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# THE TECHNE

Life without Labor is a Crime, Labor without Art  
and the Amenities of Life is Brutality.—Ruskin.

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Vol. XIII

SEPTEMBER - OCTOBER, 1929

No. 1

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## THOUGHT

By RALPH WALDO EMERSON

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I am not poor, but I am proud,  
Of one inalienable right,  
Above the envy of the crowd—  
Thought's holy light.

Better it is than gems or gold,  
And oh! it cannot die,  
But thought will glow when the sun  
grows cold,  
And mix with Deity.

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# THE TECHNE

Published by the Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg  
Pittsburg, Kansas

W. A. Brandenburg, President

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Vol. XIII.

SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER, 1929

No. 1

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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 alumni, teachers, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

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# INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN THE READING ABILITY OF COLLEGE STUDENTS<sup>1</sup>

By Ernest Mitchell Anderson, Ph. D., Associate Professor of Education, K.S.T.C.

## ORIGIN OF THE PROBLEM

Higher education is today confronted with the problem of meeting new and rapidly changing conditions and so adjusting itself to these conditions that it will maintain and increase its usefulness.

A real interest is being manifested by educational leaders in the solution of college problems through the use of scientific investigation and the application of the results so obtained. This interest is shown by the numerous recent publications on the subject.

Foremost among the problems demanding attention is that of the improvement of college instruction. Instruction in the elementary and secondary schools has been greatly improved by individualization. It is conceivable that the same method of attack may offer possibilities for the improvement of college teaching.

Before individualization of instruction is attempted in college, it is necessary to discover to what extent, if any, college students differ in relation to the various elements of instruction. If investigation shows a wide range of variability, then it would seem that there is a place for individualization in college instruction as well as in that of the elementary and secondary schools.

Individualization of instruction can be obtained only through the individualization of the different elements of instruction. Of these elements, reading is and will continue to be one of the most important. Comparatively little, however, has been done in the investigation of the individual differences in the reading ability of college students. We have apparently taken it for granted that all college students can read sufficiently well any assignment given to them and that one student can read as well as another.

This investigation is made on the assumption that the same wide range of reading ability that has been found in elementary and secondary pupils is also present in college and university students, and that the implications are just as significant.

In order to individualize reading, it is necessary to know, first, the reading ability of different students; second, the reading demands made of students in specific courses; and third, the extent to which individuals are able to meet these demands.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The object of this investigation is, therefore, to discover and study, first, some of the individual differences in the reading ability of college students, and second the actual performance of these students in the type of reading material that they are required to read in one

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<sup>1</sup>This article is adapted from the report of a study made by the author in the University of Missouri. The complete report was published October 14, 1928, as "The University of Missouri Bulletin," Volume 29, Number 39, Education Series Number 25.

specific course, educational psychology, with a view of making some contribution to the improvement of college instruction.

#### READING DEFINED

Reading is a complex procedure which varies in complexity with the type of material and the purpose of the reader. It may involve any one or all of the following: mere word recognition and comprehension, comprehension of sentences, comprehension of paragraphs, comprehension of whole chapters, and the comprehension of long articles or of whole books. It may involve the mere getting of facts from the printed page, or it may involve using these facts in the solution of highly complex real or verbal problems. In the latter case, reading becomes largely a matter of reasoning.

According to Thorndike, "Understanding a paragraph is like solving a problem in mathematics. It consists in the selection of the right elements of the situation and putting them together in the right relations, and also with the right weight or influence or force for each. The mind is assailed as it were with every word in the paragraph. It must select, repress, soften, emphasize, correlate, and organize, all under the right mental set of purpose or demand."<sup>2</sup>

For the purposes of this study, reading ability is thought of as the ability to do this more complex type of reading. It is this type of reading, closely akin to reasoning, that the college student is required to do. He must get facts from the printed page; he must use these facts in the solution of real or verbal problems; he must be able to read critically and to make fine discriminations.

#### TESTS USED

The nature of the problem made it necessary to analyze and measure the different elements involved in reading ability under varying conditions. The instruments used, therefore, are largely test devices.

Three general types of tests were employed: first, well-known standardized mental tests, reading tests, and vocabulary tests; second, specially constructed reading tests based on reading material adapted from textbooks in educational psychology; and third, the regular tests and examinations constructed by the instructor for the purpose of assigning credit in the course. The following are the tests used:

##### A. Standardized tests

###### I. Mental tests

Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form A

Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form B

###### II. Reading tests

Whipple's High School and College Reading Test, Form A

Whipple's High School and College Reading Test, Form B

Van Wagenen Reading Scales, English Literature, Scale B

Van Wagenen Reading Scales, English Literature, Scale B

<sup>2</sup> Thorndike, Edward L., *Reading as Reasoning: A Study of Mistakes in Paragraph Reading*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, June 1917, Volume VIII, Number 6, p. 326.

### III. Vocabulary test

Holley, Sentence Vocabulary Scale, Series 3 B

- B. Special reading tests constructed for this study
  - Test I, Suggestions for Effective Learning
  - Test II, Individual Differences
  - Test III, Efficiency as Influenced by External and Internal Conditions
  - Test IV, Transference of Training
- C. Regular tests and examinations given by the instructor

#### SUBJECTS TESTED

The subjects tested were 237 University students enrolled in Educational Psychology, Course A102, during the fall and the winter semesters of 1927-1928. The classes were taught by Professor Theo. W. H. Irion, whose interest and co-operation made this study possible. There were 145 people in the fall semester group divided into two sections of 78 and 67 each. In the winter semester group there was one section of 92 people.

We investigated the nature of the subjects with respect to sex, age, nationality, social status, class in college, school or college of enrollment, geographical distribution and intelligence. In each case we found them to be a representative group of normal college students.

