Book Reviews

Maine Rubicon. By John Howard Ahlin. Calais, Maine: Calais Advertiser Press, 1966. Pp. xi. 224. \$6.95.

Here is an interesting sidelight on the American Revolution and the fate of Canada. The author is Professor of American History at Wheelock College, Boston, and has a summer home at Machias in eastern Maine, the scene of much of his book. It is a history of that region when it was an active outpost of New England, on the vague borderland of Massachusetts and Nova Scotia. (Nova Scotia then comprised the whole of the former French territories called Acadie, including what is now New Brunswick, part of Gaspé, and part of what is now Maine.) The inhabitants of Machias, like many Nova Scotians, were poor but enterprising Yankees who had migrated eastward before the American Revolution, mainly in the 1760s.

The title of the book is drawn from the decision of the down-east Yankees to join in rebellion against the British king and government. They were moved chiefly by the fiery tongue and pen of the Reverend James Lyon, a Presbyterian who had previously laboured amongst the Nova Scotian settlers at Truro. Many of the Nova Scotians were known to be antipathetic to the Crown, and James Lyon was certain that a small but well-armed force from eastern Maine could raise a revolt in Nova Scotia and bring that province into the continental group.

The British hold on Nova Scotia was notoriously weak. Most of their troops had been drawn away from Halifax in 1768 to support General Gage in Boston, and there they became part of the British army under siege by the Americans in 1775-1776. In short, Nova Scotia was wide open. However, George Washington bluntly refused to send troops or munitions there because he needed them at Boston. The Massachusetts General Court promised the downeast Yankees much, and did nothing. Angry Mr. Lyon wrote: "Some members of the Court consider the eastern country as a moth. If your honours believe the east to be a moth, dispose of it and give us the right of dominion. We shall then become an independent state ourselves, and we shall think of Nova Scotia as worth annexing to our dominion."

As a result a small and ill-equipped force from Machias entered Nova Scotia in the autumn of 1776. In Cumberland they were joined by about 300

Nova Scotians, and together they besieged Fort Beauséjour, the only manned British post outside of Halifax. The commander at Halifax had barely enough troops to fill St. Paul's at a church parade, but he sent them to the relief of Beauséjour, defeated the rebel force, and sent them flying out of the province. With them went a number of Nova Scotian refugees, men, women, and children, an odd little counter-flow to the Loyalist inpour from the older colonies.

So Nova Scotia, the fourteenth colony, remained British at the war's end, giving Canada a footing on the Atlantic coast from Gaspé to Halifax. Without that, Canada was neither defensible nor viable. Ironically neither the British nor the American high command recognised this until the matter came to the peace table. *Maine Rubicon* shows what might have happened if the zealots of eastern Maine and the Nova Scotian rebels of Cumberland had been supported by even a fraction of the American force that wasted itself in futile marches to Quebec and Montreal.

Liverpool, Nova Scotia

THOMAS H. RADDALL

The Historian and the Diplomat. Edited by Francis L. Loewenheim, with contributions by Herbert Feis, Francis L. Loewenheim, Arno J. Mayer and Louis Morton. New York and London: Harper and Row, 1967. Pp. ix, 213. \$6.95.

An unusually successful collaboration of academicians and practitioners in this short but meaty volume speaks highly of the editorial talent of Professor Loewenheim of Rice University. He enlisted the years of experience in the Departments of State and Defense of Herbert Feis, as well as the philosophical and ideological comments of Professor Mayer of Princeton University. Added to these are the penetrating and up-dating observations of Professor Morton of Dartmouth College, one of the more intellectual spirits, for a decade, in the Office of Military History of the U.S. Army. A fault that could be cited is a rather narrow nationalistic approach to the subject, but a study of historians and diplomats on a multi-national scale would undoubtedly involve a multivolume series. We can be grateful for the insights and the revelations in this account of the influence, in one country, of the professional historians upon the professional diplomats. Indeed the influence is much wider in its range, for the policy-making officials at the top-who are not likely to be professional diplomats-and the citizenry at the base of the pyramid of government are alike in the preoccupations and prejudices arising out of their concept of their nation's history. They are also alike in falling into the error of applying the lessons of past history to problems of contemporary times. For the present, momentous and sophisticated issues of foreign policy may not be susceptible to the solutions applied in earlier, more simple days. These are some of the threads that bind together the four essays that comprise this book.

