WASTE OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

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WASTE OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

THESIS

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
North Texas State College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

By

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168338
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

The problem of this study is the non-utilization of human resources in the educational system, with concrete emphasis on the relationships between the value of human beings and the waste of human resources.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to seek insight into current American educational problems by examining present-day economic and political thought. It is hoped that such a study will provide a basis for further research on the subject.

Scope of Study

The present study is limited to an inquiry into wasted human resources in the school systems of the United States. Waste can be studied from many viewpoints: waste in consumer buying; waste in the wage-price policies of industries; waste of "natural resources"; waste in advertising. But the type of waste or unused resources to be examined in this study is confined to human beings and their knowledge potentialities in the field of education. No attempt is made to show data
concerning waste of human resources outside of the school. Teacher status and teaching techniques are discussed because of their direct influence on the students in learning. The study may further be classified as an exploration into the field of education, with specific attention to unused human potentialities due to political and economic structure.

Definition of Terms

The two terms used in this study that need explanation are "resources" and "waste."

Aware of the fact that there are unused human resources in education today and that these unused resources are, in effect, wasted, writers in the field of economics and education have presented some documentary evidence of waste. However, to date, there is no theory of waste that can be used as a basis for a complete study. The cause of the non-existence of an adequate theory of waste stems from the fact that there is not a theory of resources from which a satisfactory theory of waste can be formulated. There are several interpretations of the meaning of the terms by writers in the field of economics. The terms "resources" and "waste" can best be defined for use in this research by studying documentary facts pertaining to education and unused human potentialities.

Two conflicting viewpoints of resources and waste are advanced by the classical school of thought and the institutional school of thought.
Adam Smith, the father of classical economics, asserted that prior to the occurrence of production, land, labor, capital, and private property were necessary. And the reason for the combination of these factors of production was for the purpose of pecuniary gain or profit. Because men are self-centered and selfish, they try to better their financial position; and in doing this, they benefit the entire community. They utilize the resources of a community in order to make a profit. With a great number of businessmen operating in this manner, they enter into competition or rivalry—this, according to Smith, was in accordance with natural economic law.

The theory of waste played an important role in this concept of production. However, Smith and his followers expressed their belief in the natural laws of production. Nature is not wasteful; therefore, the laws of nature cannot be wasteful. Any interference with the three factors of production, or with natural economic laws, disrupts the Natural Order; then, and only then, waste occurs. This waste leads to a decline in the amount of wealth of a nation. Likewise, any disturbance of the natural growth of capital (money) causes a decrease in the production of wealth.

This theory of production is the nexus of all orthodox thought. Orthodox economists paid unrelenting attention to the natural laws that were advanced by Smith. If the process of production, competition, self-interest, and private property operated within the scope of natural law,
waste could never exist. Yet, the more sensitive classical economists at that time were being constantly reminded of the problem of waste. Their argument was based on the hypothesis that the natural laws were being disturbed.

Since its inception, classical economic thought has received many rebuttals from various dissenting groups, Utopian Socialists, Marxists, and many others.

War, famine, industrial strife, panic, depression and the like were becoming increasingly apparent under the classical system of thought as outlined by Smith. Also, during the latter part of the eighteenth century, there was an astonishingly large and powerful development of scientific research which enabled writers to examine classical economic thought more realistically.

One of the most prolific writers to question classical economic thought was Thorstein Veblen. He established what is commonly known today as the school of institutional economics. Veblen had only scorn for the theory that natural laws, undisturbed, rule the universe, creating historical events as mere extensions of its all powerful omnipotence. Veblen's theory of production concluded that implements such as tools, machinery, and equipment, fused with man's knowledge, establish the bedrock of resources and production. The accumulation and application of knowledge are the basic matrix of resources.

Veblen acknowledged another quality of mankind that
aids in the process of production. This quality is "idle curiosity" which is "inherent" in man and empowers him to find out about things. Combining man's idle curiosity with his various workman-like activities, knowledge will increase if society maintains a dynamic character. When knowledge expands, that is, when there is no interference or restrictions of man's idle curiosity, the general good affecting society is extended.

However, Veblen was aware of the limitations affecting the evolutionary growth of knowledge. The obstructions that Veblen foresaw took the form of institutions which were deeply entrenched in the minds of the people--these being, in effect, "the cake of custom." As habit and custom become a recurrent force in a society, the institutional pattern comes into view. Once an institution is accepted, it is retained even after it has fulfilled its purported function and can no longer be defended. Such institutions discourage the application of knowledge, the development of human potentialities (technologically), and the utilization of resources; they cause waste.

If society does not discard the institutions that repress knowledge, then community well-being is retarded. If institutional modes are permitted to run their courses, then the waste of knowledge will continue and become so great that it will annihilate the potential advancements of which society is capable. Even though Veblen believed that man is not
capable of ridding himself of the archaic institutions suppressing technological progress, his more able followers have taken the opposite viewpoint; they have argued that man can and will bring about a rational social order through the wide application of knowledge.

Method of Procedure and Sources of Data

The general method of procedure in this study is documentary, analytical, and scientific.

Four major sources of data are used in the study. The first source is a revised study by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company published in 1948 under the direction and statistical guidance of Louis I. Dublin and Alfred J. Lotka in collaboration with Mortimer Spiegelman. Their findings are contained in the book The Money Value of a Man.

The second major source is the extensive survey made by the United States Chamber of Commerce entitled Education, An Investment in People.

The third major source is a study conducted by Benjamin Fine, upon completion of a six months itinerary, evaluating school conditions throughout the United States. His findings originally appeared in a series of twelve articles published in the New York Times. Fine assembled his material in the book Our Children Are Cheated.

The fourth source includes reference material, such as research studies conducted by scholars, writers, and educators in the field of education and economic thought.
Organization of Chapters

In Chapter II a critique of the standard methods of measuring the economic value of human beings is presented.

Chapter III points out some forms of waste affecting students in education. An attempt is made to bring into focus the relations between inequalities, inadequacies, theories and practices in education that create waste of human resources and human potentialities from the viewpoint of wasted knowledge.

Chapter IV attempts to document the waste of human knowledge caused by the existing taboos, theories, and practices influencing the teacher and teacher personnel.

Chapter V presents the summarizations and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER II

MEASURING THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF HUMAN RESOURCES

Concepts of Resources

Important as our "natural" resources are, they do not compare with our human resources. More important resources by far than chemicals, oil, coal, and water are the people of our society who use them. More important than soil and vegetation are the women, men, and children whose lives are sustained by them. In the past considerable attention has been given to the conservation of "natural" resources and to the methods of controlling their waste. Many investigations are on record which show waste in such fields. Much attention is still given to these problems. Yet, little or no attention has been given to the utilization of human resources and its importance to society.

When resources are classified on a broad basis, the terms fund and flow may be employed. The term fund as it applies to resources here refers to those resources which are, in effect, "pockets," for example, coal beds or oil deposits. Zimmerman introduced the flow theory of resources, that is, resources that are continuous in availability. The

\[\text{Erich W. Zimmerman, World Resources and Industries, p. 3.} \]
plants, which take from the soil but give back through themselves and through animals are an example.

A major flow resource is human knowledge. Instead of wearing out with use, it increases with use. This is an entirely new and different type of economic thinking that places emphasis on knowledge (a flow resource) instead of the time-honored fund resource idea. Human beings per se are definitely forms of a flow resource. They are not fund resources because they have the power of reproduction, with accompanying increases of knowledge and ability.

It is through the application of his knowledge of the physical world that man has been able to turn the energies which he has found about him to account, and to utilize them for the solution of those problems with which he has been confronted. Most, if not all, resources which are termed "natural" are not "natural" at all. They have come to be regarded as "resources" only as a consequence of a technological continuum and of the application of technological "know-how" by men.

There is the assumption that many of the new discoveries come about through a "happen-so-process."

But what do we mean by "chance" or "accident"? These words are of course relational. In a sense nothing occurs by chance, but some events are less relevant than others to any given point of reference. In all these cases the point of reference is the previous activities of some individual. The discovery of America was "accidental" with reference to the intentions of Columbus; but it was not accidental that it should have occurred in 1492. The art of shipbuilding, seamanship, and navigation being what they were by the end of the fifteenth
century, somebody was "bound" to have "discovered America" within a decade or so; and this also is true of inventions and discoveries generally.\(^2\)

We can be certain that these arts of shipbuilding, seamanship, and navigation came about through the achievements of man. Only through man's knowledge could chemistry, tank-farming, insulin, penicillin, communications, atomic energy—to name a few—have come to have a definite bearing on the economy in which we live.

