

INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL BENEFITS
OF FEDERALLY SUPPORTED
CONTINUING EDUCATION

Dissertation for the Degree of Ph. D.
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MARY ANN DILLER
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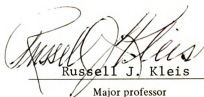
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Servicemen's Readjustment Act (GI Bill) Upon Individuals,
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presented by

Mary Ann Diller

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ABSTRACT

INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL BENEFITS OF FEDERALLY SUPPORTED CONTINUING EDUCATION

An Effort to Assess,
Over a Quarter Century and Within a Mid-American Community,
Impact of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (GI Bill)
Upon Individuals, Their Families, and Their Community

By

Mary Ann Diller

This study has investigated, in retrospect, contributions made by the education and training provisions of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (the GI Bill) to individuals, their families, and society as exhibited in a representative mid-American community, Danville, Illinois. Male high school graduates¹ from classes of 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940 were chosen for the study as having had time to enter post-secondary education prior to the United States entry into World War II. It was assumed that educational and occupational level of all respondents would have been influenced by educational and occupational levels of their parents, but that the GI Bill would have had a differentiating impact on those veterans who used its educational benefits. Those who entered service without post-secondary education and who used the GI education benefits upon returning, were assumed as not likely to have undertaken post-secondary education without the GI Bill.



Variables employed as indicators of difference between veterans who had used GI educational benefits, veterans who had not used them and non-veterans included: (1) annual income, (2) occupational level, (3) occupational advancement, (4) contributions of time and money to civic causes, (5) frequency of voting in local, state and national elections, (6) holding of elected offices or appointed positions on policymaking boards (7) educational aspirations for their children, (8) vocations chosen or aspired to by their children, (9) mobility of residence within the community, (10) migration out of the community, (11) participation in cultural activities, (12) choice of leisure-time activities, and (13) involvement in programs of continuing education.

Data were obtained from high school transcripts and a survey instrument, designed to plot progress of graduates over three decades. A partial replication of a 1955 survey of veterans by the Bureau of Census² was included. Effort was made to include all male graduates for the five years in the study. Responses from 267 constituted 61 per cent of the surveys mailed and 36 per cent of the total population. Computer analysis of data from high school transcripts showed no significant differences between non-respondents, men whose addresses were unknown, men who were known dead, and men who did respond to the survey. Responses were coded and data were punched on IBM cards and processed by the Control Data Corporation 6500 computer at Michigan State University. Where cell size justified doing so, chi square of statistical significance were run on the relationships between training levels and the dependent variables. The percentages generally used in reporting the results were computed on an electronic calculator.



It was found that the veterans who participated in the education and training program provided by the GI Bill (1) have a higher income, (2) have a position in a higher level occupation, (3) are less likely to choose their father's occupation, (4) have more stability with their current firm or institution, (5) have more vertical mobility within their occupation, (6) vote more frequently in local, state and national elections, (7) provide more volunteer service to local causes, (8) are more likely to be the first members of their family to achieve formal post-secondary education, (9) have more mobility of residence within their community, (10) are less likely to migrate out of their community, (11) visit art galleries more frequently, and (12) have more children who have chosen or have aspired to higher level occupations. Education or training under the GI Bill makes little or no difference in (1) stability of family, (2) number of children, (3) involvement in continuing education programs or (4) participation in travel, music or literary programs. The GI Bill has turned out to be a good investment because of both the economic and non-economic contributions it has made to the individual veteran, his family and his community.

¹Direct female participation in the education and training provisions of the GI Bill by this age group was judged to be too minimal to justify their inclusion in the study.

²The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, A Report on Veterans' Benefits in the United States, Readjustment Benefits: General Survey and Appraisal, 84th Cong., 2d sess., House Committee Print No. 289, Staff Report IX, pt. A, Sept. 11, 1956 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), Appendix B, pp. 203-4.



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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
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CHAPTER I

THIRTY YEARS AFTER THE GI BILL

The Problem

Education is essential not only to individual fulfillment but to the vitality of our national life. The vigor of our free institutions depends upon educated men and women at every level of society. . . . Ultimately, education serves all of our purposes--liberty, justice and all our other aims¹

In the decade of the seventies, Americans will be faced with major decisions on national policy. With more and more demands being placed on our national resources it becomes essential to determine whether or not massive new sums of federal money should be put into education and especially into the education of adults. The beginning of the decade seems a particularly appropriate time to examine the social utility of that policy alternative.

While a major share of federal resources have never been committed to adult education, there have been several experiments with such commitment.² One of these, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act

¹President's Commission on National Goals, Report of the Commission, Goals for Americans, administered by the American Assembly of Columbia University (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 89.

²Among these are the Freedmen's Bureau, the Cooperative Extension Service, the depression spawned FERA and TVA, and the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (GI Bill).

(commonly known as the GI Bill), was unique in that it included as one of its major components a program of formal participation in higher education for adults. It also included less formal and lower level components.

It has been the purpose of this study to investigate, in retrospect, the contribution made by the GI Bill to individuals, to their families, and to the society as represented by one reasonably representative mid-American community.

Woven into the threads of American history is an unmistakable federal commitment to education--sometimes strong, sometimes wavering, but always present. Carl T. Pacacha did a valuable study of the influence of one man in shaping federal educational policy. His dissertation, "Floyd Wesley Reeves: Pioneer in Shaping Federal Legislation in Support of Adult Education",¹ traces the turbulent history of federal aid to education during the period of the Great Depression and World War II and culminating in the GI Bill. He emphasized the significance to adult education and to society of that law.

In recent years social scientists, particularly economists, have done many studies on the value of education to the individual and to society. It has been suggested that education may be the way out of poverty for both adults and their children. Early in 1950, the Veterans' Administration undertook a study of the effectiveness of the GI Bill, and when the President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions found little

¹Carl T. Pacacha, "Floyd Wesley Reeves: Pioneer in Shaping Federal Legislation in Support of Adult Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

objective information available to analyze the veterans' program and its contribution to the veterans' readjustment, they arranged a special survey of veterans by the Bureau of the Census in October, 1955.¹ The general appraisal of the education and training program done in these surveys indicated that the GI Bill made a major contribution to the welfare of the nation and to those individual veterans who had taken advantage of the education benefits it provided. These studies, however, were done too early to give a true indication of the long-range effectiveness of the GI Bill.

It would seem that if the GI Bill were found to have been effective in serving both individual and social purposes over a generation of time that this same principle of massive federal support of education might be utilized in attempting long range and durable solutions to some of our present national problems.

Purpose and Plan of the Study

This study sought to ascertain, within the context of one community, whether participation in the education and training program of the GI Bill has made any difference in selected aspects of the lives of individual veterans, their children and their community over a period of three decades. Specifically, it has sought answers to the following questions:

1. Did veterans from semi-skilled and unskilled groups tend to participate less (less frequently and/or at lower levels) than veterans from white collar and skilled groups in GI sponsored education programs?

¹See Chapter III, pages 36-8.

2. Did veterans who participated in the education and training program of the GI Bill differ systematically from non-veterans and from veterans who did not participate with respect to the following characteristics:
 - a. Years of formal post-high school education or training?
 - b. Annual income?
 - c. Occupational patterns?
 - d. Choosing the occupation of their fathers?
 - e. Occupational stability?
 - f. Vertical mobility within their occupations?
 - g. Frequency of voting in local, state, and national elections?
 - h. National offices held?
 - i. State offices held?
 - j. Leadership roles in the community where they reside, such as membership on the city council, library board, school board?
 - k. Volunteer service to civic causes such as United Fund?
 - l. Being the first member of their family to achieve formal post-high school education or training?
 - m. Stability of family?
 - n. Number of children?
 - o. Educational aspiration for their children?
 - p. Education levels achieved by their children?
 - q. Vocations chosen by their children?
 - r. Mobility of residence within the community?
 - s. Migration out of the community?
 - t. Participation in travel, art, music, and literature?
 - u. Involvement in the continuing education programs provided in the community by the schools and colleges, social service agencies, churches, and industries?

The GI Bill represented a case of the commitment of federal resources to education and the basic problem of this study has been an attempt to answer the question: did it work? While several "cross-section" studies have been made of veterans who have received benefits under the GI Bill, no literature has been found which documents the cumulative benefits to the individual, his family and his fellow citizens in a typical American community over a generation of time. It seemed to this investigator that one logical way to assess the GI Bill would be to look very carefully at the World War II veterans in a typical American community in an effort to find out, in so far as possible, whether and how the education and training provisions of the GI Bill had affected them, their families and their community during the past three decades. This study has attempted such an assessment.

Danville, Illinois, was determined to be a reasonably representative mid-American community in which an in-depth case study of veterans could be conducted. Male graduates of Danville High School were selected as the specific population to be studied. (Direct female participation in the education and training provisions of the GI Bill by this age group was judged to be too minimal to justify their inclusion in the study.) The high-school graduating classes of 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940 were chosen for the study as the graduates of these classes would have had ample time to have started advanced education or training prior to U.S. entry into World War II. Those who entered service without post-secondary education and who used the GI education benefits upon returning, were assumed as likely to have not undertaken post-secondary education without the GI Bill.

An instrument, carefully designed to plot the progress of these graduates over three decades, was mailed to all of those of the selected five graduating classes from Danville High School who could be located. Sixty percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned.

Answers to the questions posed in this study as they are revealed in this representative mid-American community over a thirty year period provide valuable insights into the social utility of federally supported adult education. Such insights not only show how effective that particular case was; more significantly, they may suggest how effective we might assume a broader application of the principle to be.

Overview of the Dissertation

This chapter has identified the problem and has posed specific questions which form the basis for the chapters which follow. In Chapter II a brief history of federal involvement in adult education, including the emergence of the GI Bill, is presented. A review of the literature on the value of education as viewed by social scientists and a review of the GI Bill studies conducted by the Veterans' Administration, the President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions and other investigators is presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV portrays the community from which the study sample was drawn, Chapter V describes the survey instrument and the methodology used in the collection and analysis of the data. Chapter VI presents the results obtained from the survey, and Chapter VII contains conclusions and implications.

CHAPTER II

THE GI BILL: SOCIAL PURPOSES AND POLITICAL PROCESSES

Federal Policy toward Adult Education Prior to World War II

Ever since the founding of the republic, significant leaders within the government of the United States have been interested in federal aid to education, including the education of adults. A precedent was established in the Ordinance of 1785 through which public land, the sixteenth section of each township, was reserved by federal action for the support of schools in the newly created Northwest Territory. In 1862 the Morrill Act granted each state 30,000 acres of public land for each of its members in Congress for the purpose of supporting at least one college to provide for "the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life." The act was a significant one for adult education as the land-grant colleges were later to become the operating base for the Cooperative Extension Service, a national educational effort in behalf of adults. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 established the Cooperative Extension Service in each of the land-grant colleges. The recently established Federal City College, while not technically a land-grant college, has developed the newest Cooperative Extension Service with Congressional approval.

The increasing industrialization of the United States, and especially the surge of industrial development associated with World War I, led to a demand for adequately trained workers. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was enacted to provide federal support for vocational education below the college level among youth and adults.¹

During the Great Depression the Roosevelt administration's "New Deal" established various educational programs both inside and outside the traditional institutions of education. While these were viewed chiefly as a means of providing economic relief to individuals and assisting in the national recovery, they also represented another step toward federal participation in the support of education for youth and adults. Among the depression-inspired educational programs which included adult education were:

1. Civil Works Administration (CWA) established within the Federal Emergency Relief Administration in 1933. CWA tackled a variety of jobs: road construction, playgrounds, school construction. Fifty-thousand teachers were employed in country schools or city adult education programs.
2. Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) established in 1933 to provide employment and vocational training for older youth and unemployed men through development of natural resources. CCC involved residence in camps or camp-like settings and included an adult education component for the men after the work day was completed.
3. Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) established in 1933 for the purpose of flood control, navigation, reforestation, electrical

¹This act placed emphasis on adult education by requiring that every vocational education department provide for the education of adults through evening industrial programs. Only instruction supplemental to daily employment was permitted, and funds were provided for programs of instruction and teacher training in agriculture, home economics, trades and industry.

power, national defense, and the agricultural and industrial development of the Tennessee Valley. TVA sponsored extensive adult education programs, which aided in the development and conservation of human resources.

4. Works Progress Administration (WPA) established in 1935 to distribute relief. WPA supported a number of educational projects, including literacy education, high school diploma programs for adults, and the hiring of unemployed teachers and other professionals.
5. National Youth Administration (NYA) established within WPA in 1935 to provide relief and employment to individuals 16-25 years of age. Education, including guidance and placement, were important aspects of the programs for both in-school and out-of-school youth and young adults.

After the depression years there was a revival of concern at the national level for federal funding of education on a more permanent basis. The National Advisory Committee on Education had been appointed by President Hoover in 1929 to formulate a federal educational policy. The Report of the Committee called for a five-year postponement in granting additional financial aid to the states until financial surveys could be completed and, as a result, nothing was accomplished.

On September 19, 1936, President Roosevelt appointed Dr. Floyd Wesley Reeves, a well known educator and staunch advocate of adult education, to chair a committee of distinguished educators to conduct a study of then operating or needed vocational education programs financed by the federal government. This study group, known as the President's National Committee on Vocational Education, soon decided that it could not adequately study vocational education independent of all education; and Dr. Reeves, as chairman, requested the President to authorize a more complete study. This the President did on April 17, 1937. At the same time he expanded the committee in number and breadth of concern for

education. The enlarged committee with its expanded charge was renamed the Advisory Committee on Education. Its report was transmitted to Congress by the President on February 23, 1938. The recommendations of this comprehensive report were incorporated, with slight changes, in Senate Bill 1305 (Federal Aid to Education Act of 1939). Although this Bill was never enacted, many of the Committee's proposals were incorporated into a succession of laws enacted over the ensuing thirty years. The Report of the Advisory Committee was the first comprehensive plan in this country for a systematic effort by federal government to assist in improving the total educational program of the nation. Carl Pacacha has observed that:

To a large degree the Report of the Committee focused on adult education, as well as education of children and youth. Through its provisions for all types of educational programs, the Committee called attention to the inter-relatedness of elementary, secondary, adult, and higher education. And it provided a reference document which would provide basic data for initiating or supporting federal legislation on behalf of education for youth and adults for three decades.¹

Several of its provisions were incorporated along with other benefits for returning servicemen in the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, popularly known as the "GI Bill".

World War II and its aftermath created a set of conditions within which there could be a coming together of: (1) those who favored education as a means of social reconstruction to solve the ills of the nation, (2) those who favored education for its benefit to the individual, and (3) those who saw education for veterans as a way of cushioning the economic shock of re-absorbing returning servicemen and women while at

¹Carl T. Pacacha, op. cit., pp. 112-3.

the same time "winding down" the levels of production and employment at the close of the war. The legislative give-and-take among proponents of these and other purposes produced a balancing of the ends to be served. The war and reconversion emergency were seized upon as levers to open the door to massive federal support of adult education.

The Emergence of the "GI Bill of Rights"

A brief review of its evolution reveals both the underlying purposes and the political realities which explain the character of the GI Bill. In 1939, President Roosevelt had created the National Resources Planning Board (NRPD) as the planning arm of the Executive Office of the President. The Chairman of the Board was the President's uncle, Frederick A. Delano. Its task, as conceived, virtually constituted the social reconstruction of America.¹ Dr. Reeves served as a consultant to the Board from its inception; thus the adult education viewpoint was represented on this most important social planning board.

¹ Its task, as stated in Executive Order No. 8348, was "(a) To survey, collect data on, and analyze problems pertaining to national resources, both natural and human, and to recommend to the President and the Congress long-time plans and programs for the wise use and fullest development of such resources. (b) To consult with Federal, regional, state, local, and private agencies in developing orderly programs of public works and to list for the President and the Congress all proposed public works in the order of their relative importance with respect to (1) the greatest good for the greatest number of people, (2) the emergency necessities of the Nation, and (3) the social, economic, and cultural advancement of the people of the United States. (c) To inform the President of the general trend of economic conditions and to recommend measures leading to their improvement of [sic] stabilization. (d) To act as a clearing house and means of coordination for planning activities, linking together various levels and fields of planning." National Resources Committee, Progress Report, 1939, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1939), p. 167.



The NRPB had actually started economic planning for the postwar period before the United States became directly involved as a combatant. After we were involved, it became increasingly apparent that the end of hostilities would bring serious social and economic disorganization. During the early months of the 1940's the President felt that any publicity given to future demobilization would divert attention from the war, but he knew that planning was necessary. He wanted planning to proceed quietly and on July 6, 1942, he established the Conference on Post-war Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel within the NRPB and appointed Dr. Reeves as its chairman.¹

The Conference, consisting of twelve members, met regularly during 1942-43 as a body within but relatively independent of the NRPD. Its main purpose was to determine plans for the rapid and orderly demobilization of personnel from the Armed Forces without endangering either military or economic security. A difficult question which arose quite early concerned the timing of the discharge of servicemen after the war. The alternative suggested by Dr. Reeves and Leonard Outhwaite, to discharge the men quickly and provide educational benefits to ease their readjustment problems, was adopted. The Conference felt that the continued education of service personnel was essential and that demobilization provided a politically palatable instrument for getting it offered and funded.² The Conference report was a fundamentally humanistic document, the principal elements of which had been authored by Dr. Reeves and Leonard Outhwaite.

¹Carl T. Pacacha, op. cit., pp. 156-7.

²Ibid., pp. 164-8.

Dr. Charles E. Merriam, Dr. Reeves' friend and colleague at the University of Chicago, was serving part-time during the war years as vice-chairman of the National Resources Planning Board of which Frederick A. Delano, uncle of President Roosevelt, was chairman. Merriam had recommended Leonard Outhwaite to Dr. Reeves to serve as Conference secretary. Merriam considered Outhwaite to be one of the most brilliant minds in America and believed that he would complement Reeves and provide him with many outstanding ideas. This indeed proved to be the case. Dr. Reeves freely acknowledges that "the Conference Report is as much his as it is mine."¹ However the severe political disfavor into which the NRPB had fallen and the strategy of minimizing visibility of ties between it and the Conference made it politically unwise to list Outhwaite as a co-author.

Dr. Reeves and Mr. Outhwaite held and spoke for the humanistic view of helping the country by helping the individual. They both believed that the most important thing to do after the war to facilitate the readjustment of both military and civilian personnel to peacetime pursuits was to invest money in the education of people rather than to pour it into industrial reconversion subsidies and hope that it would indirectly serve individual citizens and communities. This opinion was shared despite backgrounds that were economically opposite. Outhwaite had come out of a life of great wealth and luxury while Reeves had come out of a very humble rural setting.

¹ Stated by Floyd W. Reeves in an interview with the writer on July 14, 1971.

Their positions were affected by remembrances of the terrible conditions produced after World War I as veterans and industrial workers were discharged from service and war plants with no jobs and no alternatives to jobs. The unemployment, the poverty, and the veterans' march on Washington were all vivid in their memories. Dr. Reeves also recalled that the average education of men inducted into service in World War I had been grade five, while in World War II it was grade nine.

It seemed to me that we would have an entirely different kind of people coming back. They would be fit subjects in many cases for junior college or college education and in any case for high school education, so we wanted to have the bill provide primarily for educational programs.¹

Dr. Reeves' position as chairman of the Conference enabled him to serve as an effective spokesman for the social point of view he shared with Outhwaite and others, including to some degree at least, President Roosevelt himself.

After every war there has been the question of how to deal with the veteran and accomplish the realignment of the economy. Points of view have ranged from the human concerns of creating personal opportunity from adversity, advocated by Dr. Reeves, to priming the economic pump to at least keep it from running dry. Dr. Reeves' reputation as a renowned educator, the national recognition he received as chairman of the Advisory Committee on Education, which had made some of these same recommendations in 1938, and his work with the National Resources Planning Board made him a man whose words would carry weight with members of the Conference, the NRPB, and other national leaders.

¹Ibid.

The education plan of the Conference was formulated by November, 1942, but the political climate was at that point very inhospitable to any NRPB related plan. Earlier that same year the MRPB had published a report called Security, Work, and Relief Policies¹ which advocated a 'cradle-to-the-grave' social welfare program. This report had led to a Congressional attack headed by Robert Taft and Everett Dirksen that caused the NRPB to be abolished in the spring of 1943.

Realizing that the NRPB had fallen into disfavor with Congress, the President feared prejudice against its report on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel. Consequently, four months after appointment of the Reeves Conference and although much of its work was well advanced, he authorized another study group to investigate the problem of demobilization. This new committee, closely identified with the armed forces, was directed by the President to coordinate its activities with those of the Conference.

On November 13, 1942, when he signed the law lowering the draft age to eighteen, the President announced the appointment of the committee and described its mission, to study the problem of education and training for veterans of World War II. This group was made up of officers of the War and Navy Departments and a group of the nation's leading educators. It was known as the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel. Brigadier General Frederick H. Osborn of the Morale Service Division became the chairman, and the

¹National Resources Planning Board, Security, Work and Relief Policies, Report for 1943, Part 3, submitted to President Roosevelt December 16, 1942 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1943).

committee was generally referred to as the "Osborn Committee". The President's expectations that Reeves and Osborn would work in harmony on education as they had done as members of the President's Advisory Committee on Selective Service in 1940 were fulfilled.¹

The Committee submitted its Preliminary Report to the President on July 30, 1943. Its major premise, the social significance of a major adult education thrust, was quoted by the President to the Congress as follows:

All our work has been based on one fundamental proposition, namely, that the primary purpose of any educational arrangements which we may recommend should be to meet a national need growing out of the aggregate educational shortages which are being created by the war. Every day that the war continues, the extent of this deficit is increased. Our efforts have been centered upon the problem of reversing that trend just as quickly as possible after the war; and we have regarded any benefits which may be extended to individuals in the process as incidental. We can hardly overstress the fact that this has been our fundamental conception of the educational problem you wanted us to explore, for it is a basic foundation of all the proposals we make to deal with it.²

The Osborn Committee recommended a program that would make it possible for all veterans of World War II to spend one year in a school or training establishment to further their education, learn a trade, and prepare for farming, business, or other pursuits. The Committee also recommended that funds be made available so that a limited number of exceptionally able ex-service men and women could carry on general, professional, or technical education for an additional period of one, two, or three years.