Loewenheim starts with an exposition of the main streams of United States diplomacy during the country's existence, with pertinent references to the schools of thought advanced by historians, who interpreted the record of events. For the general reader these rich and numerous citations are mercifully placed in footnotes, so that they do not interrupt the chronological development of the writer's thesis. Dr. Mayer's chapter, which concentrates on the period of the first world war, goes far in explaining Woodrow Wilson's compromise of principle and his departure from the objectives of his famous Fourteen Points on the grounds of Wilson's comprehension of the need for a united front against Bolshevism. This defence of Wilson, abetted by the recently started series of publications of Wilson's papers by the Princeton University Press, may well open up a whole new evaluation of the merit of the Paris Peace Conference and the Versailles treaty.

Herbert Feis' contribution, true to his chosen profession of economist, emphasizes the commercial, fiscal, and trade negotiations during the period in which he was in government service, i.e. from 1933 to 1946. He adds personal reminiscences, the "I-was-there" accounts of troublesome decisions by Roosevelt, and Secretary of State Hull, revealing at the same time an astounding neglect of housekeeping of public (and secret) documents. Thus, the advent to office of President Truman was a traumatic experience for a man who was not privy to Roosevelt's plans and commitments but was thrust into the immediate necessity of meeting with Churchill and Stalin at Potsdam—to say nothing of the command decision regarding the use of the atomic bomb.

The final chapter is, properly, by Dr. Morton, who contributes "The Cold War and American Scholarship". This encompasses the scourges of the late Senator McCarthy, and the influence of historical thinking upon decisions pertaining to deterrent policy, détente with the Soviet Union, and the dilemmas and contradictions of present policy in Vietnam. Morton does not neglect the role of the Congress, or of public opinion, in their sometimes vain efforts to limit the actions which the political leadership of the country decides upon.

Altogether this is a revealing, thought-provoking summary of an important aspect of foreign policy. Analytical, disturbing, broadly based, illustrated

with homely and comic-tragic incident, it is a book that can be of great value and even inspiration to all observers of the American scene.

University of Maryland

WILLARD F. BARBER

Thomas Nuttall, Naturalist: Explorations in America, 1808-1841. By JEANETTE E. GRAUSTEIN. Cambridge: Harvard University Press [Toronto: Saunders of Toronto], 1967. Pp. xiii, 481. \$11.95.

Thomas Nuttall, a self-educated Yorkshireman and a printer by trade, became an amateur botanist and then, inspired by news of the scantily explored botanical field of North America, he crossed the Atlantic. Supported at first by his work as a journeyman printer, he soon made his mark as a botanist, although his interests extended also to minerals, fossils, geology, insects, molluses, and birds. He was among the first to collect in the Indian country of the untamed West, and he soon became known as one of the leading taxonomists not only of America but of the world. Because he was English, and the War of 1812 had left bitterness behind, he was always passed over by government expeditions and usually for university appointments, but this left him all the more free to explore new fields as long as he was willing to starve on pittances allowed him by richer enthusiasts who wished to get the credit and the collections won by his work and risk. That was a period of naturalists, not of specialists, and he must rank among the most acute observers in his wide field. His observations brought him to the brink of many of the great generalizations which transformed the biological field a few years later, but he seems to have theorized very little.

This conscientious biography is built around sources of unequal value. Nuttall's early years have had to be pieced together with such conjectures as "at this time, he must have" and "probably", which do not make for interesting reading. His botanical travels are usually more complete. He never wrote about himself, but he kept detailed journals, and, since the biographer is a competent and enthusiastic botanist, the resultant narrative should be of interest to any North American naturalist. The juggling of scientific names and the quarrels over precedence build up the human background of a science in which the living creatures were only beginning to be overshadowed by classification and the pursuit of credits. The picture of the naturalists of the time in their relations with Nuttall make up one of the most interesting features of the book. Besides such friendly and co-operative enthusiasts as Bartram, Audubon, Hooker, and Say, there were the greedy exploiters such as Barton,

the jealous such as Torrey, the malicious such as Gray, and such touchy and suspicious competitors as Raffinesque. The types are familiar in science today.

