegel, 1956, pages 127 - 136) test at the

*All items which asked for students' opinions were evaluated by two-tailed tests.

.001 level. The other question asks (13, page 2), "Is it ever right to break a law?" and is intended to evaluate students' perceptions of the distinction between legality and morality. It was used by Tapp as an open-ended question with a greater sensitivity to the reasoning students used in answering it. The percentage of "yes" responses declined from 73 to 58 percent from pre- to post-test, which is significant at the .01 level on a two-tailed test. While the question is subject to criticism for its failure to very precisely capture what the child thinks these exceptional circumstances are and what logic he or she uses in answering the question, it seems clear that children are not being sensitized to the distinction between morality and legality. The negative trend of responses to this question has a slight implication that the program emphasizes obedience to law above morality. However, the failure of other questions (8 - 12, 15, 19 - 20, pages 1 - 2) to support this trend nullifies the implication.

None of the other three questions dealing with the theory of law showed significant learning. Question 22 (page 5) probes understanding of the changeability of laws a little beyond Question 14. It asks, "Why do we need new laws?" for which the answer is "there are new problems." Pre- and post-test percentages on this question were 82 and 79. It should be noted that only 7 of 64 incorrect responses were "we don't need new laws" thus it could not be said that idealism or conservatism was a competing motive. It appears that while some students learned that laws could be changed, they did not grasp why they would be changed.

Question 2 (page 3) poses a hypothetical situation to evaluate students'

comprehension of laws as relative systems of order:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 2. There is now a law in the U.S. that cars must drive on the right side of the street. If, when cars were first invented, they had made a law that all cars must drive on the left side of the street, what would driving be like now? | 1) traffic would be tangled up, people would be mixed up
2) traffic would move as well as it does now
5) I don't know |
|---|---|

In reviewing the question with children, it was found that they had to read it several times and often still did not completely understand it. It is possible that most students marked choice one because they were "mixed up." Pre- and post-test percentages for this item were 27 and 22. It is an item where significant improvement would have been impressive, but where the absence of change has limited meaning.

The last question in this domain (22, page 2) asks, "Which do you think is more like a law in the United States? (1) a rule a boss makes for his workers; (2) a rule that the people in a club agree to follow." The question is intended to evaluate the consensual basis of law, a point the film attempts to communicate. However, for pre-test and post-test, the percentage of students selecting the second choice did not change. A total of 72 percent marked it before and 70 percent after Children and the Law.

In summary it appears that in spite of the extended "cave"-people sequence in the films which attempted to explain the function of law in society, little change occurred in students' grasp of the functional and beneficial nature of law. The one exception is that some students gained a perception of the fact that laws can be changed. These patterns were consistent across the four schools.

C. ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS

1. The Role of the Police

Distinct changes occurred in the scale dealing with attitudes toward the role of the police. Mean scores decreased from 10.1 to 9.5, which is in a direction favorable to the police. This change had significance at the .002 level on a two-tailed t-test. The degree of this change varied from school to school as illustrated in Table 7.

TABLE 7							
<u>AVERAGE SCORES ON THE ATTITUDE TOWARD THE ROLE OF THE POLICE SCALE</u>							
(Low scores indicate more favorable attitude toward police)							
School	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Other Post-Test Group		Significance Pre-Test vs. Post-Test
	N	Average	N	Average	N	Average	
Southern School	41	10.3	34	8.9	37	9.9	.001
Suburban School	59	10.3	63	10.0	51	10.4	---
Western School	30	9.7	26	9.7	27	10.1	---
North-Central School	37	10.2	36	9.3	34	10.0	.02
TOTAL	167	10.1	159	9.5	149	10.1	.001

These differences suggest that activities unique to individual schools may have played a major role in affecting these attitudes. Figures for girls and boys show no distinct difference. Interestingly, the other post-test group did not reflect the same change. It is likely that responses on the

pre-test "committed" students to the same responses on the post-test, a phenomena noted by others on attitudinal instruments (Campbell, 1957, page 303).

