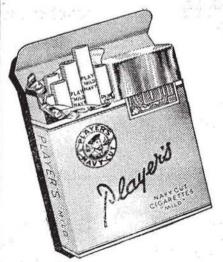


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NEW BOOKS

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CANADIAN IMPRINTS, 1751-1800. By Marie Tremaine. University of Toronto Press, Toronto, 1952. Pp. xxviii, 705.

This work is a monumental pioneer bibliography, if not the definitive bibliography of a pioneer period in Canadian printing. If it does not become and remain definitive, it will not be because of either defective technique or restricted horizons: for Miss Tremaine has given a complete bibliographical description not only of all works known to have been produced between 1751 and 1800 but also of works which were projected but failed to be published. The only thing, therefore, that might call for another effort, or a revision of this work, would be the discovery of a large quantity of material hitherto unknown. But this is most unlikely; and even if more samples of printing were found, unless they were very different from those now known, they would not alter the picture which Miss Tremaine has painted.

The work includes books, pamphlets, leaflets, broadsides, handbills, newspapers and magazines; and gives full bibliographical descriptions of each, arranging them chronologically according to the year and date of the imprint, regardless of the place of origin. In other words, as Nova Scotia had a printing press a few years earlier than the other provinces, Nova Scotian items have a monopoly of the first dozen pages of the bibliography; but after presses were set up in the other provinces the output of all is mingled on a strict chrono-

logical basis.

In the course of an extended research over a period of a dozen years Miss Tremaine discovered that sixteen printing presses had been opened between 1751 and 1800 in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Quebec and Upper Canada; but by the latter year only nine of them were still functioning. None the less she found an output of 1204 items of many shapes and varied content. The bibliographical description of these covers nearly 600 pages—apart from some 70 additional pages, in which a special account of newspapers and magazines is given, together with a list of all issues that were known to have been published and of the libraries where they were located. By giving biographical details of the editors or publishers of these newspapers and magazines Miss Tremaine has enriched her bibliography of imprints by a history of printing; for as she says "Every printer produced, or tried to produce, a newspaper."

Moreover, in a discerning introduction of ten pages she has presented in summary form an account of the problems of printer or publisher, his precarious means of livelihood unless employed by a government for official publications, the public taste which he had to please or create, and the types of "literature" that had most appeal—such as almanacs, religious and devotional works, sermons, primers and elementary text-books. From all this she concludes that "Only rarely did the printer act as publisher in the modern sense;..... he printed no creative works of imagination, thought, or research, either as original publications or in the form of reprints of titles pub-

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lished abroad." However, this is not to say that the printer did not provide a vehicle for the expression of such local talent as existed in the period. Original essays, poems, letters and articles on practical subjects, such as education and agriculture, did appear occasionally in the newspapers and magazines, though the matter was too slight and the market too small to justify a separate edition.

Both as a work of reference on imprints per se, and for the vast amount of information given on the contents of these imprints, reflect-

ing the life of the period, the work is invaluable.

D. C. H.

MARY DICKSON. By Her Great-Grandson, Frank H. Patterson, Q.C.
Truro Printing & Publishing Company Limited, Truro, N. S.,
1952. Pp. 60.

Into this booklet Mr. Patterson has managed to compress an extraordinary number of facts about the early history of Colchester County and the part played in the life of the Province by two of its leading families—the Dicksons and Archibalds—without losing sight of the main theme of his narrative—the eventful life of Mary Dickson.

Though written in a strictly factual style this is a moving story of a woman, who had the bitter experience of seeing her first romance blighted by the charms of a younger sister; of being deserted by her first husband, who left her with three children to support and with no knowledge of his whereabouts or ultimate fate; of finding that she had innocently contracted a bigamous union in the belief that her first husband was dead; and of seeing her first love and all his and her relations rise to prominent positions and comfortable circumstances without offering her a helping hand. None the less she lived to a ripe and mellow old age in the home of her son-in-law, devoting herself to her grandchildren and retaining her vivacity and courage to the end.

Cumberland House Journals and Inland Journal, 1775-82.
First Series, 1775-79. Edited by E. E. Rich, M.A., assisted by A. M. Johnson, Archivist of the Hudson's Bay Company.
With an introduction by Professor Richard Glover, University of Manitoba. London, The Hudson's Bay Record Society, 1951. Pp. xciii, 382.

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This volume is the first of a series of two, which are to contain the journals of the first settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company on the Saskatchewan when they came out from the Bay to meet the competition of the forerunners of the North-West Company. It contains four journals, kept at Cumberland House, the first of its new outposts, between 1775 and 1779, by Matthew Cocking, William Walker, William Tomison and Joseph Hanson, in which is set down, by different hands at different times, a day-by-day account of their experiences with the weather, in obtaining food, in trading with the Indians and in competition with the "Pedlars"—the interlopers from Montreal, etc. This volume also includes an Inland Journal, 1778-79, by Robert

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Longmoor, in which he recounts his experiences in an unsuccessful attempt to found a post up the Saskatchewan beyond the highest

point reached by the pedlars.

In these journals, as in those which have been published before, there are many entries that can only be regarded as monotonous by the general reader; but, on the other hand, many of the entries are of special interest to the close student of the fur-trade, in that they give a first-hand account of the first direct clashes between the men from the Bay and the men from Montreal, and should enable him to confirm or revise his views as to the character of the two types of men who struggled for control of that trade for the next half century.

