

Pittsburg State University

## Pittsburg State University Digital Commons

---

The Techne, 1917-1937

University Archives

---

2-1-1937

### The Techne, Vol. 20, No. 3: State Manual Training Normal

State Manual Training Normal School

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.pittstate.edu/techne>

---

#### Recommended Citation

State Manual Training Normal School, "The Techne, Vol. 20, No. 3: State Manual Training Normal" (1937). *The Techne, 1917-1937*. 118.

<https://digitalcommons.pittstate.edu/techne/118>

This Book is brought to you for free and open access by the University Archives at Pittsburg State University Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in The Techne, 1917-1937 by an authorized administrator of Pittsburg State University Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [digitalcommons@pittstate.edu](mailto:digitalcommons@pittstate.edu).

# THE TECHNE

LIFE WITHOUT LABOR IS A CRIME, LABOR WITHOUT ART  
AND THE AMENITIES OF LIFE IS BRUTALITY.—RUSKIN.

---

Vol. XX

January-February, 1937

No. 3

---

## EDUCATION AND A FREE SOCIETY

“In the heart of every man and nation is the desire to be free and to live in a free community. What we want to know is how we may achieve that: how we may, through education in the schools of the different countries of the world, train our children to have the attitude toward life which may enable them in their time to achieve this freedom for every man to develop in his own way, to live his own life, and yet not as an individual in an individualistic way, but by subjecting his freedom to the good of the community.”

Mrs. Ensor

---

PUBLISHED BY  
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE  
PITTSBURG, KANSAS

# THE TECHNE

Published by the Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg  
W. A. Brandenburg, President

---

VOI. XX

January-February, 1937

No. 3

---

## BOARD OF MANAGEMENT

Mellicent McNeil

Edgar Mendenhall, Chairman

J. Gordon Eaker

J. C. Straley

THE TECHNE publishes, for the most part, papers on educational subjects, though articles on closely related fields are also used. Part of these papers set forth the results of research; others aim at interpretation of current developments. Though some of the discussions will interest the specialist, it is hoped that in every number there will be something useful for the average teacher.

THE TECHNE is sent free to the alumni, school officials, libraries, and, on request to any person interested in the progress of education.

Entered as second-class matter December 13, 1917, at post office of Pittsburg, Kansas, under the act of August 24, 1912. Published five times a year—in October, December, February, April and June.

---

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Control of Public Utilities.....	4
Walter S. Lyerla	
Recent Trends to Higher Education.....	12
R. W. Hart	

## CONTROL OF PUBLIC UTILITIES IN KANSAS

Walter S. Lyerla

The comparatively recent growth of public utility holdings and the dependence of the people on the products and services of public utilities has attracted the attention of regulative bodies everywhere toward these enterprises. Since such enterprises thrive better under a system of regulated monopoly, it is essential that there be not too much of monopoly and too little of regulation.

The public utility industries are generally divided into two rather arbitrary groups—the public utilities proper, and the common carriers. No sharp dividing line, however, can be drawn between these two groups. Those usually included under the heading of public utilities are the electric light and power companies, natural and artificial gas and oil, street cars, telephone, telegraph, and water companies. The second group has become somewhat large since early times but still comprises the smaller number. The common carriers include the railroads, interurban electric lines, sleeping car, and express companies, oil pipe lines, and motor carriers. It is a common practice, however to speak of both groups as public utilities.

Regulation of public utilities in the past has largely devolved upon the states rather than upon the federal government, although the recent growth of certain utilities has so involved interstate trade as to make federal control imperative. In the regulation of public utilities the state of Kansas has been rather outstanding and for which considerable notice has been taken. Witness the Kansas Court of Visitation, the Court of Industrial Relations, and the recent Port of Entry Law regulating motor carriers.

Kansas became a territory in 1855. From this date to 1883, at which time the first railroad commission was organized, little control over public utilities was exercised. At first there was little need for regulation. Of paramount importance was the development of the territory and chief among those industries capable of aiding in this development were the railroads. Both the state and the federal government did everything possible to promote and encourage their growth, chief of which was the granting of tracts of land to various railroad companies, the proceeds from the sale of which were used to aid in railroad construction. At one time Congress granted to the state 4,500,000 acres of land for this purpose.

