Normal College News

YPSILANTI, MICHIGAN

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Saturday, December 17th, 1904

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Professor Samuel B. Laird, like a considerable number of our most valued citizens, is of Scotch descent, with a proper mingling of good English blood. Born in Prince Edward's Island, he came at the age of seven, with his parents to Michigan. They settled at Chelsea and the boy received his preparatory education in the high school of that village. He taught district school one winter term before entering the Normal in 1870. He graduated from the classical course, with a good standing, in 1874, and immediately entered upon the work in which he has been engaged ever since. He was principal of the Wayne school one year; at Tawas City nine years; East Tawas five years; superintendent at Dowagiac six years and at Lansing three years. He became a member of the Faculty of the Normal College in 1899 as associate Professor of Physiology and Pedagogy. Later he became head of the department of Psychology, which position he holds at the present time.

While in charge of the Dowagiac schools he spent a summer term in the study of educational subjects at the University of Chicago, and since his connection with the Normal College he has spent a summer term pursuing similar studies in Columbia University, in the city of New York. Besides his degrees from the Normal College, he has received the degree of M. S. on examination from McKendzie College, in Illinois, and the degrees of B. A. and M. A. from the University of Michigan. Every degree which has been bestowed upon Professor Laird has been earned by hard and thorough study. He has received nothing as a favor, and asked nothing. He has studied, not merely for examinations and degrees, but for the culture thorough study gives, and for the knowledge which he needed in his daily work in his department of instruction.

It is a delicate matter for one to speak fully and freely of the characteristics, intellectual, social, ethical, religious of a once pupil, an associate teacher and a near neighbor. Fortunately this is not necessary, for they are well understood and thoroughly appreciated by the readers of the Normal College News. The simplicity, clearness, thoroughness and earnestness of his work in the classroom are known to all his students. The nature of his work in teachers' institutes, its inspiring and uplifting character, is testified to by teachers throughout the State. The excellency of his addresses at school commencements and other educational gatherings is appreciated, not alone by pupils and teachers, but by the fathers and mothers and friends of the students.

For a good many years Professor Laird has been an active and efficient member of the State Teachers' Association, always ready to do his full share of hard work. He is at present, President of the Association, having been elected by the spontaneous and unanimous action of that organization.

In addition to his labors as a teacher, Professor Laird, though not an ordained preacher, frequently supplies the pulpits of the various churches in Ypsilanti and the immediate vicinity.

His pulpit addresses are characterized by directness, earnestness, and by evidences of depth of religious and spiritual experience. They are of a decidedly practical nature and are highly appreciated and enjoyed by his hearers.

At his period of life he may count upon many years of increasing usefulness to the college, to the schools, and to the interests of the State generally.
The Normal College, the State Board of Education and the State Teachers' Association had their origin at about the same time. The legislative act establishing the normal school created the Board of Education to have charge of the institution. The first building erected for the school was dedicated on the 5th of October, 1852, and a teachers' institute was held in the building immediately after the dedication. During the progress of the institute the subject of forming a State association of teachers was discussed, and a preliminary organization was made on the 12th of October, 1852. Officers were elected and a committee was appointed to prepare a constitution and report at the next meeting to be held in March, 1853. Prof. A. S. Welch, the principal of the normal school, was elected president. Miss A. C. Rogers, the preceptress of the school, was elected one of the two vice-presidents, and Mrs. J. M. B. Sill, a teacher of English in the school was elected as corresponding secretary. The association was for a time almost a normal school society.

At the second meeting, held at the normal school in March, 1853, a constitution was adopted, and principal Welch was re-elected president. Prof. Joseph Estabrook appears as first vice-president. Miss Rogers and Mrs. Sill were among the other officials. The first three meetings were held in connection with institutes, the exercises of the two alternating. Beginning with the fourth meeting, which was held at Detroit in April, 1854, the association was able to "go alone" and dissolved its partnership with the institutes.

This paper is not intended to be of the nature of a connected history. It will only touch a point here and there. In its early years the efforts of the association were largely directed toward securing reforms and improvements in the school laws. Other things were not entirely neglected, but better laws was one of the crying needs. The association secured efficient aid in obtaining better supervisions of schools; a better system of examinations for teachers; the abolition of the "odious rate bill;" in making the schools entirely free; in securing equal educational rights for women; and more recently in securing compulsory school laws and other needed school legislation.

During the last few years the work of the association has been chiefly in the direction of improved courses of study and instruction, improved methods of teaching and school management, and improved school conditions generally. The association has vigorously seconded the efforts of the Superintendent of Public Instruction to render the rural schools of more value, and to secure the consolidation of the small school districts, and the establishment of rural high schools. With the exception of a few years following the terrible "war between the States," the association has been one of the most important and efficient agencies in every effort to better the schools of the state, and to render our educational system of more practical value to the people generally.

The coming meeting at Lansing will be the fifty-second annual meeting, the fiftieth anniversary was appropriately observed at Saginaw two years ago. Papers were read at that meeting upon "Educational conditions, in the country generally, and especially in Michigan at the time of the organization of the association;" upon "Some of the early members of the association;" and upon "Some things which the association has been influential in accomplishing."

For a good many years the association in its meetings acted as one body, but the enlarged number of interests and the great increase in membership have necessarily caused a division into departments or sections, so that at present a large part of the work is done in the sections, only the general addresses and lectures and a limited number of specially important subjects being considered by the association as a whole.

Among the sections are the Primary school, the Grammar school, the High School, the College, the Manual Training, the Music, and the Commissioners. Each of these has a special program of its own.

The presidency of the association is justly regarded as a distinguished honor. Professor Laird is in every way worthy of this honor, which came to him without seeking on his part.

The Normal has furnished for this office, in the order given: Principal A. S. Welch, two terms; Principal Joseph Estabrook, two terms; Professor E. L. Riply; Principal J. M. B. Sill; Professor D. Putnam, two terms; Principal D. P. Mayhew; Professor C. F. R. Bellows; Professor E. A. Strong; Professor Austin George; Professor L. McLouth; Professor C. O. Hoyt and Professor S. B. Laird.
In the days of glorious Arthur, who governed his kingdom under good laws, there befell a wondrous adventure, which has been made into a lay called “Launfal”. Listen to the tale.

With Arthur there was, and had been many a year, a youth named Launfal. He gave gifts generously—gold and silver and rich clothing—to squires and knights. Among all those of the Round Table there was not another so generous. But Launfal liked not the Princess Guenevere, brought from Ireland to wed with Arthur; for she seemed not true unto her lord.

No man can tell you of the folk that were at that royal bridal, from countries far and wide. And when they had eaten and all made glad cheer, the queen gave gifts—gold and silver and precious stones—to show her courtesy. To every knight she gave a brooch or ring; but to Sir Launfal she gave nothing, and that did grieve him much.

When the bridal was at an end, Launfal asked leave of the king to depart. He must, he said, to his father's burial. Then said the noble Arthur: “Launfal, an thou wilt leave me, take with thee great gifts; and my sister's two sons shall both go with thee, to see thee home.”

Launfal went forth on his journey till he was come to Carlion, to the house of the mayor of Lown. The mayor met him, saying, “Sir, thou art welcome. How fares our king? Tell me.”

Launfal answered, “He fares as well as any man, else it were great pity. But, Sir Mayor, not to deceive thee, I am parted from the king, though it rues me sore. No man must honor me henceforth for love of Arthur. Sir Mayor, may I sojourn with thee? We have known each other many a year.”

The mayor bethought himself what answer might be his. At last, “Sir Knight, seven knights have here taken lodging—I wait e'en now their coming—they are of 'Little Britain.' ”

Launfal turned himself and laughed in scorn, and said to the two young knights, “Now may ye see what service is under a lord of little wealth.”

The mayor spake again in this wise, “Sir Knight,” said they, “may it be well with thee. The Lady Tryamour bids thee come speak with her without delay.”

The knight passed with the maidens deep into the forest till they came to a pavilion. The tent was of cloth of the Orient. On the top there stood an urn of burnished gold, chased with rich enamel. It was set with bright stones, which shone like the moon by night. Alexander, the Conqueror nor King Arthur, in their best days had such gems. He found within the tent the daughter of the King of Olyrnon, the Lady Tryamour, reclining on a glorious couch. Her father was King of Faery, in eastern lands, and had great might. She was white as lilies in May, or snow that snows on winter day. The red rose when it is fresh against her red, was colorless. Her hair shone like gold wire. No man may tell of it—no, nor e'en think it in his heart.

She said, “Launfal, my lemmman sweet, all my glory for thee I left. There is none in Christen-
dom I love as much as thee—king nor emperor.”

Launfal beheld that fair being. All his love went out to her. He kissed that fair flower, and sat down beside her, and said, “Sweet, whatso betide, I live to thine honor.”

She said, “Sir Knight, gentle and noble, I know thy state, thy trouble, thy need. Be not thou ashamed before me. If thou wilt truly accept me and forsake all others for me, I will make thee rich. I will give thee a talisman of silk and fine gold. As oft as thou puttest thy hand thereon thou shalt have a coin of gold, where’er thou be. Also I give thee mine own steed, Blaunchard, and mine own squire, Geoffrey; and thou shalt bear mine arms, painted with three ermines. In war nor in tournament shall never knight’s blow grieve thee, so well will I protect thee.”

Then answered the noble knight, “I thank thee, my sweet one.”

The Lady called the maidsens. The cloth was spread; the board was set; they went to supper. The finest meat they had, the purest wines. The softest couch was his that night.

Next morning, ere he parted, the Lady spake, “Sir gentle Knight, an thou wilt talk with me at any time, go to a secret place, and I will come to thee, no man beholding me.”

Then was Sir Launfal blithe—no man can know his joy—and kissed her gratefully.