Incidentally, it is mainly this aspect of the journals that Professor Glover discusses in his introduction. After explaining when, why and by whom Cumberland House was built, and giving short biographical sketches of Cocking, Walker, Tomison, Hanson and Longmoor, the compilers of the various journals, he devotes most of his time to a comparison of the two types of men, their character and methods, the inducements held out to them by their respective companies, and the reasons why the men of the Bay finally prevailed. In doing so, he is inclined to confirm the accepted view that it was the Hudson's Bay Company who obtained and maintained the ultimate goodwill of the Indians; but to question the view that the strength of the North-West Company was in its organization—"an equal partnership between the trader, who bartered goods in the Indian country, and the capitalist who provided the goods." On the contrary, he regards this as a source of weakness in that both groups of partners tended to divide the spoils immediately in the early good years, without putting aside any reserve for days of stress, while at the same time there was no one in authority—no "directing mind and master hand to enforce discipline."

Though Professor Glover admits that in making these reflections he is going beyond the period covered by these journals and discussing an organization that has not yet come into being, he finds his justification in their realistic accounts of the ruthless and undisciplined forerunners of the North West Company. This volume therefore

may prove to be one of the most valuable of the series.

D. C. H.

Manitoba Roundabout. By Lyn Harrington. Photographs by Richard Harrington. The Ryerson Press, Toronto, 1951. Pp. xii, 237. Illustrations and map.

This book is one of the most attractive volumes in a series of provincial travel books that have been appearing lately for the information and entertainment of tourists—enabling them to see not only what is going on in any particular place at the moment but also what has happened there from the beginning. In other words, they are a concession to the modern modes of speedy travel, in that they spare the traveller the time and trouble of piecing together the history of each place, while giving him at one and the same time a panorama of both the past and the present. In this instance the author has been fortunate in being able to find in one part of the province actual illustra-

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tions of the historical background of the other. Beginning with Winnipeg, she takes a number of tours through the more settled parts of the province, describing the varied life of the present and, by a skilful use of history, recalling the fur-trading and pioneer days. She then tours northward and meets the fur-trader and pioneer face to face. On these tours Mrs. Harrington was accompanied by her husband. He provided the photographs which, except for the frontispiece, are all grouped in the centre of the book.

For anyone who has lived or travelled in Manitoba, this volume should provide a pleasant refresher course; for those who have not

it should prove an incentive to do so.

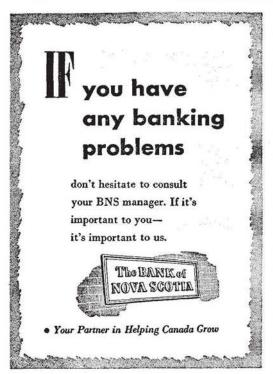
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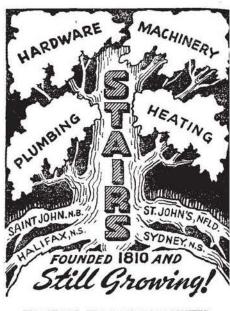
ENGLISH IN EDUCATION. By H. Blamires. Pp. 159. Geoffrey Bles.

This book could best be reviewed in a single sentence: Every teacher of English from Grade I through college, every parent interested in education should have a copy and read it carefully and ponder on it for a long time. Perhaps, however, your reviewer should indicate the nature of the contents so that the reader may know what to expect.

The author, who has been a teacher, a school inspector, and is teaching in a teachers' training college in England is not at all satisfied with the present methods of teaching English. His first criticism is that we use the term English too loosely to cover spelling, reading. composition, grammar, and literature; each of these branches should be kept distinct as each demands a different method of teaching. We learn to speak by speaking, to read by reading, and to write by We do not learn to speak correctly by studying grammar, but by imitating others and by being wisely corrected by them. There must be more time for oral reading in our schools. Likewise there should be less talk about composition and more opportunity for writing compositions. The teacher should not worry about all the errors in an essay; the young child needs encouragement and judicious criticism. Let us get away from the hackneved subjects of seasons, pienies, railway trips; rather let us assign such subjects as "Rivalry" to allow the child to develop his imagination and to reveal his own The four essentials of good teaching of composition are something to imitate-which for the author does not mean "playing the sedulous ape"—encouragement, constant practice, and constructive criticism of errors.

Mr. Blamires is as fresh in his treatment of the study of literature. The prime function of the teacher of literature is to make children love good literature. The literature period should not be turned into a period of grammar, history of the language, or anything else. The best way to teach literature is to read selections effectively, to minimize comment—to omit it completely from the time of actual reading—and make children feel. There is an excellent chapter on restoring mental discipline to our curriculum by means of grammar taught from its relation to logic, semantics, and philosophy. The author admits that this would be only for the most advanced pupils, but the idea is sound.





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Running through the book is the conviction that our teaching of literature and composition has been thoroughly vitiated by the use of methods eminently suited to the teaching of mathematics. author shows how irrelevant the usual well made plan of a lesson is to composition and literature, which are much closer to music and art than to mathematics and science. We repeat that this is a book to be read and re-read by every teacher of English. It could be the admirable basis of a series of studies by Home and School Associations. BURNS MARTIN

ALWAYS THE YOUNG STRANGERS. By Carl Sandburg. Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York City: 1953.