Examination of change item-by-item shows that three items in particular contributed to the change on this scale (see Table 8, displayed on the following page). Differences in percentages of responses to the question "If you needed help would you go to the police?" (#2) * were significant at the .01 level (two-tailed, Kolmogorov-Smirnov). Changes in perceived truthfulness of the statement "The police shoot off their guns too much" (#5) were significant at the .05 level. Item 6, stating "The police are usually angry at kids," showed a ten percent increase in "true" responses but this was not quite significant according to the conservative Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Changes on the other items were positive but too slight to be assessed as significant. One asked, "Would you like to be a policeman or a police-woman?" (#1) and the others asked for an assessment of the truth of the statements: "The police would always want to help you if you needed it," (#3) "The police treat all people fairly," (#4) and "The police keep peace and order" (#7). Items 1, 2, 5, and 6 were significant at different schools, suggesting differential effects of teaching at the different schools and perhaps in part differences in initial police stereotypes.

2. Willingness to Obey the Law

Changes in scores for the five-item scale dealing with willingness to

* Except where noted, all attitudinal items are found on pages 1 and 2 of the instrument.

TABLE 8
GRADED RESPONSE ITEMS
PERCENTAGES OF RESPONDENTS CHOOSING EACH RESPONSE

Item	Response	Pre-Test Group N = 166	Post-Test Group N = 159	Other Post-Group N = 149	Significance Pre- vs. Post- Group
1	1	18	22	15	
	2	46	47	48	
	3	36	30	36	
2	1	62	81	64	.01
	2	37	18	35	
	3	1	1	1	
3	1	81	79	80	
	2	19	21	20	
	3	1	0	0	
4	1	65	67	61	
	2	30	31	36	
	3	5	2	3	
5	1	2	1	1	.05
	2	24	8	13	
	3	74	90	85	
6	1	1	1	2	
	2	39	29	40	
	3	60	71	58	
7	1	72	70	68	
	2	26	30	29	
	3	2	1	3	

TABLE 8 Continued

Item	Response	Pre-Test Group N = 166	Post-Test Group N = 159	Other Post-Group N = 149	Significance Pre- vs. Post- Group
8	1	47	52	45	
	2	39	36	46	
	3	13	12	9	
9	1	70	70	72	
	2	30	30	28	
	3	10	9	11	
10	1	46	58	38	
	2	44	33	51	
	3	10	9	11	
11	1	43	43	35	
	2	49	48	59	
	3	7	9	6	
12	1	30	33	26	
	2	67	63	65	
	3	3	4	8	
13	1	73	58	74	.05
	2	26	42	26	
	3	1	1	1	
14	1	13	34	31	
	2	24	30	34	
	3	54	33	32	
	4	10	2	3	
15	1	49	45	38	
	2	51	55	61	
16	1	70	77	74	
	2	27	19	24	
	3	4	4	2	

TABLE 8 Continued

Item	Response	Pre-Test Group N = 166	Post-Test Group N = 159	Other Post-Group N = 149	Significance Pre- vs. Post- Group
17	1	8	7	8	.005 chi-square
	2	11	24	20	
	3	48	31	36	
	4	32	38	36	
18	1	27	23	20	
	2	51	57	67	
	3	18	16	12	
	4	4	3	1	
19	1	77	80	84	
	2	23	20	16	
20	1	30	29	22	
	2	70	71	78	
21	1	28	29	21	
	2	72	70	79	
22	1	15	7	14	
	2	72	72	66	
	3	13	21	20	
1 (p.3)	1	5	1	0	.05
	2	52	41	60	
	3	31	40	31	
	4	11	18	9	

obey the law occurred in a positive direction in three of the four schools, but the change was not significant in any single school nor for the composite ($t = .88$, two-tailed).

TABLE 9

AVERAGE SCORES ON THE WILLINGNESS TO OBEY THE LAW SCALE

(Lower scores indicate greater willingness to obey the law)

School	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Other Post-Test Group		Significance Pre-Test vs. Post-Test
	N	Average	N	Average	N	Average	
Southern School	41	8.1	34	7.6	37	8.3	--
Suburban School	59	8.5	63	8.6	51	8.4	--
Western School	30	7.7	26	7.1	27	8.4	--
North-Central School	37	7.2	36	7.0	34	7.5	--
TOTAL	167	8.0	159	7.8	149	8.2	

Examining these items individually, none are significant and only one is marginally significant (Table 8). The marginally significant item (#10) asks whether students would obey an 8:00 curfew law. The other items, which showed no change, deal with accidentally making a scratch on a car with one's bicycle (#8), some boys who violate a law about riding bicycles on the sidewalk (#9), reporting a friend who has stolen money (#11), and obeying laws "if there were no police" (#12). Though the program puts a lot of emphasis on obeying laws and there existed a lot of latitude for change on these items, little change in verbal report of willingness to obey law appears to have occurred.

