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The Small Town And Its School

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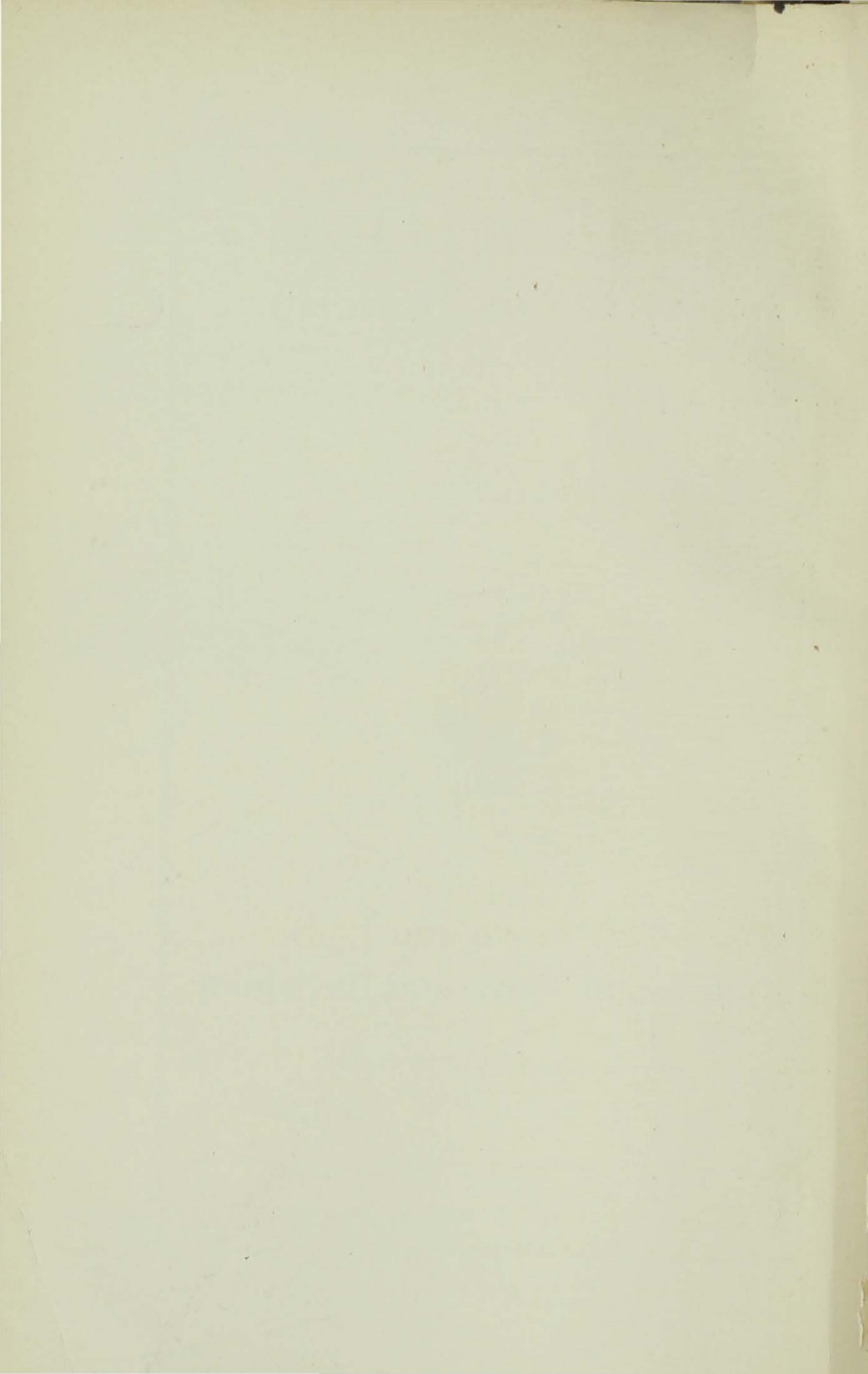
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SEPTEMBER 15, 1934

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION SERIES NO. 33

CHARLES L. ROBBINS, Ph.D., Editor



The Small Town and Its School

by

CHARLES L. ROBBINS

Professor of Education

College of Education, University of Iowa

PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY, IOWA CITY

Price twenty-five cents

Iowa

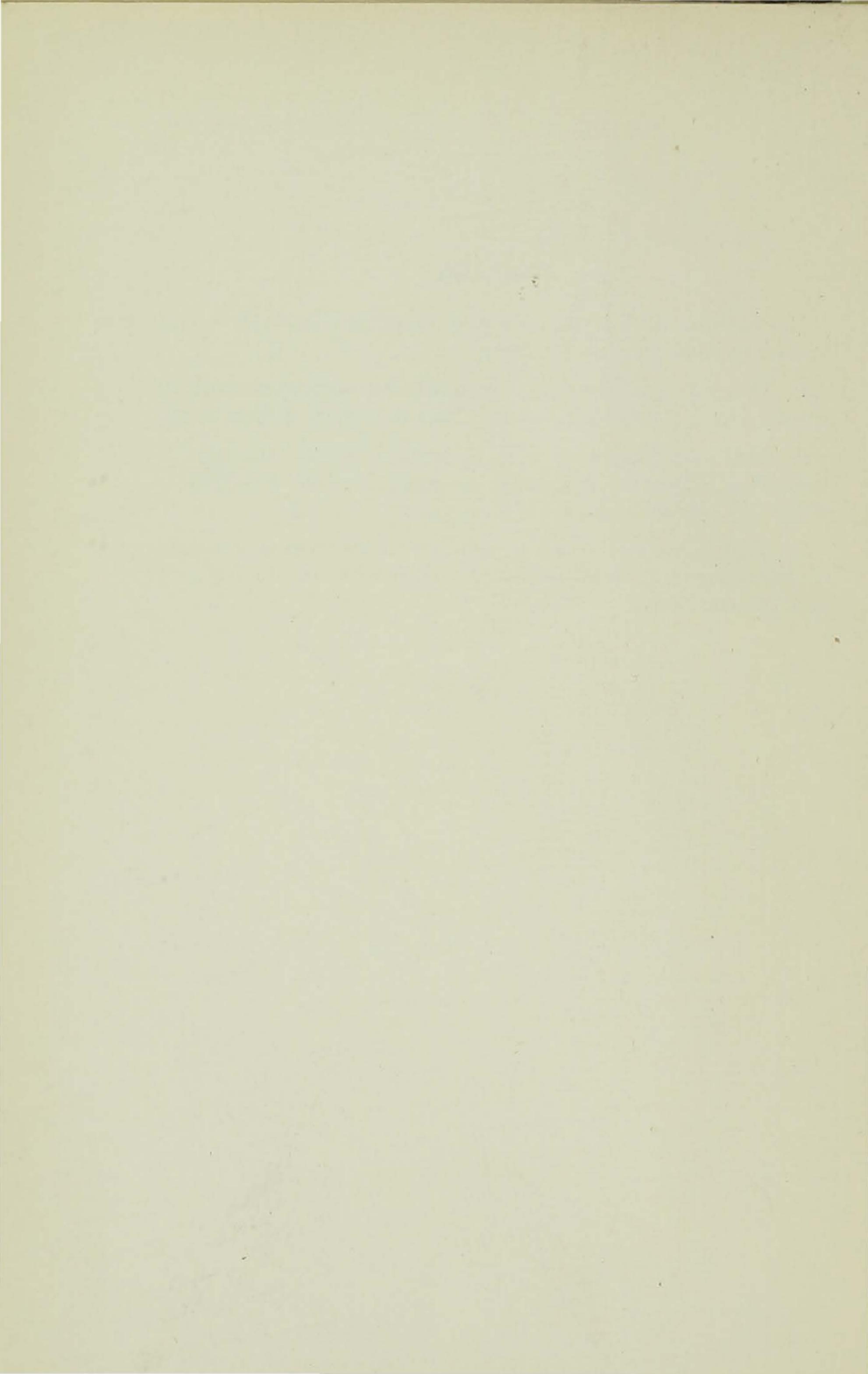
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PREFACE

This bulletin which is the product of Saturday-class work, is published with three purposes in mind:

1. That the superintendents, principals, and teachers who did the laborious work of collecting data may have the results of their labors;
2. That corresponding workers in similar schools may have illuminating information concerning the small town and a method by which they may make studies of their own;
3. That high-school classes in sociology and economics may have concrete material to enrich their study and forms to use as a basis for local investigations.

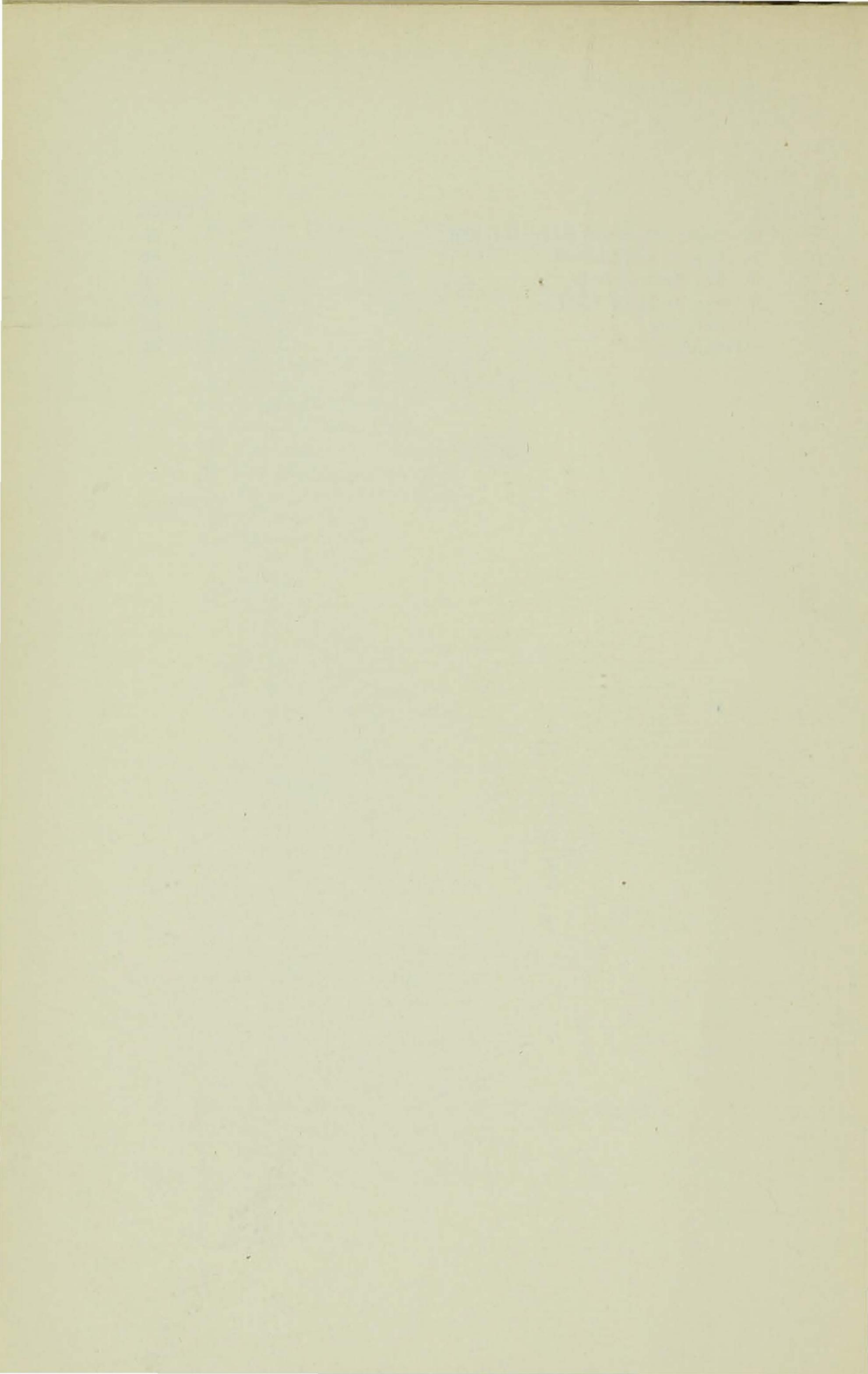


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CHAPTER I

THE FIELD AND THE METHOD

1. THE FIELD

The expression *small town* as used in this study means a *very* small town. Indeed, the communities which are included are not classified as towns at all by sociologists, but as villages and hamlets. However, in Iowa if a place has enough inhabitants for incorporation, it is either town or city. To the ordinary Iowan, *village* and *hamlet* are merely poetic terms, and to speak of a place with a hundred fifty inhabitants as a hamlet would be considered merely as a sign of affectation or as evidence of a poetic vocabulary.

The communities from which the materials for this study were obtained ranged in population from about one hundred to about twenty-five hundred. Of one hundred forty-five towns which appear in some way or other in this report, only three had more than fifteen hundred inhabitants. The median town in the group had a population of six or seven hundred. Practically all are located in eastern Iowa and western Illinois, the distance from Iowa City being determined by the fact that students had to drive from their homes Friday night or Saturday morning in time for classes on Saturday.

According to the United States Census classification, a place which has fewer than twenty-five hundred inhabitants is rural, while according to the terminology of the Institute for Social and Religious Research the dividing line between urban and rural is five thousand. In either case, the towns included in this study are not urban. Yet in some ways they are just as highly urbanized as the densely populated centers. Because of the large number of automobiles (three for every four families), the small town resident has transportation facilities that are probably superior to those of his city cousin, for he can go where he pleases when he pleases without waiting for train, bus, or taxicab. For communication with the rest of the world, he has per capita more telephones and radios. In the sense that rural means isolated, the small town is not rural at all. Only in the sense that urban means that a large population is concentrated in a small area, does the small town fall short of being urbanized. However, in a sense that is of very great importance, the sense of a genuine primary

group in which everyone knows everyone else, the small town is very clearly of the rural type.

The importance of the very small town (village or hamlet) is easily overlooked. Since it is neither city nor open country, one is inclined to infer that it is nothing and has no significance. Of the people who are classified as rural, about twenty-eight per cent¹ live in villages and hamlets. This means that about one-eighth of all the people of the United States live in these small communities. To a certain extent, the millions of people who live in very small towns represent a neglected area. They are classified as rural, but they are not farmers; and they receive little of the attention that is given farmers. They feel that they are more citified than farmers; but they have no place in the effort that is expended on the solution of urban problems.

2. THE METHOD

The communities represented in this study represent a random selection within a small area around Iowa City. The fact that a place is included means merely that some person (teacher, principal or superintendent) who lived there chose to take a course called *The Small Town and its School*, which was offered to students² who wished to undertake Saturday class work. The upper population limit of towns to be studied was set at fifteen hundred; but for various reasons three students were admitted from larger places, the largest being about twenty-five hundred.