“But one thing, Sir Knight, I warn thee, that thou make no boast of me for anything. If thou dost—I warn thee now before—all my love and favor thou shalt lose.”

Thus she said to him. Launfal took his leave. The servant brought his steed, and he rode to Carlion in his poor weeds. He held him quiet in his humble chamber all the day. At eventide came through the city ten well-armed men riding on ten pack-beasts. Some had silver, some had gold, some rich cloths and armor bright. Behind them all rode Geoffrey, on Blaunchard, the milk-white steed. At the mayor’s house they did alight, and presented the noble knight with all these goods.

When the mayor saw the richness and Sir Launfal’s nobleness, he held himself for lost. “Sir for charity, wilt thou eat with me in hall today? Yesterday I had intended it, but thou hadst gone away.”

“Sir Mayor, God reward thee. Whilst I was in my poverty thou never bade me dine. Now I have more gold and fee than thou and all thine.”

Launfal held great feasts; fed fifty poor men, bought fifty strong steeds, gave fifty rich weeds to knights and to squires, rewarded fifty priests, delivered fifty prisoners; to many he did honors in countries far and near.

All the lords in Carlion made cry, a tournament in that town for love of Launfal. When the day was come, the trumpets blew their blasts, the lords rode into the lists. They laid on each other good blows with maces and swords; since the Round Table was, had not been a better tournament. The constable of Carlion rode against Launfal, and he against him. Strong, firm strokes there were on both sides. Launfal bore him from the saddle to the ground. The Earl of Chester rode against Launfal, and smote his helmet that the crest flew off. Launfal bore him from his steed. Then came about Sir Launfal a great company of Welsh knights—the number fails me. Now sees one shield riven, spears broken and shivered, many a knight borne to the ground. So the prize of the tourney was delivered to Sir Launfal.

He held a feast, rich and royal, that lasted a fortnight. And every eve the Lady Tryamour came to Launfal’s bower; yet none beheld her save the two—Geoffrey, the squire, and Launfal, the knight.

Tidings came to Arthur of Launfal’s nobleness. Anon a letter he sent that Launfal should return to him. He would hold a feast of earls and barons bold. At court found Launfal much mirth and honor—a great company of proud knights and bright ladies.

One day after dinner, Sir Launfal went to dance, with other knights, upon the green beside the tower where dwelt the queen with sixty ladies, and more.

The queen beheld them all. “I see the generous Sir Launfal dance. I will go to him. Of all the knights that I see there he is the fairest; and hath no wife. Tide me good or tide me ill, I must know his will. I love him as my life.”

She took with her her fairest maids, sixty ladies and five. To dance they were all afeard; to see them was a fair pleasure—a lady and a knight. And when the dance began to flag, the queen spake to Launfal in this wise:

“I have loved thee, Sir Knight, for seven long years. Unless thou love me, I shall die for sake of thee, Launfal, my leman dear.”

Then answered that noble knight, “I shall not be a traitor to my king.”

Then answered she, “Fie on thee, coward! Thou art worthy to be hanged! It is a pity thou wast ever born, or lestest yet. Thou lovest no lady, no lady thee; thou wert better dead.”

The knight was sore ashamed; could not forbear to speak, and said before the queen: “I have loved a fairer woman than ever thou laistest eyes upon this seven years and more. Her plainest maid might better be a queen than thou.”

The queen was very wroth. She taketh her madness and goeth forth into her tower, and leth down...
in her bed and sweareth she will be avenged in five days.

King Arthur came from hunting, blithe and glad. To his chamber went he. Anon the queen gave cry to him "But I shall be avenged I shall die.

My heart will break in three! I spake to Launfal in friendly wise, and he insulted me. He boasted of a lady whose ugliest maid might be a queen above me."

King Arthur was wroth, he swore his oath that Launfal should be slain, and sent his knights to fetch him.

Launfal had to his chamber hied to call upon his Lady to comfort him. But she was lost, as she had warned him. He felt for his talisman; it was gone. Geoffrey had ridden away on Blanched. His armor, that had been white as a flower, turned black. All that he had won before melted as snow in the sun.

"Alas!" he said, "How shall I live without thee, sweet Tryamour? All my joy I have lost, and thee—that is the worst for me—my blissful bride."

He beat his body and his head, he cursed the mouth with which he spake, and for sorrow in that hour he fell swooning to the ground.

Then came four knights and bound him and led him before King Arthur.

"Vile traitor, why madest thou such boasting? Thou saidst that thy Lady's ugliest maid was fairer than my wife. That was foul lying. And before that thou didst speak ill of her."

The knight replied, "I never did insult the queen. But she said I was not manly since I loved not lady. I answered her and said, my Lady's plainest maid would be a queen more worthy. Lords, it is true. I am ready to suffer all the court demands."

Twelve knights were chosen. They consulted; they knew the queen; they loved Launfal. They said that if he, in twelve months and a fortnight, could bring his Lady of whom he made such boasting, or the maidens lovelier than the queen, he should be held loyal; but if he could not fetch his Lady, he should hang.

Then said the queen, "If he bring one fairer than myself, put out my two grey eyes."

So Launfal went to seek his Lady.

The fateful day drew on apace. The king bade Launfal fetch his Lady. He could not. The king demanded judgment from the barons. Whilst they stood speaking, they saw riding up ten maidens so bright and shining that the plainest might have been a queen.

Then said Gawayne, that courteous knight, "Launfal, brother, fear thou not. Here comes thy Lady."

But Launfal, answering, said, "None of these is my Lady, friend."

The maidens alighted at the palace gate, entered before Arthur, and bade him prepare a chamber for their Lady, who was of king's lineage.

"Who is thy Lady?" said the king.

"Thou shalt know," said the maiden, "for she cometh."

The king commanded to prepare the fairest chamber in the palace. And again he called for judgment on the traitor.

Whilst they stood speaking, saw they ten other maidens, fairer than the first, riding on ten Spanish mules, with saddles and bridles from Champagne. They were clad in Tyrian silk.

Then said Gawayne, the courteous knight, "Launfal, here comes thy Lady that will bring help."

But Launfal, drearily, "Alas! I know them not."

The maidens dismounted before the throne, and one spake these words, "Hang your halls with rich tapestry against the coming of My Lady Tryamour."

By this the queen gan fear and said to Arthur, "Sir, if thou wert courteous or didst love thine honor, I should be avenged of that traitor ere now. Thy barons deceive thee; they love him."

As the queen spake, they all beheld a damsel, riding alone, on a white palfrey. They had never seen a being so fair. Noble, beautiful, graceful as bird on bough, with grey eyes and lovely expression. Like a rose was her redness; her hair shone like gold wire. She wore a crown of rich stones and gold. She was clad in a purple robe. Her mantle was bordered with white ermine—no finer could be. Her saddle was covered with green velvet, splendidly embroidered. Her bridle-bells were of fine gold. In her saddle-bows were set twenty Indian gems. Her palfrey-cloth was worth an earldom. A falcon she bore on her wrist; two greyhounds with golden collars ran beside her.

Through the palace she rode; slowly that all might behold her. And when Launfal saw her, he cried loud, that all might hear, both young and old, "Here comes my Lady sweet, that may save me an she will!"

Forth rode she into the hall. Her maidens advanced to help her down. King Arthur greeted her courteously, and she him again with fair words. Up stood the queen and all her ladies. They were to her as the moon is to the sun on a day when it is very bright.

Then said she to the king, "Sir, hither I come to secure Launfal, that he never spake evil to the queen, Sir King, she spake ill to him, and he answered her and said his Lady's plainest maid was fairer than was she."

King Arthur said, "Each may well see that it is true. Thou art more fair."
With that the Lady Tryamour went to the queen, and blew on her such breath that she never more could see with her two grey eyes. Then mounted she her palfrey and bade them all good-day. Then came Geoffre out of the forest with Launfal’s steed. The Knight sprang to horse to ride with his Lady. She gathered her maidens, and they went their way afar to the lovely isle of Olyron.

Thus was taken into fairy-land that noble knight of the Round Table. Since that time no man has seen him nor can tell more of him. Thomas Chester tells this tale of Sir Launfal, good in chivalry. Jesu, King of Heaven, and his mother, Mary, grant us all their blessing.

[NOTE.—Lowell has made us all familiar with the old and honorable name of Sir Launfal, but he has created for it a story quite modern both in plot and spirit. The Mediaeval lay of Sir Launfal was a tale of faery. It was first written, probably, by Marie de France, an Anglo-Norman poetess of the thirteenth century; but it had been, without doubt, a folk-tale long before she put it on paper. That it was popular is proven by the number of times it was reproduced, there being in English alone no fewer than six early copies of the tale. The poem teaches the young Knight that he should at all times and under all circumstances respect loyally the commands of his lady. The above very free and greatly abridged adaptation is made from the most perfect of the Middle English poems.]

Alma Blount, Paris, France, December, 1904.
COMENIUS, THE GREAT EDUCATOR.

Dr. C. O. Hoyt.

One summer day, in the year 1901, the writer being in the city of Amsterdam, remembered that not far distant, on the Zuider Zee, was a little Dutch village, in which the subject of this sketch had once lived. In this little village of Naarden, a few years before, the grave of Comenius had been found and it was here that the people of the world had, in 1892, met to celebrate the 300th birthday of this illustrious educator, by depositing their tokens of appreciation on the tomb of one who had been so long forgotten. They met to do honor to a man, who in the sixteenth century was the first to preach the gospel of the new education. The rulers of every government of the world were represented at this meeting, and each vied with the other in doing homage to his memory; statesmen, scholars and teachers had turned their eyes toward this spot, in grateful remembrance of the service to the cause of education, that had been performed by John Amos Comenius. With these thoughts in mind, I decided to visit this historic spot.