3. Other Attitudinal Areas

No significant change occurred with respect to the first minor attitudinal objective: perception of the flexibility of the legal system to circumstances. The two items (19 and 20) deal with a hypothetical Mrs. Stone who is breaking the speed law rushing her "seriously hurt" husband to the hospital. Students were asked whether a police officer who stopped her would give her a ticket. For both questions, both the pre- and post-group students responded approximately seventy percent in favor of Mrs. Stone. Little change appears to have occurred.

Similarly, little change appears to have occurred in students' perception of their own position as active agents rather than passive objects. Question 15 asks, "If you thought that a police officer was wrong in what he told you to do, what would you do? (1) do what he says and not say anything; (2) tell him he is wrong." A total of 51 percent chose the second response on the pre-test and 55 percent on the post-test. This was not significant. Question 16 asks, "If by mistake, the police accused you of something that you did not do and brought you to court, would you get a fair chance to explain?" A total of 70 percent said yes on the pre-test and 77 percent said yes on the post-test, a difference that was not significant. Thus, it cannot be said with assurance that the program gave the students any more of a feeling of involvement or control relative to the legal machine.

Students' perception of the severity of the consequences of breaking the law was evaluated by two questions. Question 22 asks, "Is it easy for children to break the law and get away with it?" Approximately seventy

percent of the students chose the intermediate response, "some of the time" on both the pre- and post-test. Changes were not significant. Another question (1, page 3) asks how important will the record of a 23 year-old's theft of a camera be to him later in life. A total of 11 percent on the pre-test said that "he would not be able to get a job or do anything." On the post-test this percentage was 18. Similarly, respondents to the choice "everybody will know; he will have some trouble getting a job" increased from 31 to 40 percent, while choices of the more realistic outcome, "some people will know about it; it may cause him a little trouble" declined from 52 percent to 41 percent. Only eight students on the pre-test and one on the post-test chose the response "nobody will know; it will not be important." This shift toward a perception of more severe sanction is significant at the .05 level. It appears that the program affected students' already strong impression that the results of crime are severe, though most of them feel that as children they can get away with breaking the law some of the time.

Question 17 states:

- | | |
|--|---|
| Mr. Brandt murdered a 15 year-old boy to steal his money. What do you think the court should do with Mr. Brandt? | 1) have him killed in the electric chair; |
| | 2) make him do hard work for the rest of his life as punishment; |
| | 3) don't punish him, but keep him in a prison so that we are safe from him; |
| | 4) try to change him into a good person so that he can be set free again. |

Responses after Children and the Law shifted in the direction of punishment, Choice 2, and rehabilitation, Choice 4 (see Table 8, pages 56 - 58). The change was significant at the .005 level on a chi-square test. The shift toward the punishment response suggests that the program has had some effect in orienting children toward sanctions. The shift toward the rehabilitation

response suggests that the program may also have sensitized some children to the fact that persons who break the law are human and act out of human motives.

D. STUDENTS' OPINIONS ABOUT CHILDREN AND THE LAW

Of 301 students responding to the question "Did you like the Children and the Law program?" 286 (95.0 percent) said "yes," and only 15 (5.0 percent) said "no." A total of 283 (94.0 percent) as opposed to 18 (6.0 percent) said they liked the films, and 243 (82.3 percent) as opposed to 52 (17.7 percent) said they liked the workbooks.

APPENDIX 1
THE INSTRUMENT

OPINION
QUESTIONS

BOY OR GIRL _____ BIRTHDAY _____ CLASS _____

THESE ARE QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR OPINIONS. THERE ARE NO RIGHT ANSWERS.
CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF THE ANSWER THAT YOU AGREE WITH.

1. Would you like to be a policeman or a policewoman? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no
2. If you needed help, would you go to the police? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no

MARK WHETHER YOU THINK THESE ARE TRUE, SOMETIMES TRUE, OR NOT TRUE.

