CRITERIA FOR THE EVALUATION OF STUDENT GOVERNMENT

A Paper
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
University of Minnesota

Problems in
Curriculum Construction
Ed. C. I. 271
Under the Direction of
Valworth R. Plumb

A Requirement for the Degree

Master of Arts (Plan B)

---

by
Richard Anthony Greeney
University of Minnesota
Duluth, Minnesota
August, 1955

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the last three decades accelerated school programs have slighted the democratic phase of student participation in solving school problems. The need for preparing junior and senior high school students for the democratic way of life has become more evident with the increased enrollments. In this study, an attempt will be made to evaluate types of student participation in government on the basis of various criterion.

Definition of the problem. In order to achieve a successful form of government, criteria should be established that is reliable. According to Webster, criteria means "standards of judging, rules or lists by which facts, principles, and opinions, and conduct are tried in forming a correct judgment respecting them." These criteria will be discussed. They will be followed by a listing of types of student government, with application of these criteria in evaluating different forms of student government.

Sources of material. To carry on this study, published works of certain authorities were consulted. The following writers offered pertinent information on the subject of student government and criteria for its appli-

cation: Elbert Fretwell, H. C. McKown, Earle Rugg, D. L. Trueblood, and others.[1]

To further this effort, student participation in government as practiced in the schools in Phoenix, Arizona and Duluth, Minnesota were studied. Sample constitutions of schools will be found in the appendix.

Brief history of student government. In the early schools, students were first permitted to assist teachers as an economy measure. From the days of Plato until 500 A. D. students of the academy helped the teacher with his work. This saved both time and money. Later, Aristotle established schools wherein the students helped the teacher for the definite purpose of gaining experience. The theory of "learning by doing" began to assert itself. As schools became more student-centered, interest in health and sports developed. Such courses were fore-runners of student-governing bodies.

In our own country the monitorial system came into being soon after our independence was won. This system provided for an older boy to have charge of ten or more younger boys to check on their attendance and assignments. Again the main purpose was that of economy. As the schools became free from religious control, became co-educational,

---

[1]See bibliography.

and became sports-minded, the need for many activities and the consequent work involved, required student cooperation and assistance. Far-sighted educators began to realize the value of training in self-government for our future citizens. "In student government, the student becomes trained in the habit of self-government before the burden of civic responsibility is laid upon his shoulders."[2]

The development of student government councils has been influenced by many interests. There are student councils of the state and nation that have encouraged schools who evidenced an interest. The National Education Association has written and sent material to assist schools who requested it. The demand for some form of student government has increased because of the extensive and sudden development of extra-curricular activities in the high schools. The need for further education for a greater percentage of the citizens has brought about a greater high school enrollment, and thus developed such a need.

"Our present system of student government is based upon the principle that our youth should learn to control

---

[2]D.L. Trueblood, "Creative and Functional Student Government", Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXII (March, 1952), 404.

themselves by being given ever greater responsibility as they are able to assume it."[3]

[3]Galen Jones, "Student Council, the Citizen Workshop", School Activities, XXV (April, 1954), 246.

CHAPTER II

CRITERIA

In order to evaluate different forms of student government, criteria must be established. Some criteria are common to all types of schools, whether they are large or small. The basis of all student governments is the need to develop good citizens.[1] Good citizenship may be established through a good understanding of the theory of democracy. The desire for law and order should be firmly implanted. The students, whether members of the active school government or not, should show increased ability in self-direction. Some of these students will develop the powers of leadership; most of them will learn the qualifications for being a follower. All of the pupils should learn to cooperate, and thus develop the needed morale to make the government of the school a worthwhile organization.

Criteria Common to all Junior and Senior High Schools. Alert students in a school with no government are not hesitant in expressing a need for some system, or plan of government, to a sympathetic listener. "The foundation of democracy is consent of the governed. A democratic form

---

[1]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), p. 33.

of government cannot be imposed from without; it can come only in response to a definite demand from within the group."[2] All schools have some students who can inspire the others to be interested in their projects. Induction into this new phase of school cooperation is a gradual one, if it is to be successful. Not only must it be a gradual procedure, but it must be simple enough to be applicable at once to the needs of the school.

After discussion of the ways and means of conducting a school government, the need to adopt the plan will appear. This plan will result in a written constitution if the government is to be a dependable one. Schools have tried to have a form of government without written rules, but the areas of responsibility become so elastic then, that there is often over-lapping of these responsibilities, or a neglect of them.

The written constitution should be simple in form. Statements should be made in a positive manner; it should be complete enough to cover the details, but simple enough to be easily understood by the average student. The constitution should include its name, purpose, rules for membership, powers, organization, officers, committees, and a section on by-laws.

---

[2] Ibid., p. 97.

To strengthen the democratic procedures of a student government, the qualifications of voters and candidates should be of a democratic nature. The voters in the school are the students in the home-room. "It is possible that the class organization, or home room, is the first natural step in advance of the elementary school home-room group with which pupils are familiar when they enter the new school. The class organizations, in turn, may be developed in such a way as to prepare the entire school for the introduction of the student association, with its superior opportunities for giving pupils experience with the 'large-group' point of view and practice."[3]

This school group must be adequately represented. Complete representation can be accomplished only when all have the right to express their opinions through voting. Fretwell has suggested using any of the following ways to determine qualifications for voting: (1) by entering school as a pupil, (2) by paying a fee of twenty-five cents and joining, (3) by attending citizenship classes as they do in Longwood Commerce High School in Cleveland."[4] He continues

---

[3]Paul W. Terry, The Twenty-Fifth Yearbook for the National Society for the Study of Education, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926), pp. 29-30.

[4]Elbert K. Fretwell, Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931), pp. 94-95.

by stating that participation in government is so important that every pupil should be considered a citizen. Where representation has been by organization only, some students have not been represented at all. This soon might result in two factions within the school and complete disorganization.

Classroom representation in the student government is secured by secret ballot in most schools. "Candidates must be approved by someone before they may run for membership in the government."[5] According to the Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, the qualifications for a candidate for student government membership should be just as broad as the qualifications for a citizen voter in the school. Representatives from the classrooms are usually so well known within their classroom that there is little need to carry on any kind of campaign to acquaint the group with his qualifications.[6]

The criteria mentioned above establishes the student government as an important organization in the function of a junior or senior high school. Its importance must be recognized in order to assure success. McKown states that

---

[5]The Student Council in the Secondary School, A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950), p. 107.

[6]Ibid., p. 108.

first of all the government should not be considered an extra-curricular activity. Because a student government should be initiated partly by the students and not by the principal alone, its importance in the school program should be emphasized by its place in the school program. Any good operating group must have regular and defined times and places of meeting. It is obvious that meetings should not be canceled or postponed, whether there is business to be conducted or not. By having scheduled meetings, the members will get into the habit of expecting to reserve that time, and will give importance and dignity to the group, and the result will be better teacher and student attitudes toward student government.

The axis of a workable government is embodied in the powers the constitution provides for it. Examples of student government constitutions may be found in the Appendix. The constitution should indicate the policies, standards, and rules in such a specific manner, that few conflicts and misunderstandings will result after the constitution is adopted. A list of such powers follows:

POWERS[7] as defined by the constitution

1. To develop and adopt such by-laws as may be necessary, provided they do not conflict with the ele-

---

[7]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), pp. 130-131.

ments and spirit of this constitution.