It must be remembered that when one is in Holland and ventures outside of the beaten paths of travel and away from the haunts of the tourist, he is in a strange land and among a strange people. Though he may speak many tongues and though he may be very wise and know all things so that he could move the world with his wisdom; if he speak not the Dutch language, he is nothing. There is but one thing left for the timid stranger to do; he must gesticulate. Gesticulation is a fine art and the primitive and common language of man. A scowl or a smile, an intelligent inquiring look and a step in advance, a pause and a step to the right. Now point in the direction of your search. Shake your fist in his face, make vigorous and rapid gyrations with your arms a la windmill and your listener will understand that something is wanted of him and he will set about to find out what it is. It may take time, but if you are patient and long suffering you will at last be rewarded. This was the method employed by me in finding the so-called Comenius Museum.

This museum is located in a small room at the top of the old town hall. This room has been set aside, by the authorities, for the reception of everything connected with Comenius' memory. There one may find a collection of his portraits, sets of the different editions of his writings and some letters and original manuscripts. Here also may be found the numerous tokens sent by the different governments at the time of the celebration in 1892. More interesting, in a way, than all else, is an old stone slab upon which is cut the figure 8. For many years this marked his grave, in the French Reformed Church. A hundred years after his death this church had been transformed into a military barracks, and at the end of another century it and the grave enclosing his remains were unknown. But with the revival of education in the nineteenth century, men began to ask about Comenius. He had been forgotten, and all records of him seem to have been lost. A gentleman residing in Naarden, found among some old papers, belonging to his father, some documents relating to this old church, and in the record book kept by the sexton, he found the figure 8, after which was written, "John Amos Comenius, the author of the Janua Linguarum, interred the 2nd of November, 1670." After a diligent search this stone was found. His remains were removed to a park and, in 1892, the friends of education erected to his memory, a handsome monument. The following inscription is placed thereon, in Latin, Dutch and the Czech language, "A grateful posterity to the memory of John Amos Comenius, born at Nivnitz, on the 28th of March, 1592, died at Amsterdam, on the 15th of November, 1670; buried at Naarden, on the 22nd of November, 1670. He fought a good fight."

But what of this man who after three hundred years should be so honored? The story of his life is the story of one, who with almost prophetic power wrote for generations, two hundred years after him. His contemporaries did not understand him, he was forgotten. Today he lives again and his influence is felt in every shool room in Christendom. He was not understood because of the lack of harmony between his ideal and the ideal of the race. Because the worded ideal is slow in acquiring a definiteness and an expression in institutions, he was forgotten. He now lives because his ideals are best expressed in the institutions of the twentieth century. We have found in him the source and inspiration that is characteristic of the new education.

Comenius was born one hundred years after Columbus had made his discoveries in the New
World. There were no permanent settlements yet in America in the Old World education was shackled, because church was a dominant power and owned men body and soul; but Martin Luther freed his work and the spirit of new individualism was active. It was on the eve of the Thirty Years’ War. Copernicus had amazed the world with his startling announcements, but Galileo and Newton and Descartes had their work before them. Universities were growing in importance an increasing in numbers. There was growth, development, new ideas and rapid progress, but everything was in its beginning. Latin was the language of the scholar and to know Latin was to be educated, but to arrive at the blissful state, it was necessary that the pupil should pursue a rough and rugged path, beset with dangers and strewn with groanings and many sorrows. How could this teaching be made easier? This was the problem in education that first appealed to Comenius, and from it came to the solution of a larger and more important one.

Comenius was born in Nivnitz, March 28th, 1592, and lived amidst the stirring scenes of the Thirty Years’ War. As he was a follower of John Huss for him to live in peace, it was impossible at such a time. He attended school in his native village, but did not begin the study of Latin until he had reached an age, far in advance of that, at which boys usually began this study. He was old enough to see the defects in the methods employed in teaching and this perception doubtless influenced him in his desire to work a reform. While a boy he came under the influence of a companion, who was a mystic, by the name of Drabik. In fact this element of mysticism and the belief in the supernatural was one of the dominant and controlling spirits of this time, and Comenius unfortunately fell under its influence. He believed in the revelation of truth by means of visions and all through his life he was more or less influenced and led by certain occult prophets.

At the age of nineteen, he entered Herborn College and came under the influence of a teacher by the name of Alsted, who doubtless did much for him, by pointing out the growing tendencies in education. Alsted had a sort of training school for teachers and this enabled Comenius to mature his notions for a reform. He next returned to his native town and, being too young to enter upon the work of the ministry, began teaching in a Latin school. He was, however, ordained a minister in the Moravian church, the duties of which he always discharged in connection with the work of teaching. In 1621, Fulnek was plundered by the Spaniards and Comenius lost everything dear to him—his wife and children, his manuscripts and his library. He now became an exile and wandered from country to country, preaching the gospel of education. In the meantime, he wrote much and planned for greater and larger things. In 1641, upon the invitation of Parliament, at the suggestion of Hartlib, a friend of Milton, he visited England and proposed plans for the reformation of schools, but the political situation in this country was of such a character that little attention could be paid to educational matters. He probably became known to America at this time, and from this, doubtless, arose the tradition regarding his invitation to the presidency of Harvard. Sweden has always welcomed the new in education, and hearing of Comenius, this government invited him to come to that country, for the purpose of reforming its school system. After an examination of his plan, by Oxenstiern, the minister of education, he was commissioned to prepare a set of textbooks for this country. While engaged in this work he lived on the Continent in order that he might be near the brethren of the church, of which he had now been a bishop.

In 1650, he opened a school at Saros Patak, the plans of the grading of which, have since been the models for modern schools everywhere. Four years later, unfortunately he again lost his books and manuscripts and became once more a homeless exile. By the Treaty of Westphalia, no provision had been made for the Moravian Church, and so he turned his face, as many another had done to liberal and friendly Holland, where he spent the balance of his life in comparative peace.

One can best understand the intellectual life and ideals, and the secret of the far reaching influence of Comenius by a careful study of his writings, viz., the Janua and the Great Didactic. In addition to this there should be an examination of his school plan at Saros Patak. They are educational classics.

The key note of Comenius’ entire plan of education and the underlying thought of his system may be expressed by the one word Nature. He turned away from the dry books of tradition and of scholastic learning to the live book of Nature about him. Doubtless he had been influenced by not a few thinkers who lived before his time. From Ratke he received suggestions as to the teaching of language and the reform of the course of instruction. Bateus, the Irish Jesuit gave him the plan and title of his Janua, while Campanella, the Italian, Vives, the Spaniard and Bacon, the Englishman, turned his attention to the study of Nature and taught him to teach according to her laws by discarding the old and formal methods of the scholastic.

The Janua Linguarum was written by Comenius
in order to point out an easy method for the teaching of Latin. It consisted of a great number of sentences, very carefully arranged and graded and which were to be memorized by the student. Finally he shortened, simplified and illustrated it and thus produced the Orbis Pictus. The pictures in this were very crude and were made in Nuremberg. Each section had a picture corresponding to it, and numbers affixed to individual words in the text enabled the pupil to pick out in the picture the exact object to which the word referred. When translated into the vernacular it was to be used as a first reading book. It went through numberless editions and was translated into fourteen languages. It was bought by thousands of parents who knew little of Comenius and cared less about his principles. Children liked the pictures, picked up their alphabet quickly and learned to read easier this way than any other and that was sufficient for the parents. This was the first picture book ever written for children, and for fifty years was the most popular textbook in the world. From it not only Latin was taught, but the vernacular of every language in Europe.

The Great Didactic was the most comprehensive of all of his writings. It was originally written in Czech, but was translated into Latin in 1657. The original manuscript was discovered in 1841 and presented to the museum at Prague, but, because Comenius had been a Bohemian exile, the authorities would not allow its publication. Prof. Laurie gave an outline of it in 1886 and the first complete English translation was made by Mr. W. Keatinge in 1896.

It states as its purpose the seeking and finding of a method of instruction by which teachers may teach less and learners may learn more. It speaks first of the purpose of education and applies the principle of order in education, according to Nature. Under methods of instruction there is considered reforms in the sciences, art, language, morals and religion. Comenius clearly foreshadowed the modern four fold division of education into kindergarten, elementary school, secondary school, and colleges, when he speaks of the School of Infancy, School of the Mother-Tongue, School of Latin and the University. In fact were one to compare the educational system of Michigan with Comenius' plan, he would come to the conviction that his influences had been felt by the founders of our constitution. Under School Discipline, there is an eloquent protest against the severe and inhuman methods pursued in his day.

Has the voice of this great reformer been heard and heeded by the world? Go into any school room in the civilized world, look in the faces of the teacher and the boys and girls, examine the methods, the pictures, and the books, see the children at work in the manual training shops, see in everything that goes to develop human character and citizenship you will read your answer.
Basket ball is in many respects an ideal form of exercise. It requires a great deal of team play, which is deficient in tennis, and wholly lacking in golf, bowling, and track athletics. The expert in base ball, tennis, bowling, or shot-put develops a right arm out of all proportion to the rest of his body; the bar performer over-develops his arms, and the track man over-develops his legs; but basket ball brings into action all the muscles to an appropriate extent and each is given its hereditary function, viz., the legs to support and carry the body, the trunk to bend in all conceivable directions, and the arms to handle a light object rapidly and in a variety of ways. Basket ball tends to one-sided development the least of any common game, sport, or occupation. One good point is the effect upon the posture. In bicycling, football, and bar work abnormal postures are sometimes developed which are quite similar to those induced by school work and the school desk; but basket ball more frequently than any other game or sport, demands a vigorous stretching of the body to its full height and reaching upward with both arms. We have involved in the game, therefore, the essential elements of the Swedish "arch flexions" and "heave movements" — exercises known the world over as the most effective preventives and correctives for round shoulders and flat chest.

