RELATION OF PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT BY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS TO SOCIAL CONTROL AND LEADERSHIP

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.

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by

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The writer desires to express his
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLES

APPENDICES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

School and educational magazines have printed, literally, hundreds of articles during the last few years on "student government," "self-government," "pupil self-government," and other similar terms, in an effort to throw some light on a better method of teaching citizenship in our American schools. When a movement of any sort steps out of a more or less obscure position into the "lime light" and when even a nucleus of the recognised leaders in that field insist on its possessing merits in spite of failures which have marked its path as has the above mentioned movement and when its growth bids fair to continue, it is time for the rank and file in the profession to weigh its possibilities with an open mind. Furthermore, for one who is laboring in a locality where a serious effort is being attempted to capitalize on the merits of the plan, it would be only fair, not merely to be well acquainted with the theoretical values and practices now current, but also the check carefully the means and methods used in his own institution and their results with a view of possible improvement.

Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Investigation

Specifically, then, the problem is to determine (1) the general practices of sharing the government of the

schools with the students in the school; the educational values of such practices; the most practical means of obtaining those values; the difficulties and objections to plans of this nature; the measure of success that may be reasonably expected and (2) to state in detail the plan of student participation in government as practiced in the Walter H. French Junior High School of Lansing, Michigan; its effect on faculty and students and to evaluate this plan by a comparison with the general practices existent in the country. Some of the data gathered under the second part of this investigation may be used in a later study to determine the "carry-over" of the qualities of citizenship and leadership into the senior high school and later life.

Definition of Terms

Despite the fact that the current educational literature of the last three decades is generously sprinkled with a variety of terms in referring to this movement, a close examination will show that these authors usually mean something entirely different from the idea conveyed by a literal definition of the terms used. "Student Government," "Student Self-Government" and the like are used to describe what is really "Student Participation in School Government." To date the author of this study has found no case of pure pupil-government of of self-government in our schools, and is further convinced that,

did any exist at the present time, it would soon destroy itself. The responsibility of maintaining a good school rests on the principal. He is paid for that service and when he can no longer furnish that kind of a school, his contract will not be renewed. If he sees fit, he may assign certain duties to other members of the faculty or to the students, but it is also true that the right to assign them implies the right to withdraw and to reassign them to other hands when he so desires. It will be participation by students in their school government and not student government that will be discussed in this treatise.

The word "government" does not seem to convey the same meaning to these various authors either. They seem to be as generous with the meanings assigned to this one word as they were in assigning terms to the one meaning in the preceding case. Many times the meaning is one single phase of police or disciplinary power. Government is more than this. In its fullest meaning it must be taken to include stimulating, guiding, and limiting the intellectual, physical, social and industrial pursuits of all of its members. It is in this broad sense that the word is used in the following pages.

Dr. W. R. Smith defines social control as embodying:

> all forces society brings to bear upon individuals, and groups to stimulate and restrain,

> or to regulate and direct their thoughts and actions.[1]

It will be noticed that this definition is practically indentical with that chosen for the word "government." Since the latter is only a means of obtaining social control, it would necessarily have to be included within the definition of the former.

Leadership probably needs no definition other than that given in the dictionary, i.e., the ability to lead, guide or inspire a following. However, there are two kinds of leadership, commonly referred to as good and bad. The adjectives in this case refer not to the leadership, but to the elements, forces or influences being guided. It is only the so-called "good" leadership, the kind that needs to be developed if our democracy is to live and thrive, that will be considered directly.

By a junior high school is meant a school unit that is:

> designed to furnish to all pupils, between the ages of twelve and fifteen approximately, (1) continued common education on high elementary levels, and (2) the beginnings of a differentiated or secondary education adapted to each pupil's individual needs.[2]

Actually this may include any two, three, or four consecutive grades between the sixth and ninth grades

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1. Walter Robinson Smith, Principles of Educational Sociology, pp.32-33.

2. C. O. Davis, Junior High School Education, p. 18.

inclusive. Seventy-eight percent of the junior high schools of Michigan include grades 7-9. Walter French Junior High School is one of this group.

"Class" will be used to denote a group of students meeting for recitation purposes only. Whenever it is necessary to speak of groups which have had a certain amount of education as is usually expressed in years, the term "grade" will be used. Thus, it will always be the ninth grade instead of the freshman class.

In a study of this kind the three terms, "citizenship," "democracy," and "education" must be used repeatedly. No one of them can be used without involving, by inference at least, some of the attributes or concepts of one or both of the other two.

Webster defines a citizen as one who owes allegiance to a government and who receives protection from it. Citizenship here will be taken as meaning citizenship in a democratic state or under a democratic form of government unless specific mention is made to the contrary.

A democracy is a form of government in which the supreme power is retained by the people but exercised by their representatives. Abraham Lincoln defined it as a "government of the people, by the people, for the "people." A democracy is more than a state with powers apportioned as described in the dictionary or the popular political meaning ascribed to the words of the immortal

Lincoln. In the words of John Dewey:

> A democracy is more than government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience.[3]

and again:

> A society which makes provision for participation of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic.[4]

Philip Cox has expressed the same thought when he says:

> Democracy is a process--a way of life. As such it is about us. It is not a far-off objective . . . . a static civilization to be sought through the generations, but . . . . a way of associated living here and now, a means for attaining general welfare, justice, tranquility which depends on tolerance, interested participation, and subordination of self to the general welfare.[5]

It is this broad, extensive meaning of democracy which will be held in mind while dealing with the problems of this investigation.

We have quite a few good definitions of education, but for the purpose of this work, it will not be necessary to seek farther than the dictionary for a suitable definition: the training of the mental and moral powers

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3. John Dewey, Democracy and Education, p. 101.

4. Ibid., p. 115.

5. Philip Cox, Creative School Control, pp. 12-13.

either by a system of study and discipline, or by the experiences of life. The latter part of this definition is recognized in the saying, "Experience is the best teacher, but the most expensive." Education through experience, partially controlled so as to eliminate some of the expense, will be the subject of any further discussion of the topic.

Sources of Data and Method of Treatment

The data for the first part of this investigation was obtained by a careful reading of accounts of individual schemes for the sharing of government with the students as presented in 50-odd educational-magazine articles, an equal number of books on teaching methods and school administration and a few studies and surveys made by other students of the subject in various parts of the country.

It is recognized that most of the material available under the above plan of research would be accounts of the successes and very little of the failures. Few people care to tell about their own failures even though they might believe the cause of education to be advanced thereby. Even the broader studies and surveys are subject to much the same limitation as much of their material was obtained by means of questionnaires, likely to be fully answered and returned by proponents of successful ventures, but only partially answered or entirely neglected by those who had failures of their own. Such being the case, it

can only be surmized that the difficulties encountered and overcome by the schools that were successful in instituting a plan of student participation were the same difficulties that caused the failures where such plans did fail.

Nor could this phase of the study be neglected, for, lacking any comprehensive history of education by means of sharing the control of the school environment with the students, only in this way could a historical background be secured. An accurate knowledge of the past life of an institution or movement is a valuable aid in making comparisons, contrasts and predictions as to the future of present tendencies.

The data for the study of French Junior High School was obtained by means of two questionnaires and numerous interviews. The first questionnaire was submitted to the students of the entire school. There was a usable return of 770 or 84.3 per cent of these. Those not returned represent pupils who were absent on that particular day. Those from one entire home room while returned could not be used since it was not given with the correct instructions. This questionnaire was intended to find the degree of participation of each student in his school life, other than study and recitation; his activities outside of actual school hours that might afford similar opportunities for self-expression; his grade; home room; and number of

semesters in attendance at this school. There were also three questions designed to bring to light any restrictions which might limit participation in any way. Space was also provided for any personal comments that any student might feel like making. The scholarship record of each student was obtained from the office and attached to his returned questionnaire.

The other questionnaire was submitted to the teachers of the school. In this case, 100 per cent were returned. This had questions intended to discover the teachers' ideas as to proper objectives and procedures to be pursued and the principles underlying, and obstacles to participation on the part of the students in their government as actually practiced in their school.

These form the basis of the statistical reports in Chapters V and VI.

Other Similar Studies

There was no other available study which treated this problem in any manner comparable to the present one in its entirety. Yet there are several comparable in parts which should be mentioned here inasmuch as they furnished valuable guides in the present work.

One of these is the work of Dr. Raymond Drewry.[6] He made a survey of 400 senior high schools which he completed

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6. Raymond G. Drewry, Pupil Participation in High School Control, pp. 1-220.

in 1924 in an attempt to evaluate schemes of this nature. Included in this was the intensive study fo four small, four medium-sized, and four large high schools. One of his main contentions was that some sort of a point system should be used to limit participation on the part of the individual student in extra-curricular activities. The schools he selected for an intensive study had such plans in order that their effect might be noted.

Another is the study of Dr. Earle Rugg[7] of the Colorado State Teachers College. He made an analysis of fifty magazine articles and from this analysis formulated a questionnaire which he sent to 300 representative schools of the United States. The results of both the analysis and the questionnaire are given in an article which he wrote for the National Society for the Study of Education.

A third study is that of Edgar G. Johnston[8] as presented in his Ph. D. thesis. Working on the premise that a point system to limit, stimulate and properly distribute participation, is not only advisible, but is an absolute necessity, for the proper functioning of any plan for participation in school control and in extra-curricular

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7. Earle Rugg, "Special Types of Activities: Student Participation in School Government," National Society for the Study of Education, 25th Yearbook (1926) Part II, pp. 127-140.

8. Edgar G. Johnston, Point Systems for Guiding, Stimulating, and Limiting Pupil Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities, pp. 1-160.

activities, he has made a careful analysis of various systems in use at that time. He warns of the dangers of "borrowing" another school's system and includes an account of how a point system can be constructed and administered scientifically.

Two others of more recent date are Ralph W. Hogan's[9] survey of student participation in school control in the junior high schools of Kansas and Minnie E. Young's[10] of the junior high schools of Michigan. These were finished in 1931 and 1932 respectively. Since they are not only two fo the more recent studies, but are the only available ones in the junior high school field, they were used as a check for the work in the latter half of this study.

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9. Ralph W. Hogan, Student Government in the Junior High Schools of Kansas, pp. 1-87.

10. Minnie Ethel Young, A Study of Student Participation in School Control in Michigan Junior High Schools, pp. 1-95.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT

Discussions of this subject sometimes fairly bristle with the word "new." To call this movement a new fad is to stray from the truth by a period of time that is measured in centuries. Dr. Joseph Van Denburg[1] of Columbia has said that student government is as old as ancient Greece where youth through membership in the Epheboi were to prepare for their citizenship. However that may be, we must go to Europe to find accounts of the early experiments of permitting students to share in their school government that are in any way comparable to conditions of today.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries as the universities were formed, some sort of organization was necessary for the self-protection of the students in their transactions with the people of the city where they were located. This may seem strange to the men and women of our day at first thought, but a university of that time was merely a group of men, mostly "foreigners," who were studying under several teachers who happened to be located in a particular city. They could and sometimes did move

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1. Joseph K. Van Denburg, The Junior High School Idea, p. 327.

to another city the next day. National and racial prejudices existed then as now and unless the students could take care of themselves by organizing, they, the "foreigners," were apt to pay dearly for the privilege of studying. In the smaller universities there was but one body while in the larger there were more. The University of Paris was organized into four "Nations." In each of these, the "Nation" controlled its members and the members controlled the policies of the "Nation." These student organizations sometimes even decided on the tenure of the teachers. However, it must be remembered that these students were adults. Privileges of such scope were never extended to children and lesser ones of a similar nature not until a later date.

In 1383 older students at Winchester College supervised the study and morals of the others and reported those things to the school authorities that they thought needed correcting.

Vitorino da Feltre, 1398-1430, became an early pioneer of this movement when he permitted the boys of his famous school at Mantua, privileges not then customary. His school was called La Casa Giocosa meaning the Pleasant House. Control in this "House" was a mixture of paternalism and democracy.

In the next century, Goldberg, Germany, was the scene of an experiment, by Valentine Trotzendorf, in a form of

student government similar to that of our institutions of higher learning. Trotzendorf had in his school a senate, council and other similar officers characteristic of a democracy.

In 1832, Hazelwood School near Birmingham, England, used a type which included laws enforced by a student court. A student council was in charge of all extra-curricular activities.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century we find the first of our great educators advocating and practicing the use of self-government as a teaching method. The methods of this kind, loving teacher, Pestalozzi, were productive of industry, harmony and obedience in his Institute at Burgdort.

Following right behind Pestalozzi was Frederick Froebel. His methods completely revolutionized teaching everywhere. The child has an active brain and is not a mere receptacle of facts. He learns best by doing. Give his natural activities only such direction as is necessary to keep them focused on educational, social and moral ends was his doctrine. It was on the foregoing premise that Froebel based his teaching methods and it is on similar premises that educators today argue that our students should share in the governing of the school they attend. It is true that the German government abolished the Kindergarten of Froebel and forbade

the use of similar methods of teaching, but Germany was educating for an autocratic, militaristic government and not for a democracy.

In England, Eton and Rugby have long had student regulations made and enforced by students. They have become an integral part of these two schools with the passing years. Part of their success is no doubt due to the fact that they grew to meet their own needs and were not patterned after some other system. It should be remembered, too, that this system was not made to be copied by some one else but to be used by themselves. Other English experiments were conducted by Thomas Hill in the seventeenth, and Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster in the eighteenth centuries. The conditions in these English schools can best be described as liberal types of monarchies rather than democracies.

Introduction of Student Participation in School Government in America

In America, William and Mary College in Virginia proudly claims the honor of being the first college to introduce the honor system. This was done in 1889 and has never been discontinued.

The University of Virginia, although forced to take second place in point of time really went much farther in this direction. The plan adopted under Thomas Jefferson

was designed to provide training for making good citizens all days of the week and not just on examination days.

Accounts also show that the Penn Charter School of Philadelphia had a form of student government to prevent "the ill effects of internal broils." This was a preparatory school for boys. Just how long this school continued under control of this nature seems uncertain, but as a rule attempts to share school government with the students below college levels had but short lives prior to 1900. However, there were two notable exceptions to this rule.

One of these exceptions was the McDonogh School endowed in the early 1800's for boys from ages ten to seventeen. This was a boys' boarding school located just outside of Baltimore. The pupil government was unofficial but very effective in taking care of the individuals' property rights and in eliminating cheating. The faculty very wisely refrained from trying to force additions to, or subtractions from the students' privileges, rights and obligations now long existent.

The other exception was the George Junior Republic located at Freeville, New York. In 1890 Mr. William R. George established a summer camp for a group of children from New York City's poorer classes. His efforts to maintain a semblance of order were almost futile until one day he decided to put the matter in the hands of the

boys themselves. The result was the establishment of trial by jury for all offenses and a new and better ordered era was introduced. The next summer, Mr. George increased the number of boys and girls to 144, incorporated the association and took over the 48-acre farm, and, in 1894, changed the venture into a year-round institution. The farm now has 350 acres and the boys and girls live in a little village on the farm which they run themselves. Mr. George relinquished his authority, little by little, until now he need not exercise any. Those who first went to this Junior Republic were pretty generally bad--boys paroled from juvenile courts, incorrigibles from public and private schools, etc. Many of them still are of that type though a considerable percentage of them are volunteers who are desirous of obtaining an education of the type offered there. It is not a utopia. The youngsters make many mistakes; when they are tired of suffering under them, they do what they can to undo the wrong. Mr. George concludes his own story of his work in the following words:

> I know that it will succeed because underneath the idea rests the principles that have caused our country to become a great nation and I believe in our country and its ideals. If our Republican form of government is wrong, then the Junior Republic is wrong. If our Republican form of government is right, the Junior Republic is right, for they are identical. Granting this fact, the only opportunity for difference of opinion is that some may say young people are not capable of assuming and fulfilling such responsibility as devolves upon them in a Junior Republic. I reply that

> a long experience has taught me that they are absolutely capable.[2]

No one who would make a study of means and methods of sharing school government with students can afford not to read at least a brief account of this republic, not because it exists under typical conditions, because it doesn't; not because its methods are adaptable to other schools, for, in most part, they aren't; not because it is the result of a well thought-out plan of a great educator, since it was the fruit of a non-school man's hobby; but because it was the spark that started a great wave of enthusiasm and experimentation in teaching democracy by practicing democracy itself.