For each assignment the student was given a mimeographed schedule to guide him in the collection of materials. These schedules are included in the *Appendix*. The items included were selected by the instructor as being likely to be of assistance in helping the student to a better understanding of the school in which he was working. In the beginning, there was no thought of making a comprehensive sociological study nor of publishing the results. The amount of material to be gathered for each assignment was limited to what the instructor thought the students could reasonably bring together in about fifteen hours of work.

After the papers were in, tabulations were made of such items as lent themselves to this process. Reference to the schedules in the

¹Morse, H. N., *The Social Survey in Town and Country Areas*, p. 24. George H. Doran Company, 1924.

²This statement does not apply to the towns studied by Mr. Howell as the field of his master's thesis on *The Economic Backgrounds of the Small Town School*, which is the basis of Chapter II of this bulletin.

Appendix will show that quite a little of the information provided could not be handled economically by this method. The results were presented in class and discussed. Most of the discussion was concerned with the ways in which the discovered facts had a bearing upon schools in general and upon the local school in particular.

It may seem that great weakness lies in the fact that the materials presented in this bulletin were collected by persons who had had no training in social research. It is true that such is the case. But this weakness in technique is more than overcome by two other conditions. In the first place, the investigators were very familiar with the communities which they studied. In the very beginning they knew more about local conditions than a trained investigator from outside would be likely to learn in weeks or months. They were in no danger of falling into the trap of making local facts fit a general pattern based on social preconceptions. As getters of actual facts they were of superior quality. In the second place, these investigators were asked not to observe and report anything and everything but to follow specially prepared study outlines which were designed to reveal important facts in the fields selected for research.

In general the work of these untrained investigators was quite satisfactory; but there were, from time to time, reports which showed lack of time, carelessness, or failure to understand what was to be done. In spite of the fact that there was a continual pressure for excellence (pressure growing out of the working-for-credit situation), the number of usable reports varied from item to item. Thus the reader will discover that although most of the tabulations are based upon about fifty towns, there are some cases where the number is greater and others in which it is considerably less.

CHAPTER II

ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

1. NATURAL RESOURCES

The small town in the Corn Belt depends for its existence upon the surrounding farmers. If it can be of service to them and if they are numerous and well to do, it prospers. Buying what the farmer produces and selling what he needs are the economic basis of small-town life. It is true that the village is a center of religious activities, of fellowship organizations (lodges), of education (schools), of amusements, and of politics; but each of these has its economic side and without the more distinctly economic services they would hardly exist. In other words, the small town is (as the classification of the United States Bureau of Census indicates) rural—much as local pride may be offended by such classification. Of the resources provided by nature (mines, quarries, oil wells, lumber, and fisheries), the small towns studied simply have none, with the exception of an occasional coal mine or a quarry. Obviously then there is no chance to develop resources that will make the small town independent of the farmer.

If we consider the relation of the small town to the larger world (outside the immediate farm environment), we see that it must depend on that larger world for fuel, light and power, laundry, dry cleaning, bakery goods, and all types of processed foods and clothing.¹

2. TYPES OF OCCUPATIONS

Of the occupation groups as classified in the U. S. Census (farmer; agent; office worker; banker; contractor; building trades; public service; merchant, dealer, proprietor; professions; employee; mining; trades other than building; manufacturing; unskilled labor; and home maker) all are represented, but not all in every town. Home makers omitted, the three commonest occupations are unskilled labor, the professions, and farming. The percentage of persons gainfully employed (total population considered as 100 per cent) varies great-

¹The materials for this chapter are derived almost entirely from a master's thesis by Charles E. Howell, *The Economic Backgrounds of Some Small Town Schools in Iowa*. State University of Iowa, 1933.

ly from town to town. This percentage runs from 13.1 to 44.7, the median being 27.6. These figures are a crude measure of ability to support schools.

3. KINDS OF MONEY-MAKING ESTABLISHMENTS

No town in the group studied by Mr. Howell was without a garage, a barber shop, a railroad,² and a telephone company; and none had a laundry or a gas company. "Of these towns, 52 per cent have no hotel, 28 per cent no pool hall, 80 per cent no chain store, 76 per cent no motion picture theatre, 36 per cent no water company, and only 8 per cent no light company. More than half do not have any store dealing solely in jewelry, clothing, cigars and tobacco, dry goods, electrical supplies, and musical instruments. That is to say, the small town dealer must make some kind of combination of goods for sale. Less than one-fourth are without a general store, a grocery, a hardware store, a meat market, a drug store, a restaurant, a dairy, an elevator, a produce company, and a filling station. The number of money-making establishments per town ranged from fourteen to sixty—varying, of course with population and other factors. The number per inhabitant varied from .032 to .111, with an arithmetic mean of .068.

4. UNEMPLOYED ADULTS

In normal times the small town has very few adults who are not regularly working at something. There may be a few retired farmers and an occasional ne'er-do-well who may be classified as having no regular employment; but the number is never large. During the period of hard times, however, there is a noticeable increase of joblessness. Mr. Howell found that the percentage of unemployed adults (total population used as a base) ranged from zero to fourteen, with an arithmetic mean of 4.2 and a median of 3.4.

If these figures are correct (and there is no reason to suppose that they deviate much from the truth), the small town was at the time of the study in a much better condition than the country as a whole. This statement is made in spite of the fact that wages in small towns are hardly ever high in comparison with those of cities. But even a meager wage made more meager by bad economic conditions is to be preferred to none at all. Furthermore, the unemployed person in

²Of thirty-nine towns reported by Saturday-class students, three were without railroads.

the small town has the advantage of living among friends and relatives who undoubtedly take a keener interest in his future employment and welfare than can possibly exist among the relief agencies of the cities.

5. EVIDENCES OF WEALTH

Under this head will be considered moneys and credits, real property valuations, total valuations, cigarette tax receipts, postal receipts, and railroad loadings and unloadings. Each of these items is a rather crude measure of the wealth of a community. If all are combined they probably give a fairly accurate idea of the relative ability of towns to provide and maintain educational facilities.

a. *Moneys and Credits.*—Of all the evidences of wealth mentioned in the preceding paragraph, it is likely that the least reliable is moneys and credits.³ In all towns they are likely to escape the eye of the assessor; and there is undoubtedly a great difference from town to town in the accuracy of reports made. In spite of all this, the State of Iowa uses moneys and credits as one basis of taxation and it will be included here for what it is worth. The most astounding characteristic of the reports is the tremendous range of figures. We have a group of small towns which might be considered very much alike; but the reports show the per-capita variation is from \$30.73 to \$1881.97, the median being \$355.76 and the arithmetic mean \$403.88. Six districts have more than \$1000 per capita and six have less than \$100. Whether these figures represent the actual situation or not, they do show what is available for school support.

b. *Real Property Valuations.*—The figures given in this section are for the supposed actual value of the real property under consideration. The assessed value is one fourth of this, while the market value may be more or less than the supposed actual value—usually quite a little more. It is obvious that unless there is uniformity of estimates from district to district the figures do not give an adequate basis for judging ability to support schools. The most that can be said is that so far as any legal basis of comparison is concerned we have nothing better.

Of seventy-eight districts the lowest per-capita real property valuation is \$621.92 and the highest \$3109.33—a range much less than that found for moneys and credits. The arithmetic mean is \$1066.50

³In this section, figures are given for the school districts—which may or may not be coterminous with the towns.

and the median is \$1125.00. If, instead of per-capita figures, we take the total valuations for the districts, we find that the weakest or poorest district has only \$277,988 and the strongest or wealthiest \$1,321,468. About all that can be inferred from these figures is that it is a great fallacy to assume that all small towns are alike in their economic conditions.

c. *Total Valuation*.—When we combine the figures for moneys and credits with those for actual real property valuations (four times the assessed valuations), we get a picture that is much like the one presented by actual valuation. This means that moneys and credits make a small part of the picture. For the seventy-eight districts, the range in per-capita wealth (as expressed by the combined figures) is from \$710.33 to \$3484.32; the arithmetic mean is \$1579.55; and the median is \$1472.92. Undoubtedly the most important thing about these figures is their great range, rather than their central tendency.

d. *Cigarette Tax Receipts*.—It seems reasonable to assume that the amount of money paid in taxes on voluntary expenditures for such commodities as cigarettes and gasoline indicates to some extent the fluid income of a community. It is not assumed, of course, that spending and actual possession of wealth have a perfect correspondence; but it is believed that in a general way those communities that have most spend most. The tax paid on cigarettes per capita varies from \$.13 to \$1.17 in seventy-seven towns. The mean is \$.61 and the median is \$.57. The per-capita cigarette tax for the state as a whole during the corresponding period of time was \$.50. It should be noted that the figures represent merely the tax paid, not the amount of money spent for cigarettes.

e. *Postal Receipts*.—Another method of estimating the fluid income of a community is by the amount of business which is transacted by the post office. Figures for seventy-four of the seventy-eight towns show a range of \$2.79 to \$6.84 for per-capita postal receipts. The mean is \$4.73 and the median \$4.91. These figures seem to indicate a higher degree of likeness among the towns studied than is shown by the figures on assessed wealth and cigarette sales. The highest figure for per-capita postal receipts is less than three times the lowest, while for moneys and credits the highest is more than sixty times the lowest, for real property valuations the corresponding ratio is five to one, and for cigarette tax nine to one.

f. *Railroads*.—From nineteen of the seventy-eight towns, it was possible to secure information concerning gross tonnage loaded and

unloaded, gross revenues originating, and school taxes paid. These amounts were changed to a per-capita basis by dividing each total by the population of the community concerned. It was found that gross tonnage loaded varied from .38 to 25.82 with a mean of 4.84 and a median of 3.00; the gross tonnage unloaded ranged from 3.31 to 89.33 with a mean of 12.37 and a median of 3.13; and the total loaded and unloaded varied from 3.75 to 115.15 with a mean of 17.64 and a median of 10.2. The gross revenues originating per capita varied \$3.93 to \$49.63. The school taxes paid into the different towns varied from \$324.54 to \$2119.81. In order to make these figures more significant Mr. Howell computed the percentage of the total school tax which was paid by the railroad in each town. This percentage was as low as 2.0 and as high as 15.6. That is to say, in one town the railroad paid more than one seventh of the total school tax, while in another only one fiftieth. The mean was 8.3 per cent and the median 7.8 per cent. The figures for railroads give further emphasis to the idea that small towns are not alike.

g. Indebtedness.—Figures for July 1, 1932 show that there is a great range in the per-capita burden of debt. In eighteen districts there was no bond or warrant indebtedness; in ten the per-capita indebtedness was more than zero but less than ten dollars. The highest was \$94.10. The mean was \$30.96 and the median \$28.13.

6. WORK AND WAGES

The working hours in small towns are likely to be long for most occupations. Estimates from twenty-four towns show medians and range for twelve groups as classified by the United States Census. The figures must be interpreted in light of the two facts that they do not represent a careful day-by-day record but they are given by persons who are thoroughly familiar with conditions in the towns upon which they report.

<i>Group</i>	Median	Range
Farmers	12.0	10-15
Agent, salesman, office worker	8.3	6-10
Banker, financial agent	7.0	6-9
Contractor, building trades	9.2	8-10
Government, public service	9.5	7-11
Merchant, dealer, proprietor	10.6	9-14
Professional men	8.4	7-10
Railroad employees	8.0	7-10
Miners	9.0	7-11
Trades other than building	9.2	8-12
Unskilled labor	9.9	8-10
Home makers	12.3	9-15

The question of a minimum living wage was submitted to the reporters who furnished information for this study of economic conditions. It was not felt that there would be any great scientific accuracy in their estimates; but it was believed that with their knowledge of small town conditions they could form judgments that would be worthy of consideration. The figures then are here given for what they are worth. Estimates were requested for three groups: manual workers of all kinds, clerical workers of all kinds, and professional men and women. For the manual labor group the estimates ranged from \$40 to \$100 a month with a median of \$59.50. For the clerical workers the range was even greater, from \$40 to \$125 and the median was higher, \$73. Estimates for the professional group ranged from \$90 to \$200 a month with a median of \$120.

These figures do not seem very high as indicating minimum living wages; but the number of persons who receive even less is considerable. According to the estimates of the reporters, expressed in medians, 42.5 per cent of the manual workers are below the minimum, 37.5 per cent of the clerical workers, and 20.8 per cent of the professional men and women. The range of the estimates is very great—all the way from zero to ninety per cent as below the minimum.

7. OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADVANCEMENT

It has long been known that one reason for the drift from the small towns to the cities is that the former offer little opportunity to advance in an occupation which is undertaken. The estimates of the reporters merely confirm the belief. Opportunity is reported as great in not a single case, fair in 12.5 per cent, poor in 62.5 per cent, and none in 25 per cent.

Although the opportunity for advancement may not be very great, there may be compensation in security. In fact, the reports show that in the small town workers may feel fairly secure in their jobs in 71 per cent of the communities. In contrast with the findings of the Lynds as reported in *Middletown*, the small town workers are comparatively free from the terrible fear of losing their jobs. No dead line is drawn at the age of forty or forty-five. Wages may be lower in the small town and opportunity to advance may be limited, but there is a reasonable amount of security which undoubtedly contributes to that "peace of mind, dearer than all."

CHAPTER III

THE HOMES

1. THE FAMILIES

a. *Size of Family*.—In the instructions to the investigators the term *family* was defined as a group of people (two or more) living in the same domicile. In a few cases this definition had little correspondence with the idea of father-mother-children group. A better idea of the real family is to be gained from the reports on the number of children. The following table shows the facts as gathered for fifty-five towns.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	
No. of Children in Family	No. of Families
0	1833
1	1975
2	1974
3	1364
4	1094
5	773
6	417
7	208
8	126
9	66
More than 9	66
Total	9896
Median	2.56
Mean	2.47

The median for the entire group is 2.56; but if we count only those families in which there are children, the median is raised to 3.06; that is, half of the families that have children have three or more. If large family means larger than the median, then four or more children put a family in this classification. But if we count only the upper ten per cent as large, it takes six or more children to put a family in this category. It should be noted that these figures refer to number of children, not to size of family. Hamer (*The Master Farmers of America*) found that for that group the median number of children was 3.5—considerably larger than the figure for the small town family; but the figure for his group is higher than that for farm population in general—about 2.3 in 1930.

