

Since the sixteenth century the public school, that is, the school supported, maintained, and under the government of the political organization, has been the constant companion and the true foundation of every democratic State. The public schools of Germany date from the days of Luther. Their excellence is due in part to the fact that they have been under a process of harmonious development for more than three centuries. The public schools passed gradually over into other countries, which gradually became democratic. It was not until 1870 that the State made any provision for public education in England. It was not until 1881 that the State undertook compulsory education in France.

The Puritans brought their public system of education with them as the foundation of their theocracy. It extended, after the Civil War, into the South, and has now gone wherever the American flag has gone. One of the most inspiring surprises which the visitor to Porto Rico sees to-day as he travels over that island is the rural school-house in every village, and oftentimes in spots remote from any town. In Porto Rico,¹ in Hawaii, in the Philippines, the public school—that is, the school supported and carried on and maintained by the State—has followed, accompanied, been the foundation of the democratic

movement. I sat one night recently by the side of Baron Kikuchi, the head of the Educational Department of Japan, and he told me that in that country ninety-eight per cent of the children were in the public school. I said to him, "You are in advance of America." I wonder how long it will be before we catch up.

Thus there have developed from very primitive beginnings three instruments of education—the Home, the Church, and the State. How the education should be divided between these three is a matter of hot debate. In France the Government has recently prohibited the Church from doing any teaching. In Germany the State does the teaching, but in some parts of the Empire the Church comes in after hours to add religious instruction. In England the Church and State combine to render instruction, the Church carrying on some schools, the State others. In America the State carries on the schools, but the Church is perfectly free to establish and maintain schools by its own action and under its own direction, if it sees fit to do so.

I believe that these three organizations, the Home, the Church, and the School, should combine in education. How they should combine, and what education they should furnish, I shall consider in a succeeding article.

CITY LIFE IN FRANCE

BY HARVEY N. SHEPARD

THE activities of the cities of Europe are many, both in number and in kind, and are full of interest and instruction. In the Continental conception of city government there are no limits to its functions. The municipal codes are based upon the principle that cities may do, not what is expressly permitted, as in the United States, but what is not prohibited by law. It is their business to

promote the welfare of their citizens, and therefore they are far more positive factors in the life of the people than are our cities. They work out with freedom their own problems for their own welfare.

The French Code opens with the broad statement that "the council regulates by its deliberations the affairs of the commune." In 1879 the city of Liège bought an island in the river, laid out fine streets, and sold building sites. Within two years the island was occupied by attractive residences, and the city's investment was very lucrative. Any city may establish gas

¹ The latest statistics available at this writing show in Porto Rico: Schools, 2,040; scholars, 87,236; teachers, 1,736. And when our troops landed in Porto Rico, there were no schools outside a few of the larger towns, and not a school building in the island which had been erected for that purpose.

works or operate street railways, though in the Code no special mention is made of any such powers. The gas supply, however, and also electric lighting and the operation of the street railways, have been left in private hands, though under minute restrictions and with full return to the communes for the privileges granted. Paris, in its dealing with the lighting companies, always has guarded the interests of the city and of its citizens. It has learned that there can be no competition between such companies in the same area, and that it is futile to attempt to regulate by competition a business which is monopolistic in its nature. The gas company pays the city two hundred thousand francs each year for the right to put its pipes under the sidewalks; the streets and public buildings are lighted at cost, and twenty million francs a year, in addition, is paid for the franchise. There are no obstructive wires in the streets. Most American cities would congratulate themselves on having made an extraordinary bargain if, in return for the privileges they accord the gas companies, they should have the streets and public buildings lighted at cost. But Paris obtains that concession and twenty million francs a year in addition to it. The telephone system of Paris is operated by the national Government in connection with its Post-Office, and, while it pays nothing for its telegraph wires and pneumatic tubes, it pays liberally for its telephone wires. Numerous private telegraph and telephone wires also pay for their privileges, and from these sources, together with the payments from the compressed air company, the municipal treasury is in receipt of a revenue approaching a million francs. This is in addition to the payments from the gas and electric light companies for their privileges under the sidewalks. In the past ten years Paris also has received over sixty million francs as rentals and license fees from companies and individuals using the streets for passenger transportation. From the concessions in the market-places the city has an income yearly of more than eight million francs.