Student Government in the Public Schools

To Mr. Wilson L. Gill falls the honor of introducing in the public schools a plan which spread the fire of enthusiasm for student participation in school government throughout our secondary educational system during the first part of the present century. It was in 1897 that he organized New York City's Norfolk Street Vacation School in the form of a school city. So successful was this summer school that Dr. Bernard Cronson, Principal of Public School No. 69 of New York City copied Mr. Gill's plan for his own school.

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2. William R. George, The Junior Republic: Its History and Ideals, pp. 325-326.

His success was, likewise, immediate and the plans for the students of this school to share the responsibility of controlling themselves and their environment soon became a permanent part of the institution. This school, No. 69, in turn became the pattern for schools in and out of New York City. Many were failures, but the method of formulating and installing such school-city plans were, perhaps, as logical as ordering a suit of clothes by mail without specifying either size or color, yet expecting to be well satisfied. Disappointments in these plans for school cities were not so sudden as might be expected in the illustration just cited, yet just as certain in the long run. As Cronson himself put it:

> What they introduced into their own schools was not self-government but government by children; and these manifested a temporary interest . . . . because its novelty supported by the enthusiasm of the teacher attracted them for the time being . . . .[3]

after which death followed, slow but certain through a lack of interest or, perhaps, suddenly and unexpectedly, through internal trouble because the faculty thought themselves relieved of all responsibility.

In the meantime Mr. Gill received and accepted an invitation from General Leonard Wood, who had just been appointed as military governor of Cuba, to act as general

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3. Bernard Cronson, Pupil Self-Government, pp. 7-8.

supervisor of moral and civic training in the island. During his term he organized 3600 school rooms on the republican model. General Wood reported on his success in the following words:

> The results were most satisfactory; indeed they were so satisfactory that I unhesitatingly commend the idea as worth of most serious consideration. . . . . This system would, I believe, be especially valuable in all schools, and would result in our children being much better equiped for the discharge of their civic responsibilities.[4]

Mr. Gill also introduced his plan in some of the Indian schools upon his appointment as a special government agent in 1911. During all this time he wrote and lectured on the advantages of his plan. He even tried to force it on the schools through lesgislative means. It may be fortunate for both schools and Mr. Gill that his efforts failed.

It has been said by Dr. Welling[5] that the greatest progress was first made in the elementary schools rather than in the secondary schools and colleges where it might well be expected.

One of the early pioneers of using pupil aid in government in our American elementary schools was J. T. Ray, Principal of the John Crerar School of Chicago. This system is patterned on the Roman government of ancient

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4. Walter Robinson Smith, Constructive School Discipline, pp. 229-230.

5. Richard Welling, "Self-government in Secondary Schools," National Education Association of the United States, Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1915, p. 110.

times. As in the time of the Roman Empire, not all are citizens. Only those are citizens who meet such requirements in scholarship and conduct as are set by the teachers. This has proven very satisfactory especially in schools where only cooperation is wanted in police duties.

Another was Miss Jane Brownlee, Principal of LaGrange School, Toledo, Ohio, who sponsored a different type of government. Her school was organized as a city, each room being a ward. Only grades 5-8 had voting privileges. Her aim was not to give pupils any self-governing powers, but only to have them go through the forms of government, i.e., dramatization for the educational benefits in the performance of the parts thereof and to secure better cooperation between pupil and teacher. It means a considerable extra teacher load as worked in her school, but probably is worth it.

Extent of Available Information

Mention has already been made of the great debt the public schools owe William R. George and his colleagues for their pioneering work. An equally important though entirely different type of agency in the diffusion of this form of school government is "The Self-Government Committee, Inc." of New York City. This committee has been at work continuously since 1904 in a publicity campaign. Their work is avowedly of a propagandistic nature, but it is distinctly unselfish. Bowden and Clarke in

their Tomorrow's Americans give a brief but good account of the work of this committee. They say in part:

> . . . . Here an interested parent or teacher can get complete and reliable information on the subject. Associated in the work of this committee are men and women who are prominent in their respective professions. They include Dr. John Dewey, Dr. John H. Finley, Mrs. Minnie Maddern Fiske, President Glenn Frank, President John Grier Hibben, President Hamilton Holt, Lillian D. Wald and others of equal prominence in various fields. The directors include Richard Welling, Lyman Beecher Stowe, William McAndrew, R. E. Simon, Harold T. Pulsifer, and Frank Rexford. These are busy people--there is not an idle one among them. But they are convinced that this is a subject that needs to be studied and presented to the teaching profession and to all who are interested in the future welfare of the nation.
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> This committee has worked quitly and persistently for many years. It has no endowment, makes no money, and "carries on" mainly by means of the motive power furnished by the dynamic men and women who believe it is worth while. Some of the more powerful and well advertised organizations might do well to sit at the feet of this committee, for it has done its work well.[6]

It seems that a group of men and women of this calibre should be called in by educators to present their case at every opportunity. But sad to relate, such is not the case. It seems to be another case of "A prophet is not without honor save in his own country." Speaking before the National Education Association in 1915, the Chairman, Richard Welling said:

> If there is any plan for training the young for citizenship in a democracy that does

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6. A. C. Bowden and Ida Clyde Clarke, Tomorrow's Americans, pp. 51-53.

> not utilize some form of pupil cooperation in the government of the school we have not heard of it, and yet only four times during thirteen years has our subject found a place on your programme and then only at our urgent request.[7]

Bowden and Clarke express the same thought concerning the indifference of our educators in much stronger language when they say:

> To an "unofficial observer" it is surprising to find that the National Education Association has never made a serious study of this subject, nor can the interested seeker for information get from this organization any thing like accurate data or a resume of what has been done and what is being done in this field. Reports in the files of this organization are occasional and desultory. Over a period of more than twenty years we find that the programmes of the annual meetings of this organization have included this important subject of self-government but a few times. The Research Bulletin of the National Education Association for March 1929, the general subject of which is The Principal and Progressive Movements in Education, contains a list of more than two hundred books, suggested as sources of information: yet not one of these books contains a clear and concise statement of the principle of teaching civics through student participation in school government, accompanied by historic data and records of experiments. The Child Centered School, by Rugg and Shumaker is the only volume suggested that treats the subject in detail and this, valuable and comprehensive as it is--as a reference book and as good reading for the expert educator--is too broad in its scope and too general in its treatment to be of practical service to the average teacher and the average parent.[8]

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7. Op. Cit., p. 109.

8. Op. Cit., p. 49.

Conditions are not much better even yet. While working on this problem it was found that the book from which the above quotation was taken, together with Constructive School Discipline by Dr. Walter Robinson Smith and Point Systems and Awards by Edgar G. Johnston taken together comprise about the clearest, most concise statement of the problem and some of its possible solutions that is available. The first two are not based upon formal studies and the authors have a tendency to theorize. However, since the formal studies of others tend to support rather than destroy their line of reasoning and since their style of writing is much preferred by many readers, these could well serve in the place of a text at the present time. The best single-volume treatment available is probably Supervising Extra-Curricula Activities in the American Secondary Schools by Paul W. Terry, Professor of Education of the University of Alabama. One of the best features of his work is his large, well-rounded, carefully classified and annotated bibliography.

Mention has already been made of the increasing amount of magazine space devoted to this topic. An attempt was made to measure this factor, not in column inches but in the number of articles, which is a better indication of how many times the average reader has had his attention called to the question. This is shown by

decades beginning with 1876 in Table I.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF MAGAZINE ARTICLES RELATING TO STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT BY DECADES

Decades	Number of Articles
1876-1885	2
1886-1895	2
1896-1905	14
1906-1915	34
1916-1925	49
1926-1935	89

These figures were obtained by a count of the references in Poole's Index to Periodical Literature, the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, and the Educational Index. Of course much of the increase may be due to the increase of reading material as a whole. A more important factor which does not show in a mere count from a bibliography is whether the material is favorable or unfavorable, or perhaps, of a controversial nature. Very little of unfavorable or controversial matter appeared in those articles selected for reading, except during the earlier decades.

The formal studies examined are tabulated in Table II. The figures give a slight idea of the extent to which some form of the plan has been adopted in various parts of the country at various times, but of course the true meaning of the figures can only be determined by an actual study of the individual survey in each case. Although they are

TABLE II

STUDIES MADE OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Investigator	Region	Year	Questionnaires sent out	Questionnaires answered	Number having student government	Percent having student government*
Jackson	Entire U. S.	1921	101	85	25	29.0
Satchell	Pennsylvania	1922	200	150	42	28.0
Archer	Iowa	1922	100	62	22	35.5
Rohrbach		1925		227	82	35.6
Dustin**	Entire U. S.	1926		81	57	70.3
Rugg	Entire U. S.	1926	300	191	90	90.0
Voelker	Mich., Ill., Ind., Ohio	1926	200	152	130	85.5
Drewry	Entire U. S.	1926	400	256	197	77.0
Ringdahl	Entire U. S.	1927	250	179	123	68.7
Curry	Kentucky	1929		196		53.0
Russell	Northwest	1930		318	168	52.8
Bowden and Clarke	Entire U. S.	1930	727	508	346	68.1
Hogan	Kansas (Jr. high schools)	1931	64	40	33	82.5
Young	Mich. (Jr. high schools)	1932	110	104	92	88.4
Sheldon	Iowa (Class A schools)	1933		93	53	56.8
Sheldon	Iowa (Class B schools)	1933		88	28	31.8
Sheldon	Iowa (All schools)	1933	214	181	81	44.7
Bryan***	Twenty representative states	1935	200	159	127	79.8

*Based on number of questionnaires returned.

**A special group--excluded schools that had never experimented at all with student participation in government.

***Dealt with the single phase--police duty.

arranged according to the date at which compiled, the table can hardly be said to indicate much one way or the other in respect to growth. One reason for this is the fact that they seldom cover the same territory geographically. Archer's and Sheldon's do and would indicate an increase of 9.2 per cent in adoptions for the state of Iowa. Of the others, Voelker and Young come the closest to covering the same territory and if comparable would indicate a very slight difference for the state of Michigan over a six-year period.

Another factor which does not show and which is not always made clear in the original study is the size of the schools studied. This is quite important as would be indicated by one of Drewry's quotations:

> In February, 1926, Miss Laura B. Wiley sent a questionnaire to 298 schools throughout the country to obtain data on secondary schools. The questionnaire was sent to towns of 2500 or more population. The number sent each state was determined by the size of population, one questionnaire being sent to approximately each 350,000 of population. Her report . . . . presents data from 209 schools replying. Thirty-six and four tenths per cent of the schools in towns between 2500 and 10,000 population have student government, 50 per cent of those in towns between 10,000 and 20,000, 63.9 per cent of those in cities between 20,000 and 50,000, and 71 per cent of those in cities of more than 50,000.[9]

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9. Raymond G. Drewry, Pupil Participation in High School Control, pp. 7-8.

This factor would partly explain the large percentage shown to have adopted student participation in government in the surveys of Hogan and Young. Both included only the junior high schools and junior high schools are seldom organized in the smaller systems.

Sheldon's division of the schools of Iowa into Classes A and B show the same tendency. His Class A schools (the larger ones) showed 56.8 per cent adoption as opposed to 31.8 per cent for the Class B schools (the smaller ones).

Following this sketch of the development and spread of plans for student participation in school government, the next step will be to attempt an analysis, from the standpoint of the persons most vitally concerned, i.e., teachers and educational leaders, of some of the literature available.

CHAPTER III

OPINIONS AND BELIEFS OF EDUCATORS REGARDING STUDENT GOVERNMENT

Why do we go to so much expense and trouble to educate our boys and girls? What is education and what does it include? Let us go back to the early days of our country and note what its founders had to say about education.

We must educate "for public service," said Franklin; to obtain "an enlightened opinion of self-government," said Washington; "for civic and moral duties," claimed John Adams; "for government," maintained Madison and Monroe alike; to enable citizens " to know what is goin on, and to make each, his part go on right," said Jefferson. To sum it up, then education is according to our country's fathers, the training of good citizens--good citizens in a democracy since they devoted their lives so largely to forming and maintaining our democracy. Regardless of how education may be defined, training for citizenship has been increasingly emphasized through the years as one of the major aims of both the elementary and secondary schools of the United States.

And why not? Man is born into this world and placed under despotic rule. It is true, of course, that some babies' cries are more effective than others in obtaining

their wants, but after all is said and done babies must yield to the authority of some adult. There is no court of appeals. Approximately twenty years afterward these babies may find themselves under democratic rule. It would be rather absurd to think that a person could slip from the first condition over into the second with no intermediate steps. Some of our most dismal failures in civil government have occurred when an attempt was made to change from some kind of a monarchy to a democracy at one full step. What is true of a nation is more or less true of the individuals in a nation.

While several institutions share in the efforts to bring about this transition successfully, it is the school that must assume the greatest responsibility. The school has either the presence or the attention of the child for the greater part of his waking hours for five days each week, nine months of the year and is in an admirable position to help him. And if our early schools seem to have fallen short in their training, proper allowance should be made for conditions as they existed at that time.

Our first schools were patterned to a great extent after those in Europe. They were concerned only with the four R's--Reading, 'Riting, 'Rithmetic, and Religion. They were maintained for the upper classes, but it was the upper classes that did the ruling--suffrage was not universal even among the men. Life in the early days of our country was simple and while their schools would not

provide an adequate training for our complex civilization, it sufficed fairly well for that time.

When the nineteenth century dawned, developments were taking place in America that were destined to effect education. New states were carved out of our vast West where land was virtually free. Property qualifications for voting were abolished. As universal male suffrage spread throughout the country there developed a new sense of democracy. The West and then the East demanded tax supported schools. They got what they wanted, but found that the curriculum would not function in the new order. The four R's did not provide the proper training of youth in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. After the Civil War, feelings in regard to, and desires for the training of better citizens in our schools intensified. The teaching of American History did not seem to suffice, so Civics was added to the curriculum.

Still the schools were not democratic. A typical school might be described as one where his majesty, the teacher, sat on his rostrum or strode about the room looking for trouble; always looking for trouble. Not that there were so many trouble-makers, but that he and he alone must apprehend them. In case some one wanted to make trouble, no matter what the reason, whether it was little Jimmie who stuck a pin in Mary for fun or John who sneaked the apple from Fred's dinner pail, the culprit

had no fear of exposure from any one unless it was the victim in the first moment of surprise. In the eyes of the student body and often in the eyes of the teacher as well, the giving of evidence was "tattling," an offense as serious as the original one. Looking for trouble? Certainly, since the teacher's personal prowess was the one factor that determined whether school "kept" or not.

After these boys and girls leave school, will fun-loving Jimmie who imbibes too much alcohol and destroys a little property or mistreats his family expect his former schoolmates, his neighbors now, to still retain their attitude of silence. Will John who puts a stolen tire on his car expect the same treatment from acquaintances as when he took the apple? And will those who refused to tattle in their younger days now keep still when they see these things? When they see graft and corruption in politics? When they see the law mocked? Are the social habits formed in school going to operate in adult life?

If so; if man learns to do by doing; if education comes from within; and if the nature of man is so fundamentally social that his highest development can only be attained through cooperative activities, as maintained by Dewey and other prominent educators, then we should not expect to teach boys and girls how to be good citizens by the lecture or text book methods. If we are to turn out

good democratic-minded citizens, our schools must become laboratories of democracy. Furthermore, it goes without saying that to "turn out" a boy or a girl as a good citizen is vastly more important than to turn him or her out with ability to add rapidly, name the officers of the president's cabinet, play the cornet well, or any other such skills, valuable as they may be. Many times when corruption enters government there is a cry to get the citizens on the job to clean house, but what of the citizen' fitness to clean house after they get there!

It was after such fashion that Cronson, Gill and Welling reasoned in their early efforts to obtain supporters to their plans for making civics laboratories out of our schools. While the advocates of such plans still argue and reason thus, there is now a plentiful supply of data on which to base arguments both for and against it. Some of this data is briefly summarized in the following paragraphs.