Basket ball demands speed and agility rather than strength; in this it is superior to football, since it pays no premium on mere bulk and horse-power. It demands great work of the heart and lungs without involving positions that cramp the space of these organs; in this it is superior to feats of strength and skill on bars and rings. It demands a vast number and variety of co-ordinations of the larger muscle groups rather than fewer and finer co-ordinations of the smaller groups; in this it is superior as an exercise to baseball, golf or bowling. It must be admitted that basket ball favors the tall man, but it does so only on condition that the tall man can handle himself nimbly on his feet and use his arms in rapid and accurate work with the ball; otherwise a short man who can do these things will play all around him.

Basket ball is a new game, having been played only within the last fourteen years. In 1891, Dr. L. H. Gulick, then at the head of the school which is carried on at Springfield, Mass. for the training of Y. M. C. A. workers, asked Dr. James Naismith, then instructor in the gymnasium there, to try to invent some active indoor game to help bridge over the gap between the seasons of fall and spring sport. Basket ball was Dr. Naismith's answer to the request. It is plainly related to football with some changes to lessen the roughness of the game. Kicking the ball and running with it — the regular way of advance in football — were ruled out, and passing the ball forward — something prohibited in football — was made the regular proceeding. The plan and original rules of play were published in 1892, and it was immediately tried by a great many gymnasium directors, among whom a good game had become a pressing need. The first rules were crude modifications of the football rules and were soon found to encourage various rough and objectionable habits among players, and as a consequence many people in different places made changes in the rules with a view to lessening these evils, and also in some cases to make the game less violent, so as to bring it easily within the physical abilities of women and children. Thus arose the Ypsilanti rules, first used here in 1894 and first published in the Normal News for Nov. 1897. The Ypsilanti rules have been used since that time with beginning classes in the Normal College and at the Barbour Gymnasium at Ann Arbor, and also to a considerable extent among the high schools of Michigan.

In 1899 a committee composed of representatives of various colleges for women drew up a set of rules entitled "Basket ball for Women," which has been used with a fair degree of satisfaction by teams of women ever since. The fault with these rules is that as the game has developed there has been no modification of the rules to keep pace with it, and consequently several inconsistencies are conspicuous.

With regard to the rules for men we have fared better. A joint committee from the Y. M. C. A. and Athletic Clubs, of which Dr. Gulick is chairman, has kept the matter in charge and made an annual revision of the rules. As a result most of the objectionable features which were found in the game at first have gradually been removed, and there is no longer need for local parties to make sets of rules for themselves.

In 1894, the year that basket ball was made a part of the regular gymnasium practice here, Yale put out a team for the first time. Other colleges soon took up the game, and in 1900-'01 an intercollegiate schedule was played in the East. Yale stood first for some time, but last winter Columbia was the winner by a wide margin, with Pennsyl-
vania, Princeton, Yale, Cornell and Harvard in the order named, as members of the league. This is of special interest in connection with the proposed western trip of the Yale team and their game to be played with the Detroit Athletic Club early in January. As the D. A. C. holds the championship of Michigan and has a well known place in relation to other Michigan teams, all players and enthusiasts in the state will watch the result with interest.

As a part of the Olympic Games at the St. Louis Exposition a series of basketball games was played by teams representing New York, Buffalo, Chicago, St. Louis and Los Angeles. These teams were fairly representative, the New York team being champion of Greater New York, the Buffalo team having won the series played at the Pan-American Exposition and maintained the title ever since in that vicinity, and the other teams being considered the strongest in their respective sections. The Buffalo team won the series decisively, and thereby holds the presumptive championship of the country with the exception of Columbia, between whom and the Buffalo team we have no valid basis of comparison. Minnesota has made some claims, but as her team broke even with the Chicago West Side Y. M. C. A., which did not prove to be the strongest team in Chicago, her claims do not appear to be well founded.

The sudden spread of the game over so wide extent of territory makes it difficult to trace the development of various styles and elements of play in basketball, and it is still too new to lay down principles with the same authority that is fitting in case of older games. But some things have been learned in the dozen years that basketball has been played that are of value to anyone who wishes to become a player.

The best way to learn to play any game is no doubt to play it; but as in football and base ball, experience teaches that some things necessary in a good player can be best learned outside of actual scrimmage practice. The duties of a basketball man appear easy in comparison with some of the sensational feats seen on the base ball diamond or the tennis court, but nevertheless a beginner in basketball always plays a rough game and wastes much valuable strength until he learns to do the following things well:

1) Throwing and catching the ball. Accuracy and speed should first be acquired by practice without opposition, and then with an opponent to guard each man. The player must develop good judgment as to where to throw the ball, so that the man for whom it is intended can reach it more easily and quickly than his opponent, and must also learn to decide and throw instantly on receiving the ball, so as not to give his opponent time to interfere.

2) Dodging an opponent while holding the ball. In trying to carry out the last suggestion a beginner is apt to become so nervous on seeing his opponent rushing upon him with arms outstretched to take the ball away that he throws it wildly without taking time to see where it ought to be thrown. By turning about in place and holding the ball far away from the opponent time can be gained, and with sufficient skill one can calmly await an opportunity to throw safely.

3) Dribbling. This is an accomplishment that is frequently seen after a fashion, but men who can dribble and then pass the ball effectively are rare. Like other useful feats, it requires long and persistent practice.

4) Throwing goals is absolutely essential to success, and requires endless patience and persistence. A good "forward" must be able to throw a goal from any point within fifteen feet from the basket, and must be able to do it without an instant's hesitation or loss of time when the ball reaches his hands.

5) Jumping for the ball. Here great accuracy is required as to the exact time to make the jump, so that the ball may be touched at the highest point of the jump. One must learn also to place the ball rather than to merely bat it wildly.

Those who wish to become players cannot spend too much time in practicing these elementary points of the game. One of the best players in Michigan has for years had a basket placed at the proper height in his place of business, and passes odd moments when customers are not at hand in throwing goals. And yet I have heard spectators call it genius, and say that such players are born, not made. Such is always the lazy man's excuse for his own lack of ability.

Besides these items of individual and group practice there are several things that every team should practice extensively as a team,—first without opposition and later with opposition.

1) A group of special plays from center.

2) A group of special plays about the basket.

3) A group of special plays when the ball is thrown in from the side lines. These plays should be known by number and thoroughly understood by every member of the team. Their usefulness depends upon the ability to run them off like "greased lightning," and this makes lots of practice without opposition a necessity. In this connection every captain and coach should study "How to Play Basket Ball," by George T. Hepbron.

All the points recommended above for outside practice belong to offensive play; guarding involves fewer particular feats of skill and is more successfully learned in actual playing of the game. As a general rule, whenever the opponents have
the ball every player should stick to his individual opponent and prevent him from receiving and passing the ball. Beginners are apt to forget this and run off after the ball, only to discover too late, that the unguarded man has thrown an easy goal. The best place to stand in guarding is at the opponent's side, but this is subject to our surrounding conditions. Many otherwise good players fail to change their tactics quickly enough when the ball changes hands, and thus lose decisive chances. Every man should cover his opponent the very instant the ball is lost, and should get away from him with all possible speed when his own side gets it again.

Even if all the good points of the game are mastered, no basket ball team can expect to win games without keeping in first class physical condition. Few contests demand such continuous and uninterrupted effort as basket ball. From the time the whistle blows at the beginning there are twenty minutes during which every man must be in the game with all his vim and all his alertness. If men become tired or out of breath, the opponents, if better trained, simply run away with the game. When fatigue becomes severe, forwards lose their skill in throwing goals, and this is fatal. It takes regular practice for several weeks to develop enough strength and endurance to carry one through a hard match game.

Accidents are not unknown in basket ball, and care should be taken to avoid them. Injuries naturally fall into four groups, as follows:

(1) Injuries from falling on the floor or collision with walls or apparatus. Such injuries are unnecessary. The playing field should be kept away from walls and permanent fixtures by boundary lines as provided in the rules. Posts, corners, or fixtures not easily avoided in this way should be padded. All movable apparatus and mats should always be put out of the way. Then players should learn to avoid their feet during play. The headlong diving after a fumbled ball that is so characteristic of football is out of place on a hard floor. It may be heroic as seen from the gallery, but it is not good basket ball. "Get the ball, but keep your feet," is the best motto, and is practiced by the best players.

(2) Sprained ankles. This is a painful and often serious mishap, often keeping a man out of the game for a whole season. The cause is almost always to be found in the habit of standing and running flat footed. Keeping on the toes all the time makes the spraining of ankles almost impossible, since the position of the joint and the tension of the calf muscles prevent any displacement.

(3) Injuries due to illegal play, including pushing, striking and general roughness. Such injuries are rare when the practice and the games are both under competent umpiring.

(4) Overwork of the heart. This is the condition usually present when basket ball men become "stale". The rapid and uninterrupted action demanded by the game is apt to overwork the heart unless this organ is brought up to the necessary strength by gradually increasing periods of practice. Such injury is most apt to occur when men go into match games without sufficient training. By carefully grading the length of practice and increasing the time and the pace as the men become able to endure it, a high level of efficiency may be secured in the men and the danger shunned. It is especially important that persons having defective heart action should be kept out of the game. Few kinds of work are so injurious to this class of people.

The importance of moral training involved in games is now generally recognized, and basket ball is no exception to the rule. The competition is so keen and the players are in so close personal contact that good spirit and self control are more than usually essential, and are more likely to be lost than in most games. For this reason constant and strict umpiring is necessary, in practice and in matches. No matter how friendly the men, no matter how good the intentions, basket ball will degenerate and a rough and illegal style of play develop unless such official supervision is given. The work of the official is difficult, and needs even more care than the playing of the game. No lazy man will do for referee. He must follow the ball closely, and know what is doing. Penalties must be applied strictly and without favor, in order that players falling into bad habits may learn to do better.