During this period two means of control were employed by the state—charter control and direct statutory regulation. In the eagerness of the state to encourage railroad construction many errors were committed through the granting of special

charters. To curb this practice, as early as 1857, a very elaborate general law, relative to the incorporation of railroads was passed. The law, however, seems to have been disregarded since private charters continued to be issued by the legislature. It was not until 1865 that regulation of public utilities was had through direct legislation. The railroads, fostered and encouraged by government land grants and financial assistance from the public, grew to such proportions that they became giants as compared to the other public utilities. The public expected that competition among the numerous railroads would be sufficient to control them but in this it was mistaken, for, through discrimination, pooling and other objectionable devices, the railroads abused the privileges granted them and thus lost favor with the public. Drastic legislation was directed toward curbing the power of the railroads through laws known as the Granger laws fostered by the National Grange, an organization among the agricultural classes. The most severe laws were passed by the six Granger States, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Kansas, and Nebraska, during the period from 1870 to about 1890.

Control of public utilities in Kansas by direct legislation finally became less effective as the utilities increased in number and size. The control of the railroads and telegraphs were, therefore, put into the hands of a Railroad Commission created by an act of 1883, and it was this commission which laid the foundation for future regulation of public utilities within the state.

The Railroad Commission was superseded in 1899 by a tribunal called the Court of Visitation because it was thought that the Commission's power over the railroads was inadequate, especially was this true relative to establishing freight rates. The Court of Visitation was an unfortunate adventure, a kind of court, consisting of three judges, having the power to fix rates, summon juries, hear cases, and in the end enforce its decrees. In other words the legislature gave the Court of Visitation power to regulate the operation of railroads and telegraph companies and to prescribe the rates to be charged and at the same time attempted to confer upon it the right to pass judicially upon the reasonableness of these rates and regulations so fixed. Furthermore, it was given power to enforce its decrees by taking charge of the corporation's property and to operate it through a receiver, appointed by the court. The creation of the court was held to be an attempt to combine into one tribunal, powers characteristic of each of the three departments of government—the administrative, the legislative and the judicial, and after less than a year's exis-

tence, it was declared unconstitutional. A second Railroad Commission was then created, having jurisdiction over not only the railroads and telegraphs, but over sleeping car and express companies and oil pipe lines as well.

During the early part of the 20th century, the public utilities other than common carriers became not only numerous, but of such importance as to demand a closer supervision and more adequate control. Other states particularly New York and Wisconsin had established public utilities commissions and following the example of these states Kansas also created a Public Utilities Commission to govern the activities of the utilities within her borders.

The act establishing this commission was passed in 1911 after a prior attempt in 1909; Kansas being the seventh state in the union to establish such a body. Within two more years twenty-three states had created commissions and at the present time practically every state in the union has such a governing body. The law creating this commission, while it has been revised many times, still remains the core of the commission's authority to regulate the utilities of the state.

Opponents bitterly opposed the utilities bill, contending that a city ought to be permitted to control the public utilities operating within its own boundaries. These opponents favoring "home rule" gained a point by inserting in the bill a provision granting cities a right to control public utilities operating wholly within a city. The state commission, therefore, had practically no jurisdiction over utilities operating wholly within a single city, or what is called a "one city utility." Generally large cities favor the "home rule" idea, partly because of their feeling of self sufficiency and power as a political unit and partly because of a reluctance to relinquish a right to self-government long instilled in the minds of the people. This feeling, however, is not so prevalent in the smaller communities. Small cities find themselves handicapped in their dealings with large utility companies because their officials are usually untrained in such activities. They, therefore, look to the powerful state commissions for protection and are generally favorable to state regulation. Even the utilities themselves are inclined to support state commissions for there have been instances where the extra burdens placed on utilities by local communities such as paving streets, building sidewalks, bridges and lighting streets, have become extremely onerous. This very often results in poorer service to the consumer.

This idea of "home rule" cannot be taken too literally, however, since the state commission does have some jurisdiction over "one city utilities." Should any ordinance passed by a city council adversely affect the utility or the citizens, either party may appeal to the state commission for a hearing and should the ordinance be found unreasonable, the commission may advise or order such changes as it deems necessary and may even bring suit in the name of the state in any court of competent jurisdiction to compel compliance with its orders.