Flow resources are probably our only hope for advancement. Only by directing our energies to the education of the human being, the carrier of knowledge, can we attain insight into the complex problems of our society. Only by wide utilization of our human resources can science make it possible for others to benefit by what men have achieved.

Classical economists hold to the fund theory of resources; they believe that resources are limited. They have long believed and worked with the fund theory of the three factors of production—land, labor, and capital. The scientific theory holds to the flow theory of resources. According to this theory, man's productive powers stem from his peculiar make-up and abilities. For example, the written language, an invention of mankind, allows man to record his knowledge and to scatter it throughout the world.

There is a marked growth in the scientific attitude

toward facts concerning human beings, the means of obtaining and measuring these facts, and of learning their significance by reliable statistical methods. The sciences of economics, sociology, and psychology are gradually emerging from the realm of tradition, superstition, and prejudice. However, studies in the social sciences may never possess the accuracy of the physical sciences. The problems of human sciences do not differ in kind from those of the physical sciences; they differ only in their degree of complexity. The methods of research which have brought enlightenment to one will ultimately bring similar results to the other.

In the early days of the oil industry there was a great waste of this fund resource because of man's limited knowledge in this field. However, through scientific research and technological advancements, man has turned the oil industry from a fund resource to a flow resource. With the knowledge of the energies around him, man has lifted chemistry from obscurity and has been able to produce useful energies even after many types of resources were exhausted. This was especially noticeable during World War II when rubber from Japanese-held islands was no longer accessible to the United States. Scientists immediately set out to produce synthetic rubber on a mass production basis.

The history of every material is the same. It is one of novel combination of existing devices.

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and materials in such a fashion as to constitute a
new device or a new material or both. This is what
it means to say that natural resources are defined
by the prevailing technology, a practice which is
now becoming quite general among economists to the
further confusion of old ways of thinking (since
it involves a complete revision of the concept of
"scarcity" which must now be regarded as also de-
finite by technology and not by "nature").

It would appear that "natural resources" are non-
existent until man combines his knowledge with the materials
around him. It is becoming evident that human beings are
our most important resource and that the proper utilization
of this resource is the appropriate economic goal. It is
at this point that criticism must be directed to the tra-
ditional thinking that has attempted to set a standard of
measurement for human resources. This standard of measure-
ment is the next consideration of this study.

Criticism of the Standard Methods of Measuring the
Economic Value of Man

Many attempts have been made to set a money value on
things, including human beings. Following World War II,
statisticians figured that the nation's property was worth
roughly \$450,000,000,000. In 1932, during the depression,
the nation's property was valued at \$250,000,000,000.

These figures give a value to property in terms of
dollars during two different periods in our nation's his-
tory. These figures are merely terms of monetary standards

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4 Ayres, op. cit., p. 113.
5 Harry E. Flynn and Floyd E. Perkins, Conservation of
the Nation's Resources, p. 235.
set by man himself. Studies by life insurance companies have evaluated the entire population in terms of dollars. By dividing the number of dollars by the total population, these studies purport to show, with some degree of accuracy, the value of each human being in terms of dollars. Since the period of William Petty, many notions of economic thought have included man in the category of fixed capital, because like capital, man requires an expense and serves to repay that expense with a profit.  

This profit, however, is computed on a monetary basis, whereby people in all types of professions and occupations are scaled on a pecuniary ladder, which is presumed to correlate perfectly with the services which they render society.

Placing human beings under the heading of "capital" on a monetary basis implies that the greater the training cost of a person, the greater his income—hence, the greater his worth to society.

In the writings of Alfred Marshall, founder of Neo-Classical economics, capital is defined as that portion of the stock of a nation which is kept or employed with a view to profit in the production and distribution of wealth.  

Marshall also uses capital and wealth synonymously. 

"... there is clear evidence that we should speak of

---


capital when considering things as agents of production; as subjects of consumption and as possession.⁸

A critical review of Marshall’s analysis of capital and wealth brings up a clear-cut assumption that man’s knowledge, capacities, and abilities are the foundations of all production, all consumption, and all factors increasing the welfare of society.⁹

In most of the insurance surveys which are being made today, the value of man is measured from statistical data collected, edited, analyzed, and published for the sole purpose of attaching a dollar value to man. There are several charts and graphs in print which show the value of various occupations and their relative worth to society in terms of monetary appraisals.¹⁰ When the incomes are in excess of $10,000, the figures are excluded from these charts because, in most instances, the income is obtained from invested capital. When such investment takes the form of a commercial enterprise in which the owner takes an active part, it is quite impossible to distinguish clearly the amount of income which is the immediate reward of administrative activity, and the amount attributable to the control of the business.¹¹

All insurance surveys are made with the assumption that

those men whose worth to society is indicated outside the
measures of income are to be classified as exceptional men.

There have always been and always will be those
who regardless of their personal gains, contribute
immeasurably to the good of the community. In such
cases it is not so much the value of the man to his
immediate dependents that interests us, as his value
to the community at large.12

If the idle curiosity of Jenner had not been aroused
about the diseases of human beings, the discovery of vacci-
nation to combat smallpox might not have appeared until dec-
ades later. Pasteur gave us relief from rabies and other
knowledge that enabled the medical profession to prevent
numerous deaths. The young physician Davenport spent many
hours of work and research in order to reduce the number of
deaths of expectant mothers. It was he who admonished the
doctors to clean their hands before delivering an infant.
His appeals went unheard, and he finally retired to an insti-
tution for the insane, to die in poverty, despite the eco-
nomic value of his work. There was the medical doctor who
used all preceding knowledge of medical research to formulate
the drug we know today as penicillin. Can any insurance com-
pany set a dollar value on these men, whom we all know as
great benefactors of mankind?

Waste Revealed by Accurate Means of Measuring
Human Resources

The data presented by Dublin and Lotka in their extensive
research presumably proves that men with the highest incomes

12 Ibid., p. 81.
are worth most to society. In a survey conducted by the Securities and Exchange Commission and the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, the figures in Table 1 were given as comparisons of income salaries between employers and employees.

### Table 1

**Salaries of Executives in Some Large Corporations and Wages in the Same Industries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Company</th>
<th>Name of Officer</th>
<th>Average Weekly Salary of Officer for 1938</th>
<th>Average Weekly Wage in Industry April, 1939</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Can</td>
<td>H. W. Phelps</td>
<td>$2,915.38</td>
<td>$23.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. H. Baker</td>
<td>1,432.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M. J. Sullivan</td>
<td>866.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Tobacco</td>
<td>Geo. Hill</td>
<td>6,372.08</td>
<td>16.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P. M. Hahn</td>
<td>3,401.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>V. Riggio</td>
<td>3,400.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaconda Copper</td>
<td>C. F. Kelly</td>
<td>3,249.42</td>
<td>27.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J. R. Robbins</td>
<td>1,587.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R. E. Decoyer</td>
<td>1,246.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coca-Cola</td>
<td>R. W. Woodruff</td>
<td>3,135.58</td>
<td>33.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J. A. Sibley</td>
<td>1,255.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H. Jones</td>
<td>1,057.46</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>General Electric</td>
<td>O. D. Young</td>
<td>4,720.13</td>
<td>25.57</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gerard Swope</td>
<td>4,720.13</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. X. Wilson</td>
<td>1,426.10</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>General Motors</td>
<td>A. P. Sloan, Jr</td>
<td>3,162.50</td>
<td>32.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W. S. Knudsen</td>
<td>2,393.56</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. F. Kettering</td>
<td>1,599.48</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. S. Kresge</td>
<td>R. R. Williams</td>
<td>1,716.35</td>
<td>17.85</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. B. Tuttle</td>
<td>1,716.35</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S. S. Kresge</td>
<td>961.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>Montgomery Ward</td>
<td>S. L. Avery</td>
<td>1,951.73</td>
<td>21.28</td>
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<td></td>
<td>R. H. Folger</td>
<td>1,625.79</td>
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<td></td>
<td>F. M. Fosom</td>
<td>1,355.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard Brands</td>
<td>Jos. Wilshire</td>
<td>2,431.73</td>
<td>16.13</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T. L. Smith</td>
<td>1,458.88</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>H. A. Oswald</td>
<td>1,166.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures are not to be interpreted as a plea for social reform; they merely document the Dublin and Lotka sophism that more money made indicates more worth to society.