#### TWO SEPARATE STUDIES MADE

We had during each of the two semesters a group of students in educational psychology available for the purposes of this investigation. We had the choice of combining the data from the two groups or of treating the data from each group separately, making two independent studies. We chose the latter because of the following advantages:

1. Two studies giving similar results are more convincing than a single study.
2. Two studies offer an opportunity to discover if the performance is similar for the two groups; if the performance is not similar, there is a better chance to discover the causes of any variations.
3. Two separate studies offer a chance to vary certain factors if desired.
4. Keeping the groups separate prevents the possible combining of two groups that might be radically different in some particular factor.
5. The separate treatment does not prevent the combining of the data from the two separate studies if desired for any particular purpose.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The evidence presented in this investigation seems to justify the following conclusions:

1. Extreme individual differences exist in the reading ability of college students.
2. Individual differences in the reading ability of college students are great enough to demand that instruction be individualized to meet the needs of students of varying degrees of reading capacity.
3. The best readers in a course in educational psychology are

reading to about 50 per cent capacity for the most part, while the poorest readers not only are working to full capacity but are comprehending only about 20 to 30 per cent of the more difficult material and from 50 to 60 per cent of the easier material.

4. Many college students cannot read sufficiently well ordinary reading assignments in educational psychology.

5. There is a high correlation between the intelligence and the reading ability of college students. It is evident that reading ability is dependent to a fairly high degree on the thing that we call intelligence, and it is quite probable that the score made on the intelligence test is influenced to no small degree by reading ability.

6. General word knowledge as measured by the Holley Vocabulary Scale bears a close relationship to the ability to read material in educational psychology.

7. Correlations between different types of reading material are fairly high, usually .5 to .6, but they are low enough to show that reading is a fairly specific process requiring a somewhat different technique for each type of material.

8. There is not a general reading ability acquired once and for all time to a sufficient degree to meet all needs of the college student; reading is fairly specific and learning to read is a continuous process.

9. A good reader in one type of reading is likely to be a good reader in other types, but there are many exceptions.

10. It is possible to get an approximate idea of a student's reading ability by the use of a general reading test, but if a more accurate measure is required a specific test must be used for each particular type of reading tested. Perhaps a battery of analytical, diagnostic tests will serve the purpose best.

11. The high self-correlations of tests measuring a specific type of reading show that it is possible to measure with a high degree of accuracy a single type of reading ability.

12. The reading ability of college students is influenced slightly by sex, age, social status, year in college, and school or college of enrollment; however, no one of these influences operating singly is of sufficient importance to necessitate differentiation of instruction on the basis of that factor alone.

13. Early childhood reading habits seem to have considerable influence on the reading ability of college students.

14. Since the different factors influencing reading ability may be combined in so many different ways, either counteracting or reinforcing each other, reading ability is largely a matter to be treated individually.

15. The correlation between fact comprehension and application of facts is high enough to indicate that the individuals who comprehend facts well are likely to be good on application of facts; however, the correlation is low enough to indicate that there may be many exceptions.

16. The ability to read material in educational psychology is a fair indication of scholarship in the course, as indicated by the corre-

lations between the special reading tests and the tests and examinations in the course.

#### PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

We have shown that individual differences in reading ability exist in extreme degree among college students, and we have suggested that college instruction must recognize and as far as possible make provisions for these individual differences. The question naturally arises as to what can be done under the present conditions of large classes.

Individualization of instruction does not necessarily mean the dividing of classes into many small groups but it does mean locating individual needs and then making the proper adaptations for these individual needs. Most of this work can be handled in the regular class. Each defect or special ability must be treated individually and specifically. All students do not need the same treatment. Many students will not require any particular adjustment.

One of the first considerations is how to locate the reading needs of the various individuals. Since reading ability is the resultant of a multitude of different factors operating in different combinations and in different degrees, it is not possible to discover and segregate the good and the poor readers in an arbitrary manner. This being true, we shall have to depend primarily on the use of tests to determine the reading ability of the different students. It seems that the following procedure might be recommended.

Since intelligence is an important factor in reading ability and correlates high with the different types of reading, it would seem to be worth while to administer a reliable intelligence test. This should be followed by a general reading test in order to obtain an approximate idea of the reading ability of the different individuals and to locate those individuals who are particularly high or low. These more general tests should be followed by a comprehensive analytical, diagnostic reading test covering the different types of material found in the particular subject to be studied. This test would be analytical to the extent that it would locate the individuals who are particularly good or particularly deficient in the different elements of reading as word comprehension, sentence and paragraph comprehension, ability to understand directions, comprehension and application of central thought, and rate of reading.

After the needs of the different students have been located, each must receive special attention. Individualization of instruction will usually be achieved through two methods of attack, namely, helping the student to adjust himself, and adjusting conditions to meet the needs of the student.

Remedial instruction has a real function here since many reading difficulties are easily remedied, being due to carelessness or superficial methods of study. Many times it is only necessary to call the attention of the student to his particular defect and he is able to make the proper adjustment. Many students are greatly surprised to dis-



cover that they are poor readers and that they stand relatively low with reference to other members of the class.

Certain general directions will probably be of value to all members of the class. Instruction as to the best methods of studying the particular subject are valuable. Book has found that students can improve their efficiency to a surprising degree when taught how to study. Students may be taught how to use the index, table of contents, chapter headings, and summaries; proper methods of skimming; that reading varies with the specific purposes; and to discriminate between the values of different materials. If certain material is technical and liable to offer any particular difficulty, it would be well to give a little time in the assignments, pointing out to the students the chief things for which they are to look.

The remaining defects will usually fall under a few well-defined classes such as slow reading due to excessive vocalization, lack of word knowledge, lack of practice, poor informational background, inability to get the whole thought, and physical defects as poor vision. It will probably be necessary for the instructor or assistants to give special attention to helping students who have these particular defects. Methods of treating these and other defects are given in detail in a number of good books now available.