Were Abraham Lincoln alive today, he would enjoy every page of this magnificent book which deals so admirably with the common people of America in a simple, understanding and penetrating manner. Glancing through the index (how many modern autobiographies nonchalantly omit this very necessary adjunct!) you will find comparatively few "famous" names among the five hundred odd names listed, but all come to life beneath the author's magic pen. the description of John Krans, for instance, indeed, "a rich memory":

"...He read his Bible and sometimes a newspaper, though most often he liked to read the land and the sky, the ways of horses and corn. He was a loyal Republican and a devout Lutheran churchman while he gave a fine and decent respect to the opinions and beliefs of others. Politics would take time he didn't have to spare from his farm work and he couldn't see any fun in arguments. He wasn't an arguing man unless we should say that with a plow he could argue against stubborn land and with strong hands on leather reins he could argue with runaway horses. I saw him once coming into Galesburg when he had walked seven miles from his farm leading a cow he was going to sell in town.... I have sometimes thought that John Krans pictured God as a Farmer whose chores were endless and inconceivable, that in this world and in worlds beyond ours God planted and tended and reaped His crops in mysterious ways past human understanding." John's death at the age of eighty-eight was described to Sandburg by the farmer's son:

"...He was sittin here by this stove and he was talkin just as natural and he got up from his chair and came over here on the sofa and laid down and that was all. He didn't say a word and we soon

saw he was gone."

State of the State

Carl Sandburg was born at Galesburg, Illinois, January 6th,

1878, of parents who had come from Sweden:

"I was born on a cornhusk mattress," he tells us. "Until I was ten years old, when we became a family of nine persons, I remember the mattresses were bedticking filled with cornhusks. And as we all slept well on cornhusks and never knew the feel of feather beds till far later years, we were in favor of what we had."

A Swedish midwife assisted and two days after Carl's birth, Mrs Sandburg was up and around, preparing her husband's breakfast

In 1944 we said:

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Make no little plans when you think of Canada's future... For Canada, when this war is ended, will stand on the threshold of a splendid and challenging opportunity. The need will be there, the time will be ripe, for vast, unprecedented development... By planning today, we purchase ready-made markets for tomorrow, markets which will absorb our fullest productive effort and thus create gainful employment for everyone."

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From 12,000,000 in 1944, our population has increased by over two and a half million—which is like saying that more than three-quarters of the population of Norway, or more than one and one quarter times the population of New Zealand has been added during those years.

Despite the fact that Canada still has approximately only one-half of one percent of the world's population, she ranks third among the trading nations. Of the ten leading trading nations, on a per capita basis, she is first. It is estimated that by 1960 our population will have

reached sixteen and three quarter million and by that year some economists believe the total value of our goods and services will have passed the \$30 billion mark.

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Since 1940 Canada's output of electric power has more than doubled. This extensive development of our power resources undoubtedly accounts, in part, for this country's rapid expansion. It is significant, for example, that we use about three times as much electric energy as the thirteen countries of South America combined, although we have only about one-eighth of their population.

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We of Canadian General Electric are proud of the part this Company has always played and is still playing in Canada's remarkable development. Our great family of workers has increased from 8,500 in 1944, when the above advertisement appeared, to over 14,000 today. And since that time we have spent some 45 million dollars on new plants, new offices and warehouses—as well as on new equipment and extensions to existing plants.

Because it believes that "the best is yet to be" where Canada is concerned, this Company is even now stepping up the expansion of its manufacturing and distributing facilities to meet the increasing demand for its products resulting

from Canada's phenomenal develop-

And so today, we again say confidently: THINK BIG... when you plan for Canada's future.

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before he left to start swinging hammer and sledge at the C.B. & Q. blacksmith shop at seven in the morning, doing a washing, cutting and sewing diapers, some of which were made from Pillsbury Best Flour sacks. Often the children heard from father and mother:

"In the old country we have white bread only at Easter and Christmas. Here in America we have white bread every day in the year!"

In fact, the gratitude of the Galesburg folk who mostly came from the old world, might be described as the theme of Sandburg's book. Although their daily lives were hard and long, (no eight hour day then!) they realized and were immensely grateful to God for, the opportunities the new world presented, and they faced each day's tasks with boundless zest and enthusiasm. In the old world the steeple of the village townhall and church had been their horizon, over here it was the limitless prairie that beckoned on the ambitious.

The Sandburg family was fond of music:

"For three or four years a blind Negro with an accordion came to town for a few days and gave out with music at the corner of Main and Kellogg, near a poolroom. He had ballads, sad songs and glad, and always my father had time for this fellow. One payday night he listened a half-hour, turning to me once in a while with smiles to see if I likewise appreciated good music and songs. The Jesse James song my father had heard the previous year and he wanted it again. His hand went into his pocket and came out with a nickel. He looked with real respect at the nickel, then walked up, dropped it in the tin cup, and asked if we could have "de Jesse Yames song."

Sandburg tells of the first book he owned:

"The first biography I owned was of a size I could put in any one of my four vest pockets. I didn't buy it. I found it and said, 'Finders keepers." I was going along to the Seventh Ward school when I saw it on a sidewalk... I picked it up from the wooden board where it had been rained upon. I brushed the dirt off and smoothed it where the top corner had been scorched. When I measured it later it was two and three-fourths inches long and one and one one-half inches wide. The front cover had gloss paper and a color picture of the head and shoulders of a two-star general in a Confederate gray uniform.

The title read A Short History of General P. T. Beauregard."