It is not surprising that one writer feels as bitterly as he does.

Let me have the opportunity to labor, the opportunity of which you hold the keys. I can produce more than my keep. All I produce shall belong to you; and I will be content with the bare satisfaction of my animal needs. I will ask for little or no leisure. I and my class, we will live in a round of unceasing toil; and all we produce shall be yours, provided only you allow us back out of it a bare living.13

Comparing the $6,372.08 weekly salary of George C. Hill, a respectable tobacco dispenser, with that of any college scientist might well lead to the belief that a harmful drug is more important to the well-being of society than a cure for cancer. It is also futile to compare the money gains of professional gamblers, bookie agents, promoters, prostitutes, and dope peddlers with the salaries of elementary school teachers, medical nurses, transportation employees, and labor in industry in order to determine the money value of human beings in terms of their worth to society.

Dublin and Lotka claim that their book was developed from their interest in the life insurance business.

Every individual who insures himself for the protection of the members of his family has in mind providing them, in the event of his death, with a sum of money that shall, as nearly as possible, take the place of his contribution to them

13F. Henderson, The Case for Socialism, p. 64.
while living. Human life in this sense may be equated to a sum of money. It was very natural that we should develop, for business uses, a series of tables which should give the money value of persons at various ages, according to the amount of their earnings. Such tables would be useful not only to the agents, as a guide in advancing prospects, but to every adult person, as an indication of what his responsibility really is in his efforts to protect his family. We believe, therefore, that this book will be useful as an aid to the solution of this, the most important of insurance problems, namely, how much insurance a family man should carry. 14

This leads to an interesting fact that arose in the Justice Department of the United States concerning insurance companies.

In the latter part of 1947 Wall Street lawyers conferred with officials of the Justice Department to attempt to prevent an anti-trust suit against seventeen of the largest banking houses in New York. The demand of the Justice Department was that these banking houses stop monopolizing the money marts of the United States.

On December 5, 1941, just two days prior to Pearl Harbor, many of the "17 Club," according to Justice Department records, got together with Prudential Life Insurance, Equitable Life Insurance, New York Life Insurance, Mutual Life Insurance of New York, and Home Life Insurance to work out a deal whereby the insurance companies and the investment bankers would cooperate in floating securities. This was followed by another meeting on May 5, 1942, at which time all members of the "17

14Dublin and Lotka, op. cit., p. vii.
Club," plus additional insurance companies, agreed to the following policies:

(1) Insurance companies are to get first whack at 50% of any stock and bond flotation in which they express an interest. (2) Insurance companies are to refrain from bidding on stock and bonds offered through competitive bidding. (3) Insurance companies are to discourage other investment bankers from selling securities through competitive bidding.15

The Justice Department claimed that this action had caused money rates to reach "artificially high, non-competitive prices" and had made the cost of floating bonds and stocks extremely high. There were other charges made by the Justice Department against these companies.

(1) Agreeing not to compete among themselves in merchandising securities; (2) forcing any company for whom they float one stock issue to let the "17 Club" float all other stock in the future; (3) banning all outsiders from handling "17 Club" securities; (4) lobbying against state and federal government agencies which seek to require competitive bidding; (5) controlling and limiting the development of business enterprises which may offer substantial competition to established firms which defendant bankers represent; (6) encouraging consolidations, mergers, expansions, refinancings and debt refundings in order to create increasing volume of securities in business for the "17 Club."16

Are insurance companies really interested in a correct economic evaluation of the worth of human resources, or in money making?

The value of the dollar is not always the same in our society. This was recognized by high public officials in

15Dallas Morning News, October 21, 1947, p. 16.
16Ibid.
the United States from the turn of the present century until the present day. Sales, profits, wages, national income, and losses are measured in dollars. Yet the dollar is a very unstable unit. Between 1920 and 1932 it changed in purchasing power as prices fell gradually during the twenties and abruptly during the thirties until it had increased some 138 per cent.17 These changes came about without any official change in the gold-value dollar such as took place in 1933 when the Roosevelt Administration redefined the dollar.

All too often dollar valuation conceals the facts when attempting to set a definite money value on a given situation. One difficulty which the unstable dollar presents to the businessman is well illustrated by an experience of the Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company during World War I.

At that time sales registered a substantial increase as measured in dollars. But when an index number showing the change in the prices of commodities sold by this company was computed, any satisfaction which had been realized from the behavior of the dollar sales volume was turned into disappointment.

It was discovered that the sales in dollar terms had not increased as rapidly as the prices of the articles sold. This could only mean that the volume of merchandise sold was declining. Discovery of this fact brought about reconsideration of the company's merchandising policies and the introduction of new methods.

Had it not been for the statistical analysis showing the misleading nature of dollar-volume series, this company might have consistently lost ground while under the impression that sales were expanding rapidly.18

17William A. Neiwanger, Elementary Statistical Methods, p. 43.
18 Ibid.
The child-like faith of our people has lead many to the illusion of our nation's prosperity.

During the period of the First World War the national income increased from about 33 billion dollars to approximately 67 billion dollars, thus creating the fallacy of prosperity. This, too, was a fictitious increase brought about by the change in the statistical unit, the dollar. Indeed, the estimated dollar value of national income did not rise so rapidly as prices. The quantity of goods and services consumed, the only real measure of income, declined as the dollar measure of income increased.

Because the dollar is the statistical unit used in accounting procedure and in all financial operations, its variations and lack of statistical uniformity touch all enterprises and are the cause of many miscalculations and errors of judgment.19

The purpose of this discussion, however, is not to debate the social desirability of the dollar as a medium of exchange, but merely to indicate the type of sophistry often found in a simple arithmetic demonstration.

Fallacies in arithmetic computations have become so numerous that Leslie Hayford, in his presidential address to the American Statistical Association in 1940, said that the "child-like faith of the public, including businessmen, social reformers, politicians—even sometimes the intelligentsia—in the validity of numerical data has facilitated the application of statistics to all manner of ends."20

The following passage from John Dewey is most pertinent.

19Ibid.
Our present difficulties lie in the futile effort to apply 18th Century principles of a pecuniary society to a 20th Century machine civilization. What stands in our way is not a machine age, but the survival of a pecuniary age. Not until we have questioned the worth of a dominately money-civilization shall we have a form that will achieve a more successful life.\textsuperscript{21}

Dublin and Lotka err in their theory of resources; also they are using a statistically unreliable measuring device in their valuation process.

Money would seem to be a false criterion by which to judge human beings. Even so, there is a tendency in this materialistic age toward the use of this criterion as a means of judging man's worth to society. The human being transcends such a narrow, superficial judgement. This false value of our society creates waste of human resources in the struggle for economic well-being and the abundant life.

\textsuperscript{21} Zimmerman, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 30.
CHAPTER III

FORMS OF WASTE AFFECTING STUDENTS

Practice versus Theory

When the public schools of America were first established under constitutional law, the theory was that they were built by the people for their own benefit. They existed in order that all citizens, regardless of geographical incident of birth, color, or creed, might have a chance to improve themselves as well as their country and government.

Not only were the schools created for the benefit of the people, but they were controlled by the people. Today, the elected board members presumably work in direct conjunction with the administration and community. Boards of education are expected to make choices and decisions for the greatest number. The theory is that the board members should not attempt to solve school problems on a personal basis, but rather on a group-council basis, whereby all members may come to a better understanding and conclusion of the problems which arise. By this theory of public school control, the public has a hand in determining school policies and practices. The board meetings are held as open meetings, and all those directly concerned in the community are welcome to attend.

1Philip W. Cox and E. R. Langfitt, High School Administration and Supervision, p. 5.
This type of educational control is usually accepted as most desirable. These views are held as essential cogs in the machinery of mass education, that is, if education is to achieve its functional purpose in fostering the democratic mode of life. Let us review these theories and see just where they fall short of the goal.

Do the schools today see their primary function to be the enlightenment of all the people in the community? If any board member were asked this question, his reply would be strongly in the affirmative. However, let us observe the actual practice. Frequently pressures from the outside mold the curriculum of our public schools. This is in direct contrast to accepted theory.

In a high school, not so long ago, a question arose concerning controversial issues. The superintendent immediately set out to prohibit free discussion of controversial issues on the ground that it would only create dissension among the students; he argued that they might not be able to react objectively on all matters. Can anyone imagine a policy that would lead to dissension and administrative indoctrination more quickly than the policy adopted by the superintendent?