¹Ibid., pp. 170-3.

²U.S., Congress, House, Message from the President of the United States transmitting the Preliminary Report of the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel, H. Doc. 344, 78th Congress, 1st sess., October 27, 1943, p. 6.

The only qualifications for entering the first year of training, under the Osborn Committee proposal, were that the veteran: (1) had served six months or more in the Armed Forces after September 16, 1940, (2) was admitted to an approved educational institution, and (3) began his training within six months after leaving the service. For those chosen for additional training (the number to be apportioned among the States according to the number of service personnel coming from these states) there were additional provisions:

(1) That completion of the courses they are taking will serve to meet recognized educational needs;

(2) That by superior performance on a competitive basis they have demonstrated the likelihood that they will profit from these courses; and

(3) That they continue to make satisfactory progress in the courses and to give promise of future usefulness.¹

To make it financially possible for all eligible veterans to enroll for the first year of education and training, the Committee recommended that the Government pay, for a full-time student, tuition and fees as well as subsistence allowances of \$50 per month if single and \$75 per month if married, with an allowance of \$10 per month for each child. Part-time students were to receive tuition and fees only. Those chosen for additional schooling were to have the same financial arrangements, with the added provisions of Federal loans to a maximum of \$50 a month for those finding it impossible to meet their expenses with the grant provided. Tuition and fees were to be paid to the institution with the subsistence grants to be paid directly to each student.

¹Ibid., p. 9.



The Committee estimated that, on the basis of twelve million men and women in the Armed Forces, approximately one million would take advantage of the program, with a total cost of about one billion dollars. It anticipated that veterans would participate in a wide variety of educational programs ranging from literacy training to postgraduate work.

The Committee felt that the Federal government did not need to infringe upon the traditional State and local control of education except to assure that the funds appropriated were providently spent. It recommended a series of proposals for immediate action to help minimize the problems likely to arise in the operation of such a bold new program of education and training. These included the establishment of an office within a permanent Federal agency to assist the states in the development of educational and training programs for veterans.

It is interesting and significant to note that the expressed purpose of the Osborn Committee was not primarily to serve the interests of individual veterans, but to lessen the educational gap caused for the nation by the war. This position was later reaffirmed, in terms almost identical to those in its transmittal message, by another Presidential commission. "Any benefits that the individual veteran might derive from his education and training were considered to be incidental."¹

The President's Political sagacity saved the vast educational plan of the NRPB Conference by pulling it out of the general social reconstruction plan. The educational provisions of the Osborn Committee

¹The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, A Report on Veterans' Benefits in the United States, Readjustment Benefits: Education and Training and Employment and Unemployment, 84th Cong., 2d sess., House Committee Print No. 291, Staff Report IX, pt. B, Sept. 12, 1956 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 5.



report were very similar to those of the Conference chaired by Dr. Reeves, and the fact that Osborn was a General made his report acceptable to Congress as a readjustment program for veterans.¹ Whether one regarded it as a bill to enhance the long range welfare of the individual, a bill to provide for the needs of the nation, or simply as a veterans' bonus bill, he could vote for its passage.

In his message to Congress, October 27, 1943, transmitting the Osborn report to Congress, the President restated his belief in the social value to be gained from a major public investment in education.

The President said:

Vocational and educational opportunities for veterans should be of the widest range. There will be those of limited education who now appreciate, perhaps for the first time, the importance of general education and who would welcome a year in school or college. There will be those who desire to learn a remunerative trade or to fit themselves more adequately for specialized work in agriculture or commerce. There will be others who want professional courses to prepare them for their life work.

Lack of money should not prevent any veteran of this war from equipping himself for the most useful employment for which his aptitudes and willingness qualify him. The money invested in this training and schooling program will reap rich dividends in higher productivity, more intelligent leadership, and greater human happiness.

We must replenish our supply of persons qualified to discharge the heavy responsibilities of the post-war world. We have taught our youth how to wage war; we must also teach them how to live useful and happy lives in freedom, justice, and decency.²

He pointed out the immediate economic and social benefits of the proposed educational provisions in his statement:

¹Carl T. Pacacha, op. cit., p. 174.

²U.S., Congress, House, Message from the President of the United States transmitting the Preliminary Report of the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel, op. cit., p. 2.



One incidental benefit of permitting discharged veterans to put in a year or more of schooling or training would be to simplify and cushion the return to civilian employment of service personnel. And I might call to your attention the fact that it costs less to keep a man at school or college or training on the job, than to maintain him on active duty for a year.¹

Senator Thomas of Utah introduced the bill (S. 1509, 78th Cong.), which contained the Committee's recommendations. The bill was reported favorably by the Senate Committee on Education and Labor on February 9, 1944. The debate that developed in committee was not in opposition to the bill, but was centered around ways to broaden its scope, reduce eligibility requirements and increase availability of its benefits. As an example, a minority report, signed by Senator Pepper of Florida and four other committee members, lamented the eligibility provisions requiring six months active duty and the provision that eligibility for training beyond one year was to be selectively approved.

Many other bills related to veterans' benefits were also introduced. The great problem faced by Congress was the combination into one bill of all the suggestions for the readjustment of veterans to civilian life. In addition to education, these proposals included housing and business loans, unemployment compensation and assistance in securing employment. Testimony was presented by officials of the Federal government, leaders of veterans' and educational organizations and members of Congress. One major discussion surrounding education and training concerned the locus of responsibility for its administration. The veterans'

¹Franklin Delano Roosevelt, "Message to the Congress on Education of War Veterans, October 17, 1943," in The Tide Turns, The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt, compiled by Samuel I. Rosenman (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), pp. 451-2.



groups wanted the program centered in the Veterans' Administration and the educators insisted on the United States Office of Education. Other differences of opinion related to the procedure by which the objectives were to be obtained.

There was general agreement that a major component of the benefits awarded to veterans of this war should be generous provision for education and training. The issues were questions of how, how much and for how many. These issues were resolved with the passage of Public Law 346, a law having more liberal provisions than Senate Bill 1509, embodying the recommendations of the Osborn Committee, would have had. In addition to education and training, Public Law 346 established three further programs to aid the veteran in his readjustment. These were loans for the purchase of homes, farms and businesses, assistance in finding employment, and a readjustment allowance (unemployment compensation) for all veterans.

Senate Bill 1509 would have placed the administration of educational benefits in the Office of Education; Public Law 346 placed the program in the Veterans' Administration. In the area of education and training, Public Law 346 reduced the period of service needed for eligibility to ninety days and opened the program to all veterans "who had had their education impeded, interrupted, delayed or interfered with" by entrance into service. A particularly significant provision was that persons not over age twenty-five at the time of entrance into service were to be presumed to have suffered such interruption, delay or interference. There were no specifications in the law relating to aptitude or interests of the veterans or to national needs for various skills or professions.



One year of training was provided to every eligible veteran. If this were completed satisfactorily and if the veteran had been younger than twenty-six years of age at the time of induction or if, as an older man at induction, his education or training had been impeded or interrupted by reason of entrance into service, he was eligible for additional training for a period equal to the time he was in active service, but not to exceed four years. The law made no provision for educational loans but the subsistence allowance continued during the period of entitlement.

A comparison of S. 1509 and Public Law 346 shows that the law as passed was much less restrictive in the selection of eligible veterans. S. 1509 was based on the philosophy that the Government's responsibility, beyond the 1 year of training open to all veterans, was limited to providing education and training to the few who were qualified to profit from such education and who by completing such training would fill the educational gap. Congress decided that a much broader program was in the best interest of the veteran and of society. From the hearings on S. 1509, S. 1617, and H. R. 3917, one may also infer that Congress feared a narrower program would result in the selection of students in the interest of institutional and narrowly defined educational needs, rather than in the best interest of the individual veteran and the general welfare.¹

Public Law 346 was further liberalized by the passage of Public Law 368, 79th Congress, 1st session, on December 28, 1945. This law, amending the GI Bill, removed the limitations on education and training for those individuals who had not commenced education or training and had it interrupted by entrance into service, increased subsistence allowances and extended time for initiating training. Education and training thus became available to any veteran of any age who had served ninety days on active duty between September 16, 1940, and the end of the war.

¹The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, A Report of Veterans' Benefits in the United States, Readjustment Benefits: Education and Training and Employment and Unemployment, op. cit., p. 9.



The passage of Public Law 346 was a triumph for adult education and its supporters. Dr. Floyd Wesley Reeves and his colleagues in education and government had done a superb job in keeping attention focused on the needs of adults as well as children and youth while leading efforts on behalf of federal aid to education. His work as Chairman of the Advisory Committee on Education had brought attention to all areas of education. With the coming of the war, Dr. Reeves and the other advocates supporting federal aid to education astutely merged their cause, at least to the extent that it was concerned with adult education, with that of the many who were concerned about returning to a peace-time economy and the return and readjustment of veterans. Public Law 346 was the result. It served as a vehicle for the launching of a social policy with respect to the federal support of education which they had been preparing for almost a decade. "In a large sense, the war served as an excuse for giving a generation of young men and young women a level of education which most of them would not have had if there had been no war."¹

The final GI Bill was both praised as the most forward step ever taken in the name of democratic education and condemned as a great experiment in socialized education.² Certainly no one in the mid 1940's

¹Carl T. Pacacha, op. cit., p. 169.

²Byron H. Atkinson, "The GI Bill as a Social Experiment," School and Society, LXVIII, No. 1751 (1948), pp. 43-4; Homer D. Babbidge, Jr. and Robert M. Rosenzweig, The Federal Interest in Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962), p. 23; Paul Klapper, "The Place of the College in Educating the Veteran for Civilian Life," School and Society, LX, No. 1578 (1945), pp. 177-80; William Randall, "Implications of the

foresaw the vast numbers who would ultimately take advantage of the program. According to the government's figures, almost eight million participated at a total cost of fifteen billion dollars.¹ The Osborn Committee had estimated one million participants and Dr. Reeves had envisioned as many as two or three million war workers and veterans combined who would want to enter higher education institutions.² In defense of Dr. Reeves' estimate, however, it must be noted that he was referring only to education in institutions of higher education and the GI Bill encompassed far more education outside of higher education institutions than in them.

Summary

From the historical evidence presented it can be stated that the GI Bill as enacted and amended, along with its other components, was an adult education bill intended, in fact, to serve the general well being of both the community and the individual. It rested upon and extended the public policy assumption that adult education serves the social welfare. That assumption, although never clearly enunciated, was nevertheless implicit in the Morrill Act of 1862 establishing a land-grant

'GI Bill'," School and Society, LXIII, No. 1641 (1946), pp. 412-3; Alice M. Rivlin, The Role of the Federal Government in Financing Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute, 1961), p. 64; Dixon Wecter, When Johnny Comes Marching Home (Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1944), pp. 532-3.

¹The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, Staff Report IX, pt. B., op. cit., p. 1.

²Floyd W. Reeves, "The Contribution of Higher Education During the Transition from War to Peace," Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, XIX, No. 4 (1944), p. 453.



colleges, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 establishing the Cooperative Extension Service in the land-grant colleges, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 establishing adult evening schools in vocational education departments, and the depression-inspired programs embracing adult education.

The GI Bill emerged, after the liberalizing amendments of 1945, as a piece of federal legislation committing this country to a broad, comprehensive program that did far more than had been anticipated to provide educational opportunities for a generation of mostly young adults. Logically one might be expected to ask: did it work? It has been the purpose of this study to address that question.



CHAPTER III

IMPUTED VALUES OF EDUCATION IN GENERAL AND OF THE GI BILL IN PARTICULAR

Social Scientists View the Contributions of Education

In recent years, economists, sociologists, educators and political scientists have assessed the contributions of education to the individual and to society. Economists, in particular, have conducted many studies which have clearly established a relationship between the level of formal education attained and income, economic growth and production, although they are not in total agreement on the extent of the causal effect which may be credited to education.

Quite generally the studies have shown that persons with more education receive more income.¹ Herman P. Miller studied the relationship

¹William G. Bowen, "Assessing the Economic Contribution of Education: An Appraisal of Alternative Approaches," in Economic Aspects of Higher Education, edited by Seymour E. Harris (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1962), p. 196; D. X. Bridgman, "Problems in Estimating the Monetary Value of College Education," The Review of Economics and Statistics, XLII, Supplement (August, 1960), pp. 1-10; Edmund deS. Brunner, "Education and Economic Characteristics," Teaching College Record, XLIX, No. 7 (1948), p. 465; Hendrik S. Houthakker, "Education and Income," The Review of Economics and Statistics, XLI, No. 1 (1959), pp. 24-8; Herman P. Miller, "Income and Education: Does Education Pay Off?" in Economics of Higher Education, edited by Sel

between education levels and income levels within a national population sample for the years 1939-1959 and reported that:

In every year for which data are presented the completion of an additional year of schooling was associated with higher average income for men. This finding parallels that obtained in numerous other studies of the relationship between education and income dating back to the early part of the century. Although the income levels have changed considerably during the past 20 years, the relationship between the extent of schooling and income appears to have remained much the same. Contrary to the expectations of some analysts, the economic advantages accruing from the completion of additional years of schooling have not diminished in recent years.

Miller also points out that the advantages of additional schooling extend beyond those that are immediately apparent. Inexperienced workers, even with high levels of education, may start at low wage levels; but their wage increases, as skill and experience are acquired, are generally larger and more frequent than those of their less educated peers. As a result, the financial benefits of additional schooling tend to accumulate over time, and the greatest impact is felt at the period of peak earnings.²

J. Mushkin, U.S. Department of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1962 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1962), p. 130; Theodore Schultz, The Economic View of Education (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963), pp. 5-8.

¹Herman P. Miller, "Annual and Life Income In Relation to Education: 1939-1959," American Economic Review, L, No. 5 (1960),

²Ibid., p. 973. Lee W. Hansen and Burton A. Weisbrod also emphasize that the payoff from higher education does not arise in a single year or even in several years, but continues through one's working lifetime. See W. Lee Hansen and Burton A. Weisbrod, Benefit Costs and Finance of Public Higher Education (Chicago: Markham Publishing Company, 1969), p. 19.



In another study that Miller conducted with Paul Glick, it was found that a progressive increase in differential in the average amount of annual income was associated with completion of a college education. They also emphasize the benefits of non-financial character. They concluded that:

It seems reasonable to believe that a majority of youths in this country who are willing and able to continue their schooling can justifiably expect to receive considerably higher income in the long run by completing their education through college instead of entering the labor market after finishing high school. This belief rests on the assumption that the economy can make profitable use in the future of a much larger number of well-educated young people than it has in the past. Moreover it refers only to material gains, whereas the prospects of achieving more subtle satisfactions from mastering a higher education are more compelling to many people than the prospects of greater financial success.¹

Although John Vaizey agrees that there is a clear relationship between education and income, he is troubled by the assumption behind the studies of many economists that the difference in income is fully explained by the college education.

This leads to a point of major importance; there is a multiple correlation between parental wealth, parental income, access to educational opportunity, motivation in education, access to the best jobs, and 'success' in later life. Above all, there is sheer native wit and ability which will 'out' despite all additional handicaps. It is dreadfully easy to involve oneself in a chicken and egg controversy: 'which comes first the income or the education?' especially in old and class-ridden societies.²

One of the most helpful attempts to deal with the problem of whether all additional income of the education should be associated with the higher level of education or with other factors singly or in

¹Paul C. Glick and Herman P. Miller, "Educational Level and Potential Income." American Sociological Review, XXI, No. 3 (1956), p. 308.

²John Vaizey, The Economics of Education (London: Faber and Faber, 1962), p. 45.



combination was made by Dael Wolfle and Joseph G. Smith. They compared the achievement, fifteen to twenty years later, of two large groups of high school graduates of equal ability on the basis of grades and aptitude tests. One group had gone on to college while the other had terminated formal education after high school.¹

Male high school graduates who stood high in their classes tended to earn more than those who stood low in their high school classes. Those who, as students, had made high scores on intelligence tests, later earned higher salaries than did those who had made low scores on intelligence tests. The ones who came from more favored family backgrounds had higher incomes than those who came from less favored portions of the socio-economic scale. (Not enough of the women were employed to justify statistical analysis.)²

Superimposed on these three tendencies, however, and in a sense overriding all three, was clear evidence of substantial salary differences directly related to the amounts of education beyond high school. For men within any given level of high school rank or for men within any given range of intelligence test scores, the median salary rose steadily with larger amounts of post-high school education. Although high-school grades, intelligence-test scores, and father's occupation were all correlated with salaries being earned fifteen to twenty years after graduation from high school, amount of education beyond high school was most clearly related to salaries being earned.

¹Dael Wolfle and Joseph G. Smith, "The Occupational Value of Education for Superior High School Graduates," Journal of Higher Education, XXVII (April, 1956), p. 201.

²Ibid., p. 206.



The advantage of higher education is greatest for those of highest ability. A man of moderately superior qualifications can earn more and contribute more with advanced education than without it; a man of very superior qualifications can earn and contribute much more.¹

Seymour E. Harris has provided a succinct statement concerning the economists' studies.

On the returns to education issue, at least this may be said: It is clear that students who go to college or have more education tend to have higher annual incomes and higher lifetime incomes. The portion to be allotted to education is not clear²

A number of studies have confirmed that the relation between college education and the father's educational attainment is a strong one.³ Brazer and David describe the sharp rise in the level of education that has occurred in America and state that higher levels of education of parents helps to explain motivation toward higher levels of education for children.

The distribution of educational attainments is strongly influenced by the experience of the last generation; it also implies a strong mechanism for transferring the values and accomplishments of each generation to the succeeding generation⁴

Education of the spending unit head proved to be the most important factor influencing the education of the children.⁵

¹Ibid., p. 208.

²Seymour E. Harris, editor, Economic Aspects of Higher Education, op. cit., p. 57.

³Louis H. Conger, Jr., "College and University Enrollment: Projections," in Economics of Higher Education, edited by Selma J. Mushkin, op cit., p. 14; Herman P. Miller, Rich Man, Poor Man (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1964), p. 117.

⁴Harvey E. Brazer and Martin David, "Social and Economic Determinates of the Demand for Education," in Economics of Higher Education, edited by Selma J. Mushkin, op. cit., p. 23.

⁵Ibid., p. 26.



Several studies also point to the fact that the more educated the person, the broader his range of choice of vocation.¹ In addition to providing a greater variety of occupational opportunities, more education also allows people to move vertically to higher positions. Further, most sociologists agree that education affects social status.

Amount of education has not become a good indicator of socio-economic status, from lower-lower up through upper-middle class, for education leads to economic opportunity. Young people, through education, secure higher-status jobs than their fathers had. With greater incomes, young adults from lower-status families tend to associate with persons of higher status and learn and adopt their ways. We may conclude consequently, that education provides the channel not only to better socio-economic status, but also to social mobility in the broader sense.²

Several economists point out that as the educated man earns more money, he also tends to consume more goods and services.³ Weisbrod indicates a number of additional benefits of education which tend to "spill-over" to society in general. Literacy has social value beyond its value to the individual possessing it and to employers. Education

¹Edward F. Dennison, "Measuring the Contributions of Education to Economic Growth," in The Economy of Education, edited by E. A. G. Robinson and J. E. Vaizey (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1966), p. 236; George F. Kneller, Education and Economic Thought (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 91; Burton A. Weisbrod, Spillover of Public Education Costs and Benefits, Part One: Benefits, Cooperative Research Project No. 1045 (U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Program, n.d.), p. 9.

²Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, Society and Education (2nd ed.: Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962), p. 229.

³Robert S. Eckhaus, "Education and Economic Growth," in Economics of Higher Education, edited by Selma J. Mushkin, op. cit., p. 108; W. Lee Hansen and Burton A. Weisbrod, Benefits, Costs, and Finance of Public Higher Education, op. cit., p. viii; George F. Kneller, Education and Economic Thought, op. cit., p. 91; Burton A. Weisbrod, Spillover of Education Costs and Benefits, op. cit., p. 11.



also contributes to equality of opportunity which is a social goal. Society also benefits from the higher taxes associated with the greater income of higher educated persons.¹

Robert M. Solow, Professor of Economics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has studied the value of education to society. At a Harvard seminar on education and public policy he made the following statement:

. . . the proper criterion for the allocation of resources for education, as distinct from the use of resources in other industries, is not simply its contribution to the algebraic rate of increase of the Gross National Product. There is also a consumption or amenity aspect of education. We value education, not only because it helps to increase the GNP, but also, I have heard tell, because it makes good citizens and enriches life and accomplishes a couple of other minor things.²

Philip M. Hauser gives emphasis to the amenity or "quality-of-life" values of education.

What are the implications of the American people's rising level of formal education?

First of all, it should be noted that increased education opens up new vistas of intellectual, emotional and aesthetic experience to the population. It means that the level of living of the people of the United States will be raised culturally as well as materially.³

¹Burton A. Weisbrod, Spillover of Public Education Costs and Benefits, op. cit., p. 12.

²Edward F. Dennison, Robert M. Solow, and Otto Eckstein, "Education and Economic Productivity," in Education and Public Policy, edited by Seymour E. Harris and Alan Levensohn (Berkeley, Cal.: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1965), p. 338.

³Philip M. Hauser, Population Perspectives (New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1960), p. 75.



Herman P. Miller's studies have verified the positive relationship between education and personal income, but he adds still another socially significant contribution. The poor may come to see education as a way out of poverty, both for adults and for their children.

Perhaps it is regrettable to stress the value of education in such crass terms. Education tends to produce a richer and more varied life, and it is fundamental to the operation of a democratic society. For these reasons alone, it is worth its cost in time, money, and effort even if the economic advantage should cease to exist. . . .

But there is at least one more reason for stressing the payoff from education--to convince our poor, whose children are badly in need of schooling, that it may be a way out of their present dilemma. There are still many in our society who have had little experience with education and they do not see how it can help them. It is a simple point, but a fundamental one that is often overlooked. Many social workers have observed that the poor today lack the interest in education that characterized the immigrant poor who lived in the same slums twenty or thirty years ago. If this is the case, it could perpetuate the vicious circle which transmits poverty from one generation to the next.¹

Assessments of the GI Bill

The long-range effectiveness of the GI Bill as an exemplary program of federally supported continuing education, in achieving these and similar purposes of education certainly needed to be assessed. Among the early assessments that were made, several examined the extent to which World War II veterans received benefits under the GI Bill and some of them analyzed the differences apparent as a result of their having received them. The federal government authorized several of these studies to evaluate the results of the various programs and to serve as a guide for legislative and administrative planning of subsequent programs

¹Herman P. Miller, Rich Man, Poor Man, op. cit., pp. 148-9.