Probably no one but a naturalist will read this book for light entertainment, but it is both a memorial owed to a great collector and builder of North American natural history and a picture of those glorious lost days of "species-grabbing" in a continent then largely unexplored.

Wolfville, Nova Scotia

J.S. ERSKINE

The Eminent Tragedian, William Charles Macready. By Alan Downer. Cambridge: Harvard University Press [Toronto: Saunders of Toronto], 1966. Pp. xiv, 392. \$7.95.

What a typical Victorian Macready was! He was brought up—one might almost say made—in Birmingham, where his father was manager of the Theatre Royal. Ambitious for his son, this father packed his offspring off to a public school: Rugby, of course. There, the young Macready showed histrionic promise; but when his headmaster asked if he had thought of following in his father's footsteps, Macready insisted that his ambition was to go to the Bar. "Are you quite certain you should not wish to go on the stage?" persisted Dr. Inglis. "Quite certain, sir," replied Macready, "I very much dislike it, and the thought of it." His Micawber-like father, however, was heavily in debt, and so to help the family fortunes William Charles took to the boards. Alas, his youthful efforts could not keep his father out of prison. Macready retained his resentment of his profession to the bitter end; as he prepared for his final farewell performance in 1851, he kept repeating to himself, "I shall never have to do this again".

Throughout his career Macready never abandoned genteel aspirations. He remained forever fearful of debts like those by which his father had been dragged down. His domestic life was impeccably virtuous, quite impervious to scandal. In titling his book *The Eminent Tragedian*, Mr. Downer has immediately captured something of the man and the era. Unfortunately his thesis is overblown. Macready, he writes, "became in every sense of the word, the founder of modern theatre practice. Nearly every principle we now accept—of design, lighting, directing, costuming, as well as the training of actors—he put consciously into practice" (vii). In a summary sentence later, Mr. Downer invokes together Gordon Craig, Stanislavsky, and Adolphe Appia, asserting that Macready operated on "their principles".

If one asks what these principles are, the shallowness of Mr. Downer's

argument is exposed. "'Our aim,' said Macready, 'has been fidelity of illustration, to transfer his picture from the poet's mind, complete in all its parts and harmoniously arranged as to figure, scene, and action'" (252). From a generalization as vapid as this, there is no knowing how far back in time Mr. Downer might go looking for the only begetter of modern theatre practice. Macready is, in any case, a ludicrous choice, as the tone and vocabulary of the above quotation surely show. He is less relevant than Aristotle.

It is unfortunate that Mr. Downer has inflated his subject, for he has had access to material very revealing of the state of the English theatre in the early nineteenth century. Had he concentrated on fixing Macready firmly in time and place this would have been a better book.

Dalhousie University

ALAN ANDREWS

The International Law of the Great Lakes: A Study of Canadian-United States Co-operation. By Don Courtney Piper. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1967. Pp. xiv, 165, Index. \$6.50.

This slim volume, subtitled "A Study of Canadian-United States Co-operation", clearly demonstrates the use and flexibility of international law in situations where parties to agreements, formal or informal, show a marked intention to have these agreements succeed. Dr. Piper, who did the basic research for this book in preparing his Ph.D. thesis, analyzes the role of international law in Canada-United States relations with respect to the Great Lakes. Although the subject is narrow geographically, Dr. Piper rightly says that "the body of international law that pertains to the Great Lakes is considerable and impressive" (p. ix).

The legal topics discussed by Dr. Piper include the questions of definition and delineation of the Canadian-United States boundary, jurisdiction over the Lakes, fisheries problems, military uses of the Lakes, navigation, and use and control of water resources of the Lakes. The latter two topics take up almost half of the text. Numerous appendixes set out the principal treaties affecting the Great Lakes.