If there is anything in the idea that large families afford considerable education because of the number of contacts that are made possible, it seems clear that the average small town family can hardly make an impressive showing. On the other hand, if the small family gives parents greater opportunity to look carefully and fully to the education of their children, we find the small town in a satisfactory condition.

b. *Broken Families*.—The figures for 7599 families in forty-five towns show that in 723 the father is dead; in 362, the mother; in 31 the children of divorced parents are living with the father; and in 81 the children of divorced parents are living with the mother. It should be noted that the cases reported are only those in which there are children living with the remaining parent. About one to six is the ratio between the broken home and the not-broken.

c. *Defective Children*.—In the fifty-five towns with 8063 families having children, the investigators reported 9 blind children, 17 deaf, and 90 feeble-minded. These figures are the reverse of the census figures for blind and deaf. That enumeration showed for the state of Iowa 1577 of the former and 1162 of the latter.

d. *Families Having Children in School*.—About one third of the children of the state are under school age; and an unknown number of parents have children beyond school age. Consequently it is not to be expected that all the families reported will have children in some kind of school. Of 7599 families for which figures were obtained, 4173 did have children in public schools; 102 in parochial schools; and 359 in higher institutions. About 55 per cent of families having any children have them in public schools; and about 20 per cent of all families have no children. These figures may have some bearing upon willingness to be taxed for school support.

2. THE HOME

a. *Housing*.—The typical house in the small towns represented in this study (and probably in all towns of the state) is a two-story dwelling built of wood. The reports show that the two-story houses are about three times as numerous as the one-story, and 250 times as numerous as the three-story. Wood as a building material is fifteen times as common as stone, brick, and stucco combined. In twenty-nine towns there was not a single stone house. Brick houses, however, are much more common, only five towns being without any.

b. *Home Ownership*.—The number of owners is about twice the number of renters. How many of the homes are encumbered cannot be stated, as no inquiry was made. If owners are less willing to vote taxes for school support than are renters, the preponderance of the former is quite significant, especially during a period of economic depression.

c. *Home Equipment*.—The material equipment of the small town home is indicated by the following percentages.

Telephone	75 per cent
Radio	60
Piano	31
Violin	9
Other mus. ins.	23
Phonograph	23
Automobile	75
50 Books	42
100 Books	8
More than 100 books	6

From these figures it may be seen that telephones and automobiles are considered more essential than books or musical instruments. It is true that telephones and automobiles have educational significance; but it seems rather strange that three homes out of four have these conveniences, while hardly one in a dozen has a hundred books, even though that number would cost much less than a very inexpensive automobile. The significance of this remark is increased when it is remembered that few small towns have public libraries.

3. EDUCATION OF THE PARENTS

The amount of schooling which the parents have had is important in connection with home equipment and the development of their children. The following percentages show the amount of schooling of parents in forty-five small towns.

	Father	Mother
Less than eighth grade	22 per cent	18 per cent
Eighth grade	20	21
1-3 years high school	13	14
4 years high school	15	17
College 1-4 years	8	8
Not reported	22	22

A noteworthy number were reported as having had some college training, and these were chiefly the lawyers, physicians, and school

teachers, principals, and superintendents. About one person in fifteen in Iowa (census of 1925) had had one or more years of college. Small town parents who have children in school make a slightly better showing, a matter of considerable significance to the schools.

It will be noted that the mothers have a slightly better record than the fathers. This condition is probably favorable to the education of their children, especially up to the end of the elementary course.

4. CONDITIONS AFFECTING COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE

The information gained concerning this phase of life could not be reduced to satisfactory tabular form; but the reports show that young people find their mates near home and not far from their own social levels. The following quotations will give a fair picture of conditions.

In our community the social conditions that affect marriage the most are religion and nationality. I have noticed that the Swedish people belonging to the Lutheran church marry members of their own church; whereas the members of the Methodist church often marry Methodists. Most of the young people of that church are not Swedish.

Our community is composed of two different types which I will characterize as Mennonites and English. With the Mennonites, religion plays a very important part in love affairs. They discourage the efforts of their children to mingle with the English, and the English young people regard the Mennonites as old-fashioned. Their religion does not forbid them to intermarry; but it does keep them from making contacts that might lead to marriage. The nationality would, of course, enter into this also. Among the other group the Catholics and Protestants do not mingle in a social manner as much as the others. Cliques are reduced to a minimum; but I believe that economic levels are a factor, especially where the elders have a voice.

Economic levels and religion affect courtship and marriage most in this town. The Sunday School has its class parties where the young people meet and begin courtships. Few marry outside the town and as a result many people in the town are related. The children in school are related to almost everyone else.

5. BASIS UPON WHICH MARRIAGE IS CONTRACTED

For the study of this item the investigators were instructed to consider such matters as romance, pleasing appearance, business, wishes of parents. In this, as in the preceding item, tabulation was difficult. A few quotations will show the judgment of the investigators.

Marriage seems to be contracted mostly for good looks or business. The people seem very sensible about marriage here and usually have plans set for future undertakings such as farming, starting a store, etc. Romance plays the usual part, but not in an extreme fashion.

A great many of the young people are dependent upon their parents for their life work. Many of the parents own farms and their children help them or take their places when they move to town. Quite a few of the romances are of long standing. The families of the young people become friends and romance and marriage follow.

Perhaps religion and wishes of parents are the two most important factors affecting the marriage contract. In a good many cases, I am sure that the parents have had a great influence over their children in choosing the persons they were to marry. This is especially true among the German people, who are strong financially. Looks, of course, have some influence; but I don't think that that alone is of major importance.

6. HOME ACTIVITIES

What do the members of a family do when they are at home? They may play games, sing, play musical instruments, read, converse, or engage in other activities. The material collected on this topic was an attempt to get the judgment of the investigators in regard to local patterns—not a home-by-home study. The reports indicate that in most communities, playing games is very common and that card-playing heads the list of such activities. Reading, conversation, playing musical instruments, and listening to radio programs are others that are mentioned frequently. Singing, dancing, and family worship are not found as often as those already mentioned. It should be remembered that all the items mentioned appear so frequently in some communities that they may be considered patterns of community life. In those communities where any activity appears but rarely it is not considered, even though it is important for the families concerned.

7. HOUSEKEEPING ACTIVITIES

Canning, baking, sewing, laundering, and gardening appear so frequently that they may be considered patterns of community life in the small town. Since this study was made after the economic disaster of 1929, it may be that the results do not present a true picture of home activities in better times. It does not seem improbable that housekeeping activities have increased; but we have no information upon which to base a comparison between good times and bad in this matter.

How the present situation affects the school is problematical. It may be that small-town housekeeping activities are such that the school has no reason for providing work in home economics. On the other hand, the quality of these activities in the home (and we have

no information here) may be so poor that the school is under obligation to provide instruction.

8. FAMILY MALADJUSTMENTS

Some of the family difficulties that may have a bearing upon the work of children in school are thus described by the investigators.

There seem to be few family maladjustments in our community, as is shown by the small number of divorces. If there is anything that would breed discontent in the families here, I believe it would be finances. One of the divorces here was due to a subnormal wife and the other was due to a drunken husband.

Family maladjustments are not numerous here. What few there are seem to be due to infidelity, incompatibility of temperament, and intemperance. As is true in any small community, there is a certain element who have to have their liquor and indulge frequently and fail to provide for the necessities of their families.

As far as I can find out there are very few family maladjustments in this community. The few which I do know are due to lack of education and ability to meet the economic needs of the family. Excessive drinking and lack of good morals also are reasons for maladjustment.

9. PARENTAL CONTROL

Quotations from reports will again be given to present a picture of conditions.

As in most communities, I believe the parents could discipline their children in better fashion than they do. Too many parents would like to have the school take over the entire problem of discipline. A number of parents would like to send their children to school as soon as the school permits in order to relieve them of the responsibility of looking after the youngsters. Too many parents are also blind to the mistakes of their children. This makes the problem of discipline doubly hard for the school.

Parental control of children is quite strong. They expect them to mind at home and at school as well. The children realize that it is necessary for them to consult their parents when going places and entering into various activities. Parents are not in favor of letting their children be on the streets at night. They insist rather that they stay at home with them. On account of these facts, there is little juvenile delinquency.

The community practice for control of children here is through reasoning. The old method of control by use of the rod has passed. Most parents try to show their children the difference between right and wrong by reasoning with them.

In many cases there is no control over the children. A rather common practice of several families is to let the children run the streets at night. They spend a great deal of time at the combination barber shop and pool hall. Many of the young boys smoke openly. In contrast, there is one family in which the discipline is very strict. The children stay home at night, stay for preaching at church, and even get spanked for slight provocation.

I asked the pupils in my sociology class about this matter, and most of them came back with the answer that they did about as they pleased. But when the father was on his high horse, they did what he said, but usually a sob story got the necessary results. The conservative Germans of the older school still punish their children, but the young parents are getting away from that.

From the reports that were given (as shown by the quotations), it seems that the school has a difficult problem in character education. At first sight it may appear that the task is to provide restraints that will result in a smoothly running school; but consideration of the future of the young people and of the society in which they are to live will lead to emphasis upon a different matter. The problem then becomes that of developing those inner controls that make the individual fit to live a life of freedom in a democratic society.

CHAPTER IV

THE CHURCHES

1. DENOMINATIONS REPRESENTED

From information received concerning fifty-eight towns it appears that the Methodist Episcopal church is the outstanding denomination. The chances are about three in four that in the town of less than fifteen hundred this sect will be represented. Tied for second in frequency are the Lutherans, twenty-two cases, but not all of any single synod, and the Roman Catholic church, with Presbyterians fourth, fifteen towns, and Baptists fifth, twelve towns.

Other denominations, found with lower frequencies, are Brethren, Christian, Church of Christ, Congregational, Protestant Episcopal, Evangelical, Friends, Latter Day Saints, Reformed, United Brethren, and United or Community churches. It may be seen from this list that every major denomination of the Christian churches is represented in at least one of the fifty-eight towns. The representation as counted by number of towns, however, does not parallel the figures for total national membership.

2. NUMBER AND SIZE OF CHURCHES PER TOWN

In forty-nine towns there are 132 churches, an average of 2.9 per town. The average membership is 177.5; and the average attendance, 86.8. Since many of the churches have members who live in the country, it is impossible to say just what percentage of the town population is included in total membership or attendance. It is extremely probable, however, that considerably more than half the residents of these small towns are church members. The fact that there are almost three churches in the average town in this study (a community of six or seven hundred people) seems to confirm the general impression that small towns are over-churched.

3. SUNDAY SCHOOLS

The 132 churches maintain 117 Sunday Schools. The total number of teachers is 1137, or an average of 23.4 per town. These teachers come from various occupational groups, the most frequently mentioned being as follows: housewives, 514; teachers, 169; farmers, 88;

students, usually pupils in the local high schools, 111. Among the scattering are to be found representatives of practically all the small town occupations. About one fourth (25.8 per cent) of the teachers are men—the men numbering 294 and the women 843 in the total of 1137. These figures are quite different from those found in Indiana by Athearn in *The Indiana Survey of Religious Education*. His study shows in villages 331 men and 584 women, more than half as many men as women, the percentages being 36 and 64, respectively.

Almost all the Sunday Schools reported are for adults as well as children; although a few are maintained solely for children who have not been confirmed. With the exception of a few Lutheran schools, all the Protestant institutions provide separate classes for men, for women, or for both. The Sunday School is thus generally considered an instrument of education for adults as well as children. In view of the slight provision for definitely organized adult education in small towns (See Ch. VII), this is an important fact.

As was to have been expected, the reports show that the materials of study come almost entirely from the respective denominational publishing houses. It is the opinion of the investigators that most of the material is quite well adapted to the needs and capacities of the persons for whom it is intended. Since the reports are made by persons who are engaged in public school work and who are continually facing the problem of suitability of subject matter, it seems that their judgment is of considerable weight.

4. CHURCH RIVALRY

Bearing in mind the fact that there are on the average about three churches in each small town, one might infer that rivalry is quite keen. The reports, however, do not justify the inference. Rivalry, although it does exist, does not seem to be very great. Apparently, in most communities, each church goes its own way without much worry about the doings of sister institutions. Nevertheless, rivalry or denominational feeling does have some bearing upon the public school and its administration. In a few cases it happens that no Catholics are (or can be) elected to the school board; and it frequently is true that no members of that church are selected as teachers. In most cases, so far as the reports show, the church preference of a candidate has little to do with the securing of a teaching position. Occasionally church rivalry causes some difficulty in the choice of the clergyman to deliver the baccalaureate sermon or the selection of the church in which to hold the services.

5. RELATIONS BETWEEN CHURCH AND SCHOOL

In answer to the question, "Do the churches attempt to interfere in such matters as the content of the course of study (e.g., evolution)?" the answer was always "No." But in regard to the attempts of churches to dictate the conduct of teachers in such matters as dancing and playing cards, a few cases were found in which there was definite evidence that pressure was exerted.

About two-thirds of the schools have religious exercises of some kind, Bible reading, weekly "chapel," addresses by local pastors, and occasionally "vespers." Almost always at commencement exercises a local pastor is called upon for the invocation and the benediction.

In some communities the public schools interfere with the work of the churches by preparing school programs in celebration of religious festivals, generally Christmas. Pupils are required to practice for the school program to the detriment of churches or Sunday Schools which are celebrating the same occasion. Obviously such interference is unwarranted. Yet it occurs in about a fourth of the towns reporting.

Another source of friction between public school and church is found in those extra-curricular activities which interfere with the regular weekly program of the church. In many communities Wednesday evening is the time of the prayer meeting. About a fourth of the reports show that the schools schedule events without regard to this or other preëmpted dates of the churches. A few superintendents reported that their practice is to have a conference with the local pastors at the beginning of the school year and arrange matters in such a way that school events will not interfere with the plans of the churches.

6. CHURCH MEMBERSHIP OF PARENTS AND QUALITY OF WORK OF CHILDREN

On purely theoretical grounds it would seem that children whose parents are church members should do better work than others. If religion tends to give a serious meaning to life and to place emphasis upon those things which have real values, then children from homes where religion is a definite force (as measured crudely by church membership) should have a genuine stimulus to good work in school. But, when one remembers that church attendance is about half as great as actual membership and also that membership may be little more than a sign of respectability, one can hardly regard the school

work of children as having a close relationship with the driving power of the religious motive. However, there is probably some connection between church membership of parents and the quality of the school work of children.

The item for investigation was phrased as follows: "What is the quality of the school work of children whose parents are church members as compared with that of those children whose parents are not church members? Get the actual figures. Do not depend upon your general impression." The reports showed the church group superior in thirty-four cases, the same in seven cases, and inferior in five cases. Often the differences were slight—too slight to be of any significance. But the fact that the church group had some superiority in thirty-four out of forty-six cases and was inferior in only five cases seems to give a good idea of the general tendency.