This is only one case; there are many such cases confronting the school children in our time. The theory of

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3Beaumont Enterprise and Journal, April 15, 1947, p. 5.
evolution cannot be studied because it runs contrary to the beliefs of some church members. The study of management-labor relations is curbed because of the fear that such a study might lead to sympathy groups, and perhaps confusion and turmoil. Sex questions are "verboten," even though social diseases and divorces continue to increase steadily. Certain textbooks are outlawed because of the so-called sinister material they contain. A better explanation may be that these books contain materials that do not run true to the conventional forms; hence, the board members do not indorse their theses. The result of these restrictions is a narrow curriculum and a production of superficial knowledge, which leaves the youth of today poorly prepared to take their place in society.

Influential groups are convinced that if the public school system receives an increase in federal funds, the standards of the schools will be set by the government. Are our public schools controlled by the people? Does the school board fulfill its primary purpose? Does it represent all of the people, and does it promote the welfare of all of the people? This is the manner in which the typical school board operates in our society:

Mr. X is a labor leader financed by his followers for a seat on the school board. His orders are to see that all

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\(^4\)Dallas Morning News, October 16, 1948, p. 15.
matters relating to labor strikes and movements are handled quietly in the school. Even classroom discussion on the subject is to be minimized.

Mr. Y is an ambitious lawyer whose primary aim is someday to be the county attorney. He votes on important school issues while his eyes are cast toward the city election.

Mr. Z is a young night club owner whose motive is to foster good will among the members of the community in order that he may operate a gambling table in the back room of his club with the least amount of interference.

Are these cases typical of the existing system of school control? Those who are familiar with the problem of educational control cannot deny that they are. There is considerable evidence in many states that administrators receive retainer fees from the major companies to see that all tax measures affecting school expansion be minimized to the lowest ebb.

The evils of our existing school system are inevitable so long as organized business continues to value the lives of human beings in terms of pecuniary worth. In short, the education of our youth will remain retarded as long as the schools are operated for the benefit of those outside it instead of those inside it. Education will continue to be insignificant as a means of solving the problems of society so long as the "coupon clippers" dominate boards of education, textbook writers, teachers, administrators, and parents by
manipulations of the "almighty" dollar. The writer is forced to assume that we must either surrender many of our democratic ideals, democratic principles, democratic aspirations, or wrench the control of education from the lovers of the coin. Any serious person who is acquainted with the problems of education cannot help but reach the same conclusion.

Training in the Sciences and Technological Advancements

The Industrial Revolution inevitably caused a revolution in society. Feudalism was replaced by capitalism; science and technology underwent changes in both structure and form. The progress in science and technology was the major factor which brought about the Industrial Revolution. The releasing of a portion of material goods into society, through science and technology, produced capitalism, and, as history has shown, the releasing of an abundance of these goods can produce restrictionism.

There is little doubt concerning the enormous consumption of energy in the United States. Our consumption increased forty times from 1850 to 1930. In 1910 the United States produced approximately 300,000,000 barrels of petroleum, in 1940 about 1,300,000,000.\(^5\)

There has been a rapid increase of new inventions in our society. In the decade ending in 1890, there were 208,000 patents granted in the United States; in the decade ending in

\(^5\)Stuart Chase, *The Road We Are Traveling*, p. 61.
1910, there were 314,000; in the decade ending in 1930, there were 421,000.6

What effects do inventions, science, and technology have on the educational system and human resources? We, of this generation, are in the strange position of living in two worlds at the same time—one highly dynamic and revolutionary and the other static and reactionary. In the first world, changes meet with considerable acceptance. New techniques appear on every hand and are respected universally.7 The highest social acclaim is given to the person who causes the techniques in use to become outmoded or obsolete. There is no regret when the old methods are discarded; warm welcomes greet the new and novel. There are engines, aeroplanes, plastics, medical techniques, and the like—everywhere we give much attention to the innovator. The person who makes the discovery is honored by society.

But in the field of human relationships we look to the "good old" days—days that have passed on. We glorify the ways of our ancestors; we denounce the researcher. We ex-tol the social, political, and economic institutions that took shape when the steam engine was in its infancy and before the atomic bomb was ever unleashed.8 The educational

6Ibid.

7H. Gordon Hayes, Spending, Saving, and Employment, p. 172.

8Ibid.
and economic equivalent of "the old time religion is good enough for me"9 chimes throughout the land.

What effects do science and technology, political institutions, and the trends in social living have on every school campus in the nation? Every reputable college today has a physical science and a social science department. In these two departments the students learn that material and economic wealth affects the economy of the nation. They learn that by integrating the knowledge of the two departments man holds the power to direct his learning into channels of progress for the community, state, and nation.

Yet, under this theoretical arrangement society is benefited by only a small part of man's progressive ideas. In general, the social science department has trained students to support the institutions blocking material progress and to advance the thinking that took place long before new discoveries were made in the physical science department. New scientific discoveries are sometimes not only suppressed, but they are held in secrecy until they are no longer useful to society. A business enterprise in our system of economics can get a patent to a scientific discovery that will harness and restrict its use for over a decade. The automotive industry has given rise to litigation, damages, and preventives to patents it controls, which are being used by a competitor.

9Ibid.
There is probably not one single large business corporation in our system today that does not keep a staff of lawyers on its payroll for cases involving an infringement of its rights. By exercising these rights and controls over the material welfare of our society, the business groups leave a tremendous surplus of knowledge and manpower in idleness.

From the educational point of view there is a needless repetition of research by both the physical sciences and the social sciences. Untold hours of effort are wasted under such a system, whereas human resources could be used to keep abreast with the material advancements of man instead of to keep alive the social thinking that existed centuries ago.

Youth—Unused Resource in Education

It is almost impossible to find any person in America who denies the contribution of young people to our society, or to any society. We agree with the truism that the future of tomorrow belongs to the youth of today. And, being responsible adults, we assume the role of guardians and directors over the youth in our schools.

Discerning educators from abroad contend that America is young and that its people want to remain youthful and resourceful in their thinking and acting. The unprecedented amount of literature, research, and discussion concerning youth education in American schools is an indication of this American interest and faith in young people.
Yet the freedom which we allow the American youth is not always wise. In our tendency to encourage self-expression in the student, we have not always been aware of the general changes which industrial developments have been making in the position of young people in the field of education, changes which complicate the most important problem of the young student, the problem of growing up to responsible maturity.

In the large family of a century ago, the student performed tasks which were socially useful. Activities of the farm, the small business, and the community were performed through youth-adult cooperation in common tasks, which were important to old and young alike.10 Today there is a different way of living. The average family buys almost all of the goods and services which it utilizes. Labor-saving techniques have decreased the amount of labor necessary to keep the home going. More and more of the jobs in the home, the corner store, the community, and the factory are performed by specialized adult labor. In our society today survival does not depend upon the closely-knit family unit; hence, it has disappeared. Today the social contribution of one's work is not easily seen, since it is lost in mass ramifications and the interdependence which separates the producer of any good from the final user.11 In this system opportunities


11H. M. Kallen, The Decline and Rise of the Consumer, pp. 60-78.
for youth and adult cooperation in common goals are almost non-existent. This does not mean that youth-adult education is impossible. It merely means that it does not occur as once it occurred, automatically in the process of daily living. If we are to develop youth-adult resources to a high degree, we must plan research units for them.

When, then, should society be concerned with extending opportunities for youth-adult cooperation? It is through common activities, common goals, and evaluations by young and old alike that an adult, mature educational force is developed. This is the best way in which the youth of today can learn to assume the obligations that come in later life. There are powerful forces in society that want to destroy all integrated youth-adult activities.\textsuperscript{12} There is no other good avenue of travel open to the youth under our educational system. In order to learn well the job of being a mature and responsible citizen, youth can learn much in the school curriculum. The curriculum should give him a basis, at least, for the real life.

It is rather difficult for youth and adults to find a common ground; different interests tend to form a wide gap separating the two. Thus, the very language that is used is difficult to comprehend. The young rarely ever see eye to eye with adult members of a group. This is quite understandable when we realize that society is constantly undergoing

\textsuperscript{12} John Dewey, \textit{Experience and Education}, p. 19.
change. In a society where basic changes tend to come about slowly and where the social pace is not fast, differences between adults and youth are relatively few and can, therefore, be adjusted. Unity of the two groups, however, cannot be brought about in a more active and complex society without discussions and research.