Soon after the close of the World War the Kansas legislature, at a special session in 1920, passed an act creating what was called a "Court of Industrial Relations." This act was passed primarily as a measure for the protection of the public against the evils of industrial warfare which was so prevalent at that time, and whatever restrictions were placed upon capital and labor by it, were merely incidental to the main purpose of the act. The provisions of the act, however, had very far reaching effects. The duties of the three judges of the Court were to exercise control over all the public utilities of the state and over all other industries affected with a public interest. The act declared certain industries to be so affected with a public interest that in cases of an emergency, these industries might be controlled by the state through the Court of Industrial Relations. These were, those manufacturing or preparing food for human consumption, the manufacturing of clothing and the mining or production of fuel. Here was, an attempt to extend state regulation to industries heretofore conceded to be beyond such control except through the state police power. It was not long before the validity of the act was contested in the courts. In the *Wolff Packing Co.* case of Kansas City, the United States Supreme Court held that these three types of industries were not affected with a public interest like public utilities so that the state through the Court of Industrial Relations could not control them. To this extent the act was held invalid. In passing, it is difficult to see, however, how the same Supreme Court could hold as it did in the recent *Nebbia* case of New York City in 1934, that the sale of milk is so affected with a public interest that the state can control its selling price. Soon after the decision in the *Wolff Packing Co.* case, the control of the public utilities of the state was again placed under the recreated Public Utilities Commission.

The principal historical reason for the existence of such a Commission is to provide an authoritative body to supervise and preserve the interests of the unorganized public. Many obligations fall upon this body in that capacity, but no other duty is quite so important as that of fixing reasonable rates for

utility charges. All regulation of public utilities centers on the problem of securing first, reasonable rates, second, adequate service and third, proper security issues. Only one of these problems—rates—has caused much comment in Kansas and in the problem of rates, valuation takes the major place.

Before the days of Commission regulation, charges for services were determined by what the consumer was willing to pay, or "what the traffic would bear." The utilities scarcely thought of establishing a charge for services based upon its reasonableness. Rather, the price was determined by the value of service to the customer and the value to the customer was the price he was willing to pay. Prices thus tended to approach the economic maximum of monopoly.

The public, however, is seldom satisfied with existing rates. Rates never become so low that the public does not still want them reduced. Utility companies must, however, set their rates at an amount which will yield a return sufficiently large to attract loanable capital. This rate must also in the light of surrounding circumstances be reasonable, but the supreme court of the state has stated that a reasonable rate is hard to define. What is reasonable under one set of circumstances may be unreasonable in another.

In order to determine what is a reasonable charge for services, there must be a determination of the proper return on the utility's property. This is done by setting a value on the property as a rate-base on which a certain rate per cent can be calculated. Two questions must therefore, be asked. First, what is the value of the property and second, what is the rate of return which the utility is entitled to earn? The higher the value set on the property, or the higher the rate, the larger the earnings permitted the company and, therefore, the higher the service charges to the customers.

Authorities differ as to the best method of determining the valuation of the public utilities' properties. The railroads in the early period contended that this value should be capitalization, but it developed that railroads were generally over-capitalized and a return on that basis would clearly be inequitable. Some claim that the rate should be based on the investment made in acquiring the property used by the utility or the cost which was incurred when the properties were purchased. Others, recognizing the fact that all investments have not wisely been made, have qualified this term to mean "prudent investment." Still others contend that it is the cost which would be necessary to replace the property at the present time.

The Public Service Commissions of Kansas have rather con-



sistently followed the rule of appraising public utility property in the state on the basis of reproduction cost new, less depreciation in order to find the present value; that is, placing a value on the property at what it would cost to replace the property at present prices, and then arriving at its present value by charging off depreciation from the time it was purchased. This has met the approval of the state Supreme Court in every instance. During the war-time period, however, the Commission was reluctant to increase the valuation of utility properties based entirely on the war-time prices at that time, favoring instead, where possible, the original cost or investment basis, or at other times average prices over five to ten year period. A valuation using war-time prices made extremely high rates for consumers. But at the same time a value placed on the properties at pre-war prices made the returns to the utility investors equally low. The majority in the United States Supreme Court have consistently favored reproduction cost new, and so when prices are high the utilities are favored, but when prices are low the consumers are favored. Since the beginning of commission regulation this has been the subject for much controversy and will likely remain so for some time to come.

After determining what the value of the rate base is, the next question is what should be the rate per cent which the company should earn on this valuation? The Kansas Commission in establishing a rate of return is guided, it seems, by what is currently charged for money in other enterprises of similar character. It has been argued, however, that this rate should be slightly larger because of the somewhat greater risk involved in the utilities. It is argued that there is always a possibility that some state or federal commission may make a mistake and compel the utility for a time, at least, to operate at a loss. A gas company for instance is subject to the risk that its gas supply will become depleted sooner than anticipated. Also the price of other fuels in competition with gas injects a hazard not present in mortgages and bonds of other industries. Often the income of a public utility is in some respects automatically fixed, for economic conditions may be such that a utility could not earn a high rate, were it given permission to do so. An interurban railway, for instance, if given permission to earn 10 per cent could hardly make its charges for services high enough to earn that rate.