2. To organize, promote, and supervise general and special elections; provide certified registration lists, polling places, ballots, officials, and all other necessary equipment, material and personnel.

3. To create, authorize, supervise, and coordinate committees for specialized activities or services.

4. To issue, renew, and if necessary, revoke organization charters; and to promote and coordinate organization activities.

5. To initiate and approve necessary legislation.

6. To encourage and limit participation in extracurricular activities by means of a point system.

7. To develop and establish sound centralized financial policies and procedures.

8. To establish and enforce regulations for assembly, study hall, corridors, cafeteria, school grounds, social events, and public functions.

9. To consider, upon being properly petitioned, policies, activities, and changes recommended by students and teachers.

10. To appoint necessary officers or committees to interpret the various provisions of the constitution.

11. To develop and administer a system of awards.

12. To promote respect for school and private property.

13. To authorize, sponsor, and supervise drives and campaigns.

14. To appoint survey and investigation officers and committees.

15. To provide for referendum and recall elections.

16. To pass such emergency measures as may be necessary.

17. To recommend to the attention of the faculty and administration matters which are outside its own area.

18. To investigate and report on matters especially referred to it by the faculty and administration.

19. To originate and formulate any policies in the area of student activities which will make for more wholesome school citizenship.

20. To give school and community publicity to the council's policies and activities.

Most constitutions also list and describe the responsibilities of the more permanent committees such as assembly, clubs, publications, athletics, and finance. These are usually under the heading of "Committees", but listed with the section on limits of responsibilities in these constitutions.

One of the most controversial critieria for the powers of the student government constitution is that involoving disciplinary matters. Some constitutions studied did not indicate any powers of discipline. Others definitely call for a small committee acting as a student court. There are numerous arguments brought forward in favor of a student court and also against it. Some of the most numerous arguments for the student court are:

1. Students in later life will be judged by their peers. Why not start doing this while they are in high school?

2. Students, while actually participating in all of the activities of a student court, are learning much

about how a real court of law functions.

3. If a student council is to set standards of conduct for the school, it must have the right and the facilities to see that such standards are maintained.[8]

However, there are as many, or more, arguments against a student court. The most common of these arguments are as follows:

1. The school administrator cannot delegate the actual management of the school to the students.

2. The student council will minimize its own citizenship activities if it, at the same time, is called upon to 'punish' student offenders.

3. Unless the court is exceptionally well-handled, students will either resent its functioning or will laugh at the puerile attempts of other students to discipline them. The effect then is worse than if nothing had been attempted.

4. There is no real punishment which the student court can give that will do much good.[9]

Another objection that may be included in this argument against student courts might be that of parental attitude toward student participation in disciplinary matters. Few authorities mention this reaction on the part of the public when they discuss the desirability of student courts. In the opinion of the writer of this paper, the student

---

[8]The Student Council in the Secondary School, A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950), p. 275

[9]Ibid.

government should concern itself with offenders, but not with the punishment to be meted out for wrong-doing. The members and their sponsor should have a heart-to-heart talk with the individual who has violated the rules of the school. This positive approach offers service and advice to the offender without administering threats and punishment. In this way, the student government becomes a counselor to the offender.

Schools have erred more frequently in this area than in any other. Most schools have come to the realization that the administering of punishment is not the function of the students. The principal himself, or his assistants, must assume the responsibility for executing punishment. There is no doubt that a student-governing body has much influence on the discipline of the school. It is a guiding body that influences children in the same manner as the church, the Scouts, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, and other effectual agencies that appeal to children without punishing them.

A quotation from Dr. Earl Kelley will help to further the argument against the practice of permitting students to sit in judgment on other students through the use of the student court.

> Their (student courts) value, from all available sources of information, would appear to be doubtful.

> Interviewing an individual who is out of adjustment with his school environment is an extremely difficult task, calling for great skill and understanding. If the school customarily treats the problem children with this consideration, then a student court probably will not be able to improve upon it. If the handling of problem children is on the level of "bawling out", it is probable that a student court can do it as well as or better than it would be done by teachers. The "bawling out" as a corrective device helps teachers and principals to release nervous energy, but it is doubtful that it ever resolved a conflict or promoted a child's welfare. It seems unlikely that a student court can rise to the level of the best adult technique in handling problems, but it is not likely to sink below the worst adult technique.[10]

If we accept Dr. Kelley's judgment concerning the school government as a disciplinary body, we would not recommend it as a positive criterion.

As the principal is the representative for the public and the board of education, and is responsible to them, so all school legislative matters are subject to his veto. It is for this reason, that school governments cannot be self-government, but should act as a participating government. The terminology is self-explanatory. All governments must be sponsored and guided. Thus, all powers listed in the constitution are delegated by the principal and faculty and may therefore be revoked at any time. Usually schools have swung the other way in the veto power, and have given the

---

[10]Earl C. Kelley, "Student Cooperation," A Report of Student Government in High Schools, National Self-Government Committee, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941), p. 19.

children too little freedom in suggesting legislation. Many schools are too adult-dominated. The "new freedom in the schools" allows children to feel freer to express opinions, and that is just the purpose of a student-participating government. In like manner, the teachers should have the same freedom, and no constitution should be adopted until all members, both children and adult, have had satisfactory arguments presented, and discussed.

The concrete aspect of finances of school activities make them especially adjustable to the responsibility of the student-participating government. School authorities have just recently begun to appreciate the educational opportunities of the financial program that accompanies most activities. It is interesting to notice that the alumni of schools are nearly as interested in their schools' finances as they are in its athletic prowess. This phase of the program, the provision for the proper handling of finances, is the weakest part of the administration of extra-curricular activities. The student governing body should assume a considerable portion of the responsibility for the handling of school activity finances. A student who learns how to keep his organization' s financial account, and make out statements and reports, who helps audit books and feels responsibility for the money entrusted to him, receives as

practical an education as can be provided in any of the academic classes.

The very fact that an organization is successful, is adequate publicity. However, when the student government sponsors an activity, it is well to advertise it, because such a procedure helps to develop an all-school conscience. One of the main criteria of a good government is the general cooperative school spirit.

The future of the school-participating government rests greatly upon the relationships that exist between the students and the faculty. If the faculty shows interest in, and enthusiasm about the school program, the students will respond in the same way. Selecting the adviser or sponsor to the school government program is one of the prime responsibilities of the principal, or his committee. It is in this particular field that colleges and universities are now endeavoring to make great strides. Some schools of higher learning in the field of education are offering summer programs to adequately prepare teachers in the work of sponsoring student governments. Most high schools provide for one sponsor, selected by the principal. Such a person should be as well prepared as that particular school can offer. Consideration should be given to this teacher as to teacher load. Usually, a capable, congenial sponsor may be found in every school without difficulty, who is

willing to take the responsibility if he has been given consideration in relation to other extra-curricular duties.