The youth of our nation have an important contribution to make in social direction and social control. Their receptive minds, curious for knowledge, tend to add new proportions to any social policy which they influence or help to determine. When the freshman enters college, he is inquisitive and resourceful. However, the curiosity he has about his field gradually disappears. In place of curiosity, the school builds up a resistance in him. If the student acquires habits of fear and frustration, and if his learning is vague, disassociated, unreliable, and invalid, these are the qualities which he takes with him to live in an uncertain world. If he does not have living experiences in school, integration of learning, thinking, acting, and performance, his departure from it will certainly be a graduating ceremony, whether it be sanctioned by a cap and gown, sheep-skin display or not.13 If students do not utilize their knowledge potentialities for the real life, they will continue to look upon their education as being wasted effort, and for the most part, mere tread-milling until the day they can actually learn to live in a dynamic society.

Tapping Educational Resources

In order to tap our unused resources we have to work with the young and old alike, in the school and in the community. Most students fail to use their knowledge potentialities to the desired maximum. All fail to give forth as effectively as they might. Human potentiality is made for effort; all that is needed is that it be adequately stimulated, wisely guided, and socially reimbursed. By arousing the interests of the students, our institutions can receive in return the contribution of the students themselves.

For the youth we need a school founded on life's principles, a school that teaches integrated living, where shared undertakings prevail and the just compensations are inherent and intrinsic. The school can further reach out and constructively bring youth-adult cooperation into focus.

In America there are many youth organizations that develop youth interest. Chambers has located and classified 320 such organizations in his study Youth Serving Organizations. Yet, frequently even where discussions are encouraged, or tolerated, youth interest is suppressed. Adults in our society are often in the inconsistent position of deploring, yet in effect encouraging, youthful irresponsibility with respect to important educational and social concerns. No doubt much opposition must be overcome in order to allow students

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to participate in educational planning. However, many, if not most, of the major opponents to youth participation have paternalistic attitudes toward youth. In its 1940 report, "Should Youth Organize?" the American Youth Commission had this to say on the point:

National organization and local youth councils have all been retarded in growth by the general suspicion and hostility that commonly attaches to any organization actively discussing controversial issues which is sponsored and directed by youth. In some cases this opposition has resulted in the abandonment of the enterprise or in the withdrawal of certain organizations that should be represented if the participants are to have the benefit of all schools of opinion. Doubtless connected with the same cause is the chronic scarcity of funds which has acted as a severe handicap to the work of all youth-led organizations.

The Commission recognizes that youth organizations for the discussion of public questions form a small part of the total number, and that associations are of great importance and value. The chief problem of immediate interest, however, is the attitude that should be taken by adults and by youth toward these discussing organizations.

In the Commission's opinion, there is no effective way to train large numbers of competent citizens for participation in public affairs which does not include actual practice in the discussion of public questions. The tendency for such discussions to be one-sided and ill-informed is not a peculiarity of youth. This tendency is equally apparent and far more dangerous among adults who have, or may acquire, actual power over public policy. It is therefore highly desirable that young people who are not yet in a position to exert any great influence on the adult world should occupy themselves in learning how to lead their contemporaries, how to choose and reject leadership. This process is not different from other educational activities which are best carried on at an age and under circumstances that minimize the dangers involved in mistakes or false starts.

Like all educational activities that create disturbance, youthful discussions may be irritating to many adults, but should not be suppressed on that
account. The young people are learning what behavior will bring from the press either praise, silence, ridicule, or condemnation, what causes appropriations to be made or withheld, which leadership wears well and which is ephemeral, and all the similar types of knowledge that they will find useful as mature citizens. It is not to be supposed that only the vocal leaders are learning, at the expense of their followers. Those who sit and do nothing but observe the proceedings may often gain more understanding than their more articulate fellows. Together they are in a process of growing up.

Because of the importance of the educational processes to which youth-led organization can contribute, the Commission believes that they can have major values. In any event, the violent and hysterical persecution of young intellectual radicals is in itself a childish procedure. No doubt there are organized foreign spy systems in this country, with which the authorities are bound to deal, but they should be distinguished from normal exploratory activities of young people who seek to find solutions for our admittedly unsolved social problems. Moreover, the tendency to suppress youth by refusing to allow them the small sums needed for financing their societies, or by intimidating possible contributors, is unworthy of sensible adult attitudes toward the educational process.

Notwithstanding the difficulties youth-led organizations are now undergoing, the Commission is convinced that, in some form, they are here to stay.15

If our society is to operate democratically, and if the interests of youth continue to center around social problems, youth organizations are here to stay. We are convinced that the influence of the young mind on educational policy will become a power in support of progressive ideas in the school. Educational leadership cannot overlook, and it should make attempts to develop, the vigor and force of youth's knowledge as an agent in educational advancements.

15 Ibid., p. 132.
There are many authoritative formulations of objectives, aims, or purposes of education for the youth of America. The more important phases of several reports on this subject have an underlying current of educational and socio-economic interconnections. These interconnections deal chiefly with the ultimate goal of education, that is, the utilization of the resources of youth in the learning process. The three reports which are best known were compiled by the Committee of the Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Schools in 1918, the Committee of the National Education Association in Socio-Economic Goals of America in 1934, and the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in 1938. All education personnel are familiar with the first two reports; in order to study the values projected in these reports, the report made in 1938 is summarized.16

In the general plan of tapping educational resources in American democracy proposed in the report of 1938 the goals to be approximated by every individual were designated by objectives. They are classified as follows:

1. The objective of self-realization.
2. The objective of human relationships.
3. The objective of economic efficiency.
4. The objective of civic responsibility.17

17 John P. Wynne, The Teacher and the Curriculum, pp. 73-74.
From the standpoint of "self-realization" the educated person has an appetite for learning; he can speak the native tongue clearly; he can read the native tongue effectively; he writes efficiently; he is skilled in listening and observing; he has mental resources for the use of knowledge acquired; and he gives responsible direction to his life.

From the standpoint of "human relationships" the educated person puts human beings and their relationships first; he enjoys a wholesome, rich, sincere, and varied social integration; he can actively mingle with others; he maintains a happier home and family life.

From the standpoint of "economic efficiency" the educated person is both producer and consumer. As a producer he is aware of the satisfaction of good workmanship; he has selected his life's work carefully; he appreciates the social values of his works. As a consumer the educated person plans the economics of his life; he develops standards for guiding his spending; he is an informed and discerning buyer.

From the standpoint of "civic responsibility" the educated person is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstances; he acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions; he strives to understand social problems and social processes; he has a working knowledge of defenses to propaganda; he has high regard for the nation's human resources; he measures scientific advance by its contribution to general welfare; and he accepts his civic duties willingly.
Of course, the formulation of such values as are suggested in the brief summary does not in itself indicate that those who produce them and use them necessarily adopt the theory of "doctrinaire sociality."

There is little reason to disbelieve that many people think such reports contain values with which youth should be indoctrinated. It was stated that these goals be conceived as directives, since they indicate the direction in which growth should occur rather than the ends to be achieved by all.

In conclusion, it is believed that until administrators adjust their forces of educational procedures along the lines outlined in the report of 1938, the resources of youth will never be fully developed.

18 John P. Wynne, Philosophies of Education, p. 68.
CHAPTER IV

FORMS OF WASTE AFFECTING TEACHING PERSONNEL

Educational Inadequacies in the Teaching Field

To what extent does our existing distribution of educational opportunities make it feasible for all the people in America to work in the field where they are most productive? What is the scope of our educational inadequacies?

Many surveys have been made to determine why youth are leaving public schools. All surveys show that socio-economic status is a major cause. A survey by the National Education Association prior to 1930 showed that 31 per cent of the students left school for economic reasons. A similar survey in 1938 showed that 54 per cent left for economic reasons. In a more recent survey, under a grant by the Educational Research Fund of the Tuition Plan, Archibald MacIntosh obtained data from 276 colleges and universities which indicated that the reasons for withdrawal from school were, in the order listed, failure, financial difficulty, transfer, personal, health, domestic, and other conditions relating to the socio-economic status.

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1National Education Association, Education and Economic Well-Being, p. 15.

2Archibald MacIntosh, "Education," Newsweek (September 27, 1948), pp. 77-78.
Benjamin Fine toured the United States for six months and then wrote his findings on educational inadequacies. His chief concerns upon completion of his tour were the low pay of teachers, inadequate physical plants, and their relation to student education.