Finally, commendation is due to the Amateur Athletic Union and to the Athletic League of the Y. M. C. A. for their united efforts to keep basket ball a clean game. Through a system of registration of players and sanction of match games they have succeeded in making basket ball one of the cleanest of sports. Because of the high standard set by the leaders of these organizations, and the ideals of play involved in the spirit of the rules, as drafted by the committee, basket ball is now doing a marvelous work in developing the spirit of true sportsmanship among the youth of America.
DE TOCQUEVILLE'S VISIT TO THE WILDERNESS.

In 1831 De Tocqueville, with his friend, De Beaumont, came to America under commission from the French government to study our penitentiary management. After visiting various prisons and reformatories, and collecting much valuable information, De Tocqueville laid aside this task to devote himself to a larger one, that of investigating American life and government. The report on our penal system, published as soon as the two friends returned to France, was a work of far-reaching importance and influence, but it is now forgotten; De Tocqueville's "Democracy in America," on the other hand, pronounced to be the most luminous and capable study of democratic institutions ever made, is still read by every profound student of American politics and government, though seventy years have elapsed since its appearance. It was while making researches for this great work that he made that side-trip into the region of the Great Lakes, an account of which he wrote out on the steamer Superior in August, 1831, under the title, "Two Weeks in the Wilderness," but which was not published till 1860, a year after the author's death. Recently his narrative has appeared as a text for French classes, and should make very interesting reading, particularly to Michigan students, for the "wilderness" described is the region between Detroit and Saginaw Bay.

The most of us have no very clear idea of what life was in Michigan three-quarters of a century ago. We live in comfort, and are so familiar with the advantages of our present-day civilization, that we think of the pioneer days with that tolerant indifference which we show for everything in American history that lies behind the pale of our rememberance. Some of us have heard the story from our grandfathers—and it was an interesting story—though the tellers had been too familiar with privation to make the reminiscences as graphic as the picture deserved. But De Tocqueville was a literary artist from an old, wealthy, and different world, and his picture is a snapshot photograph which we study with ever increasing astonishment.

The two travellers reached Detroit. "a little town of two or three thousand souls," along in July, and at once proceeded to make inquiries concerning the wilds of the territory, but it was not easy to get satisfactory information. "To traverse the almost impenetrable forests, cross deep rivers, brave pestilential swamps, sleep out exposed to the miasma of the forests—all this the American readily understands, if it is a question of earning a dollar, that is the very point," but he is not so ready to see how one can explore from motives of pure curiosity. He can give directions as to bridges, trails, villages, but the poetic delights of big trees and primeval solitude are things to him unknown. By a ruse, however, they succeeded in getting from Major Biddle, the government land agent, the information wanted. They pretended to be looking for land, and were directed to go further west into the section watered by the St. Joseph River. Where had the tide of immigration not yet reached? The Major drew his hand over the map of the country lying north-west of Pontiac. They thanked him politely and set out for Pontiac at once. They hired two saddle horses in Detroit for which they proposed to pay in advance, but the owner said, "Oh, that's all right, pay when you return." Later it dawned upon them that the liverman's insouciance was not based so much on human nature as on primeval nature, for he was turning them out into a paddock to which he alone kept the gate.

Their route lay through the woods which came up within a mile of Detroit. Sometimes they passed little clearings where settlers were just locating. De Tocqueville gives a description of the typical log-house: 30 feet long, 20 feet wide, 15 feet high; one room, one window; a fire place over which hangs a rifle; on the wall a map of the United States; near by on a shelf a few books, among which is a much worn Bible, and sometimes a copy of Milton and Shakespeare; the furniture, a rickety table, some boxes, and a few rude chairs; frequently also an agricultural implement leans in a corner, and a bunch of grain or seed corn hangs from the rafters. Such a dwelling is "an ark of civilization, lost in the midst of a sea of forests," and the people who live in the forest," they are the representatives of a race to which belongs the future of the New World; a nation of conquerors, who submit to lead a savage life without succumbing to its charms; a great people, who, like all great peoples, have but one idea, and who press onward in the acquisition of wealth, the sole object of their toils, with a per-
severance and a scorn of life that one might call heroic, if this word did not apply only to deeds of virtue; a nomadic people whom the rivers and lakes cannot stop, before whom the forests fall and the prairies are covered with shadows, and who after having reached the Pacific Ocean will retrace their steps to change and destroy the forms of society which they have left behind."

In Pontiac De Tocqueville and his companion put up at the best tavern. He describes the "bar room" as a "room where one can get something to drink, and where the humblest and the richest merchants of the place come to drink and talk politics on a footing of perfect equality." The landlord was a good fellow who hated to look guests in the face for fear of intimidating them; moreover, he was a great politician, and like all Americans very inquisitive. But if he liked to ask questions he was also willing to answer them. "When people fell sick," he said, "they did as the Indians did—died or got well as God willed." And as for the comforts of religion, they were limited to the infrequent visits of Methodist circuit riders, or camp-meetings, to which people went for a distance of fifty miles. Where were the Europeans who were supposed to be migrating in such vast numbers to America? At this he smiled a smile of superiority and remarked that only the native-born Americans possessed the necessary enterprise and ability to cope with nature and gain a livelihood from the heart of the forest. And then he paused and blew a great cloud of tobacco smoke toward the ceiling, and waited for the strangers to satisfy his curiosity with something about themselves.

At break of day they left Pontiac and once more plunged into the forests in the direction of what is now Flint. From a settler whom they met, they heard for the first time, a good word spoken for the Indians. De Tocqueville chronicles this as remarkable. From time to time they passed little lakes that shone like sheets of silver in the green forests. "It is difficult," he adds, "to imagine the charm which hangs over these pretty spots where man has not fixed his habitation, and where profound peace and unbroken silence still reign." What follows reads like a prophecy: "But already the white race is advancing through the solitude and in a few years the European will have felled the trees which are mirrored in the limpid waters of the lakes, and forced the animals which inhabit the shores to withdraw into other wildernesses."

As the day wore on they had various adventures. Once they got lost, and it was not till after dark that they reached a log cabin where they hoped to stay over night. As they were going through the yard in front of the house, a bear rose up to give them a fraternal greeting. "What a deuce of a country," says De Tocqueville, "where they have bears for watch dogs." The settler was willing to accommodate them and they drew cuts for the only bed. Beaumont was the lucky man.

The next day they pushed on with two young Indians for guides.

The woodcraft of the natives was a revelation. "From time to time our Indians halted. They put their fingers on their lips to indicate silence, and motioned for us to dismount. Guided by them we came to a spot where they showed us the bird we were looking for, and which we had not yet been able to discover. It was curious to see their scornful smile, when they took us by the hand like children and led us up to the object which they had seen for some time."

The grandeur of the forest in the Saginaw region impressed them greatly. To them the great trees towering on high were things of awesome interest. It is sad to note that our pioneers were not affected by any similar sentiments, and Michigan's once great wealth of timber has been so ruthlessly squandered that the memory of it has almost disappeared.

Late at night they reached the Saginaw river, and in response to a call from their guides a dug-out approached from the other shore. The occupant was to all appearances an Indian, but as De Tocqueville was about to take seat in the boat the native laid a hand upon his shoulder and said with an accent that had a suggestion of Normandy in it: "Ah, you come from old France!" It was a French-Canadian half-breed, and as he paddled them over he hummed to himself the words of an old French song.

"Entre Paris et Saint-Denis
Il etait une fille;"

Several days were spent at the settlement on the river, the last outpost of civilization in the wilderness. The people—only thirty souls, all told—were interesting, the country around was attractive, and the hunting was good. But the mosquitoes were a plague that De Tocqueville had not philosophy enough to endure tranquilly. And who has? He solemnly writes that he had never in all his life before experienced a torment to compare with them.

The travellers were detained through an injury to one of their horses a day longer than they had counted on, and this last day De Tocqueville took his French-Canadian acquaintance and went shooting in the low prairie along the river. When they were returning he noticed that the guide walked very gingerly along the path, looking carefully to see where to place his feet.

"Why are you so careful," asked De Tocqueville, "afraid of getting your feet wet?"
“Oh, no,” replied the half-breed, “but I always look where I step so as not to tread upon a rattle-snake.”

De Tocqueville gave a mighty jump. “The devil! Are there rattle-snakes here?”

“Dear me, yes,” replied his guide with great nonchalance, “the place is full of them.”

After another night of struggle with the mosquitoes the two foreigners set out at dawn on their return and were soon swallowed up by the forests.

“In the midst of this deep solitude we suddenly thought of the revolution of 1830, the first anniversary of which was that very day. I cannot tell how powerfully the remembrance of the 29th of July took hold of me. The cries and the smoke of combat, the noise of the cannon, the roll of musketry, the clanging of the tocsin, the whole day with its atmosphere of flame, seemed to come out of the past all at once and take living shape before me. Yet it was only a fleeting glimpse, a passing dream; for when, lifting my head, I looked about me, the apparition had vanished. But never had the silence of the forest seemed more glacial, its shadows more sombre, or its solitude so profound.”