Mr. Welling made a collection of the objections as they were offered to him early in his work--the objections that were thought to be strong enough to doom any extensive attempts in this direction. He combined and organized them under twelve heads and then submitted them to the principal of a large school organized as a school state to be answered. The objections and the answers are as follows:

Objection Number 1. Pupil cooperation calls for a mental development that children do not possess. Neither is it desirable that children should become legislative, judicial, and executive. We want to keep them young as long as we can.

Answer. We have found the pupils of the sixth, seventh, and eighth years all normally developed, able to conduct their own affairs --under judicious supervision. As for the contention that cooperation induces precocity, it is unfounded. The children, both officers and citizens, are thoroughly normal, healthy, and sport-loving young Americans, and, I may add, leaders in general athletics.

Objection Number 2. Children, when vested with power, tend to become arrogant.

Answer. Five years of pupil cooperation have failed to bring forth a domineering state official.

Objection Number 3. In the last analysis the supervision necessary makes mere puppets of the children.

Answer. Not a fact. Judicious supervision exercised along the lines of friendly control has quite the contrary effect. Pupils, teachers, and principal become co-workers and there is a mutual exchange of suggestions that is helpful to all. Initiative is fostered in the pupils and they experience the miracle of cooperative action.

Objection Number 4. The machinery is so elaborate that the purpose is destroyed.

Answer. Yes, if the machinery is so elaborate, this is true; but it need not be, and in successful systems it is not. Elaborate systems fall to the ground of their own weight. The best results are obtained along the simplest lines. This objection is founded on the erroneous idea that pupil cooperation is a fixed plan that cannot be modified. Every principal must work out her or his own plan --any other will be liable to failure.

Objection Number 5. The energy expended is not worth while.

Answer. If a wealth of school spirit and an attitude of cooperation on the part of pupils and teachers for the welfare of the school is not worth while, is anything in this world worth while?

Objection Number 6. Pupil cooperation is simply for show; it cannot take care of those serious cases, e.g., thievery, etc., which come up in every school.

Answer. This objection supposes that the entire government of the school is in the hands of the pupils. Rather is pupil government an auxiliary of the regularly constituted school regime and makes the handling of untoward events a simpler procedure than usual.

Objection Number 7. The children of our day are more in need of respect for authority than the exercise of it.

Answer. Why? The children of our day have been quickened by the inquiring spirit of our times and are quick to detect the shallowness of the autocratic system. But where they are trained to a rational respect for authority through a realization of the necessity of it, their respect and loyalty become unshakable.

Objection Number 8. Pupil cooperation destroys one of the greatest influences of the school--the principal's and teachers' personal influence.

Answer. Through five years the principal and teachers and pupils have been brought constantly into closer and more efficient cooperation.

Objection Number 9. The activities of self-government are mere play. The children realize that the principal and teachers constitute the real governing power of the school.

Answer. In a well organized system the jurisdiction of the pupils is clearly defined,

and realized, and lived up to; that an appeal can always be taken to the principal is a sufficient safeguard against undue punishments. The children, of course, enjoy elections and legislating, but what objection is there to that? Their characters are being molded for democratic living; and are being molded effectively and joyfully. What more can one ask of an educational method?

Objection Number 10. We have self-government without an organization. Our children are orderly, polite and considerate. We do not need a formal system.

Answer. And when the children leave the school they will continue to be orderly, polite, and considerate. Each will go his way and work out his own salvation, thinking that the government of his city and state and nation is to be left to the politicians. And when he awakes to the fact that the politicians are in the governing business for what they can get out of it and he undertakes to better conditions by enlisting the interest of his neighbors and friends he will find them preoccupied and apathetic. Pupil cooperation aims to make apathetic citizenship militant, and in order to function there must be some system--all the better if the pupils evolve it themselves (always with the cooperation of their teachers).

Objection Number 11. There are so many new and desirable suggestions offered for improving the schools that we hesitate to adopt this before we estimate its relative importance.

Answer. Pupil self-government does not compete with vocational training, school gardens, and other suggested additions to the curricula. Rather it supplements all school work by putting the pupils on a sounder basis for effective work in every branch of study. Under the conventional school regime, regulations and improvements come from the principal's office. With pupil cooperation each child feels a responsibility for the common welfare and feels free to "speak up," to correct a defect, or to suggest an improvement.

Objection Number 12. It takes up too much time.

Answer. It takes five minutes of school time for voting at the beginning of the term. The time given to it by the teacher in charge of the principal (about two hours a week after school) is a voluntary offering such as is given to athletics, clubs, school orchestras, and other class activities.

Objection Number 13. If men cannot successfully govern themselves, how can children?

Answer. No amount of priori reasoning can argue away the fact that children do govern themselves relatively well. May it not be one of the contributory causes of the shortcomings of our democracy that as children our people were not effectively trained for participation in civic life? . . . . The science of numbers is taught by the use of numbers; physical training is carried out by a scientifically developed course of physical exercises; drawing is drawing; and nature study is pursued largely by a first-hand study of objects, but civics takes its place with astronomy in that it deals with things remote. The vitalization of civics calls for some mode of pupil self-government.

Objection Number 14. In the economic conditions under which we live, our children need all of the knowledge that they can get, to prepare for the struggle for existence.

Answer. The economic conditions under which we live are extremely trying, because we have let slip from our grasp the power that rightfully belongs to us. The fundamental remedy is to teach our children the value of working together, reclaiming that power and re-establishing the conditions of true democracy.[1]

After quoting most of the above matter, Irving King in his comments stresses the fact that the teacher does

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1. From a free bulletin, Taking the Blinders off Democracy, of the National Self Government Committee, Inc., 80 Broadway, New York City and also "Pupil Self-Government as a Training for Citizenship," Proceedings of the National Education Association, July, 1911, pp. 1007-1008.

not abdicate in favor of the pupil, that instead of full responsibility being pushed off onto the children, only the cooperation of the children was utilized and that above all, this is a dynamic and not a static agent of the teacher. His final quotation from J. T. Ray lays additional emphasis on this:

> The teacher must ever remember that student government is still a school for teaching government as well as any other subject. He should, therefore, no more abandon the careful attention of teaching students to govern than he should abandon the teaching of history or mathematics. Let the teacher abandon the teaching of history and there will be no history class; equally, let him wholly abandon giving attention to teaching participation in government, and soon there will be no student government.[2]

As a contrast to the answer to the twelfth objection given by Mr. Welling, take that of lillian K. Wyman of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia after an analysis of conditions in her own school, which she made about twenty years later. She says:

> The faculty advisor or sponsor, chosen by the principal, should give <u>all</u> of his time to the work in any school of over a thousand students.[3]

In his analysis of magazine articles published prior to 1926, the objectives of student participation in school

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2. Irving King, Social Aspects of Education, pp. 297-298.

3. Lillian K. Wyman, "Student Development Through Responsibility," <u>National Education Journal</u>, Volume XIX, pp. 303-304.

government listed in Table III were found, definitely stated, by Dr. Earle Rugg.[4] A similar tabulation of objectives was made by the author of this study. Of those

TABLE III

OBJECTIVES OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT RANKED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF TIMES STATED IN MAGAZINE ARTICLES

Rank prior to 1926 (Rugg)	Rank after 1926 (author)	Objectives
1	1	To train for worthy citizenship through development of cooperation, self-control, self-reliance, initiative and responsibility.
2	3	To establish better understanding and a spirit of cooperation between students and faculty.
3	3	To develop interest in school work, school spirit and school pride.
4	2	To develop leadership.
5	5	To provide for pupil expression.

articles written before 1926, it merely confirmed Dr. Rugg's findings. Of those articles written since that

4. Earle Rugg, "Special Types of Activities: Student Participation in School Government," 25th Yearbook, Part II, of National Society for the Study of Education, pp. 127-140.

time, only one exception occurs in the respective ranking of the objectives that is worthy of note. In the study made by the author the "leadership" objective occupies fourth place instead of second. This is likely due to the growth of the movement itself. When first introduced into any school Rugg's second and third objectives would naturally be emphasized more than to develop leadership. After whatever plan is adopted has become well established and these other objectives at least partially achieved, efforts to develop leadership gradually assume a more prominent place, both because such efforts are worthy in themselves and because they react to make the attainment of the others that much easier. In both cases the first objective is far in the lead, being mentioned almost as many times as all the others put together.

While a concise comparison of the theories and principles underlying the student government movement or the difficulties and problems incidental to its operation at different times might also be very interesting, such an attempt did not prove feasible. Those changes that were apparent could be rationalized in much the same way as in the case of the objectives. These will, therefore, be merely enumerated as fully as possible and while some of them may seem minor and others are contradictory, it must be remembered that each was operative in at least one school and could be again in another, given the proper

environment. As such, the least important may be of use to any one making an analytical study of an individual school.

Theories and Principles of Student Government

1. It should be introduced gradually.
2. Both the students and the faculty should realize the need for such an organization.
3. It should have simple machinery.
4. It makes school administration easier.
5. Students and faculty must be familiar with the plan from the start.
6. It should have a definite place on the program.
7. The organization must be adapted to the needs of the particular school.
8. It must come from within the school--not be imposed by faculty or principal.
9. There must be a fair representation of both students and faculty.
10. It helps to break down class barriers.
11. Faculty members must have faith in the plan.
12. The organization must have definite powers and duties.
13. There must always be constant supervision (teaching).
14. The plan must have at least the passive approval of the community--no active opposition.
15. It is a good way to utilize adolescent activities.
16. It is the most logical way to teach civics.

17. Pupils should have a voice in most disciplinary problems.

18. Pupils should have no voice in problems of a disciplinary nature.

19. It is the best way to teach respect for law.

20. It helps to hold students in school for a greater number of years.

21. It helps to improve scholarship.

22. Terms of office should be short.

23. It helps in the social development of the students.

24. There should be an equitable representation of all students in the central organization.

25. Older pupils and not the teachers should pass the ideals to new students.

26. It gives practice in administering our social machinery.

27. Where students operate a school court, there should be a definite method of keeping records.

28. Teachers must never have a suspicious attitude.

29. Teachers must obey the same regulations as do the students.

30. Honors and publicity should be given to student officers and special groups whenever it is possible.

31. Principal officers should be formally installed so as to unite intellectual and emotional appeal.

32. As far as possible, only concrete activities should be dealt with.

33. High school students are individuals who prefer to do their own thinking.

34. Ideas of students must be given fair and respectful consideration and accepted when possible and sometimes when the success of the plan offered is impossible and certain to be discarded by the pupils themselves when they see it in operation.

35. A written constitution is desirable.

36. It is a means of teacher economy.

37. The principal should have veto powers.

Difficulties, Problems, and Objections to Student Government

Unlike those offered at the beginning of this chapter, these difficulties were not submitted as reasons against adopting some plan of student participation in school government, but rather as conditions that should be minimized as far as possible and in some cases eliminated entirely. The fact that some of the statements under "Theories and Principles of Student Government" just given are direct contradictions of these statements would indicate that this is possible. They are:

1. Scholarship of officers and proctors will suffer.

2. Teachers, especially the weak ones, are apt to "go on vacation."

3. Improperly supervised, it furnishes a good training ground for lawlessness and anarchy.

4. Pupil officers when given enough power to handle the problems they meet are apt to develop an exaggerated ego.

5. It is a liability, not an asset; it makes more work for the faculty, not less.

6. It is difficult to keep all members active.

7. Pupils do not like to assume responsibility required.

8. It is difficult to administer.

9. Pupils exercise poor judgment in selecting their leaders.

10. Competent pupils are given too much to do.

11. Pupils are too immature.

12. Students mistake liberty for license.

13. Pupils attempt tasks that are too big.

14. It wastes time for both the teacher and pupil due to a lack of definiteness in its administration.

15. The plan is often disrupted by a frequent change of principals.

16. It is usually dependent on the personality of some one faculty leader and dies with his passing.

17. There is a lack of good student leaders.

18. Students will not report or testify against each other.

19. Power is often conferred upon students without adequate preparation.

20. It leads to personal spite, ill feeling or dictatorial methods on the part of the student leaders.

21. Faculty sponsors exercise too much repression and coercion.

22. Pupils resist being dictated to by other pupils.

23. Too many teachers are still in the schools who were educated under the old autocratic system and who are not yet qualified to teach under any other system.

24. Cliques and clans arise.

25. There is often a lack of some single faculty member who has administrative and executive ability and sympathetic understanding of young people, who is responsible for its success and who thoroughly believes in it.

A few instances of definite accomplishments by pupils who have been given the chance to participate in the control of their affairs will help to illustrate the place that this movement is filling in some of our schools at the present time. The librarian[5] of the Washington High School, Portland, Oregon, reports that the student organization there reduced the loss of books by ninety per cent in four years time; that books were better cared for and that the general order in the library was much improved during that time.

The principal[6] of an Evansville, Indiana, high school reports that their school court names the penalties that are imposed on the students including expulsion from the school within the limits set by the state law. Both the students and the community at large accept these decisions of the students with greater favor than they did those of the teachers previously.

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5. Hilda M. Lancefield, "Student Council and the Library," The Library Journal, Volume LV, p. 729.

6. Carl Shrode, "Student Responsibility in Evansville," Journal of Education, Volume CXIII, pp. 274-275.

Mr. Jones[7] of the Walla Walla, Washington, High School states that in 1914, those graduating from his school represented twenty-six per cent of the group that entered as freshmen four years before; in 1920, they graduated fifty-eight per cent of those who had started in 1916. This "holding power" of the school was twelve per cent under the average of the country in 1914 and twenty per cent above the average in 1920. While many factors may have influenced this change, Mr. Jones believed that the most important one was the fact that the students started to participate in their government in 1914.

Mr. Gregory[8] of Andover, Massachusetts, described two small high schools (names not given) of his acquaintance where conditions were very dissimilar. The first school had a domineering principal with no interest outside of conventional subject matter, was located in a poor community and had many foreign-born students. The second school had an active, progressive principal in most ways, an excellent faculty and coaches and was located in a fine residential district. In one respect both principals were alike: they considered themselves an autocrat in their respective schools. The noticeable difference was that athletics, a subject too insignificant to deserve the notice of the first, was important enough to be fully

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7. H. W. Jones, "Student Participation in School Government," School and Society, Volume XIII, p. 256.

8. Charles A. Gregory, "Two Athletic Associations--A Contrast," Education, Volume LII, pp. 175-179.

controlled by the second man. The students in the first school managed both their inter-school and intra-mural sports (they had to or go without them under the leadership of their principal); the students in the other school had nothing to say about the matter. In the matter of athletic supremacy, as shown by the "school" teams, the odds were slightly in favor of the second school, but as a place in which to live and work, the first school was far superior, mostly because the school belonged to the students as well as to the principal and teachers, though home conditions may have had a considerable influence, the students in the second school often being pampered at home.

In Cleveland, Mr. Abele[9] states that the initiation of student governed study halls made it possible to release six of the usual seven teachers engaged in study hall supervision for other duties. After one year's trial he declared it to be out of the experimental stage. That may seem like a very strong statement to those educators who still consider that they are experimenting after ten or eleven years work along these lines.

In the DeWitt Clinton High School[10] of New York City, Aaron I. Dotey had developed the work to such a

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9. Luther Abele, "The Organization of Student-Governed Study Halls," School Review, Volume XXXIV, pp. 777-781.

10. Alfred Grunberg, "Saves Thoughtless Youngsters from Disgrace," American Magazine, Volume LXXXIV, pp. 53-54.

degree by the year 1917 that he was recognized as an authority on juvenile matters by the courts. No boy of the DeWitt Clinton High School was ever sent to jail until this Latin teacher had first been consulted on the matter. Quite often he was able through his organization of boys to head these would be criminals back in the other direction where they became worthwhile citizens.

Emphasis has been repeatedly been placed on the necessity of having each school adopt a plan that would fit the individual needs of their own students and that the plan should grow as the needs grow. Theoretically this would mean as many plans as there are schools sharing their government with the students. Practically, there are probably many schools so nearly alike that only a close examination would show differences worthy of note. However, there are so many forms of organizations in use that those who have tried to classify them in some sort of orderly system have found it very difficult. Perhaps the best of these attempts is that of Terry.[11] His first class is the Informal Type. This is really paternalism rather than a true form of student participation in government. In it he includes all schools where pupils are asked to aid in some special way. The individual student is considered

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11. Paul W. Terry, Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities in the American Secondary School, viii + 417.pages.

in relation to the individual job. A very simple illustration is embodied in the question, "John, will you see that the plants are watered this week?" The value of this type of management according to its proponents lies in the training given to the few students asked to help and the ease with which such a type can be converted into the next class.