Early in 1950, the Veterans' Administration Committee on Statistical Needs, made up of representatives from each of the operating and staff offices and the Office of the Administrator, recommended that a special study be conducted to provide data describing the pattern of World War II veterans' participation in the major VA programs and the combined amount of benefits received under all programs by specified groups of beneficiaries in the five years after V-J Day. The study design and the report are published by the Reports and Statistics Service, Office of the Controller, Veterans' Administration.¹

This study of a randomly selected group of veterans was made to determine the number and characteristics of World War II veterans who received benefits and services under the major VA programs, the amount of such benefits and services, and the extent of multi-program participation. The sample consisted of approximately one-tenth of one percent of all veterans who had been separated from the Armed Forces between September 16, 1940 and August 31, 1950. The group was selected on the basis of a terminal-digit number from a one percent sample of separations maintained by the Veterans' Administration. Age, length of service, and date of discharge were obtained from the original separation records; state employment security and unemployment compensation agencies furnished the information of the readjustment allowances program; and VA records² provided data of other benefits and services received by the veterans.

¹The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, A Report of Veterans' Benefits in the United States, Readjustment Benefits: General Survey and Appraisal, 84th Cong., 2d sess., House Committee Print No. 289, Staff Report IX, pt. A, Sept. 11, 1956 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), Appendix C, pp. 299-300.

²Ibid., pp. 302-3.

Between September 16, 1940 and August 31, 1950 an estimated 15,879,000 World War II veterans returned to civil life after an average of about 2 1/2 years of service in the Armed Forces. By the end of the 5-year readjustment period following V-J Day, almost 9 out of 10 of these veterans had been in civil life at least 4 years. In general, they were relatively young, unmarried, of somewhat better than average education, and with comparatively little civilian work experience when they entered the Armed Forces. After their service, many were disabled, some needed special assistance to overcome occupational handicaps, substantial numbers of them were unemployed, and many planned to continue their delayed or interrupted education and job training.¹

The report showed that three out of four veterans (11,683,000) had received benefits under at least one of the three programs (education and training, readjustment allowances, and loan guaranty and insurance) of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, Public Law 346. Cash benefits under the education and training program totaled about \$10.4 billion. It is interesting to note that the 7,017,000 veterans (slightly over forty-four percent of all World War II veterans) who had been in education and training programs had used, on the average, less than one-third of their entitlement with only slightly more than four percent (311,000) of them having exhausted their entitlement by 1950.²

The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions undertook an analysis of the veterans' program to provide a general picture of the readjustment needs of veterans, their actual experiences during readjustment and, in so far as possible, to measure how successfully veterans had reestablished themselves in civilian life and to what degree their present status was related to the use of major GI benefits. The

¹Ibid., p. 300

²Ibid., pp. 300-1.

Commission found that little objective information was available when they began their study. To provide such data, the Commission arranged for a special survey of veterans in October, 1955, by the Bureau of the Census, in conjunction with its regular sample survey of the population--the Current Population Survey.¹

The primary purposes of this survey were (1) to determine the economic and social position of veterans and particularly of those veterans who are without service-connected disabilities, (2) to analyze the experience of veterans in their readjustment from military to civilian life, and to provide objective data on the effectiveness of readjustment benefits, and (3) to establish a base against which the status of disabled veterans would be measured

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In addition to permitting the comparisons between non-disabled and disabled veterans, the Census Bureau survey provided the Commission with basic information on the characteristics of veterans, including age, marital status, employment status and occupation before entering the Armed Forces, wartime experience, period of war service, use of readjustment benefits, place of residence, prewar and postwar education and work experience, income, use of hospitals, and days lost by illness. Some of these characteristics were obtained from individual control cards maintained by the Bureau of the Census for the population surveys; others through the special questionnaire developed by the Commission.²

The survey covered about 7,900 male veterans in the stratified area sample of 25,000 households in the Census monthly population survey and approximately 7,100 completed schedules were obtained for tabulating.³ It showed that during the early postwar years a substantial number of veterans were either unemployed or not in the labor force. The cushioning effect of the education and training programs were revealed as being of major importance.

¹Ibid., p. 73.

²Ibid., Appendix B, p. 195.

³Ibid., p. 195.

Unquestionably, the availability of the GI Bill benefits encouraged many veterans to attend school or take training rather than seek jobs. Others chose training because of the difficulty of finding jobs. The withdrawal of both groups from the labor force helped ease the impact of postwar unemployment.¹

The younger veterans, those who were less than twenty-five years old in 1945, made the greatest use of education and training allowances. Many of the veterans in this age group had entered service before completing their education or before they had formed definite job attachments. These veterans were more likely to desire additional education or training.²

When comparing the jobs veterans held before entering service with those held at the time of the 1955 survey, it was found that a very large number of veterans had shifted into fields of work unrelated to their pre-war occupations. In most cases, these shifts were to jobs requiring more skill, education, or experience than the veteran possessed before entering the Armed Forces. Veterans who used GI training benefits were in general more likely to shift into new occupational fields than those who did not take training, and more likely to shift into higher-paid occupations (professional, managerial, or skilled).³

Some of the conclusions drawn from the survey were:

(1) As a group, the veterans for whom the GI Bill was created have established themselves successfully in civilian life.

(2). Veterans of World War II, particularly those in the younger age groups are more likely than nonveterans to be working in those occupations which are highest paid and generally associated with higher social status.

¹Ibid., p. 55.

²Ibid., p. 69.

³Ibid., p. 78.

(3) Veterans in each age group have completed about two more years of formal education than nonveterans and his [sic] higher average education is directly linked to his more favorable occupational position. There is also evidence that GI training not involving formal education has been of value. Among veterans with a specified amount of formal education, those who used GI training tend to be in better jobs.

(4) The median earned income of veterans in a given age group is higher than for nonveterans.

The favored economic position of veterans has one other interesting implication. As a relatively high-income group, making up up a large part of the labor force, veterans in a decade or two from now will constitute the group contributing most to Federal revenues, at least on a per capita basis. Future benefits to veterans, in large part, will represent largely a redistribution of income between different groups of veterans.¹

In its general appraisal of the education and training program the Commission report states:

The veterans' educational program was a major contribution to the national welfare, and the country would be weaker educationally, economically, and in terms of national defense, if educators, veterans' organizations, the President and the Congress had not seen fit to embark upon this new and momentous educational enterprise.²

In 1951, a study was done by Raymond Mulligan to compare the socio-economic background of veterans and non-veterans attending Indiana University in relation to the total population in the state of Indiana. He found, among other things, that the farming, semi-skilled and unskilled groups did not, or were not able to, use the GI Bill in proportion to their numbers in the state and tentatively hypothesized that:

. . . in general, the absence of talented students from white collar and skilled groups in institutions of higher learning is due, on the whole, to economic rather than cultural factors, but that,

¹Ibid., pp. 143 and 145.

²The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, Readjustment Benefits: Education and Training and Employment and Unemployment, op. cit., p. 119.

in general, the absence of talented students from farming, semi-skilled and unskilled groups in institutions of higher learning is due, on the whole, to cultural factors rather than to purely economic factors.¹

Several studies have dealt with the veteran's success as a student.² Many persons, educators and national leaders alike, had expressed fears that the influx of veterans into colleges and universities would mean a lowering of educational standards. Some felt that many GI's would attend only to get the subsistence grants, and, on the other hand, that many schools would not be able to resist the dollars represented by the veterans and would drop admission standards. Others felt that the GI's were too old to learn and that they would not be able to cope with authority.

These fears were widely demonstrated to be unfounded. In one typical study of the performance of some 2,400 veterans attending Brooklyn College from 1946 to 1949, Gideonse found that "at each point of progression in the college course veterans were doing better than non-veterans." This study was especially significant as veterans had been admitted, at Brooklyn as at most other colleges and universities, on the basis of lower qualifying scores than non-veterans.³

¹Raymond A. Mulligan, "Socio-Economic Background and College Enrollment," American Sociological Review, XVI, No. 2 (1951), p. 196.

²Among these in addition to those cited are Louis M. Hansen and Donald G. Paterson, "Scholastic Achievement of Veterans." School and Society, LXIX, No. 1786 (1949), pp. 195-7; Clark Tibbitts and Woodrow W. Hunter, "Veterans and Non-Veterans at the University of Michigan," School and Society, LXV, No. 1689 (1947), pp. 347-350.

³Harry D. Gideonse, "Educational Achievements of Veterans at Brooklyn College," The Educational Record, XXXI, No. 4 (1958), pp. 460-1.



The Educational Testing Service, in the early 1950's, examined the records of 10,000 veteran and non-veteran students in sixteen colleges. This study also found that the veteran did as well as or better than the non-veteran student. Age and experience were among factors playing a part in superior achievement by veterans. This study also discovered that students from families whose incomes were under \$2,000 a year did better than students whose families earned more. The authors, Fredericksen and Shrader, concluded:

It is hard to escape the impression that the over-achieving student is the one who has the most to overcome in the way of economic and social barriers.¹

Olson, in his 1968 analysis of the GI Bill, described the veteran:

As a student the veteran was serious, mature, and hard working. Beyond that, the early predictions of what he would be like proved misleading. Almost all studies have concluded that the veteran earned higher grades than did his nonveteran classmate. Thirty percent of all veterans were married and ten percent had children when they started their education, yet these veterans usually earned higher grades than single veterans. A study of the class of 1949 by Fortune magazine concluded that contrary to expectation that veterans would be impatient with authority, "just the opposite" was true. President Conant of Harvard admitted that the veterans were "the most mature and promising students Harvard has ever had."²

Another indication that the GI Bill was successful and was in the public interest came from a 1963 study by Yoder. He examined a random sample of 1000 veterans, educated under the GI Bill, who had appeared

¹Norman Fredericksen and W. B. Shrader, Adjustment to College--A Study of 10,000 Veteran and Non-Veteran Students in Sixteen American Colleges (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1952), pp. 33-34.

²Keith W. Olson, A Historical Analysis of the G.I. Bill and Its Relationship to Higher Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 2-436 (Syracuse: Syracuse University Institute of Research, 1968), pp. 10-1.

in the 1960-61 edition of Who's Who in America. All of them were under forty-six years of age while ninety-four percent of the men listed in Who's Who are older than this. Twenty percent of these veterans indicated that they likely would not have continued their education after World War II had it not been for the GI Bill. It is interesting to note that this is the same percentage as that found by Fredericksen in the early 1950's.¹

Emens, in 1965, "looked at a new generation of Americans--many of them sons and daughters of G.I. Bill educated veterans--who are taking their first steps in higher education. . . . For as the rich attainments of the G.I. Bill have shown, education begets education."² He also pointed out the financial success of the GI Bill, both to the individual and to society.

With higher incomes, the G.I. Bill beneficiaries are also inevitably paying higher taxes. Estimates based on Census and Internal Revenue data show that income added by G.I. Bill training produces tax payments of about \$1 billion a year to the U.S. Treasury and that this amount will increase as the incomes of veterans continue pull ahead of non-veterans. This means that the \$14 billion cost of the educational provisions of the G. I. Bill has already been well repaid to the Nation. That education is one of the soundest economic investments can therefore be demonstrated to the satisfaction of the most skeptical critic.³

In 1970, Donald Johnson, the Administrator of Veteran Affairs, made similar observations about the GI Bill. He commented:

¹Amos Yoder, "Lessons of the GI Bill," Phi Delta Kappan, XLIV, No. 7 (1963), pp. 342-5.

²John R. Emens, "Education Begets Education: The G.I. Bill Twenty Years Later," American Education, I, No. 8 (1965), p. 12.

³Ibid., p. 12.

Perhaps the question, "What has this cost the country?" might be rephrased, "What will this pay the country?" A recent Department of Labor report estimates that a man with a college degree will earn \$201,000 more in his working lifetime than one with only high school training. Using the present tax rate, as applied to an average married man with two children who works for 35 years, the report estimated that the Federal income tax to be paid on this additional income during his lifetime will be about eight times the cost to the government of his GI education.¹

Johnson also pointed to the importance of the GI Bill to adult education. Though he revealed a very constricted view of pre-war programs of adult education.

"Adult education" prior to World War II had been confined primarily to minor avocational fields such as music appreciation, traveler's French, etc. The realization that mature people could enjoy and succeed in a more serious type of instruction brought about the great boom in adult education today. Most major colleges and many smaller schools now offer a wide range of courses, some bearing degree credits, to the adult members of their communities.²

Summary

There seems to be general agreement that the GI Bill functioned effectively to alleviate the problem of educational shortages created by the war, made it possible for every veteran to equip himself for the most useful employment of which he was capable, made it possible for him to enjoy the amenity products of higher education, and to ease the social and economic disorganization which would likely have accompanied demobilization by providing for the orderly readjustment of the individual veteran to civilian life.

¹Donald E. Johnson, "A Quarter Century of the G.I. Bill," School and Society, XCVIII, No. 2325 (1970), p. 228.

²Ibid., p. 228.

Scholarly studies have shown that individuals with higher levels of education are likely to receive more income, have a broader range of vocations, have greater social mobility, have a richer and more interesting life, and have children who are more likely to desire and achieve a high educational level.

The studies previously made of veterans show that, as a group, they have generally been successful in their adjustment to civilian life. Many chose to pursue further education or training rather than seek employment immediately. This tendency greatly eased the problems of demobilization. In general, those who used the education and training program were more likely to shift to a more prestigious and better paying job.

These studies, however, were broad surveys, and the more complete ones undertaken by the government were done so soon after the end of the war that it was not possible to assess whether these apparent gains were temporary or whether they would hold true or perhaps loom even larger over a long period of time. The present study replicates some portions of these earlier ones in addition to looking at several additional factors and at the veterans' families for possible effects upon them. The male high school graduates in the five years immediately preceding World War II in one mid-American community were chosen as a representative population for this more intensive study, the purpose of which is to assess the impact, a quarter century after the termination of World War II, of the education and training benefits of the GI Bill for the veteran, his family and his community in one reasonably representative mid-American community.

CHAPTER IV

THE COMMUNITY WHERE THE STUDY WAS MADE

Introduction

Previous studies have shown that the GI Bill was successful in cushioning the impact of the abrupt cessation of hostilities. These studies also have shown that those veterans who utilized its educational benefits were more likely to get a better job. However, the most comprehensive surveys were conducted before the final deadline of training eligibility had been reached. Many additional veterans decided at the last minute to use their training benefits.

This study was designed to probe in depth, and in a specific community, the lives of men thirty to thirty-five years after their graduation from the community high school to assess the impact of the GI Bill in making possible education and training beyond the high school level. Thus it should provide some data regarding the argument of Dr. Floyd Reeves, spokesman for many, that the nation would be more benefited by helping the veteran advance his education than by giving money to corporations for the purpose of hiring untrained veterans.

History

Pursuit of this kind of study required a community that was reasonably representative of communities across the United States in growth rates, age distribution, level of education, economic resources,

ethnic composition and with no atypical conditions that would alter radically its stability or representativeness. It also required a community in which the investigator was well enough known to be granted complete access to preliminary records--the high school transcripts of the population to be studied. The community chosen was Danville, Illinois.

Danville's early history was very similar to many other American communities and it continued as a generally prototypic community. In October, 1945, P. D. Converse and Arthur W. Baum described Danville well.

Danville is Corn Belt, smallish, Middle West, neither too young nor too old. Main Street is a main street. Lincoln practiced law there, the Kickapoos camped there, the river is the Vermilion, and the seasons are hot and cold. The big hotel does not have the best food, the lawns are mowed, and Uncle Joe Cannon, Danville's foremost citizen, never paid more than thirty-five dollars for his suits. People sit on the front porch and watch fireflies in July. Danville has seen several industries either and fade and new ones form and grow. It is, in short, America.¹

When traders visited the region that is now Vermilion County in the late eighteenth century it was Miami country. The inhabitants were the Pottawatomies, younger brothers of the Miamis, and the Kickapoos.

After the Kickapoos and the Pottawatomies had established themselves in the valley of the Wabash, it was mutually agreed between them and the Miamis that the river should be the dividing line. The Pottawatomies and the Kickapoos were to occupy the west and the Miamis were to remain, undisturbed, on the east and south sides.

Some historians believe that Kickapoo State Park, six miles west of Danville, is the culmination of the prophecy of a Kickapoo Indian, Chief Keannekeuk, that his name would become known world wide. . . .

The land at this time was largely open prairie with timber growing in points in some of the river bottoms along the Vermilion between where Danville now stands and the Indiana state line. The prairies were often burned over, but the grass sprang up again after each fire.¹

¹P. D. Converse and Arthur W. Baum, "You Can Still Do It Today," Saturday Evening Post, (October 6, 1945), p. 22.

²Katherine Stapp and W. I. Bowman, History Under Our Feet (Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1968), p. 3.

In a literal sense, Vermilion County owes its beginnings to salt. As early as 1706 the French referred to the "Salines of the Vermilion" in their records. The records of the Jesuit Fathers of Montreal show another reference in 1750, the year that these fearless priests visited the Salines and found "the largest Indian settlement within a six-day journey." This Kickapoo village, which stretched along both sides of the river for some distance, showed an advanced civilization with some rude cabins instead of wigwams, and patches of pumpkins and corn enclosed by brush fences.¹

In 1801 Joseph Barron, William Henry Harrison's interpreter with the Indians, filed an affidavit in which he told of visiting the Salines and finding no evidence of recent occupancy. The lure of salt was a powerful one and Barron returned with a party to locate and exploit the Salines on September 11, 1819; the white man had come to stay. The salt works that were founded continued to be operated until 1840.

Dan Beckwith, for whom the community was named, envisioned that Danville would become a bustling river town. He donated twenty acres of land and used his surveying tools to plot the town into lots.

It was Beckwith and Guy Smith's first gift of land that led to the selection of the site, a former Indian camping ground, for the newly organized seat of justice. But it was a close call for Danville as the county seat. When the second court session was held at Butler's Point on March 18, 1826, a group of commissioners appointed by the governor to select the site reported in favor of a location near the Salt Works, about five miles west of Danville.

The choice wasn't a popular one with the majority of citizens, and a second commission, made up of Springfield citizens, was appointed. Viewing the Salt Works, Brook's Point, Denmark, Kyger's Mill and Butler's Point, the three decided to accept the offer of Beckwith and Smith.

¹Ibid., p. 7.

The sale of lots was advertised at Vandalia, the state capital, for April 10, 1827. This date, then, marks the official founding of Danville.¹

Prospective buyers who came to view the area before the auction, which netted \$922.77 or about \$22 a lot, saw nothing but barren countryside. Those who looked closely might have noticed Beckwith's trading post, hidden by the bluff at the end of West Main Street. Before long the ring of axes could be heard throughout the new city. The first permanent courthouse was built in 1832; this building was destroyed by fire in 1872. A new structure was built in 1876 and, in order to avoid a bondraising referendum, it was torn down to the cornerstone and remodeled in 1912. The first postoffice was established in May, 1827, in one room at the home of Amos Williams.²

Representativeness on Major Indicators

The growth of Danville has not been spectacular but has been continuous since its founding as shown by Table 1 from the United States Census of Population. Table 2 gives comparable information for the United States as a whole.

Data from the 1940 Census show Danville's labor force to have been similar in its distribution to those of the state of Illinois, the North Central Region of the United States and the country as a whole. (See Table 3.) The relatively large number of workers employed on public emergency work in 1940 is attributable to a combination of factors.

¹Ibid., p. 54.

²Ibid., p. 54.

Table 1. Population of Danville from 1840 (sixth decennial census of the United States and Danville's first) to 1970.^a

Census Year	Population	Increase Over Preceding Census	
		Number	Percent
1970 ^b	42,570	714	1.7
1960	41,856	3,992	10.5
1950	37,864	945	2.6
1940	36,919	154	0.4
1930	36,765	2,989	8.8
1920	33,776	5,905	21.2
1910	27,871	11,517	70.4
1900	16,354	4,863	42.3
1890	11,491	3,758	48.6
1880	7,733	2,982	62.8
1870	4,751	3,119	191.1
1860	1,632	896	121.7
1850	736	233	46.3
1840	503	...	

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, United States Census of Population: 1960, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 15, Illinois, p. 11.

^b1970 data from the Encyclopedia Britannica, 1971 Yearbook, States Statistical Supplement, p. 11.

Table 2. Population of the United States from 1840 (sixth decennial census) to 1970.^a

Census Year	Population	Increase Over Preceding Census	
		Number	Percent
1970 ^b	204,765,770	21,480,761	11.7
1960	183,285,009	29,051,775	18.8
1950	154,233,234	3,610,480	2.4
1940	150,622,754	12,183,685	8.8
1930	138,439,069	32,728,449	30.9
1920	105,710,620	13,738,354	14.9
1910	91,972,266	15,977,691	21.0
1900	75,994,575	13,046,861	20.7
1890	62,947,714	12,791,931	25.5
1880	50,155,783	11,597,412	30.1
1870	38,558,371	7,115,050	22.6
1860	31,443,321	8,251,445	35.6
1850	23,191,876	6,122,423	35.9
1840	17,069,453	4,203,433	32.7

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. A, Number of Inhabitants, Table A, p. x; U.S. Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of the Census, A Century of Population Growth from the First Census of the United States to the Twelfth, 1790-1900, Table 9, p. 55.

^b1970 data from the Encyclopedia Britannica, 1971 Yearbook, States Statistical Supplement, p. 8.