Space does not permit me to enter into a discussion of the manner in which each utility is regulated but I will in conclusion mention the motor carrier regulation since, in this respect, Kansas has been rather outstanding, especially in

establishing the port of entry system which, as yet, no other state has copied.

Prior to 1925 the operation of motor vehicles on the public highways of the state was almost unrestricted and while it can truly be said that regulation is still in the pioneering stage yet the state has made great strides toward successful control in this short period of time. Since 1925 the motor vehicle law has been revised from time to time, the last comprehensive revision coming in 1931.

Motor carriers are now classified into five groups—public motor carriers of property, public motor carriers of persons, contract motor carriers of property, contract motor carriers of passengers, and private motor carriers of property. Motor vehicles operating within a city or village and private carriers who operate within a radius of 25 miles of such city or village do not come under the jurisdiction of the state but are regulated by the municipalities. The motor carrier law also does not apply to the privately owned family car nor to school busses nor to farmers taking their products to market.

Every motor carrier in addition to paying for his license to operate within the state and the payment of the personal property tax must also pay an annual fee based on the gross-ton mile which applies to all carriers alike within the various weight classifications. Each carrier is required to file a daily statement of the miles traveled in the state. The gross-ton mile provision of the earlier law, however, had with difficulty been enforced. Truck and bus companies which regularly paid the assessment, feeling that they had been penalized for obedience were sympathetic to any plan which would place the burden equally upon all. Because of the evasion of this tax and also a desire to control more adequately the trucks and busses on the highways the Port of Entry Law was passed during a special session of the legislature in 1933.

This law has attracted wide attention throughout the nation. One is apt to wonder how a state like Kansas, hundreds of miles from any sea coast, can have any use for a port of entry. It appears more like a law for a state with an ocean border. The law, however, has nothing to do with any sea port, but instead requires the establishment of registration stations or ports of entry on certain main highways entering the state, through which all motor trucks and busses entering the state must clear. Sixty-five of these ports have been established and no motor carrier is permitted to enter the state at any other point than at one of these ports. The driver of the vehicle is required to present a card showing the name of the com-

pany for whom the vehicle is driven, date, home-state license number and state from which the motor carrier permit is granted. He must also give the description of his vehicle, origin and destination of his shipment, gross weight and the taxable miles to be traveled within the state together with a copy of his manifest. The attendant at the port of entry is required to inspect each vehicle as to road worthiness and to see if the equipment complies with the law.

If a motor carrier makes regular trips into the state he usually registers and makes a deposit with the Corporation Commission. This deposit pays for the gross-ton mileage fees to the extent of the deposit and permits him to be exempt from certain inspections. Notice of this exemption is designated by a large letter "E" posted on the windshield of the vehicle. Carriers, however, who infrequently enter the state need not register with the commission, but pay for each trip in the state as it is made.

At the end of the first 12 months of operation, the system produced a net revenue of only about \$36,000 over and above all expenses. But the purpose of the law is not to obtain a large amount of revenue but rather to gain more adequate supervision over motor transportation and provide a system whereby every carrier alike is required to pay for his use of the highways and the maintainance of a good road system.

The recent agitation for federal regulation of motor vehicles in interstate commerce is a needed step toward control of this increasing form of transportation. Control of public utilities, particularly the common carriers is coming more and more to rest with the federal authorities. This support to the states in public utility regulation is much needed and will evidently strengthen regulation in situations in which state control is less effective. This movement suggests a closer co-operation between the federal and the state regulative bodies. The dual nature of our federal and state governments demands that both work in unison to secure proper regulation and control of these necessary and increasingly important industries.

## RECENT TRENDS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

R. W. Hart

When Dad returns to his Alma Mater for a class reunion or for a homecoming celebration, his time is so occupied in renewing old acquaintances and living again in the past that he hardly notices any changes that have come about during the past twenty or twenty-five years. Of course there are some new buildings, some of the professors are showing their ages, and seemingly the present crop of students is much younger and less mature than they were when he was here; but otherwise, he notices little change. However, when son begins his college career, Dad can't help realizing that higher education is not what it was when he was a boy.