According to the Handbook for Sponsors,[11] there are definite criteria for evaluating the work of an adviser:

1. Does he really like to associate with boys and girls of high school age?
2. Does he enlist the confidence of boys and girls?
3. Is he keenly interested in the world around him?
4. Has he contagious enthusiasm?
5. Does he seek to become expert in some of the fields of activity in which the club is engaged?
6. Is he able to give constructive suggestions for activities in the club?
7. Is he able to guide without dictation?
8. Has he ability to plan systematically?
9. Is he willing to give time and thought to making the club work a success?
10. Is he democratic in spirit?
11. Has he a sense of humor?
12. Is he able to find his chief satisfaction in pupil growth and not in expressed appreciation of his efforts?

These criteria should be considered by the principal

---

[11] The Student Council in the Secondary School, A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950), pp. 72-73.

in making his selection for an adviser for his school's government.

Specific Criteria. Although most criteria fit most schools, no matter what their size or grades, there are some criteria that are peculiar to certain schools, whether they are large or small, junior or senior in grade.

McKown suggests that in a small school, the school election should not be in the hands of a student committee alone. However, in a larger school, this authority recommends that school elections should be in the hands of a committee assigned to that particular activity. He adds that the time consumed to draw up forms, equip polling places, and check on registrations probably would not pay in a small school, but would really be a time-saver in a larger school. He concluded that the larger the school, the more adult the procedures should be for elections.[12]

Another point that differentiates large schools from small schools in criteria refers to the size of the governing body--the number of members in the student government itself. There is a tendency in small schools to have too great a percentage of their students as active members of the government. The trouble in such instances is that

---

[12]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), pp. 144-145.

those members are soon inactive. Some of the members of the government will be under-loaded or "sleepers". Such a non-working member becomes a liability. In like manner, a large school tends to have too few members in its government, and some will then be overworked. Then too, some represented members of the school may not feel represented at all; also some valuable student ability may go uncapitalized by not having an opportunity to help. The size of the student-participating government itself depends on the size of the school and the number of activities involved. At no place in any reference was there any exact number given as to how many students one representative should represent.

Certain factors must be considered in determining criteria for junior high school student government in contrast to criteria for senior high schools. The social, physical, and emotional developments associated with adolescents of junior high school age are important in setting up a student government in those grades. Pupils of the junior high school ages are exploratory in nature and because of this, greater emphasis should be placed on regulating behavior of the school membership. The constitution of a junior high school should be definite in listing its powers and responsibilities, as that age is more inclined to question authority or rules. In a senior high school, although

the powers are defined, they may be more elastic in their statements.

The junior high school students are experiencing an accelerated development of their social impulses and are therefore eager and impatient to try new activities. This is the real beginning of the need of vocational guidance or preparation. The senior high school groups, steeped in tradition and formality, are more hesitant about starting new activities, and will show less impatience with the old activities. The student government should provide for these variations in their constitution. The junior high school should have more frequent elections, and include more opportunities for introducing new clubs. The senior high students, being of a more mature nature, should include in their constitutions, statements that name longer terms of office for their members, and more dignified activities. Pupils of the senior high schools have reached that phase of life where their social, physical, and emotional development is more fixed and more dependable.

Recapitulation itemizes the following criteria as judgmental in evaluating different forms of student government common to all schools:

1. An acknowledged need for a student government.
2. A gradual development of the student government.

3. A simple, but thorough constitution including the following items:
    a. name, purpose, organization
    b. scheduled time, date, and place
    c. membership and representation
    d. powers of officers and committees
    e. by-laws
    f. control of finances
4. Publicity
5. Sponsors

There are specific criteria for large and small schools, and for junior high schools and for senior high schools. The exploratory nature of pupils of junior high school age should control the items in the constitution concerning the terms of office, responsibilities, and varieties of activities. The size of the schools should control the size of the governing body and also the procedure of school elections.

The criteria that represents a good student-participating government reflect those factors that demonstrate democratic procedures in adult life. The establishment of these criteria will aid in the development of that type of government needed by each particular school.

CHAPTER III

TYPES

The history of types of government used in the public schools extends from the non-representative types, wherein leaders are assigned by the principal or faculty, to the completely representative types wherein democratic methods of voting for leaders are used. These types vary from the simplest to the most complicated. The non-representative types of government are those that give no choosing rights to the pupils--the principal or teachers making decisions as to which children should take responsibilities in certain phases of school government. In these types, the adult presides. The semi-representative types of government are those in which the pupils have a little choice, and the teachers and/or principal decide on the leaders of each group. In such cases, the group committees must be under the leadership of a teacher or the principal. The representative types are those in which all children have a right to vote, all are represented, and the groups elect their own leaders. These types will be discussed and then evaluated according to the criteria already selected.

Non-representative types. These types are very informal, small in membership, existing for one purpose, for a limited length of time.

The informal type of student government is one in which a group of pupils are selected by the principal to discuss and carry out some particular project. It is not organized, has no authority, and is not initiated by the student body as a whole. It is responsible only to the principal. Such a governing group is very limited and is usually controlled by a principal who wants complete authority over all activity in the school. It often shows a lack of confidence on the part of the principal in his teachers and students. It is an authoritarian form of control, and has no democratic qualities.

Another non-representative form of government is the forum. It, too, is a group selected by the principal. It operates for a short time and is chosen as an opinion-getting device. This group meets with the principal and expresses views on some project or problem he has to solve. Whether he asks their advice in an effort to invite their confidence, or to help him make a decision, it is not democratic in procedure.

A final non-representative form of government is defined as a specific service group. Activity committees are assigned for the year. Each committee has the responsibility for the initiation, development, direction, and supervision of some particular school project. Such a

committee might have charge of the school paper, hall traffic, or interschool debate. These separate groups are unrelated to each other and are not under the supervision of a central organization. Such a plan might be considered a first step toward a participating form of government, if it could be followed by a democratic method of selecting its representatives.

Semi-representative types. Some student-participating forms of government cannot be classified as either non-representative or representative. These types might be labeled semi-representative, or of a partial-representative form. The first one of this type to be discussed is that of specialized interests. It is one of the older forms of representation, and was used even before home-rooms were considered as a basis of representation. This type involves pupils' hobbies or particular interests and is distingquished from special service clubs in that the latter concerns itself with giving service to the school as a whole. Specialized interests are of a more personal nature and membership is determined by each pupil's preference. The members who are elected from particular classes, activities, or clubs act as a government. This does give a limited representation to the school as a whole as far as its activities are concerned. It could be considered another first step toward a democratic form of government.

Some schools initiate a program in which those students who rank highest academically are the representatives for all the school. These schools assume that only brilliant students are worth their attention, believing that such investment of their time will guarantee success. This belief gives no credit to social, civic, or political interests. A government wherein the membership chosen is based on scholarship, permits representatives in its group, but does not provide for their selection by popular vote.

A concluding type of semi-representative government is one which Shires calls the entire-school type.[1] In this form, the principal serves as president, the assistant principal as vice-president, four teachers as the senate, sixteen representative students as the house, the board of education as the supreme court, and the home rooms as the cities. These cities in turn group themselves into counties for home-room committee work. In this form of government, the children are represented, but the principal and teachers are in complete charge of the meetings. This is a novel style of student-teacher participation and is a further step toward democratic ways of student government.