Table 3. Characteristics of the labor force in 1940 for the United States, north east central region, state of Illinois, and city of Danville.^a

	Percent of Population 14 & Over in Labor Force			Percent Employed Not on Public Emergency Work		Percent on Public Emergency Work	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Total	Female
United States	52.2	79.0	25.4	85.6	85.2	86.7	3.6
North East Central	53.8	78.8	29.4	83.2	82.4	85.3	2.4
Illinois	53.2	79.5	27.0	85.5	84.9	87.4	3.7
Danville	51.1	78.3	28.1	82.2	80.6	85.9	5.5

	Seeking Work			Experienced Workers		New Workers	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Total	Female
United States	9.6	9.6	9.7	8.2	8.5	1.5	2.4
North East Central	12.9	13.1	12.3	10.7	11.3	2.2	3.3
Illinois	9.2	9.2	8.8	7.6	8.9	1.5	2.3
Danville	10.4	11.2	8.4	8.9	9.9	1.5	1.8

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population, Vol. II, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 2, Florida-Iowa, p. 536.

Most of Danville's early economy had been dependent upon coal mines and railroads. The mines were becoming unprofitable in the years immediately preceding the depression of the 1930's and had it not been for the efforts of community leaders, chaos could have resulted.

In 1928 the first meeting was held to explore the growing problem of dwindling mine employment. The next few months were spent in investigating what had been done in other communities, and in October, 1929, a plan was presented at a meeting of the Board of Directors of the Danville Chamber of Commerce. The board proceeded to organize the Danville Industrial Foundation, later succeeded by New Industries, Incorporated, for the purpose of raising money to seek a diversification of manufacturing companies to provide a more healthy base for the community's future.¹ The full results of this effort had not yet been realized in 1940.

Like other communities of America, Danville suffered severe depression during the 1930's. The high school graduates chosen for this study completed their high school studies as Danville and the nation were emerging from the depression. As a result, many of those who ultimately sought education beyond the high school level would probably never have had the opportunity had it not been for the GI Bill.

Danville has had a remarkably stable racial mix throughout the past half century and one that closely parallels the distribution for the United States. As revealed by Table 4 the percentage distribution

¹U.S., Congress, House, Extension of Remarks of Hon. Leslie C. Arends of Illinois, 86th Cong., 1st sess., April 10, 1959, Congressional Record, 105, pt. 18, Appendix, p. A2913.

of races was almost identical in 1930 and 1940. The 1960 census reports show that little change had occurred and that a very similar proportion of white and non-white are found in the country as a whole.

Table 4. Percent distribution of the population by race in the United States and City of Danville, Illinois, in 1960 and in City of Danville in 1940 and 1930.^a

	Total	White	Non-White		
			Total	Negro	Other Races
United States, 1960	100.0	88.6	11.4	10.5	0.9
Danville, 1960	100.0	89.0	11.0	10.9	0.1
Danville, 1940	100.0	92.9	7.1	7.1	...
Danville, 1930	100.0	93.0	7.0	7.0	...

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population, Vol. II, pt. 2, Florida-Iowa, p. 619; The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 1, p. 144 and pt. 15, p. 284.

Table 5 shows the diversity of ethnic groups in the community in 1940 and 1960. Other indicators which show Danville similar to the whole United States are income (Tables 6 and 7) and median years of education. (see Table 8.)

Thus the data indicates that Danville is almost identical to the nation with respect to median years of schooling, similar with respect to racial and ethnic composition, slightly less with respect to population increase and percentage of population employed, and slightly higher with respect to median income. It appears that Danville, Illinois,

Table 5. Comparison of foreign born population by country of origin in Danville, Illinois, in 1940 and 1960.^a

	1960		1940	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total Foreign Stock	3,824	100.0	1,078	100.0
United Kingdom	505	13.2	163	15.1
Ireland (Eire)	164	4.2	28	2.6
Norway	40	1.0	6	0.6
Sweden	213	5.6	88	8.1
Denmark	48	1.2	8	0.7
Netherlands	37	1.0	3	0.3
Switzerland	12	0.3	9	0.8
France	67	1.8	40	3.7
Germany	1,218	31.9	318	29.5
Poland	161	4.2	18	1.7
Czechoslovakia	82	2.1	9	0.8
Austria	97	2.5	39	3.6
Hungary	124	3.2	14	1.3
Yugoslavia	36	0.9	10	0.9
U.S.S.R.	103	2.7	33	3.0
Lithuania	149	3.9	31	2.9
Finland	8	0.2	--	---
Rumania	7	0.2	3	0.3
Greece	107	2.8	53	5.0
Italy	152	4.0	34	3.2
Other Europe	124	3.2	75	7.0
Asia	65	1.7	13	1.2
Canada	206	5.4	73	6.8
Mexico	12	0.3	2	0.2
Other America	24	0.6	3	0.3
All Other	27	0.7	1	0.1
Not Reported	36	0.9	4	0.4

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 15, Illinois, p. 357; Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population, Vol II, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 2: Florida-Iowa, p. 543.

Table 6. Income in 1949 and 1959 of families and unrelated individuals for United States and Danville, Illinois.^a

		United States				Danville			
		1949		1959		1949		1959	
		Families & Unrel. Individ.	Families	Families & Unrel. Individ.	Families	Families & Unrel. Individ.	Families	Families & Unrel. Individ.	Families
Total ^b		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
\$1 to \$ 999		22.3	14.7	12.8	5.6	13.7	9.2	18.5	4.2
\$1,000 to \$1,999		16.1	14.6	10.5	7.5	13.8	11.8	11.5	6.5
\$2,000 to \$2,999		18.2	19.2	9.2	8.3	20.9	21.5	9.9	7.1
\$3,000 to \$3,999		16.9	19.4	9.5	9.5	20.0	21.9	11.1	9.8
\$4,000 to \$4,999		10.1	12.1	10.2	11.0	14.5	16.4	11.3	11.6
\$5,000 to \$5,999		6.3	7.8	10.7	12.3	7.2	8.0	10.9	13.3
\$6,000 to \$6,999		3.5	4.3	8.9	10.7	3.6	4.1	6.9	10.2
\$7,000 to \$9,999		4.0	4.9	16.2	20.1	3.7	4.2	12.8	23.9
\$10,000 and Over		2.6	3.1	12.0	15.0	2.6	2.9	7.1	13.4
Median Income		\$2,635	\$3,083	\$4,791	\$5,657	\$2,875	\$3,292	\$4,874	\$5,812

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1950, Vol. I, Number of Inhabitants, pt. 13, p. 112; The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 1, pp. 226-7; pt. 15, p. 336.

^bBased on Total Reporting.

Table 7. Distribution of population by levels of income and by sex,
United States and Danville, Illinois, 1959.^a

	United States		Danville	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
\$1 to 999	14.7	42.2	12.8	41.7
1,000 to 1,999	11.9	18.9	9.3	19.9
2,000 to 2,999	10.5	14.4	7.9	15.7
3,000 to 3,999	11.3	11.4	11.0	12.7
4,000 to 4,999	12.6	7.0	15.9	5.0
5,000 to 5,999	12.6	3.2	15.4	2.5
6,000 to 6,999	8.7	1.4	8.8	0.9
7,000 to 9,999	10.9	1.2	12.1	1.2
10,000 and Over	6.6	0.6	6.8	0.4
Median Income	\$4,142	\$1,424	\$4,585	\$1,374

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 1, pp. 230-1; and pt. 15, p. 332.

Table 8. Median years of schooling completed by males and females in the United States and city of Danville, Illinois, in 1960, 1950 and 1940.^a

	United States	Danville
Male		
1960	10.3	10.5
1950	9.0	9.0
1940	8.3	8.5
Female		
1960	10.9	10.6
1950	9.6	9.5
1940	8.4	8.6

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, The Eighteenth Decennial Census of the United States: 1960, Population, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 1, p. 207; Census of the Population: 1950, Vol. I, Number of Inhabitants, pt. 13, p. 93; Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940, Population, Vol. II, Characteristics of the Population, pt. 1, U.S. Summary, pp. 85-6, and pt. 2, p. 613.

was a reasonably representative American community in which to pursue a study of male veterans some thirty to thirty-five years after their graduation from high school.

Summary

Despite the fact that numerous studies have been made to examine the impact of the GI Bill, no studies have been found which focus on a specific community in an effort to assess the intended humane and social effects of the GI Bill on veterans, their families, and their community as a unit.

It was necessary to have access to high school transcripts and to be able to secure the help of many people in locating current addresses of high school graduates to be included in the survey. It was therefore advantageous for the writer to conduct the study in her current home community, if it met the criteria of being a reasonably representative mid-American community. A thorough examination of the census records and histories of Danville, Illinois, supported the assumption that Danville was a reasonably representative mid-American community in which such a study could be undertaken.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

Development of the Instrument

After the decision had been made to do a very detailed survey of Danville High School male graduates from the classes of 1936-40, it was necessary to design a survey instrument¹ that would provide the needed data. It was decided to incorporate a partial replication of the special survey done by the Bureau of the Census in October, 1955,² in the total survey.

Some data were available from the veterans' high school transcripts and school records. Permission to make copies of the high school transcripts and grade point averages of the male graduates of the classes of 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940 was obtained from the administration officials in Danville District 118. Danville High School officials determine a four-year average for each student; these averages are then placed in rank order and quartiles are established. Since this study does not include female graduates, the grade point averages of the males were ranked separately to ascertain quartiles.

¹Appendix B, p. 163.

²The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, Readjustment Benefits: General Survey and Appraisal, op. cit., Appendix B, pp. 203-4.



Information included on all Danville High School transcripts includes age, date of graduation, and occupation of the father. In order to make comparisons between the work levels of fathers, respondents and their children, a scale of occupational prestige was developed by adapting the Socioeconomic Index for Occupations in the Detailed Classification of the Bureau of the Census: 1950 and the Hall-Jones Scale of Occupational Prestige for Males.¹

The categories decided upon were: (1) professional, including the traditional professions requiring high level college or university training, (2) executive or owner of a business, implying a flexible income for owners and probably bonuses and/or stock shares for those executives in salaried positions, (3) other white collar, occupations normally rewarded by a fixed weekly or monthly salary, (4) skilled, blue collar workers requiring special types of training and usually compensated on a weekly or hourly rate, (5) semi-skilled, requiring less training and normally receiving an hourly wage, and (6) unskilled laborers, requiring no special training and usually paid by the hour or by the job.

Questions were included in the instrument to verify the age and date of graduation of the respondent and the job title of the father. The high school transcripts were found to be accurate in these respects. Additional questions were carefully formulated to minimize misunderstanding by the respondents. The proposed survey was then mimeographed and field tested on twenty-five males with backgrounds similar to those of

¹See Oppenheim, Abraham Naftali, Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement (New York: Basic Books, 1966), pp. 262-284.

the population to be surveyed. Further refinements were then made, each question was given a coding number, and the survey was printed.

Collection of the Data: Mailing and Return of the Questionnaires

Current addresses of many of the graduates to be surveyed were obtained from class officers who had recently held a class reunion; others were acquired from families and friends of the graduates. Several of the men were known to have lost their lives in combat in World War II while a number of others had died in recent years. The extreme mobility found in our society compounded the problem of locating current addresses.

Knowing that a truly random sample would be impossible to obtain, a great effort was made to locate or account for each of the 736 graduates in the population. Fifty-five were known to be dead and 245 proved impossible to locate. Addresses were found for 438, 60 per cent of the total population, and questionnaires were mailed to them. Four of the surveys were returned by the post office marked "address unknown" and were considered as undeliverable. Second mailings were made to those who failed to respond (that is, did not return the questionnaire), within a four-week period. Three of the surveys were returned by widows, raising the number of known dead to 58. Seven of the surveys were returned too late to be included in the computer analysis. Two hundred sixty-seven usable responses, constituting a 61 per cent return of the surveys mailed out and 36 per cent of the total population, provided the data for this study.

Questionnaires were mailed to 41 cities in Illinois in addition to Danville. Thirty-two other states and one foreign country, Peru, also represented. Two hundred twenty-six of the men still reside in Danville. This constitutes 31 per cent of the total population and 59 per cent of the surveys mailed. Many phone calls were made to Danville residents to verify addresses, explain the survey in greater detail, and appeal for assistance. Despite this greater effort in Danville, there were slightly more total responses from out of town, 64 per cent from other locations and 59 per cent from Danville.

A computer analysis was run on the items available from high school transcripts: (1) year of graduation, (2) age, (3) occupation of the father, and was also run on the quartiles in the high school graduation class after they had been recalculated for males only. This analysis showed no significant differences between the groups of individuals who did not respond, whose addresses were unknown, who were known dead, or who did respond to the survey. It is therefore assumed that the respondents are a relatively representative sample of the total population.

Assumptions

There are many articles in the literature concerning the dominant influence of parents upon the educational and vocational choices of their children. Based upon the review of this literature and the theories found therein, the assumption was made that two major factors would influence educational and vocational choices of respondents. The first factor, common to veterans and non-veterans alike, would be the level of parental education and occupation which would tend to be repeated

by the respondents. The second factor, by which respondents would be differentiated, would be the GI Bill, resulting from the intervening war and its impact upon veterans who availed themselves of its benefits, and that some of the kinds of impacts would be in terms of the level of education of the veteran himself and of his children, the level of income of the veteran, the participation of the veteran in civic, political and cultural affairs, the continued pursuit by the veteran of knowledge or skills through formal instruction, and the occupation chosen by the veteran himself and by his children. It was the impact of the GI Bill upon these variables that was tested.

Preparation and Analysis of Data

In order to have a means of comparison for seeking to ascertain whether or not participation in the education and training program of the GI Bill had made any differences in selected aspects of the lives of individual veterans, their children and their community over a period of three decades, the survey respondents were divided into six groups: (1) veterans with no post-secondary education or training (under the GI Bill or otherwise), (2) veterans with post-secondary education or training before service who did not use the GI Bill for further education, (3) veterans with no post-secondary education or training before service who used the GI Bill, (4) veterans who had post-secondary education or training before service and who also used the GI Bill for further education, (5) non-veterans with no post-secondary education or training, and (6) non-veterans with post-secondary education or training (but, of course without assistance from the GI Bill).

A code book was constructed for the questionnaire. Each questionnaire had been assigned a code number before mailing so that individual surveys could be identified without the use of names. Positive identification of individuals was essential because of the information from high school transcripts which had to be added to the survey data. The questionnaire was hand coded on a code sheet which was proofread for accuracy. The coded data were then punched on IBM cards for data processing. Printouts of IBM card decks were made on an NCR computer in the Danville Junior College Computer Center. Printout sheets were checked carefully for errors which were corrected on duplicate decks of IBM cards before being processed.

The Control Data Corporation 6500 computer at the Michigan State University Computer Center was used to obtain frequency counts of the responses. It was also used to test by the use of chi square the statistical significance of the relationship between the training levels of the respondents and the 120 variables included in the survey. The chi square analysis was not useful in some categories because of the small frequencies and the large number of zero cells; thus on recommendation of the research department consultant at the University percentages were generally employed to report and compare the results.

Various kinds of interrelationships between the variables were also examined. An electronic calculator, rather than the computer, was used to figure the percentages generally used in reporting the results.

Summary

Permission was obtained to make copies of the high school transcripts of the graduates of the Danville, Illinois, High School classes of 1936-1940 which showed age, date of graduation and occupation of the father. Grade point averages were also acquired from school officials. Questions to be included in the survey instrument were carefully formulated to minimize misunderstanding by the respondents, field tested, modified and printed.

A great effort was made to locate or account for each of the 736 graduates in the population. Addresses were found for 438, 60 per cent of the total population, and questionnaires were mailed to them. Two hundred sixty-seven usable responses, constituting a 61 per cent return of the surveys mailed and 36 per cent of the total population, provide the data for this study.

A computer analysis, run on the items available from the high school transcripts and on the quartiles in the high school graduating class recalculated for males only, showed no significant differences between the groups of individuals who did not respond, whose addresses were unknown, who were known dead, or who did not respond to the survey.

It was assumed that, had there been no GI Bill, parental education and occupational level would tend to have been repeated by the respondents. However, the GI Bill was assumed to have had a differentiating impact on those veterans who used it.

Responses were coded and the coded data were punched on IBM cards for data processing. The Control Data Corporation 6500 computer at

Michigan State University was used, where cell size justified doing so, to test the statistical significance of the relationship between the training levels and the 120 variables by the use of chi square. The percentages generally used in reporting the results were computed on an electronic calculator.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS

Introduction

This study has attempted to answer the general question: what has been the impact of the GI Bill? The three components of that question are (1) what has been the effect on the veteran himself, (2) what has been the effect, if any, on his family, and (3) what has been the impact, if any, on his community. In order to make an assessment of the impact of the GI Bill it was necessary to have much personal information about each individual comprising the survey population. For example: (1) was he a veteran, (2) what kind of job does he have, (3) what kind of education or training does he have, (4) when did he receive it, (5) did he use the GI Bill, (6) how and why did he use it, (7) how much money does he make, (8) does he take part in political activities, (9) does he serve in positions of community leadership, (10) does he contribute time or money to civic causes, (11) what kind of leisure-time activities does he enjoy, (12) how many children does he have, (13) what kind of education does he want them to have, (14) what kind of vocations have they chosen.

These factors are closely interrelated and it would be naive to assume that they could be sorted out and assigned as a relationship to

just the veteran himself, to just his family, or to just the community in which he resides. Some, such as a high level of income, may be assumed to be a benefit to all three, while others may be said to principally affect only one.

The information gathered from the 267 respondents comprises the data used to describe what has happened to the male graduates of the Danville, Illinois, High School classes of 1936-1940, and whether and how the education and training provisions of the GI Bill affected them, their families, and their community during the past three decades.

Profile of Respondents

The respondents consisted of 227 veterans and 40 non-veterans. There were 51 veterans comprising 22.5 per cent of the veteran group with no post-secondary education or training, either before or after their periods of service, 56 veterans (24.6 per cent) with post-secondary education or training before service who did not use the GI Bill, 54 veterans (23.8 per cent) with no post-secondary education or training before service who pursued further education under the GI Bill; and 66 veterans (28.6 per cent) with post-secondary education or training before service who also pursued further education under the GI Bill; 28 of the non-veterans (70 per cent) had post-secondary education or training while 12 (30 per cent) had no post-secondary education or training.

One set of the questions on the survey was directed to veterans only and had been asked before in the special survey of veterans conducted in October, 1955, by the Bureau of the Census.¹ The data obtained from

¹The President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, Readjustment Benefits: General Survey and Appraisal, op. cit., Appendix B. pp. 203-4.

these questions in the 1972 Danville study show that 73.83 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill and 66.67 per cent of those who did were working full-time the year before they were inducted into service.¹ An additional 7.50 per cent of those who used the bill and 5.61 per cent of those who did not were working part-time jobs. In the group of veterans who used the GI Bill educational benefits, 30.83 per cent were attending school full-time as were 20.56 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill. (See Table 9.)

Table 9. Distribution of veterans according to employment or schooling the year before entering service.

	Veterans Using Bill	Veterans Not Using Bill
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)
	%	%
Worked Full-time	66.67	73.83
Worked Part-time	7.50	5.61
School Full-time	30.83	20.56
School Part-time	6.67	1.87
Correspondence Courses	0.83	--

The veterans who did not use the GI Bill were working before entering service at a higher level than veterans who used the bill with 3.74 per cent of the non-users being in the professions, 36.45 per cent having skilled and 25.23 per cent having semi-skilled jobs. This

¹The reader should note that all data were obtained from survey responses and are subject to reporting error.

compared to 0.83 per cent in the professions, 15.83 per cent in skilled and 28.33 per cent in semi-skilled jobs among the veterans who used the GI Bill. (See Table 10.)

Table 10. Distribution of veterans according to the type of job at which each worked the longest the year before entering service.

Category of Pre- Induction Work	Veterans Using Bill	Veterans Not Using Bill
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)
	%	%
Professional	0.83	3.74
Skilled	15.83	36.45
Semi-skilled	28.33	25.23
Unskilled	26.67	18.69
Unemployed	9.16	14.95
No Response	19.17	0.93

It is also significant to note that 48.60 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill returned to the same job or some kind of job as before service, 7.48 per cent took similar work with a different employer and 6.54 per cent established businesses of their own. The fact that a higher percentage of those veterans had pre-induction jobs and that the jobs were at a higher level than those of the other veterans is undoubtedly one reason that they did not use the educational benefits of the GI Bill but were apparently satisfied with the skills they already had. Only 33.33 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill returned to the same employer or business, 1.67 per cent took

similar work with a different employer, and 1.67 per cent set up their own business. Thirty per cent indicated that they did not return to the same job or employer because they wanted to take education or training. (See Table 11.)

Table 11. Percentage of respondents who did or did not return to the same job or same kind of job as before service and reasons for not returning to same.

	Veterans Using Bill	Veterans Not Using Bill
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)
	%	%
Did return to same employer or similar job.	35.00	56.08
Returned to same employer business	33.33	48.60
Took similar work with a different employer	1.67	7.48
Did not return to same employer or similar job	65.00	43.92
Desired to take GI education or training	30.00	0.93
No previous regular job	15.00	14.95
Wanted to use skills acquired in service	7.50	8.41
Went into own business	1.67	6.54
Couldn't find job in his line	1.67	2.80
Not able to do former work	0.83	0.93
Other reason for not returning to same job or same kind of job	8.33	9.35

Almost half, 45.83 per cent, of the veterans who used the GI Bill indicated that they did so to prepare for a new trade, occupation, or profession while another 26.67 per cent desired to improve their skills in the work that they had previously done. Only 15.83 per cent were interested in improving their general education with no definite occupation in mind while 15 per cent admitted that they took the training because of the cash allowance. (See Table 12.)

Table 12. Reason given by veterans who used GI education or training benefits.

	All Veterans Using Bill	Veterans With Education Before	Veterans Not Hav- ing Education Before Service
	(n = 120)	(n = 66)	(n = 54)
	%	%	%
To prepare for new trade, occupation or profession	45.83	46.97	44.44
To improve skill in work already done	26.67	27.27	25.93
Improve general education with no specific occupa- tion in mind	15.83	18.18	12.96
Because of cash allowance	15.00	13.64	16.67
Trade related to hobbies or sparetime work at home	4.17	3.03	5.55
Other	8.33	7.58	9.26

Apparently those who needed the education most were the ones who used the GI Bill; it was a great social leveler as the veterans who had the lowest level jobs used its benefits to climb the occupational ladder.

Some of them, particularly in the group with no post-secondary education or training before induction into service, obtained higher level jobs that they considered satisfactory without completing the full course of study begun under the GI Bill. This group, therefore, moved into higher status occupations despite having the highest dropout rate from GI sponsored education. (See Table 13.)