7. CHURCH MEMBERSHIP OF PARENTS AND PERSISTENCE OF CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

Does the child whose parents are church members have a greater or a smaller chance to persist in school attendance in high school and in college? The reports showed that for high school the persistence of children from church families is greater in thirty cases, the same in five, and less in six. This means that children from church families are much more likely to attend high school than children from other families.

A similar study was made concerning college attendance. Again the figures favored the church group. Usable reports from forty-two towns showed that young people from the church families are more likely to attend college than the others in forty cases—only two showing the opposite tendency, both in communities where the church is indicated as being of little significance in community life.

From these figures it seems evident that (other things being disregarded) both high school and college are selective upon the basis of church membership of parents. The existence of this condition is further indicated by the fact that in the University of Iowa about eighty per cent of the students are church members although for the general population of adults the percentage is considerably less. (No reliable figures are available; but a crude estimate may be made from the following facts. There are about a million and a half adults in the state; the total church membership—including persons who are not adults—is about a million. The percentage of church mem-

bership consequently is less than sixty-six and two-thirds. Probably the actual percentage of adults who are church members does not exceed sixty.)

8. IMPORTANCE OF CHURCH IN COMMUNITY LIFE

“Is the church an important element in the life of your community or merely a respectable but negligible institution?” This question could, of course, be answered by nothing more than opinion. When it is remembered, however, that the investigators were all persons who were thoroughly familiar with local conditions, it seems that considerable weight should be given to their judgment. The figures for fifty-four towns show that in thirty-seven instances (68 per cent) the church is regarded as important; that in ten towns (18 per cent) its importance is slight; and that in the other seven cases (13 per cent) its importance is little or none.

The church stands out as a center of social activities, as a defense against immoral forces, and as a means of promoting a spirit of good will. Such expressions as the following are found among the reports:

Much of the social life of our community centers around the churches.

Outside the churches and the school there is little or no means of entertainment in our community. Nearly every week in some church they are having a mixer good fellowship meeting; and the attendance is always very good.

The churches are very important in our community. They have fostered the spirit of love for fellow men and have endeavored to bring the people closer together. Members of the churches take an active part in community welfare work and they strongly encourage the things that are influential in bringing about an improvement in conditions of the community.

In the few cases which represent slight importance of churches, such comments as the following were found:

At present the church is not a very important element in the community. Perhaps this is due to the type of ministers they have. Poor speakers.

Our two churches have ceased to be a very vital force in the spiritual life of the community. In the —— church the pastor is not resident and comes only because of the extra money he can get. In the other church they have had several lawsuits.

9. SUMMARY

In the small town, the churches are, as a rule, of positive value to the school. In spite of occasional instances of irreligious rivalry and bitterness among people who are professedly religious, the school can depend upon the church for support in the work of helping children

and young people develop into worthy members of society. The common impression (especially among the urban intelligentsia) that small-town churches are too occupied with petty jealousies and rivalries to leave much time or energy for pure and undefiled religion finds no support in the reports of the investigators. To be sure, narrow church loyalties sometimes interfere with the larger loyalty to religion—just as party loyalty may conflict with patriotism; but breadth of vision and of sympathy seems to have destroyed much of the narrowness and bitterness that our grandfathers are said to have cherished.

The results of this study show that there is not much formal coöperation between church and school. Each does its own work and wishes the other well. Although both are especially interested in the welfare of young people, there is no coöperative program or even planned division of labor designed to realize the desired end. The American doctrine of separation of church and state is strictly applied—at least so far as official relations are concerned. How much informal coöperation there is, especially in critical cases that demand special attention, we do not know. But the fact that many public school teachers are also Sunday School teachers leads to the inference that there must be some coöperation, especially in the field of character building.

CHAPTER V

RECREATION

The small town of today makes a decided contrast with its predecessor of fifty years ago in the matter of recreation. If this chapter had been written in 1884, much that is now of great importance would be missing. Facilities for recreation were then few and simple. Their bearing upon the school had little recognized importance. Today, however, recreation occupies so large a place in life that no treatment of social backgrounds can neglect it. Dr. J. F. Steiner in *Recent Social Trends* (p. 912) says, "The movement of the American public toward more adequate recreational facilities is one of the significant social trends of recent times."

In this chapter are presented materials on facilities, relative importance, recreation patterns, attitudes, and educational bearings.

1. PROVISIONS FOR RECREATION

Reports from forty-one towns show the following distribution of facilities for recreation.

	Number	Per cent
School playground	41	100
Basket ball court	40	97
Dance hall	31	77
Athletic field	27	66
Tennis courts	27	66
Motion picture house	16	39
Football field	14	34
Golf course	12	30
Skating rink	10	24
Swimming pool	1	3

As a rule the facilities are publicly provided; but some exceptions are to be noted. Of dance halls, skating rinks, golf courses, and swimming pools, more are private than public. The fact that very few towns have swimming pools and skating rinks does not necessarily mean that there is no swimming nor skating in those that are without special provision. The water and ice provided by nature may be sufficient without the maintenance of pools or rinks.

The distribution of opportunity for participation in the various activities in the list may be seen in the following table, which shows in summary how much provision is made, or how many activities are provided for.

No. of Activities	No. of Towns
9	3
8	1
7	6
6	6
5	10
4	10
3	1
2	4

About half the towns (20 of 41) provide for four or five of the activities; and no matter how small, no towns are without provision for something.

The fact that provision for recreation exists should not be interpreted as meaning that the facilities provided are available at all times during the appropriate seasons. Community attitude toward Sunday activities is such that certain recreations are considered proper during the week but not on Sunday. The reports show that golf and motion pictures are available on Sundays in the great majority of the towns studied; but that just the opposite is true of dancing and basket ball. Skating rinks, athletic fields, football fields, tennis courts, and school playgrounds are available on Sundays in about half the towns which have them. The single swimming pool reported is in the same class. In regard to the problem of Sunday observance, the towns fall into three groups: (1) those that tolerate no use of the activities listed; (2) those that permit the use of all; and (3) those that permit some but not others. It thus happens that the dance hall may be closed while the motion picture house is open; that both may be open, or both closed.

As a special case of availability of resources we may consider the school playground during vacations—a matter of great importance in large cities but probably of little concern in small towns. The reports show that these playgrounds are nearly always open in the group of towns studied, there being only two exceptions; but in none is any provision made for supervision. In four communities the play equipment is removed. It frequently happens that although the school playground is not closed in summer, no use is made of it, grass and weeds being permitted to grow until the opening of school in the fall.

2. IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS FORMS OF RECREATION

In order to gain some idea of the value placed upon different recreational activities, the device of scoring on a scale of 0, 1, 2, 3, was

used. If an item was considered by the investigator as having great importance in his community, it was given 3; no importance being scored 0. The activities listed were: basket ball, baseball, football, tennis, golf, swimming, skating, skiing, coasting, walking for pleasure, automobiling for pleasure, dancing, card playing, dramatics, community singing, oratorio, community orchestra, motion pictures, radio. To the foregoing the following items were added by various investigators: store gatherings, volley ball, pitching horse shoes, camping, fishing, hunting, ping pong, billiards and pool, reading, boxing, parties, rifle shoots, farm bureau meeting, dog racing, attending lodge.

An activity with a score of great importance in every town would have a total of 123. In the following statement only items which score more than thirty-five are included—all items in the supplementary list and skiing in the original list being omitted. By total score, average, and rank we get the following tabulation of relative importance:

Rank	Activity	Total	Average
1.	Basketball	113	2.7
2.	Radio	107	2.6
3.	Automobiling	99	2.4
4.	Card playing	93	2.3
5.	Baseball	91	2.3
6.	Dancing	86	2.1
7.	Motion pictures	62	1.5
8.	Coasting	59	1.4
9.	Swimming	59	1.4
10.	Dramatics	58	1.4
11.	Skating	48	1.2
12.	Football	46	1.1
13.	Walking	43	1.0
14.	Tennis	41	1.0
15.	Community singing	38	0.9
16.	Community orchestra	38	0.9
17.	Golf	37	0.9

The next score is 13 (hunting). There is thus a gap of 24 points between the lowest item in the table and the highest of the omitted activities.

Among the interesting facts revealed by the information concerning the relative importance of various forms of recreation are the following:

1. The three items at the top of the list (basket ball, radio, and automobiling) are of comparatively recent development, while age-old pastimes like coasting, swimming, skating, and walking are far down in the list.

2. Of the six items that have an average score of two or more, four are in-door activities. The average score is the total score divided by 41, the number of towns. This method of computation does very well in giving an index of the situation in the whole number of towns; but it may conceal the fact that an activity may have a high score in those communities where facilities are provided. As an example, golf has a score of not quite one for the forty-one towns, but a score of two and a half (2.5) for the twelve communities which have courses.

3. Motion pictures have a score that is higher than might be guessed from the table which shows how many communities have each activity. There are only sixteen towns that have motion picture houses; but the total score for this activity is 62, an average of almost four for the sixteen towns and an average of 1.5 for the forty-one. This apparent discrepancy is accounted for by the fact that interest in motion pictures finds its satisfaction in other towns, especially in larger towns that are nearby.

4. In spite of the fact that there is much disapproval of dancing, that activity ranks sixth in the list. It is scored as having great importance in twelve towns and as having little or none in eight.

5. Like golf, football stands high in interest where it can really be counted as a local activity, but low for the entire group of towns.

6. The activities most frequently given a score of three are basket ball (32), radio (25), card playing (23), and automobiling (20). Those having the fewest zero scores are baseball, basket ball, radio, and card playing—no zero scores being reported from any of the towns for these four items.

3. RECREATION PATTERNS

Under this head eight different age and sex groups were specified: young unmarried men, young married men, young unmarried women, young married women, middle-aged married men, middle-aged married women, old men, and old women. The investigators were instructed to consider each activity which was common enough among the members of any group to be considered a "pattern," an activity of general and recognized importance for the group.

For the young unmarried men the following five are by far the commonest: dancing (30), basket ball (26), motion pictures (24), baseball (23), and card playing (18). For the young married men, basket ball drops out, while card playing (27), dancing (25), and motion pictures (24) remain, with hunting (12), radio (12), and baseball (12), tied for the other places.

Young unmarried women have only three activity patterns of much significance: dancing (28), motion pictures (25), and card playing (22). No other activity mentioned has a score as high as ten.

Young married women turn to card playing (31), dancing (21), motion pictures (20), and radio (12).

Middle-aged married men find diversion in card playing (29), motion pictures (14), dancing (12), radio (12), and golf (11). Their wives turn to card playing (25), clubs (21), ladies' aid (12), radio (12), and dancing (10).

Old men engage in card playing (19), spinning yarns (16), listening to radio (15), and reading (10). Women of the corresponding age find their recreation in radio (14), quilting (12), ladies' aid (12), clubs (12), and card playing (10).

The following tabulation will bring out some facts that are not to be discovered in the lists of most important patterns for age-sex groups. Not all reported patterns are included in the table—only those that rank among the first five in any group. The figures show the number of towns.

Activities	Young	Young	Young	Young	Middle	Middle	Old	Old
	un- married men	Young married men	un- married women	Young married women	aged men	aged women	men	women
Basket ball	26	9	6	0	0	0	0	0
Card playing	18	27	22	31	29	25	19	10
Dancing	30	25	28	21	12	5	1	0
Motion pictures	24	24	25	20	14	11	1	2
Hunting	10	12	0	0	8	1	1	0
Radio	4	12	7	12	12	12	15	14
Reading	1	7	4	8	6	7	10	11
Quilting	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	12
Ladies' aid	0	0	3	6	0	13	0	12
Sewing	0	0	3	5	0	6	0	12
Golf	7	11	4	4	11	4	1	0

The course of recreation through life as shown by this table seems to be characterized by the following facts.

1. The only items that are of quite large interest to both sexes and all age groups are card playing and radio.

2. The activities that decrease in interest rapidly from age group to age group are those that require much physical exercise—basket ball, dancing, and hunting; while golf, with milder demands, increases and then decreases.

3. Reading and radio, two forms of recreation that demand little more than passive receptivity, represent a gradual increase of interest from the lower to the higher age groups.

4. The young men and young women who are unmarried seem to have about the same interest in card playing, dancing, and motion pictures. Neither group has much interest in radio or reading, although in each case the young women have a stronger interest than the young men. The young men have one quite important recreation (hunting) which is not shared by the young women. But there is no frequently mentioned pattern for young women which does not have similar prominence in the activities of the other group.

5. Young women, whether married or not, have about the same recreation patterns, card playing, dancing, and motion pictures being by far the most important in each group. Radio, reading, quilting, ladies' aid, and sewing occupy the married group more than the other, while basket ball has enough appeal to make it a pattern for the young unmarried women in six towns, but in none for the married.

6. In comparing the two groups of young men, we find that the unmarried give more attention to basket ball and dancing, but less to playing cards and hunting. There is no difference in the case of motion pictures. In matters of rather infrequent mention, the young married men show an increased interest in radio, reading, and golf.

7. As age increases there is a noticeable tendency to give up those activities that cause one to leave home and to increase those that keep one at home. This statement is substantiated by the figures for dancing, hunting, motion pictures, and basket ball as showing decreases, and by radio, reading, and sewing as showing increases. Interest in the ladies' aid (an away-from-home activity) is an exception. Perhaps expense has something to do with some of these changes.

8. Not all recreations are wholesome, as may be seen from the fact that sixteen towns report gambling; fourteen, questionable pool halls; ten, drinking; eight, questionable dances; and one, a questionable bowling alley. Only fourteen of the forty-one towns report no anti-social amusements.

In interpreting all this material, one should remember that the figures show recreation patterns of groups; they do not show totals for a person-by-person study of the towns.

4. ATTITUDE TOWARD PLAY

In this part of the study an attempt was made to ascertain the attitude of the churches, the older generation, and various nationality

groups. The churches, as reported for forty-three towns, are indifferent in sixteen and friendly in twenty-seven. No churches were reported as being hostile to play in general; but there is opposition to such recreations as dancing and card playing, especially on Sunday. The older generation was reported as hostile in six cases, indifferent in twenty-one, and actively friendly in fifteen. In contrast with their elders, the young people are indifferent in six cases and actively friendly in thirty-six, no cases of hostility being reported. Only twenty-five nationality groups were reported. With the exception of six Irish, nine Germans, and two Swedish, each group that is mentioned at all has but a single case. Of the six Irish, three are reported indifferent and three friendly. Two German groups are reported hostile, two indifferent, and five actively friendly. One Swedish is reported indifferent and the other friendly. The only cases of Norwegian, Scotch, and Belgian are reported as hostile; of Welsh and English, indifferent; and of Italian, Bohemian, and French, actively friendly. Reports on changes in attitude during the past twenty or thirty years indicate a more friendly attitude in twenty-eight communities and a less friendly attitude in two cases. In the others the investigators said that there was no change.