These biographies came in ten-cent packages of Duke's Cameo or Duke's Cross-Cut cigarettes, and by begging them from friends who smoked, the boy soon had a library:

"I was proud in a sneaking foolish way about my vest-pocket library. It was so handy and could be hid so easy. I didn't tell anyone I was proud. That was my secret. I had books I didn't have to return to the Seventh Ward school or the Public Library. I was a book-owner but it wouldn't do to talk about it."

During his youthful years (the book only covers the first twenty

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years of the author's life), Sandburg reflected much:

"I had my bitter and lonely hours moving out of boy years into a grown young man. I can remember a winter when the thought came often that it might be best to step out of it all. The second

thought came, 'What would be the best way?'

"After thinking about these different ways of doing away with myself, I would come out actually feeling a little cheerful. The idea came to me like a dawning, 'If death is what you want, all you have to do is to live on and it will come to you like a nice surprise you never imagined.'

And Carl Sandburg never forgot what his mother often said:

"There are so many interesting things in life....wonders made by God for us to think about."

CYRIL CLEMENS

REVIEW OF: TOWARDS THE LAST SPIKE. By E. J. Pratt.

The publishers state candidly that "new readers could have no better introduction to the work of Pratt than this splendid epic." An epic it is: at times splendid; but as an introduction to E. J. Pratt

Towards the last spike has many far more successful rivals.

It may seem something akin to treason to suggest that Canada's senior poet, writing upon a great Canadian theme like the Canadian Pacific Railway, has produced a poem which does not quite come off. But unfortunately this poem does not, and, like other works of art, a poem that does not quite come off, does not really come off at all.

In this long epic of 53 pages there are indeed moments of splendour; but one is nearly always conscious of the effort to achieve them.

Good poetry ought to appear effortless. Consider:

"Oak Lake to Calgary. Van Horne took off His coat. The North must wait, for that would mean His shirt as well...."

Humour, yes; but its humour a bit wan, a bit tired, a bit laboured.

In this poem too all the familiar Pratt devices appear, e.g., the never-ending changes rung upon the metaphor of the body, human and animal: the arterial systems, the brain, the blood, the liver, all of which have supplied Pratt already too well. The Canadian Shield is made rather clumsily into a huge lizard, with tiny men poking tiny sticks of dynamite into its skin. Occasionally a new twist succeeds magically: where, for example Pratt has good Scotch oatmeal converted into Scotchmen:

"Foreheads grew into cliffs...

Evebrows come out as gorse, the beards as thistles..."

One is left however with a feeling of disappointment, and a feeling too that, for the moment at least, Pratt has perhaps exhausted the *genre* of the epic.

PETER WAITE

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Two Lectures by Robert M. Hutchins: A Review. By Dr. William S. Litterick, Director of Research, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.

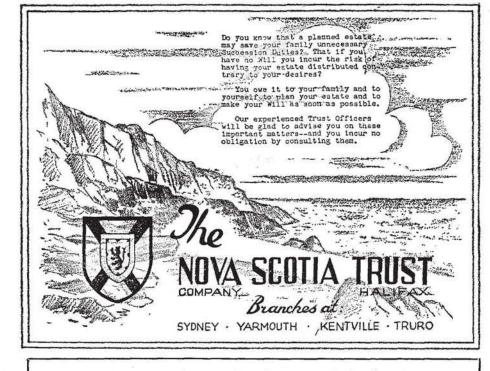
Under the title, "Some Questions about Education in North America," Robert M. Hutchins, associate director of the Ford Foundation, delivered two Marfleet Lectures, sponsored annually by the University of Toronto. The two lectures deal with the kind of Education needed to further the progress of Man and Society toward the Good Life. Those who are acquainted with Dr. Hutchins' views in Education will know immediately that a Liberal Education is his answer to the need, for Dr. Hutchins believes that such an Education is desirable and good for everyone and for all societies. He defines a liberal education as an education in the liberal arts, consisting "of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and figuring, and of the intellectual and artistic traditions we inherit."

The two lectures are neither a defense nor an apology for a liberal education. Rather are they a brilliant and penetrating analysis of the current needs of Man and Society and of the role of Education in meeting these needs. The analysis contains enough observations on the historical development of certain educational institutions to provide background against which to characterize the "secondary and dependent" role of Education in furthering the growth of Man and the development of his Society. So compactly and adroitly organized are Dr. Hutchins' arguments that the reader is prone to accept his theses—that modern industrial, scientific, and democratic society, as exemplified by the United States, has abandoned liberal education, after a brief acquaintance with it, to the marked detriment and possible decline of our society and that such an education is necessary to further the development and to safeguard our democratic heritage.

"Education is a secondary, dependent subject. It is a practical activity. It depends on what you want and what you can do. What you want depends on your philosophy. What you do depends on your circumstances." With these remarks, Dr. Hutchins opened the first lecture. He develops certain notions, historical and sociological, dealing with implications for the educational needs of a society governed by the "best for the good of the whole," as contrasted with a society in which "all men have a voice in their government."

Committed to a proposition that all men must have a voice in their own government, the West has not made up its mind about what sort of education is necessary to advance this proposition. It is recognized that if all the people are to have a part in directing the affairs of a society, they must have some kind of education to enable them to carry such a responsibility; "the better that education is and the more of them have it, the more likely correct decisions will be reached."

