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INTERNAL CONTROL IN THE CLASSIFIED HIGH SCHOOLS OF NORTH DAKOTA

A Thesis
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty
of the
University of North Dakota

by
Henry Lorenz Mouw

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the

Degree of

Master of Science in Education

August 3, 1939

This thesis, offered by Henry Lorenz Mouw as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Education, is hereby approved by the Committee under whom the work has been done.

Chairman

In Rua. Vag.

C. Tr. Telford

Director of the Graduate Division

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Internal control, or the organization and regulation of routine matters, determines to a large extent the progress and efficiency of a high school.

Educators are agreed that the purpose of the high school is to train the adolescent for effective living in his social environment. Much of this training is based upon social and cultural inheritance of the past, and therefore the high school serves as a transitional agency in that it imparts this inheritance to its young people. The high school also has an outlook toward the future in that it aims to help the adolescent in making his adjustment from child-hood to adulthood. Society, through the high school, wants its young people to become contributors to civilization.

To become a contributor, the young person needs to have an adequate personality. He needs a sufficiency for self-direction.

Of course, personality adjustment is a process which starts with babyhood and continues throughout life. The critical adjustment period comes, however, during the adolescent period. The transformation from childhood to

adulthood has its greatest impetus during the high school age. For that reason it is very important that the high school be efficient internally for carrying out its true functions.

Today much observation and study is given to mental hygiene and to the maladjustment of individuals. The psychologists agree that most all maladjustment and psychopathic cases have their origin in childhood and in the adolescent period. These facts are a challenge to the high school and to its administrator.

The problem, then, to the high school administrator, is to organize his procedures in such a way that his pupils are guided toward the development of adequate personalities and self-control. Cox and Langfitt summarize the matter appropriately when they say that the administrator's own personality is nowhere reflected more advantageously or pitilessly, as the case may be, than in his guidance organization of the school.

Purpose of the Study

The writer's purpose in writing this thesis is:

1. To make a survey of the methods of internal control and regulation used in the classified high schools of North Dakota.

¹Cox and Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 426.

- 2. To see what degree of conformity there is in the state.
- 3. To try to formulate, from the material gathered, an outline of workable methods which seem most appropriate.

Scope of the Subject

Rules for internal school organization and control cannot be fixed. Every school has its own individual problems. Each situation must necessarily be solved somewhat differently. As times change and as progress is made, organization must also change. History has proved that where organization fails to change, as in autocratic governments, then revolt takes place. Institutions, as well as individuals, must ever make new adjustments; otherwise, the institutions fail to be of service.

In spite of individual differences of schools, there must necessarily be some unit of organization for efficiency of working and handling. North Dakota has organized its high schools into specific groups. These groups are the classified high schools and the consolidated high schools. The classified schools are further divided into first, second, and third class classified high schools. The consolidated schools are similarly divided into three classes—first, second, and third class consolidated high schools.

Inasmuch as the state of North Dakota sets up certain

standards in regard to teacher training, equipment, and other practices to be met by each classification of high school, it can be assumed that the methods of internal control in these schools will have characteristics in common. Also, since many of the administrators in the high schools of the state have received their educational training in the higher institutions of learning in North Dakota or in neighboring states, and since these administrators have received much, if not most, of their executive experience in the high schools of North Dakota, it is very probable that their methods of internal control are alike in many respects.

How these internal practices are similar, how they differ, and how they apply to the high schools of North Dakota will make up the substance of this thesis. The point of view is somewhat disciplinary. The writer is interested in this phase of administration, as are all school men who are striving to improve educational procedures within their schools.

Source of Data

The North Dakota Educational Directory of 1937-1938 lists 212 classified high schools in the state. Of this number, 197 are public high schools, nine are parochial high schools, four are high schools in connection with

North Dakota Educational Directory, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1937-1938, pp. 6 to 14.

state teachers' colleges, and two are county agricultural high schools.

In the survey taken for this study, questionnaires were sent, during the year of 1937-1938, to the superintendents of only the 197 public high schools and to the Walsh County Agricultural High School. The classification of these 198 high schools where questionnaires were sent, according to the above directory, are 105 first class, 39 second class, and 54 third class classified high schools.

Out of the total of 198 questionnaires sent, 129, or 65.1 per cent were returned. No follow-up letters were sent.

Names of towns returning the questionnaires may be found in Appendix A.

Table 1 shows the results of the questionnaires sent out and returned.

Table 1
Questionnaire Returns

Number (Classifi Schools State	ied	Number of Forms Sent	Number of Returns Received	Percentage of Returns Received	Percentage of Each Class of School rep- resented in Survey
First Class	115	105	74	70.4	57.3
Second Class	43	39	21	53.8	16.3
Third Class	54	54	34	62.9	26.4
Totals	212	198	129	65.1	100.0

It will be noted from Table 1 that the greatest response was from the first class schools, which returned 70.4 per cent of the questionnaires. The third class schools were next with 62.9 per cent, while the second class schools responded least with 53.8 per cent. This brought the average per cent of returns to 65.1.

Limitations

As Table 1 denotes, the first class schools are represented in this survey by 57.3 per cent, the second class schools by 16.3 per cent, and the third class schools by 26.4 per cent.

Except for assembly systems and, in some cases, library systems, the organization practices of the three classes of schools were found not different enough to warrant separate tabulations for each respective class of school. Furthermore, the procedures of some of the third class schools were found to be more like those of first class schools than was the similarity of practices among first class schools themselves. For that reason, the findings of all three classes of schools will be listed together in each tabulation of the various items in this thesis.

The findings are from only the public classified high schools of the state. The parochial high schools, being private schools, and the state teachers' college high schools,

being organized similar to the college plan, have not been considered. This survey also has not attempted to cover the 432 graded and consolidated schools listed in the directory. It is possible, of course, that procedures in many cases could be applied to the other schools of the state as well as to the classified high schools.

Procedure

In the questionnaire (which may be found in Appendix B), there were 114 items to be answered. The items covered the topics of organization, teachers, marking system, extracurricular activities, pupils, and discipline. The questions were of the objective type. Actual procedures and practices were requested. Only in a few cases were opinions wanted.

The author of this thesis aims to write objectively and without prejudice. It is hoped that some of the better and more progressive ideas which are coming to the foreground in the field of administration may be crystalized. This thesis will not be an exhaustive treatment of the subject. It is hoped it will offer a small contribution.

The plan of the succeeding chapters is to discover, to tabulate, to interpret, and to summarize the various methods of internal control used in the public classified high schools of the state of North Dakota, as found in the survey, on the topics of (1) organization, (2) teachers,

(3) marking system, (4) extra-curricular activities, (5) pupils, and (6) discipline. A chapter of summary and recommendations will conclude the thesis.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION

The superintendent is the master at the helm. His organization and his policies and practices are the important factors which make for the success of a school. As Cubberley says, the superintendent must make a more or less definite educational plan to be followed in the administration and development of his school.

The aim of this chapter is to discover the general practices of internal organization and administration throughout the state.

Length of Class Period

The first item taken up in the questionnaire was that of the length of the class period. For one unit of credit in a non-laboratory subject, North Dakota requires a minimum class period of 40 minutes duration, five times a week, for 36 weeks. For laboratory subjects, seven 40 minute periods per week are required. This is in line with the

Cubberley, Ellwood P., Public School Administration, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1929, p. 237.

²Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, pp. 27-28.

requirements of the North Central Association.

Many high schools, today, include Smith-Hughes courses in their curricula. Since Smith-Hughes regulations require five 60-minute periods per week rather than seven 40-minute periods, the tendency of these and some other high schools, in recent years, has been to make all classes, non-laboratory as well as laboratory, 60 minutes in length. Eighty and sixtenths (80.6) per cent, or 104 out of 129, of the schools in the state, however, still retain either the 40-minute or the 45-minute period.

Table 2
Length of Class Periods in the Schools of North Dakota

Number of Minutes in Each Period	Number of Schools Having Each Period	Percentage of Schools Having Each Period	Number of Schools Prefer- ring Each Period	Percentage of Schools Preferring Each Period	Number of Schools Wishing to change from Each Period
Sixty	14	10.9	67	51.9	10
Forty-five	46	35.6	27	21.0	19
Forty	58	45.0	35	27.1	23
Sixty-Forty	11	8.5	_ 0_	0.0	_11_
Totals	129	100.0	129	100.0	53

Table 2 indicates that only 14 out of 129 schools, or 10.9 per cent, have the 60-minute period regularly, while 11 schools, or 8.5 per cent, have part 60-minute and part 40-

minute periods. In the latter case, usually each half day is divided into either 40-minute or into 60-minute periods. The 40-minute period is for academic courses, while the 60-minute period is for applied science courses.

It is interesting to note the preference of school men in regard to the 60-minute period, whether they have had experience with it or not. In the list, all those now operating on the 60-minute basis wished to retain it; all those operating on the 60-40 basis indicated on the questionnaire that they either preferred to change or were going to change over to the 60-minute period for all classes in the coming year; and 19 out of 46 of those operating on the 45-minute basis and 23 out of 58 of those operating on the 40-minute basis, in other words 48.1 per cent of those not now using the 60-minute period, indicated their preference for the 60-minute period.

Whether or not the men considered the 60-minute period an advantage to the pupil, or simply a convenience to the system, was not indicated on the questionnaire. Without doubt, however, the 60-minute period is superior to the 40-minute period for laboratory and applied science courses. Full 60 minutes are needed for accomplishing good results in these courses.

Most school men justify using the 60-minute period for non-laboratory subjects on the grounds that it provides

for supervised study. It must be agreed that there is ample time for supervised study. If the 60-minute period does become in general use, as indications seem to point out, it is evident that many teachers need a more adequate training in the art of carrying on successful supervised study in their classrooms. Textbook publishers, however, have solved the problem to a large extent through their workbooks which they have published for practically all subjects.

Use of the Warning Bell

The schools having a clock in every classroom do not use the warning bell system. Where there is no clock in each classroom, except perhaps in the general study hall, the warning bell is usually rung by the study hall teacher. It is rung a few minutes before the class period ends to let the teachers and the pupils know that the end of the period is near. When the period ends, the bell is rung again for the passing of classes. Not as many schools use the warning bell system as those that do not use it. Table 3 makes this clear.

Table 3
Use of the Warning Bell in the Schools of North Dakota

	Number of	Percentage
[Acad \$4] 100 (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100) (100)	Schools	of Schools
Schools That Use the Warning Bell	39	30.2
Schools That Do Not Use Warning Bel	1 90	69.8
Totals	129	100.0
Number of Minutes of Warning:		
Five	14	10.8
Three	6	4.7
Two	16	12.4
One	3	2.3
No Warning Bell	90	69.8
Totals	129	100.0

Table 3 shows the per cent of schools which use the warning bell, also the number of minutes of warning. It indicates that 30.2 per cent of the schools surveyed use the warning bell system, while 69.8 per cent do not. It is quite possible that most of these latter schools are equipped with clocks. It is also possible that those schools, which are not equipped with clocks but which still do not use the warning bell, may feel that the warning bell is not necessary.

The schools that do use the warning bell feel that its purpose is to give the teachers or pupils an opportunity to finish their discussions without embarrassment. There is also an opportunity for the teachers to give any added suggestions on the assignments that they think necessary. Classes, also, will end on time.

The five-minute and the two-minute warning intervals are used most generally.

Dismissal of Classes

An interesting point in connection with the ending of the class period is the manner in which classes are dismissed. Most superintendents want their teachers, upon the ringing of the bell, to hold their classes until the person speaking, pupil or teacher, finishes his statement with a well-rounded sentence and without embarrassment. Then, the teacher without further delay dismisses the class. If she performs hall duty, she steps to the door, opens it, and stands beside the

door in the hallway while the pupils are passing.

Some teachers let the bell dismiss the class, even though the superintendent's policy may be otherwise. This may be an indication of poor control on the part of the teacher, or it may be the teacher's choice in the matter. Some superintendents leave the matter to the teacher. But, in general, all superintendents want immediate dismissal of classes, whether it is by the teacher or by the bell.

The question put to the superintendents was: Do you require that pupils wait until the teacher dismisses the class, or may they leave immediately upon ringing of the bell? The replies are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
How classes Are Dismissed

	Dismissed by the Teacher	Dismissed by the Bell	Totals
Number of Schools	100	29	129
Percentage of Schools	77.5	22.5	100.0

From the figures shown on the above table, 77.5 per cent of the superintendents require, or desire, that their teachers dismiss their classes rather than the bell. Better control by dismissal of teachers seems to be the indication. Of course, the assignment of lessons should have been given by the teachers before the class period ends. The teacher needs to be prepared to dismiss the class as

soon after the bell rings as the last person can round out his statement. The class should leave on time.

Intermission Between Classes

There are a number of systems used for handling the period of intermission between classes. Some schools, usually the larger ones, have five-minute intermissions. In most of these schools, during the five minutes of intermission, the pupil is to take care of getting his drink of water, take care of his toilet necessities, and take care that he arrives at his next classroom or study room before the second bell rings. This system is similar to the college plan. The class period, usually, is 55 minutes in length if the hour system for classes is used.

The two-minute and the three-minute intermission periods are most popular, as will be noted by Table 5. In these plans, provided that there are no toilets on the same floor, the pupils, as a rule, are expected to go directly from the room they leave to their next classroom or study room. Getting a drink of water is permitted, however, if the water fountain is on the same floor. Should a pupil wish to go to the toilet, he must sign out at the study hall during his next study period. Generally, no tardy bell (or second bell) is used in the two-minute and the three-minute plan of intermission.

The 18 schools having no intermission are, of course, the smaller schools where passing from class to class is done without much loss of time. The time taken for passing is considered as part of the class period which follows. No tardy bell is necessary. Classes begin as soon as the pupils are seated.

There are seven schools listed as having one-minute intermissions. These schools, evidently, are like the schools having no minutes in that the one minute is considered as part of the class period which follows.

Table 5
Length of Intermission Between Classes

Number of Minutes in	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	Is Intermission Use Satisfactory?		
Intermis- sion	Using In- termission	Using In- termission	Yes	No	
Five	27	20.9	27	0	
Three	38	29.5	37	.1	
Two	39	30.2	37	2	
One	7	5.4	7	0	
None	18	14.0	17	1	
Tota	ls 129	100.0	125	4	

A question might arise at this point as to whether all the schools operating on the 60-minute basis for class periods have five-minute intermissions. The writer has

found that six of the schools operating on the 60-minute basis do have five-minute intermissions, while eight do not. Three of the schools operating on the 60-40 minute basis do, while 8 do not; and 18 of the schools operating on the 40-minute or the 45-minute basis do, while 86 do not.

All but four of the above schools in Table 5 were satisfied with their intermission periods. One of the four considered three minutes too short, and one found that no intermission period was unsatisfactory.

Supervision in Hallways

In connection with the intermission period between classes, there is in most schools the problem of supervising the pupils in the hallways. This supervision is also necessary mornings before 9: o'clock, at the noon hour intermission, and again at 4:00 o'clock. Naturally, this supervision is necessary to a greater extent in the larger schools.

That fact was verified in the questionnaire. Practically all of the larger schools required their teachers to serve on hall duty; while many of the smaller schools, and a very few of the schools with over 100 high schools pupils, did not require their teachers to perform hall duties.

Ten high schools in the state have, as part of their student government activities, a student patrol or monitor system for helping to regulate the order in the hallways.

All these ten schools expressed satisfaction with their plan.

One school tried the student monitor idea for hallway regulations one year and found it unsatisfactory because of embittered feelings stirred up among the students. A few other men expressed similar sentiments in regard to student government, which will be discussed further in a later chapter. The indication is that students resent having other members of their group on a higher plane than themselves when the issue is behavior.

A few schools have student monitors for fire drill.

Table 6 shows the number of schools having teachers
and pupils perform hallway duties.