5. RECREATION AS A COMMUNITY MATTER

In response to the question, "To what extent are pastors, school superintendents, leading citizens, and teachers interested in recreation as a community (rather than individual) matter?" The investigators reported as follows:

Group	Much	Little	None
Pastors	13	17	9
Superintendents	23	14	4
Leading citizens	22	10	8
Teachers	5	9	2
Totals	63	50	23

(The figures indicate towns, not individuals)

It should be noted that the question relates to interest in recreation as a *community* matter and that any person might have a keen interest in his own recreations and none at all in play as a community concern, or *vice versa*. The figures show that in about half the small towns concerning which information was received, school superintendents and leading citizens have much interest in recreation as a community matter. It seems important that both these groups are

found; for, although superintendents come and go, there exists continuously a group of leading citizens to give support to recreation. Superintendents probably do more than others to initiate recreational activities, but short average tenure is undoubtedly detrimental to plans that have been begun, unless the superintendents that follow have enough interest to continue the work. The importance of having a group of citizens who represent a sustained interest is easily seen.

Community interest in recreation is indicated to some extent by special celebrations, days, pageants, etc. Of forty-three towns, twenty-nine have some form or forms of community celebrations, the other fourteen have none. There is no unanimity in the choice of occasion to be celebrated. The most common community celebration, Christmas, is reported only eight times, while Old Settlers' Day is reported four times. Armistice Day is marked by a celebration in three towns, Memorial Day and Fourth of July in two each. Water Melon Day, Community Day, and Homecoming are also mentioned twice each. No other occasion is mentioned more than once. With this frequency are Firemen's Field Day, Band Day, Labor Day Fair, Fall Festival, Hallowe'en Celebration, Rooster Day, Flower Show, and May Fete.

6. THE SCHOOL AND RECREATION

The inquiry concerning the school's relation to recreation began with the question, "Does your school have an adequate athletic program?" A brief description of the program was also called for. Obviously no definite standard could be used; and undoubtedly the members of the class varied considerably in their judgment of the meaning of *adequate*. The reports, then, are to be interpreted as showing whether or not superintendents, principals, and teachers who reported believed that their schools did or did not have adequate athletic programs. Their judgments, whether right or wrong, are of importance because the future expansion or contraction of recreational programs will depend upon them. Of forty-one towns, thirty are reported as having adequate athletic programs, eleven as not. The descriptions of programs indicate that boys rather than girls are expected to engage in athletics, that basket ball, baseball, football, track, and tennis are the sports included in the program of the small town, that one must not expect to find more than two or three sports in a single school, and that there is not much of intramural athletic organization.

In response to the question, "Does your school attempt to build up a rational attitude toward play?" there were only three negative answers from the forty-one towns. From the following statements, one may obtain a fair idea of what is being done.

Participants are led to see that there is a time for play and a time for work. The object of winning is not put above good sportsmanship.

The school attempts to build up a rational attitude by trying to have children play for the sake of play and not merely for the sake of winning. It attempts to make the athletic program a character builder.

The children are beginning to realize that it is not a matter of life or death to win a game. Sportsmanship codes are stressed in all pep meetings.

The faculty has endeavored to build up the attitude of fairmindedness; but at games former students and townspeople destroy most of it.

As a supplement to the preceding question, there was added, "Does the school attempt to educate the community in such matters as good sportsmanship, proper place of play in life, and purpose of athletics? Characterize briefly." Twenty-six replies were affirmative, fifteen negative. Again it is necessary to use quotations in order that the reader may get an idea of what is done.

Yes. Many newspaper articles, pep talks, and speeches are given each year for the benefit of the townspeople and boys and girls. Prominent coaches are called in for sportsmanship talks.

Yes, a great deal has been accomplished along these lines in the past few years. The community likes to see games that are clean and well-officiated. The people realize that the purpose of athletics is just to train boys and girls to play the game of life.

The school attempts to educate the community in such matters by discussing these subjects before meetings of the Parent-Teacher Association. We also attempt to educate the parents by first educating the children along lines of good sportsmanship.

Every effort has been made to speak to individuals or groups that may cause or be causing unsportsmanlike attitudes; but what is built up in school is certainly torn down in the summer at community ball games, as everyone engages in a free-for-all verbal combat that is anything but gentlemanly.

At our athletic banquets we stress the importance of these things. We have a page in the local weekly newspaper that we use for the activities of the school. In this we have pupils, coaches, and teachers write articles dealing with these subjects.

In connection with the problem of educating the community in regard to sportsmanship it may be added that it was reported of fifteen towns that there was community pressure to win and of twenty-six there was not. The fifteen towns in which pressure is said to exist undoubtedly have a difficult problem in community education; for it is difficult to eradicate the idea that the athlete must win or die for dear old Homeburg.

In reply to the question, "Is the school athletic program a benefit or a menace to the school educational program?" only two out of forty-one reported that it was a menace. Here again we have only judgments by individuals, and those individuals probably have a bias in favor of athletics. However, various benefits are pointed out, as may be seen from the following quotations.

The school athletic program is decidedly a benefit to the school educational program. It gives a chance to teach the boys self-reliance, fair play, correct social attitudes and responsibility that they could get nowhere else in the school system. Then, too, the athletic program is not such that it occupies the center of the stage but it supplements the work of the school.

We require a certain average in grades before contestants can take part, and we hold very strictly to that rule. Many boys would not at first be interested in school if it was not for the athletic program; but after they are started they find other things of more importance in school.

A dissenting voice is heard in the following quotation.

I wonder if we haven't claimed too much for the athletic program. About the only good that I can see in holding athletic contests with other schools is that in some cases it may act as a stimulus for the poorer students to keep their work up. I see no reason why a student should not receive just as efficient moral and physical training in high school without athletic contests as with them, providing the high school carries on an adequate physical education program. From a financial point of view it would be much cheaper to discontinue our extensive athletic programs.

7. SOCIAL VALUE OF RECREATION

As a means of bringing the whole study of recreation to a brief summation of values, the investigators were required to answer the question, "To what extent does recreation in your community contribute to health, sociability, solidarity, or other worth-while ends?" The judgments expressed were quite uniformly favorable to the idea that recreation is of distinct social value. A few quotations follow.

It seems to bind the community very closely together. People have a fine community spirit, proud of their schools, athletic teams, and their city as a whole.

Recreation is playing an important part in increasing sociability in the community. Through many sports it is bringing the Belgian population into contact with others and helping them adopt American customs and ideals. In other cases the Americans are adopting and sharing some of the games which the Belgians like.

Recreation plays an important part in promoting greater solidarity, more sociability, and better health. The social life which is brought about through recreation has encouraged closer friendships between Catholics and Protestants.

The recreation of the community at present is being featured more and more at home. That is, people are not going to functions outside of town as much as formerly. They are creating activities that will satisfy their gregarious natures by having parties and meetings at home. Located as we are, near Des Moines, people formerly went out of town to shows and functions held in larger towns. Now they remain in the community and attend local lodges, parties, and churches more.

I feel that in general the recreations in our community are a good thing; but in some cases the effects are just the opposite. For example, dancing may be all right in itself, but occasionally a rough element enters into the dances held here. Women may be seen smoking and drinking on dance nights. Seeing this going on is not especially good in its effects on the girls of the community. The members of the independent basket ball team all smoke, sometimes right on the floor between halves of the game. If one is to teach the harmful effects of tobacco at school effectively, surely such an example as was just mentioned cannot contribute to this teaching.

Only a small part of the recreation in this community can be said to be of the health-building type, except in so far as it affords relaxation. There is no sport or recreation in which women over 23-25 can take an active part. Men, however, have their horse shoes, baseball, and basket ball teams. All recreation seems to promote sociability. That is perhaps the reason for the popularity of card parties.

CHAPTER VI

COMMUNITY LEADERS

In order to understand the actual social setting of the small town school it is very important to learn a great deal about those persons who have places of leadership in various activities. Local activities, including education, depend largely upon the likes and dislikes, practices, and views of such persons. But although such information is important, it is very hard to get. Much that we should like to know is perhaps understood only hazily by the persons themselves; and much that we infer from their conduct is of uncertain validity. In this study an effort was made to obtain facts that were of unquestionable validity—facts that could be observed or learned by anyone without attempting to probe the subconscious activities of the persons who were being studied. Even so, the difficulties were great, and usable returns were received from fewer towns than for other studies in the series.

1. FIELDS OF LEADERSHIP

A general question concerning the outstanding persons in the community shows that in thirty-one towns sixty-four political leaders are selected, of whom one is a woman; in church work, sixty-five men and forty women are mentioned; in school affairs, seventy men and sixteen women; in business, eighty-eight men, no women; in women's clubs sixty-eight women; in music and fine arts, twenty-two men and forty-five women. In three towns there was not enough interest in music and fine arts for the investigators to identify any leaders. The figures show that men outnumber women as leaders in politics, church work, school affairs, and business. It is also to be noted that each community usually has more than one leader in each of the fields mentioned; but in business about a third of the towns were reported as having a single outstanding person.

2. IMPORTANT PERSONS

In response to the question, "Who is the most important person in your community?" every investigator named a man. The reasons assigned for such importance were usually political or economic in-

fluence, although social service was stressed in a few cases. Such characterizations as the following are given.

He has an active part in so many things of community interest. He is a business man, member of the commercial club, director of town band, lodge, and choir.

He is well educated, interested in life and people, interested from the standpoint of community welfare rather than his own. He is honest, and willingly takes part in all community affairs.

He is interested in all progressive movements, to which he gives his moral and financial support freely. I have never known him to refuse to support any worth-while activity.

Because of his money and his political position.

In order to bring out further information in regard to leaders, the investigators were asked, "What persons (if any) are generally considered so important that they must be consulted in regard to practically all proposed activities (and their aid enlisted)?" The preceding questions had shown (as was expected) that every little town has some leadership; but this revealed seven towns that had no leaders in the must-be-consulted group. Although it appeared (from answers to the question on most important leaders) that in no case was the most important person a woman, it was found that there were six towns in which there were women who were so important that they needed to be consulted on all important matters. Usually there were two or three persons who must be consulted; but occasionally the number drops to one or rises to five or six.

3. CONFLICTS

In order to find out about conflicts of leaders, the following question was asked: "What cases (if any) are there in which support of an idea by one person means opposition by another? Give explanation." Only eight towns were reported as having such unfortunate antagonisms. From the explanations given, it seems that these cases of consistent opposition had their origins in battles that occurred in a more or less remote past, the spirit of hostility being kept alive regardless of good sense or community welfare. Struggles resulting in permanent bitterness have occurred over such matters as farm bureau problems, school bonds, politics, family affairs, religion, and business competition. In one case it was stated that when a certain citizen advocated any idea practically everyone else would be against it. And in another community the dissension was so great that, no matter what came up, the citizens divided into hostile camps.

4. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS

Each investigator was asked to make a detailed study of each of five leaders in regard to the following matters: schooling; church membership and attendance; office holding; community service; recreations; hobbies; marital status; economic status; occupation; politics; reading habits; attitudes concerning such matters as newer subjects in school, dancing, recreation in general, prohibition, college attendance, school support and equipment, and parent-teacher association. Information was received concerning 169 persons (138 men and 31 women) in forty-two towns. A study of the facts as reported leads to the summary which follows.

a. *Schooling*.—Of the 161 persons concerning whom information was given 16 had less than eighth grade, 25 had eighth grade, 48 had high school, and 72 had college. There is thus to be seen a correspondence between schooling and leadership. When it is said that “48 had high school and 72 had college” the meaning is that these persons had attended high school or college and in most cases were graduates.

b. *Church Membership and Attendance*.—Of 164 persons concerning whom this information was given, 24 were not church members, 2 were Catholics, and 138 were Protestants. About a fifth of those who were church members were reported as not being regular in attendance. The small number of Catholics selected for detailed study may probably be explained by the fact that the towns studied were overwhelmingly Protestant. More than half the towns studied had no Catholic churches, and there was no case in which the Catholics were the only denomination represented.

c. *Office Holding*.—About 45 per cent (69 cases) of the persons studied hold office of some kind. Less than half (about 45 per cent) hold political office, and a little more than half (52 per cent) hold more than one office. It is to be understood that the offices held may be in any important organization whether political or not. The superintendent of a Sunday School was considered an office holder just the same as the mayor or a member of the school board.

d. *Community Service*.—Of the 169 persons who were selected for detailed study as local leaders, 131 (slightly more than 75 per cent) were reported as interested in community service. This is to be interpreted as meaning that not quite 25 per cent were selected as leaders because of their importance in some definite field such as business but not because of their concern in regard to community matters.

e. *Recreations and Hobbies.*—Nearly one fourth of the cases (41) are reported as having no definite recreation, and about half (84) as having no hobbies. The recreations mentioned cover about the range indicated in the chapter on recreation. Reading and playing cards are commonest; but there is a strong interest in sports, more from the point of view of the spectator than that of the participant. Radio is not notably prominent—there being only six cases mentioned as compared with twenty-six for reading. Hobbies extend over a wide range and include such activities and interests as gardening, birds, travel, roses, lodge, Boy Scouts, writing, painting, music, and drama.

f. *Marital Status.*—Reports were received concerning 150 persons. Of these 5 were unmarried, 140 were married, none was divorced, and in the other 5 cases the wife was deceased. Among those who were married or had been married, there were 43 who had no children, 67 who had one child, and 78 who had more than one. The largest family reported had five children.

g. *Economic Status.*—Of the 149 cases reported, only 4 are regarded as poor, 104 in moderate circumstances, and 41 as wealthy. These terms, lacking in objectivity, must be interpreted upon the basis of small-town ideas of wealth and poverty. It is extremely likely that very few of the 41 who are considered wealthy by the investigators would be so regarded by a resident of Chicago or any other large city. Thus, a person who pays taxes of \$600 in a small town is considered very well to do, a trifling sum in comparison with the much larger amounts paid by the wealthy of the cities.

h. *Occupation.*—Closely related to economic status is occupation. But it is obviously not true that there is a very close correspondence between the two. In general, however, we may infer that different occupations somewhat crudely represent different economic levels. Furthermore, there is quite a little correspondence between occupation and social status.