Table 13. Percentage of veterans who did or did not complete course of study started under GI Bill and stated reasons for non-completion.

	All Veterans Using Bill	Veterans With Education Before Service	Veterans Not Hav- ing Education Before Service
	N (n = 120)	(n = 66)	(n = 54)
	%	%	%
Completed course of study	78.33	89.39	64.81
Did not complete	21.67	10.61	35.19
Obtained satisfactory job without completing	7.50	3.03	12.96
Couldn't live on VA allow- ance without working	4.17	3.03	5.55
Thought he had as much training as he needed	1.67	--	3.70
Didn't think training was doing him any good	1.67	--	3.70
Other reasons for stopping training	6.67	4.55	9.26

This study was only partially concerned with the same material as the earlier one. That study dealt only with veterans and was conducted on a nationwide scale while this study dealt with all the male

graduates of one community high school during the years 1936-1940. The earlier study included veterans who were not high school graduates and veterans who were much younger at the time of the study than the group examined in this study.

The general conclusions of the earlier study that are supported by the present one are (1) veterans generally are employed in jobs of a higher level than their jobs before entering service, (2) variations in occupation, income, and social status are closely related to differences in educational attainment, (3) GI education or training helped to raise the occupational level of veterans not merely by increasing their total amount of formal education, but also by encouraging them to take courses which helped them qualify for higher level jobs, (4) the income of veterans who used the training is greater than that of those who did not. The earlier study broke the veterans into age groups. The income differences were less pronounced for veterans in the 35-44 year old group at the time of the study (1955). Most of the males in the present study would have been in the lower end of that age group. They were in the 50-59 age group at the time of this study.

As was indicated in the earlier study, the most direct evidence of the relationship between the training and the veteran's present status is furnished by the veteran's own attitude concerning its value. In the present study one-third of the veterans indicated that without the GI education or training they could not have gotten their present job. Another 20.83 per cent said the training was used a great deal, 23.33 per cent said it was fairly useful, 6.67 per cent said it was used only a little, while 15.83 per cent reported that they were not using

it at all in their current jobs. (See Table 14.) These responses are similar to the responses in the earlier study, but show a higher percentage of veterans making more use of their training.

In the 1955 study nearly one-fourth, 23 per cent, of the veterans who used training indicated that their training was indispensable. Another 23.3 per cent said that the training was used a great deal, 15.3 per cent said that it was fairly useful, 9.7 per cent indicated that it was used only a little and 28.7 per cent indicated that it was not being used at all in current jobs. It is quite possible that many of the veterans who indicate no use of their training in their present jobs are the same ones who used the GI Bill for education or training related to hobbies or with no occupation in mind when the training was taken.

An examination of high school transcripts and grade point averages of the respondents revealed that neither the veterans nor the non-veterans were homogeneous groups. Both differed in academic achievement, as measured by their class rank, and by social status as indicated by the occupation of their fathers. In the veterans' group 22.03 per cent were graduated in the upper quartile of their class, 21.59 per cent in the second quartile, 26.43 per cent in the third quartile, and 29.96 per cent in the fourth quartile. In the non-veterans' group 15 per cent were graduated in the upper quartile, 20 per cent in the second quartile, 27.50 per cent in the third quartile, and 37.50 per cent in the fourth quartile. Table 15 shows the comparison between veterans and non-veterans.

Table 14. Amount the skill or training gained with GI Bill assistance has been used in present job.

	1955 Study ^a		1972 Study	
	All Veterans		Veterans With Education Before Service	Veterans Not Having Education Before Service
	(n = 120)	(n = 54)	(n = 66)	(n = 54)
	%	%	%	%
Very much--without the training could not have gotten present job	23.0	33.33	33.33	33.33
Used a great deal	23.3	20.83	27.27	12.96
Fairly useful	15.3	23.33	22.73	24.07
Used only a little	9.7	6.67	6.06	7.41
Not used at all	28.7	15.83	10.61	22.22

^aThe President's Commission on Veterans' Pensions, A Report of Veterans' Benefits in the United States, Readjustment Benefits: General Survey and Appraisal, op. cit., p. 130.

Table 15. Percentage of Veterans and non-veterans who had been in each quartile of male students in their high school graduating classes.

	N	Upper Quartile	Second Quartile	Third Quartile	Lower Quartile
Veterans	227	22.03	21.59	26.43	29.96
Non-Veterans	40	15.00	20.00	27.50	37.50

It should be noted that the distribution of non-veterans is more skewed to the lower end of the class rank than that of the veterans. This could have some influence upon the data relating to other differences between veterans and non-veterans.

The statistics show that 8.37 per cent of the veterans' fathers were engaged in a profession, 18.06 per cent were either executives or owners of their own businesses, 20.71 per cent were engaged in other white collar occupations, 28.63 per cent were skilled, 10.13 per cent were semi-skilled, and 14.10 per cent were unskilled. In the non-veteran group 12.50 per cent of the fathers were in the professions, 17.50 per cent were executives or owners of businesses, 15 per cent were engaged in other white collar occupations, 27.50 per cent were skilled, 10 per cent were semi-skilled and 17.50 per cent were unskilled. Thus non-veterans appear to include higher proportions of men whose fathers were at upper and lower occupational levels, with veterans more heavily represented by fathers in middle level positions. (See Table 16.)

Table 16. Occupational level of the fathers of veterans and non-veterans.

Father's Occupational Level	Veteran	Non-Veteran
	(n = 227)	(n = 40)
	%	%
Professional	8.37	12.50
Executive or Owner	18.06	17.50
Other White Collar	20.71	15.00
Skilled	28.63	27.50
Semi-skilled	10.13	10.00
Unskilled	14.10	17.50

A further examination of veterans shows that 22.50 per cent of those who used the GI Bill were in the upper quartile of their graduating class, 24.17 per cent in the second quartile, 24.17 per cent in the third quartile and 29.16 per cent in the fourth quartile. Of the veterans who chose not to use the educational benefits of the GI Bill, 20.56 per cent were in the upper quartile, 19.63 per cent in the second quartile, 28.97 per cent in the third quartile and 30.84 per cent in the fourth quartile. In the non-veteran group 15 per cent were in the upper quartile, 20 per cent in the second quartile, 27.50 per cent in the third quartile and 37.50 per cent in the fourth quartile. (See Table 17.)

In the group of veterans who used the GI Bill 9.17 per cent of the fathers were professional, 16.67 per cent were either executives or owners of their own businesses, 24.17 per cent were other white collar,

Table 17. Percentage of veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use the GI Bill and non-veterans from each quartile of male students in their high school graduating class.

	N	Upper Quartile	Second Quartile	Third Quartile	Lower Quartile
		%	%	%	%
Veterans Using GI Bill	120	22.50	24.17	24.17	29.16
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	107	20.56	19.63	28.97	30.84
Non-Veterans	40	15.00	20.00	27.50	37.50

30.83 per cent were skilled, 5 per cent were semi-skilled and 14.16 per cent were unskilled. There were 7.48 per cent of the fathers of veterans who did not use the GI Bill in the professions, 19.63 per cent in the executive or owner group, 16.82 per cent in other white collar occupations, 26.17 per cent in skilled jobs, 15.88 per cent in semi-skilled and 14.02 per cent were unskilled. In the group of non-veterans 12.5 per cent of the fathers were in the professions, 17.5 per cent were executives or owners, 15 per cent were in other white collar occupations, 27.5 per cent were skilled workers while 10 per cent were semi-skilled and 17.5 per cent were unskilled. (See Table 18.) The differences in father's occupational level is even more marked when non-veterans are compared with only those veterans who used the GI education benefits. A much smaller proportion of veterans than of non-veterans had fathers in professional and executive and owner occupations. Similarly, fewer veterans than non-veterans had fathers in semi-skilled or unskilled occupations.

Table 18. Occupational distribution of the fathers of veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use the GI Bill and non-veterans.

Fathers' Occupational Level	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
Professional	9.17	7.48	12.50
Executive or Owner	16.67	19.63	17.50
Other White Collar	24.17	16.82	15.00
Skilled	30.83	26.17	27.50
Semi-Skilled	5.00	15.88	10.00
Unskilled	14.16	14.02	17.50

Utilization of Benefits and Type of Education or Training

The veterans' use of the GI Bill differed somewhat between groups. The veterans whose fathers were in the other white collar group made the greatest use of the GI Bill, 61.70 per cent, followed by a 57.89 per cent utilization for the group whose fathers were professional workers, and 56.92 per cent for those with skilled fathers; 53.13 per cent of those whose fathers were unskilled used the benefits as did 48.78 per cent of those whose fathers were executives or owners and 26.09 per cent of those with semi-skilled fathers. Taken together, 56.40 per cent of those whose fathers were in the professional, executive or owner, other white collar and skilled groups participated in the education and training benefits of the GI Bill while 41.82 per cent of those whose fathers were in the semi-skilled and unskilled groups took advantage of them.

It is interesting to note that in addition to the 57.89 per cent of the veterans with professional fathers who used the GI Bill, 31.58 per cent of those who did not use the education or training benefits had some kind of post-secondary education or training before their induction into service while only 15.63 per cent of the unskilled group had that advantage. (See Table 19.)

Table 19. Percentage of sons of fathers in various occupations who as veterans utilized or did not utilize the education and training benefits of the GI Bill.

Father's Occupational Level	Used GI Bill		Did Not Use GI Bill		
	Some PSE Before Induction		No PSE Before Induction	Some PSE Before Induction	No PSE Before Induction
	(n = 66)		(n = 54)	(n = 56)	(n = 51)
			%	%	%
Professional	19	47.37	10.52	31.58	10.53
Executive or Owner	41	36.59	12.19	21.95	29.27
Other White Collar	47	36.17	25.53	29.79	8.51
Skilled	65	27.69	29.23	20.00	23.08
Semi-skilled	23	4.35	21.74	39.13	34.78
Unskilled	32	18.75	34.38	15.63	31.25

Interesting differences appeared between the groups when an examination was made of the kind of education or training they chose. All veterans with fathers in the professions chose college or university training while 65 per cent of those whose fathers were executives or

owners and 48.28 per cent of the sons of other white collar workers went to a college or university. Only 35.20 per cent of those veterans with unskilled fathers, 33.33 per cent of those whose fathers were semi-skilled and 29.73 per cent of those with skilled fathers chose college or university training under the GI Bill. (See Table 20.)

It appears that most of the 34.38 percent of the veterans with unskilled fathers who used the GI Bill and who had no post-secondary education or training before service, would not likely have gotten education or training beyond high school without the help of the GI Bill benefits. The evidence also indicates that the veterans from white collar and skilled groups participated in GI sponsored education programs slightly more than those from the semi-skilled and unskilled groups and that their participation was at a higher training level.

This is a different training pattern than that found for the group of veterans who had education or training before service and who did not use the GI Bill. In this group 100 per cent of the sons of unskilled workers chose college or university training, although only 40 per cent of them finished four years, while only 83.33 per cent of the veterans whose fathers were professional chose college or university but all of them graduated. Training in a trade school was most popular among the sons of skilled workers, 38.46 per cent, semi-skilled, 33.33 per cent, and other white collar job holders, 28.57 per cent. (See Table 21.)

The data on non-veterans reveals that 70 per cent of them received some kind of post-secondary education. Of those 64.29 per cent chose college and 85.71 per cent started their training within two years

Table 20. Type of Education or training pursued by veterans electing to use educational benefits of the GI Bill according to the occupational level of the father.

Fathers' Occupation Level	N	College or University	Business School	Vocational or Trade	Apprentice or O J T	On-Farm	Correspondence	Other
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Professional	11	100.00						
Executive or Owner	20	65.00		5.00	15.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Other White Collar	29	48.28	3.45	10.34	13.79		20.69	3.45
Skilled	37	29.73	2.70	13.51	35.14		5.41	13.51
Semi-skilled	6	33.33	33.33		16.67			16.67
Unskilled	17	35.20	5.88	17.65	29.41		5.88	5.88

Table 21. Type of pre-service education or training of veterans who did not use the GI Bill for each sub group based upon occupational level of their fathers.

Father's Occupational Level	N	College or University	Business School	Trade School	Other
		%	%	%	%
Professional	6	83.33	16.67		
Executive or Owner	9	77.78		22.22	
Other White Collar	14	64.29		28.57	7.14
Skilled	13	30.77	23.08	38.46	7.69
Semi-skilled	9	55.56	11.11	33.33	
Unskilled	5	100.00			

after high school graduation. (See Tables 22 and 23.) This may partially account for the fact that they were not inducted into service as 42.86 per cent of those with some kind of advanced education or training reported that they had received an occupational deferment. (Table 24.)

Income of the Respondents

Level of income has an impact on all aspects of this study as it affects the veteran, his family, and his community. Obviously a high level of income enables the veteran to provide a better standard of living for himself and his family than would be the case without it. He will be able to afford more of the amenities of life rather than being held to a grubby existence which may or may not provide the necessities.

Table 22. Percentage of non-veterans who undertook post-secondary education and training and those who undertook it within two years of graduation according to the occupational level of their fathers.

Father's Occupational Level	N	Post-Secondary Education or Training	Began PSE Within 2 years after Graduation	No PS Education
		%	%	%
Professional	5	60.00	60.00	40.00
Executive or Owner	7	71.43	57.14	28.57
Other White Collar	6	50.00	50.00	50.00
Skilled	11	81.82	63.64	18.18
Semi-skilled	4	100.00	100.00	--
Unskilled	7	57.14	42.86	42.86

Table 23. Type of post-secondary education or training of non-veterans according to the occupation of their fathers.

Father's Occupational Level	N	College or University	Business School	Vocational or Trade	Technical	Agriculture	None
		%	%	%	%	%	%
Professional	5	40.00		20.00			40.00
Executive or Owner	7	57.14		14.28			28.57
Other White Collar	6	33.33		11.67			50.00
Skilled	11	63.64	9.09	9.09			18.18
Semi-skilled	4	75.00				25.00	
Unskilled	7	14.29		14.29	28.57		42.86

Table 24. Percentage of non-veterans with post-secondary education or training indicating an occupational deferment according to the occupational level of their fathers.

Father's Occupational Level	N	Indicated Occupational Deferment	Did not indicate Occupational Deferment
		%	%
Professional	3	33.33	66.67
Executive or Owner	5	20.00	80.00
Other White Collar	3	40.00	60.00
Skilled	9	33.33	66.67
Semi-skilled	4	50.00	50.00
Unskilled	4	75.00	25.00

It also means that he will be paying more in taxes to his local, state, and federal governments. The dollars spent by the individual for material goods also help to produce a greater demand for those goods which in turn stimulates the economy and creates more jobs for more people. In the case of the veteran who used the GI Bill to obtain education or training, it also means that he is repaying the cost of his education or training with his productivity. In short, if his education or training makes him a more productive individual with a higher level of income, the cost of the education or training is well worth the investment without even counting the non-economic advantages obtained by the individual, his family, and his community.

If an income of less than \$5,000 is considered to be at poverty or no more than subsistence level and an income of \$15,000 or more is

considered to be a relatively high income, some significant comparisons can be made. The veterans who used the GI Bill reported fewer members at the poverty or subsistence level, 3.33 per cent, than either veterans who did not use the bill, 6.54 per cent, or non-veterans, 5 per cent, in 1970. The group comprised of the veterans who used the GI Bill education benefits also had the smallest number, 43.34 per cent, with an income between \$5,000 and \$15,000, while 48.6 per cent of the veterans not using the bill and 57.5 per cent of the non-veterans were in this income category. The statistics also show that veterans who used the GI Bill had 53.33 per cent of their members making over \$15,000 in 1970 compared to 43.92 per cent of the veterans not using the GI Bill and 37.5 per cent of the non-veterans. (See Table 25.) Table 26 compares the income of veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use the GI Bill and the GI Bill and non-veterans according to the type of education or training they received.

The Impact of the GI Bill upon Selected
Characteristics of the Veteran Himself
and His Family

It is quite obvious that virtually any factor affecting the individual veteran will have some kind of effect upon members of his family, either individually or collectively. It therefore seems appropriate to discuss the impact of the GI Bill upon the veteran and his family together, realizing that some aspects of that impact will be greatest on the individual veterans while others will weigh more heavily upon the family.

Table 25. Reported 1970 income levels of all respondents by major study groups. (Excluding government pensions)

Level of Annual Income 1970	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	n = 120	n = 107	n = 40
	%	%	%
Poverty or Subsistence	3.33	6.50	5.00
No Response	2.50	1.87	2.50
Under \$3,000	0.83	2.80	--
3,000 - 4,999	--	1.87	2.50

Middle Income	43.34	48.60	57.50
5,000 - 9,999	14.17	17.76	12.50
10,000 - 14,999	29.17	30.84	45.00

High Income	53.33	43.92	37.50
15,000 - 19,999	29.17	22.43	17.50
20,000 - 24,999	10.83	11.21	2.50
25,000 and Over	13.33	10.28	17.50

Table 26. Income of veterans and non-veterans according to type of training.

	N	No Response	Under \$5,000	\$5,000- \$14,000	\$15,000 & Over
		%	%	%	%
Vets Using GI Bill	120				
College	58	1.72	--	29.31	68.97
Business	6	--	--	66.67	33.33
Vocational	11	9.09	--	72.73	18.18
Apprentice	26	3.85	3.85	53.84	38.46
On-Farm	1	--	--	--	100.00
Correspondence	10	--	--	70.00	30.00
Other	8	--	--	50.00	50.00
Non-Veterans	28				
College	20	--	--	50.00	50.00
Technical	1	--	--	--	100.00
Business	1	--	--	100.00	--
Vocational	2	--	--	100.00	--
Trade	3	--	--	66.67	33.33
Agriculture	1	--	--	100.00	--

Post-secondary Education

One question which needs to be examined is whether or not the GI Bill really increased the number of veterans who acquired post-secondary education or training beyond what it would have been without the bill. Brazer and David¹ state that a person's educational attainment is strongly influenced by the education of his parents.

The statistics show that 20.26 per cent of the fathers and 16.74 per cent of the mothers of veterans had post-secondary education or training. In the group of veterans who used the GI Bill 24.30 per cent of the fathers and 16.67 per cent of the mothers had such training. Of the veterans who chose not to use the GI Bill 18.69 per cent of the fathers and 16.82 per cent of the mothers had some kind of post-secondary education or training, while 17.50 per cent of non-veterans' fathers and 10 per cent of their mothers had formal education beyond high school. (See table 27.)

Table 27. Percentage comparison of post-secondary education of respondents' parents.

	Veterans	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using Bill	Non-Veterans
N	227	120	107	40
	%	%	%	%
Father With Post-Secondary Education	20.26	24.30	18.69	17.50
Mother With Post-Secondary Education	16.74	16.67	16.82	10.00

¹Harvey E. Brazer and Martin David, "Social and Economic Determinants of the Demand for Education," Economics of Higher Education. Edited by Selma J. Mushkin. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin No. 5 (1962). Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1962.

When the groups are further subdivided some very interesting differences appear. Veterans with post-secondary education before service who also used the GI Bill came from families with the highest percentage of fathers, 33.33 per cent, and mothers, 25.76 per cent, having formal education beyond high school, while veterans who used the GI Bill but who had no post-secondary education or training before service had the smallest percentage of fathers, 7.41 per cent, and mothers, 5.55 per cent, having formal education beyond the high school. In the group of veterans not choosing to use the GI Bill, 25 per cent of both the fathers and mothers of those veterans who received post-secondary education before service had experienced formal education after high school compared to 11.76 per cent of the fathers and 7.84 per cent of the mothers for veterans with no post-secondary education. The influence of parental education upon the education of their children also appears in the non-veteran group where formal education beyond high school had been acquired by 17.86 per cent of the fathers and 14.29 per cent of the mothers of the non-veterans who received post-secondary education or training while such post-high school education had been received by only 16.67 per cent of the fathers and none of the mothers of non-veterans with no post-secondary education or training. (See Table 28.)

These statistics appear to confirm the statement of Brazer and David that higher levels of parental education tend to be repeated in the educational levels of their children. It would appear that many of the veterans would have been expected to acquire, and indeed did acquire, post-secondary education or training without the use of the GI Bill. Before induction into service 53.74 per cent of the veterans had some

Table 28. Comparison of respondents by training level according to the percentage of parents having post-secondary education or training.

	Veterans Who Used GI Bill			Veterans Not Using GI Bill			Non-Veterans		
	PSE Before Service	No PSE Before Service	%	PSE Before Service	No PSE Before Service	%	With PSE	With No PSE	%
N	66	54		56	51		28	12	
Father	33.33	7.41		25.00	11.76		17.86	16.67	
Mother	25.76	5.55		25.00	7.84		14.29	--	

kind of post-secondary education or training, but this figure increases to 77.53 per cent when those veterans without post-secondary education or training before service who used the GI Bill are added. The extremely small percentage of parents with education beyond high school among the group of veterans without pre-service post-secondary education or training who did use the GI Bill seems to indicate that the availability of the GI Bill, rather than the education of the parents, provided the motivation for this rather major group of veterans to continue their education after discharge from service. It also indicates that a high percentage of these veterans were the first members of their families to achieve post-secondary education or training.

Marital and Family Related Factors

The statistics show very little difference in marital status between veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use the GI Bill and non-veterans. Almost all of the men reported that they were married. Six per cent of veterans who had used GI education benefits and 4 per cent of veterans who had not, reported being divorced. None of the non-veterans reported being divorced. (Table 29.)

There is no way to know whether those who are now married have previously been divorced so it is not possible to confidently compare the marital stability of the groups. The data, however, suggest that veterans were more likely than non-veterans to have been divorced.

There are also no great differences in the number of children. The veterans are more likely to have two children while non-veterans are more likely to have only one child. The highest percentage of men

with no children as well as the highest percentage having five or more children fall in the group of veterans who did not use the GI Bill.

(See Table 30.)

Collectively, the 227 veterans have 556, or an average of 2.44 children, while the 40 non-veterans have 110, or an average of 2.75, children.