There will remain a few students who will find it impossible to improve under the directions given above because of lack of intelligence or some other deep-seated reason. It will be necessary, therefore, to adjust conditions to meet their needs. Vocational guidance may have a place here, it simply being necessary to tell the student frankly of his limitations and to suggest a line of work more suited to his capacity. In some cases, the student may find it necessary to carry a lighter course, or it may be necessary for him to depend more on lectures, class discussions, and other conversational methods. It may be possible to give such students minimum reading assignments based on material that is simply and clearly stated, containing the fundamentals of the course.

In our efforts to make adjustments for the poor readers, we should not forget that the exceptionally good reader is entitled to special consideration also. Our problem is to make adjustments that will permit every student to acquire success at a level comparable to his capacity. Our results indicate the astounding loss of time and capacity when students superior in intelligence and reading ability are taxed to only 50 per cent of their ability. Such students are liable to form habits of indolence and indifference and to have little respect for a course that challenges them so little.

The superior student can do vastly more than is required of him. Many under-graduate students in the average class could do all the work required of them in one-half or even one-third the time usually given; or these same students could go far deeper into the subject, making an attack worthy of the average graduate student.

The superior student will find it unnecessary to read so much of the simple illustrative material, being able to get his information more rapidly and more effectively from references of an advanced

and scholarly nature. While the ordinary student is getting the mere fundamentals of the course, the work of the superior student may be greatly increased and enriched.

Raising the standards of work in college is achieved not only by coaching inferior students and failing the unfit, but also by making adjustments that will cause the superior student to work more nearly up to his capacity.

In some cases, adjustments for the superior student may be best accomplished by placing him in more advanced classes where the work is more intense or the course covers much more ground in a given time. It seems that classification should depend more on capacity to achieve and not so much on previous credit.

The writer ventures to suggest that the reading situation among college students might be greatly improved by more care in the writing of textbooks. This does not necessarily mean that the author write "down" to the student, but it does mean that the ideas should be well stated and conducive to clear thinking. A book that is difficult to understand is not necessarily profound or scholarly.

The success of the individualization of instruction in college on the basis of reading ability depends largely on the attitude of the instructor and his ability to diagnose the needs of the individual student and to enlist the student's co-operation.

Individual differences in reading ability will always exist because of differences in innate capacity and environment, but the situation will be greatly simplified by better instruction in reading throughout the whole school system and by the realization that reading is not a tool subject that is fully mastered in the elementary school but that learning to read is a continuous process extending throughout the student's whole educational career.

In the light of the evidence presented in this study, there seems to be need for further investigation of the following problems:

1. To what extent can the various reading defects of college students be improved?
2. What are the best methods of improving the different defects in the reading ability of college students?
3. There is a need for a number of analytical tests constructed to pick out the particular defects in the reading ability of college students in each of the different college subjects.
4. To what extent are reading defects limiting factors in college success?
5. What are the individual differences in the reading ability of students in college subjects not investigated?
6. To what extent can reading comprehension be improved independent of rate of reading?
7. To what extent does improvement in one type of reading carry over to other types?
8. What are the best techniques for individualization of instruction to be carried on with the regular classroom procedure?
9. What are the best methods of individualizing instruction to meet the needs of the superior student?

## THROAT AND JAW STIFFNESS

By Otto Booker, Instructor in Voice.

The most frequent obstacle to good singing, the difficulty with which student and teacher most contend, is throat stiffness. This is the vice that prevents true intonation, robs the voice of its expressiveness, limits its range, lessens its flexibility, diminishes its volume and makes true resonance impossible. A tightly held throat and jaw not only affects the beauty of tone but injures the freedom of the voice.

The muscles of the larynx are small and delicate, and the adjustments they make in singing are very fine. When the voice user stiffens his throat, these delicate muscles in their spontaneous effort to make the right adjustments are compelled to contract with more than their normal strength. Every increase in throat stiffness demands a corresponding increase in muscular effort, and any over-exertion persisted in will result in injury to the voice itself.

Every throat specialist knows this and many young singers, beginning with promise, have learned it too late. Singers are so accustomed to the sound of their own voices that they are usually unconscious of their own throat stiffness, though they may recognize it in their fellow singers. Unfortunately, throat stiffness by its very nature tends to aggravate itself while the voice becomes less and less responsive to the singer's demand.

There are a number of contributing causes to throat stiffness, but the principle causes are "throat consciousness" and the interference of the swallowing muscles.

Tone is not a material substance and cannot be put or placed. It will float or go into all open spaces if there is no interference. A common notion is that we sing with the throat, whereas we sing through it. Akin to this error is the notion, as common as it is false, that force or tone-carrying power originates in the larynx, whereas the initial tone, due to the vibration of the vocal cords, is in itself comparatively feeble. Volume of tone, its color, and carrying power are acoustically and vocally a matter of resonance.

Many there are who sing by sheer force and ignorance, but their careers are short; striving for power rather than for purity of tone induces unnatural effort and strain that both directly and sympathetically affect the throat with stiffness. Unnatural effort in breathing, over-effort in breath control, as well as singing without adequate breath, all induce tension that is reflected at once in the sensitive throat.

It requires a certain length of time to perfect any of the arts. Impatience of results and hurry beget unnatural effort and tension. Mental conditions tinged with impatience, fear, or anything that causes tension of any sort are reflected instantly in the voice, robbing it of its better qualities and inducing stiffness in the throat.

Reduced to its lowest terms, voice culture today is a struggle with throat stiffness. The causes indicate the remedy.

First, then, is dropping all throat consciousness, all thought of the throat, all drawing of attention to it. The larynx must be left

unhindered to do its work with perfect freedom, which it will do if not disturbed by tension or by misdirected thought. The right thought must be directed to the breathing, which is below the throat, and to resonance and pronunciation, which are above it.