---

[1]Bess Shires, "Democracy in Action in a High School," School Activities, XXIV (May, 1953), 279.

Representative types. The process of developing a student-participating government in any school should be based upon a thorough interpretation of the philosophy of democracy. "It should truly be one of participation and sharing, a means through which students develop a belief in and an intelligent understanding and appreciation of our theory of democratic government and its processes."[2] One of the distinquishing characteristics of a democratic government is its complete representation. School government representation may be of a single house, or one-council form, or may have two or more houses to carry on all phases of the school government.

The first form to be considered as fully representative, is that of a single-house type, often called a simple council form. The most outstanding feature of this type is a single group of pupils representing the whole student body. This representation grows out of a homeroom organization. The number of representatives from each homeroom is controlled by the need of each particular school. In some schools, teachers as well as pupils are members. Each committee within the government consists of

---

[2]The Student Council in the Secondary School, A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950), p. 18.

four pupils and one teacher. Usually the student government elects these committees, which are directly responsible to the government. In other schools, the teachers themselves elect one of their number to participate in the government, the governing group elects its own officers, and the president of the group appoints committees under the direction of the adviser, or elected teacher-sponsor. Other schools ask the presidents, and perhaps vice-presidents, of each homeroom to act as a representative to the single-house council, and make reports to them. By this free give and take of opinions in the homerooms and in the council or governing group, representation is more complete and satisfactory to all the citizens within the school organization.

The second form of representative government has more than one group or house to carry on its work, and has been labeled a multi-house type. This type may follow the plan of our federal government, state governments, or city governments. Another term used in connection with the multi-house type is complex form of government. In some schools the existence of two or more central organizations of government is based on necessity. The size of the school, its variety of interests, and amount of responsibility will control this need. Councils of fifty members are fairly common, but a group of over two hundred is too unwieldly for concerted

action. Using more than one group for governing solves this problem.

Schools that follow the two-house plan often have legislative and representative groups. These two groups correspond in purpose to the two houses in our federal government. Such groupings have many names, such as school congress, school legislature, council and cabinet, senate and house of representatives, senate and council, council and advisory board, council and executive board, assembly and council, and others. The duties of each group varies in most schools according to the need. For example, in one plan the upper house makes the laws but the lower house approves them; in another plan the reverse of this procedure is true, and in still another, either house may pass legislation independent of the other, or each may initiate bills, to be acted on by the other group. McKown[3] states that the constitutions of most schools fail to define the powers of each house , and that such omission can result in failure of the organization. He makes it clear that no one plan of organization will work for all schools, but that each school should develop a concise constitution that avoids confusion when the duties are under question. There is no doubt but

---

[3]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), p. 87.

that the type of government chosen by a school is finally reached only after experimentation in that school. The type finally chosen, whether it be of a single house type or multi-house type, must conform to the physical and social problems presented by that school.

There are schools that use a three-house form of council. This type follows our federal government, with legislative, executive, and judicial branches. Each branch has duties imitating the branches of the federal government except that the judicial branch, must of necessity, be curtailed. Some of the responsibilities of that branch would include (1) interpretation of the constitution, (2) judging whether the proposed amendments are constitutional, (3) handling cases of violation where there are conflicts between school bodies over their rights and privileges, and (4) handling of "criminal" cases which represent violations of the council's legal enactments. The judicial branch is sometimes called the student court in some schools. Having so many branches, and their attendant committees, makes for a complex form of government.

The types of student government based on three-house, four-house, and five-house forms are not in such wide-spread use as the one-house and two-house types. In the many-house types, the major areas of school life elects its own group,

such as the group for athletics, the groups for publications, the groups for boys' and girls' interests. These groups act separately from each other and usually there is no coordinating government over them.

A final type of governing body within the schools is the school-city type. Both Terry and McKown have some interesting explanations on this type. Terry[4] tells us that such a form is organized on the city manager plan. It is composed of the presidents of homerooms and its duties are legislative and supervisory in nature. It has the power to grant charters, authorize activities, approve expenditures, select the city manager from a list of nominees that the faculty counselors submit, and approve the city manager's appointments. McKown[5] states that this form may be either single-house or multi-house, but it is usually the former. Certain facts make this form easily applicable: (1) the nearness of the model, the city government itself, (2) its usefulness in studying civics, and (3) the general appeal of the plan to the community. In this type, the separate floors, or other divisions, represent the wards, and the

---

[4]Paul W. Terry, Supervising Extra-Curricular Activities (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1930), p. 96.

[5]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), p. 92.

individual rooms are the precincts. The city council is composed of aldermen elected by the wards. The major officers, such as the mayor or city manager, the chief of police, chief clerk and secretary, are usually elected by the city, and minor officials are appointed or elected by the council. These minor departments are health, finance, student welfare, parks, and recreation.

Although there are many types of government, experience has shown that no one type of government will fit all schools. Through a process of evaluation each school may find the type of student government best qualified to fulfill its needs.

CHAPTER IV

EVALUATION OF TYPES BASED ON CRITERIA

An evaluation of the several types of student government presented in this paper can be determined by applying the critical criteria presented in Chapter II. Each type will be listed and under each form will be a discussion of the criteria involved in that form. The type most fully fulfilling the positive criteria should prove to be the most acceptable in actual practice.

The primary criterion for evaluating all types of government is the need for it, followed by its accomplishment through a very gradual development. A civilized organization cannot successfully exist without some form of government. The criteria applied in deciding which type of organized school government to accept will be of definite importance in determining the outcome of such a venture. By studying the constitutions of other school governments and applying them, with revisions, to the proposed new government to be established, great strides can be made in putting a new government into successful action.

Criteria common to all school governments. One criterion to determine the need for a school government is whether the pupils, the faculty, or the principal, or a combination of two or more of these initiated the idea. If the

desire was imposed on the school by the principal, it will result in an authoritarian type, dominated by the principal. If a teacher or teachers propose the idea, there will be an antagonistic attitude toward it from the other teachers. A sympathetic and cooperative reaction is a deciding criterion in promoting success of a new organization in any school. If the pupils themselves are the initiators of the proposal, it probably will have a democratic basis, and with the help of the faculty, will gradually develop into a cooperative organization. The methods of trial and error, discussion and decision, and the sympathetic, positive approach will result in a harmonious attitude of give and take.

Non-Representative Types of Government

Informal type: that type wherein the principal calls a group of pupils into his office to carry out a particular project.

This form contains none of the positive criteria mentioned except, perhaps, that involving the power of the principal's veto. The fact that the informal type is not representative makes it unacceptable for promotion of a successful government for a school desiring to practice democratic ideals.

Forum type: in this type the principal calls in a group to get its opinion on some problem he must solve.

This form is like the informal type discussed above,

except that the purpose is an opinion-getting device. It has none of the characteristics to meet the qualifications of the criteria under consideration. It does not represent the school as a whole and does not identify the powers of the group. Whether the principal asks their advice in an effort to invite their confidence, or to help him make a decision, it is not democratic in procedure.

Specific Service type: this form provides for a committee assigned by the principal to be active for the whole school year for the purpose of handling some particular school service. Examples of this type would be assembly committee, social committee, clean-up committee, and so on.