Educational Aspiration for Children

More respondents in every group wanted their children to have four years of college than any other type of education with the second highest educational aspiration being five or more years of college. (See Table 31.) Three out of four parents in every group report a desire for four or more years of college, while only 5 per cent of GI educated veterans, 7.5 per cent of non GI educated veterans and 2.5 per cent of non-veterans preferred one or two years (junior college terminal) education for their children. Likewise only 5.84 per cent of veterans who used the GI Bill wanted their children to attend a trade school while 9.34 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill and 12.5 per cent of the non-veterans preferred their children to have this kind of education or training.

Occupational Levels of Veterans and Non-Veterans

An examination of the survey data reveals a considerable change in the occupational level of the respondents from that of their fathers. In every group there was a decided elevation in occupational status.

Table 29. Marital status of respondents.

Marital Status	Veterans Who Used GI Bill		Veterans Not Using GI Bill		Non-Veterans	
	N	120	107		40	
		%	%		%	
Single		3.33	3.74		2.50	
Married		86.67	91.59		97.50	
Widower		3.33	--		--	
Divorced		5.83	3.74		--	
No Response		0.84	0.94		--	

Table 30. Number of children of respondents.

Number of Children	Veterans Who Used GI Bill		Veterans Not Using GI Bill		Non-Veterans	
	N	120	107		40	
		%	%		%	
0		9.17	11.22		7.50	
1		12.50	15.89		27.50	
2		35.00	30.85		20.00	
3		20.00	18.69		22.50	
4		15.83	14.02		15.00	
5		4.17	6.54		2.50	
6		1.67	2.80		2.50	
7		0.83	--		2.50	
8		--	--		--	
9		0.83	--		--	



Table 31. Educational aspiration that veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans not using the GI Bill and non-veterans have for their children.

Respondent Group	N	No Response	High School			Trade School			College or University		
			4 yrs.	1 yr.	%	2 yrs.	1 yr.	%	2 yrs.	4 yrs.	5 or More
			School		%			%			%
Veterans Who Used GI Bill	120	9.17	1.67	1.67	1.67	1.67	2.50	1.67	3.33	50.83	24.17
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	107	6.54	1.87	1.87	2.80	4.67	1.87	1.87	5.61	50.47	25.43
Non-Veterans	40	10.00	--	--	5.00	7.50	--	--	2.50	47.50	30.00

Only the veterans not using the GI Bill actually had a smaller percentage of individuals in the professions than their fathers, but this was more than offset by a very large increase in executives or owners of their own businesses. (See Table 32.)

When the categories are further divided some interesting factors are revealed. The largest group in the professional category (32.14 per cent) is composed of non-veterans whose post-secondary education was gained without benefit of assistance from the GI Bill. Veterans having post-secondary education before the war plus further education with assistance of the GI Bill rank second with 21.21 per cent in the professional category. Veterans are most frequently in the executive or owner class; 42.42 per cent of those with pre-induction post-secondary education plus further education under the GI Bill are in this category as are 35.71 per cent of those veterans with post-secondary education before service and no further education assisted by the GI Bill. It is interesting to note that veterans with no post-secondary education or training before service, whether or not they used the education benefits of the GI Bill, and non-veterans with no post-secondary education have the highest percentages employed in the skilled category when all "white collar" occupational categories (professionals, executives and owners of their own businesses and other white collar workers) are compared with all "blue collar" occupational categories. Five out of six (83.33 per cent) of veterans with pre-induction post-secondary education or training who also pursued further education with the assistance of the GI Bill are currently white collar workers compared with three out of four (76.78 per cent) of veterans with pre-induction post-secondary education or

Table 32. Occupational levels of respondents compared to occupational level of their fathers.^a

	Veterans Who Used GI Bill		Veterans Not Using GI Bill		Non-Veterans	
	Fathers	Sons	Fathers	Sons	Fathers	Sons
	n = 120		n = 107		n = 40	
Professional	9.17	15.83	7.48	3.74	12.50	22.50
Executive or Owner	16.67	33.33	19.63	31.78	17.50	15.00
Other White Collar	24.17	22.50	16.82	31.78	15.00	25.00
Skilled	30.83	25.00	26.17	27.10	27.50	32.50
Semi-skilled	5.00	3.33	15.88	4.78	10.00	--
Unskilled	14.16	--	14.02	0.93	17.50	--

^aChi square (χ^2) value indicates that the differences are significant at the .05 level.

training and no further education with GI Bill assistance and non-veterans (75 per cent) with post-secondary education or training gained without GI Bill assistance. (See Table 33.)

Occupational Aspirations of Children of Respondents

The data also reveal that most of the children of both veterans and non-veterans in the survey sample are aspiring to higher status occupations than those of their fathers or grandfathers. There are 40 per cent of the children of veterans who used the GI Bill who have chosen or aspire to professional positions, 4.83 per cent aspire to be executives or owners of their own businesses, 40.69 per cent aspire to other white collar occupations, 12.41 per cent aspire to skilled and 2.07 per cent to semi-skilled jobs. Of the children of veterans who didn't use the GI Bill 35.92 per cent aspire to the professions, 2.82 per cent to be executives or owners of businesses, 42.26 per cent to be in other kinds of white collar occupations, 16.90 per cent to be skilled and 2.11 per cent to be semi-skilled workers. In the non-veteran groups 35.29 per cent of the children aspire to the professions, 7.84 per cent to be executives or owners, 31.84 per cent to be in other white collar work, 23.53 per cent to be skilled and 9.96 per cent to be semi-skilled. (See Table 34.)

It must be noted that these figures can only indicate a trend as the final results can not be tabulated until all of the children are finished with their educations and have made final decisions as to their occupations. Many of the veterans have young children who are still in elementary school so it will be several years before the final results

Table 33. Comparison of the occupational level of respondents according to training level.

Respondent's Occupational Level	Veterans Who Used GI Bill		Veterans Not Using GI Bill		Non-Veterans	
	Education Before Service	No Education Before Service	Education Before Service	No Education Before Service	With PS Education	With No PS Education
N	(n = 66)	(n = 54)	(n = 56)	(n = 51)	(n = 28)	(n = 12)
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Total White Collar	83.33	57.41	76.78	56.87	75.00	33.33
Professional	21.21	9.26	7.14	--	32.14	--
Executive or Owner	42.42	22.22	35.71	27.45	14.29	16.67
Other White Collar	19.70	25.93	33.93	29.42	28.57	16.67
Total Blue Collar	16.67	42.59	23.22	43.13	25.00	66.67
Skilled	15.15	37.04	21.43	33.33	25.00	50.00
Semi-skilled	1.52	5.55	1.79	7.84	--	16.67
Unskilled	--	--	--	1.96	--	--

Table 34. Percentage of comparison of the occupational level chosen or aspired to by children of respondents.

Occupational Level Chosen or Aspired to	Children of Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Children of Non-Veterans
	%	%	%
Professional	40.00	35.92	35.29
Executive or Owner	4.83	2.82	7.84
Other White Collar	40.69	42.26	31.37
Skilled	12.41	16.90	23.53
Semi-skilled	2.07	2.11	1.96
Unskilled	--	--	--

are in. In many cases, also, men who are owners of their own businesses will leave these to their children and the executive and owner class will likely become much larger at the expense of other occupational levels to which their children currently aspire.

One limitation on this comparison that must be noted is that all children, both male and female, are included while, of course, the fathers and grandfathers were only males. The inclusion of females may slightly alter the pattern of occupational aspiration and choice although girls are more likely to choose the occupation they want today than was true in past generations. Table 35 compares the percentages of the fathers' employment, respondents' employment and their children's aspirations or choices in each occupational level.

Table 35. Percentage comparison of the occupational level of respondents and their fathers, and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were professional.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	Veterans Who Used GI Bill				Veterans Not Using GI Bill				Non-Veterans			
	Father Respondent Children		Father Respondent Children		Father Respondent Children		Father Respondent Children		Father Respondent Children		Father Respondent Children	
	N	120	107	40	N	120	107	40	N	120	107	40
Professional	9.17	15.83	40.00	7.48	3.74	35.92	12.50	22.50	35.29			
Executive or Owner	16.67	33.33	4.83	19.63	31.78	2.82	17.50	15.00	7.84			
Other White Collar	24.17	22.50	40.69	16.82	31.78	42.26	15.00	25.00	31.37			
Skilled	30.83	25.00	12.41	26.17	27.10	16.90	27.50	32.50	23.53			
Semi-skilled	5.00	3.33	2.07	15.88	4.67	2.11	10.00	---	1.96			
Unskilled	14.16	---	---	14.02	0.93	---	17.50	---	---			

Occupational Continuity in Families of Professional Workers

It is also interesting to examine the effect of the GI Bill and its educational benefits upon the tendency of sons of professional workers and their children to continue or aspire to continue in the professions. Of the 24 respondents whose fathers were professional men the data reveal that only 18.18 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill and 12.50 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill entered professional work. On the other hand 40 per cent of the non-veteran sons of professional workers are currently in the professions. Looking ahead, 30 per cent of the children of veterans who used the GI Bill, 70 per cent of the children of veterans who did not use the bill and only 20 per cent of the children of non-veterans have chosen or aspire to professional careers. (See Table 36.)

Occupational Continuity in Families of Executives and Owners

In the case of the 47 respondents whose fathers were either executives or owners of their own businesses 40 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill followed in their fathers' footsteps while another 25 per cent moved into the professions. In the group of veterans who did not use the bill there were 50 per cent who indicated they were executives or owners of their own businesses but none of them had moved into the professions. Non-veterans had the highest total of executives and professionals with 57.14 per cent and 14.29 per cent respectively. It seems reasonable to assume that many of these were men who received educational or occupational deferments and thus did not become veterans.

Table 36. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were professional.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Professional %	Executive or Owner %	Other White Collar %	Skilled %	Semi-skilled %	Unskilled %
Veterans Using GI Bill	11	18.18	72.73	9.09	---	---	---
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	10	30.00	---	40.00	30.00	---	---
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	8	12.50	50.00	37.50	---	---	---
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	10	70.00	10.00	20.00	---	---	---
Non-Veterans	5	40.00	---	20.00	40.00	---	---
Children of Non-Veterans	5	20.00	---	20.00	60.00	---	---

Few of the children of the respondents aspire to be executives or owners. However they will no doubt later inherit their fathers' business. Only 7.14 per cent of the children of veterans who used the bill, 4 per cent of the children of veterans who did not use the bill, and 16.67 per cent of the children of non-veterans are now indicated as aspiring to be in the executive or owner group. It is interesting that, in the meantime, the largest percentage of children who aspire to professional careers are those of veterans who used the bill, 60.71 per cent, followed by 40 per cent of those of the veterans not using the bill and 16.67 per cent of those of non-veterans. (See Table 37.)

Occupational Continuity in Families of Other White Collar Workers

In the group of 53 respondents whose fathers were white collar workers the greatest number of high level occupations are held by veterans who used the GI Bill; 17.29 per cent are in the professions, 44.83 per cent are other white collar workers. Only 17.24 per cent are blue collar workers. The veterans who did not use the GI Bill, and who are sons of white collar workers, have 5.56 per cent of their members in the professions, 22.22 per cent executives or owners and 33.33 per cent holding other white collar jobs while 38.89 per cent hold blue collar jobs. Among non-veterans whose fathers were white collar workers, 16.67 per cent are in the professions and 33.33 per cent are in other white collar jobs while another 50 per cent are in blue collar jobs (33.33 per cent skilled and 16.67 per cent semi-skilled.)

Table 37. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were executives or owners of their own businesses.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Professional %	Executive or Owner %	Other White Collar %	Skilled %	Semi-skilled %	Unskilled %
Veterans Using GI Bill	20	25.00	40.00	25.00	10.00	---	---
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	28	60.71	7.14	25.00	7.14	---	---
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	20	---	50.00	30.00	10.00	5.00	5.00
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	25	40.00	4.00	40.00	16.00	---	---
Non-Veterans	7	14.29	57.14	14.29	14.29	---	---
Children of Non-Veterans	12	16.67	16.67	41.67	16.67	8.33	---

The children of veterans in white collar jobs are showing marked preference for the same or higher rather than lower levels of employment with the children of veterans who used the GI Bill having only 2.86 per cent aspiring to skilled and 2.86 per cent to semi-skilled jobs and 12.50 per cent of the children of veterans who did not use the bill aspiring to skilled jobs, while 37.50 per cent of children of non-veterans wish to be skilled workers. (See Table 38.)

Occupational Continuity in Families of Skilled Laborers

Of the 76 respondents whose fathers were skilled laborers 57.14 per cent of the veterans not using the GI Bill, 40.54 per cent of those who did use the bill and 27.27 per cent of non-veterans followed in their fathers' footsteps. This large proportion of veterans suggests the likelihood that skills learned while in service were turned, most frequently without further training under the GI Bill, to civilian occupations after leaving the armed forces. Another 18.18 per cent of the non-veterans, 13.51 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill and none of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill entered the professions. Non-veterans were most likely to move from the skilled occupations of their fathers to the professions (18.18 per cent) or to other white collar work (45.45 per cent). Veterans whose fathers were skilled workers and who pursued no further education after discharge from service were most likely (57.14 per cent) to continue as skilled workers. Others became executives or owners (21.43 per cent) or other white collar workers (21.43 per cent). Veterans whose fathers were skilled workers and who

Table 38. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were white collar workers.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Executive or Owner				Other White Collar			
		Professional	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Veterans Using GI Bill	29	17.24	44.83	27.59	10.34	6.90	---	---	---
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	35	37.14	5.71	51.43	2.86	2.86	---	---	---
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	18	5.56	22.22	33.33	33.33	5.56	---	---	---
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	24	50.00	---	37.50	12.50	---	---	---	---
Non-Veterans	6	16.67	---	33.33	33.33	16.67	---	---	---
Children of Non-Veterans	8	37.50	---	25.00	37.50	---	---	---	---

pursued further education under the GI Bill most fully exploited the opportunities for upward mobility. They became professional workers (13.51 per cent), executives or owners (16.22 per cent) or other white collar workers (29.73 per cent), or they returned to work similar to that of their fathers (40.54 per cent).

A strikingly similar pattern appears in the expressed aspirations of the children of respondents whose fathers were in the skilled worker classification. Children of non-veterans aspire most frequently to professional positions (43.75 per cent) or to other white collar levels (31.25 per cent). Children of veterans whose fathers were skilled workers and who pursued no further education after discharge most frequently aspire to lower white collar positions (51.28 per cent), less frequently to professional positions (17.95 per cent), and rarely to become executives or owners (2.56 per cent). Children of veterans who used the GI Bill seem to exercise a broad range of occupational choice with 34.78 per cent aspiring to professional work, 4.35 per cent to become executives or owners, 39.13 per cent to other white collar work, 17.39 per cent to continue in skilled occupations, and 4.35 per cent to move to semi-skilled occupations. (See Table 39.)

Occupational Continuity in Families of Semi-Skilled Workers

The 28 respondents whose fathers were semi-skilled are quite interesting. Only among the 6 veterans who used the GI Bill are any members still holding semi-skilled jobs with 2 men or 33.33 per cent. Another of these men is a skilled worker, 2 are in "other white collar"

Table 39. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were skilled laborers.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Professional %	Executive or Owner %	Other White Collar %	Skilled %	Semi-skilled %	Unskilled %
Veterans Using GI Bill	37	13.51	16.22	29.73	40.54	---	---
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	46	34.78	4.35	39.13	17.39	4.35	---
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	28	---	21.43	21.43	57.14	---	---
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	39	17.95	2.56	51.28	25.64	2.56	---
Non-Veterans	11	18.18	9.09	45.45	27.27	---	---
Children of Non-Veterans	16	43.75	6.25	31.25	18.75	---	---

work, and 1 is in professional work. Half of the veterans not using the GI Bill are white collar workers, 11.11 per cent are skilled workers and 38.89 per cent are executives or owners, while 75 per cent (3) of the non-veterans are professionals and the other 25 per cent (1) is an executive or owner of his own business. (See Table 40.)

Occupational Continuity in Families of Unskilled Workers

None of the 39 respondents whose fathers were unskilled remain in this category. The data show that 52.94 per cent of the 17 veterans who used the GI Bill are skilled laborers while 29.41 per cent are executives or owners of their own businesses, 5.88 per cent are in semi-skilled work, and 5.88 per cent are in the professions. The 15 veterans who did not use the GI Bill have more of their group in white collar jobs with 26.67 per cent; 20 per cent are executives or owners, another 20 per cent are skilled and 20 per cent semi-skilled, and 13.33 per cent are in the professions. In the non-veteran group 71.43 per cent are in the professions with 14.29 per cent each in white collar and semi-skilled jobs. The children of the respondents have shown steady gains with every group being at a higher employment level than their fathers. (See Table 41.)

The statistics also show that veterans who used the GI Bill are more likely to have been promoted to top management, middle management or supervisory positions in their present jobs than either veterans who did not use the GI Bill or non-veterans. (See Table 42.)

Table 40. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were semi-skilled laborers.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Executive or Owner				Other White Collar				Semi-skilled				Unskilled			
		Professional		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
Veterans Using GI Bill	6	16.67		---		33.33		16.67		33.33		---		---		---	
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	8	25.00		12.50		25.00		25.00		---		---		---		---	
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	18	---		38.89		50.00		11.11		---		---		---		---	
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	21	38.10		4.76		42.86		9.52		4.76		---		---		---	
Non-Veterans	4	75.00		25.00		---		---		---		---		---		---	
Children of Non-Veterans	3	33.33		---		33.33		33.33		---		---		---		---	

Table 41. Occupational level of respondents and occupational choice or aspiration of their children where respondents' fathers were unskilled laborers.

Occupational Level or Aspiration	N	Executive or Owner				Other White Collar				Unskilled			
		Professional	%	Executive or Owner	%	Other White Collar	%	Skilled	%	Semi-skilled	%	Unskilled	%
Veterans Using GI Bill	17	5.88		29.41		5.88		52.94		5.88		---	
Children of Veterans Using GI Bill	18	38.88		---		55.56		5.56		---		---	
Veterans Not Using GI Bill	15	13.33		20.00		26.67		20.00		20.00		---	
Children of Veterans Not Using GI Bill	23	30.43		---		43.48		21.74		4.35		---	
Non-Veterans	7	---		---		14.29		71.43		14.29		---	
Children of Non-Veterans	7	57.14		14.29		28.57		---		---		---	

Table 42. Comparison of positions held by respondents in their present jobs.^a

	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
Top Management	33.33	32.71	22.50
Middle Management	41.67	40.19	50.00
Supervisor	41.67	38.32	37.50
Skilled Laborer	27.50	22.43	27.50
Unskilled Laborer	3.33	6.54	2.50

^aPercentages include all positions held within the present firm or institution and not just current position.

There are few differences between the groups in job stability, although a slightly higher percentage of veterans who used the GI Bill have been with their present firm or institution, although not necessarily in the same position, for 19 or more years than either veterans who did not use the GI Bill or non-veterans. Veterans who did not use the GI Bill have more individuals who have held their present position for three years or less than non-veterans or veterans who used the GI Bill. (See Table 43.)

It should be noted that 9.35 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill report receiving disability pensions from the Veterans' Administration with 3.74 per cent of these disabilities preventing their working; 9.17 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill

Table 43. Stability of employment of respondents.

Years With Institution or Firm	Veterans Who Used GI Bill			Veterans Not Using GI Bill			Non-Veterans		
	Present Job	Preceding Job	%	Present Job	Preceding Job	%	Present Job	Preceding Job	%
N	120	120		107	107		40	40	
No Response	0.83	8.33	0.83	0.93	12.15	0.93	5.00	12.50	12.50
0-3	8.33	41.67	8.33	18.69	34.58	18.69	15.00	27.50	27.50
4-6	10.83	17.50	10.83	6.54	14.02	6.54	12.50	22.50	22.50
7-9	10.83	12.50	10.83	6.54	6.54	6.54	7.50	15.00	15.00
10-12	6.67	9.17	6.67	4.67	7.48	4.67	2.50	10.00	10.00
13-15	10.00	6.67	10.00	12.15	8.41	12.15	5.00	5.00	5.00
16-18	5.83	0.83	5.83	7.48	1.87	7.48	12.50	2.50	2.50
19-21	10.00	0.83	10.00	8.41	2.80	8.41	7.50	--	--
22-24	16.67	1.67	16.67	7.48	5.61	7.48	10.00	--	--
25 and Over	20.00	0.83	20.00	27.10	6.54	27.10	22.50	5.00	5.00

receive disability pensions with only 0.83 per cent prevented from working as a result of the disability. These figures could have a slight effect upon the data which related to occupations.

Involvement in Continuing Education

John Johnstone and Ramon Rivera did a monumental survey of adult education in 1962 for the National Opinion Research Center and used the following definition:

Because it is much more than remedial education, adult learning in America today can be better characterized as 'continuing education' --continuing in the sense of applying systematic learning processes to the particular demands and interests of adult life rather than in the sense of extending a formal education.¹

In this sense non-veterans have the greatest amount of participation in continuing education in their communities with 57.50 per cent; 55 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill reported participation as did 46.73 per cent of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill.

Program offered by churches, industries, professional organizations and colleges, including junior colleges, and universities are the most popular among all groups, although in slightly different rank order. (See Table 44.) This corresponds closely to the findings of Johnstone and Rivera who restricted their study to activities which were organized around some form of instruction and which had the imparting of some sort of knowledge, information or skill as their main purpose. They found that more people attended courses offered by churches or synagogues,

¹John W. C. Johnstone and Ramon J. Rivera, Volunteers for Learning (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company for the National Opinion Research Center, 1965), p. 21.

Table 44. Percentage of participation in continuing education by group of respondents according to the kind of organization sponsoring program.

Organization Sponsoring Programs	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
Industry	20.00	16.82	22.50
Church	21.67	14.02	22.50
Professional Organization	17.50	14.02	15.00
College or University	13.33	6.54	20.00
Local High School	7.50	9.35	10.00
Local High School	4.17	5.61	12.50
Labor Union	6.67	3.74	5.00
Social Science Agency	4.17	1.87	5.00
Other	3.33	3.74	7.50

21 per cent and colleges and universities, 21 per cent, than by any other sponsor. Other sponsors they found were community organizations, 15 per cent, business and industry, 12 per cent, elementary and high school, 12 per cent, private schools, 7 per cent, government (all levels), 7 per cent, Armed Forces, 4 per cent, and all other sponsors, 2 per cent.¹

¹Ibid., p. 61.