This next class is called the Specific Service type. Here the group is considered in relation to the job. For instance, the basketball team might be asked to help solve a locker-room problem in discipline or a class in home economics might be asked to serve as guides to vistors who come to the school. While there may be many such groups in the school, they have no relation to each other, each being responsible to the one who appointed them only. In addition to the value that may be claimed for this as for the first type, there is the necessity for some degree of cooperation between the members of each of these service groups. Some sort of formal organization in the group might in some cases be instituted in order to facilitate the work.

Terry calls his third type the Specific Council. In this group belong all plans which provide for some sort of central student organization through which these special service groups of the type previously described are linked together and more or less controlled. He uses the word

"Council" in his classification because this organization is known as a student council more often than by any other name. However, there are a great many schools that call this organization of students by names other than council. A plan of this sort not only knits the students closer together in the carrying out of any given activity, but it also provides for a greater degree of continuity in all their activities. The organization is present to take care of new needs as they arise and to discard or modify existing plans of action with changing conditions; in short, to give the students a chance to act in a constructive manner and to put their own ideas into practice in place of or in addition to those of the principal and faculty.

The Complete Council Type is the term he applies to those schools employing a council of more than one house. This is merely a modification of the Specific Council Type to meet the needs of the large high schools. To provide adequate representation for all the units of the school gives such a large number of council delegates that the organization becomes somewhat unwieldy. Most of the specific and executive powers are entrusted to a smaller body or a sort of upper house corresponding to our United States cabinet officers. These are often chosen from or by the large council and sometimes from and by the large council. The machinery of government in these schools can hardly be called simple.

The next type is that patterned after some unit of political government, usually the city in which the school is located though it is sometimes the state in which it is located.

Of course the boundary lines between these classes are rather vague, one type merging into the other. And even with this rather elastic boundary, there are some schools that would seem to belong to more than one of the types named because they have features common to each of several types.

Another point of vital consideration is the regulation of any system adopted. It cannot run itself and satisfy the ends for which it should have been established and yet for a member of the faculty to step in spasmodically with some regulation as situations arise would be likely to arouse antagonism and wrong attitudes. Consequently it is usual to find some regulation providing for the restriction of participation of some and the encouragement to participate on the part of others. Some of these restrictions are very simple consisting only of a rule that permits a student to hold only a certain number of offices or engage in a certain number of activities. The amount of time consumed in the different activities or in performing the duties of the different offices is given no consideration though it may vary greatly. An office is an office and that is all there is to it.

A somewhat finer distinction is drawn by those schools that list all offices and activities in two or three groups according to the amount of time and skill required and adopt a regulation that limits the number of offices from each group or combination of groups that may be held. Only a little more clerical work is needed for such a device and usually allows for a more equitable distribution of offices.

Other schools go a step farther and evaluate each office in points and limit each student to a certain number of points which may be earned from just a few major offices or many minor ones. This involves still more clerical work than the preceding plan and is not considered enough better by some to pay for the trouble.

The great defect in the last plan and to a lesser extent in the one which lists activities and offices in major and minor groups is the haphazard way in which the classifications are made in the first place. A group, faculty, or students, or both meet and in a very short space of time have all these offices placed in some one of these classes. Often there are disagreements as to the relative time consumed by different offices and much compromising is done. But seldom is there any evidence of actually computing the time consumed for each office and each activity. If the boy on the football team is allowed twice as many points as the boy on the debating

team, is it because his practice time plus the game time is twice the library, practice and debating time of the other; because there are more out to cheer for football; or because more points are necessary to encourage boys to try out for football? If the president of any organization is allowed twice the number of points that the treasurer, is it because his duties require twice the time; require twice as much skill; or because more points are necessary to entice students to serve as presidents when elected? The above questions may sound sane or insane, but if a certain number of points additional is advocated for one activity above another without being able to prove its need by asking and answering such questions in regard to it by using actual figures or citing instances in its support, it may defeat its very purpose. A reason that may seem out of place in one school may operate very well in another.

As already inferred in the last paragraph, either of these last two methods may be used as a means of stimulating as well as limiting activity. Limiting can be done by establishing a maximum number of points and stimulating by providing some reward for those who earn a minimum number of points. Other means of stimulation are the granting of special favors, write-ups in school or city newspapers, mention of service through auditorium programs, and by giving academic credit.

Such, briefly, is the view presented by current literature. Most of the experimenting seems to have been done by the larger schools probably in part because a more stable tenure of faculty members makes this possible. Progress may be said to come about as much through replacement of retiring "autocratically-minded" teachers by those who are leaving college with new concepts of discipline as any other one thing. Total failures are being replaced by partial failures; the "mushroom" period of growth is past; and the period of good, solid construction is evidently being started. The next step will be to see how Walter H. French Junior High School fits into this picture.

CHAPTER IV

THE ORGANIZATION AT WALTER H. FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The Walter H. French Junior High School was opened to the public in the fall of 1925. Mr. J. W. Slaughter who had been principal of the Lansing Free Public Evening School was appointed as the principal of the new school. In preparation for his new work which was of such a different nature than his old, he spent two terms at Teachers' College, Columbia. Here he imbibed certain ideas concerning democracy in the school which he determined to put into practice. His democractic ideas concerned both principal-teacher and teacher-student relations. The former need not be mentioned except as it may incidentally effect the latter.

Of the teachers, one was transferred from a grade school of the city and one from one of the other junior high schools; the others were gathered from widely separated points. Most of these teachers were entirely unacquainted with any form of student participation in school government and some of them were not only unsympathetic, but actually antagonistic according to the statement of Mr. Slaughter when interviewed on the subject.

This was the third junior high school to be organized in the city and about half of the students came from each of the other two schools as transfers. The students did not enter this school with any preconceived ideas of taking part in the government of themselves. As the one teacher who was transferred from one of the other junior high schools put it, "Pupil participation did not exist for them at that time. The school was run after the traditional style where everything was done by rule of thumb and it was the teacher's 'thumb' that held them down."

Conditions were, then, fairly typical of a new school in any of our larger cities. The greater part of the students came from old districts within the city which had been split to make the new one, with just a few students from more distant points. While there was thus some unity of feeling from the fact that they were of the same city, there was not that same unity of thought that exists among the students of an older school. There were no traditions to be broken down whatever the course that the principal might inaugurate--only new ones to be built.

In the matter of the faculty, perhaps a larger per cent of the teachers were new to the system than is usual. If the faculty had held the same views as the principal, this condition of being unacquainted with each other would have been more or less of a disadvantage as he would not be immediately aware of the full cooperation of his teachers.

Where there is opposition, however, as there was here, this works to the advantage of the principal as there would not be the united opposition that there would be where the teachers knew each other before the movement was initiated in their school.

Mr. Slaughter said that he had no set ideas as to the form or fashion in which democracy should function in his school when his first year started. He merely wanted to let faculty and students share in the duties and responsibilities of making an efficient school to the extent that they were willing and able. The machinery and organization incidental to such work he left to be worked out as the needs arose with but one exception. He sensed that there should be some means of coordinating the work, no matter how else things worked out, and early pushed the organization of a student council with representation by home rooms. This made necessary the organization of home rooms, to some extent at least, in order to elect a representative to the council.

The council met and wrote up a constitution which was submitted to the student body for their approval and also formulated a set of rules and regulations for the government of the students. The constitution has been amended several times, but hardly a change has taken place in the rules and regulations that were first adopted. The most impressive thing about the proceedings at that time

was not the fact that their rules were logical and wise, but the pleasure and satisfaction that the boys and girls in the council received in making such a rule as "students will keep to the right when passing to and from classes."

The teachers assigned to work with the council were named by grade--the 9-A--and so without appearing to do so, the principal included one who had taught under him before in the evening school and on whom he could depend for full cooperation.

Rules and regulations naturally call for some one to enforce them, for, as sure as there is a rule, there will be an infraction of that rule. This resulted in the organization of a force of traffic officers who supervised the students while passing in the halls. These were elected or appointed from the home rooms as suited the individual teachers.

The school published a paper--The Southern Star--from the first month. Printing was a regular elective subject then as now. The other junior high schools published papers and this was naturally one thing that the students expected. They were allowed to elect their own editor and staff and with but minor alterations, the publication has functioned regularly as a student enterprise under careful faculty guidance since that time.

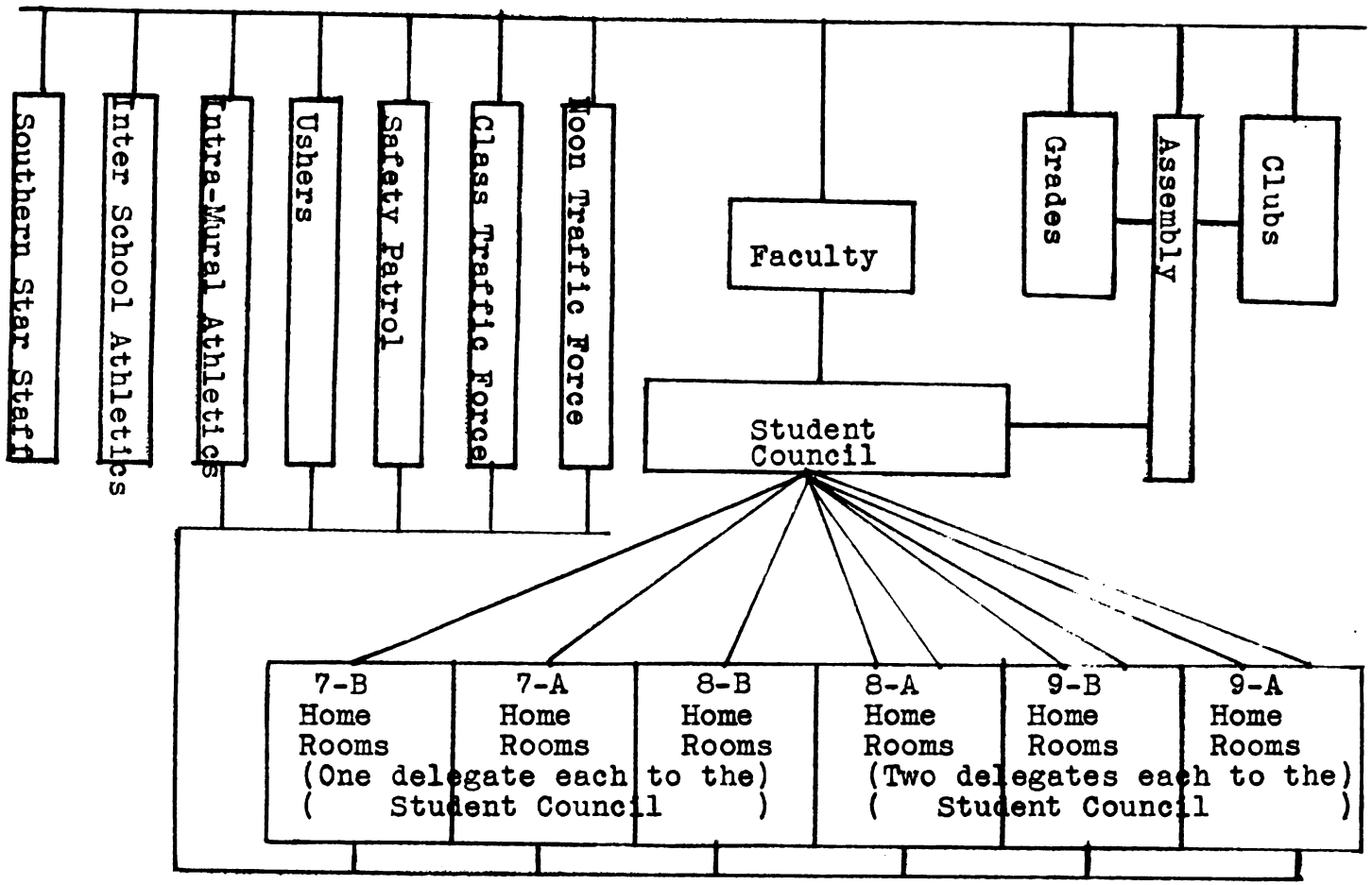
Two other things were initiated during the last months of the opening year though not much progress was made.

One of these was intra-mural athletics. The other was the organization of a Safety Patrol in cooperation with a general community campaign of that year.

The second year of school witnessed several changes. The student council which had been meeting weekly now met once each month. An extra class period was provided for extra-curricular activities. Clubs were organized to meet once each week. One day each week was to be used for home room meetings and home rooms were more formally organized. Auditorium programs which had been more or less irregular were now to be held each week. The other two days were left open for meetings of such organizations as grades, traffic officers, etc. The Hi-Y which had been "talked up" the preceding spring was organized as a regular club but not meeting during the school day with the other clubs. A troop of girl scouts was organized and met with enthusiastic response. A school store was opened and run by students of the Opportunity Room.

In 1929-30 the force of permanent ushers was organized and a chapter of the National Junior Honor Society was installed. Beginning with the third year, practically all growth in student participation has taken place in the form of added duties to existing organizations rather than by adding new branches. The development of some of the more important branches will now be given in greater detail. The organization of the school as a whole is pictured in the diagram on the next page.

CHART SHOWING POINTS OF CONTACT BETWEEN UNITS OF ORGANIZATION WHICH PROVIDES FOR PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT AT FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL



Athletics

In the opening of the school there were so many things incidental to organization to occupy the students' minds that no immediate need of intra-mural athletics was felt. There were only two physical education teachers, one each for boys and girls, and their hands were completely tied in an effort to conduct their regular class work and at the same time get teams ready for interscholastic events. In the spring of that year, however, things had settled into sufficient of a routine to make such a project advisable. One of the men was asked, and agreed to conduct a series of games between home room baseball teams. No provisions were made for the girls. The next fall soccer was instituted for the boys and in the winter basketball for both boys and girls. The number of games has increased until now there is competition in speed ball, tag football, basketball, volley ball, track, swimming, soft ball, and horseshoe throwing for the boys and field ball, track, basketball, volley ball, kick ball, soft ball, and swimming for the girls. These schedules run for thirty-five out of the thirty-eight weeks of the school year and are so varied that nearly every student can find an opportunity to take part at some time.

Participation is not limited to playing. After the schedules are made out, practically the entire program is in charge of the students. One of the physical education

teachers is always within reach of the students if any one wants help, but seldom is it necessary to interfere with the course of events unless appealed to. Appeals are very rare except for rule interpretations by an official or for help in case of physical injury. All the officials of the game--referee, umpire, scorekeeper, and time keeper--are students. A separate group act as ushers or traffic officers in controlling the spectators. There are two gymnasiums, both being used at the same time, and a gallery and main-floor bleachers, both of which are usually filled nearly to capacity. The teacher usually sits with one of the scorekeepers though occasionally it is necessary to assist in keeping orderly conduct among the spectators.

The members of the student group in charge of the spectators are named by the teacher from among those who have shown ability in the elective offices in their gymnasium classes. The work is alternated between boys and girls. In the opinion of the officers themselves, the boys, other things being equal, succeed better than the girls in this work. Boys among the spectators are inclined to try to joke and fool with the girl officers instead of taking them seriously. One of the teachers claims that the girl officers are more conscientious and less apt to play favorites than the boy officers which more than offsets the other fault.

The officials are named in a similar way. Those who

accept are called in for several special sessions on rule interpretations, methods and practice. They are then rotated in working the games on much the same principle as the umpires in professional baseball. Their decisions in all cases have the same degree of finality. The decisions are accepted with about the same degree of satisfaction as those of professional officials in the school's interscholastic athletics. In the heat of the game, there is sometimes a murmur of dissent against some of the close decisions, but the dissatisfaction is never such as to cause a delay in the game. The real test of the efficiency of the officials and of the plan in general is probably reflected through the locker-room conversation after the games. One of the girls who has done a great deal of officiating and playing during two years of her junior high school life said that the feeling between the teams has, as far as she has been able to discern, always been very cordial during this "let-down" period. The feeling towards the officials has been much the same. On only one occasion did she notice any grumbling or alibiing because of the work of a referee and on that occasion it was very evident that the referee was inefficient though not unduly unfair.