The fact that this group serves all year is an improvement over the other two types of non-representative forms of government. Although the principal, or his assistant, selects the permanent committee, it could have a scheduled time and place for meeting. It would not be truly representative, which would make such a governing group far from satisfactory.

The non-representative types of government have many factors that are contrary to the criteria of a good student participating government. These types are not based on a written constitution; there is no popular voting involved; there is no true representation. The groups are formed, called in, and controlled by the principal or teachers.

These types do not produce trained leaders and followers in a sufficient number; neither do they develop initiative of the pupils to suggest their own problems to be solved; the children chosen seem to be motivated by a sense of personal obligation to the principal or teacher, rather than by a desire to do something for the student body or get approval of their fellow students.

Semi-Representative Types of Government

Specialized-interest type: this form is composed of various clubs chosen by those pupils interested in certain hobbies or activities.

This type of government is one of the oldest methods of student participation in school government. It preceded the very popular homeroom or single house type. It is a limited form of representation, usually simple in structure, stimulated by a need. This group usually has scheduled meeting times and places, has officers, encourages publicity of some nature, and must be sponsored. The organization is identified by name and may have a constitution. Quite often these specialized interest groups precede the establishment of a completely representative form of government in a school. However, as a specialized interest type, it is not completely or fairly representative. Governing groups made up of special interests, limit the qualifications for membership to the governing group. This plan does not make any provisions for

those students who are not members of a special interest club and they in turn lose all vital interest in the affairs of the school because they have no direct or personal contact with the government members in an official way and lack opportunities to select capable leaders through popular vote.

Academic-representative type: this is a government form that permits only those students of the highest academic standing to its membership.

Such a group includes many of the criteria necessary for good student government except the most important one--that of complete representation. The basis for membership limits the qualifications, and does not result in a fair representation. Many students of average scholarship have the potential abilities of student leadership. In addition, some students barely miss the high rating to qualify for government membership and some are too new in the school to be rated. A school governing group based on scholarship for membership may have a constitution with a scheduled time and place,well-defined powers, control of finances, and be properly sponsored, but it does not represent the school by popular vote with no qualifications involved. It is not suitable for initiating a democratic form of government. Academic ability does not necessarily mean a student has leadership or governing abilities.

Entire-school type: this type includes the principal as the president of the governing body, the assistant principal as the vice-president, four teachers as senators, and sixteen student representatives of the school as the house, with the board of education as the supreme court, and the homerooms as the cities.[1]

A progressive characteristic of this type of government is that no qualifications are listed for candidates to the governing body. It is quite possible that this type of government could function with considerable satisfaction providing the representative students were allowed to promote and discuss projects and activities freely. Having the principal and assistant principal act as president and vice-president limits the representation and also limits the powers of the officers and committees. This form of government, with a constitution, could be better used as a trial form of government, to be followed by a completely representative group presided over by officers who are students rather than faculty or administration. It is quite possible that this type of government might be quite successful, as is, if the principal, teachers, and students can meet on an equal basis in the conduct of school policies.

---

[1]Bess Shires, "Democracy in Action in a High School," School Activities, XXIV (May, 1953), 279.

These semi-representative types of government are most often found in those schools where the principal is making an effort to coordinate the teachers and the pupils in a cooperative attitude toward school problems and activities. If both the pupils and the teachers recognize and share in solving the school's needs, there is more opportunity in satisfying all concerned. Cooperation is one of the chief objectives of student participation in school government.

The ultimate criterion in school government is fair and total representation. However, the types discussed so far fall short of this goal. The single house and multi-house types of government include more of the criteria listed for a satisfactory government than any of the foregoing types. The requirements, according to a representative constitution, are more completely filled through the popular vote type of government. Control of school policies based on total representation, scheduled meetings as to time and place, designated powers, and proper organization has resulted in the kind of student participation that is completely cooperative. Indeed, McKown[2] states that "recently the expression 'student cooperation' has become increasingly

---

[2]Harry C. McKown, The Student Council (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1944), p. 23.

common in the literature of this field." He adds that "perhaps 'cooperation' is a smoother and more desirable term than 'participation', a bit closer and warmer in its connotations. In any case, these terms have all but crowded the expression 'student self-government' out of professional literature."

Representative Types of Government

Single-house type: this government group consists of representatives elected by and representing each of the homerooms. Examples of this type may be found in the Appendix.

In the opinion of the writer of this paper, this form of government is the most democratic and simple of all the types considered. Its most important advantages are complete representation and simple organization. All schools need this type, no matter what their size, location, or social status. It includes a constitution with items that name the governing group and its purpose. Because of its simplicity it is more likely to run efficiently, it is easy to understand, its responsibilities are definite, and it provides for closer cooperation between the government and the groups it represents. The government should not be listed as extracurricular, but should hold a respectable place of importance by its scheduled list of meeting place and time. All pupils have the right to initiate and discuss all policies and activities, to vote, and to become candidates to the governing

body. A single-house government keeps the group cohesive, with a school spirit prompted by a feeling of one-ness. It should be properly sponsored and publicized. The areas of responsibility for the committees, the officers, the sponsor, and the principal should be worded clearly but simply. Adequate by-laws should provide for inevitable changes. Of all the school governments discussed this single-house form is the most conclusive, yet simple to follow type. A copy of the constitution of the Washington Junior High School of Duluth, Minnesota in the Appendix of this paper is an example of this type of government.

Multi-house types: these types follow the federal, state, or city forms of government. The most frequently used plan is that of two houses, or bodies, although councils composed of three, four, or even five separately organized groups are not at all unknown. These styles of government are completely democratic in procedure, but they are not simple in organization. They usually include a legislative branch of two houses and often a judicial branch,too. Such involved organizations are frequently more complicated than practical. The multi-house form often fails because there is no clear distinction between the legislative and executive functions of the houses, and many a time the constitution does not give a clear idea concerning the specific responsibilities of the two bodies, although it may explain in detail the procedure

of election and internal structure of the organization. Multi-house types demand an unusually well-trained sponsor. Such complicated governments often detract from some of the primary purposes of the school government. Indeed, it is difficult to accomplish a cooperative spirit with two or three branches in the government each trying to outdo the other. Too many multi-house councils are for show purposes, being slavish imitations of existing state or national organizations. Emphasis is too often on the development of pretty machinery than on the development of efficient machinery.

In some forms of multi-house student government a branch is known as the 'student court' or judicial branch. It is organized for the purpose of assisting in maintaining discipline. Authorities disagree as to its advisability on either the junior or senior high school level. McKown,[3] whose arguments include those of many other authorities' expressions, lists the following arguments in favor of student courts:

1. Wholesome democratic living demands not only that standards of conduct be set, but that actions be judged on the basis of these criteria. Obviously, there is little logic in setting standards and not making a serious attempt to achieve them.

2. Through actual participation in helping to develop and uphold desirable standards of conduct, the student will better understand the necessity for these, have a greater interest in them, and more fully ap-

---

[3] Ibid. pp. 266-257

preciate his own responsibilities as a school citizen.

3. The student court, through the procedures of complaining, arresting, prosecuting, defending, adjudicating, and punishing, gives realistic training in the duties of citizenship.

4. The student-court idea emphasizes constructive education rather than punishment. The main purpose is to change a student's attitude, not to punish him.