The functions are more or less consciously controlled until at last mastery makes their action spontaneous and automatic. The free use of all the resonance chambers will do more than anything else to set the voice free and emancipate the singer from all interfering rigidity.

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## PLAYS AND GAMES

By Irma Gene Nevins, Director Physical Education for Women.

"Play is the life and spirit of childhood, and exercise is only incidental to it. It is no more physical than it is emotional, mental, or social." With these objectives play should have a definite part in the school schedule, not something which must be, but something which is enjoyed by pupil and by teacher alike. If play is not organized and supervised, the instincts which are not socially useful will be developed. If you want to know what a child is and what he actually does, study his play. If you want to make of him a real citizen, direct this form of play.

Childhood is the play time of life, and play is a part of the original nature of children. To them it is just as necessary as are eating and sleeping. A child knows how to play, but he does not know what to play. With this idea in mind, I have listed some of the games popular with children and the method of playing them.

### SQUIRREL IN THE TREE

The players are divided into groups of four, three children joining hands to represent the tree and the fourth one, standing inside the group, representing a squirrel. There are two extra squirrels, one a chaser and the other a runner. On signal the chaser pursues the runner. At any time the runner may run into a tree to save himself from being tagged by the chaser, whereupon the squirrel already in the tree runs out and is pursued by the chase. This running is continued until the squirrel is caught, when the chasing is reversed. To give all the players a turn in the game, as soon as the squirrel becomes safe he changes places with one forming the tree. To make the game lively and interesting, each child should take a short turn as runner, dodge quickly and enter some tree unexpectedly, and when inside the tree, he should be alert to run out as soon as a runner enters.

### OLD BEAR

One child is chosen as "Old Bear." The rest of the children are supposed to be sheep grazing in the pasture. They finally become tired and thirsty. They know that just a little way from where they are grazing runs a brook. They also know that an old bear lives there. If the bear gets any of them before they get to the fold, they will have to become an old bear and on his side. Then the rest repeat the ply. Once in awhile they wander to his den. The bears cannot

leave their den until the director calls out, "Run, old bear." Then all run to the sheepfold.

#### COME ALONG

Form a circle. One person stands inside circle and is "It." All players hold one hand out in front of them. "It" runs around circle and grabs hand, then that person grabs some hand. Each last person grabs a hand until a long line of players is formed. The director blows a whistle and at this signal all players run to their original places. "It" tries to get the place of one of the players who has formed a part of the line. The last person back to his original place is "It."

#### SNATCH

Divide the group equally and number each side 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. Station each group in two lines facing each other with numbers beginning at opposite ends in this manner 1, 2, 3, each 3, 2, 1. Place in the center a ball or object that can be picked up and as a certain number is called, that number from both sides runs to the object. The one who can grab it and get it back to his place without being tagged scores for his side. The opponent has the right to touch the other player, and if he has the ball in his hand, the tag scores for the other side.

#### FOLLOW THE LEADER

A player who is particularly resourceful and skillful makes the best leader. He starts out at the head of the line and performs in various ways, walking, running, vaulting, somersaulting, jumping, or going on one foot, or on all fours—anything which will test the mettle and skill of those behind him. Each player must follow the leader in any action. Some penalty, such as dropping out of the game, paying a forfeit, etc., may be attached for failure to do this. This game develops skill, endurance, perseverance, ability to follow, and most of all, good sportsmanship.

#### POISON

Form a circle of eight or ten players about an object in the center, an Indian club, a stick of cordwood on end, or even a pile of boys' hats or caps. This object in the center is "Poison." The players, holding each others' hands, try by pushing and pulling, to cause members of the circle to touch or overthrow the poison. When one has done that, he is poisoned and must leave the ring. It is a strenuous game much liked by older boys.

#### MIDNIGHT

One player is chosen as "Old Man" and he may tag the other players only at midnight. At one corner of the playground or gymnasium is marked off an area to represent his home and at the opposite end is a space designating the other players' home. The players leave their home and as they approach the "old man" they keep saying to him, "What time is it?" He answers as it pleases him, "Eight o'clock," "Ten o'clock," etc. If he replies with any time but midnight they are safe. When, however, he says "Midnight!" the players must run for their home. The old man chases them, trying to catch as many as

possible. Any whom he catches must go back to his home and help him catch the others. The last player caught becomes the old man for the next game.

#### SHUTTLE RELAY

The players are divided into two or more teams of equal numbers, and each team is again divided into two equal divisions, A and B. The leaders of each group stand on two opposite starting lines one hundred or more feet apart. The other players line up behind their leaders, as in any relay race. At a signal the leader of group A runs forward and touches the outstretched hand of the leader of group B (the other half of the team) facing him, who in turn runs to group A and touches off the next player, who has advanced to the starting point. As each player touches off the next one who is to run, he takes his place behind a restraining line to the rear or passes off the playing space. The team wins whose last player first crosses the opposite line.

#### RUNNING RELAY AND VARIATION

Players are divided into teams of equal number who line up as for regular relay. On a signal the first in the line runs to the given point and returns to tag the next number, then goes to back of line. Skipping, hopping, jumping, and combinations of these may be used.

#### OVER, UNDER, AND AROUND

Players are divided into teams of equal number who line up as for a regular relay. One player from each team kneels on both knees about 40 feet in front of his team. Another player from each team stands with feet astride about same distance from kneeling person. Another player stands about same distance from the second. At signal first person standing in line runs, leap-frogs over kneeling player, slides between legs of player standing astride, and runs around person standing and back to tag the next runner off.