The Teaching of Arithmetic

J. C. Stone, Michigan
State Normal College

III.
THE ANALYSIS AND SOLUTION OF PROBLEMS

The solution of problems is not only the practical aim in a course in arithmetic, but if based upon correct principles, will prove an important means of developing power. The custom of solving problems by formulae or rule, however, relieves the student from the necessity of thinking or analyzing, and simply gives practice in figuring. Solving problems by stereotyped forms not only fails to discipline the mind in right thinking, but such a process is repressing and uninteresting. The only joy that comes from such a solution is finding that your answer corresponds to the one in the “answer book”—a mere sense of satisfaction to find that you have juggled with the numbers correctly—that you have played the game well. Some one has said, “Art is the expression of one’s self in his work; give me a task in which I can put something of myself—my own personality—and it is a task no longer, it is a joy.” Even in the matter of combining the numbers that appear in a solution, judgment should be used. The pupil should be encouraged to look for combinations that will save time. Commend the discovery of every short method; not merely because of the time saved, but because the discovery has helped to develop the powers of a boy or girl. If one is to find the product of $25 \times 17 \times 4 \times 15$, say, he should see combinations that make this merely a “sight problem.” It is $100 \times 15 \times 17$, i.e. fifteen 15’s, or 225, plus two more 15’s, with two zeros annexed; hence is 25,500. If the product of $827 \times 549$ is wanted, by taking 549 as the multiplier some work may be saved, for

\[
\begin{align*}
7443 &= 9 \times 827 \\
41058 &= 60 \times 7443, \text{ or } 540 \times 827 \\
454023 &
\end{align*}
\]

The word “analysis” is often misunderstood. It has various constructions; to analyze a chemical compound is to reduce it to its simple elements; to analyze a problem in arithmetic is to take it to pieces and thus discover just what is wanted and what is given. Having made an analysis of this sort, a comparison of “what is wanted” with “what is given” will lead to a discovery of “what is to be done.” When a student has discovered what is to be done, the thought process ends and the rest of the work is a mere matter of “figuring.” Therefore the pupil should be encouraged to write down all that is to be done before doing any of the
work. The careful study of a problem will often show that its conditions, or the relations of the numbers, are such as to make its solution a matter of simple mental calculation.

The simple problem, "to find the surface of a cube, the diagonal of whose face is 15 inches" should be a "sight problem;" for 6 times the square of one edge is required, and it is known that 2 times the square of one edge is the square of 15, or 225, hence 3×225 is the number of square inches in the surface; yet I saw a high school graduate give a solution as follows: "divide 225 by 2, extract the square root of the result, square this and multiply by 6," and of course then got the surface but approximately.

The problem "how many beds 6 ft. by 12 ft. can be laid out in a garden 250 ft. by 280 ft., allowing a walk 2 ft. wide to be laid out entirely around the garden" was analyzed and solved by a teacher who was also a high school graduate, as follows:

1. 250×280=70000, the number of sq. ft. in the garden.
2. 2×2×250=1000, the number of sq. ft. in the walks along both ends.
3. 2×2×280=1120, the number of sq. ft. in the walks along both sides.
4. 4×2×2=16, the number of sq. ft. in the four corners, counted twice.
5. 1000+...20=16=2104, the number of sq. ft. in the walk.
6. 70000—2104=67,896, the number of sq. ft. to be laid out into beds.
7. 6×12=72, the number of sq. ft. in each bed.
8. Since 7 sq. ft.=1 bed.
9. Then 1 sq. ft. =1/72 bed.
10. And 67,896 sq. ft.=67,896×1/72 bed=943 beds. Therefore there can be 943 beds laid out in a garden 250 ft. by etc.

While the analysis was correct, the one that solved the problem in this way was doing but little real analysis and comparison. To develop a better analysis such questions as these might have been asked:

What are the dimensions of the part to be made into beds? (Ans. 246 by 276 ft.)

How many beds 6 ft. wide can be gotten from the width? (Ans. 41.)

How many beds 12 ft. long can be gotten from the length? (Ans. 23.)

Then how many rows of beds and how many in each row? (Ans. 23 rows, 41 in a row.)

Then since 41×23 is forty 23's and another 23 the computing may all be done without a pencil.

I recently saw the following solution for the problem, "At 9c per square yard, find the cost of papering the walls and ceiling of a hall, 20 ft. by 30 ft. and 12 ft. high, not allowing for doors or windows."

1. 12×20=240, the no. of sq. ft. in one end wall.
2. 1×9 of 2×0=26 2.3, the no. of sq. yd. in one end wall.
3. 2×26 2.3=53 1.3, the no. of sq. yd. in both end walls.
4. 12×30=360, the no. of sq. ft. in one side wall.
5. 1×9 of 360=40, the no. of sq. yds. in both end walls.
6. 2×40=80, the no. of sq. ft. in the ceiling.
7. 20×30=600, the no. of sq. ft. in the ceiling.
8. 1×9 of 600=66 2.3, the no. of sq. yds. in the ceiling.
9. 53 1.3+40+66 2.3=200, the no. sq. yds. to be papered.
10. Cost of papering 1 sq. yd.=9c.
11. Cost of papering 200 sq. yd.×=200×9c=1800c=818, the total cost.

What a lot of useless rubbish that passes for analysis! A few questions would lead to an oral solution.

9c per sq. yd. is what price per sq. ft.? (Ans. 1c.)

What is the perimeter of the room? (Ans. 100 ft.)

How many sq. ft. of walls to be papered? (Ans. 1200.)

What will it cost to paper then at 1c per sq. ft.? (Ans. $12.)

How many sq. ft. in the ceiling? (Ans. 600.)

What will it cost to paper it? (Ans. $6.)

What then is the total cost? (Ans. $18.)

If more of our work in arithmetic were oral, and the pupil was so questioned as to develop skill to see the best relations and combinations of the numbers that appear in a given problem, the work would be far less mechanical, and far more interesting. And while at first the analysis will be merely the reply to questions put by the teacher, there will gradually be developed a power to give a concise logical analysis of each problem—an analysis that will lead to a direct solution.

If a teacher will take the trouble to find out the methods actually used in business, she will find many rational things that will seem almost revolutionary. The new life that will be instilled into the class in the pleasure they find in using such methods will well repay for the time and trouble taken to find them.

Care must, however, be exercised that rules for "short processes" sometimes used in business, the reason for which is obscure, be not used. No short method should be introduced until the pupil understands the general method of which it is an abbreviated form. Short solutions, in general, come from observing all that is to be done and the relation of the various numbers to each other.
in the combinations that are to be formed. Impress upon pupils that the virtue in a solution is not in its length. Encourage direct solutions by more moral work. Direct work means a greater reliance upon mental powers and less upon rule and formulae. For this reason chiefly it is valuable.

The improper grading of problems is largely responsible for mechanical forms and rules. A pupil by the aid of a machine is able to "get the answer" of a problem, and thus makes a show of knowing that of which he has not the least conception. The problems, then, should be well graded, not as to kind of operation to be performed, thus insuring mechanical imitation, but as to the number of operations involved, so as to encourage thought and analysis. Each problem should give the student something to think about and suitably task his powers. The first problems to be given a child will involve some one of the four fundamental operations. For example, such problems as finding the gain or loss in buying and selling transactions, or problems requiring the cost of several when the cost of one is known, and conversely. The next class of problems related to this latter class will be such problems as "find the cost of 12 when the cost of 3, 4, or 6 is known." In this class, the child makes a comparison of what is wanted with what is given and thus has but one written operation. Thus if 3 tons of coal cost $21.75, 15 tons at the same rate will cost 5 times as much, or $21.75 × 5. The next class will be those in which two comparisons are made. If 7 things cost $14.35, the cost of 15 such things may be found by comparing the cost of 1 with the cost of 7 and then the cost of 15 with the cost of 1. Such a method of analysis and comparison is called the method of "unitary analysis." This method is the natural one for the child at first. It is in line with the method of attack of any problem, i.e. the given problem is reduced to other problems whose solutions are known. But the solution of problems should be progressive from this simple method of unitary analysis to a more direct solution.

All problems involving multiplication and division can more easily be solved by the "ratio method." Thus to solve the following: "I gain 20 per cent by selling a house for $8340. How much do I gain?" Now since I have given 120 per cent of the cost and want 20 per cent of it, or the gain, I am to find 1-6 of what I have given, or 1-6 of $8340. The problem is thus an oral problem and the result is $1390. The ratio may not always be a simple integral one, of course, and all the processes used in "unitary analysis" may sometimes be needed, yet there is usually a gain by the cancellation of certain factors. If the work is not shortened by the ratio method, performing the multiplication before the division will save carrying the quotient to a greater degree of accuracy than is required in the result. When the division is performed first as in "unitary analysis," the degree of accuracy to which the quotient must be carried to get a result to a required degree of accuracy, depends upon the number of digits in the multiplier, hence errors often arise from a lack of care in considering this.

By the use of the ratio method, which may be developed by a few simple questions and suggestions, there is no need of giving a special form or device for the problems of each new topic as is so generally done. Since the use of the algebraic equation may be made to serve as a machine that will enable pupils to solve problems beyond their understanding, it is often introduced into an elementary course in arithmetic. By an early introduction of the algebraic equation a pupil is likely to perform the operations mechanically and make use of such terms as "transpose," "clear of fractions," etc. without the processes really meaning anything to him. It is merely some mysterious change that gets the answer. For example, the subject of percentage is often taught by the "equation method" in such a way that it is a mere mechanical device by which the answer is obtained. Thus the pupil is to find all of a certain sum when 35 per cent of it is known to be $3200.

Is it not much better, if it is power that we are seeking to develop, to have the pupil use the ratio idea as in any problem involving multiplication and division, and see that the solution is 100 - 35 × $3200 = $9,142.67 which he gets by cancellation

If the question is, "what per cent is 48 of 80?" the equation method is:

Let X = the required per cent,
Then 80 × X = 48,
Clearing of fractions 80X = 4800.
Dividing by 80, X = 60, the required per cent

Is it not better to have the pupil get the real meaning of what he is doing—for him to see that he merely wants the relation of the two numbers expressed in hundredths? He knows that 48 is 3.5 of 80, and that 3.5 = 60-100, or 60 per cent.
What English classics should be read in the high school? What classics should be read in each grade respectively? Can you not help me outline a course in English? These are the questions which our alumni ask not infrequently. Leaving out of our consideration the subjects of grammar and rhetoric, two or three things may be said at once by way of reply so far as literature is concerned.