In the United States in 1947, according to Fine's report, there were 61,191 teachers who had not gone beyond high school; 101,698 teachers who had only one year of college; 198,224 teachers who had only two years of college; 96,527 teachers who had only three years of college; and 113,764 teachers who had more than four years of college. 3

Almost one half of the teachers in the nation—404,206 out of a total of 861,845—had completed four years of college. Nearly 40 per cent, or 361,113, had not completed over two years of college. The total number of teachers who had not completed their college training was definitely on the incline. 4

If present trends continue, many Texas schoolrooms will be without teachers by 1953, a University of Texas staff member reports.

A survey of elementary teaching positions in Texas by a graduate student, Hollis A. Moore, Jr., indicates there will be a shortage of more than 20,000 teachers by 1953.

Moore, assistant to Dean L. D. Haskew of the college of Education, took figures from the Bureau of Vital Statistics and elementary enrollment data in the State Department of Education.

He found that Texas schools will require

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3Benjamin Fine, Our Children Are Cheated, p. 25.
4Ibid.
29,844 new elementary teachers in the 5-year period, 1949-50 through 1953-54, to replace experienced teachers who leave the classroom and to provide additional teachers for each thirty pupils due to increased enrollment.

Fewer than 2,000 elementary teaching certificates of all kinds were issued in 1947-48, the survey indicated.

If this production rate continues, an estimated shortage of more than 20,000 elementary teachers will develop by 1953, he pointed out.

The demand can not be met unless the production rate for elementary teachers rises to almost four times the number granted certificates in 1947-48, he emphasized.

If the size of the classroom is reduced to twenty-five pupils, as educators have often recommended, an additional 6,277 teachers would be needed, bringing the over-all demand total to 36,121.5

In the year 1946, over the nation 6,000 schools were closed, and 700,000 children of the accepted school age, six to sixteen, did not attend any type of school at all.6 The theory of free education and opportunities for all did not apply to this large group of students.

Why is there such a large turnover in the teaching field? Let us observe the salary scales compiled by the United States Chamber of Commerce for the salaries of teachers dating back to 1920, and computed on a decade basis. The average salary of public school teachers, supervisors, and principals was $1,441 in 1940, $1,420 in 1930, and $871 in 1920. In 1940, 4 states paid an average of more than $2,000; 14 states paid less than the $1,420 average; one half of the states paid

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5 Dallas Morning News, February 12, 1949, p. 5.
6 Fine, op. cit., p. 15.
lower salaries in 1940 than in 1930. In the other half increases were very much less than in the years between 1920 and 1930.7

In Texas the average salary of teachers, supervisors, and principals was $612 in 1920, $924 in 1930, $1,097 in 1940, and $1,329 in 1944.8 Contrast this with the projected figure of $2,500 as the average income for labor in 1944,9 and we can readily see that sub-standard teachers are rapidly infiltrating the ranks of the teaching profession, while the more efficient, learned teachers are leaving the profession. Today, a person is looked upon as being a crusader or an economic martyr when he chooses to follow the teaching profession.

Why are the physical plants deteriorating? How much does the national government spend for education? First of all, let us compare the finances spent by Russia and Great Britain to those spent by the United States for education. In 1946, despite the inflationary period, the United States spent about $2,500,000,000 for public school education, or 1.5 per cent of its estimated $160,000,000,000 total income. For the same period, Great Britain, with its sub-standard economy, is estimated to have spent about 3 per cent of its

8Office of Educational Report, Texas Teachers Salaries p. 17.
national income. The Soviet Union averages about 8 per cent of its total income for education.\textsuperscript{10}

Realizing that education is an important part of its Five-Year Plan, the Russian government increased its 1946-47 educational budget over the preceding year by 52 per cent. Its 1947 budget allowed an appropriation of $7,500,000,000 for education, out of a total budget of $60,000,000,000. In addition, several billions more were allocated for health protection, physical culture, and allied educational projects.\textsuperscript{11}

The Soviet Union boasts that in the year 1946-47 a total of 23,339,000 pupils attended grade and secondary schools, or 13.9 per cent more than the previous year. At the end of the 1947 term there were 653,000 students attending advanced institutions of learning, and 1,030,000 in technical schools. The number in higher educational establishments had increased 22.8 per cent and in technical schools 22.9 per cent over 1945.\textsuperscript{12}

The primary emphasis of education in Russia is being placed on the training of specialists for the new fields of science and engineering. Under the Five-Year Plan, Russia proposes to graduate 120,000 engineers and 347,000 technicians for industry and construction; 47,000 persons in higher education and 198,000 in secondary education for

\textsuperscript{10}Fins, op. cit., p. 58. \textsuperscript{11}Ibid. \textsuperscript{12}Ibid.
farming; 98,000 doctors and 284,000 medical personnel with secondary education.\footnote{13}

For the similar five-year period the United States will prepare fewer than 100,000 engineers, 20,000 doctors, and a handful of farming specialists. It is obvious that the United States is being surpassed by Russia in the amount of money spent for education and in the number of trained personnel being prepared. According to Sergei Kaftanov, Minister of Higher Education of the U. S. S. R., a student body of 550,000 attended 306 institutions of higher learning in the academic year 1945-46.\footnote{14}

While the Soviet Union today has more students in higher education institutions than all the countries of Europe combined, considerable expansion of our higher education program must be accomplished to meet the nation's needs, the Soviet Minister reports. The 70,000 young specialists who were awarded degrees this year are only one-fifth of the number needed.\footnote{15}

Many noted educators in the United States are concerned at the lack of financial support that education is receiving in this country. They contend that if Russia can spend $7,500,000,000 for education to insure the strength of its communist form of government, the United States can do no less to spread knowledge among the youth of the land of the values of a democratic form of government.

However, the United States does spend a considerable portion of its national income for education. Two billion

\footnote{13} ibid., p. 59. \footnote{14} ibid. \footnote{15} ibid.
dollars were spent for education in 1945-46.\textsuperscript{16} Even though the actual number of dollars spent has been increasing, the percentage has bogged down steadily. An extensive study conducted by the education committee of the Chamber of Commerce, called \textit{Education—An Investment in People}, shows conclusively that there is a substantial and positive correlation between the amount a state spends for its public schools and the social and economic level it reaches. The conclusions of the study definitely state that public schools need more finances.\textsuperscript{17}

The National Association of Manufacturers at its last congress passed a resolution calling upon the communities to strengthen their support of education and urged that more money be paid to the teachers.\textsuperscript{18}

What effects the recommendations of these two powerful organizations may have on educational inadequacies cannot be determined at this time. However, the trend toward increased public school allotments is receiving considerable attention from businessmen as well as from the professional ranks.

Who is to blame for the current inadequacies in our public school system? Why do we allow our schools to dis-integrate? The problem of education and its distribution cannot be dealt with entirely from a teacher, community, or state approach. As pointed out in preceding surveys, the positive correlation between socio-economic status and the

\textsuperscript{16}Ibid. \hspace{1em} \textsuperscript{17}Fine, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 60. \hspace{1em} \textsuperscript{18}Ibid., p. 61.
education level reached is definitely a challenge to all. Assuming that we are interested in the promotion of education, it is our primary duty to deal with the causes and not the effects of this disintegration of education.

The time has come when praise alone is not a sufficient reward for teachers. Many teachers have continued in their profession, disregarding all outer pressures, in order that the student might receive the education necessary for later life. Assuming that through knowledge and education we may be able to solve all of our major problems, we cannot hesitate any longer to pay the teachers a decent salary and raise the standards of the teaching profession.

Educational Inequalities Affecting Teacher Personnel

In our society the equipment and facilities in the schools, and the teachers themselves, are evaluated in terms of money. Paul R. Mort, educational expert at Teachers College, Columbia University, writes on this matter.

\[\text{He says}\] \ldots that money is the best single index on the quality of education. For the years 1945-46, 61 percent of revenue for public school support is provided by local communities, and less than 2 percent comes from the federal government.\(^\text{19}\)

Federal appropriations have been proposed for the advancement of education. However, complete state and local responsibility and consequent freedom from outside influences are accepted principles on which our educational system has been built.

\(^{19}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 114}\.)
Any proposed deviation from these principles calls for serious thinking on the part of the school administration, community, and state.

"If present conditions continue to exist, there will be a shortage of approximately 160,000 teachers in our public schools by the end of 1949," writes Pearl Wannamaker, President of the National Education Association and Superintendent of Instruction for the state of Washington. She writes further on this matter.