As in the case of international rivers, the resources of the Great Lakes could have been utilized by Canada and the United States in accordance with the positivist and territorialist principle whereby each country treated its portion of the Lakes "as a purely internal matter without any consideration given to the rights and interests of the other riparian state . . ." (p. 5). Fortunately, relations between the riparian states in this instance have been

excellent for more than a century and a half, and bilateral treaty arrangements have grown up to govern the situation. These arrangements were and are specifically tailored to fulfill the requirements and expectations of the parties.

Originally, the use of the Great Lakes was concerned only with the traditional rights of fisheries and commercial and military navigation. More recently, however, advancing technology and growing populations, particularly in the United States, have meant that the Great Lakes have been put to more intensive use. For example, the so-called Chicago diversion (i.e., withdrawal) of water from Lake Michigan has created complex problems relating to water levels on all of the Lakes and to hydro-electric resources on both sides.

Canada and the United States have so far been able to work out these problems on an amicable basis within the conventional rules that have been established between them over the years. One hopes, however, that the good relations will stand up to the ever-increasing American demands for natural resources to replace their depleting—one might even say wasted—resources.

Certainly, as Dr. Piper has concluded, "it would not be presumptuous to say that the effect of the region has extended beyond the North American continent" (p. 117) in the sense that other states have taken note of the success of the arrangements and that these arrangements have contributed to the progressive development of international law. In this sense, Canada and the United States have presented a good lesson to the rest of the world on how well international law can work when the states involved really want it to.

Dalhousie University

BRIAN FLEMMING

The Journals and Miscellaneous Notebooks of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Volume VI, 1824-1838. Edited by Ralph H. Orth. Cambridge: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press [Toronto: Saunders of Toronto], 1966. xxii, 422. \$12.00.

The sixth volume of Harvard's Belknap Press edition of Emerson's journals and notebooks contains mainly the quotation and translation books which Emerson kept between 1824 and 1838, to which he occasionally added in later years, and upon which he often drew for his sermons in the 1820s and for his early lectures and essays in the 1830s. This material is from the periods covered by volumes two through five. It may seem, therefore, that the current volume is fragmentary and of passing importance (at least at first glance), but anyone interested in Emerson's method can not help being interested

in the way in which he worked with quotations and aphoristic matter. Volume six is related, therefore, to the growth of Emerson's style as well as to the development of his ideas, proof positive that (in a favourite proverb of his) "Only an inventor knows how to borrow". His adaptation of homely sayings, "A world in the Hand is worth two in the bush", and his neat dovetailing of Plato and Aristotle, "poetry comes nearer to vital truth than history" (in Nature), are only two of the many examples in the entries in his "Savings Banks". Despite his free-wheeling use of the words of others (often unacknowledged), Emerson's notebooks contain many original aphorisms of penetrating insight: "Women have in themselves no measure of time: there was a clock set in Adam; none in Eve" (never used in a published essay); "To believe your own thought—that is Genius" (used twice in expanded form in "Ethics" and "Self-Reliance").

Besides Emerson's collections of quotations (six notebooks), volume six also includes lecture notes, translations from Goethe, excerpts from the letters and papers of his brother Charles, financial accounts, and miscellaneous matter jotted down over a period of years. Like its predecessors, this volume is very well edited. It supplements the portrait of Emerson drawn in previous volumes by revealing him in the day-to-day roles of brother, householder, lecturer, student of languages, and recorder of thoughts and expressions. In all these roles he remains the diligent New Englander searching for meaning and purpose for himself, his nation, and mankind on an ever-widening horizon which he was determined should include the whole of nature and learning.

University of Alberta

E. J. Rose

The Penetration of Africa to 1815. By Robin Hallett. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul [Don Mills, Ont.: General Publishing Co.], 1966. Pp. xxii, 458. \$11.35.

Hallett's subject, as the title states, is the gradual piecing together of European knowledge of Africa during the centuries following the Renaissance. At first, explorers had to rely upon the statements of Herodotus and Ptolemy with regard to the interior. The coast rapidly became known to the Portuguese, but they, a people of perhaps six millions, attempting to control the shores of half the world with ships and cannon little if at all better than those of their rivals, kept their discoveries a state secret which was made permanent when the Lisbon carthquake destroyed the archives. The Moslems' hatred of the Christians, born of the barbaric crusades and reinforced by fear of their growing power and commercial rivalry.

made an almost impassable barrier on the north, and the negro kingdoms, built on the slave trade, became nearly as jealous of their monopolies.