Table 6
Hallway Duties

		Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Do Teachers Serve	on Hollwor Dutre		
COUNTY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPERTY OF THE	es es	98	76.0
	0		24.0
	Totals	$\frac{31}{129}$	100.0
Do You Have Studen			
for Hallway D	uty? es	10 119	7.8
for Hallway D	uty? es o Totals	119	
for Hallway D Y N Is the Monitor Pla	uty? es o Totals	119	92.2

Teachers for hallway duties are in much more general use throughout the state than is the student monitor or

patrol system. It will be noted by Table 6, however, that all ten of the schools having the student system considered it a success. This success is perhaps due to the plan worked out by the administrator in charge.

Some of the schools, 24 per cent, do not have any supervision in hallways, except perhaps in a general way. These schools are many whose enrollments are small and where congestion of large groups of pupils does not occur. It is altogether possible, also, that proper construction of hall-ways, stairways, and other passage ways affects the general good order in some schools, and therefore requires little supervision to be necessary.

Study Room and Assembling Systems

There are two general assembling systems used by the schools in the state for the congregation of the pupils on the opening of school mornings and after the noon hour. Because of greater enrollments, the larger schools have the home room system--usually one room for each class, as freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. The smaller schools, on the other hand, have all pupils assemble in the general assembly room or study hall.

Table 7 gives the number and percentage of schools having home rooms and those having all pupils assemble in one study room. The table shows, too, that not all schools

require the pupils to report at the home room or the study room for dismissal at noon and again at 4:00 o'cleck. Instead, the pupils are checked out from their last classrooms.

Table 7
Assembling System

(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools Having Home Room System Schools Having All Pupils Assem-	34	26.4
ble in Study Hall	95	73.6
Totals	129	100.0
Schools Requiring Pupils to Report at Home Room or Study Hall for Dismissal:		
At Noon	98	76.0
At 4:00 Neither at Noon	84	65.1
nor at 4:00	31	24.0

From Table 7 it will be seen that 26.4 per cent of the schools have the home room system, while 73.6 per cent of them have all pupils assemble in the study hall.

Seventy-six per cent of the schools require their pupils to return to the home room or the study room for dismissal at noon. Not all these same schools, however, require similar dismissal at 4:00 o'clock; as only 65.1 per cent of all schools require dismissals from home rooms or study rooms at that time. Twenty-four per cent allow the pupils to be checked out at their classrooms both at noon and at 4:00 o'clock rather than requiring them to go back to their home

rooms or study halls.

A home room is usually under the supervision of the class advisor; while a study hall is most frequently under the supervision of the high school principal, especially mornings before 9:00 o'clock and before classes begin in the afternoon. Other teachers have certain periods during the day when they have charge of the study hall.

The pupils have their books and other materials in the home room or in the study hall, and the main purpose of the room is for study. Other purposes are for taking the enrollment of absences and tardinesses, to give announcements, to have pep meetings and programs, and for class meetings.

Whether there are advantages in having the pupils report back to the home room or study room for dismissal at noon and at 4:00 o'clock was not indicated on the question-naire. Perhaps one important advantage is to give the pupils a chance to bring back their books and other supplies not needed and to collect the materials needed for home study. Another advantage may be the rechecking of pupils to prevent their leaving school before it officially ends.

Quite frequently the pupils taking physical training the last period of the day are not required to return to the home room or to the study room for dismissal because of the time needed for dressing.

The Special and Regular Assembly Periods

Sometimes a special, or regular, assembly period is set aside for various purposes as programs, announcements, and general meetings. Some superintendents provide for a regular period each day when everyone is to be in the study hall. The period then can be used at the discretion of the superintendent or the high school principal. If no activities need attention, the period is used for study.

Other superintendents call the pupils together whenever they think a special assembly is advisable. Quite frequently, time is cut from the other classes to hold this special assembly period.

Table 8 shows the practices of the North Dakota high schools in regard to these assembly periods.

Table 8
Special and Regular Assembly Periods

	umber of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Cabanala Mart Danida for a Dan		
Schools That Provide for a Reg- ular Assembly Period		48.1
Schools That Call a Special As-		40.1
sembly Whenever It I		
Thought Advisable	67	51.9
Total	AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PERSON	100.0
How Often Assembly Meets:		
Daily	14	10.9
Three Times a Week	4	3.1
Twice a Week	6	4.6
Once a Week	54	41.9
Once in Two Weeks	11	8.5
01100 111 1110 1100110		71 0
No Set Number of Time	es <u>40</u>	31.0

The figures on Table 8 inform us that the schools are quite evenly divided as to whether they have regular or specially called assembly periods. There are 48.1 per cent of the schools that have regular assembly periods. Where class periods are 40 minutes in length, this regular assembly period is usually 20 minutes long. Over one-half of the schools have assembly periods when the occasion warrants having them.

The number of times per week that special assemblies are called was estimated, rather than given exactly, by many of the men answering the questionnaire. In Table 8, we find that 41.9 per cent of the schools had their assemblies meet about once a week, while 31 per cent had no set number of times to meet. There were 10.9 per cent of the schools having daily assembly periods. Of course, many schools use five or ten minutes each day at the beginning of the first period in the morning or at the beginning of the first period in the afternoon for such items as general announcements.

Most men require written excuses from pupils for tardinesses and absences from school. Only seven superintendents out of 129, or 5.4 per cent, do not, according to the questionnaire. Five more schools besides these seven require excuses for absences but not for tardinesses from school.

The general rule is for the parents to write the excuses and sign them. Some schools provide printed excuse forms with blanks to be filled in, while other schools simply require a note written by the parent on any writing paper that the parent has handy. In a small portion of schools, 17.8 per cent, the excuses are written out, or the blanks filled in, by the office and the pupil rather than by the parent.

Table 9 will help to clarify this data. The uses made of the excuses are also shown.

Table 9
Tardinesses and Absences from School

			Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Are Excuses I				
	Yes		117	90.7
	No		12	9.3
		Totals	129	100.0
Are Excuses Absences?	Required for			
	Yes		122	94.6
	No		7	5.4
		Totals	129	100.0
Who Writes t	he Excuse?			
	Parent		99	76.8
	Office and		23	17.8
	No Excuse			5.4
		Totals	129	100.0
Use Made of	the Excuse:			
	For Office		78	60.5
	Check for			
	Make-Ur		19	14.7
	Pupil Must			
		Classes	14	10.9
	For Parent	t's Infor		
	mation		9	7.0
	No Use Mad	de of the		
	Excuse		2	1.5
	No Excuse	Required	_7_	5.4
		Total	s 129	100.0

From Table 9 it can be observed that 90.7 per cent of the schools require excuses for tardinesses, and 94.6 per cent of them require excuses for both absences and tardinesses. The table shows that 76.8 per cent of the schools require the parents to make out the excuse; while in 17.8 per cent of the schools, the office itself handles this matter.

Table 9 shows the various uses made of the excuse. The percentage that use it for an office check is 60.5 per cent of the 129 schools surveyed. What this check consists of is not as definite as it might be. In many cases, the high school principal uses the excuses as a basis to make out class permits. In some instances, the excuses are used at the end of the six-weeks' period to tabulate tardinesses and absences from school. Sometimes the report cards are held until all excuses are in and accepted. On a few occasions, the office determines whether a pupil should be penalized for his tardiness or absence; and again, the office decides whether the tardiness or absence was necessary, or whether it was a case of truancy.

One superintendent reported that he required the excuse to protect himself. Other men suggested that the excuse promoted good citizenship because it brought about orderliness, promptness, and responsibility on the part of the pupil.

Other uses made of the excuse are listed in Table 9.

That it is a check for pupil's make-up work ranks 14.7 per cent, that the pupil must have the excuse to enter his classes ranks 10.9 per cent, that the excuse serves to inform the parent of the pupil's tardiness or absence ranks 7 per cent, and that no use is made of the excuse ranks 1.5 per cent.

It will be noted in the table that there are 9.3 per cent of the schools that require no excuse for either tardinesses or absences, and that there are 5.4 per cent that require no excuse for absence from school. One reason given for not requiring the excuse was that tardinesses and absences were no problem in the school. Another remark was that they were glad to get the pupils back. A third comment was that written excuses were not required, but that the office telephoned each day to the parents of the absentees as a checkup. Whether all parents have phones was not reported.

Tardinesses and Absences from Classes

There are not as many schools that require pupils to
bring written permits to enter classes because of tardinesses
or absences as there are schools that require pupils to bring
written excuses for tardinesses and absences to enter school
itself.

In a few schools, 10.9 per cent--as denoted in Table 9, the pupil uses the same excuse form to enter classes as he does to enter the school. The teachers put their initials on the form, and the pupil afterwards brings the form back to

the office. In other schools the high school principal, sometimes the superintendent, the class advisor, or the director of attendance, makes out the class permit after he receives and checks the pupil's excuse to the school for his tardiness or absence. Table 10 aims to make clear the handling of class permits, as practiced in the state.

Table 10
The Handling of Class Permits

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools Requiring Class Permits		
for Tardinesses	58	45.0
Schools Not Requiring Class Per-		
mits for Tardinesses	71	55.0
Total	s 129	100.0
Schools Requiring Class Permits		
for Absences	75	58.1
Schools Not Requiring Class Per-		
mits for Absences	_54_	41.9
Totals	129	100.0
Person Granting Permit:		
High School Principal	55	42.6
Superintendent	11	8.5
Class Advisor, or Dean	9	7.0
No Permits Required	_54_	41.9
Totals	129	100.0
Use Made of Unexcused Absences:		
Grades Are Deducted	28	21.7
More Make-Up Work Is Require Put on File for Checking	ed 11	8.5
Purposes	8	6.2
No Answer, or No Use Made	8	6.2
No Credit Given for Make-Up	Work 8	6.2
No Exemption from Examination	ons 3	2.3
Pupil Sent to Detention Room Three Skips Mean Expulsion	m 3	2.3
from Course	2	1.6
Used to Confer with Parents	1	.8
No Permits Required	54_	41.9
Total	s 129	100.0

Table 10 shows that 45 per cent of the schools surveyed, require pupils to bring permits to classes for tardinesses, while 55 per cent do not. On the other hand, 58.1 per cent require permits to classes for absences, while 41.9 per cent do not. Some of the same schools, then, require permits to classes for absences but not for tardinesses.

There are three methods of granting class permits. The most general method is for the high school principal to issue the permits. He does so in 42.6 per cent of the schools. The superintendent issues the permit in 8.5 per cent of the schools; while the class advisor, the home room teacher, or the dean of attendance does so in 7 per cent of the schools.

Out of these 75 schools requiring permits to enter classes for absences, 72 of them give unexcused absences when the occasion warrants. Table 10 shows what use is made of the unexcused absence.

In 21.7 per cent of the schools, grades are deducted from the pupil's class work. The usual deduction is three per cent from the six-weeks' mark in all classes for each day's unexcused absence. In 8.5 per cent of the schools, more make-up work is required; occasionally, the make-up work is doubled.

Other methods of handling the unexcused absence, in the order of their greatest use, are: (1) the unexcused absence is filed in the office for checking purposes, (2) no answer given indicates that no use is made of the unexcused absence, (3) no credit is given for make-up work, (4) no exemptions are given from examinations, (5) the pupil is sent to the detention room, (6) three skips mean an expulsion from the course, and (7) the unexcused absence is brought to the attention of the parents in conference.

Some schools require permits to enter classes only if the pupils have been tardy or absent from their classes.

Make-Up Work

Make-up work for pupils' absences is required quite extensively throughout the state. The time allowed for completing this work varies in the several schools. Table 11 pictures the requirements in regard to make-up work as practiced in the state.

Table 11
Requirements for Make-Up Work

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Require Make-Up Work	93	72.1
Optional with Teachers	21	16.3
Pupil Responsible for Test Only	als $\frac{15}{129}$	11.6
Time Allowed To Complete Make-Up Work:		
One Week	31	24.0
No Definite Time Set	25	19.4
Up to Teacher	16	12.4
Twice the Time Missed Before the End of the	14	10.9
Six-Weeks' Period	12	9.3
Two Weeks	10	7.8
Same Time As Missed	6	4.6
No Make-Up Work Required Totals	i <u>15</u>	11.6

Table 11 denotes that 72.1 per cent of the schools require written make-up work for material missed in the pupil's absence, while 16.3 per cent leave the matter to the teacher's choice. There are 11.6 per cent of the schools that require no written make-up work, but simply hold the pupil responsible for a test covering the material that he missed during his absence.

In the latter plan, the main argument against make-up work is that it takes away so much of the teacher's needed time for regular class work and plans. The teacher should not spend his valuable time with pupils who choose not to be regular in attendance. An exception should be made if the pupil's absence has been due to prolonged illness.

The schools that require make-up work and those that leave the matter with the teachers allow varied time in which the work is to be completed. One week's time is considered sufficient in 24 per cent of the schools, and no definite time is set in 19.4 per cent of them. The amount of time in which make-up work is to be completed is left to the teacher's choice in 12.4 per cent of the schools; twice the time missed is the rule in 10.9 per cent; that the work should be completed before the end of the six-weeks' period is required in 9.3 per cent; two weeks' time is allowed in 7.8 per cent; and the same time as missed is allowed in 4.6 per cent of these schools.

School Libraries

Regulations for use of the library by the pupils are in most cases achieved through library permits. Usually, the permit is a written slip given to the pupil by the study hall teacher, by a class teacher, or by the high school principal. The pupil takes the slip to the librarian who usually puts her initials on it. In some cases, the librarian puts the time of arrival and the time of leaving on the slip. When the pupil returns to the study hall, he returns the permit to the teacher in charge.

Another method is to obtain oral permission to go to the library from the teacher in charge. Other methods are for the pupil to leave his name on a slip of paper at the teacher's desk, or to write his name on the blackboard. The teacher, if there is no regular librarian, keeps a visible check on the pupil's activity in the library.

In quite a number of schools, no library permit is necessary. This may be due partly to the fact that the library is a part of the study hall itself.

No definite rules can govern all situations. One school limits the use of the library to one period per day to each pupil. A few schools have but one library period a day for all pupils. In 7.7 per cent of the schools, as shown in Table 12, the pupils are required to remain in the library the whole period.

Some schools have a teacher for librarian; others

have a teacher with pupil assistants; still others have pupils only, with a teacher acting as advisor; and a few have NYA pupils or a WPA employee.

Table 12 gives the library regulations that are in general use in the state.

Table 12
Library Regulations

		Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools That Require Library	Permits	88	68.2
Schools Not Requiring Library		s <u>41</u> 129	31.8
Person Who Gives Permit:			
Study Hall Teacher		57	44.2
No Permit Given		41	31.8
High School Principal		12	9.3
Pupil Leaves Name at Desk, Writes it on Blackboard,			
Receives Oral Permission	01	10	7.7
Classroom Teacher		9	7.0
Classroom leacher	Totals	129	100.0
Dunil Beauined to Beauin	TOCSTR	129	100.0
Pupil Required to Remain		9	7.0
in Library Whole Period Pupil Not Required to Remain		•	7.0
in Library Whole Period		1.90	93.0
In Fibrary whore relied	Totals	120 129	100.0
How the Pupil's Activity	10 00.18	120	100.0
in Library is Checked:			
By Study Hall Teacher		49	38.0
By Signed Permit		48	37.2
No Answer, or No Definite			01.2
Check		25	17.4
By Librarian		~7	5.4
by hittalian	Totals	129	100.0
Me - Tibereises	100010		
The Librarian: Teacher, Pupil Assistants		57	42.2
Teacher		36	27.9
Pupils		30	23.3
일반하는 사람들이 하면 하는 이 가장 전혀 있다. 얼마나 보는 것이 있는 것이 있는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 이 사람들이 되었다. 그는 그 사람들이 없는데 그렇게 되었다.		6	4.6
Persons on NYA or WPA	Totals	129	100.0
	TOTALS	129	100.0

we note that 68.2 per cent of the schools require library permits for pupils to go to the library, while 31.8 per cent do not. As stated before, the reason for not requiring permits may be that the library is in the study hall.

The study hall teacher grants the permit in 44.2 per cent of the schools, the high school principal in 9.3 per cent, and the class teacher in 7 per cent. In 7.7 per cent of the schools, the pupil leaves his name at the desk, writes it on the blackboard, or receives oral permission from the teacher. Only 7 per cent of the schools require that the pupil remain in the library the whole period.