Historically there has "always been an education for the best," for those who were to rule and who had leisure. Because the impact of science and technology may have radically changed the basic social needs of Man, one might well ask "whether this is still the education that states the ideal, to what extent it is the best today, and





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RAINNIE & COMPANY, LIMITED GENERAL INSURANCE AGENTS 178 HOLLIS STREET to what extent it may be usefully offered to those who were not regarded as the best when this education was developed."

Obviously, the questions concerning "best" cannot be answered categorically, with scientific proof. The quality of the product of this "best" education, the men it produced, is no proof—for who knows that it produced these men? Rather than trying to prove a case for the best education, Dr. Hutchins characterizes his liberal education as "human and characteristically western:" "human in that this liberal education conformed to a conception of man as a rational being capable of the exercise and perfection of his reason; western in the assumption that everything was to be discussed. Liberal education made the student a participant in the Great Conversation that began with the dawn of history and continues at the present-day. Great as other civilizations have been in other respects, no other civilization has been as great as this one in this respect."

Liberal education has been abandoned, has disappeared from the United States, Dr. Hutchins states categorically. It is at this point one might take issue with his argument for this statement is a central point in the development of his thesis. He suggests that the tremendous mass influx of pupils into the overtaxed school system of the United States is sometimes blamed for this circumstance. Dr. Hutchins, however, believes the condition was brought about because "the United States was led astray by false philosophies and untoward circumstances." He believes it is possible to have the best education in a modern, industrial, scientific democracy and to have it for all people all their lives. He does not argue in his first lecture why this so-called best education should be fostered widely, but he does suggest such a liberal education as he espouses is necessary for a modern, industrial, scientific democracy.

Two main reasons for the abandonment of liberal education in the United States are advanced. Outstandingly successful men of the United States, such as Rockefeller, Ford, and Edison, were not products of this liberal education. "The United States combined, from the earliest times, the greatest theoretical devotion to education with the greatest practical indifference to it." A second reason is found in the misuse of imported European educational institutions, such as the German gymnasium and university. The misunderstandings and misuse of these institutions contributed a good deal of disorganization and confusion into the educational system of the

United States, from which it still suffers.

After analyzing the unit credit system and the irrelevance of education to life, Dr. Hutchins asks a question. "But why are children, young people, and their parents willing to submit to the legal and social pressure that results in sending the children and young people to school and keeping them there longer than in any other country?" Two reasons, one social and the other economic, are advanced.

In America, because anybody may and does go to college, a college degree becomes not a mark of distinction or achievement, but rather "establishes the proposition that there is nothing wrong with me; one is perfectly normal. This is a highly desirable propositino to

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Hon. W. T. Dauphinee, Minister Dr. R. D. Howland, Deputy Minister establish. But it is perhaps more important that only through the acquisition of a degree can one beat the various combinations in restraint of trade that use the educational system for their own ends." Reference is then made to the "unit" concept of credits for transfer from one educational level to a next higher one and to occupational groups such as accrediting agencies in medicine, dentistry, embalming, etc., which control access to their groups by setting up standards and requirements.

The vocational nature of education in the United States has its origins in the fact that for many years the country was underdeveloped. The need for scientific and technological education was great and those who acquired such an education usually achieved economic success. Dr. Hutchins raises a basic question when he asks if there should be one sort of education for an underdeveloped country and another sort for a developed society. He goes on to ask if there is no education that is good for everyone, everywhere, at all times—or must the circumstances and immediate needs of a society determine the educational goals and ideals to be upheld? happens when the circumstances change? Both the United States and Japan passed from an underdeveloped to a highly developed state in approximately the same period of time. During this period of change both countries stressed technological advance and productivity and the educational systems of both nations were organized accordingly. The task of developing a nation made the aim of a liberal education, of helping people learn to think for themselves and to think about those things which are ultimately most important for their happiness, and that of society, seem theoretical and remote."

That education in the United States should be vocational is absurd on two counts. Earning a living in the United States is easy for its resources and expanding productivity are phenomenal, without parallel in history. The major question in the United States is not how to become rich and powerful, but rather how to use riches and power. Vocational, scientific, or specialized education of any form

cannot answer this question.

On the second count, the nature of American society tends to render most vocational and specialized training futile. The population of the United States is fluid, a population in motion geographically, socially, and technologically. "Any system of education that is based on the notion that the student will, throughout his life, remain a member of the same economic group, work at the same trade, or live in the same place, is bound to be mistaken... Pupils trained as automobile workers in Detroit end up in the oil wells (fields) of Texas or the canyons of Wall Street. Pupils trained to work on certain kinds of machines find that they have been outmoded by the time graduation comes around. By that time, in fact, the whole industry for which they have been trained may have been swept away. the schools can engage in vocational training only with obsolescent teachers using obsolescent machines, it is not surprising that industry can do a better job of training in a shorter time than the schools can ever do."

Industry and labor certainly did not cause vocational emphasis in American education. Industry would prefer to do such training There is about the book a refreshing air of personality. A reader brought up on other accounts of this theory, even written from the same point of view, will find many points of novelty, which will strike him favourably or not according to circumstances. The non-analytical approach to the real numbers (involving proportional geometry) is a very striking point in question. Another (to American readers) will be the discarding of l.u.b. (in favour of sup.) for what European readers since the time of Goursat and W. H. Young have generally known as the upper bound of a set. (This gains the reviewer's definite approval).