3. The police would always want to help you if you needed it. 1) true 2) sometimes true 3) not true
4. Police treat all people fairly. 1) true 2) sometimes true 3) not true
5. The police shoot off their guns too much. 1) true 2) sometimes true 3) not true
6. The police are usually angry at kids. 1) true 2) sometimes true 3) not true
7. The police keep peace and order. 1) true 2) sometimes true 3) not true

CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF THE ANSWER THAT YOU AGREE WITH.

8. If you accidentally made a scratch on a parked car with your bicycle, would you try to find the owner and tell him? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no
9. A city in Minnesota has a law against riding bicycles on the sidewalk. Joe and his friends were riding along the street and came to a place where the street was very bumpy. There was nobody on the sidewalk so they rode up on it. Were they wrong? 1) yes 2) no
10. In some places there are laws that children must be in their houses by 8:00 at night. Would you obey this law? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no
11. If your friend told you that he (or she) had stolen money from someone, would you report him or her? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no
12. If there were no police, would you obey the laws? 1) yes, always 2) yes, most of the time 3) no

OPINION
QUESTIONS

13. Are there times when it might be right to break a law? 1) yes 2) no
14. Can laws be changed? 1) all laws can be changed 2) most laws can be changed 3) only some laws can be changed 4) laws cannot be changed
15. If you thought that a police officer was wrong in what he told you to do, what would you do? 1) do what he says and not say anything 2) tell him he is wrong
16. If, by mistake, the police accused you of something that you did not do and brought you to court, would you get a fair chance to explain? 1) yes 2) maybe 3) no
17. Mr. Brandt murdered a 15 year-old to steal his money. What do you think the court should do with Mr. Brandt? 1) have him killed in the electric chair 2) make him do hard work for the rest of his life as punishment 3) don't punish him, but keep him in a prison so that we are safe from him 4) try to change him into a good person so that he can be set free again
18. Are laws fair? 1) all laws are fair 2) most laws are fair 3) some laws are fair 4) most laws are not fair
19. The Stones live on a farm. Mr. Stone is seriously hurt in an accident. The speed limit on the road to town is 55 miles per hour. Should Mrs. Stone break this speed law & drive faster to get Mr. Stone to the hospital? 1) yes 2) no
20. Mrs. Stone decides to break the law and drive as fast as she can. A policeman stops her for speeding. Do you think he will give her a ticket? 1) yes 2) no
21. Which do you think is more like a law in the United States? 1) a rule that a boss makes for his workers 2) a rule that the people in a club agree to follow
22. Is it easy for children to break the law and get away with it without getting in trouble? 1) yes, most of the time 2) some of the time 3) no, they can't get away with it.
- WRITE YOUR ANSWER TO THESE TWO QUESTIONS:
23. What is a law?
24. Why should people follow rules?

THESE ARE QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR KNOWLEDGE OF OUR SYSTEM OF LAWS. CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF THE CHOICE YOU THINK BEST ANSWERS THE QUESTION. IF YOU DO NOT KNOW OR IF YOU DO NOT UNDERSTAND THE QUESTION, CIRCLE THE 5.

1. Mr. Landy, age 23, is arrested for stealing a camera from a store. How important will the record of this crime be to him later in his life?
 - 1) nobody will know; it will not be important
 - 2) some people will know about it; it may cause him a little trouble
 - 3) everybody will know; he will have some trouble getting a job
 - 4) he will not be able to get a job or do anything
 - 5) I don't know
2. There is now a law in the U.S. that cars must drive on the right side of the street. If, when cars were first invented, they had made a law that all cars must drive on the left side of the street, what would driving be like now?
 - 1) traffic would be tangled up; people would be mixed up
 - 2) traffic would move as well as it does now
 - 5) I don't know
3. Who makes laws?
 - 1) the U.S. government, the Minnesota government and the local government
 - 2) only the U.S. government
 - 3) only the Minnesota government
 - 4) only the local government
 - 5) I don't know
4. How long does a law passed in 1916 last?
 - 1) forever, unless it is changed
 - 2) 15 years
 - 3) until the year 2000
 - 4) until the people who made it die
 - 5) I don't know
5. The people who make the laws work for:
 - 1) the police
 - 2) the president
 - 3) us, the people
 - 4) judges
 - 5) I don't know
6. If the police know that somebody broke the law, can they do anything they want to catch the criminal and get evidence?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
7. Do laws tell the police exactly what to do in a situation?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
8. If the government makes a new law:
 - 1) the police will probably not hear about it
 - 2) the police will vote on whether to enforce it
 - 3) the police will have to enforce it
 - 5) I don't know
9. Is it possible that two police officers watching someone might not agree about whether to arrest him?
 - 1) yes, it is possible
 - 2) no, it is not possible
 - 5) I don't know