In the reports on occupations of small town leaders, the figures were usable for 166 cases. Of these, the chief occupations in order of frequency of mention were farmers (29), housewives (26), merchants, dealers, and salesmen (19), bankers (13), physicians (11), clergymen (9), teachers, principals, and superintendents (9), lawyers (8), and retired (7). Among the others were two editors, three dentists, three barbers, three insurance agents, and two janitors. If the professional groups are combined (physicians, 11, dentists 3, clergymen

9, lawyers 8, and teachers 9) we have a total of 40, the largest single group.

i. *Politics*.—Although Iowa has at present (1934) a Democratic administration the history of the state shows an almost uniform Republican ascendancy. The reports on the politics of local leaders represent the historic tendency. Of 177 whose political affiliations were reported, 92 were Republicans and only 25 were Democrats.

j. *Reading Habits*.—It is noteworthy that of 128 cases reported, 75 (nearly three out of five) are known in their communities as extensive readers. It may be added that *extensive* and *serious* are practically synonymous in this matter. Those who read cheap literature or who are interested chiefly or solely in news of sports are not likely to be found in the list of leaders. On the other hand it should be said that many who are serious in their attitudes and who have risen to the level of leadership read very little—often nothing more than the news.

k. *Attitudes*.—A tabulation of attitudes as reported is given below. In making comparisons, the reader should note that the total number of cases reported varies from item to item.

Item	Favorable	Opposed	Indifferent
Dancing	53	30	35
Recreation (general)	91	6	7
Prohibition	106	39	3
College attendance	92	3	3
P.T.A.	50	12	16
School support	112	21	6
Newer school subjects	115	20	12

In matters that closely concern the school, the attitude of these leaders (as judged by the investigators) was overwhelmingly favorable. In regard to dancing, one may infer that it is still a debatable question in the small town. Very strangely the vote on the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment in the election of 1932 showed little correspondence with the supposed attitudes of the small-town leaders.

CHAPTER VII

ADULT EDUCATION

In this study adult education was regarded not as the random absorption of ideas and attitudes, but as the purposive persistent attempt to get ideas, build up skills, or develop appreciations. The field of research was thus quite severely limited.

1. AMOUNT OF ADULT STUDY

The replies to the question, "What persons (if any) in your community are studying under their own direction or with the guidance of correspondence schools?" showed a total of 127 persons (64 men, 53 women, and 7 whose sex was not indicated). These figures from 38 towns represent an average of 3.24 persons per town. There were six towns from which no one was reported. If the average seems small, the reader should interpret it in terms of the size of these towns, which are so small that New York City is about ten thousand times as large as the average. This ratio means that if the average small town has 3.24 adults who are studying under their own direction or under the guidance of correspondence schools, New York City should have 32,400 such persons, a number which might be pointed to with pride.

2. SUBJECTS STUDIED

The range of interests extends from the very concrete, poultry raising for example, to the abstract, such as philosophy. In the list of studies are found art, law, political science, sociology, accounting, music, drama, history, Spanish, English, home economics, child welfare, banking, taxidermy, psychology, and radio. The fields of greatest interest, as measured by number of persons engaged, are the commercial, including business, salesmanship, accounting, banking, shorthand, and typing (24), social sciences, including political science, economics, history, and sociology (14), education (18), and the fine arts, including painting, music and drama (10).

3. INCENTIVES

The investigators were asked to give their judgment of the motives which were back of such study as was carried on. According to the

estimates given, about two-thirds of the persons listed study with professional and economic incentives; about a sixth are working for college degrees; and fewer still are studying because of immediate interest in the subjects or desire for culture. These judgments by the investigators correspond closely with the kinds of subjects studied—as shown in the paragraph immediately preceding. They also correspond closely with the interests revealed by a study of courses taken by correspondence at the State University of Iowa, as seen in an article by Robbins and Johnson, "Iowa Studies Correspondence Students," *Journal of Adult Education* II (October 1930), pp. 413-417. That investigation showed that most correspondence study is undertaken for the purpose of getting credit toward a degree or a certificate to teach and that culture (without the hope of professional advancement or economic improvement) is the incentive in only 2.81 per cent of the 1497 cases studied.

A study by Lorimer, *The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area*, shows that in Brooklyn the desire for culture or general education seems to animate a larger proportion of adults than the figures for small towns show. Under this category were fourteen per cent of the men and twenty-four per cent of the women. It should be noted that Lorimer's group consisted of persons who were taking part-time courses, while our study is concerned with those who are doing self-directed study or are carrying correspondence courses.

4. EXTENSIVE READERS OF WORTH-WHILE MATERIALS

The information in the preceding section is concerned with *study*, a distinction being made between that process and *reading*. As one might expect, the number of readers is larger than that of actual students—the number of readers being 147 (90 men and 57 women) as compared with 127 persons who are studying. The figures are far from gratifying; they mean that less than one person in a hundred is known as a wide reader, that in a town of 500 we cannot expect to find a half dozen such persons. Indeed, in four towns the reports showed none. It may be admitted that the question in regard to the number of "persons known as wide readers of worthwhile material" is rather vague, that there is no objective standard of "wide reader"; but, on the other hand, it may be said that in the small town the habits of most people are generally known and that the person who "reads a lot" is recognized and classified by his fellow citizens.

The nature of the reading is varied. Current magazines (40) stand at the top of the frequency list, followed in order by serious fiction

(34), general reading (33), politics (20), and religion (16). If history (14) and biography (4) are put together, the combination (18) will crowd religion out of fifth place. Business (10) is the only other field that is mentioned more than five times. In addition to the subjects already mentioned, the list includes education, women's problems, psychology, travel, poetry (which has one devotee), science, drama, current topics, and English and American literature. There was not a single field that was represented in every town, not even fiction. It should be understood that this statement does not mean that there are whole communities in which nobody reads poetry, science, history, etc. But it does mean that there are no persons who are known as wide consumers of such products.

Gray and Munroe (*The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults*, p. 266) state that "fiction is the most popular type of book read, although biography and travel also are in considerable demand." Lorimer's study of Brooklyn (*The Making of Adult Minds in a Metropolitan Area*, p. 133) shows a preponderance of interest in fiction. These two studies, made in metropolitan areas, show that the small town person is like his large city cousin in his fondness for fiction. It seems, however, that the small town mind has more interest in politics and religion.

5. FACILITIES FOR ADULT EDUCATION

a. *Libraries*.—Of fifty towns twenty-four were without libraries, two had private libraries, and one used the school library. The other twenty-three had public libraries. Service is usually quite limited, only six of the institutions furnishing service every day. The others are open one, two, or three afternoons a week. The range of books is necessarily small; but the educational value of the libraries is generally reported as high by the investigators. In one case, however, the report stated that there was practically no educational value. This library was almost entirely of fiction. The fact that a town has no library does not necessarily mean that it has no library service. Through the State Library Commission it is possible to participate in a loan service that brings books into the community at regular intervals.

b. *Farm Bureau*.—Although the Farm Bureau is, as its name indicates, an organization for farmers, it touches the life of the small town so closely that it is included in this study. Of fifty-one towns, only six reported no Farm Bureau. Since the work is educational for

the most part, the investigators were asked to give their judgment of its value. Their estimates were: much in twenty-six cases, little in thirteen, and none in four. In two cases no judgment was ventured.

c. *Parent-Teacher Associations.*—These associations were found in twenty-six of fifty-one towns. It is reported that the activities are more for the purpose of entertainment than of education. Quite often the organization furnishes funds for school purposes. The value of the work as estimated by the investigators was much in nine cases, little in thirteen, and none in four. In spite of this low opinion of the educational value of the P.T.A., it seems likely that it renders an important service in keeping patrons in touch with the school and in interpreting it to them.

d. *Other groups.*—Four child study groups are reported, of which three are seriously interested in the work. The other is largely social. No parent education groups are mentioned; but this does not mean that no such groups exist in small towns. Six garden study clubs are reported, of which three are judged to have much value. Of four music study clubs, three are said to have great value. Eleven literary clubs show eight as having much value and three none. In addition to the foregoing the following are mentioned once each: art study club, League of Women Voters, P.E.O. study club, history and travel club, and teachers' training class.

6. OBSTACLES TO ADULT EDUCATION

The question proposed to the investigators was, "What are the obstacles which keep the adults of your community from making greater efforts at self-development through study?" A tabulation of items follows.

Lack of incentive	20	Community attitude	8
Lack of time	12	Lack of facilities	5
Lack of money	11	Lack of foundation	5
Laziness and procrastination	11	Too much amusement	5
Lack of leaders	8	Indifference	3
Self-satisfaction	8		

With the exception of lack of time and lack of money, the foregoing obstacles do not seem to have any great validity. The writer's *Survey of Facilities for Adult Education in Iowa* (University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 325, October 1, 1933) shows clearly that any adult in the state who has a serious desire for improvement through study can without great difficulty find means suited to his intellectual

development and financial status. But on the other hand it must be admitted that a person who lives in a community which has no library, no zeal for adult education, no leaders, and too much amusement is badly handicapped. In this connection it should be remembered that sixty per cent of small town homes have radios and seventy-five per cent have automobiles, but only six per cent have more than one hundred books. The means of entertainment and distraction show a great preponderance over the facilities for serious study.

7. THE SCHOOL AS A POSSIBLE CENTER OF ADULT EDUCATION

“In many communities the school is a center of adult education. What do you think of the possibilities in your community? Consider leadership, expense, interests (possible fields of study), and available resources.” The replies of the investigators were not encouraging. Thirty-six estimated the possibility of such a use of the local school as slight, nine as fair, and six as good. Eleven pessimistically stated that there were no adequate resources—a statement which is probably quite doubtful, especially in view of the fact that the Farm Bureau is already operating in nearly all these communities. But the interpretation probably is that there is lack of local libraries, teachers are already overburdened, there is no desire to secure and pay for outside service, and there are already organizations enough to provide activities for those who are really interested in the matter.

8. EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ADULTS

The material secured under this head came in response to the question, “In what fields do you think that the adults of your community are in need of education?” The views expressed are undoubtedly a better representation of subjective attitudes than of the needs of the communities. Nevertheless, they are interesting as indicating the school man’s judgment of his community. The needs most frequently mentioned were in the fields of economics and government, agriculture (9), general business (8), economics (6), investments (4), insurance (2), taxation (7), government (10). We find also a rather miscellaneous list consisting of home economics (8), child welfare (8), music appreciation (7), community spirit (6), morals (6), literature (5), religion (4), recreation (3), coöperation (3), public health (3), world problems (2), use of leisure (2), art (2), manners (1), English (1), sociology (1), and value of education (1).

As a method of learning the educational needs of adults, the question used was rather futile. Nevertheless, the fact that lack in a certain field was great enough to cause the investigator to notice it indicates that real needs were mentioned. A reasonable supposition is that we have a list of genuine needs, but that such needs are much more extensive than the frequency figures indicate. For example, to assume that only seven of the communities need education concerning taxation is ridiculous. A similar assumption in regard to the other items would be just as foolish. It seems reasonable also to infer from the frequency list that the most pressing educational problems of the present are political and economic.

9. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

In lack of interest in the study of political, economic, and other social problems and in the pursuit of general culture or self-development, the small town is quite like the large city. Inertia, lack of ambition, interest in the trivial, and neglect of opportunities are general human characteristics not peculiar to any population grouping. The idea that the small town is qualitatively worse than the large city is not borne out by this study nor by any other with which it may be compared. Quantitatively, of course, the large city has the advantage. This is of importance when it is desirable to organize groups for various activities; but it is of no consequence whatever to the person who has the ambition and intelligence to push ahead under his own power. In fact, the small town has an advantage in the fact that it offers fewer distractions.

If the aim of education is to provide subject matter that will create or nourish interests that will lead to a lifelong continuation of important developmental activities, then it seems that our present system is quite futile. Such lifelong continuation is rarely found.

CHAPTER VIII

RELATION OF COMMUNITY TO SCHOOL

The social background of the small-town school, as portrayed in this study, is likely to give the impression that that background is exclusively local. All the assigned topics were limited to the immediate environment. Indeed, the only suggestion of a larger background was an inquiry concerning the extent to which the small town depended upon the outside world for various commodities. It must be understood, therefore, that a comprehensive consideration of the school demands not merely a study of the facts learned about local conditions but also a view of many conditions in the state and nation—and the world in general. However, the limitations of this study make it wise to place most emphasis upon the local environment, but without forgetting that the local social unit is a part of the Great Society.

In this chapter, we shall consider briefly some of the ways in which the local environment bears upon school aims, support, control, organization, administration, content, method, and the teaching staff.

1. AIMS

The small-town school is not merely a local agency; it is the servant or instrument of the state in which it is situated. Even though almost all the funds for support are derived locally, the state of Iowa (or whatever the commonwealth may be) has the major part in determining the aims of schools, as well as their content, organization, and various other matters. Nevertheless, it may be worth while to consider some of the aims that grow out of community life, even though the very same aims may be justified by the needs of the larger world.

The facts which this study brings out concerning similarities, differences, coöperation, and conflict emphasize the idea that one of the aims of the local school should be the mastery of a common body of integrating knowledge and attitudes. We are accustomed to dealing with this idea on a grand scale, for example, in giving all Americans such elements of common culture as will increase national solidarity. We may profitably consider the matter from the local point of view. Each community has its peculiarities which make it different from every other community. Early struggles, current ambitions, and com-

munity achievements give a setting which the school should learn to incorporate in its aims. In striving to be an epitome of the best in American life, it should not overlook the desirability of including among its aims the assimilation and use of various vitalizing elements of community history, aspiration, and accomplishment.

That the aims of the small-town school should be adapted more or less to local conditions seems hardly debatable—even though the fact of mobility of population is considered. But to infer that the local environment really does have much weight in the conscious stating or modifying of aims is certainly unjustifiable. As the school is in actual operation its aims are those of the superintendent, principal, and teachers. The preparation of these persons has tended to give them broad general ideas of the aims of education; and usually their tenure is so short that they are hardly likely to become sufficiently “localized” to see any need for purely local modifications of aims.

The actually operating aims of the school are modified undoubtedly by the aims which parents have in sending their children and the aims which the children themselves have. This may or may not mean a conflict. Thus, the child and his parents may aim to use the school as a stepping stone to a higher economic status, while the school aims to produce better citizens. There is no necessary conflict of ideas. A conflict might arise at any time, however, in evaluating the activities employed for the realization of the two differing aims. In spite of this possibility, we may take it for granted that there is little analysis of the content of aims. The child goes to school to “get an education” and the school is provided in order that he may succeed in such getting. The meaning of *education* is not likely to be analyzed.

2. SUPPORT

Willingness to support a high school seems to have no correspondence with population or economic resources. The chapter on Economic Resources shows tremendous variations among the small towns studied—regardless of the measure used. But these communities all have high schools. Perhaps there ought to be a minimum limit of resources below which no district should be allowed to attempt to maintain a school of more than six or eight grades; but local ambition and pride would be greatly irked by such a restriction. Furthermore, willingness to support some kind of high school (even though it may be meagerly equipped and inadequately staffed) is undoubtedly fostered

by the belief that it is better for the youth of the community to have something than to have nothing.