This is not an expansion program. It is a bare subsistence program. Where are we going to get these teachers? We won't get them until we offer them the same attractive wages and working conditions that other positions offer.\(^1\)

Recent surveys on education and income show that the chance to receive a decent education depends upon the locality in which one is born. Many of our schools hire totally inadequate teachers; others have the means of obtaining the best that money can buy. Money, however, is not the only determining factor, although it is true that the best financed schools provide the best teachers, the best facilities, and the best curriculum. Many times, even though finances are available, the schools do a poor job because of an unprogressive administration. A combination of good leadership and sufficient funds is necessary if we are to have the best schools possible.

\(^{20}\text{Ibid.}, \text{p. 22.}\) \(^{21}\text{Ibid.}\)
It is often true that the children who need the best schools usually get the poorest. The higher the income average in a community, the better are the buildings, recreational grounds, libraries, etc. But in low income areas, with crowded streets, dismal surroundings, and no equipment, the children often come from drab, dull workaday homes only to find their schools even duller.

For many, America is not a land of opportunity, happiness, and freedom, as John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler point out in their study, *Unfinished Business in Education*.

1. The school training provided millions of American children who are in school is so inferior and brief that it leaves them unprepared to meet the demands made upon them as citizens and voters.

2. Two million children, aged six to sixteen, were not in any type of school in 1940. This number is increasing rapidly since the war.

3. Half of the brightest and most adept students leave school early—before they have any kind of schooling to justify their potential abilities, and the demands of our way of life.

4. Ten million adult Americans have had so little school training that they are actually illiterates. They cannot read and write well enough to carry on alone in our complex society.

5. Three million adults living in the United States have never attended a school of any type.22

In 1940 the average classroom unit cost for the United States was $1,600.23 It may be somewhat higher today because of the salary raises for the teachers over the country, yet the figure is true enough to serve as a guide.

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22 Ibid., p. 117.

23 Ibid., p. 116.
Twenty-five states fell below this classroom average. Most of these states are in the South.

The United States Chamber of Commerce report shows the amount of money spent in classrooms in the United States.

**TABLE 2**

THE AMOUNT OF MONEY SPENT PER AVERAGE CLASSROOM UNIT FOR THE FORTY-EIGHT STATES IN 1940*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>$3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey, District of Columbia</td>
<td>3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>3,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>2,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island, Nevada</td>
<td>2,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware, Illinois, Washington</td>
<td>2,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona, Michigan</td>
<td>2,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania, Ohio</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>1,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oregon, Wyoming</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire, Montana, Indiana, Colorado</td>
<td>1,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland, Kansas, Iowa, New Mexico</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>1,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vermont, Texas, West Virginia, Nebraska</td>
<td>1,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida, Louisiana, Missouri, Oklahoma, Maine</td>
<td>1,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Dakota</td>
<td>1,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>1,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina, North Dakota</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia, Georgia, Tennessee</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama, Kentucky</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

New York State, with a median expenditure of $4,100 leads the rest of the nation; Mississippi, at the bottom of the list, spends an average of $400 for each classroom unit. With $400 as the average classroom unit cost, the teacher receives a salary of less than $100 per school year.


Can there ever be equal opportunities without equal educational advantages? The question uppermost in the minds of educators is, "What can be done?" Educational inequalities
have been with us for decades, and it seems that it may take longer to eliminate them.

Blinded by our false notion that everyone in America is equal, regardless of birth, creed, or economic status, the unequal distribution of educational opportunities can affect our entire democratic way of life. Our nation cannot afford to neglect its human resources which are the best protection it has for security and survival.

Lack of Educational Freedom for Teachers

Most of the controversial issues concerning the status of teachers involve the concept of freedom. The teacher has given many interpretations of the democratic principles throughout the history of the United States.

Following the depression of 1929-32, the conflict about teacher freedom was an issue constantly discussed by the press and in literature. On this topic opinions range from those in favor of complete freedom for teachers to those in favor of restricting the teacher from discussing any controversial issue about politics or economics. The Secretary of Interior during Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration had this to say about teacher freedom:

It is interesting to note that the chief objections arise over the discussion of political and economic issues. Oligarchical rule may be dealt with historically and no complaints arise, but let the instructor mention communism as practiced in Russia today as a modern form of rule,
and aroused one-hundred-percent Americans may be at his throat.\textsuperscript{24}

In the discussion of controversial social problems in the classroom, the teacher can use his own opinions as a stimulating force.

Conservative educators feel that academic freedom is not an inherent right, but that it is a right which implies the assumption of certain obligations not to abuse or misuse one's freedom.\textsuperscript{25} Others, who object to the academic freedom of teachers, argue that the beliefs of the community should prevail, and that any teacher who attempts to reform the society is misinformed as to his proper duties. Their argument, in brief, is that "those who pay the fiddler have the right and privilege to call the melody." This theory is aptly expressed by one of the administrators in our present-day educational system.

I am unwilling to permit a teacher whom I select and pay for educating my child to warp his judgment, to set up ideals, and to direct practices contrary to those in which I believe and which I endeavor to exemplify in my own life—Society is just a plural 'I.'\textsuperscript{26}

To free and progressive thinkers this is a narrow point of view, and bitter fights are waged each year against such reasoning. There is the contention among the progressive groups that teachers should lead the political and


\textsuperscript{25} \textit{Ibid.}, p. 759.

\textsuperscript{26} Paul H. Sheats, \textit{Education and the Quest for a Middle Way}, p. 45.
economic thinking of the society, particularly since the finance barons, speculators, businessmen, politicians, and business executives have proved their inability to manage our society with any degree of skill and justice.  

Middle travelers take the position of "flexibility" toward teachers.  

In a rapidly moving world, teachers should be constantly learning and re-learning the problems that are at hand and the problems that might confront the students in later life. Such reasoning in problem solving cannot be dealt with effectively unless the teacher has complete freedom to discuss problems as he sees them. His views should not be based upon emotional appeal, but rather on a "thought stimulant" technique in order that teaching may be more effective.

The state legislatures generally hold a conservative viewpoint toward education and take steps to create fear in the teaching profession by requiring oaths of loyalty to the state and federal constitutions. At this time there are twenty states that have passed such provisions. Such legislation has been contested bitterly as a direct insult to many teachers with conscientious dispositions of loyalty and a


28 Ibid., p. 12.

29 Ibid., p. 16.

contradiction to the ideals set up in a democratic and free country.

Accepted authorities in the field of education seem to think such measures employed against teachers of the nation will eventually cause reaction and insecurity in the teaching profession. The restriction of the teacher's freedom may lead to rebuttals of a more devious nature.

Harold Ickes made his point clear regarding academic freedom in 1935 when the problem of teacher loyalty was a constant issue.

... it is odd, to say the least, that the disruptive powers at work in our educational system are in the eyes of the yellow press always communistic. Not a single newspaper in the country has ever made the charge that Fascism is being taught in any of our institutions of higher learning.31

On the subject of academic freedom John Dewey had this to say:

It is quite possible that in the long run the greatest friend of censorship, whether public and explicit or private and insidious, and the greatest foe to freedom of thought and expression, is not those who fear such freedom because of its possible effect upon their own standing and fortune, but is the triviality and irrelevancy of the ideas that are entertained, and the futile and perhaps corrupting way in which they are expressed.32

It is indeed necessary to have freedom of thought and expression. Although freedom of thought is necessary for the utilization of educational resources, it is even more

31Ickes, op. cit., p. 759.

necessary that the ideas entertained should be genuine and not superficial ideas. They should be the fruit of inquiry, of observation, of experimentation, and of collecting and weighing of evidence. The development of attitudes by these means is the work and responsibility of the school teacher more than of any other single person.

In many cases the problems facing the conscientious teacher keeps him in a constant state of confusion. How can his direct obligation to perpetuate the existing social order be reconciled with his desire to participate in social reform?\(^{33}\)

Or consider a further paradox. After the teacher has been imbued with three or four years of professional training with the vision of the ideal teacher as a growing personality of broad experience and deep understanding, the first few months of service in an average community are likely to be rather disillusioning. There are limitations not only of academic freedom but of the number and variety of out-of-school experiences by which growth is assured.

Teaching Theories and Social Conflicts

It has been almost impossible in recent months to read a newspaper or a professional journal of education without finding some reference to the relation of the schools to

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\(^{33}\) Marvin L. Darsie, "Freedom or Indoctrination?" *School and Society* (February 2, 1935), p. 140.
society and the processes of social change.\textsuperscript{34} The very frequency of such references indicates, in some measure, the interest which a discussion of this subject creates. In all probability, the future will reveal that the most vital educational issue of the postwar reconstruction period was the professor's real or supposed problem of whether to construct a new social order.