When Dad first came to the campus, he was met by a reception committee of upper classmen dressed in turtle necked sweaters, peg top trousers and high top shoes, whose aim in life apparently was to put the freshman in his lowly place. The mandates of the upper classmen were enforced by the paddle and the newcomer soon learned that the less resistance he offered, the fewer would be his trips down the line. There was no particular aim in this program, but it provided the only means for the sophomore to satisfy his pent through the method of trial and error.

Dad would object to a lot of this on the grounds that they were up feelings of revenge that he had been nursing for a year.

Hazing of freshmen is now a thing of the past in practically all larger colleges and universities. It was abolished at K. S. T. C. Pittsburg by faculty action with no objection by the student body. It is found to some extent in fraternities but faculty supervision is such that life and limb are not risked as they were in Dad's hectic school days.

When son applies for admission to college, he is asked to attend a freshman program which is held before enrollment day when organized groups of faculty members and upper classmen give him friendly aid in getting started on his college career. These freshman programs vary in length at different institutions from one day to a week, and are followed by a system of counseling for several weeks after school has started. Their purpose is to adjust the freshman to his new environment with the least possible friction and to enable him to take advantage of the opportunities that a college has to offer. He is given instruction on how to study, how to budget his time, how to use the library, how to choose his course of study, how to enroll; in fact, there is an organized effort made to teach him the things that Dad learned coddling his son and making him too dependent upon his instructors. The educators have not overlooked this danger and in all well conducted guidance programs there is a gradual shifting of responsibility from the instructor to the student, so that by the end of the first two years in college the boy should be able to stand upon his own feet. By that time, if he is trained in the right way he should have the at-

titude of a scholar who can find the information that he wants and who can use it with very little help from others.

The old attitude was that when a student entered college he should be entirely different from a high school student, and the college professor taught his freshmen by the same methods that were used with the seniors. The result was that Dad found it to be rather rough sailing during his first year at college, and a large percentage of his fellow classmates went home before the year was over feeling that they were branded as failures. This was the old "sink or swim" method of teaching. There was little provision for individual differences, and as the younger generation today would say, it was all right, if you could "take it."

The transition from a high school student's attitude to that of a self-reliant college student's is one that cannot be made overnight. One of the aims of the freshman programs is to bridge the gap between high school and college, but it is not expected that this can be accomplished by merely delivering a few lectures to all who come to college. This change is a process of growth and like all normal growth, it requires time and direction. The tendency today among leaders in higher education is to regard the first two years of college as a different kind of a school than the last two years. This has led to the comparatively new member of our educational family, namely, the junior college.

To the layman who is not closely connected with our educational system, the junior college is just an over-grown high school established by some ambitious cities to provide a little more public education and to keep the children at home for two more years; but to those who have been following the trends of higher education the junior college is looked upon as one of the more significant developments of recent times. Four year colleges are being divided into two divisions; the senior college and the junior college. The much advertised Chicago plan has this as one of its predominant characteristics. Many of our leading universities have separate organizations for the upper and lower divisions. Harvard University, the University of Wisconsin and the University of Minnesota are typical examples of this type.

The junior college is looked upon as a place where a student goes through a probationary period. It is here that he finds his field of major interest and obtains his general cultural education. If he shows that he is capable of doing scholarly work in some field, he then goes on to the senior college. If he is unable or unwilling to do the type of work required in the senior college, he is given that general education that all good citizens should have and is taught the foundations necessary for learning some vocational type of work. To the educator, this is the meaning of a junior college, whether it be a school built on to a high school or a part of a four year college.

This attitude toward college education has led to many changes in curriculum, one of the most noticeable being the introduction of the survey courses. When Dad was in college, he was advised to take some biology in order to round out his general education; so he enrolled in a course in botany. Now Dad didn't enjoy picking flowers, counting their petals, pressing them between the pages of a book, and going through all that procedure of classification that was required of him; and as soon as he had completed that course, he steered clear of the biology department. It wasn't until later years that he realized that he had neglected the intensely interesting and important fields of bacteriology and eugenics. When son wishes to know what a department of a college has to offer, he enrolls in a survey course where he is given a view of the whole field with enough work in the different subjects of that field so that he can tell whether he is interested in that particular study. These survey courses are time savers to the student and they also provide a means of offering a broad general education in less time than was formerly required.