We have been brought up on generalizations about the wicked slave trade, of missionaries carrying the Bible in front of rum and the rifle, and of jealous imperialists struggling for the privilege of taking up the "white man's burden". Hallett has gone into this period in detail, man by man where possible, and has studied the explorer, his motivations, purposes, and accomplishment. Out of this mass of detail emerges a picture which puts the generalizations into perspective against the kaleidoscopic background of African history.

The narrative begins in West Africa, where Europeans other than Portuguese began to take part in the slave trade. Local tribes put up little resistance to the establishment of forts but effectively prevented explorations or expansions inland in the direction of the gold mines. Resistance was disorganized and sporadic, but the efforts of Europeans were equally inadequate and had to meet a greater enemy in the diseases that Africa, the longest inhabited continent, had most effectively built up.

In the late eighteenth century, scientific curiosity entered the field, and the most important discoveries were made with knowledge as the primary objective. The experience of intelligent explorers brought them independently to the conclusion that Africans would not accept any development or amelioration of conditions unless it was forced upon them by strong governments. At the point where this imperialism began, the story comes to an end.

As a study, this book is excellent. It is thorough and well-documented. When drives affecting Africa had their roots elsewhere, as in James Cook's explorations or the abolitionist and missionary movements, these are described at length. One result of so much material is an inevitable compression which gives a rather second-hand air to the narrative as compared to the more detailed and vivid descriptions of special areas or explorations as they have appeared separately. Probably few people will read this work for excitement, but none of those who read it will be likely to generalize again about the origins of imperialism.

Wolfville, Nova Scotia

J. S. ERSKINE

The Moral and Political Philosophy of David Hume. By John B. Stewart. New York: Columbia University Press [Toronto: Copp, Clark], 1963. Pp. x, 422. \$7.50.

Mr. Stewart, surely one of the most philosophical men ever to sit in the Canadian Parliament, has produced a commendably useful book in a doubtfully useful genre—the genre of secondary exposition or paraphrase of primary works themselves intelligible to anyone who can understand the paraphrase. Why should we read Mr.

Stewart's long chapters expounding the doctrines of Hume's Treatise when (to say nothing of the Treatise itself being quite readable) Hume has provided his own clarified and condensed account in the Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding? Mr. Stewart writes fluently; he selects and balances topics judiciously; he takes pains to be accurate as well as comprehensive. But almost everything that he says about Hume on belief, passion, moral duties, or religion, can be found plainly said by Hume, and found without much trouble (along with much else of subtle interest and value) in Hume's chief philosophical works, which are themselves in print, and likely to be familiar to whatever readers Mr. Stewart might reasonably hope for.

When he treats political topics proper, Mr. Stewart is dealing with less familiar parts of Hume's works; and he performs a service by linking Hume's observations in these parts with his conception of British history, and by bringing both into relation with such a persistently energizing feature of Hume's urbane and skeptical philosophy as his dislike of fanaticism in all its manifestations. (We might say, a dislike of ideologies, whether religious or not.) Even as regards these topics, a number of the sources drawn on, including many of the leading political essays, are in print, though Hume's histories are not and are probably not generally available.

As Mr. Stewart shows, Hume rejected as special pleading both the Tory ideology of divine right and the Whig ideology of the original contract. Hume insisted instead on treating political obligation (allegiance) as involving an "artificial" virtue (allegiance), founded on the general usefulness of government. Whether any particular government was sufficiently useful to deserve allegiance is a question that Tories or Whigs would have foreclosed in a doctrinaire way, as they would have questions about the merits of one dynasty versus another, or of different forms of government: monarchies, republics, and mixed constitutions. For Hume, all these questions are in principle open to current evidence about performance, though he inclines by temperament to believe that normally the evidence will support allegiance to established governments.