Clubs

The methods of conducting clubs in Walter French Junior High School from 1925 to 1929 or 1930 was identical with the other junior high schools of the city and the

country at large. That is, every student had to join some club. Each teacher had to sponsor one. They all met simultaneously just as classes did. The object of conducting clubs on such a plan, as given by junior high school educators, is to extend the exploratory functions of the school to a point unattainable through the regular curriculum. That this is, or at least could be, attained by such a plan is not here questioned. There are other points to be considered in club work, however. Not the least is that it should provide a place for those with a common interest to meet and share their experiences. This can be done better without a drag of unwilling members such as nearly always existed under the plan of compelling membership some where. Then there was more class formality than is desireable for a truly democratically controlled organization. An attempt was once made to absorb the disinterested students into a study group where they were given club credit for merely studying their regular work. It did not prove very popular.

Eventually a majority of the faculty came to the decision that a few clubs voluntarily organized and meeting after school might be more effective in providing an outlet for the students to organize and run something of their own without losing entirely their exploratory function. The principal gave his consent to try it for one semester and no one even suggested a return to the old system until

very recently. On the latest vote (the questionnaire described in Chapter V) only five gave an unqualified vote in favor of returning to the former plan and two others voted for a return with modifications.

The dramatic clubs show fairly well the difference between the two methods since the school has had from one to three such clubs each semester. During the first years, some of these clubs did not give a single performance in the auditorium for an assembly. There was so much dead wood that nothing could be accomplished. Two plays were probably the maximum. Since clubs have been put on a purely voluntary basis meeting after school there has been a live dramatic club putting on from five to eight such plays each semester.

Clubs have always been allowed one hour credit toward graduation. This is one-fifth of the credit allowed for regular elective subjects.

Ushers

The need of a group of trained ushers was first mapped out by a faculty member in 1929. Several evening performances had been given fairly close together by different groups. Each of the groups providing the programs had furnished ushers for the occasion. They were all good students and did their work well--after they had learned it--which was near the end of the time that their services

were needed. In other words they learned their job only to have some one else do the work the next time who had not yet learned.

From the standpoint of the student, the situation was not a bad one--it gave a maximum number a chance to participate and learn the proper proceedures incident to the work. From the public's viewpoint, however, it was not so satisfactory. They paid by being inconvenienced and sometimes embarrassed for the ushers' mistakes. The school was not being well advertised by such methods and other phases of school work risked being damaged by handling the situation in that manner.

The matter was presented to the principal with a suggestion that an usher force be established with terms of three semesters for each usher. Their terms were to begin as 8-A's and end at their graduation or resignation. This would make necessary only a replacement of about one-third each semester who could be trained gradually without inconveniencing the public. It was also thought by this teacher that having the work well done by a few would indirectly teach the balance of the student body how to conduct themselves at public gatherings. Mr. Slaughter gave his immediate approval and the work was organized as a club. Membership was open to the 8-A, 9-B, and 9-A grades in proportionate numbers. Limitations were that if too many applied, only those receiving the best recommendations

from representative teachers and who had the fewest conflicting activities would be elected to the club.

The program has worked out pretty closely to expectations. Of course there is no means of measuring how well the main student body is learning how to conduct themselves through the work of these ushers. Neither is the usher work free of criticism. They make many mistakes, but probably not nearly so many as under the former plan. On several occasions their services have been employed by outside organizations who have rented the use of the school auditorium.

Membership now is by election on the part of the present ushers from among those who apply and are approved by the faculty sponsor. Applicants are 8-B's as a rule though some 9-B's are considered in filling vacancies caused by resignations. The group elects their own officers, but the sponsor also votes five times. This strange arrangement came about in this way. The auditorium is not large enough to accomodate all the students of the school and so it sometimes becomes necessary to shift students from their regular assigned seats to different sections of the auditorium in order to provide facilities for the particular groups who are to form the audience on different occasions. This shifting is done by entire rooms, an usher acting as a guide for a room. When by error two rooms were taken to the same section it caused useless confusion. Of course all the ushers would know about

the error and the chances of that usher being made an officer would be lessened. There are other times though when an usher could make just as big an error, but no one would be aware of it except the sponsor who had given the order because the room though seated in the wrong place would be in a place that would otherwise be vacant. This method, then, provides a partial check on the chances of a popular, but somewhat careless student being elected to an office where such carelessness would cause greater confusion. Except for the fact that the sponsor slips in five ballots to one for each student, the elections of officers is carried out in the usual parliamentary style. There are no nominations. On the first ballot each votes for any one desired. On the next, the ballots are cast for the few highest ones. Terms of office are one semester.

Safety Patrol

As stated before the safety patrol of the school was started the first year. This was the time that the Detroit Automobile Club sponsored such work in the schools through out the state. The work has been rather discouraging from the very beginning. The older students who have the most influence do not desire to serve on the patrol because of the unpleasantness of serving in all kinds of weather. Most of the patrol boys are 7-A's and 7-B's who still have their enthusiasm of the grade schools for such work. At

that not many of the brighter students go out for patrol duty. Club credit, free tickets to various entertainments, three hours academic credit per semester, school letters for each and a school sweater for the captain are allowed for this service in order to keep the force up to a fairly reasonable strength. While the work accomplished is very much worth while, the safety patrol in this school would soon cease to exist without the constant efforts to stimulate and encourage it on the part of the faculty.

Noon Traffic Force

During the greater part of the year the cafeteria serves two meals at noon. The noon hour is said to be divided into two shifts--the three upper grades eating during the first shift and the three lower grades during the second shift. Each shift plays the games of their schedules in the gymnasium while the other shift eats. As those who are eating finish they are allowed to go to the gymnasium to watch the games in progress or to go to the library or study room for the remainder of their noon hour. This constant passing to and fro in the halls and the general conduct in the cafeteria is under the supervision of one man and a group of students called the Noon Traffic Officers. The faculty member usually lingers near the front entrance where the officers can get in touch with him as needed. For officers he uses any student who applies

to him unless asked not to by some other teacher. The work is more pleasant than that of the Safety Patrol and so he gets more intelligent and older students. Most of the group comes from 7-A, 8-B, and 8-A grades. Their officers are appointed by the sponsor on the merit or promotion plan much the same as is the case with the city police force. Each member has a metal badge and reports cases of improper conduct to the home room teacher through the sponsor on regular forms provided for the purpose. All punishment is discretionary with the home room teacher or the principal. Usually punishment takes the form of a lower citizenship mark on the report card. Double club credit, two hours, is allowed although not organized nor thought of as a club.

Class Traffic Force

This is the most popular of the so-called police groups of the school. They supervise the traffic in the halls while students pass from class to class. These students are all in the 8-B to 9-A grades and are accepted by the sponsor only upon recommendation of the home room teacher. They wear a metal badge like the noon traffic officers, are promoted in the same way, report misconduct in the same way, and receive club credit, one hour. They are allowed to leave classes two minutes early in order to get to their post before classes pass and get to their next class a little late. This privilege appears to be

one of the principal attractions and when an officer's scholarship begins to slip, teachers are inclined to use it as a leverage. "If you can't keep your work up, I'll have to ask you to resign your traffic work. Another five or six minutes per day would help you greatly, especially at the end of the hour when I am explaining the next day's lesson."

The School Store

The school store was originally a project sponsored by the Opportunity Room. This room was composed of those students who did not fit into the regular schedule of the school. The intelligence of most of them was below par. They were too old and too big to be allowed to attend the grade schools any longer and since they could not do the high school work, they were put into this special room where they spent part of their time on elementary subjects and took only a few manual subjects with the other students.

The stock that this store started business with was tablets, pencils and erasers. The experiment seemed to work well for some time, but as the stock was enlarged and became more varied, the work proved to be beyond the capacity of these students. Some were naturally dishonest and the temptation to appropiate articles and change for their own use proved too great. Consequently, the store was transferred to another room and put in charge of one member of the faculty as his share of extra-curricular

duty. He uses several student assistants each semester, but chooses them himself on the sam principal that any one would hire a store clerk. Club credit is allowed for the work done.

There is no advantage in buying at the school store except that it is convenient. Prices are the same as are charged at other stores in the city. Profits have been used to buy the school a radio, feed indigent students, provide athletic equipment, etc. While directly it gives only a few a chance for self-expression, indirectly it provides for expression in other activities by paying for the cost.

Home Room Organization

Each home room is organized in much the same manner as a club. The necessary officers are president, secretary, student council representative, and a home room news reporter. Most rooms also have a vice president, from one to three assistant secretaries for special clerical work, a captain for each boys' and each girls' athletic team, two scholarship managers, treasurer, and ticket manager. The duties of these officers are the usual ones under parliamentary procedure with such adaptions as seem wise for groups of this kind. The president not only serves as the presiding officer during the formal meetings, but is expected to take the teacher's place whenever the teacher is out of the room. No teacher is expected to leave just

to give the president a chance to play teacher, but there are numerous occasions when for convenience sake the teacher does leave.

The several secretaries divide their work in order not to cause any one student to lose too much time from the regular academic work and also to insure a higher grade of work than would be possible with immature students trying to do many clerical details rapidly. The secretary keeps the minutes of the formal meetings. One assistant keeps the record of the attendance and fills out the forms required by the attendance office. Another makes out the forms that all students take with them as authorizations for being in other than the scheduled room at any time during the day. A third checks these forms when they come back to see that they are properly signed by the teacher or student officer at the room where the student spent his time. Sometimes one of these assistants compiles the merits and demerits earned by the students for the purpose of partially determining the citizenship marks.

The scholarship managers endeavor to improve the home room average by preventing those lapses due to indifference, discouragement, spring fever, etc. and make the compilations of marks required by the office at the end of each marking period.

The ticket manager handles the tickets that are sold from time to time through the medium of the home rooms.

She issues them to the individual students, keeps a record of each student's work, and requires all unsold tickets and cash to be turned in at the close of the campaign so that she can make an accounting with the organization that is sponsoring the entertainment. In some rooms this is done by the treasurer and others by the teacher.

The news reporter gathers news for the school paper only. The team captains make out their line-ups and check on the eligibility of each player in addition to the usual duties during the game. The council delegates or representatives act as the connecting link between home room and student council.

The Student Council

The student council is composed of one delegate from each 7-B, 7-A, and 8-B home room and two delegates from each 8-A, 9-B, and 9-A home room. The main purpose of the council is to advance school morale and provide a coordination between various units of the school. They are given legislative powers in minor matters and at times have had judicial powers. An exact listing of the powers is given in the constitution on page 142. A truer picture is given in the excerpts from the minutes of the council on page They elect their own officers from their own numbers except for the president and vice president who are elected from the school at large.

These two officers are elected near the end of the

semester preceding the one in which they serve. Those who wish to run for president must get permission from their home room teacher and the principal to circulate a petition among the students. Only those who will be full 9-A's during the term of office and who have been on the "A" or "B" honor rolls as 9-B's are eligible. The object of having the permission of teacher and principal is to provide a check on the citizenship of the individual and in only a very few cases have students been prevented from circulating a petition. Those who manage to get their petitions signed by ten per cent of the student body have their names placed on the ballot. Any student who signs more than one petition has his name taken off from all that he signed.

A few days before election each candidate is given a chance to speak to the student body in the auditorium. This by the way is the only really active part that the candidate takes. All the other work is done by his campaign manager and his helpers. The object of this program is to give the students a chance to judge of his voice and poise on the platform for a part of his duties is to introduce the speakers on the regular auditorium programs. It also serves as an introduction in person to the newer of the students who may know some of the candidates by sight but not by name.

The manager introduces his candidate and pleads for his election giving all of his real qualifications, and

history whether applicable or not. The candidate himself usually contents himself with thanking his supporters and promising to try his best, if elected, to do as well as the retiring president. Following the speech there are sometimes stunts to rival the old-time political torch parades. Cards and blotters with candidates names and platforms are thrown down on the audience of the main floor from the balcony; a German band may parade around the aisles; a song or yell by a group of his friends; or similar things. Posters are placed about the building and signs are written on the blackboards. Each teacher tries to give all candidates equal privileges of that sort in his class room. The voting itself is usually done on the voting machine that is furnished by the city for this purpose. This is one of the polling places for regular elections and the machine is stored in the building permanently so that there is no expense to it except for the time it takes one of the city employees to set it up.

The one receiving a plurality of votes becomes the president. His runner-up becomes vice president. At the last auditorium program of the semester, the retiring president administers the pledge of office to the incoming officers. Numerous school awards are made at this time and the whole program is made as impressive as possible.

The following are quotations (not necessarily word for word) from the minutes of the student council. They are

given as perhaps the best way to describe the work of the council and also to illustrate how numerous and varied are the opportunities for the council of any school to find something to do:

> It was decided to place an amendment to the constitution giving full suffrage all the students of Walter French on the ballot at the next election.
>
> Swearing shall be considered sufficient cause for dismissing a student from athletics for the remainder of the semester.
>
> Two "E's" or a citizenship mark below "C" on the report card shall cause traffic officers to be suspended for the remainder of the marking period.
>
> An amendment providing for the election of officers at the close of the semester preceding the one in which they serve shall be placed on the next ballot.
>
> School parties discussed, but not acted on.
>
> There was a discussion of the noise and confusion incidental to going to the lockers between shifts at noon. It was dropped as being outside the authority of the council to act.
>
> A committee was appointed to work with the faculty manager of athletics to devise a better way to choose cheer leaders.
>
> An Honor Roll contest between home rooms was planned. The artistic appearance rather than the number of names will decide the winner.
>
> It has been reported that some of the boys have been stealing Mr. Teel's apples. Before action could be taken, the dismissal bell rang.
>
> A committee was appointed to help new students and vistors find their way in the building.

The problem of guarding Mr. Teel's apples was mentioned, but abandoned. The apple season is past any way.[1]

It was decided to buy a Christmas tree for the center hall.

All home room Christmas parties are to be held the same day.

The council decided to initiate an amendment to the constitution providing for daily meetings.

A committee was appointed to arrange seating arrangements in the gymnasium at noon.

A committee was appointed to work out the details of the suggestion of the president that some recognition be given the boy and girl who do the greatest number of good turns each year.

The hour was given up to a study of parliamentary procedure.

A complaint from Room 317 on the management of the game room was received.

Home rooms shall be notified that snakes and toads should not be brought to school except on special request of the science teachers.

A committee was appointed to cooperate with the city movement of having petunias beds along the curbs and other appropiate places.

Now that the council meets daily, it was decided that Tuesday shall be reserved for legislative action alone and Wednesday for court action. The other days shall be used as seems best at the time.

It was thought that a Student Welfare Fund should be started. A committee was appointed to study the matter.

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1. This is one illustration of the objections to having the student council meet only once each month. Action is usually a month late on any matter.

Donald proposed that we give a pet show to raise funds for projects of the council this year. It was freely discussed.

A banquet was planned for the 6-A grade.

A recess was taken to think up new business.[2]

The play raised $47.00 for the Student Loan Fund.

A committee was appointed to provide appropiate placards for fire drill regulations.

Since there was no business, a debate was held between the boys and girls.[2]

Delegates were asked to urge their home rooms to obey the regulations of the study room when members went there at noon.

Mr. Jones gave an interesting talk to the council on leadership.

It was decided that the council shall meet once each week next semester.

Floyd was appointed to see if better lighting could be provided in the auditorium.

The foregoing excerpts are what may be termed the high points over a five-year period, but there were many more high points that were omitted. These were only intended to be a fair sample.

Participation has been most extended and, probably, most effective in those activities where there is the most physical activity involved. Care has been exercised so

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2. Daily meetings were evidently not needed to take care of the business of the school. Items such as these appeared quite often in the semester before the council changed from daily to weekly meetings.

that no privilege extended to students will be considered either fixed or irrevocable. Changes in both the nature and scope of student participation take place continually, sharp curtailments where necessary being effected at lull periods as semester ends, vacation periods, etc., as much as possible. Just how beneficial this plan is and how permanent the effect are matters that are open to discussion. Teachers of the senior high schools have often made the statement that they could pick out the "French" students from the 10-B group without difficulty just from observation, but many of these comments were undoubtedly biased.

The next two chapters give the reactions of the teachers and students to the student participation as described in this chapter and some analyses and comparisons from the answers to the two questionnaires already mentioned.