#### WHEELBARROW

Players line up in even ranks. Front player places his hands on floor or ground and the second player grasps and lifts ankles of front player. On signal the teams start for a given goal. When they return, the players' positions are reversed, the drivers becoming wheelbarrows, and the former wheelbarrows driving. When one team returns, the next team in line starts. Rank finishing first wins.

#### THROUGH STICK

Use a wand, grasp it with both hands behind the back, palms forward. Bring the stick over the head to a position in front of the body, arms straight, hands still grasping the stick. Lift the right foot, swing it around the right arm, and through between the hands from the front over the stick. Crawl through head first by raising the stick with the left hand over the head, skinning the stick over the right knee and the back. Come to the upright position and step back over the stick with the left foot, finishing with the stick still grasped in front of the body. Reverse using the left foot first.

#### THE TOP

Stand with both feet firmly planted on the ground. Spring upward in the air and attempt to make a complete turn in the air before

landing, without losing the balance at the finish. Use the arms to pull oneself around. Learn to turn either right or left.

#### BEAR DANCE

Squat on one heel, with the other foot extended forward. Quickly draw the extended foot under the body and shoot the other foot out. arms extended for balance. Shift back and forth rapidly.

#### HEEL KNOCK

Spring upward with both feet, knock heels together twice, and separate them before landing.

#### HUMAN BALL

Sit on the floor with the knees up, feet together. Reach the arms under the respective knees from inside and lock the fingers over the ankle. Start a swaying sidewise motion, then roll on the thigh and shoulder, either right or left, keeping fingers locked and feet together. Continue the roll from the first position over on the back and so on to the opposite shoulder and thigh, coming to the original sitting position.

#### CIRCLE BLIND MAN'S BLUFF

In this game the circle acts as a unit in evading the Blind Man. He stands in the center, and as he advances toward one side of the circle, that side of the circle retreats, and the other side comes forward. Then, of course, if the blind man is quick enough he will turn and catch one of the advancing players. They move back quickly to avoid him, but the circle must be kept intact. If it breaks, the player to the left of the break becomes the blind man. This is a good game for a limited or cluttered space, as the players do not scatter and the blind man is protected.

#### SQUIRREL AND NUT

One child is the squirrel and holds the nut in his hand. The other children sit at their seats, with their heads lowered on desks or eyes shut. Each has one hand cupped on his desk. The squirrel runs quietly about the room finally dropping the nut into one of the hands. The player jumps and chases the squirrel back to his seat (nest). If the squirrel reaches the nest, he is safe and he then drops the nut again. If he is caught, the other player becomes the squirrel.

#### BUZZ

The players sit in a circle or in any fairly regular formation. One of the players begins by saying "one," the next follows with "two," and so on around the group. But when the number seven is reached, or any number containing seven, or any multiple of seven, it must not be given. Instead, the player whose turn it is, says "Buzz." Thus "Buzz" would be substituted for the numbers fourteen, twenty-seven, twenty-eight, thirty-five, thirty-seven, forty-two, and so on. Seventy-one is "buzz-one," seventy-two is "buzz-two," seventy-seven is "buzz-buzz." Anyone who makes a mistake drops out of the game, and the one remaining longest in the circle wins.

#### BIRDS FLY

Players sit with their hands quiet in front of them. The leader standing in front calls, "Birds fly," at the same time raising his hands in a fluttering motion. All the players do likewise whenever he

names anything that flies. But when he names something that does not fly, any player who follows his motion must pay a forfeit or drop out of the game.

#### GROCERY STORE

All are seated in circle or at desks. One child chosen to be "It" stands and repeats, "My father keeps a grocery store and in the grocery store he keeps something that begins with A," or any other letter of the alphabet. The person guessing the article gets to be "It" next.

#### ZIP AND ZAP

All are seated or standing in a circle. One person is chosen to be "It." "It" may point to any person and call either "zip" or "zap." If "zip" is called, the one pointed to must answer the name of the person on his right before the pointer counts 10, and if "zap" is called, the person must answer the name of the person on his left. If "It" succeeds in counting 10 before the name is called, the person failing to call the name becomes "It" and continues the game.

#### I SAY, "STOOP"

This game is a variation of the old familiar game "Simon says," but calls for more activity than the latter game. The players stand in a circle, and in front of them the leader or teacher. The teacher says quickly, "I say, stoop," and immediately stoops himself and rises again, somewhat as in a courtesy. The players all imitate the action; but when the leader says, "I say, stand," at the same time stooping himself, the players should remain standing. Anyone who makes a mistake and stoops when the leader says, "I say, stand," is out of the game.

#### DO THIS, DO THAT

All players stand facing one of the number who is leader. The leader assumes any gymnastic position or imitates any action, at the same time saying, "Do this," and the others immediately imitate. Should the leader at any time say, "Do that," instead of "Do this," any player who imitates the leader must be seated or pay a forfeit. Three mistakes put a player out of the game even when forfeits are the penalty. The leader may choose any gymnastic positions that are familiar, such as chargings, head bending, trunk bendings, hopping, dancing, jumping, etc.

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(To be Continued)



## PREDICTING SUCCESS IN COLLEGE

By W. W. Charters

A forthcoming bulletin prepared under the direction of the Junior Council of the Ohio State University contains significant material which has been gathered for the use of high school principals and educational counselors when advising high school students about going to college. A number of factors are here assembled which have bearing upon students' continuance at Ohio State University and which may serve as measures of collegiate success.

In general, it is found that of the ten per cent of entering freshmen who are lowest on the intelligence tests, only thirty-eight per cent complete the first year and thirty-five per cent the second year. Of the ten per cent of entering freshmen who rank highest on the intelligence tests, seventy per cent complete the first year and sixty-four per cent, the second year.