In the present study industry sponsored programs are utilized by 59.32 per cent of all respondents; 56.19 per cent participate in church sponsored programs and 46.52 per cent in programs sponsored by professional organizations.

Choice of Leisure Activities

While the differences are not great, it is interesting to note that the leisure activities most enjoyed by the veterans who used the GI Bill are reading newspapers, TV, reading books, and spectator sports, while veterans who did not use the GI Bill prefer TV, reading newspapers, active sports and spectator sports and the preferences of non-veterans are reading newspapers, TV, outdoor activities, reading books and active sports. (See Table 45.)

In the area of cultural activities more non-veterans have attended six or more plays and concerts in the past two years than either group of veterans, but more veterans who used the GI Bill have visited art galleries six or more times. (See Table 46.)

Veterans who used the GI Bill and non-veterans report identical percentages of six or more pleasure trips during the past two years both within their home states, 42.50 per cent, and in other states, 22.50 per cent. Non-veterans have indulged in more pleasure travel in other countries than either veteran group. There is no way of knowing whether or not the fact that many veterans were overseas in combat and were stationed at foreign bases after the war has any bearing on this statistic. (See Table 47.)

Table 45. Distribution of respondents by groups and by leisure activities enjoyed.

Activity	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
Reading Newspapers	76.76	73.83	82.50
Reading Books	63.63	58.88	60.00
TV	73.73	82.24	75.00
Movies	32.50	41.12	25.00
Concerts, Plays, or Art	35.83	28.97	45.00
Participation in Music, Drama or Art	14.17	6.54	15.00
Creative Writing	5.00	1.87	2.50
Active Sports	54.17	62.62	60.00
Outdoor Activities	55.83	52.34	65.00
Spectator Sports	62.50	59.81	47.50
Playing Cards	35.83	46.73	32.50
Other	15.83	10.28	20.00

Table 46. Percentage and frequency of respondents attending plays, concerts and art galleries during the past two years by groups.

Times Attended	Veterans Who Used GI Bill				Veterans Not Using GI Bill				Non-Veterans			
	Plays		Concerts		Plays		Concerts		Plays		Concerts	
	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0	34.17	57.50	66.67	41.12	66.36	68.22	32.50	47.50	57.50			
1	15.83	12.50	11.67	14.95	11.21	12.15	10.00	17.50	10.00			
2	19.17	13.33	5.00	17.76	4.67	11.21	12.50	17.50	12.50			
3	8.33	5.83	7.50	4.67	5.61	2.80	15.00	2.50	12.50			
4	10.00	3.33	1.67	5.61	6.54	1.87	17.50	5.00	5.00			
5	2.50	1.67	0.83	5.61	0.93	--	--	2.50	--			
6 or More	10.00	5.83	6.67	10.28	4.67	3.74	12.50	7.50	2.50			

Table 47. Percentage and frequency of respondents traveling for pleasure in home state, other states, and in other countries^a during the past two years by groups.

Times Traveled	Veterans Who Used GI Bill				Veterans Not Using GI Bill				Non-Veterans			
	Own State		Other States		Own State		Other States		Own State		Other States	
	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0	25.83	15.00	72.50	72.50	22.43	12.15	72.90	72.90	17.50	5.00	72.50	72.50
1	5.83	14.17	14.17	14.17	4.67	10.28	24.30	24.30	7.50	12.50	15.00	15.00
2	7.50	14.17	6.67	6.67	13.08	27.10	---	---	7.50	32.50	2.50	2.50
3	8.33	13.33	5.00	5.00	3.74	12.15	1.87	1.87	5.00	12.50	5.00	5.00
4	7.50	14.17	0.83	0.83	11.21	14.02	---	---	12.50	12.50	---	---
5	2.50	6.67	0.83	0.83	3.74	7.48	0.93	0.93	7.50	2.50	2.50	2.50
6 or More	42.50	22.50	---	---	41.12	16.82	---	---	42.50	22.50	2.50	2.50

^aChi square (x^2) value indicates that the differences are significant at the .10 level.

The Impact of the GI Bill Upon the
Community in Which the Veteran
Resides

One of the purposes of this study was to find out, in so far as possible, whether and how the education and training provisions of the GI Bill had affected the community where the veteran resides. An examination of years of residence in the community, residential mobility, type and value of housing, volunteer service to the community causes, leadership roles in the community, and voting patterns will provide some answers.

One-third of the veterans who used the GI Bill have lived in their community for forty-one or more years with slightly over one-third having been there for fifteen years or less. Slightly less than one-third of the veterans who did not use the GI Bill and 27.50 per cent of the non-veterans have been in the community for forty-one or more years. (See Table 48.)

Veterans who used GI education benefits have changed residence more often than either of the other groups. One or more moves have been made by 77.49 per cent of them and 5 per cent have moved 4 or more times.

Veterans who did not use the GI Bill were likely to have stayed in the same home the past ten years with 56.07 per cent reporting not having moved compared with 45 per cent of the non-veterans and 30.83 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill. Non-veterans were the least mobile with 90 per cent of them either not having moved at all or having moved only once. (See Table 49.)

Table 48. Distribution of respondents and years lived in their present communities.

Years	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	3.33	4.67	2.50
0-5	8.33	12.15	12.50
6-10	15.00	6.54	7.50
11-15	12.50	10.28	15.00
16-20	11.67	14.95	12.50
21-25	11.67	13.08	12.50
26-30	--	2.80	5.00
31-35	1.67	0.93	5.00
36-40	2.50	2.80	--
41 or More	33.33	31.78	27.50

Table 49. Distribution of respondents by group and number of times they have moved in the past ten years.

Moves	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	1.67	1.87	--
None	30.83	56.07	45.00
1	40.83	18.69	45.00
2	15.83	9.35	7.50
3	5.83	10.28	2.50
4 or More	5.00	3.74	--

An overwhelming majority of all three groups live in houses which they own. The non-veterans lead with 90 per cent and are followed by veterans who used the GI Bill, 83.33 per cent, and veterans who did not use the bill, 78.50 per cent. (See Table 50.)

Table 50. Distribution of respondents by group and type of housing in which they live.

Type of Housing	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	2.50	0.93	--
Apartment	6.67	10.28	2.50
Owens Condominium	0.83	1.87	--
Owens Duplex	1.67	0.93	--
Owens House	83.33	78.50	90.00
Rents House	2.50	4.67	2.50
Owens Mobile Home	--	2.80	--
Other	2.50	--	1.32

The value of these houses gives an indication of the real estate taxes paid by the owners to the community in which they reside. A home in the \$16,000 - \$30,000 range was most popular in all groups with 42.50 per cent of non-veterans, 39.17 per cent of veterans who used the GI Bill and 34.58 per cent of veterans who did not use it valuing their homes in this range. Veterans who used the GI Bill had many more members, 14.16 per cent, who owned homes valued over \$45,000 than either the veterans who did not use the GI Bill, 4.67 per cent, or non-veterans, 2.50 per cent. (See Table 51.)

Table 51. Value of housing owned or monthly rent paid by respondents.

	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	107	40
	%	%	%
No Response	8.33	14.02	7.50
Value of Housing			
\$0-15,000	18.33	14.02	22.50
16-30,000	29.17	34.58	42.50
31-45,000	13.33	18.69	15.00
46-60,000	10.83	2.80	7.50
61-75,000	0.83	2.80	--
76,000 or Over	2.50	1.87	2.50
Monthly Rent Paid			
\$50-125 Rent	0.83	4.67	2.50
126-200	2.50	3.74	--
201 or More	0.83	2.80	--

The veterans who used the GI Bill were far more generous, with both their time and money, in serving civic causes than either veterans who did not use the bill or non-veterans. Ten per cent of those who used the benefits helped nine or more community agencies, while only 6.54 per cent of the veterans who had not utilized the GI Bill and 5 per cent of the non-veterans helped this many. (See Table 52.)

A higher percentage of veterans who used the bill, 72.50 per cent, gave both time and money to these causes compared to 67.50 per cent of non-veterans and 59.81 per cent of veterans who did not use the GI Bill. (See Table 53.)

Table 52. Number of community agencies to which time or money has been contributed by respondent groups since 1960.

Numbers of Agencies	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	0.83	1.87	--
1	1.67	4.67	15.00
2	8.33	11.21	15.00
3	11.67	14.02	15.00
4	19.17	20.56	25.00
5	11.67	10.28	12.50
6	15.83	14.95	15.00
7	13.33	9.35	5.00
8	7.50	6.54	5.00
9 or More	10.00	6.54	5.00

Table 53. Percentage of respondents by groups who contributed time, money or both.

Contribution	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	2.50	4.67	10.00
Only Time	--	1.87	5.00
Only Money	25.00	33.64	22.50
Both	72.50	59.81	67.50

Veterans who used the GI Bill gave most freely of their time with 20.83 per cent reporting spending 25 or more days on volunteer service to these agencies during the past year compared to 15.99 per cent of veterans who did not use the GI Bill and 15 per cent of non-veterans. (See Table 54.)

Table 54. Number of days time contributed by groups of respondents to community agencies last year.

Number of Days	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	42.50	53.27	47.50
1-3	2.50	5.61	2.50
4-6	8.33	3.74	5.00
7-9	--	1.87	2.50
10-12	12.50	10.28	17.50
13-15	3.33	3.74	5.00
16-18	--	0.93	--
19-21	8.33	4.67	5.00
22-54	1.67	--	--
25 or Over	20.83	15.99	15.00

Veterans who used the GI Bill also gave the highest cash contributions to community agencies during the past year. Almost a fourth, 24.17 per cent, of them reported gifts of over \$800 with only 15.99 per cent of the veterans not using the GI Bill and 10 per cent of the non-veterans giving this much. (See Table 55.)

Table 55. Amount of money contributed to community agencies by groups of respondents last year.

Amount	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
No Response	12.50	21.50	25.00
\$1-100	13.33	14.02	15.00
101-200	10.83	14.02	15.00
201-300	9.17	7.48	10.00
301-400	8.33	6.54	7.50
401-500	12.50	14.02	7.50
501-600	2.50	0.93	2.50
601-700	3.33	2.80	5.00
701-800	3.33	2.80	2.50
801 or More	24.17	15.99	10.00

Very few of the survey respondents in any group held public offices or served on city boards. Non-veterans led in service on city or political boards with 10 per cent compared to 5.61 per cent for veterans who had not used the GI Bill and 2.50 per cent for veterans who had used it. The veterans who had used the GI Bill led in the number holding office in city government, 3.33 per cent, compared to 2.50 per cent for non-veterans and 0.93 per cent for veterans who had not used the GI Bill. (See Table 56.)

When examining the years served in public office, non-veterans dominate at both ends of the scale. (See Table 57.)

Table 56. Percentage of respondents holding various public offices by groups.

Office Held	Veterans Who Used GI Bill (n=120)		Veterans Not Using GI Bill (n=107)		Non-Veterans (n=40)	
	%		%		%	
None	89.17		90.65		82.50	
Office in City Government	3.33		0.93		2.50	
City or Political Party Board	2.50		5.61		10.00	
Township Office	--		--		2.50	
County Office	1.67		1.87		--	
State Office	0.83		--		--	
Federal Office	--		--		--	
Two of Above	0.83		0.93		--	
Three of Above	0.83		--		--	
Professional Board	0.83		--		--	

Table 57. Number of years that respondents have served in public office by groups.

Number of Years	Veterans Who Used GI Bill	Veterans Not Using GI Bill	Non-Veterans
	(n = 120)	(n = 107)	(n = 40)
	%	%	%
None	89.17	90.65	82.50
1-2	1.67	2.80	5.00
3-4	1.67	0.93	5.00
5-6	2.50	3.74	2.50
7-8	--	0.93	--
9-10	0.83	--	2.50
11-12	0.83	--	--
13-14	1.67	--	--
15-16	0.83	--	--
17 or More	0.83	0.93	2.50

One of the characteristics of good citizenship is participation in the political system through exercising the right to vote in elections. The veterans having GI Bill education voted more often in every election, primary, local, state and national, than either veterans not using the GI Bill or non-veterans. In primary elections, 59.17 per cent of the GI Bill trained veterans voted four or more times in the past ten years which was more than double the 28.33 per cent who did not vote. Veterans who did not use the GI Bill were second with 44.86 per cent voting four or more times, but 39.25 per cent did not vote at all while non-veterans had the same number, 40 per cent, who voted at least four times and who did not vote.

In the regular elections at local, state and federal level, a large percentage of all groups reported having voted four or more times in the past ten years with the veterans who used the GI Bill leading in all instances. It is interesting that 90.83 per cent of them indicated they had voted four or more times in local elections with a percentage of 83.33 in state elections and only 68.33 per cent voting this frequently in national elections. (See Table 58.)

There was limited participation in political party conventions with non-veterans leading in the amount of participation at all levels, local, state and federal. Veterans who used the GI Bill were second in each instance. (See Table 59.)

Summary

This chapter has attempted to describe the findings with respect to a wide range of characteristics of the respondents. It has revealed differences between veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use the GI Bill and non-veterans.

As a result of this analysis, it is clear that veterans who used the GI Bill have made greater gains in level of occupation in comparison to their fathers, are more likely to be in top or middle management or supervisory positions, have lived longer in their communities, have greater upward mobility within their community, live in more expensive homes, have a higher level of income, give more time and money to community agencies, have a greater interest in art, and vote more frequently in elections at the local, state and national level. These statements will be examined in greater detail in Chapter VII.

Table 58. Percentage of respondents voting in primary,^a local,^a state,^a and federal elections during the past ten years by groups.

Number of Times Voting	Veterans Who Used GI Bill				Veterans Not Using GI Bill				Non-Veterans			
	Primary ^a Local ^a		State ^a		Federal Primary ^a Local ^a		State ^a		Federal Primary ^a Local ^a		State ^a Federal	
	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0	28.33	0.83	0.83	0.83	39.25	2.80	4.67	3.74	40.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
1	1.67	--	--	--	2.80	--	--	0.93	--	5.00	5.00	2.50
2	2.50	3.33	4.17	12.50	5.61	3.74	7.48	16.82	15.00	--	2.50	17.50
3	8.33	5.00	11.67	18.33	7.48	6.54	14.95	19.63	5.00	7.50	10.00	12.50
4 or More	59.17	90.83	83.33	68.33	44.86	86.92	72.90	58.88	40.00	82.50	77.50	62.50

^aChi square (χ^2) value indicates that the differences are significant at the .05 level.

Table 59. Percentage of respondents who participated in local, state, and national^a political party conventions during the past ten years by groups.

Times partici- pated	Veterans Who Used GI Bill			Veterans Not Using GI Bill			Non-Veterans		
	Local	State	National ^a	Local	State	National ^a	Local	State	National ^a
	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=120)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=107)	(n=40)	(n=40)	(n=40)
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0	90.83	90.83	95.83	94.39	97.20	97.20	85.00	85.00	85.00
1	0.83	1.67	--	0.93	--	--	--	2.50	--
2	0.83	0.83	--	--	--	0.93	2.50	--	--
3	0.83	0.83	--	--	--	--	2.50	--	--
4 or More	6.67	5.83	4.17	4.67	2.80	1.87	10.00	12.50	15.00

^aChi square (χ^2) value indicates that the differences are significant at the .05 level.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of the Study

It has been the purpose of this study to investigate the effect of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (the GI Bill) upon the individual veteran, his family, and his community. This study has been conducted in Danville, Illinois, deemed to be a reasonably representative mid-American community and one in which the investigator was well enough known to be granted complete access to essential preliminary records--the high school transcripts and grade point averages of the population to be studied. Male graduates of Danville High School in the classes of 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940 were selected as the specific population for the study; the graduates of these classes would have had ample time to have started post-secondary education or training before the beginning of World War II. Those who entered service with no post-secondary education or training and who used the GI Bill education benefits were assumed as likely to have not undertaken post-secondary education or training had there been no GI Bill.

The GI Bill as enacted and amended was an adult education bill intended to serve both the community and the individual. It extended the public policy assumption that adult education serves the social welfare. That assumption, while never clearly stated, was nevertheless

implicit in the Morrill Act of 1862 establishing the land grant colleges, the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 establishing the Cooperative Extension Service in the land grant colleges, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 establishing adult evening programs in vocational education departments, and the depression-inspired programs embracing adult education.

If the GI Bill has proved to be effective in serving both individual and social purposes over a generation of time, it would seem that this same principle of massive federal support of education, including the education of adults, might well be utilized in attempting long range and durable solutions to some of our present national problems. This study has sought to ascertain whether or not the GI Bill has been effective. The research has been essentially a detailed study of the male graduates of the high school classes of 1936-1940, in a representative community, to determine whether or not veterans who participated in the education and training benefits of the GI Bill differed systematically on a range of selected real-life variables a quarter century later, from non-veterans and from veterans who did not participate in such education benefits.

Data required for the study came principally from two sources. Some data were available from high school transcripts and records. It was necessary to design a survey instrument to gather evidence on post-secondary education, military status and the numerous variables which were taken as indicators of personal, family and community impact. A partial replication of an earlier government survey of veterans was included and additional questions were carefully formulated to minimize misunderstanding by the respondents and thus yield maximally valid data.

The proposed survey schedule was mimeographed and pretested on twenty-five males with backgrounds similar to those of the population to be surveyed. Refinements were made on the basis of the field test and the survey schedule was printed. (Appendix B.)

Current addresses of the graduates were obtained from alumni lists, class officers, families and friends. Several of the men were known to have died in combat in World War II while a number of others had died in recent years. Realizing that a truly random sample could not be obtained, a determined effort was made to either locate or account for each of the graduates in the population. Of the 736 male graduates, 55 were known dead and 243 proved impossible to locate. Addresses were found for 438 and questionnaires were mailed to them. There were 267 usable responses which constituted a 61 per cent return of the surveys mailed out and a 36 per cent return of the total population. In addition, three of the surveys were returned by widows and four were returned by the post office marked "address unknown".

A computer analysis was run on the items available from high school transcripts: (1) year of graduation, (2) age, (3) occupation of the father and (4) quartiles in the high school graduating class, after they had been recalculated for males only. This analysis showed no significant differences between the groups of individuals who did not respond, whose addresses were unknown, who were known dead, or who did not respond to the survey. It was therefore assumed that the responses are a relatively representative sample of the total population.

Responses were coded and the coded data were punched on IBM cards for data processing. In cases where cell size justified doing so, the Control Data Corporation 6500 computer at Michigan State University was used to compute chi square tests of statistical significance of the relationship between the training levels and the dependent variables examined in the surveys. The percentages used in reporting the results were computed on an electronic calculator.

Summary of the Findings

The study reveals that veterans who used the education benefits of the GI Bill appear more often than those who did not use it or the non-veterans to have a higher occupational level with 49.16 per cent either being in the professions or being executives or owners of their own businesses, compared with 35.52 per cent of the veterans not using the GI Bill and 37.50 per cent of the non-veterans. A higher percentage of the children of veterans who used the GI Bill, 44.83 per cent, are in or aspire to be in the professions or are or aspire to be executives or owners of their own businesses than the children of veterans who did not use the bill, 38.74 per cent, or the children of non-veterans, 43.13 per cent. Further, the children of veterans who utilized the GI education benefits range more freely over the whole span of occupational choice than do children of either of the other groups.

Veterans who used the GI Bill appear more often than those who did not or the non-veterans to have been promoted to top or middle management or to supervisory positions although they hold only a slight

advantage in the number of years they have been with their present employer. It therefore appears that their rate of advancement has been faster than that of veterans not using the bill or non-veterans.

This rate of advancement is also reflected in the higher level of income reported by veterans who used the GI Bill. In 1970, excluding government pensions, 53.33 per cent of the veterans who used the GI Bill reported that they earned over \$15,000 compared with 43.92 per cent of the veterans who did not use the bill and 37.50 per cent of the non-veterans.

Veterans who used the GI Bill appear more often than those who did not use it or non-veterans to have lived in their communities for a longer period of time. They are also more mobile within their community than the other groups. Since the data show that they live in more expensive homes, it might be assumed that this is vertical, rather than horizontal, mobility.

The veterans who used the GI Bill reported more time and money donated to community agencies than did veterans who did not use the bill or non-veterans. They also appear to take their responsibilities of citizenship more seriously as they report voting more frequently than do veterans who did not use the bill or non-veterans.

Veterans who used the GI Bill express a greater interest in art than do the veterans who did not use the GI Bill or the non-veterans as a greater percentage of them reported visiting an art gallery in the past two years than either of the other groups.

Because of the local character of the study and the small numbers involved, not all of these differences show up as being significant

in terms of the statistical tests employed. The two that demonstrated statistical significance at the .05 level were the occupational level and voting characteristics of the respondents.

There was very little difference between veterans who used the GI Bill, veterans who did not use it and non-veterans in (a) marital status, (b) number of children, (c) educational aspirations for their children, (d) living in a home that they own, (e) leisure activities enjoyed or (f) having been elected or appointed to a public office.

Non-veterans have a higher rate of participation in continuing education, activities organized around some form of instruction having the imparting of some sort of knowledge, information or skill as their main purpose, than either group of veterans. Non-veterans also have taken more pleasure trips abroad and attended more plays and concerts during the past two years than the veterans. Non-veterans also report more political party activity as they participate in more of the conventions held by their political party than do the veterans.

Observations by the Writer

Underlying this study was an implicit assumption of the "goodness" of the GI Bill. Some of the findings about the veterans who used its educational benefits strongly support this assumption: (1) the higher level of income, (2) the more prestigious occupations, (3) the tendency to be more frequently in top management positions, (4) the giving of more time and money to community causes and (5) the greater participation in primary, local, state and national elections. There were also some failures of the findings to support the assumption.

The education acquired under the GI Bill seems to have had little, if any, impact on (1) cultural appreciation, (2) choice of leisure activities, (3) participation in programs of continuing education, and (4) community leadership through elected offices or appointed positions on policy making boards.