CHAPTER V

THE ATTITUDES OF THE FACULTY OF WALTER H. FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TOWARD STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

It is the purpose of this chapter to show, in regard to this subject, a cross sectional view of the faculty and their attitudes on several separate items. For this purpose a questionnaire[1] was submitted to the principal, one full-time librarian, one half-time and thirty-three full-time teachers. An assistant librarian was not included as her work is nearly all evening work and, consequently, her pupil contacts much limited. There was a 100 per cent response.

The first three questions were designed to show the teachers' experience in this school, whether they had had previous experience in schools allowing student participation in government and the degree of this participation as compared with Walter H. French. This information is given in Table IV.

If the principal-teacher relationship is truly democratic and if there is no active opposition or great indifference on the part of faculty members, this grouping shown

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1. This questionnaire is given in full in the appendix.

in the table is nearly ideal. The first condition was tacitly assumed in a previous chapter, but should there be a doubt as the the "freedom of the pen" of a teacher

TABLE IV

EXPERIENCE OF MEMBERS OF FACULTY OF WALTER FRENCH

No. involved	Previous experience with student participation in school government.	Range of years service in French Junior	Median years of service in French
3	Students had practically the same share in their government as in French Junior High	1-8	5
7	Students shared in their government to a greater extent than in French Junior	1-10	5
11	Students shared in their government to a lesser extent than in French Junior	1-11	6
16	Had no experience with student participation in school government prior to connection with French Junior	1-11	8.5
36	(All the faculty)	1-11	7.5

still under the principal who will always have easy access to this thesis and who has read parts of it while in preparation, one item may be offered at this point in support

of this democratic relationship. Mr. Slaughter personally suggested at a regular weekly faculty meeting the present system of conducting clubs, although himself opposed to the plan he was suggesting, because some faculty members felt free to express their views in personal conferences. He is still a member of the minority group on this question after the elapse of five years. The other point can only be determined by a further examination of the answers to the questionnaire.

To continue with the analysis of Table IV, then, over half the faculty had previous experience with some form of student participation in school government. A further analysis shows nearly the same number having had experience in schools allowing less participation as in schools allowing greater participation. Discussion of the advisability of extending or limiting privileges in a group of this kind would tend to bring out all the possible points for and against. The range of experience in the school, one to eleven years, includes at least one teacher for each of the years between these extremes. The median scores show average experiences with student participation in government for each group ranging from five years up. Since these figures do not include experience in schools allowing student participation prior to entering Walter French, it is possible that this ranges from eight and one-half years up. Such is the composition of the faculty

whose viewpoints was requested on the items which are taken up in the following paragraphs.

The next group of questions was for the purpose of discovering the objectives of properly conducted participation of students in their government. These are shown in Table V. It will be noticed that this differs essentially from Table III in just two respects. First, the

TABLE V

OBJECTIVES OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT AT FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Number of faculty by whom checked	Objective
34	a. It should provide training for worthy citizenship through the development of cooperation, self-control, self-reliance, initiative, and responsibility.
17	e. It should provide for pupil expression.
14	b. It should establish better understanding and a spirit of cooperation between students and faculty.
12	d. It should develop leadership.
9	c. It should develop school spirit, school pride, and an interest in school work.
7.	f. It should provide for development of an active attitude on the part of students toward social control in the school.

item concerning the providing of opportunities for pupil expression jumps from last to second place. The other items stand in relatively the same rank to each other. Second, an additional item is listed. This brings to light a lack of perception of the content of the questions (there was plenty of evidence that the faculty tried to answer all the questions carefully and accurately) for leadership in the social field could hardly be developed without first developing an active attitude on the part of those prospective leaders toward social control. Division "f" of the questionnaire should thus have at least as many votes as "d" and probably more. On the basis of the answers, this faculty is striving to make the workers, themselves, worthy of their tool. Except for the two low ranking objectives, the first of which needs little stimulation because of its relative high rank and the other which may have been misunderstood, the per cent of the faculty that stated them as real objectives for them personally, ranged from thirty-three per cent up to ninety-four per cent.

To have an objective is not sufficient in itself. Some attention should be given to the means and difficulties of attaining it. The next group of questions was listed in an attempt to isolate the difficulties and obstacles to successful student participation in government. These are listed in Table VI. It will be noticed that the two items that rank the highest are exact opposites.

TABLE VI

PRINCIPAL DIFFICULTIES MANIFESTING THEMSELVES IN THE OPERATION OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN WALTER H. FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Per Cent	Difficulty
72.2	h. Difficult to get all students to participate.
36.1	f. Students slight work for extra-curricular work.
25.0	i. Pupils resist being dictated to by other pupils.
22.2	j. Pupils unwilling to report violations of the regulations.
22.2	d. Too much repression and coercion by faculty sponsors.
19.4	a. Lack of sympathy, understanding and cooperation in teachers.
13.9	b. Scarcity of good student leaders.
13.9	k. Lack of pupil interest.
11.1	c. Work of administration too difficult and complicated.
11.1	l. Lack of proper faculty sponsors for individual activities involved.
11.1	m. Cliques and clans arise.
11.1	n. Students attempt problems that are too big.
5.5	g. Too much machinery of government.

They can hardly represent the same pupils. This same condition will be noticed in the next chapter. An actual

count of the offices and activities of the students shows that it is not mere imagination on the part of the teachers who claim that some do not participate enough and others too much. The next two listed show an inter-pupil relation that could be removed only by slow, hard work. It may represent very largely a lack of orientation of the new students each semester in a way conducive to the proper functioning of student participation in government. The next two ranking difficulties are really intra-faculty criticisms. They show somewhat of a contrast to the way these teachers rated themselves as evidenced in Table V. The last seven items are smaller echos of the preceding ones. To list them and bring them to light may serve as points of contact in any efforts to change the first ones.

The last part of the questionnaire was put up in the form of a "True and False Test." Twenty-five statements were made concerning the form of, procedure in conducting, and results to be expected of student participation in school government. Some of these were direct quotations from various authors, but many were reworded so as to include the meaning of two or more similar quotations. The teachers were then asked to indicate whether these statements were true or false and whether their answer was based on actual experience or general belief and reading. The coefficient of correlation between the answers based on experience and those on belief without experience

was a positive .908. Consequently, except for three items mentioned later, no attempt will be made to analyze them separately.

Nearly every statement was answered by all the teachers, 847 answers being received out a possible 900, or ninety-four per cent. The other fifty-three were nearly all marked with a question to indicate doubt as to the truth or falsity of the statement. The answers are listed under headings as follows: answers showing an agreement of ninety per cent or better in the first group; eighty to eighty-nine per cent agreement in the second; seventy to seventy-nine per cent in the third; etc. The original statements were all positive; where the faculty thought them false, they have been restated negatively so that each statement represents the faculty viewpoint just as it is worded in the following lists:

Statements Held to be True by Ninety Per Cent or more of the Faculty

It should be introduced gradually.

It should have a simple form of organization.

It must come from student desire and not be imposed by the faculty.

Meetings of organizations should have a regular place in the daily program.

It is a good way to utilize adolescent activities.

It is the best way to teach respect for law.

The autocratic plan is not successful in teaching worthy citizenship.

It helps pupils develop socially.

Every student of the school should be a voting citizen.

The term of office holders should be short.

Sufficient inducement should be offered so that all students will serve if elected and qualified.

There should be an artificial restraint to prevent a pupil from holding too many offices at one time for the welfare of the individual student in question.

Statements Held to be True by Eighty to Eighty-Nine Per Cent of the Faculty

Pupils should have a voice in disciplinary matter.

It is the most logical way to teach civics.

It can not be organized successfully primarily as a disciplinary device.

Citizenship should not be the sole qualification for holding office.

Statements Held to be True by Seventy to Seventy-Nine Per Cent of Faculty

It makes school administration easier and more pleasant.

The autocratic plan of handling discipline is not satisfactory in maintaining order.

It helps to break down class barriers.

Statements Held to be True by Sixty to Sixty-Nine Per Cent of the Faculty

Faculty advisors should attend all meetings.

Pupils should not usually name the punishment meted out to offenders.

No one should hold office two terms in succession.

Statements Held to be True by Fifty to Fifty-Nine Per Cent of the Faculty

Any student should be allowed to succeed himself in any office just as ushers, traffic officers, and safety patrol boys do.

High scholarship (C or better) should be a qualification for office holding.

Students with low marks (1 E and the rest D's) should not be allowed to hold office.

Three of the items listed above deserve special attention because they show a negative correlation. Those with experience in having pupils name the punishment meted out to offenders voted thirteen to five against the practice while those without such experience voted nine to seven for allowing such power to be given them. Those with experience voted eleven to nine against a requirement of office holders maintaining a scholarship of "C" or better in order to serve; the unexperienced voted eleven to five for such a requirement. The third item concerned the advisability of allowing those students with marks as low as one "E" with the rest "D's" to hold office. Those with experience voted eleven to ten to allow such

students to hold office while those without voted ten to four against such a practice. Another item which would eliminate all scholarship requirements lost by a ratio of three to one on the part of those with experience and a vote of twelve to one on the part of those without experience. It is evident that those with experience are inclined to give citizenship a relatively larger place and scholarship a smaller place in their teaching than the ones without such experience.

At this point it might be well to make a comparison with the findings of Hogan in Kansas and Young in Michigan. The objectives, while worded differently, are essentially the same in both surveys and agree with those expressed by the faculty of this school.

The leading difficulties reported by Hogan as existing in Kansas are:

1. Plan is too difficult to administer.
2. (Faculty indifference or opposition.
   (Lack of student cooperation.
4. Students try to do too much.

The leading difficulties reported by Young as existing in Michigan are:

1. Getting pupils to assume responsibility.
2. Keeping each member active.
3. Lack of time.
4. Poor choice or inability to secure student leaders.

The leading difficulties reported by the faculty of French Junior High School are:

1. Difficult to get all students to participate.
2. Students slight work for extra-curricular work.
3. Pupils resist being dictated to by other pupils.
4. (Pupils unwilling to report violations of regulations.
   (Too much repression and coercion by faculty sponsors.

The only feature that is strictly common is the lack of cooperation with the emphasis on the faculty group.

This chapter can very well be closed with a few quotations from the faculty:

> Does it prove practicable to permit the students to participate in their school government? I think that it does. Because plans for a certain program had miscarried, it was necessary for me to be absent from my classes for three days in order that things might go forward as advertised to the public. During this time assignments were placed on the blackboard and class discussion and discipline were entirely in the hands of the class officers. No disturbance was reported by either class officers or teachers who had occasion to pass the room. When I returned I gave a written lesson on the material supposed to have been studied. The work was evidently done as well or better than usual.
>
> I could not be absent for even one day without arranging for other members of the faculty coming into my room during their off period in order to maintain discipline. I always make definite assignments so that the teachers who help in that way need not give too much time to my work.[2]
>
> I was out of school unexpectedly for three weeks one semester. Mr. Slaughter not being able to find a suitable substitute for my work

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2. These two reports were submitted by the same teacher, but of course they refer to different semesters.

decided not to have any. The janitor unlocked the room early in the morning and locked it when the last student had left after school. Mr. Slaughter made a practice of dropping in once or twice each day to see how things were going. Only two lesson assignments were involved, a beginning and advanced course of the same subject. The president of one of the advanced classes made the lesson assignments on the desk calendar and the other class presidents merely relayed the information. When I came back I heard no complaints about discipline; the beginning class had made practically the usual progress in that length of time and the advanced class about half or two-thirds the usual progress.[2]

. . . . participation is essential to learning. I think a great many of our problems could profitably be discussed in the student council and recommendations be made to the teachers. I do not favor using the student council as a method of coercing the student group. Neither do I favor any one sponsor for that or any other group serving continuously nor the domination of the group by faculty members.

There should be more student social activity in our school, which could come through the student council.

I believe firmly that which we do. Active participation in a poor student government is more valuable than no student participation in a teacher Utopia. After all a school is a laboratory to give students a chance to experiment in citizenship. As Edison once said, "An experiment is never a failure. It proves that that one thing won't work."

Frequently many of our very good citizens and "law-abiders" are not good students, scholastically. I feel that more recognition of splendid citizenship and cooperation should be given these people.

I feel that there is a feeling of competition which exists between home-room teachers--

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2. This report and the preceding one were submitted by the same teacher, but of course they refer to different semesters.

a feeling of personal gain or credit--or personal loss or effrontry--in whatever occasion arises where all home rooms are concerned. It goes into the realm of departments also, it seems to me, where one elective department has privileges over another department. This cannot help but be reflected detrimentally in the lives and conduct of the students who come under those teachers.

Student participation in school government is largely in an experimental stage. Probably no standardized technique can ever be worked out which will be best for all schools. I believe one of the most fundamental needs in connection with the problem is to have a body of teachers deeply in sympathy with the idea and who are willing to give it their best in time and effort.

--J. W. Slaughter.

CHAPTER VI

REACTIONS OF THE STUDENTS OF WALTER H. FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TO THE PLAN FOR PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

Of all the possible effects of any attempts at sharing school government with the students, perhaps the first to be thought of by the parents and other interested adults in the school community is that of scholarship. Many still think of education as a matter of "book learning" or merely storing up of facts and, while the relative importance of this phase of education is changing, it is not to be neglected and may well be considered first in this chapter.

Under the present plan of administration, it would be practically impossible to determine whether participation in student government had any effect on scholarship of the French Junior students. Any sort of control group for such a test could not be had without depriving that group of a great many privileges that they consider as rightfully theirs and their value as a means of measurement would at once become doubtful when laboring under such a distinctly hostile attitude as would likely ensue. Moreover, it would be impossible to remove them from the environment

where time would be taken for the benefit of those who are participating. Another difficulty in any such experiment is the teaching factor. It is quite obvious that the control group should have as good instruction but no better than the experimental group. The two groups should also be restricted to similar if not identical subjects--a thing that would be hard to arrange where such a wide range of elective subjects is offered for exploratory purposes.[1] In other words the relationship of extra-curricular participation of any sort and scholarship is so obscured by the interplay of other factors that it is difficult to prove or disprove the contention that it is detrimental to the latter under most situations. Many authors of isolated magazine articles claim that scholarship improved after students were admitted to a share in their government. These contentions are not supported by any evidence. Since they were opinions of educators who are in a position where careful observation would detect any tendencies of that sort, they are not worthless. Their great weakness is that the reported improvement covers only a very sort time after the adoption of some phase of student government. At such a time, both students and teachers are quite apt to be over-enthused about the plan because of its newness. This

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1. There are nineteen distinct electives. Some like Art are divided into several branches which runs the total to thirty-five.

might account for an improvement which would not last with the years.

A. M. Swanson[2] investigated the scholarship of a group of Kansas City high school students before and during participation and of another group equated as to initial ability which failed to participate and came to the conclusion that there is not much evidence that participation in extra-curricular activities effects scholarship.

R. A. Brown[3] studied seven types of organizations in four Kansas high schools and found that in nearly all cases marks of participants averaged higher than non-participants.

Merle Prunty[4] in a survey of scholarship records at Tulsa, Oklahoma concludes that controlled extra-curricular participation does not lower the scholarship of students.

Of course, participation in school government is only one of many extra-curricular activities and might not necessarily have the same effect as the others studied. It would also be more difficult to measure this effect as already indicated.

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2. A. M. Swanson, "The Effect on High School Scholarship of Pupil Participation in Extra Curricular Activities," School Review, Volume XXXII, pp. 613-627.

3. R. A. Brown, A Study of Some Scholastic and Financial Features of Student Activity in the High School, p. 286.

4. Merle Prunty, "Sane and Systematic Direction of Extra-Curricular Activities," in Sixth Yearbook, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1922.

While it may not be possible to determine the effect of participation in school control on scholarship, it is possible to determine what effect scholarship has on the chance of a student being elected to office. Since there is but slight difference from home room to home room, either in the number of officers or in their duties, the seven customary home room officers of the school were selected for examination in this regard. They are tabulated below:

TABLE VII

SCHOLARSHIP OF HOME ROOM OFFICERS

Name of Office	Minimum Points*	Maximum Points	Median Points
President	1.8	3.7	2.8
Vice President	1.3	4.0	3.0
Secretary	1.8	3.8	2.8
Treasurer	1.5	3.5	2.5
Student Council Representative	1.8	4.0	3.3
Scholarship Manager	1.8	4.0	3.1
Home Room Reporter	1.1	3.7	2.8

*An A is equal to 4 points; B to 3 points; C to 2 points; D to 1 point; E to no points. Letters are those prescribed by state law.