10. Officer Jones is driving back to the station in his police car. He is in a hurry to get home to his family, so he drives through a red light to save time. Is he breaking the law?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
11. Kathy sees a car accident. The police come right away. Is there anything Kathy should do?
 - 1) yes, tell the police she saw the accident
 - 2) no, she should stay out of the way
 - 5) I don't know
12. Do police make laws?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
13. A police officer says that Bonnie broke the law. Bonnie says that she did not. Who will decide whether she broke the law?
 - 1) a court
 - 2) the police
 - 3) the people who saw what happened
 - 4) the governor
 - 5) I don't know
14. Ms. Mathis needs advice about the laws for running a store. Who should she go to?
 - 1) a lawyer
 - 2) the police
 - 3) a judge
 - 5) I don't know
15. If everybody knew that a person had broken the law, could he be sent to prison without going to court?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
16. Beth is found by the police near a house that has just been robbed. They take her to court. The police look everywhere and ask everyone, but they cannot prove that she robbed the house. Beth cannot prove that she did not rob the house. What will happen?
 - 1) the court will let her go free
 - 2) the court will give her a punishment
 - 5) I don't know
17. If a person is on "probation," where does he stay?
 - 1) in a prison
 - 2) in his own home
 - 3) in the home of a probation officer
 - 5) I don't know
18. Mr. Hopkins is arrested and taken to jail for breaking the law. Is he still protected by the law?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
19. By accident, Jill smashes into Sandra's car. Sandra is hurt and goes to the hospital. Jill will not give her money to pay for the hospital bill and for fixing her car. What can Sandra do?
 - 1) she can't do anything
 - 2) she can have Jill arrested
 - 3) she can sue Jill in a Civil Court
 - 5) I don't know
20. If a twelve-year-old is caught breaking the law, will he or she be treated in a different way from an adult?
 - 1) yes
 - 2) no
 - 5) I don't know
21. What kind of court deals with children who have broken the law?
 - 1) a juvenile court
 - 2) a criminal court
 - 3) a civil court
 - 4) a tennis court
 - 5) I don't know

KNOWLEDGE
QUESTIONS

22. Every year many new laws are made. Why do we need new laws? 1) there are more criminals
2) there are new problems
3) we don't need new laws
5) I don't know
24. Could a woman be a judge? 1) yes 2) no 5) I don't know
25. Could a woman be a police officer? 1) yes 2) no 5) I don't know
26. Could a black person be a judge? 1) yes 2) no 5) I don't know
27. Could a black person be a police officer? 1) yes 2) no 5) I don't know

OPINION
QUESTIONS

THESE ARE QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR OPINIONS.

1. Did you like the Children and the Law program? 1) yes 2) no
2. Did you like the films? 1) yes 2) no
3. Did you like the red workbooks? 1) yes 2) no

Do you have any comments about the Children and the Law program?

APPENDIX 2

THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Children and the Law Evaluation

Class Number or Numbers: _____

There is much variance in the way that the Children and the Law program is presented. The following questions are intended to obtain for us a description of the program as it was presented to your students. Please try to give as accurate a portrayal as possible. Thank you.

Approximately how many hours in total did your class spend on the program?

Did you show the films?

Did you use the workbooks?

Did you have any outside visitors? Who?

Describe any additional activities that your class was involved in as a part of Children and the Law.

What were your objectives in presenting the program? Were you aiming primarily at changing attitudes or at conveying information?

Was your approach to teach students right from wrong, or to lead them to make their own decisions about what is right and wrong? Explain.

Did the fact that the students were being evaluated effect your presentation of the program?

Have you presented Children and the Law before?

How enthusiastic are you about the program?

Would you consider doing the program again?

What is your opinion of the films?

What is your opinion of the student workbook?

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