In 38 per cent of the schools, the study hall teacher watches the library, which is part of the same room, or which is separated from the study hall by a glass partition. In 37.2 per cent of the schools, the pupil's written permit, with its data, gives a check on his visit to the library. In 17.4 per cent of the schools, no definite answer was given on the questionnaire as to how the pupil's activity in the library is checked.

As to librarians, 44.2 per cent of the schools have one of the teachers act as head librarian, with pupils assisting. In 27.9 per cent of the schools, a teacher alone acts as librarian. In 23.3 per cent, certain pupils are librarians, with a teacher usually as adviser. In a few schools, the libraries are in charge of NYA pupils or WPA employees.

Textbooks

There are three general ways for supplying pupils with textbooks. These are that the books are sold, rented, or furnished free. They are sold to the pupils either through the school or through a local book store in town. Textbooks are rented to the pupils for a fee. A deposit, to be given back at the end of the year, is sometimes required with free textbooks. The deposit is required in some schools to assure good care of the books. In some schools, part of the deposit is retained at the end of the year as the rental fee.

Table 13 outlines the practices of the North Dakota high schools as to whether books are sold, rented, or furnished regularily free.

Table 13
The Distribution of Textbooks to Pupils

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
How Textbooks Are Distributed:		
They Are Sold	74	57.3
They Are Free	32	24.8
They Are Rented	20	15.6
They Are Partly Sold and		
Partly Rented	3	2.3
Totals	129	100.0
How Textbooks Are Delivered to Pur	ils:	
By the Office	81	62.8
By the Teachers	26	20.2
By a Book Store in Town	16	12.4
By Both Office and Teachers	16	4.6
Totals	129	100.0
Rental Fee:		
One-Fourth to One-Half Value		
of Book	14	10.9
Two to Three Dollars Per Year	9	7.0

Table 13 points out that in over one-half, or 57.3 per cent, of the schools, the textbooks are sold to the pupils. In about one-fourth, or 24.8 per cent, the textbooks are furnished free. In about one-sixth, or 15.6 per cent, the textbooks are rented to the pupils; and in a very small fraction, 2.3 per cent, the books are both sold and rented.

Books are sold to the pupils in two ways. One is through a local bookstore not connected with the school. Table 13 signifies that 12.4 per cent of the books are sold by local book stores. The other 44.9 per cent of the books sold are handled through the office of the school or through a book store in connection with the school. One advantage to the pupil in buying his books through the office is that he benefits from the publishers' discounts to the school. In many places, the pupil has the added advantage of selling and buying used or second-hand books, which sometimes are handled through the office of the school.

Textbooks are delivered to the pupils through the office in 62.8 per cent of the schools. This 62.8 per cent includes the 44.9 per cent of the books sold by the office, the 15.6 per cent rented, and the 2.3 per cent partly sold and partly rented. The teachers deliver most of the free textbooks. The other 4.6 per cent of free textbooks are delivered to the pupils by the office and the teachers.

In the rental system, an outright fee is sometimes

charged. In other schools, a deposit of two or three dollars is made at the beginning of the year. Part of this deposit is refunded at the end of the year if the pupil's books have received only ordinary wear.

Activity Funds

The most widely used method for the management of activity funds is for the school to have one general fund at the bank with separate accounts at the school. Every account is listed in the accounting system at the school office. The other method is to keep the funds separate for the different classes and activities. In this latter method, the money and accounts are kept by various parties, such as the bank, the school office, or the class adviser. Table 14 indicates the methods of managing activity funds in the schools surveyed.

Table 14

The Management of School Activity Funds

		mber of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools Having One General Activities' Fund Schools Having Separate Funds		74	57.4
for Each Activity	otals	55 129	42.6
How Checks Are Handled: Approved by Superintendent Written by Superintendent		96 10	74.4
Not Handled by the Office By Class Adviser		10	7.8 4.6
By High School Principal By the Bookkeeper	otals	5 2 129	3.9 1.5 100.0

Table 14 discloses the fact that 57.4 per cent of

the schools have one general activities' fund at the bank. Separate accounts for the different classes and groups are kept at school by the office.

In 42.6 per cent of the schools, separate funds for each activity are kept. Usually, the office does not have much supervision of the funds under this plan. Each separate fund is under the management of a teacher or class adviser.

As to whether the 74.4 per cent of the superintendents who approve the checks also write them, it is not clear. The item on the questionnaire asking "Must all checks be approved by the superintendent?" is responsible for this indefinite disclosure. There are 7.8 per cent of those answering the item, however, who definitely reveal that they write the checks. If we add the 7.8 per cent to the 74.4 per cent, we see that 82.2 per cent of the superintendents either approve or write all checks.

There are 7.8 per cent of the replies which indicate that the office does not handle the checks. In 4.6 per cent of the schools, the class adviser handles the check. Of course, in most schools, the adviser also approves all expenditures of the group he sponsors, whether he writes the check or not. The high school principal handles the checks in 3.9 per cent, and the bookkeeper in 1.5 per cent of the schools.

Engelhardt recommends that the best method for the

management of activity funds is for the school to have one general fund at the bank with separate accounts at school. The superintendent endorses or countersigns all checks which are written by a bookkeeper or a treasurer. The class treasurer and the class adviser should also sign the check.

Engelhardt, N. L. and F. E., <u>Public School Business</u>
<u>administration</u>, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,
Columbia University, New York, 1927, p. 237 and pp. 800-801.

CHAPTER III

TEACHERS

As part of the superintendent's program of internal control, teachers have an important place. A spirit of cooperation must exist between teacher and pupil; between teacher and patron; and it must exist among teachers. If there is any lack of harmony among the teachers, or between the teachers and the administration, that lack is soon reflected in the quality of work done in the school.

This chapter aims to point out the regulations required of teachers throughout the schools of the state.

Time Required for Teachers To Be at School

Practically all schools have certain time regulations that they require of teachers. For instance, some schools may require their teachers to be at school not later than 8:00 A. M. Other schools may make the time not later than 8:30 A. M. Similar requirements are made for the arrival of teachers after the noon hour. Again, requirements for remaining at school after 4:00 P. M. are often made.

Table 15 gives the time of day teachers of North Dakota are required to be at school. The table also shows when

LAdministrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 4.

teachers may leave after 4:00 o'clock.

Table 15

Time Teachers Are Required To Be at School,
and When They May Leave

		mber of Schools	Percentage of Schools
· 大學性學學學學			
Time Required To Be at			
Mornin			
	A. M.	6	4.7
8:18		15	11.6
8:30		102	79.1
8:45	i	3	2.3
9:00)	3_	_2.3
	Totals	129	100.0
Time Required To Be at	School		
After	Dinner:		
	P. M.	3	2.3
12:40		4	3.1
12:45		79	61.2
1:00		43	33.4
	Totals	129	100.0
Time Classes Begin Aft			
	P. M.	7	5.4
1:00	[2] [2] [2] [2] [2] [2] [2] [2] [2] [2]	64	49.6
1:10		7	5.4
1:15		47	36.5
1:20		4	3.1
	Totals	129	100.0
Time Teachers May Leav			100.0
	o'clock:		
	P. M.	39	30.2
4:15		13	10.1
4:30		62	48.1
5:00		15	11.6
0.00	Totals	129	100.0
	TOORTP	120	200.0

In most schools 30 minutes is considered sufficient time for teachers to be at school before classes begin in the morning. Table 15 shows that about four-fifths of the schools set 8:30 A. M. as the time for teachers to be on

duty. About one-ninth, make the time 8:15 A. M. There are 4.7 per cent that require teachers to be at school by 8:00 A. M. A few schools require teachers to be at school before 8:45; and a small per cent of the schools make no requirements.

By careful study of Table 15, we can observe that, generally, teachers are required to arrive in the afternoon fifteen minutes before classes begin.

The time that teachers may leave school after 4:00 o'clock is also made a requirement by most systems. In nearly one-half of the schools, 48.1 per cent, the teachers may leave the building at 4:30 P. M. Some schools, 30.2 per cent, allow their teachers to leave anytime after 4:00 o'clock.

Most schools require their teachers to wait until the pupils have left the building. A few schools, 10.1 per cent, require their teachers to wait 15 minutes before leaving.

Fifteen schools, or 11.6 per cent, require their teachers to remain at school until 5:00 o'clock.

Teachers' Records

Properly kept records are essential to the success of those teachers and superintendents who see teaching as a broad field of opportunity. Records help them to serve the pupils through exploring their aptitudes, capacities, difficulties, interests, and probable future occupational needs

and then through guiding their efforts and supplying them with the materials best suited to meet their needs. Whenever the classroom teachers fail to make use of the records kept, they are neglecting those rich opportunities for service. Properly kept records assist the teacher in keeping good order.

Some of the records and reports required of North Dakota high school teachers are given in Table 16. As a general rule, the larger schools require more records than the smaller ones. This, of course, is due to the fact that in the larger schools there are more pupils, and this is one of the methods of checking pupils.

Table 16
Records Kept by Teachers

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Class Record Book	129	100.0
Daily Attendance Slips for Cl	네이네워크레스 다른 선택에서 아들아 물리는 아이를 하는데 하는데 하는데 하는데 아니라 아니는 것이다.	77.5
Weekly Report	38	29.5
Six-Weeks' Report	124	96.1
Textbook Record	42	32.6
Other Miscellaneous Reports	49	38.0
Total Number of Schools	129	

By studying Table 16, it will be noted that in all the schools the teachers keep a class record book. This record book is for the teacher's individual use to list the pupils

Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 33.

in classes. The book contains a record of the pupils' achievements, absences, test marks, six-weeks' grades, and semesters' grades. From this class record, the teacher makes out the weekly and the six-weeks' reports which go to the office. The grades on the pupils' report cards may also be taken from this class record book.

Daily attendance slips for classes are made out in 77.5 per cent of the schools. The teacher brings these slips to the high school principal at 4:00 o'clock. The principal in turn uses the slips to check with his daily attendance record and to find if any pupil was absent or tardy. Some of the smaller schools find this slip unnecessary.

Weekly reports are required in 29.5 per cent of the schools. In general, these reports inform the office of cases of pupils failures or near failures and cases of discipline.

Six-weeks' reports are sent to the office in 96.1 per cent of the schools. These reports contain the pupils' daily, test, and six-weeks' marks.

Teachers' textbook records are kept in 32.6 per cent of the schools. Of course, free or rented textbooks are in use where textbook records are kept. In this record the teacher lists the names of the pupils in his classes with the titles of the textbooks in each pupil's possession. If the rental system is used, the condition of the book may also be recorded.

Other miscellaneous records and reports that teachers keep and make out in the various schools are yearly reports, inventories, reports on activity funds, library reports, rating tests, reports on make-up work, letter award points, band practice sheets, breakage lists, and demerit reports.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

The pupil-teacher ratio in the high schools of North Dakota may be estimated from data in the North Dakota Educational Directory. The writer, however, wished to know whether the superintendents considered the ratio in their respective schools satisfactory. The Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools recommends that the pupil-teacher ratio in all grade and high school departments be not more than twenty-five to one; and that it shall be considered a violation of this standard should the pupil-teacher ratio in any school exceed thirty to one.

Table 17 gives the pupil-teacher ratio for the schools of the state.

Table 17
Pupil-Teacher Ratio in North Dakota

Numb	er c	of 1	Pupi	ls Nu	mber of	Percent	age	Satisf	actory
Per	Te	each	ner	S	chools	of Scho	ols	Yes	No
From					43	33,3	L. KALL	37	6
From	21	to	25		45	34.9		41	3
From	26	to	30		32	24.8		21	11
From	31	to	35		6	4.7		4	2
From	36	to	40		3	2.3		2	1
				Totals	129	100.	The second secon		

Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 26. In one-third of the schools, the pupil-teacher ratio falls below the standard recommended by the Department of Public Instruction. All but six men of these 43 schools expressed satisfaction. The six men feel that the ratio should be larger.

In just a little over one-third of the schools, 43.9 per cent, the ratio meets the standard; while in about one-fourth, 24.8 per cent, the ratio is a little above standard. Two of the three men expressing dissatisfaction considered the ratio too light. One of the eleven men in the next group expressing dissatisfaction considered the ratio of thirty to one too heavy. The other ten men did not say why they were dissatisfied.

There are nine schools, seven per cent, whose ratios are above standard. Only three of the men of these schools indicated that the ratio was too large.

Teaching Load

The Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools states that high school teachers should not be required to take charge of more than five classes per day in addition to study hall duty; also, that in assigning classes to a teacher, the extra-curricular work that the teacher is to take charge of should be kept in mind. Oftentimes one extra-curricular activity is a heavier load than teaching one regular high school

class. This means, then, that the right load for each teacher is four regular classes, one extra-curricular class, and one study hall period. The manual goes on further to state that six forty-five minute classes shall be considered the maximum.

Table 18 shows to what extent the schools of the state are complying with the above recommendations.

Table 18 Classes Per Teacher

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Number of Regular Classes		
Each Teacher Teaches:	70	04.0
Four	32	24.8
Four to Five	87	67.4
Five to Six	_10_	_7.8
Totals	129	100.0
Number of Extra-Curricula Classes Each Teacher Directs:		
About One	81	62.8
One to Two	48	37.2
Totals	129	100.0

about one-fourth of the schools have the right number of regular classes, with one extra-curricular class and one study hall period supposedly, for each teacher. The number of regular classes in 67.4 per cent of the schools, though a little

LAdministrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 26.

heavier, also meets the standard. In ten schools, 7.8 per cent, the load is too heavy, according to recommendations.

It should be pointed out, here, that in the large schools each teacher has four or five classes in one or two subjects; while in the small schools, the four or five classes are in four or five different subjects. This means, then, that although the teacher in the large school may have more pupils to teach, she has less subjects to prepare than the teacher in the small school.

It will be noted from Table 18 that 62.8 per cent of the schools have one extra-curricular class for each teacher to direct, while 37.2 per cent have one extra-curricular class for part of the teachers and two extra-curricular classes for the rest of the teachers. No comments in the questionnaire were given as to whether the teachers do efficient teaching under this extra load.

CHAPTER IV

THE MARKING AND HONOR SYSTEMS

Marks, honor rolls, and other recognition devices are matters over which there is considerable variation of practice. There is especially a lack of uniformity, over the state, as to the system of marking used. The majority of men use letters in giving out grades to pupils, but there is little conformity as to what letters mean. In one school, "A" may mean 90 to 100; while in another school, "A" may mean 95 to 100. Other schools may have "A" include 92 to 100, 93 to 100, or 94 to 100. "A" may mean superior in some schools, while in others it may mean average. The other letters are just as irregular as to their meaning. For instance, some schools may use "E" for conditioned, while others may use "E" for excellent.

The Administrative Manual and Course of Study for North Dakota High Schools of 1931 recommends the following system to be used by the classified high schools:

(93-100) Superior

B (87-92) Above Average

C (81 - 86)Average

(75-80) Unsatisfactory but passing (Under 75) Failure D

Administrative Manual and Course of Study for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1931, p. 8.

The above system is very loosely followed by the schools of the state. The only uniformity that does appear is that, in most cases, after the letters have been transformed to figures, 75 is the passing grade and 95 to 100 is the highest grade. Besides the above letters, "I" is used for incomplete in many schools.

Marking and grading is an important phase of internal control. It is the purpose of this chapter to make a precis of the general practices of the North Dakota high schools in this matter.

Tests

The informal or objective test has become the prevalent type today. It is unstandarized, and it is usually prepared by the teacher. Some of the latest textbooks are beginning to make use of this type of test.

The principle kinds of informal tests include truefalse, simple recall, completion, short answer, identification, matching, chronological order, and multiple choice
items. Informal tests are generally considered to have
greater validity and reliability than the older type of test.

Due to its convenience to teachers and pupils, it has almost displaced the subjective or essay type of test.

Table 19 illustrates the use of the two types of tests (objective and subjective) in North Dakota.