City bath establishments are not frequent in France, though Paris is ahead of London in school baths. Throughout France school-books and the various appliances needful in schools are sup-

plied by the communes gratuitously. In Marseilles, Lyons, and other large cities warm meals are supplied from school restaurants, shoes and clothes are given to the needy, and holiday and vacation trips are provided. In Roubaix school restaurants are open every school day of the year. Since 1892 they have served over 3,000,000 meals: soup, meat with vegetables, bread, and a glass of beer. A uniform ticket system is used in such a way that the children themselves cannot recognize any distinction between those who are fed gratuitously and those who pay. The bureau for clothing school children has distributed 160,000 pieces of clothing: trousers, shirts, dresses, caps, stockings, and shoes. The city sends to the seaside during the summer from its schools the children who are feeble. These children remain a month, and their only duty while there is to take deep breaths of fresh air and play in the sunlight. Every year the City Council of Paris votes a handsome sum of money to pay for the management of school vacation trips into the country, and an important system of school camps and colonies has been established for the children of the working people.

Maritime and river cities usually own their docks, quays, and piers, which combine commercial utility with artistic beauty. In Havre, for instance, the quays are not only equipped for commercial purposes but are popular recreation centers, readily accessible, and at night brilliantly illuminated, a source of civic pride and a powerful stimulus to civic patriotism. The condition of our water fronts as compared with those of the French cities is humiliating. With rare exceptions we have permitted selfish interests to destroy their natural beauty and to make them less attractive than any other portions of the city. So great are the natural beauties of the superb harbors of New York and Boston that they ought to outrank all the cities of the Old World. Compare also what Paris has made of its river front with what Philadelphia has done.

Public pawnshops are a municipal institution throughout France. Their great advantage to the poor is the low rate of interest upon small loans—six per cent a year upon loans as small as sixty cents.

Even more universal are the municipal savings banks, which are found in every important town without exception.

As long ago as 1875 the savings bank feature was introduced into the elementary schools of Paris; and while the sums which children at school can deposit are small and the system is carried on for the educational value it possesses, nevertheless they now amount to one hundred and fifty thousand francs a year, and from 1875 to 1893 the children's deposits were two million francs.

The child and its welfare form the special care of the French cities. Numerous day nurseries in the heart of the populous districts receive children without any charge.

A particularly attractive and humane experiment, begun in 1889, has proved a great success—the system of guardians for small children whose parents are employed away from home during the day. The pupils are released from school at four, while their parents do not return from work for two hours or more. Such children are kept in custody by some one connected with their school, are allowed to play under safe conditions, and are sent home at the proper hour. In some instances the guardians assume charge of such children in the morning as well as at night; and they always are responsible for their safe-keeping and happiness on each Thursday holiday.

Some French cities have established disinfecting plants, bakeries, and kitchens. In the bakeries bread is baked for the poor, which is distributed freely at their homes, while the kitchens provide wholesome food at the lowest prices.

In the case of every unfortunate child Paris aims to be very much more than a grudging stepfather. Besides thousands placed in industrial schools and otherwise provided for, many thousands more are every year sent to country homes, where the authorities maintain a general watch over them. Every year the Paris officials have on their active lists some thirty thousand children distributed among the farmers.

The city of Roubaix pays a pension to the aged poor of either sex living at home; provides cottages for widows with little children to care for, maintains a bureau for

free legal advice, and has built a hospital for the sick.