In other respects the book carries out its aim effectively. Misprints and slips are rare. The printing and general set-up of the book are good, an excellent achievement in a work involving much detailed symbolism. But faults of typography such as the breaking up of symbols at the ends of lines and the unhappy use of a solidus strike the eye awkwardly and militate against readability. Regarding minor points of mathematical style (which might clarify themselves with more careful reading) there seems to be some ambiguity as to whether or not infinity is allowed as a number, or whether an endpoint of a closed interval is an interior point. Should sets of points and sets of sets be accepted in the same footing without question or comment? The mixture of the naive and critical views on the multiplicative axiom (and elsewhere) appears to be deliberate, but it is a little disconcerting until the reader is alive to the possibility of scepticism on such matters.

On a light note, it would appear (p. 11) that the author has miscounted (by one) the number of decimals of Pi commonly known! (The reviewer considers trivial errors like this the mark of a good

book).

Whatever in the above may be regarded as criticism amounts to saying that the book is not at the same time a Hobson, a Landau, a Borel monograph, a Hardy of 1908 ("talking to barbarians"), a Russell's Introduction to Mathematical Philosophy, a Principia, and an essay in mid-twentieth century topology. It is a readable and competent account of its declared field; and it should be welcomed by students and teachers.



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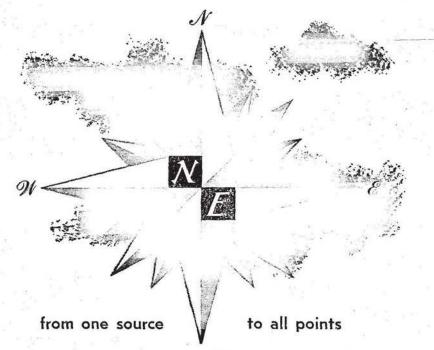
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itself and labor would prefer something better than a second-rate education for their children. Dr. Hutchins fears "that the educational system itself is responsible for its own vocational character. education was not murdered, it committed suicide." At the beginning of the century, liberal education was considered essentially classical. largely in the hands of Greek and Latin teachers. These teachers restricted themselves to instruction in the languages. "It was possible to spend years in the study of the Greek and Latin writers without discovering that they had any ideas." The teachers of Greek and Latin were not interested in ideas, they were drillmasters. As such they failed to convince students and parents of students that what they were doing was of any consequence. The result was a defeat for liberal education. Dr. Hutchins believes the American people were right about the "classical drillmasters" but wrong about liberal education. And it was certainly wrong about what it substituted for liberal education, "an infinite, incoherent proliferation of courses largely vocational in aim."

In his second lecture, Dr. Hutchins reviews some popular conceptions and notions of man and society as background for the question, "what should education in a modern, industrial, scientific democracy be?" Dr. Hutchins suggests that his sort of liberal education for all the people all their lives is indispensable in such a society. If indispensable, why was liberal education abandoned in the United States? Are liberal education and a modern, industrial, scientific society incompatible? Or was the development of the present educational system in the United States a by-product of mistakes, accidents, and misunderstandings?

Education is a secondary, dependent activity, depending upon what you want and what you can do. Since the resources and circumstances of the people of the United States could have preserved this indispensable liberal education, one might ask, "why did they

not want to?"

Apparently the people thought such an education was not worth while, or worth the time and effort, for a liberal education is hard work. Also the position of those upholding liberal education became philosophically untenable as favoring "an education that was antiquated, pre-industrial, pre-scientific, and undemocratic. Liberal education originated in Greece, a slave state, and hence appropriate only to a slave society. Therefore, if you favor liberal education, you favor a slave society. Similarly, liberal education was for aristocrats, who are not democratic. Hence liberal education is not democratic.

In the United States, those who wanted everybody to go to school "were and are convinced that the great body of the people is incapable of acquiring a liberal education. They view the advocates of a liberal education for all with suspicion, believing they are insincere and want the educational system to break down and end by limiting education to the few. "You thus have the remarkable paradox, that those who believe in the capacity of the people are called aristocrats and reactionaries, whereas those who doubt the capacity of the people revel in the name of democrats and liberals."

Dr. Hutchins then attributes much of the educational confusion

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of the United States to misunderstandings of the writings of John Dewey. Mr. Dewey believed in the capacity of people and in the liberal education of all the people. According to Dr. Hutchins, Mr. Dewey was a social reformer who wanted to use the educational system, through the study of occupations and social sciences, to change society, to bring about a just society. Dr. Hutchins goes on to analyze the conditions and the points of view held by educators whereby the study of occupations for social reform became distorted into vocational education and the understanding of one's environment. Dr. Hutchins believes Mr. Dewey had no intention of making adjustment to society a major goal, but rather urged the transformation of society toward an ideal of social justice. Since Mr. Dewey's aims were based upon the use of the educational system for reform, which Dr. Hutchins believes to be impossible, it is easy to understand how Mr. Dewey's philosophy became misunderstood or misapplied. "Education is a secondary, dependent subject. A society may set out to improve itself by improving the individuals who compose it, but this is not what Mr. Dewey means by a programme of social reform. Mr. Dewey means getting the society to adopt specific measures designed to remedy social, economic, and political injustices. cannot be done through the educational system, because society will not allow it." This may be seen by viewing what happened in the United States in the first half of this century. It was thought that everybody should be trained to be economically productive, to meet the needs of society. Mr. Dewey thought the great need was a just The United States got what it wanted, not what Mr. Dewey thought it should have, and "it got what it wanted because the educational system had to give it what it wanted."