5. The court idea is psychologically sound because it represents discipline from within.

6. Ultimately the training received should be of immense value in bringing about a much needed reform in adult court procedure.

In like manner, McKown[4] lists arguments against the student court:

1. Students are not experienced and mature enough to handle cases of discipline.

2. Parents will object to having their children disciplined by other children.

3. Students are not authorized to discipline their fellow students.

4. A student court will stir up personal animosities between students.

5. Students are more likely to challenge court authority than they are to challenge faculty authority.

6. Because it is imitative of adult forms, school court machinery is apt to become complicated and cumbersome.

7. Trials may be unwise or downright stupid.

8. Trials give the school undesirable publicity.

In spite of the preceding disadvantages, many American

---

[4] Ibid. pp. 267-268.

schools have successful student courts. An illustration of penalties meted out by a student court is given in the 'Notes from the Roskruge Student Court of Tucson, Arizona' in the Appendix of this paper. The size of the school does not appear to be a criterion for student courts in school government. Schools with enrollments from 100 to 3000 have evidenced their satisfaction with courts. The conclusions of the writer of this paper, after studying reports of courts of many schools, is that their success relies on the attitude of the members of the court toward the defendant, their purpose, and the sponsor's manner of handling the situation. The sponsor, or some reliable adult, should always be present at all proceedings, and the affair should be carried on in a friendly manner, sitting at a table, in a relaxed attitude. The complicated system that includes a bailiff, jury, prosecutor, and attorneys, seems a little too complicated to appear to be sympathetic. Those pupils who need defending, are such victims of circumstances, that they are most in need of friends who will listen to their confidences in a patient and understanding attitude.

As one author has stated, "The implication resulting from these findings is that high school students need not administer medicine for the atonement of their peers' iniquities."[5]

---

[5]George F. Walters, "Evaluating Student Council Procedures," School Activities, XXIV (October, 1952), 60.

Some very pertinent conclusions may be listed as a result of applying the selected criteria in evaluating various types of student government. The criteria used most frequently for determining success of school governments are: qualifications of the voters as citizens, qualifications of candidates for office, simplicity in form, concise explanations of powers and responsibilities, and well-trained sponsorship. All of these criteria should be a part of the constitution. The types of government that includes all these criteria are very few and depend greatly upon the interpretation of their constitutions. The type that fulfills most of these criteria is the single-house form of government. The final test is based on what it accomplishes, rather than the type that accomplishes it.

Fretwell[6] tells us, "It is the business of the school to organize the whole educational situation so that there is a favorable opportunity for everybody, pupils and teachers, to practice the qualities of the good citizen here and now, with results satisfying to themselves. Pupil participation in school government, when guided wisely, is the best means the school has for providing this practice."

There is no doubt but the adult leader or sponsor of

---

[6]Elbert K. Fretwell, Extra-curricular Activities in the Secondary Schools (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931), p. 114.

the government in the school is largely responsible for its success. The sponsor who enables the pupils to work together creatively, confidently, will lead the members in meeting their own and the school's needs. The need for well-prepared and understanding sponsors has been long felt since school governments were first organized. The desire to help children to learn how to do things, rather than to help them to learn about those things, makes the government a practical organization. To do this, the schools must have a simple constitution, with definite responsibilities listed, inspired by a sympathetic sponsor. In this way the pupils become increasingly self-directive, and experiment in government continues with widespread interest and great vitality.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The purpose of this paper is to cite criteria that are useful in evaluating several forms of government applicable to junior and senior high schools. In interpreting the reason for evaluation, McKown[1] says, "The real purpose of all evaluation is improvement, and an evaluation is not an appraisal worthy of the name until the results of the investigation have been properly and effectively capitalized in the direction of an improved plan of participation." Procedures and forms can not be evaluated until they have been applied. Surveys show that over half of the junior and senior high schools have applied some form of government in their schools. The willingness to try something new after failure is a step toward progress. Progress is attained by following recommendations for different procedures.

Recommendations. To arrive at improvement in the field of student government, through criteria already listed, the following recommendations are made as a result of this study:

1. Children should feel that their suggestions are

---

[1]Harry C. McKown, "The Student Council", McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1944, Chap. XIII, p. 343

worthy of consideration by the teachers and the pupils. After the need for a government is expressed, there should be constant need for further expression on the part of the pupils as well as the teachers. This citizenship training comes about through class room and government group discussions.

2. Sponsors of governments should aim for a simple form, rather than an over-organized type of government. It should define responsibilities concisely to avoid overlapping of powers, or the omission of powers.
3. Orientation classes for new pupils should be initiated in the fall under the supervision of the student government. This should include a meeting explaining parliamentary procedure, responsibilities, and attitudes toward the government.
4. There should be more preparatory training for sponsors. Summer programs were started after 1950, to assist sponsors. These have been held in Arkansas, Texas, Colorado, Illinois, Louisiana, New Jersey, and Virginia during the month of August for one or two weeks. It is recommended that all Teachers' Colleges and Departments of Education in Universities have full summer terms in such training.

5. Leadership classes should be scheduled within each junior and senior high school for both sponsors and students. The Handbook[1] is available, and discussion classes should be planned for those interested. Academic credit could be offered to students attending regularly.
6. The student government program should be considered a regular activity, and not extra-curricular. The time and place of meeting should be constant.
7. Student governments should handle discipline cases from the standpoint of admonishment, but not from thestandpoint of punishment. It should be of a counseling nature.

One of the attitudes of good teaching is to present new procedures in such a manner that success is expected by the pupils and teacher when attempting that new effort. Many efforts end in failure, but usually the processes followed, help in making the new attempt succeed. The learnings that take place while the effort is being made, are more important than the result, be it success or failure. Using the experiences of others before attempting new

---

[1] "The Student Council in the Secondary School", A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors, National Association of Student Councils, 1950.

ways, assists in assuring success. The recommedations made should be of help in establishing new forms of student government.

Conclusions. Every junior and senior high school should have a simple, concise form of government, sponsored by an understanding teacher. The student government is a miniature democracy which represents student interests and activities--in short, a practice school for citizenship. Thorndike[3] very aptly phrases the purposefulness of school activity in this statement: "In the last analysis, what the scholars do, not what the teacher does, educates them---- and only through their self-activity are they directly trained."

---

[3]E. L. Thorndike, "Principles of Teaching", (New York: A. G. Seiler, 1906), p. 41.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Barbe, W. B. "Must Everyone be Trained for Leadership?" Educational Forum, 18:49-53, November, 1953.

Fretwell, Elbert K. Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931.

Jones, Galen. "Student Council, theCitizens Workshop," School Activities, 25:247-249, April, 1954.

Kelley, Earl C. "Student Co-operation--A Report of Student Government in the High Schools," National Self-Government Committee, Incorporated, 1941.

Lent, H. C. "The Status of the Student Council in the Class A and B Junior and Senior High Schools of Michigan." Unpublished Master of Arts Paper, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1939.

McKown, Harry C. The Student Council. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1944.

Kelley, E. C. "An Evaluation of Student Participation in Government in American Secondary Schools." Unpublished Doctor' s dissertation, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1940.