In examining this table it is at once evident that the vice presidents rank above the presidents. This slight

difference is probably due to the fact that some rooms used their student council representative as a vice president and council representatives must make the A or B honor rolls the preceding semester in order to be eligible for election. Scholarship counts eighty-five per cent and citizenship fifteen per cent in figuring the honor rolls. The council representatives themselves have an average just over the B line with some of them not even getting a C average, i.e., they would not be eligible for reelection. The minimum number of points for the officers would indicate that they do not care to select failures to represent them. The median of the entire group of officers (172) was 2.96 points. If the council representatives and vice presidents were to be excluded the median would naturally be expected to fall (1) because there is no minimum requirement as to scholarship for the others and (2) because these offices are filled second in the election (in a few cases even, first, before the president was elected) and thus have the entire group from which a choice can be made. The actual drop was only .13 of a point leaving an average of 2.83 points for the remainder of the group.

If the students pay any attention to scholarship in electing their delegates to the student council, other than the minimum requirement, most of them would be from the very top of the scholarship list. Such does not seem

to be the case, though. Most of them come from the group that just barely qualified, the place where, according to the law of averages, most of the eligible candidates would be located. This is indicated by the small margin above the minimum requirement of their average grade as shown in the table and was still more evident in the tabulation from which the table was prepared.

The next three tables are of a different sort. They are tabulations of all the offices which the students

TABLE VIII

BOY OFFICEHOLDERS AND THEIR SCHOLARSHIP

Offices per Student	Number of Students	Per Cent of Students*	Number of Offices	Per Cent of total Offices	Average Scholarship
0	199	55.8			2.0
1	86	24.1	86	28.2	2.3
2	32	8.9	64	21.0	2.6
3	18	5.0	54	17.7	2.4
4	12	3.4	48	15.7	2.7
5	7	2.0	35	11.5	3.0
6	3	.8	18	5.9	2.8
Total	357	100.0	305	100.0	

*Per cent is figured on the number of useble returns.

TABLE IX

GIRL OFFICEHOLDERS AND THEIR SCHOLARSHIP

Offices per Student	Number of Students	Per Cent of Students	Number of Offices	Per Cent of total Offices	Average Scholarship
0	203	49.2			2.2
1	89	21.5	89	19.0	2.6
2	49	11.9	98	21.0	2.7
3	35	8.5	105	22.5	2.8
4	19	4.6	76	16.3	3.0
5	11	2.6	55	11.8	3.1
6	6	1.5	36	7.7	3.0
7					
8	1	.2	8	1.7	3.3
Total	413	100.0	467	100.0	

held during the entire semester with a comparison of the scholarship of each group. Table VIII gives the information concerning the boys; Table IX, concerning the girls; and Table X is the sum of the first two showing all the officeholders.

Since the number of offices per student increases steadily with the scholarship, these tables may seem to contradict the conclusions drawn from the table on home room offices (Table VII), viz., that scholarship does not figure largely in the voters' mind as long as it isn't extremely low. There is another angle to this, however. Many students refuse to run when nominated on the

TABLE X

STUDENT OFFICEHOLDERS AND THEIR SCHOLARSHIP

Offices per Student	Number of Students	Per Cent of Students	Number of Offices	Per Cent of total Offices	Average Scholarship
0	402	52.2			2.1
1	175	22.7	175	22.7	2.4
2	81	10.5	162	21.0	2.6
3	53	6.9	159	20.6	2.7
4	31	4.1	124	16.1	2.8
5	18	2.3	90	11.6	3.1
6	9	1.2	54	7.0	3.0
7					
8	1	.1	8	1.0	3.3
Total	770	100.0	772	100.0	2.309*

*Average of entire school, 913 students, according to the office records for the same period.

plea of not having the time, or because they feel unqualified. Sometimes they refuse for no stated reason, yet it is entirely likely that many of those who give no reason for their action really refuse for one of the two reasons mentioned. From personal observation it seems that students having high scholarship grades are less inclined to turn down an offer of office by their group for such reasons and thus accumulate a greater number. A few officers, other than those mentioned previously, must have certain grades to justify the use of their time.

Traffic officers are such a group. They must be passing in all subjects, preferable with a good margin, not because scholarship is a requisite of a good traffic officer, but because it is felt to be unjust to excuse a student who is or might be failing, academically, because of the loss of time from class at the beginning and end of each hour--a loss that is absolutely necessary if he attends to the duties pertaining to the office.

The primary object of this tabulation was threefold. First, it was planned to determine whether there were opportunities enough provided for students to gain experience as leaders--to participate in more than a listening or voting capacity; second, whether these opportunities were divided fairly equally between boys and girls as they should be in a democracy that maintains that women and men have equal rights to share in all its citizenship activities; and, third, whether there was any evidence of a need for restricting the activity of some students either for their own benefit or the benefit of the entire group.

A glance at the table shows an average of a little more than an office per pupil. The highest ratio of offices to students that was reported by Raymond Drewry[5]

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5. Raymond G. Drewry, Pupil Participation in High School Control, p. 65.

in his study was 305 to 991 or .31 offices per student at Hackensack, New Jersey.

By comparison it might seem that the organization at French Junior High School was unwieldy, that needless offices had been created and that there was not the opportunities that the figures seem to indicate. A part of the difference is due to the difference in organization of the average junior high school and the average senior high school. Instead of a few large study halls there are many small ones, each known as a home room. Instead of grade organizations, there is the home room organization. This means a spearate set of officers for each group of approximately 40 students. Their duties are less extensive but probably exercised more often than in schools of the other type. Study periods are a part of each class period and classes are nearly all organized with at least a president and secretary. Junior high school students usually have six classes per day as opposed to the traditional four for senior high school students. If a student goes to six classes, each having an enrollment of 36 and each selecting two officers, he has one chance in three of holding an office unless there are cases of students serving as officers in two or more classes. The students of this school have seven such periods instead of six, the seventh being equal to two or three of the class periods in point of number of officers

used. This would account for a ratio of one to two or approximately one-half of the offices existent in the school.

Since each class acts independently of all the other classes except for mutual non-interference, there is no danger of the school bogging itself down with a cumbersome machine in so far as these organizations go. The classes in the school are comparable to the families of society at large and no one is predicting disaster because we have too many family organizations. Grade and club offices and general-school offices make up the other half which would be an increase of nearly 50% over the Hackensack High School.

Very little difference is noticeable between boys and girls. There are 55.8% of the boys not having any office as opposed to the girls 49.2%. This difference of 6.6% may be compensated for in other ways, but in any case can hardly be called excessive. Almost exactly one-third of each group come within the range of 1-2 offices. The cases of individuals holding numerous offices occur more frequently among the girls than among the boys. There was no way of determining whether this was due to the boys more often than the girls refusing to be candidates for additional offices when already holding one or whether they had fewer chances because of less popularity, etc.

Though there is better than an office per pupil, yet over half of the pupils have no office. There was very

little difference between the various grades in the manner of office distribution as the tables in the appendix show. Some of this half are not capable of holding office and some, of course, have held office in the past or may in the future. Still with such a large proportion not holding office might not some capable folks slip through their three years of junior high school without being given a chance to display their talent? Meanwhile 3.6% of the students hold nearly 20% of the offices; 25% of them hold 77% of the offices.

If, as seems likely, some of the 52% of non-office holders are capable of serving as officers it would be to their advantage to gain such experience. Likewise, it would certainly do no harm to the seven to eight per cent of students who have so many offices to give up a few of them. To limit them might not be sufficient, however. Every office resigned by the 7% would not be absorbed by the 52%. Many, perhaps most, of them would be absorbed by the group now holding one or two offices. Any restriction on holding too many offices should parallel a plan for encouraging participation on the part of those in the non-office holding group.

The plan for the awarding of honor pins at the end of each semester has a provision which states that "A" students shall be restricted to offices and activities totaling 11 points; "B" students, 9 points; "C" students,

6 points; and "D" students, 4 points. "Violation of this restriction will disqualify applicant from receiving the pin desired."[6] After thus disposing of the extra curricular activities, the provisions go on to set up the scholarship requirements which are so high that none but "A" students can qualify for these pins so that, if enforced, this restriction would effect only a very small per cent of the school. This small group get around the restriction very easily. The committee of teachers making the awards has no means of knowing how many activities individuals are engaged in and the students are careful not to list on their application blanks enough activities to disqualify them. For all practical purposes, then,it may be said that there is no restriction on the amount of participation in extra curricular activities.

These pins do provide a stimulus for the good students to enter a fair proportion of these activities as they cannot qualify for a pin without earning eight points as outlined in the scale. Indirectly, all students are slightly encouraged to take part in extra curricular activities because they are marked in citizenship on their report cards at the same time as they are marked in their scholarship. Such factors as service, initiative, cooperation, and dependability influence this mark and they can best be displayed in many cases through office holding.

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6. Complete account of these regulations given in Appendix V.

All but a very few of these offices, as already indicated, are very minor in nature. They may give training in but a single skill required of leaders. The next semester, they may have a chance to develop a new skill or broaden the old one. Each such addition fits them just a little better for leadership in a larger group, if and when the opportunity comes.

But should no such opportunity come? Has the effort in their training been worthwhile? It is said that it is the "non-coms" that makes an efficient army. Our whole scheme of national defense is based on that supposition. Of course the non-commissioned officers need a general or two but any number of generals would be useless without the understructure of good capable sergeants and corporals. This is equally true of our modern society and in nearly the same ratio. Paul W. Terry,[7] after making a careful analysis of the social situation in several typical southern cities, draws the conclusion that one leader is required for every three or four of the adult population and that if the schools are to train a sufficient number, they should develop leadership qualities in one out of every four of early elementary pupils and that the ratio should increase until it is one out of two in the high school.

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7. Paul W. Terry, Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities in the American Secondary School, pp. 41-43.

The increased ratio in the upper grades is necessary due to the large number who drop out of school each year.

If Professor Terry's conclusions are sound it is evident that this school is "exposing" approximately the right proportion of its students to the practical skills necessary to leadership. While it is impossible to tell how large a proportion are actually acquiring leadership skills, no educator would accept anything near 100% as being a good estimate. If the finished product shall be close to one out of two, then the per cent of non-office holders should be less than 50%.

In addition to the techniques of leadership, the great need today is that they have superior social ideals. This needs day by day teaching and coaching on the part of the faculty under any circumstances but chances for fulfillment are much better under conditions where actual practice is available. Inspiration from older leaders plays a considerable part in the development of the particular ideals of each leader. Here we have a continuous line where there is an older leader to inspire each one in succession under at least partially controlled conditions. Many of our best leaders of today were really forced by parents or teachers to make their first attempts. It seems to be the schools' duty, therefore, to do all it can to encourage participation on the part of the non-office holding group at all times.

The average adult is a follower in more organizations than a leader. Some are always in the follower class. About the most important duty for Mr. Average Citizen must be, then, the ability to choose his leaders wisely. Our students then should be given every possible chance to select their own officers. Therein lies one of the principal weaknesses of the Informal and Specific Service types of student participation. Many of the offices are appointive and the benefits are confined largely to the office holders. French Junior High School theoretically belongs to the Simple Council type but actually is partially of the Specific Service type with appointive officers. Traffic officers are appointive as are ushers, staff members of the school paper and a few home room and class officers. Some, especially the editors of a school paper, probably should be appointive. The special skill necessary would make choice by election impractical for efficient results. Ushers and traffic officers could very well be elected. Qualifications as to age, citizenship, scholarship, etc., being stated the students could choose their own just as adult electors choose an officer with age, residential, and educational qualifications as stated in the laws of a state.

The need of an adequate system of participation on the part of the students in their school government varies, within limits, as the other factors that provide similar

training and skills. Two of these factors are the participation of the student in the voluntary organizations sponsored by the school and participation in organizations entirely separated from the school.

The following table shows the extent to which the first of these two factors exists:

TABLE XI

PARTICIPATION OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL SPONSORED ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations per Student	Per Cent of Participation by			Number of Memberships	Number of Students
	Those Holding School Office	Those Holding No School Office	All Students		
0	34.1	59.2	47.3		364
1	46.7	33.4	39.6	305	305
2	16.01	7.3	11.3	174	87
3	3.0	.02	1.6	36	12
4	.03	.02	.05	8	2
Total	99.93	100.04	100.05	523	770

It is at once evident that most of those who receive no training through participation in their school government receive no chance here while those who are being trained through such participation are receiving additional training in connection with their memberships in these organizations. The 523 memberships represent less than

a membership per pupil even had they been equally distributed. For those who chose to take part, 52.7 per cent, the average membership was 1.28.

Paul W. Terry[8] has summarized similar measurements so that a comparison can be made with other sections of the country. A. L. Dement's study, he says shows that sixty-eight per cent of the high school students of California were participating in such organizations; R. A. Brown found in his study of four large Kansas high schools that participation ranged from forty-three per cent to sixty-four per cent; and Black reported that high schools in the cities of Ohio averaged seventy per cent in participation. In the Alexander Graham Junior High School of Charlotte, North Carolina, which he studied personally, he found that seventy-three per cent of the students participated and the average number of memberships for this group was 2.4.

It is evident that French Junior High School is not furnishing the opportunities that these other schools are. Theoretically, the faculty is supposed to sponsor such activities as are demanded by the students of the school. Whether the faculty needs to be stimulated to meet the demand or the students to supply the demand did not show up in either of the questionnaires.

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8. Op. cit., pp. 275-276.

Table XII shows the participation in the organizations outside the school. The data is this table are not as reliable as in the others. In the first place the students did not seem to answer the question regarding this as carefully as the others. Secondly, in making the count, only those organizations in which the student could take an active part were included. For instance,

TABLE XII

MEMBERSHIP IN EXTRA-SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

Organizations per Student	Per Cent of Participation by Those Engaged In Some Extra-curricular Activity	Those Engaged in no Extra-curricular Activity	All Students	Number of Memberships	Number of Students
0	28.8	38.5	31.8		245
1	47.1	42.3	45.6	351	351
2	20.7	16.4	19.4	298	149
3	2.8	2.4	2.7	63	21
4	.4	.4	.4	12	3
5	.2		.1	5	1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	719	770

church membership was not included as active participation on the part of boys and girls in the church organization would be very limited except in a listening way;

but membership in all the church auxilaries as Sunday School, choir, young peoples' societies, orchestras, etc., was included. While such a division as that just cited was rather an easy one to make, there were other cases where the line of demarkation was not so evident and some erroneous decisions may have been made, though they may have been of a compensating nature. No organizations of a known anti-social nature were reported.

Over thirty-eight per cent of those who had no opportunity in school had no opportunity outside of school. The average membership is less than one. Comparing again with Terry's[9] results we find that the Alexander Graham Junior High School of North Carolina average 2.4 memberships and the Seattle and Everett High Schools of Washington averaged 3.8 memberships, both far above the French Junior High School Community.

While the school has imposed scholarship requirements as a prerequisite for the holding of certain offices, this seems superfluous except for appointive offices as students seldom elect those of excessively low scholarship. Furthermore, having one poor officer elected might have greater educative values than an entire succession of capable officers.

The surveys of Hogan and Young shows that where there is a large per cent of the schools doing a certain thing in uniform way, that is also the way that it is

done at Walter French. The school is extensively organized in so far as governmental functions during the school day are concerned, but there is a decided dearth of independent, school sponsored clubs or societies that might aid greatly in the development of the students in the way of social and civic abilities. Neither is the community at large compensating for this lack of effort on the part of the school.

Comments made by students in answering the last question of their questionnaire while not tabulated because of their diverse nature indicated clearly that they are best satisfied with those officers that they elect and find the most fault with those who are appointed without a referendum vote.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions proper drawn from this work are of two kinds: general ones reflective of student participation in school government throughout the country and specific ones regarding Walter H. French Junior High School in particular.