The conflicting views and opinions which are reviewed do not fall into a fixed category. According to the conservative viewpoint, schools were activated by rational, civilized groups to perpetuate certain values determined by the mature members of the society. These values are safeguarded by the school even after they lose their importance to society. This notion of education gained wide acclaim in the United States. With the rapid increase of industries in America, it became economically wise to introduce universal education. As a result, total production could be stepped up, since schooling and literacy result, in most instances, in greater efficiency. The stress throughout America, however, was on education as a static factor rather than as a tool for progress. At this time it seemed relatively simple to maintain the principle of stability in education because of the simple functions of education in meeting the needs of the group. But as many educators have

\textsuperscript{34}Dallas Morning News, April 13, 1949, p. 1.
pointed out, this notion soon came into conflict with the liberal aim based on the theory that social advancement is best facilitated by the development of the individual.\textsuperscript{35}

Even in modern controversy there are those who believe that despite the rapid change in the rate of social vicissitudes, the school's curriculum will be most effectively administered by reiterating the static and the equilibrium aspects in and of the social process.\textsuperscript{36}

The conservative further argues that the schools do not have the right to deal with the controversial issues of the present or waste precious time in futile predictions of the future. The mind of the high school or college student is not sufficiently developed to handle such topics, and teachers are unfitted by training and experience to guide such recitations. According to this viewpoint, the basic function of the teacher is to teach the social heritage, without comment, to the students.

Others, a little to the right, contend that the purpose of the educational system is to equip students in the public schools to assume the obligations and duties of citizenship in the state as it now exists. It is obvious that the advocates of this view deny that the school has any duty to perform in relation to social reorganization, but on the

\textsuperscript{35}Isaac B. Berksen, \textit{Education Faces the Future}, p. 28.

\textsuperscript{36}George S. Counts, \textit{The Social Foundation of Education}, p. 527.
contrary place upon the school the direct responsibility of resisting change by falling back on the divine rights of the status quo which, as Dewey has pointed out, "is a symbol of rather specious meaning."\footnote{Sheats, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 24.}

Nevertheless, it is safe to say that the rank and file of classroom teachers and school supervisors are found in this encampment. Many have not seriously arrived at any definite point of view; others consider the risk of committing professional suicide too great to warrant tampering with the problem. In this conservative position they are upheld by the public, which in so far as it has given expression to its conception of the correct function of education, has agreed almost unanimously with the conservative forces.

Opposed to the notion that education is a vehicle for transmitting the archaic beliefs of society, another group of teachers, impressed by what they consider a rapid rate of social changes, believe that the dynamic rather than the static forces of society should be stressed. Instead of preserving the heritage of the past, they build for the future, instilling attitudes of mind and habits of thought which are in harmony with the conditions of the new social concepts of the present and the future. They utilize the school, both in curriculum and methods of teaching, in order to prepare thinkers for the new society.
The basis for this theory of education was formulated by George S. Counts, one of its outstanding advocates. It consists of three points. The first one is that "all education is indoctrination or imposition." Many severe critics agree with this assertion of Counts, but many disagree with his interpretation of it. Counts does not oppose indoctrination; rather he and his followers use it effectively by visionizing for youth their dream of the kind of country that America can be in the future.

The second point of the theory is that "since there is good and bad indoctrination, we must get good indoctrination by controlling the source." Good indoctrination is, of course, that which is directed toward social reorganization, and bad indoctrination is that which encourages the status quo. The source, at least as far as the schools are concerned, is in the social philosophy of the teachers. The third point is "that the teachers can be organized in the support and propagation of the social philosophies which the extremists indorse."  

A third group, the middle travelers, take a course of cooperation or compromise with the two groups mentioned above. They believe that social conflicts can best be studied and evaluated by utilizing the scientific attitude. A scientific

38 George S. Counts, Soviet Challenge to America, pp. 220-237.

39 Ibid.

40 Ibid.
attitude and method can be taught which will make rational control of our social conflicts possible.

The Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association devoted its 1935 yearbook exclusively to the problem of social change in education and presented its contents to the Atlantic City Convention in a forum discussion. The debates were held by many newspapers to be a "sham battle between Capitalism and Collectivism"\(^{41}\) and created considerable excitement. Since this period, there has been a vast amount of material written on the controversy. The conflict between these two doctrines has played an important role in our educational thinking and supervision.

Whether the trend toward collectivism spells the end of capitalism or not, there is virtual unanimity of opinion among the collectivists, the planners, the "new social orderites," that we have moved into an age when conscious, deliberate direction of human affairs is necessary and unavoidable.\(^{42}\)

The school takes a middle course on these three avenues of thought toward education in our society. Should the school be controlled by laissez faire, compulsion, regimentation, collectivism, or democratic doctrines?—these are questions that arise. These and other related theories reveal the obligations that education has to society.


\(^{42}\)Walter Lippmann, A New Social Order, p. 15.
It has often been said that the preservation of civilization depends upon education. If that is true, then it is more necessary than ever that the people of the United States take a definite and firm step toward educating its people for the utilization of all potential knowledge.

It is strange that in a country such as the one in which we live there were, in the year 1946, 700,000 school children unable to attend school. Also, at this time there were 6,000 school buildings closed. This is a chronic sign of a dying democracy.43

It is even more paradoxical that, in order to assist certain groups in their attempt to discredit the schools and their personnel, some of the graduates of our universities sell to the highest bidder in the market place the brains, knowledge, and human potentialities that would be of little value if they had not been developed by some institution of learning. Since reverses in educational progress begin in the minds of men, it is also in the minds of men that a plan for the abolition of educational, which is to say, economic, waste must be formulated.

43 Fine, op. cit., p. 5.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

Underlying the thinking of classical and neo-classical economists, businessmen, teachers, and writers during the last century and a half has been the sort of economic thought expressed by Adam Smith. Though modifications in his writings have been made by later writers to account for new situations, the basic principles of economics which he supported remain the same: competition, pecuniary self-interest, and individual initiative—these are the terms which he used in describing the economy of his time and by means of which he purported to show that the pecuniary interest of each individual, if allowed to work freely, would lead to the most favorable satisfaction of human wants. Waste, according to Smith, could never exist, if man remained within the scope of the natural laws, in which event the resources of a nation would increase and remain abundant.

Yet these terms—competition, pecuniary self-interest, and individual initiative—are inapplicable to the dominant economic systems in the world today. New terms, theories, and ideas connoting changed relationships have become mandatory. The modern theory of resources deals specifically with
the basic causes of all waste, all technological advancements, all production, all hindrances, and all resources. These are, in effect, the human being, his capacity to further create knowledge, and his ability to utilize this knowledge for the advancement of all mankind. It is this theory of resources, advanced by Veblen and modified by his followers, that the writer of this study finds most plausible.

The waste of resources originates from various forms of institutions and educational thought. Many of these institutions and educational schools of thought have existed for centuries and are carried over from one generation to the next. However, an analysis of waste in these various institutions and forms of educational thought is outside the scope of this study.

In conclusion, in the world of today we do not lack evidence, appalling evidence, that it is the maintenance of human resources and the blessing of human well-being which have no place in economic accounting, while it is the careful safe-guarding of the "values" of money which is the core of current events. These "values" of money are protected by repressing inventions, by laying waste to human resources, by reviving the mythologies of the Middle Ages, by sustaining existing fields of wasteful human resources and mastering new fields by the threat of a bomb. To organize and use wastefully our human resources on such a gigantic scale, to regiment our youth, teachers, and educational personnel into
harmonious corps of producers, and to do this only in the name of an uncontrolled desire for profits, here surely is the greatest contradiction where so much illiteracy, disaster, misery, and waste occur.

**Recommendations**

It is recommended that the problem of wasted human resources in education be studied extensively in order (1) to resolve the conflicting theories of value as presented by Adam Smith and those which are expressed by the modern economists; (2) to inform society of the retardation of knowledge, by which progress came and by which progress is enjoyed; (3) to examine scientifically the institutions that disrupt advancing technology, with a view to the wider use of progressive educational techniques, science, and progressive action; and (4) to create a scientific attitude in the school systems toward problems regardless of scope, intensity, and magnitude, and to emphasize the fact that problems can best be solved when man utilizes all of his knowledge potentialities.
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