The major cultural issue of the United States today is the use of leisure, for the American worker is acquiring more of leisure time in his work-a-day week. He has twenty hours more free time a week than his grandfather had. Mr. Dewey's philosophy, according to Dr. Hutchins, makes no provision for education for leisure, a point on which followers of Dewey would take strong exception to Dr. Hutchins. He goes on to state that the educational theories and practices advanced by Mr. Dewey are indefensible and "practically impossible." They have been distorted so that the "doctrine of social reform has been transformed into the doctrine of immediate needs or of adjustment to the environment" and "the doctrine of education through occupations has been transformed into vocational training for the sake of earning a living at the trade for which one has been trained. All that was liberal in Mr. Dewey's teaching has disappeared.

Liberal education was the education of rulers and of those who had leisure. Today, every man is a ruler for the "heart of democracy is universal suffrage." Everyman now has leisure and "if leisure, as history suggests, tends to be degrading and dangerous unless it is intelligently used, then everybody should have the education that fits him to use his leisure intelligently, that is, liberal education."

This education should be not only liberal, but also interminable, continuing throughout life, because of the very nature of man and of knowledge. Man cannot develop to his full potential during his

youth. He has to go on using his powers. "The things that we need most to understand are least intelligible to us in childhood and in youth. Aristotle's warning against letting young men listen to lectures on moral philosophy still holds good. It rests on the axiom that subjects that cannot be understood without experience should not be taught to those who are without experience. I do not depreciate the value of an introduction in childhood and youth to subjects that cannot be understood without experience. But an introduction is no good unless it is followed by something. To read a great play in childhood or youth and never read it again is never to understand it."

After having established to his satisfaction that the education for a modern industrial, scientific democracy should be liberal and of life long duration, Dr. Hutchins raises two concluding questions. "First, can this be done in under-developed and semi-developed countries, or must it be limited to advanced ones? Second, can it be done

anywhere?

In answering the first question, Dr. Hutchins then develops the proposition that even in countries striving to raise their standards of living, there is ample time to educate people liberally and to give them whatever vocational or technological training education might effectively furnish. He points out the experience of the United States which "finds itself with little justification for its educational system beyond the desirability of keeping young people off the labor market." In referring to India, with a parallel reference to Japan, he asks, "but would we be satisfied if India, in sixty years, became another Japan? And how can this be avoided if the educational system of India suddenly turns all its energies not into production of democratic citizens and intelligent human beings, but into the manufacture of technicians?"

The answer to the second question is one of the strongest parts of his argument. "Can liberal education for all people all their lives be instituted anywhere? Dr. Hutchins not only believes it can be instituted, he is convinced it must be, recognizing that it will be difficult to bring about. He also acknowledges that prevailing economic circumstances and social philosophies will have great influence on the outcome of an effort to establish liberal education as the necessary and desirable education for a modern, scientific, technological society. He refers to the pragmatism and the positivism which strongly color political and social philosophy in large areas of the world and to the Maxxism which dominates other large areas. Such circumstances and philosophies are not conclusive to the flourishing of a liberal education, for education is a secondary, dependent subject.

A frequently encountered objection to liberal education is that many students and citizens are not capable of coping with the "mental disciplines" involved. "It will be said at once that even with a perfectly straight philosophy there are certain things we cannot do. We cannot make silk purses out of sows' ears, and the more accurately we think about the nature and potentialities of silk, purses, sows, and ears, the more clearly we shall see the impossibility of this task." But Dr. Hutchins is not suggesting all people become great philosophers, historians, scientists, or artists. He is saying people should be able

to read, write, and figure, and understand the great philosophers, historians, scientists, and artists. Citizens of a democracy should "learn to think for themselves about the fundamental issues of human life and organized society. If anybody knows a better way of helping them learn to think for themselves about these issues, I hope he will present it. It seems to me that we must agree at least on this: the alternatives are democracy, with liberal education for all, and aristocracy, with liberal education for the few. If we choose the latter alternative, as Plato did, we may ignore, as Plato did, education of the masses. All the educational system has to do with them is to find some innocuous way in which they can put in their time until we are ready to have them go to work."

Individual differences among people are not overlooked in the proposed program of liberal education for all. Dr. Hutchins simply denies that individual differences is the "most important fact about men or the one on which an educational system should be erected." He believes that men are also the same and that the respects in which they are the same are more important than those in which they are different. This is in part demonstrated by the remorseless trend toward the political unity of the world, whether it be by conquest or by common consent. The unification of the world must be by consentand this can only be achieved by freedom of communication among all peoples. "The liberal arts are the arts of communication. great productions of the human mind are the common heritage of They supply the framework through which we understand one another and without which all factual data and area studies and exchanges of persons among countries are trivial and futile. They are the voices in the great conversation that constitute the civilization of the dialogue." The great need of society is an education that will enhance our common humanity, recognizing that individual differences mean that individual development will vary. We must all strive to make the most of our powers; the major difference among us is one of degree rather than of kind. Where every man in a democratic society is a ruler with leisure time on his hands, his great need is wisdom. The aim of liberal education is wisdom. tion is the deliberate pursuit of a common ideal. Education is the deliberate attempt to form men in terms of an ideal. A materialistic civilization cannot last.

Our task in North America, where we are the proud and prosperous inheritors of the great tradition of the West, is not performed by making this continent the arsenal, or the granary, or the powerhouse of the world. Our task is to preserve and develop the civilization of the Logos for all mankind.