The general conclusions follow:

1. There was a great rush to try the "new" sort of control, known popularly as student government, early in the century without giving the matter sufficient thought and planning. A great many failures resulted in a slower, but steadier growth. Instead of now trying to copy systems of student participation in school control to individual schools, each now attempts to develop a system to meet their own separate needs.

2. The concensus of opinion is that only a gradual introduction of such a plan can be successful. The ideal way is for the students to ask and the faculty freely give an appropriate share. Where the initiative must be taken by the faculty it must be tactfully done, no attempt at sharing control being specifically offered until such a desire has been implanted in the student body that it seems to them to have been self-started.

3. Student participation in school government is now being successfully used in many places as a means of teaching citizenship, self-control, initiative, and leadership.

4. It serves to maintain and in some cases to establish a greater interest in school work--athletic, scholastic, social, and moral.

5. It has not proved derogatory to good scholarship.

6. It provides an outlet for that energy not consumed in the preparation of their regular scholastic work, energy that might otherwise be used for anti-social purposes of various kinds.

7. It gives valuable training in parliamentary practice.

8. It is far from perfect in its present mode of operation, its greatest single check being poor faculty support.

9. It needs the same careful teaching that any subject needs.

10. It is a practical means of training effective leaders for civic and community needs. Equally important, it provides practice in the selection of leaders and policies in conformity to the group welfare.

Those conclusions specific to Walter French Junior High School are:

1. The school is in need of some sort of point system that will effectually prevent a few students from holding too many offices, both from the standpoint of the individual student and the group as a whole.

2. A larger percentage of the now totally inactive students should be induced to take part. In as much as the most desirable results seem to be present where there is the most activity, the best means of securing a successful organization would be to have every one interested through active participation.

3. There appears to be some faculty members who hold that subject matter should come before training in citizenship through student participation in their school government.

4. Offices should be as far as possible elective, only appointive officers coming in for adverse criticism on the part of the students. The lack of cooperation (with appointive officers) due to a feeling of hostility prevents a satisfactory group solidarity.

5. Provisions for clubs and similar activities do not seem adequate for the size of the school and the needs of the community.

6. The whole organization is rather a loose one whether desirable or not, not being ascertained.

7. Having a scholarship eligibility requirement for election to any representative office based on school standards works an injustice on such home rooms whose average is below the school average. Such requirements should be relative to the average of the home room and not the average of the school.

8. Teachers should obey the same rules of good conduct that the students are expected to obey. There is a noticeable lack of this in both the auditorium and on the stairways.

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APPENDIX I

STUDENT REGULATIONS

A. Building

I. Halls--Students are expected to:

1. Have at all times a business-like attitude.
2. Keep to the right in halls.
3. Be courteous.
4. Pass promptly to their destination.
5. Make orderly use of drinking fountains.
6. Refrain from loud talking, offensive language or rude or boisterous conduct.
7. Pass in single file and keep to the right on stairway except in case of fire drill.
8. Refrain from scattering paper or rubbish about the halls or defacing or mutilating the walls or school property.
9. Refrain from interfering with other person's rights or property.
10. Maintain at all times a courteous and respectful attitude to traffic officers as well as teachers and other students.

II. Class Rooms.

1. The general regulations enumerated as appropriate for hall conduct shall apply to class rooms.
2. Students are expected to be attentive and manifest an interest in all class room exercises.
3. The term "class-room" as herein used shall be understood to apply to laboratories, gymnasiums,

swimming pools, locker-rooms, toilet rooms, cafeteria, auditorium, library or any other part of the building.

B. Grounds

1. Students upon arriving at school are expected to enter the building promptly and go directly to home room in the morning and afternoon.

2. Provision may be made for activities and admittance to the gymnasium, library or other rooms as may be arranged.

3. Lunches may be brought to the building and eaten in the cafeteria only.

4. In entering the grounds or leaving, students are expected always to follow the walks.

5. The general regulations enumerated as appropriate in halls and class rooms shall apply to conduct upon the school grounds.

C. We, the students of the Walter H. French Junior High School Community, favor such conduct for ourselves at all times and in all places, as will exhibit a keen appreciation and respect for the personal and property rights of the general public.

APPENDIX II

ELIGIBILITY RULES FOR HOME ROOM ATHLETIC CONTESTS

1. No student shall compete in any home room athletic contest who does not have a passing grade (D or better) in 75% of his school work for the last marking period.

2. No student shall compete in any home room athletic contest who has not received a final mark of C or better in Citizenship for the last marking period. Eligibility for the first period of the second semester shall be determined by the final marks of the first semester of each school year. All 7B's entering Walter French School from grade school will be considered eligible for the first marking period. During the first marking period of the fall semester, all students will be considered eligible regardless of any preceding marks in Scholarship or Citizenship.

3. No student shall compete in any branch of home room athletics who has been in attendance in junior high school or any school having the same requirements of a junior high school, for more than <u>seven</u> semesters.

4. No student shall compete in any particular branch of home room athletics who is on the varsity team or who has won a varsity letter in that sport.

5. No student shall compete in any home room athletic contest who is smoking or using tobacco in any form.

6. No student shall compete in any home room athletic contest who does not have a Community Ticket.

7. Captains of home room teams must present before each contest a list of his or her eligible players signed by the home room teacher.

8. The penalty for a violation of any one of these rules shall be the automatic forfeiture of the game.

9. The home room teacher shall have final jurisdiction at all times in declaring a student ineligible regardless of the above stated rules.

10. The marking period shall be understood to extend until <u>three-thirty</u> of the day upon which the cards are marked.

APPENDIX III

QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

1. How long have you taught here?

2. Did you have previous experience with student participation in school government?

3. If so, did the students have more or less voice in their government than do the students of Walter French?

4. The following are given as proper objectives of student participation in school government by various authorities. Please circle the letter preceding th one (or, possibly, ones) that you have had definitely in mind in dealing with our students this year.

   a. It should provide training for worthy citizenship through the development of cooperation, self-control, self-reliance, initiative, and responsibility.

   b. It should establish better understanding and a spirit of cooperation between students and the faculty.

   c. It should develop school spirit, school pride, and an interest in school work.

   d. It should develop leadership.

   e. It should provide for pupil expression.

   f. It should provide for the development of an active attitude on the part of students toward social control in the school.

5. The following are obstacles to success in student participation in school government which have manifested themselves in other schools. Circle the letter which

preceeds those you have reason to believe exist in French Junior High School

a. Lack of sympathy, understanding and cooperation in teachers.

b. Scarcity of good student leaders.

c. Work of administration too difficult and complicated.

d. Too much repression and coercion by the faculty sponsors.

e. Students slight work for extra-curricular work.

f. Students mistake liberty for license.

g. Too much machinery of government.

h. Difficult to get all the students to participate.

i. Pupils resist being dictated to by other pupils.

j. Pupils unwilling to report violations of the regulations.

k. Lack of pupil interest.

l. Lack of proper faculty sponsors for the individual activities involved.

m. Cliques and clans arise.

n. Students attempt problems that are too big.

7. In the following statements, mark the prededing word that you think indicates the proper procedure. Use an underscore where your answer is based on personal experience with the phase of student participation in government concerned and a circle where your answer is based on belief without the backing of any experience:

a. yes no It should be introduced gradually.

b. yes no Citizenship should be the sole qualification for holding office.

c. yes no It should have a simple form of organization.

d. yes no It makes school administration easier and more pleasant.

e. yes no It must come from student desire and not be imposed by the faculty.

f. yes no Meetings of organizations should have a regular place in the daily program.

g. yes no It is a good way to utilize adolescent activities.

h. yes no Pupils should have a voice in disciplinary matters.

i. yes no Faculty advisors should attend all meetings.

j. yes no It is the most logical way to teach civics.

k. yes no The autocratic plan of handling discipline is satisfactory in maintaining order.

l. yes no The autocratic plan is successful in teaching worthy citizenship.

m. yes no Student government may be successfully organized primarily as a disciplinary device.

n. yes no It is the best way to teach respect for law.

o. yes no It helps to break down class barriers.

p. yes no Pupils should usually name the punishment meted out to offenders.

q. yes no It helps pupils develop socially.

r. yes no Every student of the school should be a voting citizen.

s. yes no There should be an artificial restraint to prevent a pupil from holding too many offices at one time for the welfare of the individual student in question.

t. yes no Any student should be allowed to succeed himself in any office just as ushers, traffic officers, and safety patrol boys do.

u. yes no High scholarship (C or better) should be a qualification for office holding.

In order that a greater number of students may have the experience of holding office:

v. yes no The term of office should be short.

w. yes no Pupils should be forbidden to hold an office two terms in succession.

x. yes no Sufficient inducement should be offered so that all students will serve if elected and qualified.

y. yes no Students with low marks (1 E and the rest D's) should be allowed to hold office.

7. What club do you sponsor?

8. Would you prefer to go back to our former arrangement whereby <u>every</u> student is enrolled in some club, <u>every</u> teacher sponsors a club and all clubs meet once per week during the home room period?

9. Any comments would be appreciated. Plenty of room on the back or give them personally. You will not be quoted without your permission and no one will have access to any information you supply except in statistical form. I desire the material in connection with my masters thesis at Michigan State College. I shall be glad to return the favor at any time.

APPENDIX IV

QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO THE STUDENTS OF FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Name_____Age_____

Sex_____Grade_____Home Room_____

Semesters attendance at French Junior High_____

1. List below all the offices you held this semester. Include not only home room and class offices, but also club offices, captaincies, traffic officers, ushers, Southern Star staff, etc. Do not list any you resigned before term was up.

2. List below all the school activities in which you take part as clubs, societies, school teams, etc.

3. List below all the outside activities in which you take part as Sunday School, Boy Scouts, De Molay, etc.

4. If you ever held any office two semesters or more in a row, list it below and show by number after it how many semesters you held it without a break.

5. Do you know of any rule of the home room or school which would limit the number of offices held in one semester? If so, give the gist of it on the back of this sheet.

6. Are there any offices which you may not hold two semesters in succession? If so what are they?

7. If you were to start in this school again as a 7B, what student activities would you like to have limited or abolished and what ones would you like to have extended and why? Use the back of the paper for any answers that are too long for this side. Any comments that you make will not be revealed to Mr. Slaughter, your home room teacher, parents or school mates without your permission. Do you give your permission?

APPENDIX V

POINTS FOR AWARD SYSTEM

I Scholarship	
A. Five hour subjects	
1. A	10
2. B	8
3. C	6
B. Physical Education	
1. A	8
2. B	6
3. C	4
C. Music	2
II Extra Curricular	
A. Athletics	
1. Varsity teams	
a. First team	3
b. Second team	2
2. Home room teams	2
3. Offices in gym	
a. Captain	3
b. Ass't captain	1
c. Squad leader	2
d. Ass't squad leader	1
e. El. grade referee	2
f. Noon referee	1
4. Red Cross Life saving	3
B. Southern Star	
1. Editor	3
2. Ass't editor	3
3. Other members	2
C. Home Room	
1. President	3
2. Vice President	1
3. Secretary	2
4. Treasurer	2
5. Ass't treasurer	1
6. Scholarship mgr.	3
D. Student Council	
1. President	3
2. Other officers	2
3. Members	1

E. Class Room	
1. President	2
2. Secretary	1
F. Traffic officers	
1. Lieutenant	3
2. Troopers	2
G. Safety Patrol	
1. Captain	3
2. Troopers	2
H. Typing teams	
1. Varsity	2
2. Second	1
I. Ushers	
1. Captains	2
2. Others	1
J. Miscellaneous	
1. Glee Club	1
2. Girl Reserve Delegates	1
3. Hi Y	1
4. Store Clerks	2
5. Clubs	1
6. Bible Study	1
7. Girl Scouts	1

Under group B, no student will be permitted to carry more than two three-point activities and the following maximums will also be observed:

A students allowed	11
B students allowed	9
C students allowed	6
D students allowed	4

Violation of this restriction will disqualify applicant from receiving the pin desired.

Citizenship will be marked, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 by classroom and home room teachers--being used as an exponent by classroom teachers. Homeroom teachers will double their rating before putting on cards, opposite H.R. Citizenship. To obtain citizenship mark for a given marking period add

exponents to home room mark and consult the following table:

29-32	A
24-28	B
16-23	C
8-15	D
0- 7	E

Seventh grade pupils may try for a bronze pin only.

Eighth grade pupils may try for a silver pin only.

Ninth grade pupils may try for a gold pin only.

Requirements for each pin will be the same.

Scholarship--55 points
Citizenship--15 points
Ex. Curr. -- 8 points
78 Total

APPENDIX VI

CONSTITUTION

OF THE

WALTER H. FRENCH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL COMMUNITY

(Revised January 1933.)

Preamble:

We, the citizens of the Walter H. French Junior High School, in order to form a more perfect community; establish better standards of honor, loyalty, and harmony; and work for the ideals and interests of our school, both alone and with many; striving at all times to be dependable and trustworthy, thus making for ourselves and those who follow a greater, better and more beautiful school that was made for us, do hereby establish this constitution.

Article I - Name.

Section I. The name of this organization shall be the Walter H. French Junior High School Community.

Article II - Membership.

Section I. All students regularly enrolled shall be members of this community.

Article III - Officers.

Section I. The officers of the Walter H. French Community shall be a president, vice president, secretary and treasurer.

II. The president shall be nominated by a petition of 10% of the student body during the third week preceding the end of the semester. If a signature is placed on more than one petition, the signature shall not be counted on any petition. The petition must be secured from the office and be validated by the principal before being circulated.

III. The president must be a member of the 9A class.

IV. The election shall take place the second Thursday preceding the end of the semester.

V. The election shall be by popular vote of the members of the community.

VI. A plurality vote shall elect.

VII. The other officers shall be elected by the Student Council during the first week of the semester by secret ballot. They must be members of the Student Council. Not more than two officers shall be elected from any one class.

VIII. The duties of these officers shall be those usually devolved upon similar officers in other organizations, except in the case of the treasurer, the principal shall appoint a faculty member to act as advisor to the regularly elected treasurer.

Article IV - Student Council

Section I. The governing body of this Community shall be a council composed of two delegates elected by each 9A, 9B, and 8A home room and one delegate elected by each 8B, 7A, and 7B home room for a term of one semester; the principal and five other members of the faculty as may be appointed by him.

II. To be eligible to the office of delegate, any pupil must have been on the "A" or "B" Honor Roll during the preceding semester, must have a reputation for punctuality, initiative, leadership, and a keen interest in promoting the best interests of the school, and have the approval of his home room teacher.

III. The Student Council delegate shall represent his home room in the Student Council and report the preceedings of the Council to his home room.

IV. Regular meetings of the Council shall be held daily at such hour as may be scheduled by the office.

V. Special meetings may be called at any time that matter require at the call of the president or principal.

VI. The president shall appoint such standing committees as the Council deems necessary.

VII. Powers:

1. All awards and honors that may be conferred on students shall be passed by the Student Council.

2. The Student Council may make any laws regarding extra-curricular activity, providing it meets the approval of the students and the faculty. The council shall have general administrative powers.

3. All money paid out of the Community Fund shall be accounted for to the Student Council.

4. The Student Council may punish its members for conduct unbecoming a representative and with the concurrence of two-thirds vote expell a member.

5. The Student Council is empowered to create a court to care for cases that may arise in connection with school discipline.

Article VI - General.

Section I. A student athletic manager shall be appointed by the president of the Student Council and the faculty athletic managers. He must not be a member of any athletic (varsity) squad.

II. The student traffic force shall be selected by a faculty director appointed by the principal.

III. Questions of interpretation of this Constitution shall be referred to a tribunal consisting of the principal, a member of the faculty appointed by him, and the president.

IV. Before entering into the execution of their offices, the officers shall take the following oath:

> I, as an officer of the Walter French Junior High School Community solemnly promise on my word of honor, that I will faithfully execute the office of_____and will, to the best of my ability conduct myself in a manner worthy of my office, and I will cooperate with my school and see that all rules and regulations are obeyed and that its laws are honored and upheld.

Article VII - Amendments

Section I. An amendment may be proposed by two-thirds vote of the Student Council or by a petition of 10% of the members of the Community and if ratified by three-fourths of the home rooms or three-fourths of the members of the community at a special election, shall become a part of this Constitution.

II. The Student Council shall determine the method of ratification.

III. This Constitution shall go into effect as provided in Section I.