Table 19
Types of Tests Used in the State

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
W . W . 43 - 63 / 41 - W		
Use Mostly Objective Type	94	72.9
Both Types Are Used	34	26.3
Use Subjective Type	1	8
Totals	129	100.0
Teachers Generally Prepare		
Own Tests	121	93.8
Teachers Do Not Prepare Own Tests	3 7	5.4
Objective Type Not Used	1	8
Totals	129	100.0
10 00.15	-~-	100.0
Are Standard Tests Used?		
Some	82	63.5
Rarely	25	19.4
No.	22	17.1
Totals	129	100.0
10 60.18	100	100.0

Table 19 indicates that all but one school use the objective type of test. Nearly three-fourths of the schools use this type almost exclusively, while a little over one-fourth use it along with the essay type. The table also indicates that 94.6 per cent of the teachers generally prepare their own tests, while 5.4 per cent evidently use the tests that accompany workbooks and textbooks.

Because of the cost involved, most school men do not favor using standardized tests for regular class work.

Standardized tests are used as diagnostic tests, achievement tests, intelligence tests, and English placement tests.

The 63.5 per cent of the schools availing themselves of

standardized tests use them about once or twice a year. These tests are rarely used in 19.4 per cent of the schools, while 17 per cent of the schools do not use them at all.

Grades

The variety of grading systems used throughout the state is so extensive that it cannot be shown in a table. However the use of letters or figures for grades, the use of the normal curve in making out grades, the use of incompletes, and the lowest passing marks given by the schools can quite readily be shown. Table 20 gives this information.

Table 20 Grading System

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools Using Letters for Grades	92	71.3
Schools Using Figures for Grades	37	28.7
Totals	129	100.0
Schools Using the Normal Curve:		
General Use	26	20.2
Discretionary Use	58	44.9
Do Not Use	45	23.9
Totals	129	100.0
Schools Giving Incompletes	111	86.0
Schools Not Giving Incompletes	18	14.0_
Totals	129	100.0
Lowest Passing Mark:		
W75"	90	69.8
#7O#	11	8.5
"C"	1	.8
ויתוו	23	17.8
"E"	4	3.1_
Totals	129	100.0

Superintendents of the state prefer, in 71.3 per cent of the schools, as Table 20 denotes, to give letters to the pupils for grades. The other 28.7 per cent give figures.

It should be stated, here, that letters are substitutes for figures or percentages. The letters, as a rule, are transformed to percentages on the office files. The reason for giving letters to pupils instead of figures seems to be either to disguise their low marks or to try to get away from discrimination somewhat in the giving of grades.

Overn states that the letter system has not resolved the objections to the percentage system because both are indefinite and represent entirely the subjective judgment of the teacher.

A grade quite frequently given to pupils is "E", or "conditioned." Some teachers frown on this grade, however.

They think that it should not be given for a final grade because it places too much responsibility upon the next teacher.

Some teachers also disapprove of "F". Failure thwarts an individual. Why add this handicap to the already overloaded slow pupil? The pupil does not need handicaps; rather, he needs encouragement. These teachers feel that "F" should be reserved only for the complete failure, or occasionally it might be used to urge the pupil to apply himself.

Dovern, A. V., The Teacher in Modern Education, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 152.

² Shaffer, L. F., <u>The Psychology of Adjustment</u>, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, p. 508.

Many educators agree that the normal curve should be used only as a discretionary guide for giving out marks. This feeling is prevalent among 44.9 per cent of the superintendents of North Dakota. There are 34.9 per cent of the men, however, who have no use for the normal curve. Also, there are 26.2 per cent who make general use of it. The feeling among several men is that the normal curve is valuable where classes are large.

A brief explanation of the normal curve is that it is an arrangement whereby grades are distributed among the pupils about as follows: "A" includes about five per cent of the pupils; "B", twenty-five per cent; "C", forty per cent; "D", twenty-five per cent; and "F", five per cent.

The lowest passing mark in 69.8 per cent of the schools is 75. The passing marks in other schools are "70", "C", "D", and "E".

The Honor Roll

The general purpose of an honor roll is to promote scholarship among pupils. Generally, a good grade is all that is required to achieve this recognition. In some schools, however, conduct and attendance may also be necessary. Again, some schools may require a certain number of

Ruch, G. M., The Objective or New-Type Examination, Scott, Foresman and Company, New York, 1929, p. 378.

points to be made by pupils before they are eligible. These points may, or may not, consist of both grades and other criteria. A few schools include on the honor roll only the names of the ten per cent of pupils making the highest grades.

The honor roll is used quite generally in the high schools of North Dakota. Table 21 is a tabulation of the high schools having the honor roll. The table also includes the grades required to make pupils eligible for the honor roll and the criteria besides grades to determine whether a pupil's name shall be placed on the honor roll.

Table 21
The Honor Roll in the Schools of North Dakota

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools That Have an Honor Roll Schools That Do Not Have an	109	84.5
Honor Roll	20	15.5
Totals		100.0
Average Grade Required To Make Pupil Eligible for Honor Ro	oll:	
A A	7	5.4
B	51	39.5
C		.8
93	1 2	1.5
90	42	32.6
85	5	3.9
Honor Points	1	.8
Schools Having No Honor	Roll 20	15.5
Totals	THE RESERVE OF THE PARTY OF THE	100.0
Criteria Besides Grades To Make Pupil Eligible for Honor Re		
None	61	47.3
Conduct	41	31.8
Conduct and Attendance	7	5.4
Schools Having No Honor Ro.		15.5
Totals	PERSONAL PROPERTY OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSO	100.0

It will be seen from Table 21 that 84.5 per cent of the schools surveyed have the honor roll. The other 15.5 per cent do not.

A few superintendents feel that the honor roll is not fair to the majority of pupils and that it sometimes does more harm than good. In general, the argument is that, since only a small fraction of pupils are able to attain this goal and since the same pupils are usually the ones to retain it, the rest of the pupils become antagonistic towards it. In other words, the pupils on the honor roll are considered intellectual snobs, bookworms, or teacher's pet by many of the pupils; while the rest of the pupils, not being able to attain the goal, are considered regular "fellows." These superintendents maintain that the honor roll does not promote democracy among pupils nor good feeling among parents.

An average of "B" and 90 are the grades, respectively, that 39.5 per cent and 32.6 per cent of the superintendents require of pupils for them to become eligible for the honor roll. A grade of "A" is required in 5.4 per cent of the schools, and 85 is required in 3.9 per cent. Two superintendents require the grade of 93, and one superintendent requires the grade of "C". One superintendent has an honor point system for pupils to make before being eligible for the honor roll. These points are: "A" equals three points; "B", two points; "C", one point; "D", no points; and "F", minus

one point. Ten points are necessary for the first honor roll, and seven points are necessary for the second honor roll.

It will be noted from Table 21 that 47.3 per cent of the superintendents require no other criteria besides a high grade for pupils to become eligible for the honor roll. However, 31.8 per cent make good conduct a criterion, and 5.4 per cent require good conduct and attendance as well as good grades.

Exemptions from Examinations

Besides giving recognition to pupils by placing their names on the honor roll, many schools have exemption from examinations as a device to promote scholarship. This latter recognition device is used about half as much as the former.

Table 22 shows the schools giving exemptions from examinations and how the pupils earn their exemptions.

Table 22

Exemptions from Examinations in the State

	Number of	Percentage
	Schools	of Schools
chools Giving Exemptions:		
For Final Examinations Only	34	26.3
For Both Final and Six-Weeks'		
Examinations	29	22.6
No Exemptions Given	66	51.2
Totals	129	100.0
ow Pupil Earns the Exemptions:		
Has 90 Average in Subjects	36	27.9
Has 90 Average in Subjects		
and Conduct	9	7.0
Has High Scholarship, Good Con		
duct, and Good Attendanc	e 7	5.4
Is Senior with an Average of "	B* 6	4.6
Has a Grade of "A"	4	3.1
Is One of the Three Pupils		
with Highest Grades	1	.8
No Exemptions Given	66	27.9
Totals	129	100.0

Table 22 denotes that 26.3 per cent of the schools give exemptions to pupils from final examinations only, while 22.6 per cent give exemptions from both final and six-weeks' examinations. No exemptions from examinations are given in 51.2 per cent of the schools. The majority of superintendents, then, do not believe in giving exemptions.

The criticism by superintendents not giving exemptions is similar to the criticism on the honor roll; namely, that the exemption from examinations is undemocratic. It serves to elevate the ego of the already bright child, but dampens the spirit of the average child since he is not capable to receive the exemption.

The pupil earns his exemptions in 27.9 per cent of the schools by having an average grade of 90 in his subjects. In seven per cent of the schools, the pupil must have a grade of 90 in conduct as well as in his subjects; in 5.4 per cent of the schools, good attendance besides high scholarship and good conduct is required. In 3.1 per cent of the schools, exemptions are given to seniors only who have an average grade of "B". A grade of "A" is required in four schools. One school gives exemptions from examinations to only the three pupils with the highest grades.

CHAPTER V

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

That extra-curricular activities have an important place in the high school program can be summed up by a statement from the Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools. This manual states: "Extra-curricular activities have proved of value sufficient to warrant their inclusion in any well balanced high school program. They are among those forces which are considered to be the most practical in high school education in training by doing. Often some extracurricular activity has been found to be the most worthwhile activity in the pupil's school life and frequently has been the dominating force in the guidance of the pupil's after school life."

Specific objectives for extra-curricular activities, according to the above manual, are the following:2

- 1. To develop cooperation
- 2. To develop sociability
- 3. To extend and supplement classroom work
- 4. To build up school spirit
- 5. To foster leadership qualities
- 6. To obtain parental interest in school
- 7. To develop self-reliance
- 8. To develop special abilities and skills
- 9. To encourage better scholarship
- 10. To train for citizenship

Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1928, p. 37.

ZIbid., pp. 37-38.

Adequate internal regulations are important for the success of extra-curricular activities. This chapter will make a summary of these regulations as practiced in the high schools of North Dakota.

Band

Band as an extra-curricular activity can be found today in about 75 per cent of the schools. Band has become important enough to be placed in regular class hours in most of
the schools. Table 23 shows the time of day the band class is
held in the schools surveyed, how often the band class meets,
whether the school furnishes uniforms, and whether the furnished uniforms are free or rented to the pupils.

Table 23
Band Period and Uniforms

		Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Time of Day Ba	and Class Is Held:		
8:00 A	The state of the s	1.0	7.7
8:30		1	.8
During	Regular School Hours	53	41.1
12:30	48800 - 1840 - 1840 - 1840 - 1840 - 1840 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850 - 1850	1	.8
4:00 I	P. M.	14	10.8
Evenings		17	13.2
No Bar		33	25.6
	Totals	129	100.0
How Often Band	Class Meets:		
Daily		25	19.4
Three Times a Week		25	19.4
Twice	a Week	43	33.3
	a Week	3	2.3
No Bar		33	25.6
	Totals	129	100.0
Schools That I	Furnish Uniforms	25	19.4
	o Not Furnish Uniform	ns 71	55.0
Schools That I		33	25.6
	Totals	129	100.0
Uniforms Are Free		24	18.6
Uniforms Are 1	Rented	1	.8

In 41.1 per cent of the schools, as shown in Table 23, the band class is held during the regular school hours. The two hours most commonly used begin at 11:00 A. M. and at 3:00 P. M. Daily band classes are usually held at 11:00 A. M. There are 7.7 per cent of the schools that place the band period at 8:00 A. M. This practice is common in some of the larger towns. A few schools, 10.8 per cent and 13.2 per cent respectively, hold their band classes at 4:00 P. M. and in the evenings.

Band classes meet twice a week in 33.3 per cent of the schools, daily in 19.4 per cent, three times a week in 19.4 per cent, and once a week in 2.3 per cent.

There are 19.4 per cent of the schools that furnish band uniforms, while 55 per cent do not. In 24 of the schools furnishing uniforms, the uniforms are free; while in one school, the rental fee is one dollar per pupil for each year. In the schools not furnishing uniforms, either the pupils themselves own the uniforms or no uniforms are used. In these latter schools, quite frequently the uniforms are not formal, but they are informal clothes of similar color and style.

Chorus and Glee Club

A second extra-curricular activity that has an important place in practically all schools of the state is chorus and glee club. Some schools may have three separate groups in this activity; as, boys' glee club, girls' glee club, and mixed chorus.

The consensus of opinion among most superintendents, as shown by Tables 23 and 24, is that both band and chorus classes deserve a place in the regular school hours.

Table 24 gives the time of day chorus or glee club classes are conducted in the schools surveyed and whether or not a deposit for music is required of pupils.

Table 24
Chorus and Glee Club in the Schools of North Dakota

	umber of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Time of Day Chorus and Glee Club		
Classes Are Held:		
8:00 A. M.	1	18
During the Regular Hours		
of the Forenoon	15	11.6
12:30 P. M.	1	.8
During the Early After-		
noon Hours	18	14.0
During the Last Period		
in the Afternoon	89	69.0
4:00 P. M.	3	2.3
No Chorus or Glee Club	_2_	1.5
Totals	129	100.0
Schools Requiring a Deposit for Musi	c 6	4.7
Schools Not Requiring a Deposit	121	93.8
No Chorus or Glee Club	2	1.5
Totals	129	100.0

Table 24 denotes that 69 per cent of the schools set aside the last period in the afternoon for classes in chorus and glee club. The glee club class very frequently alternates with the physical education class. For instance, on Mondays and Wednesdays, the boys' physical education class

may take place at the same time that the girls' glee club is in session; and on Tuesdays and Thursdays, the girls' physical education class may occur at the same time that the boys' glee club is taking place.

There are 11.6 per cent of the schools that find a place during the regular hours of the forenoon to have a class in chorus or glee club, and there are 14 per cent of the schools that find a place for chorus or glee club in the afternoon before the last period. A small per cent of the schools have glee club at 8:00 A. M., at 12:30 P. M., or at 4:00 P. M.

Most schools, 93.8 per cent, require no deposit on chorus and glee club music. However, 4.7 per cent require deposits ranging from 20 cents to 50 cents per pupil for each year. Some schools return the deposit at the end of the year, while others use the deposit for buying music.

Basketball

Basketball has long been the most popular of all extracurricular activities. In most schools, the basketball class and the regular physical education class are kept separate. Not all pupils take part in basketball. Therefore, the regular physical education class is held, as a rule, before 4:00 o'clock, while the basketball class is held after 4:00 o'clock or in the evening. In cases where schools are small, or where buses are used, or where country pupils cannot be present for after school or evening practices, basketball is made a part of the regular physical education class during basketball season.

Table 25 shows the time of day that both boys' and girls' basketball classes take place in the schools surveyed. The table also shows whether or not a deposit for suits is required.

Table 25
Basketball Classes

10000000000000000000000000000000000000	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Time of Day Basketball Classes		
for Boys Are Held:		
Before 4:00 P. M.	39	30.2
After 4:00 P. M.	74	57.4
Evenings	16	12.4
Totals		100.0
Time of Day Basketball Classes		
for Girls Are Held: Before 4:00 P. M.	47	76 A
After 4:00 P. M.	34	36.4 26.4
No Girls' Basketball	48	37.2
Totals		100.0
Schools Requiring a Deposit for Suits 4		3.1
Schools Not Requiring a Deposit	125	96.9
Totals	129	100.0

Most of the girls' basketball classes, 36.4 per cent, are held before 4:00 o'clock; while 26.4 per cent of the classes are held after 4:00 o'clock. Almost two-fifths of the schools do not have basketball for girls. Many superintendents and physical education teachers feel that basketball is too strenuous for girls.

In 96.9 per cent of the schools, there is no deposit

required for basketball suits. In 3.1 per cent of the schools, the deposit ranges from 50 cents on each suit to two-thirds of the value of the suit.

Dramatics

Dramatics, consisting of declamation and play practice, is commonly under the direction of the teachers of English.

Unless there is a particular class in dramatics, no very definite time can be set aside for declamation. Time is usually arranged to fit the pupils' and teachers' free periods. Play practice, as a rule, is taken care of either after school or in the evening.

Table 26 gives the time of day that the schools surveyed provide for declamation and play practice.