If Hume rejected the ideology of the social contract, he did not entirely reject the idea. One of the most interesting and valuable things in Mr. Stewart's book (and something that tends to propel part at least of the book outside the genre of paraphrase) is his account of Hume's complex, ambivalent, even hesitant treatment of the social contract.

Hume firmly held that a past contract was redundant as a ground for present allegiance, since this (as well as fidelity to contracts) could be grounded in current utility and indeed had to be. He was willing to allow something to the idea of a contract as a means of explaining what is at stake in the thought-experiment of comparing society without government to society with one. He was

even willing to allow something to the idea as a simplified model of how governments actually originate, though it is not (he would insist) a model that will work at all without presupposing moral enlightenment among the contracting parties, and some experience of society.

A state of nature with no vestige of social organization he always thought unhistorical, however; and as he grew older (becoming perhaps somewhat more an historian and somewhat less a philosopher), he placed more and more stress on the idea that government has evolved piecemeal from proto-political beginnings. Mr. Stewart suggests, furthermore (though without being entirely clear or consistent in making the suggestion), that Hume wished to apply the theory of the origin of government not (or not only) to the history of mankind, but to the continually repeated political initiation of individual men. As they emerge from childhood training within the family into the larger organized society that government improves and facilitates, men bring with them enough sense of justice and enough appreciation of government to motivate a contract should one be called for. The social contract for government maintains a footing in historical reality so far as men in effect are continually entering such a contract.

Dalhousie University

DAVID BRAYBROOKE

George Chapman: A Critical Study. By MILLAR MACLURE. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966. Pp. viii, 241. \$6.50.

The jacket announces that this book is "the first full-length critical study in English of all [Chapman's] works, poems, plays, and translations, considered in detail in relation to their genres, and in terms of [his] intellectual development." Dr. MacLure, who is Professor of English at Victoria College, University of Toronto, is to be commended for his persistence, and we are to be grateful for his diligent enquiry. Whether Chapman is to our taste or not can scarcely matter. Dr. MacLure has given us the references to books and periodicals where we may find dates, sources, and opinions on the works of this writer. Then he settles down to perform an act of courage for our sakes: he has read all of Chapman and his critics and come to serious conclusions about both.

The approach is stylized and consistent. Dr. MacLure sees Chapman as a learned poet of a learned age. Homer, Epictetus, Plutarch, and Ficino are the main sources of Chapman's thought; the Bible is a subsidiary and misapprehended one. Behind all these lies a medieval concern with law, order, degree, form, and rhetoric. Chapman's subjects were great and his approach grave.

The poet's basic concern is seen to be "that irreconcilable feud between Virtue and Fortune", which Dr. MacLure sees as a recurring topic in Renaissance art and thought, but which is, indeed, a much earlier concern of literature. The

heroic man, who is the centre of Chapman's art, is a private man seen in public context, whose course is tragic, yet glorious, as he passes from the realm of Fortune to that of Virtue. Fools are seen to live by wealth and power, the gifts of Fortune designed to ruin man; "learned" men live by wisdom. Man's heroic energy is seen as capable of transforming body and senses to soul, where the "free man's eminence" is seen in the time when he "who to himself is law, no law doth need, /Offends no law, and is a king indeed." Tragedy lies in the disproportion between substance ("spirit" and outer fortitude) and shadow (the world of Fortune) which the hero creates by his own choice. The hero's death is irrelevant to the world of Fortune. To him, dying, the glory lies in forgiving, finding his "native noblesse" in discovering the need of reconciliation, when he passes from the "penetrable flesh" into the realm of flame and fire.

The "absolute" man is placed against the world of policy, wealth, and corrupted law of an inverted society in which the "free" man's individual act is justified. A growing awareness of justice and piety marks the progress of the "inward" man, whose knowledge is seeking for instruction and comfort in a fallen world. Since Chapman sees the source of the "inward" knowledge of the free man in an eclectic blend of neo-Platonism, Homeric wisdom, and a generalized Christian theology, it is not surprising that he, and we, should find small comfort in the result. His men and women talk, Dr. MacLure expounds, and all fades away. Heroic energy, in Chapman's poems and plays, remains in our minds as moral seriousness. The Stoic Lonely Figure may be Chapman himself, as Dr. MacLure and Edwin Muir have suspected. He draws "his inspiration from secret and noble essences, and [is] surrounded by ignorants, backbiters, misunderstanders, savages, baying monsters." Chapman's purpose, as seen by Dr. MacLure, was to translate this man to the abstract realm of wisdom. His failure was in not creating, imaginatively, the process of transformation from flesh to soul.