High school marks have proved to be of little significance in this institution as predictors of continuance at college. Other incidental facts of some interest are also mentioned. Three-fourths of all college students have skipped one or more semesters in their elementary and high school careers. A single semester failure in elementary school or high school, unless due to some excusable cause such as sickness, is to be regarded with considerable suspicion since it indicates probable failure in college.

Students entering college at the ages of fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen generally do much better work than students entering at the average age of eighteen and a half. Students from city high schools have little advantage, if any, over those who come from small country high schools. Sex is a negligible factor in predicting success. The correlation between success in the first and second years is plus .90. This means that if a student makes good marks in his freshman year he is likely to succeed in his sophomore year.

The mortality of freshmen who participate in athletics is very high, and this is especially true of students in the lower percentile groups in the intelligence tests. Student advisers at the Ohio State University have the conviction that individuals who rank in the lowest twenty-five percentile on the intelligence tests should probably not be allowed to work for self-support while attempting university courses.

If such material is assembled in increasing quantities in institutions of higher learning and is published for the use of high school guidance officers, the number of students who attempt college work but who ought not to go to college will be materially reduced. Thus many lifelong tragedies will be averted.—*Educational Research Bulletin of Ohio University.*

## REFLECTIONS OF CONTEMPORARY LIFE IN A MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM

By Edna E. Hays, Assistant Professor of Secondary Education.

"Literature has nothing else really like 'A Midsummer Night's Dream.' It is perhaps the most original conception in the world of poetry," says Mr. H. N. Hudson. It is true that such a perfect blending of the world of dreams and enchantment with the world of reality is a most rare achievement. It creates in the reader almost unconsciously "a willing suspension of disbelief." During this play one lives so completely in a dream-world flooded with a purplish hazy moonlight that when it is over one rubs his eyes and looks about fully expecting to see Puck and to hear him say:

—you have but slumber'd here,  
While these visions did appear.

Yet Shakespeare is always an Elizabethan. Even in this poetic dream play which takes place in far-off Athens and in an imaginary wood nearby, he reflects the customs and traditions of sixteenth-century England.

Although the play has sometimes been presented in the graceful, flowing robes of the Greeks, the few references to dress that occur within the play are unmistakably contemporary British. Women wore masks (I. ii. 52), painted their faces (III. ii. 296), and had a fondness for jewelry (I. i. 34), while men chose the color they liked in a beard (I. ii. 95). Titania, enamoured of the rustic Bottom, goes "seeking sweet favours for this hateful fool," by which is probably meant ornaments worn at weddings (IV. i. 52). Bottom refers to the parti-colored coat of the fool (IV. i. 214) and cautions the "patches" (III. ii. 9) not to forget the "ribbons to your pumps" and the "strings to your beards" (IV. ii. 6).

Since archery, hunting, hawking, and gaming were considered essential parts of the education of an Elizabethan nobleman, it is only natural that references are made to sports. Cupid "loos'd his love-shaft smartly from his bow" (II. i. 165), and Bottom urges his fellows to "hold, or cut bowstrings" (I. ii. 113), both terms being used in archery. The nobles have planned a May-Day hunt for which the forester is ordered to "uncouple" the hounds (IV. i. III) so that their music may be heard (IV. i. 110). These hounds are "of the Spartan kind, so flew'd, so sanded" (IV. i. 124), and "match'd in mouth like bells" (IV. i. 127). Theseus bids the "huntsmen wake" the lovers "with their horns" (IV. i. 142), but the "purpos'd hunting" has to be postponed (IV. i. 187). Hawking comes to mind when Theseus condemns Hermia "for aye to be in shady cloister mew'd" (I. i. 71); while terms used in horsemanship slip easily from the tongue of Lysander in commenting on the prologue of the rustics (V. i. 118). Titania describes a sort of checkerboard cut in the turf on which the game of "nine men's morris" was played as "fill'd up with mud" (II. i. 98), and the "mazes" on which a running game was played as "undistinguishable" (II. i. 99). "No die, but an ace, for him" (IV. i. 313) constitutes a clear reference to the popular game of dice.

Dancing was a favorite pastime; the fairies meet to dance their "ringlet" (II. ii.), dance in a round (II. i. 137), and dance in the lead palace (IV. i. 93). The rude mechanics, too, end their play with a "Bergomask dance" (V. I. 360).

Travel for which the Elizabethans developed a passion was indulged in more by the fairies than by the mortals. These airy creatures go skipping hither and thither over the face of the earth; they "wander everywhere, swifter than the moon's sphere" (II. i. 6). Oberon says, "We the globe can compass soon" (IV. i. 101), and Puck when ordered to do his King's bidding replies, "I'll put a girdle round about the earth, in forty minutes" (II. i. 173). Titania inquired of Oberon why he had "come from the farthest steppe of India?" (II. i. 69). But the mortals are not untravelled. Theseus had come a conqueror from Thebes more than once (V. i. 51), and Hippolyta had hunted in a wood of Crete (IV. i. 117).

Although we do not believe that Shakespeare himself was a great actor, we know from his plays and from the comments in his plays that he thoroughly understood the principles that underlie the art of acting. The instructions to the rude clowns who are rehearsing their play are convincing (III. i. 1-120). The interlude (I. ii. 6), the masque (V. i. 32), an abridgement (V. i. 38), and the play (V. i. 37) are all mentioned by Theseus as proving good entertainment for an otherwise tedious evening. Puck asks, when he sees the lovers, "Shall we their fond pageant see?" (III. ii. 114). Actors are called both "mimics" (III. ii. 19) and "shadows" (V. i. 430), and men play women's parts (I. ii. 49). Stage properties (I. ii. 107), buskins (II. i. 71), and a "tiring house" (III. i. 4) are referred to, and Bottom wishes to be called when his "cue comes" (IV. i. 205). When the mechanics present their play the "prologue is address'd" (V. i. 106), but they are requested to give a dance to end the play instead of the intended epilogue (V. i. 360).