I feel that there are some logical explanations for the failure of this particular group of veterans to show greater gains from GI sponsored education. There is no evidence as to whether or not veterans and non-veterans were proportionately represented in the responding sample. It is not possible to know the numbers of non-veterans among those who did not respond to the survey. It is quite possible that non-veterans who did not seek post-secondary education were reluctant to answer the survey questions, especially if they did not perceive themselves to be in as advantageous a position as they would have liked. This could partially explain the large number of responses from the lowest quartile among male graduates in the graduating classes, and might well be responsible for the unexpectedly lower return rate of survey forms by the graduates still living in Danville.

Another important factor is that these particular graduating classes were chosen to see how many of the graduates who entered service with no post-secondary education or training utilized the educational benefits of the GI Bill. All of these graduates, and particularly those in the earliest classes studied, were old enough to have been fairly well established in occupations before the United States entered World War II. With jobs to return to and often with families to support, they were less likely to seek GI sponsored education than would younger men

who entered service directly or soon after high school. It is also quite likely that many of the non-veterans were men who had moved directly from high school into their chosen occupations or into post-secondary education and were deferred from service because of occupation or education and hence had several years head start in becoming established. The effect of GI educational benefits, per se, would likely be more evident among men who graduated from high school after U.S. entry into the war and who were inducted into service before they had opportunity to become established in an occupation or post-secondary education.

Another observation which can neither be proved nor disproved by the data is that the GI Bill prevented the United States from falling back into the depths of depression at the close of World War II. Dr. Floyd Reeves and others had argued that such a depression would occur if educational alternatives to seeking immediate employment were not provided by the government. It seems logical to assume that with war production winding down and with a deluge of discharged veterans and displaced civilian workers seeking post-war employment, a catastrophic depression was almost inevitable had there not been alternatives to employment for a significant number of men. Educational alternatives were provided in the GI Bill and there was no depression.

Conclusions and Implications

This study posed two major questions, the first of which asked whether veterans from semi-skilled and unskilled groups tend to participate less (less frequently and/or at lower levels) than veterans from white collar and skilled groups in GI sponsored education programs.

The data show that veterans from white collar and skilled groups did participate slightly more in GI sponsored education programs than those from semi-skilled and unskilled groups and that their participation was at a higher training level.

The second question posed by this study asked whether veterans who participated in the education and training program of the GI Bill differ systematically from non-veterans and from veterans who did not participate with respect to a number of characteristics. The data show that the veterans who participated in the education and training program have a higher income, have a position in a higher level occupation, are less likely to choose their father's occupation, have more stability with their current firm or institution, have more vertical mobility within their occupation, vote more frequently in local, state and national elections, provide more volunteer service to local causes, are more likely to be the first members of their family to achieve formal post-secondary education, have more mobility of residence within their community, are less likely to migrate out of the community, visit art galleries more frequently and have more children who have chosen or have aspired to higher level and broader variety of occupations. Education or training under the GI Bill makes apparently little or no difference in office holding at the local, state, or national level, stability of family, number of children, involvement in continuing education programs or participation in travel, music or literary programs.

The GI Bill has turned out to be a good investment because of both the economic and non-economic contributions it has made to the individual veteran, his family and his community. This study has shown

that veterans who used the GI Bill have higher incomes and more expensive homes which mean that they pay higher taxes at all levels and are able able to provide more of the amenities of life for themselves and their families.

The data reveal that in every instance respondents with post-secondary education or training, regardless of whether or not it was GI sponsored, came out ahead of those with no post-secondary education or training. The assumption was made that those veterans with no post-secondary education or training before service who used the benefits were unlikely to have received post-secondary education or training had there been no GI Bill, so it appears that 23.79 per cent of the veterans received a post-secondary education who would otherwise have ended their careers with high school graduation.

The previous studies of veterans showed that younger veterans used the benefits more frequently than older veterans. Many of the veterans in this study did not take advantage of the GI Bill, probably because they were well established in an occupation before the war started and they returned to the same job when the war ended. It would be interesting to do an intensive study, in a similar community, of those who graduated during the war years to see what extent these younger and less well established men, as veterans, utilized the benefits of the GI Bill.

An important piece of research, as well as an interesting one, would be a comparison of World War II, Korean and Vietnam veterans' utilization of the GI Bill provided for them. This should include both the amount and type of utilization.

Today's circumstances are quite different from those of the late 1940's and the early 1950's. During the past 20 years there has been a steady increase in the level of education in the United States. Much research has been conducted to show the economic value of more education, but no evidence seems to be available as to the impact of the kind of education acquired. Do we want to emphasize only a greater amount of education or do we also want to aim toward a certain kind of education? A comparison of veterans who went to college with those who took other types of training would be a valuable contribution to research and to the data base for personal decision and policy development.

The policy makers should note that not only has the GI Bill been well worth its cost to the nation and should be continued, but also that education and training, whether for veterans or non-veterans, do make a difference. It would seem a far better investment for the federal government to provide massive sums of money to educate the under-educated so that they can become productive citizens rather than to be forced to provide massive sums of money for subsistence welfare payments.

The policy makers should also remember the need to insure that federal support for education is equitably utilized. As an illustration it should be noted that while the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 provided for the establishment of the Cooperative Extension Service in each of the land grant colleges, the money for these programs was given to the states in block grants. As a result very little of the money went to black land grant colleges because of the segregation patterns of the day. Care needs to be taken to insure that the money is actually used for the

education purposes intended. A national commitment of large sums of federal dollars to the education of all the citizens of the United States is long overdue.

Education is an investment, not a cost. It is an investment in free men. It is an investment in social welfare, better living standards, better health and less crime. It is an investment in higher production, increased income, and greater efficiency in agriculture, industry, and government. It is an investment in a bulwark against garbled information, half-truths and untruths; against ignorance and intolerance. It is an investment in human talent, better human relationships, democracy and peace.¹

¹The President's Commission on Higher Education, vol. V, Financing Higher Education (New York: Harper and Bros., 1947), p. 28.

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APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

PRESIDENTIAL COMMITTEES WHICH CONTRIBUTED TO THE FORMULATION OF THE SERVICEMEN'S READJUSTMENT ACT

1. Members of the Advisory Committee on Education
2. Members of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of
Civilian and Military Personnel
3. Members of the Armed Forces Committee on Postwar
Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel



MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

Floyd W. Reeves, Chairman

W. Rowland Allen, Personnel Director of Ayres Department Store,
Indianapolis, Indiana.

Edmund deS. Brunner, Professor of Rural Sociology, Teachers College,
Columbia University.

Oscar L. Chapman, Assistant Secretary of the Interior.

Elisabeth Christman, Secretary-Treasurer of the National Women's Trade
Union League.

Gordon L. Clapp, Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority.

Ernest G. Draper, Assistant Secretary of Commerce.

Alice L. Edwards, Home Economist, Consultant to the Resettlement Admin-
istration and to the Regents' Inquiry into Education in New
York State.

Henry Esberg of New York City, a businessman who has maintained an
active interest in the field of vocational rehabilitation for
many years. (Deceased September 22, 1937).

Mordecai Ezekiel, Economic Advisor to the Secretary of Agriculture.

George L. Googe, Chairman of the Southern Organizing Committee of the
American Federation of Labor.

Frank P. Graham, President of the University of North Carolina.

Luther Gulick, Director of the Institute of Public Administration and
Eaton Professor of Municipal Science and Administration at
Columbia University.

George Johnson, Director of the Department of Education of the National
Catholic Welfare Conference.

Charles H. Judd, Chairman of the Department of Education of the Univer-
sity of Chicago.

Thomas Kennedy, Secretary-Treasurer of the United Mine Workers of
America, and Lieutenant Governor of Pennsylvania.



Katherine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor.

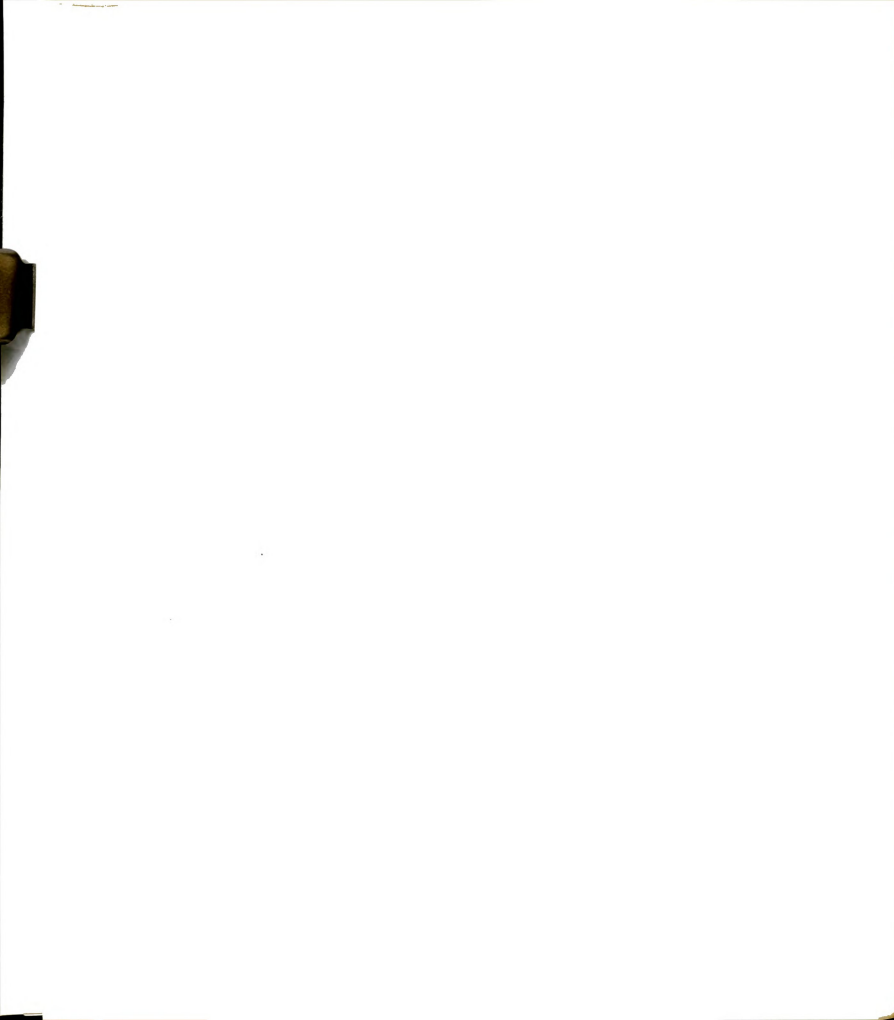
Arthur B. Moehlman, Professor Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Michigan.

Henry C. Taylor, a nationally known agricultural economist, formerly Chief of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and now Director of the Farm Foundation of Chicago.

T. J. Thomas of Chicago, President of the Valier Coal Company.

John H. Zink, a Baltimore contractor who is President of the Heating, Piping, and Air Conditioning Contractors National Association.

George F. Zook, President of the American Council on Education.



MEMBERS OF THE CONFERENCE ON POSTWAR READJUSTMENT
OF CIVILIAN AND MILITARY PERSONNEL

Dr. Floyd W. Reeves, National Resources Planning Board, Chairman.

Mr. Leonard Outhwaite, National Resources Planning Board, Secretary.

Dr. Francis J. Brown, Education Adviser, Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation.

Dr. Edward C. Elliott, Chief, Professional and Technical Employment and Training Division, War Manpower Commission.

Dr. William Haber, Director, Bureau of Program Requirements, War Manpower Commission.

Brigadier General Frank T. Hines, Administrator, Veterans Administration.

Major General Lewis B. Hershey, Director, Bureau of Selective Service, War Manpower Commission.

Dr. A. F. Hinrichs, Acting Commissioner of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor.

Lieutenant Commander Ralph A. Sentman, U.S.N. (Ret.), Officer in Charge of Educational Services Section, Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Navy Department.

Colonel Francis T. Spaulding, Chief, Education Branch, Special Service Division, War Department.

Mr. Howard R. Tolley, Chief, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Department of Agriculture.

Dr. Thomas J. Woofter, Jr., Director of Research, Federal Security Agency.

MEMBERS OF THE ARMED FORCES COMMITTEE ON POSTWAR
EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR SERVICE PERSONNEL

Brigadier General Frederick H. Osborn, Director, Special Service Division, Army Service Forces, Chairman.

Captain Cortlandt C. Baughman, Director of Special Activities, Bureau of Naval Personnel, United States Navy, Co-Chairman.

Rufus C. Harris, President, Tulane University, Vice-Chairman.

Dexter M. Keezer, Deputy Administrator, Office of Price Administration.

Young B. Smith, Dean, Columbia University Law School.

John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education.

Colonel Francis T. Spaulding, Chief, Education Branch, Special Service Division, Alternate for General Osborn.

Lieutenant Commander Ralph A. Sentman, Officer in Charge, Educational Services Section, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Alternate for Captain Baughman.

Fred J. Kelly, Chief, Higher Education Division, United States Office of Education, Alternate for Mr. Studebaker.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

1. Accompanying Letter
2. Instrument
3. Followup Letter



DANVILLE JUNIOR COLLEGE • 2000 EAST MAIN • DANVILLE, ILLINOIS 61832 • TELEPHONE (217) 443-1811

MARY MILLER, President

September 7, 1971

Dear Danville High Alumnus:

Danville Junior College is cooperating in a research study being conducted by our Dean of Adult Education, Mary Ann Diller, as part of her doctoral program at Michigan State University, and I am pleased to have an opportunity to contact you about your experiences since leaving Danville High School. The high school classes of 1936, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940 have been chosen for this study to determine some of the effects of experiences during World War II on the lives of former D. H. S. students.

Your responses on the enclosed questionnaire will help make possible a realistic review of what the graduates of these classes are now doing and will help us make some decisions concerning long range planning. The questionnaires have been pre-coded for computer analysis. Miss Diller is the only person who will see the responses, which will be destroyed as soon as she tabulates them. Your responses will be used only in group summaries, and individual responses will be considered as totally confidential.

Please use the enclosed envelope to return the questionnaire immediately as your response is exceedingly important to the validity of this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

I appreciate this opportunity to contact you as I have known so many of you personally.

Sincerely,

MARY MILLER
President

14. To which of the following community agencies have you contributed time or money since 1960? (Check one or more): (36-37)
- | | Time | Money |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| ☐ United Fund | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Boy Scouts | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ YMCA | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Veterans Organization | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Chamber of Commerce | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Service Clubs | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Professional Organization | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Labor Union | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Urban League | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Symphony, Art Guild, etc. | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ CARE, PROJECT CONCERN, and similar relief agencies | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Church activities | ☐ | ☐ |
| ☐ Other | ☐ | ☐ |
- Estimate total days and dollars contributed to above last year: _____ days _____ dollars (38-39)
15. Have any members of your family pursued formal education or training beyond high school? (40-43)
- | | Under GI Bill | |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Mother | ☐ No ☐ Yes | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| Father | ☐ No ☐ Yes | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| Brothers or Sisters | ☐ No ☐ Yes | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
- (41-44) (42-45)
16. What educational level would you like your children to achieve? (46)
- ☐ Check here if you have no children
- | | Years of Education | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 or more |
| High School | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Junior College | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| College or University | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Other types of education such as vocational, trade or business school | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
- (47-48)
17. How old are your children and how much schooling has each completed? (49)
- ☐ I have no children
- | | Age | School Years Completed |
|--------------|-------|------------------------|
| First Child | _____ | _____ |
| Second Child | _____ | _____ |
| Third Child | _____ | _____ |
| Fourth Child | _____ | _____ |
| Fifth Child | _____ | _____ |
- (50) (51) (52) (53) (54)
18. What vacations have your children chosen? (55)
- ☐ I have no children. (56-60)
19. How long have you lived in the community where you now live? (61)
20. Do you live in: (62-63)
- | | Monthly rent | Market value |
|---|--------------|--------------|
| ☐ An apartment | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A condominium which you own | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A duplex which you own | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A house which you rent | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A house which you own | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A mobile home which you own | _____ | _____ |
| ☐ A mobile home which you rent | _____ | _____ |
21. How often have you moved from one home to another in the past ten years? (64)
- ☐ Haven't moved
- ☐ Once
- ☐ Twice
- ☐ Three times
- ☐ Four or more times
22. How many times, within the past two years, have you traveled for pleasure? (65)
- | | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 or more |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| In your home state | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| In other states of the U.S. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| Outside of the U.S. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
- (66) (67)
23. What kind of leisure activities do you enjoy? (Check one or more): (68)
- ☐ Reading newspaper
- ☐ Reading books
- ☐ Television
- ☐ Movies
- ☐ Concerts, plays or art galleries
- ☐ Participation in music, art or drama
- ☐ Creative writing
- ☐ Active sports such as bowling or golf
- ☐ Outdoor activities such as fishing, hunting or camping
- ☐ Spectator sports
- ☐ Playing cards
- ☐ Other: Specify _____
- (69) (70) (71) (72) (73) (74) (75) (10) (11) (12) (13)

24. How many times, within the past two years, did you attend:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
A play	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
A concert	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
An art gallery	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

25. Do you ever participate in continuing education courses in your community?

() No	(17)
() Yes (Check one or more):	(18)
() Local high school	(19)
() Local junior college	(20)
() College or university	(21)
() Social service agency (YMCA, etc.)	(22)
() Industry	(23)
() Professional Organization	(24)
() Labor Union	(25)
() Church	(26)
() Other (Specify)	

26. EXCLUDING government pensions, what was your level of income for 1970?

() Under \$3,000	(27)
() \$ 3,000 - \$ 4,999	
() \$ 5,000 - \$ 9,999	
() \$10,000 - \$14,999	
() \$15,000 - \$19,999	
() \$20,000 - \$24,999	
() \$25,000 or over	

27. Did you serve in the armed forces after September 16, 1940?

() Yes	(28)
() No: Please answer (a)	
(a) Did you have an occupational deferment?	
() Yes	
() No	

IF YOU ARE A NON-VETERAN PLEASE TURN
TO SECTION II

IF YOU ARE A VETERAN PLEASE TURN TO SECTION III

SECTION II—TO BE ANSWERED ONLY BY NON-VETERANS

1. Please check the highest level of school or college you have completed since graduating from high school:

() No additional schooling	(29)
() College	
() Kind of schools or colleges attended after high school (vocational, trade, business, liberal arts, professional, etc.)	
() Number of years	

2. Did you begin your education within two years after high school graduation?

() Yes	(30)
() No	(31)

(Please turn to box on last page.)

SECTION III—TO BE ANSWERED ONLY BY VETERANS

1. Date entered service

Date left service

2. What were you doing most of the YEAR BEFORE you entered the armed forces? (Check one or more):

() Working full-time in a regular job.	(32)
() Working in temporary or part-time jobs.	(33)
() Attending school full-time.	(34)
() Attending school part-time.	
() Other (please explain)	

3. Please identify the job at which you worked longest during the YEAR BEFORE you entered the armed forces:

() Check here if you had no job.	(35)
() What kind of work did you do? Please give an exact answer, for example: truck driver, locomotive engineer, mechanical engineer, etc.	(36)

4. After leaving the armed forces, did you return to the same job, or the same kind of job you had before entering the service? (41)
- () Yes—Returned to the same employer or business.
- () Yes—Took similar work with a different employer.
- () No—Please check MAIN reason:
- () no previous regular job.
- () not able to do former work.
- () desired to take GI education or training.
- () wanted to use skills acquired in service.
- () went into own business.
- () couldn't find a job in my line.
- () other reason (Please explain) _____ (41)
5. Please check the highest grade of school that you completed BEFORE ENTERING the armed forces: (42)
- () High school graduate
- | | | | | | |
|---------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 or more |
| College | () | () | () | () | () |
- (42)
6. Did you attend any other kind of school (vocational, trade, business, etc.) BEFORE ENTERING the armed forces? (43)
- () No
- () Yes: Kind of School _____
- Number of Years _____ (43)
7. After leaving the armed forces, did you attend school or take any kind of training under the GI Bill? (44)
- () No (Please turn to box in next column.)
- () Yes: Please answer questions 8-11.
8. What kind of training or type of school? (Check one or more): (45)
- () College or university.
- Did you start in a junior college or extension? (46)
- () Yes
- () No
- () Business school.
- () Vocational or trade school.
- () Apprentice or on-the-job training.
- () On-farm training.
- () Correspondence course.
- () Other: (Please explain) _____ (46)
9. Did you complete the course of study or training that you started to take under the GI Bill? (63)
- () Yes
- () No: What was your MAIN reason for stopping? (Check one)
- () Obtained a satisfactory job without finishing.
- () Thought I had as much training as I needed.
- () Couldn't live on VA allowance without working.
- () Didn't think the school or training was doing me any good.
- () Other: (Please explain) _____ (63)
10. What were your MAIN reasons for taking VA education or training? (Check one or more): (64)
- () To improve my general education, but with no definite trade or occupation in mind.
- () To fit myself for a new trade, occupation or profession. What occupation? _____
- () To improve my skill in work I was already doing.
- () Because of the cash allowance paid during training.
- () Training was related to hobbies or sparetime work at home.
- () Other: (Please explain) _____ (64)
11. In your present job or business, how much do you use the skills, education, or training received under the GI Bill? (Check one): (65)
- () Very much—without VA training, I would not have been able to get my present job.
- () Skill or training is used a great deal.
- () Skill or training is fairly useful.
- () Skill or training is used only a little.
- () Skill or training is not used at all.

END OF INTERVIEW.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP.

If you would not object to signing your name, Danville High School would like to update records.

Name _____

Address _____

City _____

State _____

Zip _____



ESTABLISHED IN 1949

DANVILLE JUNIOR COLLEGE • 2000 EAST MAIN • DANVILLE, ILLINOIS 61832 • TELEPHONE (217) 443-1811

MARY MILLER, President

October 22, 1971

Dear Danville High Alumnus:

The questionnaire which was sent to you several weeks ago has had very good response. It has been very interesting to see the wide variety of professions represented in these classes and the wide dispersal of your classmates throughout the United States.

I have learned that some surveys were not received by the graduate and were not returned to me by the post office. In case your survey was lost or has been mislaid, I am sending you another. Your response is very important to my study and I would be most appreciative if you would take time to fill it out right away. Please be assured that I am the only person seeing the responses and I am interested in them only in a collective sense. They will be destroyed as soon as I tabulate them.

I would like to have all questionnaires back in my hands before November 5. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Mary Ann Diller
Dean of Adult Education

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