There is a strong tendency to believe that the quality of a school can be measured in terms of the funds available for its support. In a crude way it is true, of course, that more money means better equipment and teachers of more training and experience. But it is a great fallacy to infer a uniform correspondence between these items and the quality of the school. The real question is not, Can the town of limited resources have a high school that is as good as the best? The question that needs to be answered is, Can it have a school that is worth while? Out of this arises another question, Can the resources available be used (with or without coöperation with other units) to secure better education for youth than that now provided?

As small-town schools face the problem of support in the future, attention ought to be given to this fact (p. 12): this study shows that only forty-five per cent of adults have children in public schools in the towns considered. In the past it has been almost universally true in Iowa that schools have been supported without much opposition. Here and there an exception has merely aroused suspicion and contempt. In the future, we are likely to find increasing opposition, especially on the part of those people who see no immediate return in the education of their own children. To offset this will continue to be the fact that practically all adults have had and will have had their own schooling at public expense. To this may be added the hope that the level of education for the population of the state will continue to rise. We have already reached a condition in which illiteracy is almost negligible. We may soon have an adult population which has none (except the very old) who have not finished elementary school. Already so large a percentage of our adults have had at least some high school work that we may aspire to a population which is on the level of high school graduation with an increasing number of persons who will have had all or part of a college course.

It does not seem unreasonable to infer that we shall gradually have an attitude toward school support that is more intelligent and more deeply rooted, regardless of future fluctuations in economic conditions.

3. CONTROL

Ultimately the schools of the state are controlled by the people expressing their will through the General Assembly. What a school may

do or not do, whether it may exist at all, who may attend, who may teach—these and various other items are ultimately matters of state control. We are interested here, however, with problems of more immediate control; for, regardless of central authority in the General Assembly under the Constitution, much of the control of the school is immediately local.

In a general way, the quality of control is to be inferred from the quality of the local population. This study of the small town has shown that parents (who are most immediately concerned) are, on the average, not much beyond the eighth-grade level. Since all these towns have high schools, it seems discouraging to find that the controlling power is in the hands of people who have not reached the level of the school which is controlled. But the significance of the bare facts may be greatly overestimated.

We must also consider two other facts. In the first place, it is a well-established tendency for parents to demand for their children more schooling than they themselves have had. Thus their education pressures and control are toward better schools. In the second place, the study of small-town leaders showed that very few such persons have less than eighth-grade schooling, while nearly half are college graduates.

Unfortunately no place was found in this investigation for a special study of members of school boards. It is not likely, however, that they are on a level lower than other community leaders.

In addition to the foregoing, there is a rather intangible set of conditions that may control in unseen and unrecognized ways. It is especially true, not so much in the administrative aspects of the school as in the quality of work accomplished, that local conditions exercise great control. In the long run, it seems certain that such control of quality (even though unintentional) is of greater importance than mere control of finances, of selection of teachers, or of administrative details. One might infer that the school is but a reflection of the community; and to a certain extent the inference is true. But we must consider another element. The real control of the school is immediately in the hands of the superintendent and teachers. In this matter, the state exercises a power of great importance. Through requirements for certification the community is prevented from selecting a teaching staff that is not appreciably above the local level of schooling. A force is thus introduced which will, in spite of obstacles, gradually change the quality of the controlling population.

The few backward communities that are still to be found here and there are in a statewide environment which makes it impossible for them to work continually to their own detriment. To be sure, the amount of local control which is exerted may long continue to handicap the oncoming generation; but there is hope that the continual interaction of the local and the statewide forces will develop a system of control which is fair to all kinds of children in all kinds of communities.

4. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

It must be admitted that local conditions seem to have little or no bearing upon school organization. Aside from the fact that local wealth and school population determine whether or not the district shall have merely an elementary school or shall have also a high school, there is no evidence that organization is adapted to local conditions. Indeed, it may be absurd to think that such adaptation is desirable or possible in small towns. By tradition, we have the eight-year elementary school and the four-year high school. As a result of various criticisms of this scheme, the junior high school has appeared with a six-three-three or six-two-four type of organization. There is no evidence, however, that such changes have come about as a result of considering local conditions. The junior high school is designed to meet certain pupil needs whether at Metropolia or Ruralia.

Although the form of the school organization may bear no close relationship to any careful consideration of local educational needs, the establishment of a junior high school may come as a result of local rivalry and imitation. The fact that Community X has modified its school organization may arouse in Community Y a feeling that progress and prestige demand similar action there. But this idea of imitativeness must be greatly discounted because of the fact that very few small towns in Iowa have attempted to introduce the junior high school. According to the Peterson, Lindquist, Jeep, and Price study of *Teacher Supply and Demand in Iowa* (p. 102) only two per cent of junior high school teachers are in towns of less than fifteen hundred.

The extent to which organization falls into a general, rather than a local, scheme is shown strikingly by the fact that a town school, no matter how small, has both a superintendent and a principal. Even though the superintendent is one of the high school teachers, as he

must necessarily be in the small town, some other person is called the principal.

In the administration of the small-town school there can be little genuine supervision of teaching. The superintendent generally has a rather heavy teaching load while that of the so-called principal is even heavier. Local tradition is usually such that no supervision is expected. A teacher is expected to be able to teach without the guiding influence of superintendent or principal. Yet, if supervision is of real importance in the administration of a school, the small town is the place where it is most needed. The reason for this can be found in the fact that small towns, with their slight economic resources, are generally (not always) compelled to content themselves with teachers who are little more than beginners and who are none-too-well qualified by training or experience.

Since the small town is a place where everyone knows everyone else and where school affairs are an open book to the public, the administrator's job is likely to be complicated by gratuitous advice, malicious gossip, and public sentiment. The professional aspects of administration are then made difficult by extra-official or super-official forces of varying strength. The superintendent, in addition to administering the affairs of a school, must learn the art of making and molding public opinion.

5. CONTENT AND METHOD

Again we face the fact that the local school is the agent of the state—not merely a community concern. Consequently it is but natural that the subjects included in elementary and secondary schools should show great uniformity regardless of the size of the town. To be sure, the large cities have greater range of content; but the small towns go as far as they can in choosing the same subjects. And so far as values of subjects are concerned, there is little reason for attempting to do more than make minor local adaptations. Most of the studies in elementary and secondary schools are selected because of their supposed general value. They are expected to have value whether the pupils spend their later lives in Iowa or Alaska. Such subjects as the three R's, history, geography, algebra, and Latin illustrate this idea. Agriculture is a noticeable exception; but it is not purely local in its significance.

The real adaptation of content and method to local needs and conditions comes and should come largely through the use of the im-

mediate environment to enrich and vitalize the subjects that are placed in the curriculum. Although teachers have for generations been urged to take materials from the immediate environment of their pupils, the idea will still stand emphasis. Teachers who have no idea of bringing into class anything outside the textbooks will not realize the fact that algebra and arithmetic problems are to be found in street and playground, that composition themes are plentiful in the activities of everyday life, and that the fundamentals of civics find illustrations in local affairs; but the superior teacher realizes all this and turns the stream of community life into the channels of the school.

To a certain extent the methods of teaching and of study may be modified by attempts to make use of local material. Undoubtedly more attention will be given to overcoming the disease of verbalism through the use of the near and familiar. In some cases the project method will find increased use because of the relationships between study and the immediately surrounding concrete world.

6. THE STUDENT BODY

The membership of the student body is determined partly by the compulsory attendance laws of the state and partly by local conditions. These local conditions have much to do with the quality of the students. Aside from the matter of inherited capacities, what the student is depends very largely on his immediate environment. Home conditions have much to do in the determining of his interests and in providing materials with which he may supplement his school work. Community attitude toward schools, education, and life values exerts a strong influence upon children and do much to make or mar the school. In some communities (not many), pool halls, improperly managed public dances, and looseness of morals have a harmful influence upon the student body and also upon young people who might well be in school.

Attendance at school is determined to a great extent by local environment. Whether pupils shall be regular and prompt or the opposite cannot be controlled entirely by the school. Home conditions and various community pressures have much to do with this matter. Likewise the length of the period during which pupils attend school is determined largely by local conditions. Information received from our investigators shows that in some communities practically all pupils proceed from eighth grade to high school and finish the course

given by that institution, while in other communities about half of the eighth-grade pupils go on into high school and only about a third of these persist to the end of the course.

Within the student body, many relationships are influenced by local conditions. Group friendships and antipathies among adults find their way into the school and make pupil relationships easy or difficult.

7. THE TEACHING STAFF

The certification of teachers is controlled by the state; but the actual selection of the person to fill any particular position is a local matter. Money available, educational standards, religious conditions, business rivalries, and local schisms play their part in the choice of teachers. Legally such matters have no status; but in actual practice they exert a force that must be recognized. What the large city gains by its attempt to select teachers on a purely professional basis the small town is likely to lose on account of the items mentioned. But perhaps there may be some slight compensation for the loss. Such teachers as are selected may, because of the process of selection, fit the better in the community environment. And it may be remarked that such adaptation is of very great importance in the success of the teacher.

What has been said of the selection of teachers applies as well to tenure. How well the teacher succeeds is fundamental in reappointment; but success is not entirely dependent upon excellent work in the school room. The community must be pleased in other ways. What the teacher does in the actual work for which he is employed is an open book for all to read just as his daily goings and comings are known of all men. Consequently discussion and critical comment may have much to do with the length of his stay in the community. To be sure, there can be no defence of the idea that the teacher is to be judged by any standard other than the professional; but it is one of the hard facts of life that in the small town the teacher is employed by the entire community and is judged and misjudged accordingly.

In a negative way it may be said that not having adequate financial resources causes the small town to lose many of the benefits of long teacher tenure. This fact applies particularly in the matter of holding superior teachers. Their excellence soon becomes known and they are easily tempted to enter the service of larger towns.

In view of such facts it would seem to behoove the small town to use all available means to make conditions attractive for teachers. Even where the teacher is not handicapped by rivalries, jealousies, gossip, and pettiness, there still remains the competition of the larger and richer community. To overcome this handicap it should be the settled policy of the smaller town to make teaching and living distinctly attractive. Parent-Teacher Associations might find in this problem something worthy of their consideration.

8. SUMMARY

Community and school are in a process of continual interaction. What the community is today has great influence in determining the school; while the school does much to make the community of the future. In neither case is it true that local conditions are the only forces that are operative. Both community and school are being influenced continually by the larger world. Otherwise we should find little change from generation to generation. All would remain on a dead level. Herein lies the importance of two facts: (1) the school is an agency of the state; and (2) the community is a part of a larger society in which travel, commerce, and various other forms of communication are continually spreading new ideas.

APPENDIX

STUDY OUTLINES

I. GENERAL PRELIMINARY SURVEY¹

- I. Topography. Make map.
- II. Natural resources. Make list and give brief description.
- III. Population
 1. Sex distribution
 2. Age levels—esp. 7-14 and 25-54
 3. Nationality and race
 4. Illiteracy
 5. Mobility
 6. Educational levels
 7. Marital status of adults
 8. Retired farmers
 9. Lawless element
 10. Church element
- IV. Institutions. Make a list.
- V. Educational significance of the facts.

II. ECONOMIC BACKGROUND²

- Name..... Town.....
- I. Population of community (1930 census)
 - II. Taxable wealth of school district \$.....
(If not available in Superintendent's Office obtain from County Superintendent or County Auditor.)
Total tax levy for educational purposes (mills)
 - III. Number and kind of money making establishments. (Circle the correct number)
 - A. Stores
 1. General 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7 (include 5 and 10¢ stores if any)
 2. Grocery (include delicatessens) 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7
 3. Feed (exclude elevators) 0—1—2—3—4
 4. Jewelry 0—1—2—3—4
 5. Clothing (men's) 0—1—2—3—4
 6. Cigars and tobacco (exclude pool halls) 0—1—2—3
 7. Hardware 0—1—2
 8. Meat 0—1—2—3
 9. Dry Goods, ladies furnishings 0—1—2—3—4

¹This outline was used merely as a practice exercise and general preview.

²This form was prepared by Mr. C. E. Howell as the basis of his master's thesis. It is consequently more elaborate than the one used in class.

- 10. Furniture 0—1—2
- 11. Electric supplies (include radio) 0—1—2—3
- 12. Music and musical instruments 0—1—2—3
- 13. Drugs 0—1—2—3—4—5
- 14. Chain stores (include all of all types even if previously listed) 0—1—2—3—4—5—6—7
- B. Banks—State 1. 2.
 National 1. 2.
 (Give capital of each)
- C. Barber Shops 0—1—2—3—4
- D. Motion picture theatres 0—1—2—3
 Approximate total capacity
- E. Hotels 0—1—2—3
- F. Cafes, lunch rooms 0—1—2—3—4
- G. Newspapers, print shops 0—1—2—3—4
- H. Garages, repair shops 0—1—2—3—4—5
- I. Laundries 0—1—2
- J. Cleaners and dyers 0—1—2—3
- K. Dairies 0—1—2—3—4—5
- L. Filling stations
 1. Individually owned 0—1—2—3—4—5
 2. Owned by large corporation 0—1—2—3—4—5
- M. Produce companies 0—1—2—3—4
- N. Elevators 0—1—2—3—4
- O. Hatcheries 0—1—2—3
- P. Manufacturing establishments 0—1—2—3—4
- Q. Public Utilities
 No
 1. R.R.
 2. Gas Rate per 1000 cu. ft.
 3. Light Rate per K.W. hr.
 4. Water Rate per 1000 gal.
 5. Telephone Rate per mo.
 (residence phone)
- R. Business schools 0—1—2—3
- S. Pool Halls, bowling alleys, target ranges, etc. 0—1—2—3—4
- IV. Occupations and number of persons engaged in each. *Adhere strictly to the following classification, including all workers in it.*
- A. Farmer Men Women
 (Include women only when engaged in farming for themselves.)
- B. Agent, salesman, realtor, office worker
- C. Banker, financial agent
- D. Contractor, building tradesmen
 (Carpenter, bricklayer, plumber, tinner, painter, decorator)
- E. Government and public service
- F. Merchant, dealer, proprietor