Music is an essential element of "A Midsummer Night's Dream," so much so that it was for a time made over into a light operetta. This play inspired Mendelssohn to write his exquisite overture at the age of eighteen, and later he composed twelve pieces of entr'acte and incidental music for the presentation of the play. The fairies seem to dance and sing throughout. Oberon orders Titania to call "music, such as charmeth sleep" (IV. i. 87), while she later on, wishing to please Bottom, asks whether or not he would "hear some music" (IV. ii. 29). The love of the people for gathering in the evenings to sing is alluded to by Titania when she says, "No night is now with hymn or carol blest" (II. i. 102). Helena reminds Hermia that when they were young they both sang one song (III. ii. 207). Theseus, feeling himself bored, asks for a play or music to "beguile the lazy time" (V. i. 40). Several musical instruments, tongs and bones (IV. i. 31), horns (IV. i. 106), a recorder (V. i. 122), and a harp (V. i. 45) are mentioned. One represses a smile at the name "Francis Flute, the Bellows-mender" (I. ii. 44).

It is easy to imagine a great open-mouthed fireplace of Shakespeare's time surrounded by a group, young and old, listening intently

to tales of folklore and of experiences explainable to them only by some superstitious belief. To many such stories the dramatist must have been an eager listener. He knew the story of the Man in the Moon (III. i. 61) and that every sigh cost a drop of blood (III. ii. 96). He had probably shuddered at gruesome tales of the burial of suicides at midnight "in crossways" (III. ii. 383). Midnight, too, was the time for ghosts, who walked from then until cock-crow (V. i. 388). The old man Egeus, not being able to understand why his daughter should care for Lysander, complained that "this man hath bewitch'd the bosom of my child" (I. i. 27).

Much of the superstition of the time centered about animals. There was an idea that dragons drew the chariot of night (III. ii. 379); bats, sometimes called "reremice," were associated with death (III. ii. 365), and we are told that the "clamorous owl nightly hoots and wonders at our quaint spirits" (II. ii. 6). Spiders were considered poisonous (II. ii. 20) and were classed with "double-tongued snakes" (II. ii. 9). Puck could change himself into a hog, a headless bear, or a will-o-the-wisp (III. i. 112). Of birds, it was generally believed that they mated on St. Valentine's Day (II. i. 143).

In recalling the plants and flowers Shakespeare mentions, one thinks first of the exquisite lines beginning, "I know a bank where the wild thyme blows" (II. ii. 249) and the loveliness of the primrose (I. i. 218), the nodding violet (II. ii. 191), and the

. . . little western flower,  
Before milk-white, now purple with love's wound,  
And maidens call it love in idleness. (II. i. 166-168)

To the juice of this dainty little flower is attributed medicinal properties (II. i. 170). "Dian's bud," though, could counteract the effect of the "Cupid's flower" (II. i. 184 and IV. i. 96). A drink made from knot-grass was thought to hinder one's growth (III. ii. 328), and Bottom had faith in the application of cobweb to a cut (III. i. 185).

Passing over the many classical allusions—I have counted roughly twenty-four—we come to the fairy lore that is so much a part of this play. The fairies are a tiny folk (II. i. 252), called "shadows" by Puck (III. ii. 347), who travel "through flood, through fire" (II. i. 5) "swifter than the wind" (III. ii. 94) or an arrow's bow (IV. i. 101). Their native land is the "farthest steppe of India" (II. i. 69) from whence they came to dance in the "fairy rings" (II. i. 9 and (II. i. 86) from midnight until the dawn (III. ii. 385). They have a passion for the beautiful as embodied in dewdrops (II. i. 14), moonbeams (III. i. 176), butterflies (III. i. 175), and flowers, of which the cowslip is their favorite (II. i. 9), and they even go so far as to steal beautiful children (II. i. 21-23). On the other hand, they despise the ugly and make war on thorny hedgehogs, spotted snakes, spiders, cankers, and reremice (II. ii. 1-20). Fairies have the power to make themselves invisible (II. i. 187), to change themselves into animals (III. i. 111), and to put an ass's head on man (III. i. 105). Although they are affected by the seasons (III. i. 158), they can bring fogs (III. ii. 355), can shake the earth (III. ii. 25), and through their

quarrels have a ruinous effect upon the weather and harvests (II. i. 87-117). It is the fantastic Puck, "fear'd in field and town" (III. ii. 398), who plays tricks upon the kitchen wenches (II. i. 47), "frightens maidens of the villagery" (II. i. 36), makes horses throw their riders, and "misleads night-wanderers" (II. i. 38); yet it is he also who does the work of those who please him by calling him "Hobgoblin" or "sweet Puck." He it was who was

. . . sent with broom before,  
To sweep the dust behind the door. (V. i. 396)

The spell Oberon and his train cast over the emotions of the mortals (II. i. 127) is never broken; at the end of the play they assemble to dance and sing and to bless the couples whose destiny they have helped to shape (V. i. 407).

As one puts aside "A Midsummer Night's Dream," he feels that Shakespeare best describes his own play when he says:

The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling,  
Doth glance from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven;  
And as imagination bodies forth  
The form of things unknown, the poet's pen  
Turns them to shapes and gives airy nothing  
A local habitation and a name. (V. i. 12-18)

## THE TREND

An army of approximately 26,000,000 boys and girls are attending the public schools in the United States this year, according to the United States Bureau of Education. The teachers of this great body of learners will number about 815,000, of whom 139,000 are men and 676,000 women. It takes 256,000 school buildings to house these children.

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Since recent scientific investigations have shown the greater possibilities of adult learning, this phase of education is receiving greater emphasis by leading public school systems.