Kirkendall, Lester. "Is Your School an Effective Instrument of Democracy?" The Councilor, Number 2, pp. 2-3, December, 1942.

Koos, Leonard V. The Junior High School. New York: Ginn and Company, 1927.

Minotti, Victor. "Identifying the Good School Citizen," School Review, 62:Part 2, February, 1954.

Pflieger, Elmer. "Learning Discipline in a Democracy," National Education Association Journal, 38:256-257, April, 1949.

Shaffer, R. O. "Counciling for Democratic Leadership," Education, 74:507-511, April, 1954.

Shires, Bess. "Democracy in Action in a High School," School Activities, 24:278-280, May, 1953.

Sterner, W. S. "Role of the Student Council," School Activities, 25:45-47, October, 1953.

_____. "Why the Council Can't Run the School," Clearing House, 28:401-404, March, 1954.

Terry, Paul W. Supervising Extra-curricular Activities. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1930.

_____. The Twenty-fifth Yearbook for the National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926.

The Student Council in the Secondary School, A Handbook for Student Councils and their Sponsors. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950.

Thorndike, E. L. The Principles of Teaching. New York: A. G. Seiler, 1906.

Trueblood, D. L. "Creative and Functional Student Government," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 32:404, March, 1952.

Van Pool, G. M. "Student Council Trains for Effective Citizenship," School Activities, 25:7-9, September, 1953.

Walters, George F. "Evaluating Student Council Procedures," School Activities, 24:60, October, 1952.

Wood, D. I. "Leaders Can Be Made," National Education Association Journal, 43:105, February, 1954.

APPENDIX

Constitution of the Student Council
Washington Junior High School
Duluth, Minnesota

PREAMBLE

We, the students of the Washington Junior High School, in order to promote the democratic procedures by maintaining laws of good order; by developing a sense of responsibility for growth in self-direction; by selecting intelligent leadership and by attempting to follow such leadership with sincerity and success; by practicing student-student and student-teacher cooperation; and by fostering advancement in scholarship, in school spirit, and in ideals of friendliness, fair play and loyalty, do establish this constitution for the Washington Junior High Student Council.

ARTICLE I--Name

The name of this organization shall be the Washington Junior High Student Council.

ARTICLE II--Membership

Section 1: The Washington Junior High Student Council shall consist of students elected, one from every homeroom, each year, to act as representatives from each homeroom.

Section 2: The homeroom has the right to elect its own representative, subject to removal by the teacher or principal if found necessary.

Section 3: Each homeroom shall elect a representative

following the opening of school each fall.

Section 4: No person shall be allowed to hold a homeroom office and a Student Council membership the same school year.

Section 5: Membership on the Council requires attendance at all Council meetings, unless legitimately excused. Penalty for failure to abide subjects the representative to removal from the Council by his homeroom.

Section 6: Vacancies are to be filled by an election in the homeroom immediately following occurrence of the vacancy.

ARTICLE III--Officers

Section 1: The officers of the Student Council shall be president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer, and sergeant-at-arms, who shall have powers, duties, and responsibilities usual to the office to which they are elected, including the following:

Section 2: The duties of the president shall be:

a. Preside over all meetings of the Student Council and present to the Council matters of school interest.

b. Assist and may preside at general assembly meetings.

c. Appoint such committees as are necessary for carrying out the activities of the Council.

d. Have power to call special meetings of the Council upon approval of the principal of the school.

e. May vote only in the case of a tie.

Section 3: The duties of the vice-president will be:

a. To be ready at all times to act as president.

b. To become president in the event of the removal or resignation of the president.

Section 4: The duties of the secretary-treasurer shall be:

a. To keep the minutes of the Student Council meetings.

b. Attend to and keep record of all the written correspondence of the Student Council.

c. To publish the minutes of the Council meetings in school bulletin.

d. To attend to all financial matters which come under the supervision of the Student Council.

Section 5: The duties of the sergeant-at-arms:

a. To check attendance at each Council meeting.

b. To help maintain order at meetings.

c. To announce meetings.

d. Custodian of meeting place.

e. As far as possible, see that the meeting starts promptly.

ARTICLE IV--Qualification of Officers

Section 1: All candidates for elected offices must maintain a scholarship and citizenship record satisfactory to the advisory committee.

Section 2: All candidates must be familiar with the provisions of this constitution.

ARTICLE V--Election of Officers

Section 1: Nominating committees from the 8th grade homerooms, 9th grade homerooms, and the elected members of the Student Council shall each nominate a candidate for the office of president, one for vice-president, one for secretary-treasurer and one for sergeant-at-arms. There must be three different candidates for each office.

Section 2: These candidates shall then be elected through popular vote of the homerooms.

Section 3: Elections shall be held in the fall of the year, preferable in the month of September.

Section 4: All candidates shall be approved by the principal at least two weeks before the general election.

Section 5: Vacancies shall be filled by special election at the regular Council meeting for the required office.

ARTICLE VI--Powers

Section 1: The council shall have the power to investigate problems referred to it by the principal, teachers and students and to make recommendations pertaining to the problems.

Section 2: The Council may plan any worth-while project for the school.

Section 3: The Council may conduct special assemblies.

Section 4: The Council may supervise the elction of the president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer and sergeant-at-arms.

ARTICLE VII--Meetings

Section 1: The Student Council will meet once a week, the day and time to be designated by the principal.

Section 2: Attendance by two-thirds of the Council members shall constitute a quorum.

Section 3: Special meetings may be called by the president whenever deemed necessary.

Section 4: Each homeroom shall be represented at all meetings.

ARTICLE VIII--Homeroom Organization

Section 1: The purposes of the homeroom meetings are:

a. To inform the students of the activities of the Student Council.

b. Suggestions for the Student Council activities should be presented through the homeroom meeting.

c. To carry out the projects undertaken by the Student Council.

Section 2: Officers of the homeroom shall be the president, secretary, and Student Council representative.

Section 3: Suggested order of procedure in the homeroom meetings:

a. President calls the meeting to order.

b. Secretary reads minutes of last homeroom meeting.

c. Student Council representative reads minutes of last Council meeting.

d. Committee reports.

e. Old business.

f. New business.

g. Closing of meeting.

h. All homerooms must adhere to parliamentary procedure in conducting their meetings.

Section 4: Students of the homeroom shall elect a committee consisting of two homeroom members who, with the homeroom teacher, shall nominate two slates of officers to be boted on by the homeroom.

Section 5: Officers shall be elected during the month of September.

Section 6: Duties of Officers:

a. President--to lead the homeroom meetings and take the place of the homeroom representative in case of his absence.

b. Homeroom representative--to represent his homeroom at all Student Council meetings and take the place of the president in case of his absence.

ARTICLE IX--By-Laws

Section 1: The Student Council shall develop and adopt such by-laws and rules of order as may be necessary for the conduct of the business of the Council.

Section 2: Such by-laws shall not in any way conflict with provisions of the constitution.

ARTICLE X--Committees

Section 1: The Student Council shall organize such standing committees as are deemed necessary. Chairmen of all committees shall be members of the Council. The president of the Council shall submit nominations for these committees to the Council for approval.

Section 2: There shall be an Agenda Committee, consisting of the Council officers and advisors, which shall meet regularly before each Council meeting.