1. Take the country over, there is no agreement as to just what classics should be read in high school work.

2. In the case of specified classics there is a decided lack of uniformity as to the particular grade in which each classic should be read, and furthermore, no pedagogical principle can be stated that would place the same classic, in all schools and with all classes, in the same grade. If one seeks to apply the principle of adaptability of the classics to the understanding and interest of pupils, he will find at once the greatest diversity of opinion among teachers in the application of his principle.

3. Therefore it is questionable whether a uniform grade grouping of classics is desirable, or at least should be considered as more than suggestive.

Now of course these statements are unsatisfactory to the inquiring alumnus. That there is no agreement of opinion and no conclusive pedagogical principle concerning just what he would like to know, leaves him still in the dark. He has a course to make, he doubtless says to himself, and what shall he do? The purpose of this brief paper is to give him a few suggestions.

If he wishes to fall in line with the plan of the committee on College Entrance Requirements in English for 1904-1908, he will naturally consult the list of classics suggested by them. Nearly all the publishing houses issue this list in a little pamphlet which they will be glad to send any teacher upon application. Ginn & Co. publish along with this list suggested for high school reading, a longer supplementary list recommended for “home reading” by the Conference on College Entrance Requirements in English. At a glance he will observe that some selections are recommended for careful study in class, others for rapid reading and an outline report. If he wishes to confine himself to these lists and to group the classics for particular grades his outline might take some such form as the following:

### Ninth Grade.
- Scott’s Ivanhoe
- Addison’s DeCoverly Papers
- Scott’s Lady of the Lake
- Lowell’s Vision of Sir Launfal
- Shakespeare’s Merchant of Venice

### Tenth Grade.
- George Eliot’s Silas Marner
- Goldsmith’s Vicar of Wakefield
- Irving’s Life of Goldsmith
- Macaulay’s Life of Johnson
- Coleridge’s Ancient Mariner
- Tennyson’s Idylls of the King
- Shakespeare’s Julius Caesar

### Eleventh and Twelfth Grades.
- Macaulay’s Essay on Addison
- Macaulay’s Essay on Milton
- Carlyle’s Essay on Burns
- Burke’s Conciliation with America
- Milton’s Minor Poems
- Tennyson’s The Princess
- Shakespeare’s Macbeth

With such an outline as the above any teacher might feel that he was following in a general way the reading done by a large number of high schools throughout the country. He might say to himself with satisfaction: “These are the college entrance requirements. If my students are familiar with these selections and have something of a knowledge of the history of English Literature they can pass an examination for admission to any university in the land. Moreover the lists have been made by representative men from leading institutions of learning. Surely their advice may be safely followed. My course is made for me; now let me teach, and teach as nearly as I can in accordance with the suggestions of these learned gentlemen.”

On the other hand our inquirer may think that the above list seems arbitrary, he can see no principle of selection in it, and may somewhat impatiently ask the Normal College professor whether this is the best he can do for him, to furnish a list without any apparent principle of guidance in the selection. And we reply again: by no means. To such an earnest inquirer we gladly make a few additional suggestions.

Here at the Normal College with students in our preparatory course doing high school work,
we try to give an elementary course in the history of English Literature and to accompany this course with the reading of representative classics from the different periods. That is, we try to let the classic read be representative of the literary tendency of the period to which it belongs. If we had to make out a course ourselves, independently of what the English Conference have done, we should follow this plan as closely as we could consistently with maintaining the interest of students and cultivating a love for good reading. Without attempting to subdivide English Literature into well defined periods, set off by exact dates (a matter which is always more or less arbitrary), one can easily sketch an outline of the development of the literature by giving to each period an appropriate name. Then in connection with each age it would be a comparatively easy task to select representative classics to be read in connection with the history. The following brief sketch of a course in English Literature will illustrate our thought:

1. Anglo-Saxon Age.
   Extracts read in class from poems, Beowulf, etc.

2. Age of Chaucer.
   Ballads of Robin Hood, Prologue to Canterbury Tales, The Knight’s Tale.

3. Elizabethan Age.
   Spenser—Fairy Queen; Book 1. Shakespeare—Merchant of Venice.
   Bacon—Selections from Essays.

4. Puritan Age.
   Bunyan—Pilgrim’s Progress.

5. Age of Dryden and the Restoration.
   Dryden—Reading from Satires, and other poems.
   Butler—Hudibras.

6. Classical Age.
   Pope—The Dunciad, Rape of the Lock.
   Addison—Sir Roger de Coverley Papers.
   Swift—First Book of Gulliver’s Travels.

7. Eighteenth Century (latter part).
   Johnson—Biographies of the Poets.
   Goldsmith—Deserted Village, Traveller, She Stoops to Conquer.
   Gray—The Elegy, Selections.
   Burke—Conciliation with America.
   Burns—Cotter’s Saturday Night, Selections DeFoe—Robinson Crusoe.

   Keats—Eve of St. Agnes, Shelley’s Lyrics, Selections from Byron, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Ruskin, Carlyle, DeQuincey, George Eliot, Dickens, Thackeray.

Many students come from high schools to the Normal College with little or no knowledge of the history of English Literature as a whole. Their reading has been hap-hazard; a classic here and a classic there, quite unrelated to the time in which it was written. To avoid this tendency we believe that some good text-book of the history of English Literature should be used as a hand-book of reference. It should not be committed to memory for class-room recitation, but its chapters should be read intelligently and with the help of the teacher made the basis of the study of classic literature. Suppose, for instance, the teacher wishes to make out a high school course of reading independently of any set lists made by any conference or committee. Let him send to a number of the leading publishing houses, such as: Houghton, Mifflin and Co.; Ginn and Co.; D. C. Heath and Co.; American Book Co. and the Macmillans, for the catalogues of their publications of classic English Literature. These lists will naturally include all of the books recommended by the various English Conferences, for it is the business of publishers to keep in touch with the demand of the public schools. Now let him take some standard text-book upon the history of English Literature. He has then on the one hand a clear statement of the development of the literature, its leading writers, and their principal works, on the other hand a complete list of classic literature published in form adapted to school use. He may easily arrange under each period a generous list of classics with which the school library should be liberally supplied. From such a list let him select under each period such classics as seem to him most important for class study. Others may be assigned for home-reading and report.

Doubtless many, however, will wish to consult the judgment of teachers of wider experience than themselves. An excellent plan in such cases is to send to leading superintendents in the state for an outline of their courses in English. One will note at once the diversity of opinion which was referred to at the opening of this paper, but he may take courage from the fact that the State Commission on a uniform course of study for high schools in Michigan are making an effort to unify the work in English and that they will probably make their report at the meeting of the State Teachers’ Association to be held at Lansing during the coming holidays.
Katherine Elizabeth Dopp, Ph. D., of the Extension Department of the University of Chicago, and the authors of The Place of Industries in Elementary Education, is writing a series of books for the primary grades, called the Industrial and Social History Series. Two numbers are received. The Tree Dwellers: the age of fear and, The Early Cave Men: the age of combat. Two others are promised at an early date,—The Later Cave Men; the age of the chase, and The Tent Dwellers; the early fishing men. In the preface to the last volume received, the author sets forth the plan of following the race processes of development as a means of interpreting to the child the complex processes with which he is surrounded, and the materials used are selected from the life of the early Aryans, whose life of hunting, fishing and primitive agriculture, of first steps in the use of metals, and early essays in trade, as marked out by the geologist, the paleontologist, the archeologist, and the anthropologist, form the basis of the series. Reading such sonorous sentences makes one blush to remember ever having wished to be one of Lord Macaulay’s little nieces, for whom he wrote such simple nursery lyrics “containing no strokes of satire, nor allusion to personages and topics,” but only such verses as

“There once was a nice little girl,
With a nice little rosy face.
She always said ‘Our Father,’
And she always said her grace.”

and how, as a reward of her good behavior

“They brought her brown potatoes,
And minced veal, nice and hot,
And such a good bread-pudding,
All smoking from the pot!”

When one hears the constant lament of teachers of English in the high schools, of lack of a sense of rhythm which almost baffles all teaching, and of lack of the knowledge of the commonest biblical, literary, and even nursery rhyme allusions, which are felt to be the heritage of us all, and when these high school teachers have to do the work that should have been done in the elementary grades, often to the extent of teaching Mother Goose melodies, and the dear old fairy stories, because of no sense of rhythm and of lack of vivid imagination and appreciation in the pupils, and when in turn these high school teachers are harshly criticised for sending up such poorly prepared candidates for college entrance examination,—when one hears all of this, one wonders a little sometimes if our present transitional methods in elementary education are all sufficient.

A help in the solution of “The child and the book” comes in a paper read recently by Mrs. H. L. Elmendorf, of Buffalo, one of the half dozen greatest American librarians, and President of the New York Library Association. The title of the paper is Great literature and little children. “The book world today is like a mountain forest,” to quote a sentence here and there, “Giant trees are the glory of it, but between and around them is a mass of underbrush, much of it beautiful too in its way, which yet makes a journey through the wood difficult and slow.” Perhaps the most helpful thing that the librarian, whose daily life is in the forest of the books of the day, can do is now and then to make a list of books that shall serve, in some sort, as a trail through the forest.