Table 26

Declamation and Play Practice

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
mi 6 D - D - l - l - l - l - l - l - l - l -		
Time of Day Declamation Practice Is Held:		
No Set TimeFree Periods	52	40.3
After School	29	22.5
Last Period of Day	13	10.1
During English Period	10	7.7
Evenings	6	4.6
Do Not Have Declamation,		
or No Answer	19	14.8
Totals	129	100.0
Time of Day Play Practice Is Held:		
Evenings	45	34.9
After School	30	23.2
Both Evenings and After Scho	01 28	21.7
No Set TimeFree Periods	22	17.1
No Answer	4_	3.1
Totals	129	100.0

In declamation the teacher gives individual instruction to pupils. This accounts for the fact that there can be no regular period for this activity, as Table 26 denotes. Another reason for having no regular set period for declamation is that, it is seasonal in its character; for example, declamation contests usually occur in spring.

The different times of day that declamation practices are held in the schools of North Dakota in the order of their greatest to least occurrence are: (1) no set time--free periods, (2) after school, (3) last period of the day, (4) during the English period, and (5) evenings.

Play practice includes a group of pupils rather than one pupil, and therefore the period for play practice can be made more regular than the period for declamation. Play practice periods in the schools of the state in the order of their greatest to least occurrence are: (1) evenings, (2) after school, (3) both evenings and after school, and (4) no set time--free periods.

Types of Extra-Curricular Activities

There are various types of extra-curricular activities. The two general types are those which are conducted in classes and those which are sponsored outside of classes. The principle activities in the first group are band, chorus and glee club, basketball, and dramatics. The activities in the second group include the following: Student Council, Safety Patrol,

Junior Red Cross, Pep Club, Campfire Girls, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Hi-Y, social clubs, book clubs, science clubs, literary organizations, and the school paper.

The number of extra-curricular activities in which a pupil may take part is usually not limited unless the pupil is doing poor work in his regular subjects.

Table 27 shows the regulations of the schools surveyed in regard to pupil participation in extra-curricular activities.

Table 27
Pupil Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities

	Number of Schools			
Number of Extra-Curricular Activities in Which a Pupil May Take Part Providing He Does Good Work in His Regular Subjects:				
Any Number	88	68.2		
Two	20	15.5		
Three	16	12.4		
Four	4	3.1		
One	1	8_		
Totals	129	100.0		
Schools That Limit a Pupil's Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities Because of Poor Work in Other Subjects Schools That Do Not Limit a Pupil's Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities Because of Poor Work		84.5		
in Other Subjects	20 129	15.5		
What These Limitations Are: Pupil Must Pass in Three	5 129	100.0		
Regular Subjects	40	31.0		
Not Definite Case Fitted	35	27.1		
Extra-Curricular Activities				
Are Cut Down	34	26.4		
No Limitations	20	15.5		
Totals	Mills Annual Market Control	100.0		

Table 27 points out that 68.2 per cent of the schools surveyed permit their pupils to take part in any number of extra-curricular activities they desire as long as the pupils do good work in their regular school subjects. The other schools limit the number of extra-curricular subjects that pupils may take to two, three, four, or one. Many schools follow the provisions of the Consolidated High School League of North Dakota. This league states that a pupil, to become eligible for an athletic contest, must have a passing grade in at least three full subjects. 1

While 68.2 per cent of the schools permit a pupil to take part in any number of extra-curricular activities he desires as long as his work is good in regular school subjects, 84.5 per cent of the schools limit the pupil's participation in extra-curricular activities if his work is poor in other subjects. Fifteen and five-tenths per cent of the schools, however, make no limitations even if the pupil's regular work is poor. Because of the social value in extra-curricular activities, some superintendents believe that slow pupils receive as much, if not more, value from extra-curricular subjects as they do from the regular subjects.

However, in most schools, if the pupils are not passing in three regular subjects, four in a few schools, their extracurricular activities are curtailed.

Bulletin, Constitution of Consolidated High School League of North Dakota, Revised Edition, 1937, p. 5.

CHAPTER VI

PUPILS

The pupil is the important factor in considering administrative practices for internal control. This fact can be emphasized from words by leading educational writers. Cox and Langfitt assert that: "The emphasis of administrative procedures should be placed upon the direction of the pupil toward self-control." Thomas and Lang say that: "All educational practices and relationships must depend for their final justification upon their advantage to the child."2

The main purpose of this chapter is to note the regulations throughout the schools of the state in regard to the personal and social activities of the pupil as these activities pertain to the school.

Toilet Regulations

Schools in general find it necessary to make specific regulations in regard to the pupil's use of the toilet. These regulations include such items as (1) the number of times each day that a pupil may leave the study hall to go to the toilet, (2) the number of pupils that may be out of the study hall at the same time, (3) the method of leaving the study hall, and (4) the length of time that a pupil may remain from

Cox and Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 177.

Thomas and Lang, Principles of Modern Education, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937, p. 286.

the study hall.

Table 28 gives the toilet regulations in the schools of North Dakota.

Table 28

Toilet Regulations in the Schools of North Dakota

1	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
		0.2.00.200.2
Number of Times Each Day That a Pupil	L	
May Leave the Study Hall To Go To		
the Toilet:		
Twice	20	15.6
Three Times	9	7.0
Four Times	2	1.5
Once	2	1.5
12 Times a Month	2 2 1 95	.8
No Restriction Made	95	73.6
Totals	129	100.0
Number of Pupils That May Be Out of		
the Study Hall at the Same Time:		
One	70	54.3
TwoUsually One Boy		
and One Girl	48	37.2
No Restriction	8	6.2
Four	3	2.3
Totals	129	100.0
Method of Leaving the Study Hall:		
Pupil Writes Name on Slip, Card,		
or Record Book	70	54.3
Pupil Writes Name on Blackboard	32	24.8
Pupil Receives Oral Permission		
from Teacher	19	14.7
Pupil Goes to Toilet Between Class	es 5	3.9
Pupil Carries Tag	2	1.5
Patrol System Used	1	.8
Totals	129	100.0
Length of Time Pupil May Remain		
at Toilet:		
Five Minutes	61	47.3
No Definite Ruling	48	37.2
Three Minutes	10	7.8
Ten Minutes	6	4.6
Seven Minutes	4	3.1
Totals	129	100.0

According to Table 28, about one-fourth of the schools find it necessary to restrict the number of times that a pupil may leave the study hall each day to go to the toilet. Most of these schools, 15.6 per cent, make the ruling two times each day. No restrictions are made in 73.6 per cent of the schools in regard to the number of times that a pupil may go to the toilet.

Over one-half of the schools, 54.3 per cent, allow only one pupil at a time to be out of the study hall to go to the toilet. These are mostly the smaller schools. Other schools, 37.2 per cent, allow two pupils, usually one boy and one girl, to be out of the study hall at the same time to go to the toilet. No restrictions are made in eight schools, but it will be noted that in five schools the pupil goes to the toilet between classes.

The most general method for a pupil to leave the study hall to go to the toilet is for the pupil to write his name on a slip, a card, or in a record book to be left at the teacher's desk. This method is used in 54.3 per cent of the schools. The time of leaving and the time of returning is often recorded by the pupil. The pupil writes his name on the blackboard in 24.8 per cent of the schools, the pupil receives oral permission from the teacher in 14.7 per cent of the schools, he carries a tag from a hook in the study hall in two schools, and the student patrol system is used in one school.

A large percentage of schools find it necessary to limit the length of time that pupils may remain from the study hall to be at the toilet. Nearly one-half of the schools, 47.3 per cent, limit this time to five minutes. No definite ruling is made in 37.2 per cent of the schools. A few schools make the time limit three minutes, ten minutes, or seven minutes.

Sending Pupils on Errands

Some superintendents require that, if a teacher sends a pupil on an errand, permission must be obtained from the office. The usual procedure, in such an event, is for the teacher to send the pupil to the office with a written and signed request for the pupil to go on the errand. The superintendent, or it may be the high school principal, approves of the request either verbally or by placing his initials on the request or by writing out a special permit. The pupil then carries the permit and goes on his errand. On his return to the building, the pupil returns the permit to the office.

Other superintendents require no permission from the office. The pupil's errand is checked by other methods. In most cases the teacher who sends the pupil on an errand is responsible, and in some cases no one is responsible.

Table 29 shows the methods of sending pupils on errands that are used in the schools included in the survey.

Table 29
Methods of Sending Pupils on Errands

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools That Require Permission from		
the Office for Teachers to Send		
Pupils on Errands	67	51.9
Schools That Do Not Require Permis-		01.3
sion from the Office for Teachers		
to Send Pupils on Errands	62	48.1
Tota	The second secon	100.0
How Dunille Enwand Is Cheeked if		
How Pupil's Errand Is Checked, if No Office Permit Is Required:		
Teacher is Held Responsible	38	29.5
No Definite Check	19	14.8
Teacher Gives Written Permit to	13	14.0
Pupil	3	2.3
Through Reports from the Outside	2	1.5
Schools That Require Office Permit	67	51.9
Tota	ALL DESCRIPTION OF THE PERSON	100.0

Table 29 indicates that the superintendents of the state are quite evenly divided as to whether or not they require permission from the office for teachers to send pupils on errands. Most of the superintendents, 51.9 per cent, favor office permission. This plan seems to promote a better regularity and a more business-like procedure of this activity than does the plan whereby teachers may send pupils on errands without office permission.

It will be noted that in cases where permission from the office is not required, 48.1 per cent, the pupil's errand may not always be accounted for. The teacher is responsible in 29.5 per cent of the schools; but in 14.8 per cent no definite check is made, and in 1.5 per cent reports from people outside of the school are depended upon.

Of course, in both plans, faithfulness of the pupil is relied upon. In 2.3 per cent of the schools, cases where the teacher sends the pupil with a written permit signed by the teacher, the permit is turned into the office at the end of the day.

Pupils Entering the Building

Most schools find it necessary to make regulations for controlling the pupils' time of entry into the building mornings and after dinner. Country pupils, as a rule, are permitted to be in the building when town pupils are not. Regulations also are made as to whether or not pupils must go directly to the study hall upon entering the building. Of course, in some schools reasonable amount of time may be taken by the pupils to go to the lavatory.

Table 30 shows the regulations of the high schools of North Dakota in regard to pupils entering the building.

It will be noted from the table that 65.1 per cent of the schools open their doors to the pupils mornings at 8:30 o'clock. Some schools, 13.2 per cent, permit their pupils to enter the building at 8:00 o'clock. About one-ninth, 11.6 per cent, of the schools make no requirements as to when their pupils may enter the building either mornings or afternoons. A few schools, 5.4 per cent, permit their pupils to

enter the building at 8:15 o'clock; while 4.7 per cent do not allow their pupils to enter the building until 8:45 o'clock.

Table 30
Regulations on Pupils Entering the Building

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Time Pupils May Enter the Build- ing Mornings:		
8:00 A. M.	17	13.2
8:15 A. M.	7	5.4
8:30 A. M.	84	65.1
8:45 A. M.	6	4.7
Anytime	15	11.6
Totals	129	100.0
Time Pupils May Enter the Build- ing After Dinner:		
12:30 P. M.	12	9.3
12:45 P. M.	61	47.3
1:00 P. M.	35	27.1
Anytime	15_	11.6
Totals	129	100.0
Schools That Require Pupils Upon Entering Building To Go Immediately to the		
Study Hall	101	78.3
Schools That Do Not Require Pupils Upon Entering Build- ing To Go Immediately to		
the Study Hall	28	21.7
Totals	129	100.0

Besides regulations for pupils entering the building mornings, Table 30 denotes regulations relative to the entrance into the school building after dinner.

From the table, we note that 47.3 per cent of the schools set 12:45 o'clock as the time after dinner that

pupils may enter the building. Over one-fourth of the schools, 27.1 per cent, set 1:00 o'clock as the time that pupils may enter the building. In 16.3 per cent of the schools, the pupils may enter the building any time after dinner. In 9.3 per cent of the schools, the pupils may enter at 12:30 o'clock. As a general rule, pupils are permitted to enter the building after dinner fifteen minutes before classes begin (See Table 15.)

To prevent commotion and unnecessary loitering of pupils in hallways, 78.3 per cent of the superintendents require that their pupils upon entering the building go immediately to the study hall, or home room. The rest of the superintendents, 21.7 per cent, do not make this requirement. These superintendents may not make this requirement because there is no problem in their schools, their schools are small, or the pupils are sent to the gymnasium.

Pupils Visiting in the Study Hall Before Classes Begin

As Table 30 has shown, about four-fifths of the superintendents in the state require their pupils to go directly
to the study hall upon entering the building. The next problem for the superintendent to determine is whether the pupils after they arrive at the study hall must study or
whether they may visit.

Various comments were given in the questionnaire on this matter. One point of view was that the purpose of the

study hall is for congregating and visiting before classes begin, and that a class room should be used by the pupils who wish to study. Another viewpoint was that a special room under supervision should be provided for those who wish to visit. Another point of view was that pupils should stay at home rather than come to school early for the purpose of visiting, as talking in the study hall disturbs those who wish to study.

Table 31 shows what the superintendents of North Dakota do in regard to pupils visiting in the study hall mornings and afternoons before classes begin.

Table 31
Visiting in the Study Hall Before Classes Begin

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Superintendents That Permit		
Pupils To Visit	88	68.2
Superintendents That Do Not Permi	t	
Pupils To Visit	129	31.8
Totals	129	100.0
Superintendents That Have a Specia	al	
Room for Visiting	3	2.3
Superintendents That Believe Such	a	
Room Would Be Advisable	61	47.3
Superintendents That Believe Such	a	
Room Would Be Inadvisable	65	50.4
Totals	129	100.0

Table 31 indicates that 62.2 per cent of the superintendents permit visiting in the study hall before classes begin. Many of these superintendents require that this visiting

be moderate and in subdued tones. Other superintendents permit their pupils to talk freely. There are 31.8 per cent of the superintendents who permit no visiting in the study hall before classes begin.

Three schools in the state have a special room for pupils who wish to visit. The superintendents of these schools express satisfaction with this plan. Other superintendents, 47.3 per cent, do not have such a room, but they believe one would be advisable. There are 50.4 per cent of the superintendents who believe that such a room would be inadvisable. Some superintendents, if the enrollment is small enough, send their high school pupils as well as their grade pupils to the gymnasium mornings and afternoons before classes begin. In most schools, the gymnasium will not accomdate all pupils.

Speaking Privileges

During regular school hours, most administrators give the pupils in the study hall the privilege of speaking privately to each other. To control this speaking, regulations are made by the administrators of the various schools.

In some schools, the pupils must obtain permission to speak from the study hall teacher. There are different methods to obtain this permission. One method is that the teacher simply nods his (or her) approval to the pupil who raises his hand. Another method is that the pupil, after raising his hand and after receiving recognition from the

teacher, asks verbal permission; or the pupil may walk to the teacher's desk and ask permission. In a few schools, the pupil asks one of the monitors rather than the teacher.

In schools where no permission is required, the usual procedure is that the pupil first looks around the room to observe whether any one else is speaking. He can recognize if another pupil is speaking because the one speaking is usually required to stand. Then if no one (or only one other pupil in some schools) is speaking, the pupil desiring to speak rises from his seat, goes to the individual he wishes to speak to, remains in a standing position, and converses by whispering. Table 32 shows the speaking regulations in practice.

Table 32
Speaking in the Study Hall During Regular School Hours

	Number School		Percentage of Schools
Schools That Permit Speaking	12:		93.8
Schools That Do Not Permit It		3	6.2
SCHOOLS THAT DO NOT LEIMIN 10	Totals 12	THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NOT THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NAMED IN COL	100.0
Must Permission To Speak Be	ALCOHOL:		
Obtained from the Teacher?			90.3
Yes	9		72.1
No		3	21.7
Speaking Not Permitted		3_	6.2
	Totals 12	9	100.0
Number of Pupils That May			
Speak at One Time:			
One		1	39.5
Two		4	26.4
Not Limited		3	17.9
Up to the Teacher		7	5.4
Three		6	4.6
Speaking Not Permitted		8	6.2
phearing not remain	Totals 12	9	100.0
Must Pupil Stand While Speak:	ing?		
Yes	6	6	51.2
No	5	5	42.6
Speaking Not Permitted		8	6.2
DECOMPAND NO A SAMPAGOOM	Totals 12	ACCUMULATION	100.0

It can be noted from Table 32 that 93.8 per cent of the superintendents give their pupils in the study hall the privilege of speaking privately to each other. A few schools, 6.2 per cent, do not grant this privilege. This latter group includes some of the large school systems in the state.