With these remarks, Dr. Hutchins closed his lectures. No review or summary can do them justice. Dr. Hutchins' thoughts are tightly organized and full of important meaning which can only be fully appreciated by reading the original publication. There are points in the development of the arguments advanced in the lectures where the reader may take issue with Dr. Hutchins, for he makes some very categorical statements. In his attack on the unit-credit system of education (which certainly has been the cause of

many educational abuses), the role of the teacher and the degree to which the teacher can be trusted to bring to subject matter a relevancy-to-life outlook, are not mentioned—perhaps are overlooked. The concept that one goes to college to get a degree as a label for vocational competence, with little happening to the student in the process, is certainly a strong statement. Criticisms of the activity of accrediting agencies, such as those of certain professions, are justified. But in a complex society there must be criteria or standards whereby the public is assured of minimal adequacy in professional services. The fact that the United States and Japan simultaneously moved from an under-developed to a highly-developed state, and that the United States avoided certain pitfalls into which Japan fell is not adequately treated. It may be that religion and certain religious and democratic traditions saved the United States. This may well suggest liberal education was not completely abandoned in America.

One might also wonder if Dr. Hutchins doesn't place a heavy responsibility on Dr. Dewey and his followers. Horne and Bozley have had some influence on the American scene. Independent secondary schools and colleges are still doing business strongly emphasizing the liberal arts. To be sure, in such schools and colleges, the classical drillmaster has been almost completely eclipsed.

The fact that "society got what it wanted," which was not liberal education, represents a vital consideration. Dr. Hutchins masterfully establishes the thesis that a liberal education for all people all their lives is necessary for the democratic evolution of a technological society. He also clearly shows that education is "a secondary and dependent subject," incapable of being used as an instrument of social growth toward desirable goals—such as a just society. He then leaves the reader wondering how people can be encouraged to want something different—to want the necessary liberal education. Can education do nothing about this? Or religion? Or is education as secondary and as dependent as Dr. Hutchins suggests?

Other questions come to mind as one peruses the lectures. When Dr. Hutchins states there is time in our educational system for both the liberal arts and "such technical training as the educational system may properly be called on to give," is he acknowledging there is a place in the educational scheme for vocational training or orientation of some sort? Where he discusses individual differences, particularly with reference to mental aptitudes, he correctly emphasizes difference in degree to which people may understand or appreciate a great historian, philosopher, or scientist. But can these differences in degree be brought to a reasonably clear focus on the ideals toward which society must move? The concept of the common humanity of all people reveals dynamic implications for society which are themselves revolutionary. In economics, does the common humanity of man imply a Christian economics, based on the principle of mutual prosperity, is the only lasting prosperity?

These lectures are evidently challenging and thought provoking. Anything Dr. Hutchins says is likely to be stimulating and to arouse interest. The Marfleet series is enriched by this contribution.

The Theory of Functions of a Real Variable. By R. L. Jeffery.
Pp. xiii, 232. 1951 (Mathematical Expositions, No. 6,
University of Toronto Press.) \$6.00.

The aim of the series of Mathematical Expositions issued under the auspices of the University of Toronto is to present the material of various advanced topics in a way which emphasise fundamental principles but is prepared to sacrifice elaboration and exhaustiveness in the interests of readability. In such a subject as real variable, not treated extensively, readability is dangerous and Professor Jeffery has wisely aimed primarily at clarity, though keeping clear of undue

symbolism of the Whitehead-Russell type.

The book's main interest is in modern integration-theories—a field in which Professor Jeffery has done much work—and its purpose is to conduct the reader from the fundamentals of the number-system and sets of points through to Denjoy and other generalized integrals—with a timely addition, in the last chapter, of Stieltjes integrals, functionals and the brink of modern Schwartz distributions. The theories are developed mainly on the classical lines of Lebesgue. Though quite up to date the book generally steers clear of ultramodernity.

The chapter headings are: Introduction; Sets, Sequences and Functions; Metric Properties of Sets; The Lebesgue Integral; Properties of the Lebesgue Integral; Metric Density and Functions of Bounded Variation; The Inversion of Derivatives; Derived Numbers and Derivatives; The Stieltjes Integral. There is a comprehensive bibliography and indexes of subjects and authors. There is no glossary of symbols. There are some problems to all but the last two chapters; they are concerned for the most part with elucidations of items in the theory and to developments, including theorems not

given in the text.

Applications to extraneous matters—if we except the proof of the "ergodic" theorem-are entirely absent. The theory is treated frankly for its own sake. The readers for whom the book primarily caters—mainly beginning-graduate students of Canadian and American universities—are unlikely to have acquired beforehand any serious interest in such vague aims as generalizing the notions of integral without purpose, set or even vaguely indicated; and it would therefore seem doubtful whether the exclusion of applications (which might hint at possible objectives) is a sound policy. Students should not, and very often do not, need to be bought by pennies to study geometry or function-theory; but they normally do need some kind of incentive. Even the beauty of a piece of mathematical theory depends, like a piece of architecture, on its conceivable fitness for some desirable end; and one does not have to be a gross materialist to feel a need for a discernible end. So-called "applications" in mathematics can be used this way without descending into—shall we say? mere engineering. Modern integration theory has readily available-in such directions as Fourier series and "practical" dealings with discontinuous functions—applications eminently suited for this The addition of a few such applications could have enhanced the readability of the book.