Very useful also is the service of night medical and surgical relief, organized in several cities and responding each year to an increasing demand. Free employment offices are maintained in the town halls of the *arrondissements* of Paris, and the Council votes a sum each year for their support. Private citizens who have the time and means and who are generously disposed toward the workmen of their neighborhoods give much unpaid service to the management of these local labor exchanges. The results are beneficent in various ways. As a crowning evidence of its devotion to the cause of labor the Paris Council in 1886 established a great Central Labor Exchange. This institution was completed and opened in 1892, about two million francs having been expended upon it. It became at once the headquarters of all the trade unions and labor bodies in Paris, not less than eighty-two trades being represented through the appointed agents of their societies. The Council votes fifty thousand francs a year toward the maintenance of the institution, and it is in many ways promotive of the well-being of Parisian artisans, and of the industrial and commercial progress of the city.

The theaters generally are assisted and frequently are owned by the city. In Lille the city receives four hundred free seats at each performance of all the theaters, which are distributed among the workmen.

Paris is the pioneer city of modern times. Whether one goes to Belgium and Scandinavia, to Switzerland and Italy, or to Germany and Austria-Hungary, he finds evidences on all hands of the abounding influence of Paris upon the outward forms of their cities. Brussels, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Dresden, Vienna, Budapest, and even Rome itself, would not be to-day what they are without the example of Paris. It was the first to conceive the ideas of symmetry and spaciousness, of order and convenience, and of wholesomeness and cleanliness. Mediæval Paris was a labyrinthine tangle of narrow, dark, and foul passageways and alleys. The original Paris, ancient Lutetia, was nothing more than the island in the Seine upon

which the Cathedral of Notre Dame stands; it contained at the period of the Revolution a great number of small streets, fifteen or twenty churches, and a population of twenty thousand or more. Those who visit it to-day find the island given over to a few great public buildings: the courts, an immense hospital, the Prefecture of Police, the Tribunal of Commerce, and two or three other public establishments. It is flanked by broad and smooth stone quays, is symmetrically laid out with open squares and a few spacious streets, and not more than perhaps one-tenth of its area is occupied by private buildings. Thousands of small houses were cleared away, and the modern island, with the restored cathedral, the splendid quays, the massive public edifices, the new bridges, and the flower market, made its appearance.

Paris has accepted unflinchingly the doctrine that smooth and clean highways are a wise investment, and that so long as the work is done in a thorough and scientific manner, with an honest and skillful application of means to ends, the result is worth having, regardless of cost. The expense of maintaining, cleaning, and sprinkling the streets is greater than in any other European city; but the sort of pre-eminence that such a street service helps to secure is profitable in a hundred indirect ways.

Paris has by far the richest park equipment of any city in the world. The area of parks within an afternoon's excursion is 20,000 acres, while farther away are more extensive public grounds, such as Versailles and Fontainebleau. It is impossible to estimate the profits which Paris derives annually from its parks, boulevards, and public buildings. Bankers have estimated that Americans spend upwards of \$500,000,000 annually in foreign countries, and it is safe to say that Paris receives at least one-fifth of this vast sum, the profits from which are as great as are the profits from pork to Chicago, shoes to St. Louis, and beer to Milwaukee.

The experience of Paris ought to convince the most skeptical that there is no

modern community of civilized men which cannot afford to provide the most perfect public appointments that technical and scientific knowledge have discovered: well-made and clean streets, good water, proper drainage, convenient transit facilities, complete schools, and thorough sanitary organizations. No city should think itself rich enough to prosper without them, and no city is so poor that it cannot afford them.

The municipal councils have recognized the necessity of regular physical culture as well as of outdoor sport and recreation; and they have made the gymnasium, under professional instruction, a general feature of the schools. Directors of sports are employed, and on holidays, in the parks and playgrounds, the young are taught outdoor games and exercises which only a few years ago they knew little about. Manual training, also, in the use of common tools has been recognized for its educational value and for its practical bearings; and in Paris there are nearly one hundred and fifty workshops connected with the boys' elementary schools in which regular instruction is given. Meanwhile the girls receive corresponding instruction in needlework and the domestic arts.