ARTICLE XI--Faculty Advisors

Section 1: Faculty advisors shall be appointed by the principal.

ARTICLE XII--Amendment

Section 1: Amendments to this constitution may be proposed and presented in writing by any member of the Student Council at any meeting, provided only that the proposed amendment carries the signatures of 50 students and three faculty members.

Section 2: Such amendments must be read at three subsequent meetings of the Council before being voted on.

Section 3: Amendments must be passed by a two-thirds vote of the Student Council and must be approved by the principal.

ARTICLE XIII--Veto

Section 1: As all powers are delegated to the Council by the principal, he shall have the right of veto over any measure which it proposes.

ARTICLE XIV--Ratification

Section 1: Immediately upon approval by two-thirds of the student body and faculty members, this constitution shall go into effect.

Section 2: The constitution must also be approved by the principal.

Constitution of the Student Council
Morgan Park High School
Duluth, Minnesota

ARTICLE I. Name

This organization shall be known as the Student Council of Morgan Park High School.

ARTICLE II. Object

The object of this organization shall be to act as a leaders' club to promote the general welfare of the school, and to give the students an opportunity to participate in the government of the school.

ARTICLE III. Membership

Section 1. This council shall consist of the heads of all class A Organizations of the school.

Section 2. A list of Class A Organizations shall be posted by the principal each semester, and shall consist of the following: homerooms, interscholastic teams, and such others as the principal may designate.

Section 3. A student is eligible to serve as the head of a Class A Organization and for membership in the Council if he has made three semester credits in the semester preceding his election. To remain eligible he shall do passing work in four full-credit subjects. If in the seventh or eighth grades, he shall do passing work in all subjects.

Section 4. Each homeroom shall elect officers at the beginning of each semester, each team shall elect its captain

at the conclusion of its season, and other Class A Organizations shall elect officers as prescribed in their Constitution.

Section 5. The sponsor of each Class A Organization shall certify to the Council the name of the elected head of the organization immediately after his election upon the certification form.

ARTICLE IV. Officers, Election, Inauguration

Section 1. The officers shall consist of President, Vice-president, Secretary, and Sponsor. The Sponsor shall be appointed by the Principal.

Section 2. The student officers of the Council shall be elected by ballot within two weeks of the opening of the semester.

Section 3. These officers shall be elected by a majority vote.

Section 4. Within two weeks following the election of officers the president shall be inaugurated in a general assembly of the school.

Section 5. At his inauguration the president shall take the following oath: I hereby swear to uphold and obey the Constitution of the Student Council, to perform the duties of the President to the best of my ability, and to work for the general welfare and success of Morgan Park High School.

ARTICLE V. Meetings

Section 1. The Council shall meet each Monday at the noon luncheon hour.

Section 2. A quorum shall consist of a majority of the members.

Section 3. Special meetings may be called by the President, Vice-president, or Sponsor.

Section 4. Order of business:

Call to order
Roll call
Reading of the minutes
Reports of committees
Unfinished business
New business
Adjournmemt

ARTICLE VI. Duties of Officers

Section 1. The duties of the student officers shall be such as usually devolve upon the offices held.

Section 2. Roberts' "Rules of Order" shall be the authority used to answer questions of parliamentary procedure.

Section 3. It shall be the privilege of the Sponsor to speak in the meetings, but he shall not vote.

ARTICLE VII. Vacancies

Section 1. No member shall retain his position in the Council who becomes ineligible, or who absents himself from three meetings without an excuse approved by a majority vote of the Council. The sponsors of Class A Organizations shall

notify the President of ineligibility, and the Secretary shall give notice when a member has been absent three times.

Section 2. When a vacancy occurs the President shall order the Secretary to give a written notice of such vacancy to the Sponsor of the Class A Organization involved.

ARTICLE VIII. Powers of the Council

The powers of the Council shall be:

1. To promote and control interscholastic athletics with the advice and consent of the Coach and Faculty manager.

2. To provide regulations for the awarding of letters and monograms for athletics, forensics, cheer-leading, and other forms of interscholastic activities.

3. To elect the following student officers: Manager of Athletics, Cheer leaders, Safety Officers, etc.

4. To publish a Handbook each year to be known as the "Blue and Gold Book".

5. To see that all money raised by Class A Organizations is deposited with the Faculty Treasurer.

6. To see that safety and courtesy are promoted in the school.

7. To offer rewards for special services to the school.

8. To see that official school monograms, numerals, etc., are worn only by those who are entitiled to wear them.

9. To keep a "Custom Book" in which the regulations of

the Council shall be entered.

10. To discuss school procedures and to make recommendations to the principal embodying the sense of the members of the Council.

11. To support all inter- and intra-school activities not herein specifically mentioned which contribute to the general welfare and success of the school.

12. To encourage the homerooms to become vital units of the school, that promote democracy, service, and social activities.

ARTICLE IX. Powers of the Principal

The following powers of the Principal are recognized as inherent in his position, and not subject to abridgement or amendment:

1. To veto any decision made by the Council.

2. To decide on all questions not provided for by the constitution of the Council.

3. To act as a final authority as to the meaning of any part of this constitution.

ARTICLE X. Amendments

This constitution (with the exception of Article IX) may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members of the Student Council.

NOTES FROM THE ROSKRUGE STUDENT COURT
Roskruge Junior High School
Tucson, Arizona

1. Student government officials receive double penalty.

2. It is the law to sign patrol citations. Failure to do so is punishable by law. To sign such a citation does not mean an admission of guilt.

3. Arguing with a Patrol or Bus Commissioner is punishable by law.

4. Second offense results in double penalty if defendant is found guilty.

5. Bus Commissioners do not have to issue a warning.

6. Failure to give correct name to a Patrol or Bus Commissioner is punishable.

OFFENSES	DAYS IN DETENTION
IN BUILDING:	
Loitering	2
Scuffling	5
Fighting	10
Sliding down banister	1
Destroying school property	3 (plus restoring, cost to be set by office)
Marring school property	3 (see above)
Walking on wrong side of hall or stairs	1
Running in hall	2
Skipping stairs	1
Whistling in halls	1
In building without pass	1
Using wrong door	1
Disobeying Patrols	2
ON PLAYGROUND:	
Scuffling	5
Fighting	10
Riding double on bikes	3
Destroying or marring school property	3 (plus restoring, cost to be set by office)
Riding on school grounds	4

OFFENSES	DAYS IN DETENTION
Crossing white line	1
Bars (sitting on or swinging on, etc.)	3
Throwing rocks	5
Misconduct	2
BUS:	
Scuffling	5
Fighting	10
Disturbance	2
Eating	1
Singing	1
Moving while bus is in motion	2
Having any p art of body out of bus	3
On wrong bus	2
Pushing	1
OTHER:	
Giving false name or refusal to give name or sign citation	3
Jaywalking (This means being out of cresswalks)	3
Crossing high school lawn	1
Loitering on private property around school	3
Contempt of court (This includes arguing with a Patrol or Bus Commissioner	3
Perjury	3
Misbehavior on a school trip sponsored by the R.J.H.S. Student Body Government	5

Note: Students are allowed to bring witnesses.