At some institutions the line between the senior college and the junior college is drawn as sharply as the one between senior high school and college. In the "Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions" in 1931 it was reported that the University of Wisconsin had adopted the practice of granting diplomas to their junior college graduates. Then those who had made average grades or better were permitted to go on to the senior college. Those who did not make average grades during their first two years at college were not encouraged to continue their university education. This is the extreme type of reorganization.

This division of four year college into two parts leads to a difference in teaching methods. The senior college is a place of specialization where the student is attempting to master some particular field of study. On the other hand the teachers of junior college subjects realize that their classes are made up of a mixture of students with various aims for the future and the purpose of their teaching is not to develop specialists, but to present their courses in such a manner that those who wish to study further along that line will have the necessary background, while those whose major interests lie in other fields will get some good cultural training. One of the aims of any junior college course should be to lead the student from a high school attitude of study to that maturity which is expected of a senior college student. To accomplish these aims of the junior college, the instructor divides his courses into two general divisions. One consists of acquiring of facts and mastering necessary skills while the other is learning to use these skills. In Dad's day most of the emphasis was put on accumulating facts and drilling upon mechanical processes. It was about the same as teaching a boy a lot of things about tools and equipment around a work shop, but not permitting him to use his knowledge and skill to make some article of furniture. We are now

asking that the student be taught to use what he has learned in a subject and so develop self-reliance.

This ability to apply what knowledge a person has is one of the characteristics of any successful life. We often wonder why a man with just a little formal education can sometimes out distance another who has had more schooling. Usually the reason is that the former knows how to apply what little he has learned, while the latter has stored away in his mind a collection of facts that he has never been able to use. If junior college is successful in accomplishing this one aim of developing the ability to apply what is learned, its existence will be justified.

The rapid growth of the municipal junior colleges is having its effect upon the four year colleges. When the separate junior colleges first appeared, it was inconvenient in some cases for their graduates to enter a senior college and complete a standard four year course in another two years. This difficulty was cleared up by a raising of standards by the junior colleges and a rearrangement of curricula by the senior college. This readjustment was made at the college at Pittsburg so that now it is possible for a graduate of an accredited junior college to enter our institution as a regular third year student and complete his work for a Bachelor's Degree in two years.

Dad would find other differences between college life as it is today and as he knew it twenty-five years ago. In his time, the student who worked his way through school was pointed out as a rare individual, but now there are so many boys and girls who are earning their livelihood while attending college that it has been found necessary to have a faculty committee to handle the problem of student employment. At Pittsburg, more than fifty per cent of our students are earning all or a part of their expenses. Two out of every three boys are working to help earn their living while in college so that now the student who does no outside work is in the minority. For several weeks before the starting of a new term of college, the dean of men and the dean of women receive letters from prospective students which are so nearly alike that those officials can usually tell their contents before opening them. They start by saying that the writer is convinced that this school is the place for him and that he wants to begin this coming fall, but (and here is the rub) it will be necessary for him to have a job to earn his expenses. This attitude on the part of a high school graduate is highly commendable and we do all that we can to help anyone find employment. It is difficult though for a first year student to walk right into a good part-time job, for those who have been here for a year or more naturally have a better chance to get those places; and because of this, it is advisable that anyone coming to college should have enough funds to see him through at least one semester. During that time he can usually locate some kind of work to tide him over for the next term of school.

The National Youth Administration is providing work for 213 of our students. This is proving to be a very helpful method of aiding needy young people to continue their education. Only those students who have proved that they are capable of doing a good grade of college work are given this aid and if their academic record is not maintained at a high standard, they are dropped from the N.Y.A. rolls. This is not looked upon as charity, for those students receiving this help earn the money that they receive by working at various jobs on the campus. It is merely a means of providing the opportunity for capable and needy young people to earn part of their expences while attending college.

This increasing number of job-holding students on our campus has led to a more serious attitude toward education than Dad knew when he resorted to the old time college pranks to work off his surplus energy. No longer are livestock parked in the auditorium, the heads of enemies shaved, and the cemeteries visited at midnight. Those methods of entertainment do not appeal to a student who finds every hour of the day taken up with classes, studies, and his job. Dad bemoans the lack of pep and energy that the present generation shows. However, the enthusiasm is still here, but it is being directed along other lines. This in itself is a good sign. It means that we are sending from our institutions of higher learning young men and women who have looked upon college not as a place where they were isolated and protected from the world for four years, but as an institution where they have lived and where they have obtained a general cultural education, have discovered the field in which their abilities lie, and have learned how to continue their eduction after they have left college.