- G. Professions (doctor, lawyer, dentist, teacher, preacher)
- H. Railroad employee (include all types; do not include R.R. employees in any other classification)
- I. Mining (actual miners only; include other workers for mining companies in their proper classification)
- Men Women
- J. Trades other than building (skilled mechanics of all kinds, electricians, blacksmiths, etc.)
- K. Manufacturing (include only those in executive positions all others in proper classifications)
- L. Unskilled labor (all workers not otherwise classified)
- M. Home-makers (Include only such women as are *responsible* for the care of a home. There will be but *one* in each home.)
- N. Total _____
-
- V. Percentage of total population engaged in gainful occupation
(Divide grand total of N (above) by population given in I. Correct to nearest whole per cent.)
- VI. Number of *unemployed adults*
 (Include only those adults who are physically and mentally able to carry on some gainful occupation. Do not include men or women who are retired.)
- VII. Number of adults living on income not derived directly from their own labor (include only those who do not engage at present in any gainful occupation) Men..... Women.....
- VIII. Natural Resources (Underline kinds of natural resources present in your community. Opposite *each one present* check the possibility of further development in terms as noted. *Place only one check* after each resource.)
- | Possibilities for further development | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------|------|
| Great | Small | None |
| 1. Land | | |
| 2. Water power | | |
| 3. Timber | | |
| 4. Coal | | |
| 5. Oil | | |
| 6. Other minerals | | |
- IX. Dependence of the community on outside world.
- A. Underline the things for which the community must depend *entirely* on outside sources. Check those for which it depends *in part*.
- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Fuel | 4. Laundry (commercial) |
| 2. Light and power | 5. Banking |
| 3. Telephone | 6. Dry cleaning |

7. Bakery goods
8. Theatre
9. Other amusements
10. All types of manufactured articles, including processed food and clothing
- B. To what extent is the town dependent for its existence upon the surrounding farming country (*Circle* the approximate per cent)
- 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
- X. Working hours. (*Circle* the approximately correct figure in each case)
- A. Farmer 8—9—10—11—12—13—14—15
B. Agent, salesman, office worker 6—7—8—9—10
C. Banker, financial agent 5—6—7—8—9
D. Contractor, building trades 7—8—9—10
E. Government, public service 7—8—9—10
F. Merchant, dealer, proprietor 8—9—10—11—12—13—14
G. Professional men 6—7—8—9—10
H. Railroad employees 6—7—8—9—10
I. Miners 7—8—9—10—11—12
J. Trades other than building 7—8—9—10—11
K. Unskilled labor 7—8—9—10—11—12
L. Home makers 8—9—10—11—12—13—14—15
- XI. Reasons for working (Number in order of importance the following reasons for working in the most important #1, next #2, etc.)
- Because of ambition
Fear of public opinion
Mere habit
To meet physical needs
Desire for advancement
No reason at all
- XII. What is a minimum living wage in your community for each of the following general groups? (A living wage should be enough to meet physical needs, provide some recreation, education for children, and set up a provision for old age, all within the accepted standards of the group to which the wage earner belongs) *Circle* the approximate minimum amount for each of the following general groups. *Be as accurate* as possible. All amounts are per month.
- Manual workers of all kinds
40—50—55—60—70—75—90—100—110—125
- All types of clerical workers
40—50—60—70—75—90—100—110—125—150
- Professional men and women
70—75—90—100—110—125—150—175—200—250
- XIII. What per cent of the people in each of the groups in number XII receive less than the amount you have checked as a minimum living wage for their group? (*Circle* the nearest approximate correct per cent. *Be accurate*.)
- Manual workers
5—10—15—20—25—30—35—40—50—60—70—80—90

IV. THE CHURCHES

- Name..... Town.....
- I. Names of churches with numbers of members in each.
(Mark with * each church that has a resident pastor. Indicate the approximate seating capacity of each church, the average Sunday attendance (one service only), and add up the total seating capacity and total attendance. Total population of community divided by number of churches equals
- II. Sunday schools
- | Name | Avg. Att. | No. Teachers | Classes for adults
(Men, women, both) |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--|
| What, if any, special classes for training teachers? | | | |
| Sex of teachers: No. of men | | No. of women | |
| Occupations of teachers: Teachers | | Housewives | |
| Farmers | | | |
| List any others | | | |
- III. How keen is church rivalry?
What bearing does it have upon:
1. Selection of members of school board?
 2. Selection of teachers?
 3. School activities?
- IV. Do the churches attempt to interfere in such matters as content of courses of study (e.g., evolution?); conduct of teachers (e.g., dancing, card-playing, etc.)?
- V. Does your school have any religious exercises? If so, what?
- VI. Does your high school give credit for Bible study? If so, under what conditions?
- VII. Does your school call upon local pastors for occasional addresses?; for invocation and benedictions at commencement exercises?.....
- VIII. Does the public school interfere with the work of the churches and Sunday Schools
1. by having special programs on occasions that are distinctly religious (e.g., interference by taking time of children to prepare for a school Christmas program to such an extent that the churches are handicapped in preparing their program)?
 2. by having extra-curricular activities that interfere with the social activities of the churches?
- IX. What is the quality of the schoolwork of children whose parents are church members as compared with that of those children whose parents are not church members? Use seventh and eighth grades for one comparison and high school for a second. Get the actual figures. Do not depend upon your general impression.
- X. Is high school selective upon the basis of church membership of parents? Answer the following:
- Church families
1. Number of children of high school age or older

2. Number of such children in high school now or formerly.....
 $\frac{2}{1}$ divided by $\frac{1}{1}$ equals per cent
- Non-church families
1. As above
 2. As above
 $\frac{2}{1}$ divided by $\frac{1}{1}$ equals per cent
- XI. Is college selective upon the basis of church membership of parents?
 Treat as in exercise X
- Church families
1. Number of children of college age or older
 2. Number of such children in college now or formerly
- $\frac{2}{1}$ divided by $\frac{1}{1}$ equals per cent
- Non-church families
1. As above
 2. As above
 $\frac{2}{1}$ divided by $\frac{1}{1}$ equals per cent
- XII. Is the church an important element in the life of your community or merely a respectable but negligible institution? Give a brief picture of conditions.
- XIII. Indicate the amount of importance attached to each of the following in your community. Try to express the community feeling.
-Belief in the verbal inspiration of the Bible
 -Good will toward others
 -Church attendance
 -Religious observance of Sunday
 -Belief in GodBelief in immortality
 -Contributing to church support
 -Form of baptism
 -Belief in the virgin birth of Jesus
 -Sinfulness of dancing and similar worldly amusements
 -Family worship
 -Church as an instrument of world peace
 -Church as a means of social reform (e.g., prohibition)
 -Disbelief in the theory of organic evolution.
 -Religious revivals
- Use the following system: 0 for no importance; 1 for slight importance; 2 for moderate importance; and 3 for great importance.
- XIV. If possible, learn from local pastors the denominational papers or magazines which have subscribers in your community and the number in each case.
- XV. Get the Sunday School literature for all grades of one school and indicate the following:
- Titles of materials (quarterlies, etc.)
 - Adaptability to pupils
 - Value in promoting religion (rather than merely emphasizing history, literature, geography, sociology, etc.)
 - Emphasis upon denominational peculiarities

V. RECREATION

Name..... Town.....

Under *recreation* include what is ordinarily meant by *play, games, amusements, entertainment, sport, athletics*,—whatever people do for the fun of it. In this paper, however, more attention will be given to the active than to the passive forms of recreation.

- I. Provisions for recreation. Which of the following are provided in your community? State whether public or private provision is made

.....skating rink
athletic field
football field
basketball court
tennis court(s)
golf course
dance hall
motion picture house
school playgrounds

Are the foregoing open on Sundays? If not, why?

Are school playgrounds open during the summer vacation? If not, why?

- II. Estimate the importance of each of the following forms of recreation in your community. Score importance on a scale of 0, 1, 2, 3

.....baseballwalking for pleasure
.....footballautomobiling for pleasure
.....basketballdancing
.....tenniscard playing
.....golfdramatics
.....swimmingcommunity singing, oratorio, etc.
.....skatingcommunity orchestra
.....skiingmotion pictures
.....coastingradio

Add any items of importance and give scores

- III. Recreation patterns. State briefly what is done for recreation by the following groups.

1. Young unmarried men
2. Young married men
3. Young unmarried women
4. Young married women
5. Middle-aged married men
6. Middle-aged married women
7. Old men
8. Old women

- IV. Attitude toward play (hostile, indifferent, actively friendly)

What is the attitude of the churches? Specify.

Of the old generation? Compare with younger generation.

Of various nationality groups? Specify.

What changes (if any) in attitude over a period of twenty or thirty years?

- V. Interest in recreation. To what extent are the following interested in recreation as a community (rather than individual) matter?
 Pastors?
 School superintendent?
 Leading citizens?
- VI. Does your community have any special celebrations, pageants, etc?
 If so, describe briefly.
- VII. The school
1. Does the school have an adequate athletic program? Describe briefly.
 2. Does the school attempt to build up a rational attitude toward play? Characterize briefly.
 3. Does the school attempt to educate the community in such matters as good sportsmanship, proper place of play in life, purpose of athletics? Characterize briefly.
 4. Is the school athletic program affected by community pressure to win? Describe conditions.
 5. Is the school athletic program a benefit or a menace to the school educational program? Discuss briefly.
- VIII. What (if any) antisocial recreations or amusements exist in your community?
- IX. To what extent does recreation in your community contribute to health, sociability, solidarity, or other worth-while ends?

VI. COMMUNITY LEADERS

Name..... Town.....

- I. Who are the outstanding persons of your community in
 1. Political affairs?
 2. Church work?
 3. School affairs (laymen)?
 4. Womens clubs?
 5. Music and other fine arts?
 6. Business?
- II. Who is the most important person in your community? Why?
- III. What persons (if any) are generally considered so important that they must be consulted in regard to practically all proposed activities (and their aid enlisted)? Consider by separate fields if necessary.
- IV. What cases are there (if any) in which support of an idea by one person means opposition by another? Explanation.
- V. Make a detailed study of five community leaders. Consider such matters as: schooling; church membership and attendance; office holding; community service; recreations; hobbies; marital status; economic status; occupation; politics; reading habits; and attitudes concerning such matters as newer subjects in school; dancing; recreation in general; prohibition; college attendance; school support and equipment; parent-teacher association. Add any matters of importance concerning which you can secure accurate information.

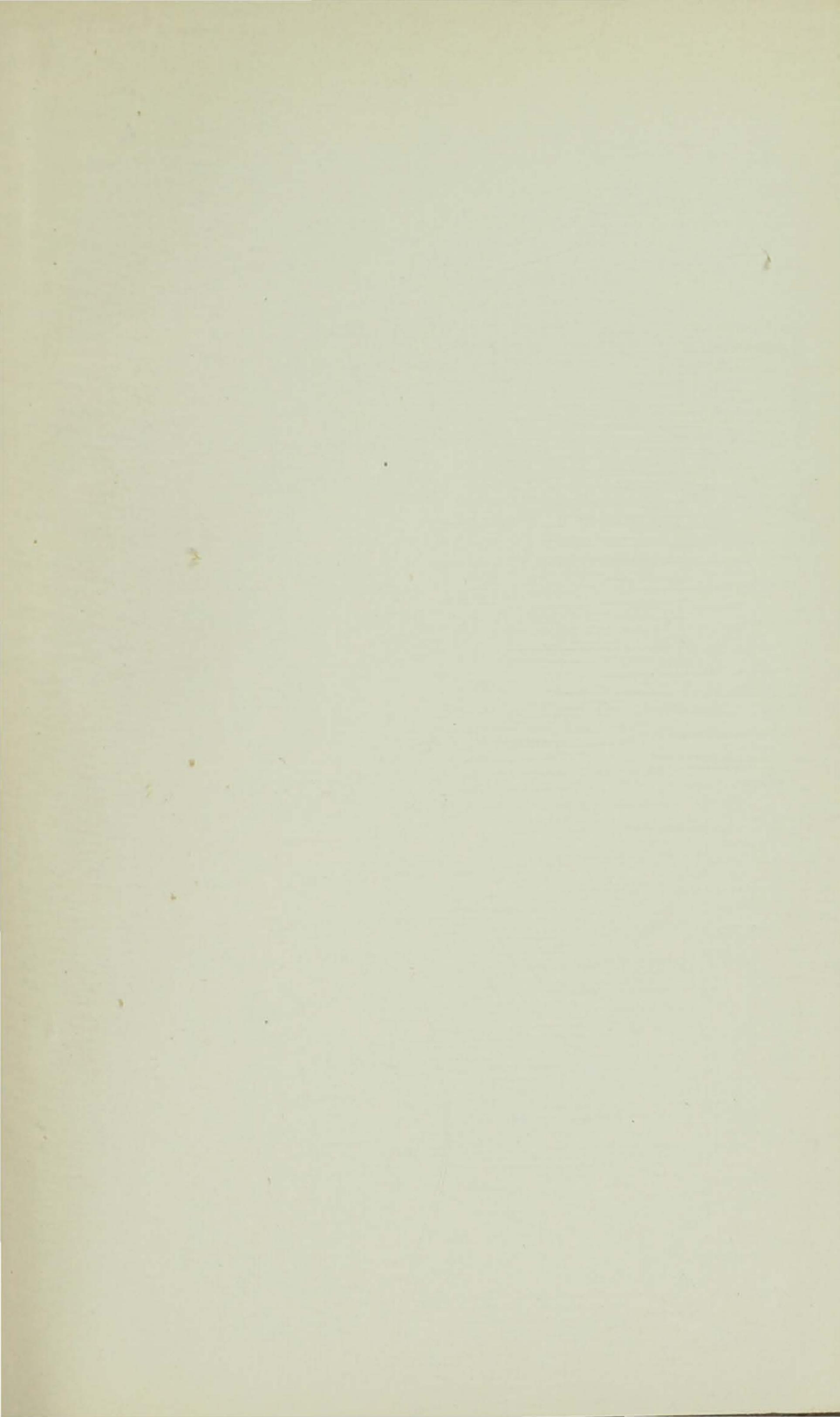
VII. ADULT EDUCATION

Name..... Town.....

Adult education is to be regarded not as the random absorption of ideas and attitudes but as the purposive persistent attempt to get ideas, build up skills, develop appreciations.

- I. What persons (if any) in your community are studying under their own direction or with the guidance of correspondence schools? What are they studying? What are the incentives, conditions, etc. that impel them?
 - II. What persons (if any) in your community are known as wide readers of worth-while material? What is the nature of their reading?
 - III. Which of the following are in operation in your community?

1. Public library	7. Garden study club
2. Private library giving service to members	8. League of Women Voters
3. Farm Bureau	9. Study club in lodge
4. Music study club	10. Parent-Teacher Association
5. Art study club	11. Child study club
6. Literary study club	12. Parent education group
- Describe the work of each of those in operation, giving (if possible)
1. Persons served: sex, occupation, etc.
 2. A detailed statement of activities carried on
 3. Your judgment of the educational value of the activities
- IV. What are obstacles which keep the adults of your community from making greater efforts at self-development through study?
 - V. In many communities the school is a center of adult education. What do you think are the possibilities of your community? Consider leadership, expense, interests (possible fields of study), available resources.
 - VI. In what fields do you think the adults of your community are in need of education? Give reasons.
 - VII. In what way does the random bombardment of ideas in your community have developmental significance?



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