Sound, scholarly, and judicious, this book makes its points with persistence and with sustained evidence for its approach. Dr. MacLure is at his best when he is analyzing the tragedies of Chapman and when he is assessing the worth of Chapman's translation of Homer. The effect is cumulative, and convincing. Chapman "grinds" his way through the translation, he is heavily uninspired, he is conceited and confused, he is undramatic, he sometimes writes obscure and virtually impenetrable sentences, but, as it is wise to remember, he can rise to magnificence. Keats did not remain unstirred, and we are grateful to be reminded of this.

"Latinisms and echoing ornaments" in Chapman may try our patience. But it is Chapman's imagery that Dr. MacLure should have looked at, to find why he is not of the company of Homer and Shakespeare and Marlowe. Chapman could make outrageous, absurd, visual images: he could speak of people who "backbite the highest"; he could picture how "the poor broode of Peace . . . in this Chaos, the

digestion / And beautie of the world, lay thrust and throwne" under Her; the whole world could be seen in an agony of horror over the approaching fall of Bussy, "her back-part upwards", cracking, "to see her parts so disproportionate." Dr. McLure, at times, has the same problem. He can talk of Chapman pulling over the "velvet hand of appeal the iron glove of self-justification", and can describe Chapman as "Herculean Virtue . . . crying out upon the whore Occasion whose forelock, stretched upon the wind of Time, always eluded his grasp but offered its silken rope to time-servers, chapmen, and politicians." The gravity of this book is disturbed, rather pleasantly, by such infelicities.

They do point to a fact. Inverted, perverted, or accepted, English literature from Beowulf to the present day has been "puritan"—concerned with innocence and the fall of man from purity. Chapman is an English moralist among English moralists. It is unwise to drub him for this. But he can certainly be proved to fail frequently in taste and in imaginative insight when dealing with great themes. Dr. MacLure has concentrated on Chapman's intent and passed general criticism of his work. Specific criticism deals chiefly with Chapman's power as a translator. It could be extended to Chapman's art, dramatic and poetic.

United College, Winnipeg

ALICE HAMILTON

Asian Bureaucratic Systems Emergent from the British Imperial Tradition. Edited by Ralph Braibanti. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1966. Pp. xx, 733. \$17.50.

Another of the excellent series published by the Duke University Commonwealth-Studies Center, this large volume analyzes the methods and systems of bureaucratic administration (in its non-pejorative sense) in India, Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon, Malaya, and Nepal—all former British colonics or protectorates. The emphasis is upon the modifications made in the various systems arising from the independence of these states.

If the British peoples carried one trait to their colonies, it was an unshakable faith in the perfection of their laws and forms of government; in twentieth-century terms, it would properly be referred to as the "British ideology". The tenacity and indelibility of this ideology is indeed remarkable, although, as the older directly-influenced generations retire, new values are coming to the fore. Civil servants as a body tend, however, to be almost immutable, and it will undoubtedly take more than a generation to alter the system of values beyond recognition and thus finally to "decolonize" these ex-colonies. So long as some discrimination is exercised in dispensing with the values of the ancien régime, the results should provoke much interest. This book sets out the background and analyzes the trends.

Four Renaissance Tragedies [Jephté ou le Voeu, by George Buchanan; Abraham Sacrifiant, by Théodore de Bèze. Didon se Sacrifiant, by Etienne Jodelle; Saul le Furieux, by Jean de la Taille]. With an Introduction and Glossary by Donald Stone, Jr. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press [Toronto: Saunders of Toronto], 1966. Pp. xxx, 40, 53, [40], [53].

The Department of Romance Language and Literatures of Harvard University has performed a conspicuous service by making available these four plays in reprint form. They are primary evidence of a formal evolution in the French theatre in the sixteenth century. On the one hand these plays look back to the classical forms of antiquity and to the Biblical subjects of the medieval drama; on the other they anticipate the plays of Corneille and Racine. This book should be particularly appreciated by students of the Renaissance theatre.