Most administrators, 72.1 per cent, require their pupils to ask permission to speak from the study hall teacher. In the other 21.7 per cent of the schools granting the speaking privilege, the pupils may speak without asking permission. However, these pupils may be limited as to the number that may speak at the same time.

About two-fifths of the schools, 39.5 per cent, require that only one pupil may speak at one time. The other pupils must wait for their turns to speak. In the order of their greatest to least occurrences, the other schools permit the following number of pupils to speak at one time: in 26.4 per cent of the schools, two pupils; in 17.9 per cent, the number that may speak at one time is not limited; in 5.4 per cent, the teacher decides how many may speak; and in 4.6 per cent, three pupils may speak at one time.

The pupil who goes to speak must stand while he is speaking in 51.2 per cent of the schools. This is true even if he talks to the pupil in front of him. In 42.6 per cent of the schools, the pupil need not stand if he speaks to one of his close neighbors; and sometimes not, when he goes to speak with a pupil farther away.

Country Pupils Remaining in the Building

As stated before, country pupils are usually permitted to be in the building when town pupils are not. Country pupils are given this privilege because they have no other adequate place to stay mornings before 9:00 o'clock and during the noon hours. Administrators, as a rule, do not want town pupils to be at school until a few minutes before classes begin because of the commotion which a large group causes and because a larger group makes more supervision necessary.

Table 33 shows the regulations of the schools surveyed in regard to country pupils remaining in the building.

Table 33

Regulations of Country Pupils Remaining in the Building

	per of	Percentage of Schools
Only the Country Pupils Are Permitted		
To Be in the Building Early Morn-		
ings and Noon Hours	113	87.6
Both Country and Town Pupils Are Per-		
mitted To Be in the Building Early		
Mornings and Noon Hours	15	11.6
All Pupils Are Required To Be Out		
Early Mornings and Noon Hours		.8
Totals	129	100.0
Pupils Are Required To Eat in One Room	118	91.5
Pupils Are Permitted To Eat Anywhere	10	7.7
All Pupils Are Required To Be Out	1_	8_
Totals	129	100.0
How the Pupils Remaining in the		
Building Are Supervised:		
By a Teacher	79	61.2
Not Supervised	22	17.1
By the Janitor	20	15.6
By a Student Committee	3	2.3
By NYA Pupils	2	1.5
By the Cook	2 2 1	1.5
All Pupils Out	_1	8
Totals	129	100.0

As Table 33 denotes, about seven-eights, 87.6 per cent, of the superintendents permit the country pupils, but not the town pupils unless by special permission, to be in the school buildings early mornings and noon hours. Fifteen or 11.6 per cent of the superintendents do not make any restrictions in regard to either town or country pupils entering or remaining in the school building. The one school requiring all pupils to be out of the building at these hours has a lunch room outside of the school building.

Most superintendents, 91.5 per cent, require that all pupils carrying lunches eat their lunches in one designated room. This is true whether the pupils eat a cold lunch or whether the lunch is prepared at school.

In 61.2 per cent of the schools, the pupils remaining in the building over the noon hour are supervised by a teacher who is on noon hour duty. Teachers, as a rule, take turns, daily or weekly, to serve on noon hour duty.

In 17.1 per cent of the schools, the pupils remaining in the building over the noon hour are not supervised. In 15.6 per cent of the schools, the pupils are supervised by the janitor; in 2.3 per cent, by a student committee; in 1.5 per cent, by NYA pupils; and in 1.5 per cent, by the cook in the lunch room.

Senior Privileges

Senior privileges are granted in less than one-third

of the schools in the state. These privileges may last from one week in some schools to all year in other schools.

Not all superintendents who grant the privileges prefer to do so. They are compelled to grant them because of tradition. Table 34 shows what the schools of North Dakota do in regard to senior privileges.

Table 34
The Granting of Senior Privileges

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools	
Schools That Grant Senior Privileg Schools That Do Not Grant Senior	es 41	31.8	
Privileges Totals	88 129	68.2	
When, and How Long These Privilege Take Place:	S		
Last Week in May	13	10.1	
Last Six Weeks of Year	10	7.8	
Last Two Weeks in May	6	4.6	
All Year	5	3.9	
Last Month of Year	4	3.1	
Last Semester	3	2.3	
No Privileges Granted	88	68.2	
Totals	129	100.0	
The Privileges Granted:			
The Seniors Are Required to Report Only for Classes	26	20.2	
The Seniors Are Exempt from			
Final Examinations	7	5.4	
Indefinite	6	4.7	
The Seniors May Leave School			
Early in the Afternoon	2	1.5	
No Privileges Granted	88	68.2	
Totals	129	100.0	
Superintendents That Believe in			
Granting Senior Privileges	33	25.6	
Superintendents That Do Not Believ	е		
in Granting Senior Privileges	70	54.2	
Superintendents Not Replying	26	20.2	
Totals	129	100.0	

Table 34 shows that the percentage of schools granting senior privileges is 31.8 per cent, while the percentage of those not granting senior privileges is 68.2 per cent.

attend classes as in college. The pupils are free to go where they please as long as they come back for their next classes. The plan was brought about in most of these schools to relieve crowded conditions. The superintendents using the plan express satisfaction with it. Some superintendents consider it an advantage to the pupils. It teaches them to budget their time and to be responsible for themselves, and it gives valuable training to those planning to go to college.

But as Table 34 denotes, most schools grant privileges to seniors not for a whole year, but for a week, two weeks, a month, six weeks, or for the last semester. The privilege granted in most cases, 20.2 per cent, is to allow the senior pupils to come and go as they please as long as they report for their classes.

Seven schools give exemptions from final examinations to their senior pupils. No comment was given by these super-intendents as to whether the pupils were required to keep their scholarship at a high level in order to receive the exemption.

Even though about one-third of the superintendents

Article in The Fargo Forum, By a Staff Correspondent, The Forum Publishing Company, Fargo, North Dakota, October, 28, 1938.

grant senior privileges, only about one-fourth of them prefer to do so. Eight superintendents find themselves compelled to grant the privileges because of tradition having been established in their school systems before they arrived. Over one-half of the superintendents do not believe in granting senior privileges.

Skip Day

Senior skip day is another privilege granted in many schools. This privilege seems to be in greater favor among the superintendents of the state than the other privileges. Table 35 shows the schools that have a senior skip day.

Table 35 Senior Skip Day

		Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools	That Have a Senior	Skip Day 59	45.8
Schools	That Do Not Have a Skip Day		54.2
		Totals $\frac{70}{129}$	100.0

Table 35 denotes that about 46 out of 100 schools have a senior skip day. Many superintendents make this day a supervised excursion.

Indications are that over one-half of the superintendents feel that senior privileges, for the most part, are a distracting influence. The pupils very often take undue liberties, they are not supervised, and they are really out of control.

Freshmen Initiation

Freshmen initiation is quite prevalent in the high schools of North Dakota. The period of initiation may last from one day in some schools to one week in other schools. In most schools, the period of initiation is terminated with a party in the evening. The process of initiation in the day-time usually consists of the freshmen wearing odd clothing and performing menial tasks for the upper classmen, while the final evening's party consists of the freshmen being put through ritualistic performances common to school initiations. Table 36 shows the prevalence of freshmen initiation in the schools surveyed. The table also shows the length of time that the initiation lasts.

Table 36
Prevalence of Freshmen Initiation

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Schools That Have Freshmen Initi Schools That Do Not Have Freshme		79.0
Initiation	Totals 129	21.0
Length of Time Initiation Lasts:		
One Day	51	39.5
		70 1
Two Days Three Days	16 15	12.4
Two Days	16 15 20 27	12.4 11.6 15.5 21.0

It can be seen from Table 36 that 79 per cent of the

schools have freshmen initiation, while 21 per cent do not.

The length of time the period of initiation lasts is one day
in 39.5 per cent of the schools. The period of initiation
lasts one week in 15.5 per cent of the schools, two days in
12.4 per cent, and three days in 11.6 per cent of the schools.

About two-fifths of the superintendents, then, limit the length
of the initiation period to one day; two-fifths allow the period
to extend into more days; and over one-fifth have no freshmen
initiation.

School Parties

As one of the school activities, the school party supplies the pupil with social training. Table 37 shows the number of school parties that were given in the schools surveyed during the year of 1937-1938, the time of the week that the parties were given, and the types of parties that were given.

Table 37
School Parties During 1937-1938

	Number of Percentag	
	Schools	of Schools
Number of Parties Given:		
None	1	.8
One to Five	47	36.4
Six to Ten	76	58.9
Over Ten	5	3.9
Totals	129	100.0
When the Parties Were Given:		
Friday Evenings	71	55.0
Evenings During the Week	26	20.2
Evenings During the Week if Fr	ri-	
day Evenings Were Filled	31	24.0
No Parties Given	1	.8
Totals	129	100.0
Types of Parties Given:		
Dancing	67	51.9
Class and Group	69	53.5
All-School	87	67.4

Table 37 indicates that over one-third of the schools gave from one to five school parties during the year of 1937-1938; while over one-half of them, 58.9 per cent, gave from six to ten parties. One school gave no parties, and five schools gave over ten parties.

Taking the school year of 1937-1938 as a basis, the average number of parties that schools give in any one year can be estimated to be about six or seven.

School parties are given Friday evenings in 55 per cent of the schools. Many schools, however, find that Friday evenings cannot be used for school parties. This is because the country pupils, who stay in town from Monday until Friday but who go home over the week-end, cannot be present. Also, during the winter months, basketball games frequently take place Friday evenings. Therefore, 20.2 per cent of the schools have their parties on evenings during the school week. Other schools, 24 per cent, give their parties on Friday evenings whenever possible; otherwise, on week day evenings. Some superintendents require that their school parties be over by 10:00 or 11:00 o'clock, if the parties are on week day evenings.

No one type of party is limited to each school. Instead, each school may have a variety of parties. Table 37 shows that dancing parties are given in over one-half of the schools. A very few schools limit their dancing parties to junior-senior proms.

Each class, as freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior, has its own parties in 53.5 per cent of the schools. Sometimes, of course, one class gives a party to another class; and a return party is given later. Other groups, as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Hi-Y, music clubs, and literary clubs, have their own parties, also.

All-school parties are given in 67.4 per cent of the schools. These parties may consist of playing games in some schools or of dancing in other schools. In many cases, all-school parties occur on special days, as Halloween, St. Valentine's Day, and similar days.

CHAPTER VII

DISCIPLINE

The development of the truly disciplined individual is an important purpose of education. This statement by Shaffer is in general accord with most educators. The term discipline, however, has a variety of conceptions as to its meaning. One conception, still quite prevalent today, is that discipline means an orderliness of pupils which is repressively imposed on them by authority. The more modern conception of discipline is that it means a self-directed orderliness of pupils which is achieved through self-initiated activity on the part of the pupils and which is supplemented by friendly guidance from those in authority.

In short then, the function of discipline is to help pupils to adjust and to direct themselves. It is as Dr. Breitwieser has said: "Let pupils be responsible for themselves. . . . Help adolescent pupils to make their adjustments rather than repress them." 2

Constructive discipline is a product of organization.

It is the purpose of this chapter to find what the general

IShaffer, L. F., The Psychology of Adjustment, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, p. 510.

²Breitwieser, J. V., Dean of the School of Education, University of North Dakota; An Address to the Ransom County Teachers' Institute at Enderlin, North Dakota, October, 13, 1937.

conception and practices of discipline are in the schools of North Dakota.

Sending a Pupil to the Office

Each teacher to be truly successful must be a capable disciplinarian. Authorities agree that discipline by proxy is impossible. Of course, all teachers should be supported in their disciplinary matters by the superintendent, as ultimate responsibility for success or failure rests with the administrator. According to authorities, it is better for teachers to go to the office for advice themselves, than it is for them to send unruly pupils there to be reprimanded. 1

Table 38 shows what the superintendents of North Dakota want their teachers to do in regard to sending unruly pupils to the office.

Table 38 Teachers Sending Unruly Pupils to the Office

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
So Superintendents Ask Teachers To		
Send Unruly Pupils to the Office?		
Yes	113	87.6
As a Last Resort	9	7.0
No	7	5.4
Total	ls 129	100.0
Do Superintendents Want Teacher Present When Pupil Is Sent to Offi Yes Occasionally	<u>ce?</u> 27 46	21.0
Want Teacher To Come First	4	3.1
No .	52	40.3
Tota		100.0
Do Superintendent Want Teachers To Come to the Office for Advice?		
Yes	109	84.5
No	20	15.5
Tota	AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE	100.0

Cook, W. A., High School Administration, Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore, 1926, pp. 249-250.

Table 38 indicates that about seven-eights, 87.6 per cent, of the superintendents ask their teachers to send difficult cases of discipline to the office. A few superintendents, seven per cent, want teachers to send pupils to the office only as a last resort. A few superintendents, 5.4 per cent, do not want their teachers to send unruly pupils to the office.

The superintendents of the state are quite divided on the question as to whether they want the teacher to be present when the pupil is sent to the office. Most of them, 40.3 per cent, do not want the teacher present. Other superintendents, 35.6 per cent, want the teacher to be present only occasionally; 21 per cent want the teacher always to be present; and 3.1 per cent want a conference with the teacher before the pupil is sent to the office.

One superintendent prefers to call the pupil into the office himself, after conferring with the teacher, rather than to have the teacher send the pupil to the office. Another superintendent wants the teacher to bring the pupil to the office rather than to send him.

Over five-sixths, 84.5 per cent, of the superintendents want their teachers to come to the office for advice upon disciplinary matters. Of course in many schools, a teachers' meeting is held before the school term begins for the purpose of informing the teachers of the policies of the superintendent in regard to discipline. One superintendent remarked, in the

questionnaire, that he does not like to repeat his advice again during the year.

A few superintendents, 15.5 per cent, do not want their teachers to come to the office for advice upon disciplinary problems. A remark from one of these superintendents on this matter was that teachers should be absolutely responsible for their own discipline; they are judged as a success or a failure on their discipline. Another comment was that the teacher's own initiative is better than the superintendent's advice.

A comment by one superintendent on general disciplinary difficulties was that most problems of discipline arise from crowded conditions of study halls and class rooms.

Keeping Pupils After School

Cox and Langfitt say that it is futile to keep a pupil after school for disciplinary reasons. The pupil is not corrected. Instead, he is pointed out as a culprit; and as a result, he becomes antagonistic and takes up defense reactions.

Table 39 shows what the superintendents in North Dakota do in regard to keeping pupils after school for disciplinary reasons.

Table 39
Keeping Pupils After School for Disciplinary Reasons

Are Pupils Kept After School?	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Yes	59	45.7
No	41	31.8
Seldom	29	22.5
	Totals 129	100.0

Cox and Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 181.

Table 39 points out that 45.7 per cent of the schools keep pupils after school for disciplinary reasons, while 31.8 per cent do not. Another group of schools, 22.5 per cent, seldom keep pupils after school. One superintendent made the remark that we want pupils to enjoy school attendance—then why punish them by making them spend more time in school? Another remark was that keeping pupils after school punishes the teacher more than it does the pupils.

The Curtailing of Privileges

Another device for contending with the pupil who causes trouble is to curtail his privileges. This method is effective if the pupil is curtailed from the activity in which he proves a nuisance, according to authorities. Table 40 outlines the curtailment of privileges as practiced in the schools surveyed.

Table 40
The Curtailment of Privileges

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Are Privileges Curtailed?		
Yes	111	86.0
No	18	14.0
Totals	129	100.0
The Privileges Curtailed:		
Not Definite	46	35.7
Study Hall Privileges	26	20.2
Extra-Curricular Activities	15	11.6
Taken Off Honor Roll	14	10.8
Curtailed in the Privilege Abuse	ed 6	4.6
Given Demerits	3	2.3
Not Exempt from Examinations	1	.8
No Privileges Curtailed	18	14.0
Totals	129	100.0

Supervision, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 181.