So the New York Library Association has thought it might help busy mothers somewhat with the suggestion of about a dozen books that they would like to read to the little folks. The list, with a running comment, which space forbids giving in full, is as follows:

“Where shall we begin but with Mother Goose herself?” Mothers will like the edition of Charles Welsh, called A Book of Nursery Rhymes. Next is Verse and prose for beginners in reading; followed by Baby’s own AESop, with delightful pictures by Walter Crane; next, Kate Douglas Wiggins’ The Posy ring; and Grimm’s every welcome Fairy Tales, and the children’s own Hans Christian Anderson—best rendered by Mrs. E. Lucas. The famous old French fairy tales, including Cinderella, Little Thumb and Sleeping Beauty are well told by Charles Welsh in his Tales from Mother Goose. From fairy tales to classic myth is but a pleasant step, in Hawthorne’s Tanglewood tales, and Wonder Book. The Jungle book by Kipling; and Uncle Remus, His songs and his sayings, must be read aloud: The Book of Nature Myths, by Florence Holbrook; Collection of Wigwam stories by M. C. Judd; and fifty famous stories retold by James Baldwin round out our series. Finally, add the two volumes of Old and New Testament stories, in the Modern Readers’ Bible, in the words of the Bible, and telling the stories only, “for of all great books of the world the Bible furnishes richest store of illustration and allusion to all writers of literature, which cannot be read understandingly without knowledge of its riches.”
I count it high honor that you have asked me to speak to you the first five minutes of your chapel day program. No one who has preserved his human sympathies can be unmoved in the presence of the young who are earnestly striving to prepare themselves for future usefulness.

I think it was James A. Garfield who said that if the Father of all were set out to seek for the most truly interesting thing in his universe, he would find it to be the forming character of the young man or the young woman whose splendid ideals light up the pathway toward perfection. I think we all realize that the average person in mature life has allowed himself to fossilize somewhat, and the lines of arrested development begin to cut deep into his nature. You can already predict with some certainty his limits, since he has allowed the 11res of enthusiasm to die out under the machinery of his life. But there is a delicious uncertainty about the growing, developing life of the child or youth,—a limitless possibility that only the eye of omniscience can fathom. One can only say that the outcome will be proportionate to the vigor with which these splendid aspirations of youth are allowed to dominate and stimulate the life energies. Many a young man has hitched his wagon to a star and stood idly by with his hands in his pockets till the wagon has moved beyond his reach forever. He has neglected to climb in. Our ideals must attract us and command our loyalty or they cannot redeem us. All will be well if the physical health be preserved, the heart be kept pure, the intellect be thoroughly trained, the will be kept free, and the reason and conscience be allowed to reign over the inner life. Thus will the glorious ideals of youth be realized in perfected manhood and womanhood.

On this road of life which stretches out so interminably before you a great many people have gone ahead of you. Some have put up sign boards here and there to warn those who come after. Some of these persons have scribbled signs noting that here or there they floundered and fell into the mire; but if you will look closely, you will see that this was because they did not keep in the road. If any one reports himself in the Slough of Despond, you may be sure he got there because he did not stay in the straight and narrow way. If a drunken driver pulls his team into the ditch beside the road, this certainly is no reason why I, who am sober, may not use the highway which he has left for my advancement on the right way. While thinking over this matter as I sat by my library fire on an evening not long since, there came into my mind the phrase, “the immortality of youth.” Why may we not have an immortality of youth? By this I do not mean to remain undeveloped. There is no real joy in arrested development. But I do mean to preserve the hopeful attitude toward life—to preserve our belief in the friendliness of the universe and our confidence that God has not grown feeble nor indifferent. For I believe the facts warrant this preservation of our hopeful attitude toward the future. I am not such an optimist as to suggest that all of your ideals will be realized. Some of them ought not to be, others are of no permanent value, others still will change their form many times before realization. But what I do mean to say is that, glorious as is your youth, you have not yet even dreamed of the radiance which streams down from the heaven toward which you are moving. Believe no pessimist who tells you that you are having your happiest time of life. Some people with long faces and shriveled hearts delight to chill the ardor of youth by enumerating the trials and tribulations which may be expected in mature life, and by contrasting these with what they are pleased to call the care-free days of childhood and youth. “...y not, instead, speak of the enlarged conception of life that comes with maturity, the intensified and purified and refined emotions, broadened sympathies, the nobler companionships, the augmented sense of achievement and the greater glory of a completer communion with a better understood Creator. I have myself known companionships so elevating, so ennobling that a single one such would have justified the creation of a universe. Who wants to be free from care all his life? Who wants to shun work, to shirk responsibility? No, rather let us prepare ourselves to act well our part, counting it sufficient recompense that we are permitted to be co-workers with God in the redemption of the world.
The average superintendent of schools usually feels it necessary to signalize his advent into a new town by an upheaval of the course of study. It would seem at times that he is actuated not so much by real or fancied defects in the existing course, as by a fear that a lack of energy in this direction may cause the patrons and the board to look upon him as deficient in energy and progressiveness. The result of all this has been a shifting and uncertainty in the course that has led to a corresponding lack of uniformity and excellence in elementary and secondary education. The freedom of the superintendent to work his own sweet will is in striking contrast with the method of procedure in the best school systems of Europe, where all courses of study are determined by the deliberations of the Minister of Education and his councillors, whose opinions and judgments represent the best educational thought of the country and from whose verdict there is no appeal.

While it is impossible under our form of government to establish a similar authority in educational matters, still, leading educators in this country have been trying to reach similar results by various conferences and commissions in a general attempt to reach some common ground of uniformity in the courses of the public schools, and in the university requirements. In our own state a "Commission of Seven on the High School Course of Study" and a "Commission of Nine on a Uniform Course for Elementary Schools" have been holding meetings at intervals for months past. Both of these commissions make a report at the coming meeting of the State Teachers' Association and it will be the business of the Normal College News to keep its readers informed of the progress of this important educational movement.

THE STATE NORMAL COLLEGE AS A LAND OWNER.

Mark S. W. Jefferson

The accompanying map represents a little more than the old Ypsilanti "school section," extending from Cross Street northward to the tracks of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad. The grounds of the State Normal College are designated on it by a heavy black line. The map is a mere sketch made without survey and only of approximate accuracy. It is regarded as of sufficient interest to gather what it has been possible to learn without extended research about the history of the acquisition of this property in order at least that the doubtful facts may be cleared up and recorded in accessible form. The earliest land acquired for the school is that marked 1 in the sketch. According to a memorial submitted to the Legislature in 1853 by the State Board of Education, this land was donated to the State by the Village of Ypsilanti as a part of its subscription of $13,500, offered to the Board as an inducement to locate the Normal here and was valued at $900. It is the portion of the block between Brower, Forest Avenue and Cross Sts. on which the main building (a) and the Conservatory (b) now stand. It extends westward to the line of the lane that passes between the Post house and the Science building. It contains about six acres of land.

The second acquisition (2) was the site of the Normal Gymnasium (e). There are about one and a half acres in the whole lot. There is some doubt as to the exact sum paid. The most definite statement yet found is supplied by the courtesy of the editor of the Ypsilantian, from his file for 1893 under date of Sept. 7. "It is positively stated that the lot owned by Samuel Post, on Normal St., has been bargained for by the State Board of Education for $3,000 without the buildings, and the smaller portion near the water tower for $600." Dr. Putnam's history of the College establishes that the late Prof. George collected a subscription toward the purchase of this land of $1700, this from the citizens, and $3,600 was actually paid.

In 1894 the city bought the greater part of the remainder of the lot between Forest Avenue, Cross and Brower Streets for $8,500 and presented it to the Normal as a site for the Training School (d). Starkweather Hall (c) also stands on this lot, which is numbered 3 on the sketch and contains about two and a half acres.
Again in 1903 the city of Ypsilanti purchased the irregular shaped piece of land numbered 4 for $6,000 and gave it for a site for the Science building (f). It contains about five and a half acres and was supplemented the same year by the purchase for a new athletic field of the four acres numbered 5. For this the state paid $3,500. Last came the acquisition of the ten acres (6) to be devoted to an arboretum. It was purchased with $1,200 resulting from a subscription raised among the citizens by the efforts of Dr. John Van Fossen. This is somewhat remarkable as the only lot that has been obtained cheaper than the original site, while the neighboring lot (5) cost the State nearly eight times as much per acre. It became the property of the State in 1904.

The whole briefly stated in the following table:

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<th>Acres</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3000</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3500</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>1200</td>
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29.6 " $23,700

Of this total the State has purchased about 4½ acres at a cost of $4,900, if it i.e true that $1,400 was thus contributed to the purchase of the gymnasium site.
NEW BOOK BY PROFESSOR D'OOGHE.

Students and teachers of Latin will be interested to learn of the recent publication by the Athenaeum Press (Ginn and Co.) of the first volume of Prof. D'Ooge's "Latin Composition for Secondary Schools." The first volume contains Part I. and is designed for second year work. Parts II. and III., which make up the second volume and are designed for the work of the third and fourth high school years, are still in press. The book issued contains many new ideas on the teaching of Latin writing, and is exciting much favorable comment all over the country.

The Committee on a Course of Study in Geography will prepare for the Lansing meeting a leaflet giving an outline of their proposed Course of Study instead of making a final edition of their whole report. This is done since the preliminary report has been given wide circulation and a committee now exists with the duty of preparing a general Course of Study which will undoubtedly include work in Geography.

THE SEVEN CHAMPIONS OF CHRISTENDOM.

The January magazine number of the Normal College News will publish an article contributed by Mrs. Hulst, of the Grand Rapids High School. Her theme will be the story of St. George of Cappadocia, as the historical foundation for the medieval romances.

Mrs. Hulst has been at work some time rewriting and popularizing these romances, especially that of "The Seven Champions of Christendom." The material is valuable as "source" material for history and at the same time offers charming literary studies. It is hoped that the result of her work will shortly appear in book form, and be available for the use of the young people, both in school and the home.

A book agent took refuge under a hay stack during a thunderstorm, and the lightning struck him on the cheek, glancing off and killed a mule two hundred yards away.—Ex.

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Citizens generally have shown a loyalty in their belief that oil and gas will be found in this neighborhood and have subscribed some $4,000 or $5,000 to the capital needed to test the field between here and the Ohio state line. It is hoped that it will be found in this vicinity, but if not here experiments will be continued and the lucky town may be Belleville, Saline or some other place in the territory that will be tested.

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