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The January, 1929, Statistical Circular of the United States Bureau of Education deals with the per capita costs of education in city schools for the year 1927-28. The following quotations are taken from this circular:

"Total per capita costs vary considerably among larger cities. The highest in cities with a population of 100,000 or more is in Yonkers, with a cost of \$157.37 per pupil, and the lowest is in Birmingham, \$59.02, a ratio of 3 to 1.

"In 60 cities having a population between 30,000 and 100,000, per capita costs vary about as they do in the larger cities . . .

"Hibbing, Mich., which is included among the 75 cities having a population between 10,000 and 30,000, has a higher per capita cost than any other city included in this study—\$216.77. . . . The lowest per capita cost for all cities is \$25.57 for Phenix City, Ala."

Contemplation of these figures makes one wonder concerning equal educational privileges. Are such privileges a fundamental social need? If so, how can this need be met?

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What parents would like to see on the report cards of their children is important information for administrators and teachers. Dr. E. J. Ashbaugh, of the Bureau of Educational Research of Ohio University, has endeavored to discover this by having circulated a questionnaire among the members of Parent-Teacher Associations. He finds:

"Ninety-one per cent of the parents would like to have the number of days absent reported; 89 per cent, the number of times tardy; and 82 per cent, the number of days present. . . . Fifty-five per cent indicate that they preferred to have accomplishment in subjects reported by letters, meaning excellent, good, fair and the like; 41 per cent indicate preference for percentages; and no one apparently would be satisfied with a single mark indicating satisfactory or unsatisfactory. . . .

"Seventy per cent of the group indicate that they would like to have the class average for each subject the child is studying as well as the child's achievement. . . . Sixty-four per cent indicate a desire

to know the results of standardized tests giving the child's score and the average for his class, and 27 per cent wish to have the child's score and the average of the children over the country. . . .

"The results of general-ability or psychological tests, giving the child's score and the average of his class, are wanted by 59 per cent, and 30 per cent would like to have the child's score and the national norm for children of his age and grade."

The following table indicating "Ranks and Percentage Frequencies of Certain Personal or Social Traits" is also desirable information furnished by Doctor Ashbaugh:

	Percentage Frequency	Rank
(1)	(2)	(3)
Effort and application.....	78	1
Depotment .....	75	2
Respect for authority.....	73	3
Trustworthiness .....	70	4
Accuracy .....	68	5.5
Promptness .....	68	5.5
Health .....	65	7.5
Self-Confidence .....	65	7.5
Initiative .....	64	9
Cleanliness .....	61	10.5
Interest .....	61	10.5
Co-operation .....	59	12.5
Politeness .....	59	12.5
Neatness .....	55	14.
Industry .....	52	15.

Linking the school with life continues to be a constant and important school problem. This duty is not the task of any one individual or set of individuals. It is incumbent upon every teacher to constantly make a study of her community, its individuals, its organizations and its industries, to interpret the work of the subject matter taught in terms of the vital activities about her, and to lead her pupils according to their ability to make this linking.

Further, the teacher needs to read widely current newspapers, books and magazines that her field of vision may be widened and that she be led to recognize that every fact and activity taught should have significance bounded by neither district, state nor national lines. The changing nature of human relationships due to better means of communication and the constant progress in science and inventions makes it incumbent upon every teacher to make her work practical and to keep abreast of the times.

The United States Commissioner of Education, in his annual report to the Secretary of the Interior for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1929, reports these facts along with many others:

In 1926 there were enrolled in the elementary schools of the United States: public schools, 20,984,002; private schools, 2,143,100, a total of approximately 23,000,000 pupils. In the secondary schools the enrollment was: public, 3,786,071; private, 346,054, a total of more than 4,000,000 in the secondary schools.

In the higher institutions of learning, there were: public teacher-training institutions, 52,907; private teacher-training institutions,

17,209. Colleges and universities maintained by the public enrolled 280,437 students, and the private institutions 486,704.

The grand total of pupils attending schools in the nation was 28,296,484. The total number of teachers employed in all types of schools was 977,291. The total cost of maintaining these schools was given as \$2,744,979,689 and the total value of school property at \$8,125,085,472.

The cost of public education in 1903 was \$251,457,625; in 1920 it was \$1,036,151,209, and in 1916, \$2,026,308,190.

The cost per pupil in attendance in 1924 was \$95.17 and in 1926, \$102.05. Expenditures per capita in 1924 were \$16.25, and in 1926, \$17.50.

Only 25.7 per cent of the rural children between the ages of 15-18 are in high school as compared with 71 per cent of the same age group in the urban regions.

The consolidation movement in rural schools is progressing normally, with more than 3,000,000 children enrolled in approximately 17,000 consolidated schools.

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"The growth of secondary education, which has been one of the outstanding movements in recent years, continues at an almost undiminished rate. At present more than one-half of the population of high school age are actually enrolled in high school (the tremendous increase in high school and college enrollment is largely responsible for the great increase of expenditures for educational purposes). High school enrollments have more than doubled since 1920.

"One of the significant movements in education in recent years is the rapid growth of the platoon, or work-study-play plan of school organization in our cities. In 1923, there were 33 cities using this plan as compared with 146 in 1928."—From *The High School Teacher*, April, 1929.

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For the third successive summer the University of Buffalo has offered a three weeks' course in the "techniques of study" for all freshmen who have not done well in high school but who wish to take a college course.

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Eleven more buildings are to be erected at the University of Chicago within a short time. They include a laboratory, a gymnasium, a social science building, four hospitals, two quadrangles of student dormitories, and a new home for the Oriental Institute.

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Arkansas has taken three forward steps for the more rapid development of the state's public school system by adoption of an optional county-unit system of school administration, an annual appropriation of \$1,500,000 for equalization of public-school opportunities, and a new method of certification of teachers in accordance with the subjects taught and the qualifications of the applicant.