It is shown by Table 40 that 86 per cent of the schools curtail the privileges of pupils who cause difficulties in discipline. The other 14 per cent do not curtail any privileges.

The privileges curtailed for misbehavior of pupils were not definitely stated by 35.7 per cent of the superintendents replying to the questionnaire. A remark such as "It depends on the nature of the offense" was given in some cases.

In 20.2 per cent of the schools, study hall privileges are curtailed. That is, the pupils are not allowed to speak, they cannot use the library, or they cannot read the periodicals.

In 11.6 per cent of the schools, the pupils offending are denied the privilege of participating in some or all extra-curricular activities. In 10.7 per cent of the schools, they have no chance to get their names on the honor roll. In 2.3 per cent of the schools, they are given demerits. A demerit usually means that a certain percentage is taken off the grades of the regular subjects.

Only 4.6 per cent of the schools, according to the replies in the questionnaire, curtail the pupil in the privilege abused.

Truancy

Shaffer says: "If a pupil is denied satisfaction in achievement, he may seek it by behavior involving cheating, lying, defiance of routine, stealing, or truancy." 1

IShaffer, L. F., The Psychology of Adjustment, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, p. 508.

The general method for dealing with truancy is to require pupils to make up the lost time--usually by staying after school. In addition to making up time, some of the schools of the state may give an unexcused absence, some use corporal punishment (with grade boys), or some suspend the pupil for a time. Several schools require double time to be made up.

Table 41 pictures the methods of dealing with truancy in the schools surveyed.

Table 41
The Methods of Dealing with Truancy

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Time Is Made Up	95	73.6
Not Definite	11	8.5
Not a Problem	10	7.8
Grades Are Deducted	4	3.1
Parents Are Notified	4	3.1
Pupil Is Suspended	3	2.3
Class Work Is Made Up	_ 2	1.6
To	tals 129	100.0

As Table 41 denotes, 73.6 per cent of the schools require their truant pupils to make up the time lost; 8.5 per cent have no definite method; 7.8 per cent do not have the problem of truancy; 3.1 per cent deduct grades; 3.1 per cent notify the parents; 2.3 per cent suspend the truant pupils for a time; and 1.6 per cent require the truant pupils to make up the class work they missed.

Injured and Lost Property

If pupils injure, destroy, or lose school property, the

general method for taking care of the matter is to require the pupils to recompense for the losses. Table 42 shows what the schools of North Dakota do in regard to this matter. The lost books, in the table, refer to both library books and textbooks, in most cases. In cases where the pupil owns his textbook, the lost books refer to library books only.

Table 42
Injured, Destroyed, and Lost Property

	Number of	Percentage
	Schools	of Schools
West To Dane About Triumed Description		
What Is Done About Injured Property		
and Destroyed Property?		
The Pupil Repairs Them and	70	CO 5
Recompenses for Them	78	60.5
The Pupil Recompenses for Them		29.4
Not Definite	10	7.8
The Pupil Neither Repairs Them		
Nor Recompenses for Them	3	2.3
Totals	CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF THE	2.3
What Is Done About Lost Books?		
The Pupil Recompenses for Them	112	86.8
Not Definite	17	13.2
Totals	129	100.0

From Table 42, it will be noted that all but about one-tenth of the schools require their pupils who have injured or destroyed property to repair or to recompense for the property. Restitution, in nearly seven-eights of the schools, is also the method used in taking care of lost books.

Corporal Punishment

Is corporal punishment ever justified? Most educators

feel that it is not, and that it should be avoided. Corporal punishment is humiliating to the individual who receives it. It represses him instead of building up his personality. It makes him and his parents have a desire for revenge on the person who administers it.

Table 43 indicates the use that is made of corporal punishment in the schools surveyed.

Table 43
Corporal Punishment in the Schools of North Dakota

Is Corporal Pun- ishment Used?	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Yes	12	9.3
Rarely	53	41.1
No	64 129	49.6
Totals	129	100.0

Table 43 denotes that the schools are about evenly divided as to whether they use corporal punishment. There are 49.6 per cent that never use it, 41.1 per cent that rarely use it, and 9.3 per cent that use it at times.

The superintendents representing the 41.1 per cent of the schools gave such answers as: rarely, very rarely, seldom, and as a last resort. One superintendent remarked that instead of using corporal punishment he suspends the pupil until he can have a conference with the pupil's parents.

LCox and Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, American Book Company, New York, 1934, p. 181.

Marking a Pupil's Deportment

There are various methods of marking a pupil's deportment on his report card. The most used method in the schools of the state is to give a grade as in regular subjects. Some superintendents feel that giving a grade or a mark for deportment has no value. Unless it is a good grade, the recognition to the pupil is in the wrong channel.

Table 44 indicates the systems used in the schools of North Dakota for marking the pupil's deportment on his report card.

Table 44

Marking the Pupil's Deportment on His Report Card

How Is the Deportment	Number of	Percentage
Marked?	Schools	of Schools
A Grade Is Given	64	49.6
Deportment Not Marked	46	35.7
Satisfactory or Unsatisfactory	5	3.9
Excellent, Good, Fair	4	3.1
Citizenship Scale Used	4	3.1
Character Traits Listed	3	2.3
Demerits Given	3_	2.3
Totals	129	100.0

Table 44 show that about one-half of the schools, 49.6 per cent, put a grade on the pupil's report card for his deportment. Over one-third of the schools, do not give a mark for deportment. A few schools give "Satisfactory" or "Unsatisfactory." A few others give "Excellent," "Good," or "Fair." A citizenship scale is used in four schools, character traits are listed in three schools, and demerits are

given in three schools.

Student Government

Over two-fifths of the superintendents answering the questionnaire have some form of student government in their schools. A student government is usually in the form of a student council or of a student patrol system. The purpose of a student government, for the most part, is to promote good citizenship on the part of the pupils. Good discipline is thus indirectly achieved.

Table 45 gives the number of schools in the survey that have student government, the purpose of the organization, and whether or not the organization helps in the matter of discipline.

Table 45
Student Government in the Schools of the State

Tumber of	Percentage
Schools	of Schools
54	41.9
34	41.9
	58.1
129	100.0
44	34.1
	.8
-	.0
A NAME OF PERSONS	
9	7.0
75	58.1
	100.0
	100.0
	20 5
	22.5
	7.8
15	11.6
75	58.1
ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF T	100.0
	75 129 44 1 9 75 129 10 15 75 129

Table 45 shows that 41.9 per cent of the schools have some type of student government. These types consist of student councils for assemblies and for extra-curricular activities. They also consist of student patrols for hallways, toilet regulations, and fire drills.

Almost three-fifths of the schools, 58.1 per cent, have no form of student government. A few superintendents remarked that they had tried student government, but found that it did not help in keeping order; so they dropped it. One superintendent remarked that pupils are not mature enough to govern each other, that much spite is in evidence, and that the punitive phase is emphasized by them. Cook says that student government is a failure, if the purpose of it is for discipline. He states further that the unruly band together, and their own sentiment sustains them. 1

The purpose of student government in 34.1 per cent of the schools of the state is not for discipline, however, but to train the pupils for citizenship. To hold an office develops responsibility on the part of the pupil. Only one school has student government for the sole purpose of keeping good order. Nine others have both good citizenship and good order for their purposes.

The feeling among 22.5 per cent of the superintendents is that the student government in their schools helps directly

ICook, W. A., High School Administration, Warwick and York, Inc., Baltimore, 1926, p. 253.

in bringing about good discipline. One superintendent commented that student government establishes justice and fair treatment. Ten superintendents feel that student government helps indirectly. One remark was that public opinion is created. There are fifteen superintendents, 11.6 per cent, who feel that student government does not help in the matter of discipline.

Good School Discipline

The quality of the morale or spirit of a school is determined largely by the type of leadership given by the superintendent and the principal. They are the guiding force and the predominating influence in providing good or bad school morale.

The administrator who controls his school through the imposing of what might be called military regimentation may secure an appearance of good order and good discipline, but this is not a road which leads to good morale. A school in which discipline is wholly or partly maintained through the element of fear in either teachers or pupils, or both, is not a school in which good morals can be assured. There must be voluntary cooperation and sharing on the part of both pupils and teachers if a good high school is desired.

There are many pupils in school who are misfits, and who

lAdministrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 4. 2Ibid., p. 5.

probably will be misfits in later life. They are misfits because they have not acquired the ability to adapt themselves to their environment. It is a rare pupil, indeed, who would not be improved, or more fully developed, with the right kind of guidance. 1

Through discipline, which many superintendents consider as part of school guidance, the pupil must make his own decision for right behavior, if he is to grow in wisdom and in power of self control. Overn has this to say in regard to guidance: "It is less costly to spend a little money for proper guidance before the age of eighteen than more for correction, punishment, and inefficiency in later years." 2

One superintendent, answering the questionnaire, remarked that child guidance should imply training to obedience; otherwise, we are training pupils for poor citizenship. Another comment was that the individual must conform to what is good for the majority.

What constitutes good school discipline on the part of the pupil, as conceived by the superintendents included in the survey, is shown in Table 46. The table also shows whether the superintendents consider the disorderly pupil as an offender or as being maladjusted to his environment.

LAdministrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools,
Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938.

p. 4.

20vern, A. V., The Teacher in Modern Education, D.
Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 178.

Table 46
Good School Discipline on the Part of the Pupil

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Superintendent's Conception of Good		
Discipline on the Part of the Pup		
Strict Obedience	4	3.1
Conforming to Regulations	34	26.3
Child Guidance	64	49.6
Conformity and Guidance	19	14.8
Strict Obedience, Conformity,		
and Guidance	8	6.2
Total	s 129	100:0
How Superintendent Considers the		
Disorderly Pupil:		
As an Offender	6	4.6
As Maladjusted	83	64.3
Both As an Offender and		
Maladjusted	21	16.3
As An Individual Problem	19	14.8
Total	REPORT THE PARTY OF THE PARTY O	100.0

Table 46 indicates that about one-half of the superintendents, 49.6 per cent, consider child guidance as the proper method for achieving good discipline. Over one-fourth of the superintendents, 26.3 per cent, consider that discipline is secured through the child's conforming to regulations. A small group of superintendents, 3.1 per cent, believe that strict obedience on the part of the pupil brings about good discipline.

About one-seventh of the superintendents, 14.8 per cent, believe that a combination of child guidance and conformity brings about desired results. Another group of superintendents, 6.2 per cent, consider that all three items, strict obedience,

conformity, and guidance, make a good school.

In most cases, 64.3 per cent, the superintendents consider the disorderly pupil as maladjusted to his environment. About one-sixth of the superintendents, 16.3 per cent, consider the troublesome pupil as both an offender and as maladjusted. A few superintendents, 4.6 per cent, consider the troublesome pupil as a deliberate offender. About one-seventh of the superintendents, 14.8 per cent, think of the disorderly pupil as an individual problem.

One superintendent remarked that the cause, in most cases of maladjustment, was with the teacher rather than with the pupil.

Shaffer states that there can be no set formula for treating any conduct problem. Misconduct is a sympton, not an isolated phenomenon, and symptoms cannot be treated directly. Cheating is a means of adjusting to lack of success. Truancy is usually a withdrawal from a school situation intolerable to the pupil's motives. Most of the petty infractions of discipline that plague teachers arise from the inherent faults of the suppressive regime of the conventional classroom. Many schools perpetuate the repressive type of discipline probably because poorly trained teachers find it easier to suppress pupils than to guide them into desired activities. 1

¹Shaffer, L. F., The Psychology of Adjustment, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, pp. 510-511.

What constitutes good school discipline on the part of the teacher, as conceived by the superintendents replying to the questionnaire, is given in Table 47. The two types of teachers considered are those who secure good order through compulsion (if necessary) and those who control their pupils through motivation.

Table 47
Good School Discipline on the Part of the Teacher

Superintendent's Conception of a Good Disciplinarian	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
The Teacher Who Controls the Pupils Through Compulsion	14	10.8
The Teacher Who Controls the Pupils Through Motivation	101	78.4
Both Methods Are GoodIt Depends on the Teacher Totals	14 129	10.8

Table 47 indicates that nearly four-fifths of the superintendents, 78.4 per cent, consider the teacher who controls the pupils through motivation the better type of disciplinarian. The idea of discipline by motivation can be summarized by what Menninger says: "The troublemaker is in the wrong activity. He is not interested. His personality is being imposed upon. When anyone is searching or striving for a goal, he goes after it seriously."

¹Menninger, K. A., The Human Mind, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1937.

About one-tenth of the superintendents prefer the compulsion type of disciplinarian. Table 46 denotes that about the same number of superintendents want strict obedience from their pupils. Another one-tenth of the superintendents believe that both the compulsion type and the motivation type are necessary. It depends on the teacher as to how best results are obtained.

The following remarks were given by some of the superintendents replying to the questionnaire: (1) The motivation type of disciplinarian is a wonderful theory, but impossible to secure. (2) The motivation type is preferable; the compulsion type seems necessary. (3) Not all groups of pupils can be handled alike. (4) The teacher must control herself. (5) There is no such animal (meaning the motivation type); unless a teacher has force to back him up, he will lose the respect of his pupils. (6) Give me the motivation type, by all means. (7) How many teachers can do this (meaning motivate)? (8) It depends on the teacher's personality. (9) Forced discipline is futile. (10) Pupils are good because they want to be.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Internal control is an important factor in making an efficient high school. The problem to the high school administrator is to organize his procedures in such a way that his pupils are guided toward the development of adequate personalities and self-control. As Cox and Duff say, guidance is the methodology of self-adjustment and, hence, of true education.

Rules for internal school organization and control cannot be fixed. Rules and regulations can, however, be systematized. They can be made adjustable enough to meet new situations that occur as progress goes on. Standards are better than rules. The administrator must be careful to have standards which the group (parents, pupils, and teachers) agree upon, rather than projecting arbitrary rules and regulations of his own.

The findings in this thesis represent 65.1 per cent of the classified high schools in North Dakota.

It has been found in this study that the 40-minute class period is the most prevalent in the schools of this state, but the 60-minute period is preferred by most admini-

ICox, W. L., and Duff, J. C., Guidance by the Classroom Teacher, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1938, p. 3.

strators. The 60-minute period is preferred by superintendents because it provides for supervised study and it eliminates home study.

A weakness of the 60-minute period plan is that the supervised study portion of the period is often abused, either by the teachers neglecting to supervise the study or by their using the entire sixty minutes for lecturing. The success or failure of the plan, as is true of every other plan, depends on the teacher. Another objection is that it means more teachers must be employed.

It is evident that many teachers need a more adequate training in the art of carrying on successful supervised study in their classrooms. The hour period is more difficult for those teachers who have poor control of their pupils. When a teacher says that a class makes her nervous or "drives her wild," it is, of course, her inability to adjust to the situation that is the real source of the emotional response.²

It has been found that supervision in hallways is more of a problem in some schools than it is in others. Most schools have found that the two-minute or the three-minute period of intermission between classes is best. The five-minute intermission, unless the school is large, is too long.

Administrative Manual for North Dakota High Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, North Dakota, 1938, p. 27.

Shaffer, L. F., The Psychology of Adjustment, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, p. 514.

The student monitor plan has not been as successful as anticipated in many schools that have tried it because the students are not mature enough to execute the duties successfully without causing embittered feelings and spite. The student patrol system does work, however, if the issue is not behavior, but protection of the younger pupils.

If stairways, hallways, and the building itself is constructed properly, and if toilets and other gathering places are kept clean and remodeled, the general good order of pupils is thought to be influenced.

More than one-fourth of the schools have adopted the home room plan for the congregation of pupils on the opening of school mornings and after the noon hour. This plan is in line with the recommendations of modern educators. The home room plan separates pupils into smaller groups; hence, they can be controlled better than if they are in one large assembly room. One large assembly room, or auditorium, is used, however, whenever a special program is to be given.