In few directions has Paris been more active during the past decade than in the promotion of libraries—convenient small libraries with reading-rooms scattered throughout the city. In many industrial neighborhoods there have been opened special workingmen's libraries of industrial art. Lecture courses are provided in connection with these libraries, and costly works are loaned to the artisans for home study. The experiment is accounted a most satisfactory one in its results. The schools are supplied with their own libraries, of which use is made by the parents as well as by the scholars. In every school building there is a collection of the reference books which teachers need; then a second collection of reference books for pupils; and a third collection of carefully chosen books to be lent to the pupils for home reading.

THE LUCKY-BUG

BY E. L. PEARSON

HE darted swiftly about on the water, making two little ripples that broadened to the right and left behind him. His neat, dark, gentleman-like coat was slightly glossy, catching the sunshine in one tiny bright spot on his back. Ten or a dozen inches he would slide in one direction, looking always like the tip of an arrow-head whose sides were formed by the ripples he made. Then he would shoot off abruptly at right angles, halt again, and change his course once more. There was no method in his actions; no vulgar pursuit of food. The swallows, who in ceaseless parabolas soared, swept, and fluttered over that end of the pond, had a very practical purpose, however charming their flight might appear. They were gathering a comfortable meal of gnats and mosquitoes. But the Lucky-bug, so far as I could see, was in it merely for the fun of the thing. Why toil and fuss about breakfast on a fine morning of early summer? Much pleasanter to skim over the water, mindful only of the waving branches of the great elms overhead and the grassy bankings with their golden dandelion buttons.

That was his philosophy, I thought, and I sympathized with it. But I realized that it was not for me. The grinding cares of life oppressed me, and left no time for idle amusement. My needs had driven me forth with a glass fruit-jar filled with water, and I had designs against the liberty of that Lucky-bug. He might continue his antics, but it must be in the narrow, circumscribed limits of the fruit-jar; not on the surface of the frog-pond.

Fortune had, of late, departed from me, and some great stroke was necessary to bring her back. I had sedulously dropped stones down the culvert under the railway track every time I had passed by for three days. Nothing at all had come of it. Yet it is, as every one knows, a very potent charm indeed. To all who doubt I have only to say that Charley Carter, after dropping stones in the culvert three or four times a week for two years, had,

one day, *only an hour and a half* after dropping a stone, found eleven cents (two nickels and a copper) down in Market Square. But it did not work with me.

The capture of a Lucky-bug was clearly indicated. It was my only course, if I wished to turn the tide of mischance that had been setting strongly against me since Monday morning, when the cat had made an attempt on the life of my sole surviving goldfish. She had been unsuccessful. I am glad to say, and she now had to disappear over the fence with more than her usual speed whenever I came out of the house. But in her efforts she had dislodged a pail of polliwogs that stood beside the goldfish's residence, and a quart or more of pond-water, with two or three hundred unfortunate polliwogs, had been deposited on my bed. I was not there to distress my eyes with their dying struggles, but the household authorities had made much of the incident, dwelling quite irrelevantly on the state of the bedclothes, rather than the fate of the polliwogs. Consequently I was led to believe that any more polliwogs would be received into the house with a coolness bordering upon absolute inhospitality.

The shocking unreasonableness of this attitude was perfectly plain to me, as I think it will be to any fair-minded person. I pointed out that neither I, nor the goldfish, nor the deceased polliwogs were in any manner to blame. Not the most biased tribunal in the world, save one composed of feminine housekeepers, would ever think of finding guilty any party to the accident except the cat. But did they so much as reprove *her*? Not they. She was a moth of peace, rusting in idleness under the kitchen stove or on the back fence, fat, lazy, and full of sin. Like most of her kind, she tempered a career of sloth with occasional deeds of cruelty and blood by day and with diabolical yells at night. Yet she was maintained, a favored pensioner, in the household, under the superstitious delusion that she caught mice, and she would have gone over to the neighbors any day if it had