Another advantage to the home room, besides breaking up large groups, is that it provides the best place for guidance programs.

It was found in the questionnaire that most schools require written excuses from pupils when they are absent or tardy from school or from their classes. The justification of the excuse is that it promotes orderliness, promptness,

and responsibility on the part of the pupil. The requiring of the excuse also assists the administrator in having a properly regulated school.

There is much noncomformity as to the use made of the unexcused absence. Nearly all schools issuing the unexcused absence, however, use it for punitive purposes. Punishment, though, is a wrong method of discipline, according to modern educators. Dr. Telford has said that pupils often glorify in misbehavior and punishment because of the recognition the punishment gives them. It is a reward to them, and they will continue with their undesirable activities if desirable substitute ones are not provided for them. The best method is to excuse all absences if the excuses are requested by the parents.

It was found in this survey that, in many schools, library regulations are somewhat lax. In some schools, no permit is required for the pupil to use the library. Of course, in many of the smaller schools, the library is in the study hall. But in some cases, the library room is separated from the study hall by a glass partition. Very often the study hall teacher has the added duty of issuing permits and also of watching the pupils in the library room as well as the pupils in the study hall. This really puts too much

Telford, C. W., Professor of Psychology, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks; A remark in the class of Experimental Study of Learning and Memory, Summer of 1938.

responsibility on the study hall teacher.

It would be better to keep the news rack and the encyclopedias in the study hall and to have the teacher who wants the pupil to use the library issue the permit. The pupil upon leaving the study hall and upon going to the library could show the study hall teacher his permit. If pupils wish to obtain fiction, they could do so after school.

This study has found that in most schools teachers are required to be at school thirty minutes before classes begin in the morning and fifteen minutes before classes begin in the afternoon. Most schools require their teachers to remain thirty minutes after 4:00 o'clock.

The pupil-teacher ratio is standard in about threefifths of the schools. The ratio is low in one-third of the
schools, and it is high in nine schools. The teaching load
is standard in all but ten schools of the state, according to
the questionnaire. In these ten schools, the load is too
heavy. Overloading the teacher will impair her health and
will naturally result in inefficiency.

There is much nonconformity throughout the state in the use and the meaning of marks that are given to pupils for their grades. Grades are primarily intended to show the progress made by pupils in their various subjects. It is doubtful, however, whether grades show any progress. For instance, it is difficult, if the letter system is used, for pupils to

advance from "C" to "B" or from "B" to "A" once they are placed in that category or rank in their classes. The pupil in a class receiving a "D" at the beginning of the year is very often the same pupil who receives the "D" at the end of the year. The "D" is his capacity in that particular class.

The grade of "D" is not very encouraging to the pupil who receives it. His attitude in school usually becomes unfavorable. A more vicious grade than "D", which thwarts the slow pupil rather than builds him, is "F". The grade of "F" is the pupil's final defeat. His mastery and self-confidence in regard to school subjects, is wrecked.

A new grading device is needed to build up the average pupil's confidence and personality. Other theses are attacking this problem. One method suggested is that pupils should be graded for the work they do according to their capacities. Their intelligence quotients should be changed to percentages and then divided into the grades the pupils make in their regular subjects to find their grade of accomplishment.

Schools in general have found it necessary to make regulations in regard to the pupils' use of the lavatory. One faulty restriction in some schools is that the pupils are limited as to the number of times that they may leave the study hall to go to the lavatory.

It has been found that there is laxity on the part of some schools in regard to sending a pupil off the school

grounds on an errand. This activity should be controlled through permits which are approved or written by the superintendent. Otherwise, the pupil's errand may not be accounted for, and much irregularity in the school may develop.

Pupils in the study hall, if given the privilege of speaking privately to each other, should be controlled by regulations which promote the best interests of all. The pupil desiring to speak should rise from his seat, go to the individual he wishes to speak to, remain in a standing position, and converse by whispering. He should stand even if he speaks to one of his close neighbors; as this shows the rest of the pupils that he has permission to speak.

Many superintendents consider that senior privileges are a distracting influence to the school. Others contend that these special privileges to seniors develop responsibility in them.

Freshmen initiation is also considered unnecessary by some administrators. One day, as a rule, is considered long enough for initiation activities.

Types of punishment used in the various schools of the state are: (1) pupils are sent to a detention room; (2) they are curtailed in study hall privileges and in extracurricular activities; (3) they are given demerits; (4) they are sent to the superintendent's office to be reprimanded; (5) they are kept after school; (6) their grades

are deducted; (7) they are given a low grade on their report cards; (8) they are given corporal punishment; and (9) they are expelled.

It is doubtful whether any of the above devices are corrective because they are suppressive. The pupil is designated as an offender; and as a result, he will very likely take up defense reactions. Durant says: "To command a child is to arouse pugnacity and resistance. . . . Never put a man in the wrong; he will hold it against you forever."

Shaffer says: "Even the provision of as perfect a curriculum as can be devised will not eliminate all conduct problems, for a few pupils will still be found who persistently show misbehavior of greater or lesser degree. Such students should always be considered as maladjusted. Moralistic attitudes and punitive measures are as entirely inadequate for dealing with such problems as with any maladjustment."

This survey has found that most superintendents consider that good school discipline is attained through motivation and guidance of the pupil. "A student who is intent on the completion of a well-motivated task does not have time to be disorderly." Motivation is of supreme importance in all

IDurant, Will, The Mansions of Philosophy, Simon and Schuster, Inc., New York, 1929.

Schaffer, L. F., The Psychology of Adjustment, Houghton Mifflin Company, New York, 1936, p. 511.

3Ibid., p. 511.

school life. It is the approach to the building of character and moral ideals." If the pupil is interested in worthwhile activities, and if he is not thwarted in the achievement of his goals, he will develop into a self-controlled and a self-directed individual who will become a contributor to society.

Recommendations

The following specific recommendations in regard to internal control are suggested:

The teacher of the future must be as much a specialist in mental hygiene as in subject matter or method. The teacher of the future must also have a more adequate training in the art of conducting successful supervised study in the classroom.

The administrator must be careful not to overload his teachers. Such overloading lowers the teacher's efficiency, and oftentimes results in impairing his physical and mental health. The administrator must have his internal procedures and practices organized. All new teachers should be informed of the superintendent's conception of discipline and other internal control devices.

The school must be supported by public opinion. The superintendent should have standards and regulations which

LOvern, A. V., The Teacher in Modern Education, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 35.

are agreed upon by the group (teachers, pupils, and parents) rather than projecting arbitrary rules of his own. Of course when the group is ready, the superintendent may gradually adopt policies of his own.

The superintendent should see that hygienic surroundings are furnished pupils and teachers. Crowded conditions should be rectified as soon as possible.

The superintendent should show by word and by action that he is a friend to teachers, pupils, and parents. Tact is essential for both superintendents and teachers.

The pupil should be corrected and redirected, not necessarily punished, when he imposes on the good order of the school. The pupil must learn to satisfy his motives directly, effectively, and with due regard for the personalities of others. He must conform to what is good for all. This is essential to true individual freedom and happiness.

Troublemaking is very often a pupil's protest against something he does not like. It is the job of the teacher and the superintendent to find what this protest is and to adjust matters accordingly.

The responsibility of a pupil's behavior should be placed on himself as much as possible. He should learn self-control. In an emergency, the teacher or the superintendent may have to suspend the pupil until a conference can be had with the parents. If the pupil still cannot adjust himself

to school regulations, expulsion may be the ultimate recourse.

The superintendent should show pupils that each and all are responsible, individually, to build up and to uphold the belief that others have in them. Should they break faith, they handicap themselves for future accomplishment.

The superintendent should be careful that he sets up no undemocratic or discouraging methods of motivation in his school. He must be consistent and definite. He must not repress or condemm another (including the pupil) if he values good will and cooperation. He must not allow willful imposition upon himself as a person. He must not make hasty conclusions nor take hasty actions, unless the occasion demands it. He must not be a reformer, but he must help in the matter of personal adjustment. He should try to anticipate difficulties, and must try to solve them beforehand. His sense of humor must always be ready to relieve tension. He must be a self-controlled and a self-directed man with full confidence in his abilities in order to have a successful program of internal control in his school.

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Appendix A

Returns were received from the following classified

high schools:

Alamo Anamoose Bathgate Beach Belfield Berthold Bisbee Bismarck Bottineau Bowbells Bowman Braddock Bucyrus Buxton Calvin Cando Carrington Carpio Casselton Christine Cooperstown Courtenay Crary Crosby Crystal Deering Devils Lake Dickinson Donnybrook Drake Drayton Edgeley Egeland Elgin Ellendale Enderlin Epping Fairmount Fargo Fessenden Flasher Flaxton

Forman

Gilby Glen Ullin Grafton Grand Forks Hamilton . Hankinson Hannaford Harvey Hatton Havana Hebron Hettinger Hillsboro Hoople Hunter Jamestown Kenmare Kulm Lakota LaMoure Langdon Lansford Lidgerwood Lignite Lisbon Litchville McGregor Maddock Makoti Mandan Marion Maxbass Michigan Milton Minnewaukan Minto Mohall Monango Mott Nekoma New England

New Rockford

New Salem

Nome Noonan Northwood Oberon Omemee Osnabrock Page Park River Parshall Pembina Petersburg Plaza Portal Portland Powers Lake Reeder Revnolds Rock Lake Rolla Sentinel Butte Sharon Sherwood Sheyenne Stanley Steele Sykeston Taylor Tioga Tolley Tower City Towner Underwood Upham Valley City Velva. Walhalla Webster Westhope Wildrose Williston Willow City Wimbledon Wyndmere

Appendix B

This thesis is based upon the following questionnaire, which was sent during the school year of 1937-1938 to the superintendents of the 198 public classified high schools of North Dakota:

Dear friend and co-worker:

Will you please fill out the enclosed questionnaire?

I am writing a thesis for my Master's degree at the University of North Dakota on the topic, "Internal Control in the Classified High Schools of North Dakota."

Please answer the items as you really think, or as you actually practice. All answers will be treated with absolute confidence. I want my survey to be as worthwile as possible.

Enclosed is a stamped envelope for your reply. Thank you very much.

Sincerely yours,

Henry L. Mouw

Your	Name	
Kind	of Position_	
Locat	tion	

Internal Control in the Classified High Schools of North Dakota

Purpose of this Study:

- 1. To make a survey of the methods of internal control and regulation used in the various schools of North Dakota.
- 2. To see what degree of conformity there is in the state.
- 3. To try to formulate, from the material gathered, an outline of the best methods.

Directions:

Briefly fill in all blanks, if possible. If extra

space is needed where explanations are called for, use the back of the sheet, numbering the item the same.

rgani	zation:
1.	How long are your class periods?
2.	What length period do you prefer?
3.	Do you use the warning bell system (before class period ends)?
4.	How many minutes between the warning bell and the end
5.	of the class period? Do you require that pupils wait until the teacher dismisses the class, or may they leave immediately upon the ringing of the bell?
6.	How long are your intermissions between classes?
7.	Do you find this satisfactory?
8.	Do your teachers serve on hall duties?
9.	Do you have student monitors for hall duty?
10.	Do you have the home room system, or do you have all pupils assemble in one study room?
11.	Do you have all pupils report to the home room or the study hall before dismissal at noon and at 4:00 P. M.?
12.	Do you have a regular assembly period for programs, etc or do you call pupils together whenever you think a general "get together" is advisable?
13.	How often do you have this assembly meet?
14.	What do you use the period for?
15.	Do you require excuses for tardinesses and absences from school?
16.	Who fills them inoffice, parent, or child?
17.	What use do you make of the excuse?
18.	Do you allow a pupil to come to class after the tardy bell has rung without a permit?
19.	Do you require a pupil after being absent from school to bring a permit to his classes? From whom must he get this permit?
20.	Do you write "excused" or "unexcused" on the permits?
21.	If so, what use do you make of an unexcused absence?
22.	Do you require written "make-up work", or are pupils simply held responsible for a test which covers the material in their lost work?
23.	How much time do you allow for make-up work before it must be handed in?
24.	Do you require a pupil to have a library permit to go to the library?
25.	

26.	Must the pupil remain in the library until the period is over?
27.	
28.	Do you have pupil or teacher librarians?
29.	Are your textbooks free, rented, or sold?
30.	Do teachers or the office give out the textbooks?
31.	Do you charge a deposit on textbooks, that is, if you rent them? If so, how much? Do you have separate funds for each class and school
32.	Do you have separate funds for each class and school activity, or do you have one general activities' fund?
33.	Must all checks be approved by the superintendent?
Teache	rs:
1.	What time do you require your teachers to be at school? MorningsWhen may they leave?
2.	When do you open school after dinner?
3.	Check the following records you require your teachers to keep:
	Daily attendance slipSix weeks' report (marks, etc.)
	Class record book Textbook record
4.	List other records or reports you require
5.	What is your pupil-teacher ratio?
6.	In your opinion, is this ratio satisfactory?
7.	
8.	How many extra-curricular subjects does each teacher handle?
Markin	g and Honor System:
1.	Are your tests mostly objective or subjective?
	Do your teachers make their own objective tests?
3.	To what extent do you use standardized tests?
4.	To what extent do you use the normal curve in giving marks?
5.	Do you give letters for grades, or do you use figures?
6.	Briefly explain your grades
7.	Do you give incompletes?
8.	Do you give incompletes? What is your lowest passing mark?

9.	Do you have an honor roll?
10.	What grade must a pupil obtain to get on the honor roll?
11.	Are there other criteria besides grades in subject matter to determine whether a pupil gets on the honor
12.	roll? If so, what?
13.	Do you give exemptions for six-weeks or final examina-
	tions?
14.	How do your pupils earn this reward?
Extra-	Curricular Activities:
1.	What time of day do you have band?
2.	What time of day do you have band? Do you have band every day? If not, how often?
3.	Does the school furnish uniforms?
4.	Do you charge rental or deposits for uniforms?
5.	What time of day do you have chorus or glee club?
6.	Do you require a deposit for music?
7.	What time of day do you have basketball for the boys?
8.	Do you require a deposit for suits?
	How much? What time of day do you have declamation?
9.	Play practice?
10.	Play practice? In how many extra-curricular activities may a pupil take part?
11.	Do you limit a pupil's participation in extra-curricular activities if he does poor work in other subjects?
Pupils	
1.	Do you limit the times per day that a pupil may go to
	the toilet?If so, how many times may
	he go?
2.	How many pupils from each room may go to the toilet at one time?
3.	Do you have pupils sign slips or write on the black- board to go to the toilet?
4.	If not, what is your regulation?
5.	How long may pupils remain at the toilet?
6.	May your teachers send pupils from the school building
	on errands without permission from the superintendent's office?

7.	If so, how is the pupil's activity checked?
8.	What time may pupils enter the buildingMornings? Noons?
9.	When pupils enter the building, must they go immediately to the study hall or home room?
10.	Before school opens officially mornings and afternoons, do you allow pupils to visit in the study hall?
11.	If so, to what extent?
12.	Do you have, or do you think a special social room would be advisable where pupils might go if they have no studying to do before 9:00 and 1:00 o'clock?
13.	During regular hours, do you allow pupils in the study hall to speak?
14.	How many may speak at one time?
15.	Must they raise their hand or ask the teacher for per- mission to speak?
16.	Do you require that they stand while speaking?
17.	Are pupils from the country permitted to remain in the building, when the town pupils are not?
18.	How are these pupils supervised? Are the pupils who take their dinners to school allowed
19.	to eat anywhere, or are they required to eat together in a designated room?
20.	Who supervises them?
21.	Does your school grant senior privileges?
22.	If so, when? How long?
23.	If so, when? How long? What are the privileges granted?
24.	Do you believe in granting these privileges?
26.	Do you have freshmen initiation? How many days does this last? About how many school parties do you have per year?
27.	Do you have dancing parties?
29.	List the school parties you have had during the past school year.
30.	Do you allow parties during week nights? To what extent?
	line:
1.	Do your teachers handle their own discipline?
2.	
3.	the teacher be present also?
4.	Do you want teachers to come to the office to be advised upon disciplinary matters?