Canadian Books

Selected Poems, 1940-1966. By Earle Birney. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1966. Pp. xii, 222. \$5.00.

In this Centennial year perhaps Earle Birney's Selected Poems marks a more fitting celebration of Canada's hundredth anniversary and coming of age as a people than the more official recognitions. For it stands squarely opposed to all the usual yardsticks of advancement and progress. In the face of the huge machinery of conformity—the batteries of politics, business, and mass communication—constantly at work shaping and transforming taste and opinion, his is one lone, small voice that refuses to be intimidated. What the present day calls progress, he calls retrograde; what it sees as improvement, he sees as corruption; what it takes for efficiency, he designates as sterility. He is not coy or retiring about his position; he minces no words, employs no circumlocutions. He leaves the reader in no doubt as to where he stands: what's wrong is the color/ horseshit ochre everywhere; on the skull of a hill/ 3 Manhattan-size stacks of phallic Calvary/ ejaculating essence of rotted semen | straight up mass sabotage at Cape Kennedy; the damned are all over; our destinies fixed but our seats adjustable; we lie like lambs in the lion of science; grown-up children scribble the smoke of transient trains and chalk aimless graffiti of jet planes. In the face of public assurances on all sides that humanity is entering a bright new age of hope and fulfillment, for those of us who feel in our bones that something is wrong, perhaps the gentle reader can understand that such words offer some kind of satisfaction.

There is not one poet in this book, but many different ones. Mr. Birney's styles, rhythms, and techniques take in pretty much the whole gamut of possibilities

for poetry-from the tightly-knit ballad and sonnet to the most trenchant experiments of typography and syntax—but what finally confers on the book an abiding coherence and unity is the singleness of outlook that marks all its pages. Most of the poems are devoted explicitly to his social preoccupation, and for those that dwell on more personal matters this concern is never very far away. Whether it be travelling as tourist through foreign lands, observing the development of his own country, or watching the lovers on Saturday afternoon, the relation of man to the contemporary ethos is what gives this collection of disparate styles and subjects a unifying personality, imparts to it a coherent ambience. Wherever Mr. Birney looks he sees the forces of modernity placing the cold hand of death on the old natural comity of human existence, whether it be in personal relationships or the harmonies of soul man once derived from the land, the sea, and the heavens. For, whatever the gains of the world of science, technology, business, advertising, politics, speed, efficiency, and steel, the deprivations it has imposed on life and the debilities it has laid on the soul far outweigh them. He points constantly and consistently to the contradiction of what would seem to be the legitimate human interests of happiness and fulfillment by the vulgarity, vacuity, sterility-and what would appear to be the wilful plain foolishness-of contemporary purposes and aspirations.

Mr. Birney's poems tend to lie much more on the truth side of things than on the art side of things. By art is not meant simply the external forms of verse by which people usually distinguish poetry, but rather those correlations of form and association by which the poem casts its shadow on the deepest preserves of the psyche and gives them substance—that third dimension of crystal structure particular to the words of the poem and to no other. However much one may be moved by the words of a Birney poem, there are very rare occasions when one feels the entire work has an immutable "rightness" and inevitability to it; in most cases one can think of a number of alternate expressions that would have made substantially the same point. This is only to say it has all the best qualities of prose that go under his management to make a kind of poetry. To illustrate from this volume:

IRAPUATO

For reasons any brigadier

could tell

this is a favorite nook for

massacre

Toltex by Mixtex Mixtex by Aztex Aztex by Spanishtex Spainishtex by Mexitex by Mexitex by Mexitex by Texaco So any farmer can see how the strawberries are the biggest and reddest in the whole damn continent

but why

when arranged under

the market flies

do they look like small clotting hearts?

This contains both the best and the worst Birney qualities. There is the unanswerable condemnation of the current socio-historical trends with a very moving compassion for the particular kind of human suffering involved in the closing lines. But the "Toltex... Texaco" passage clearly breaks the fabric of the rest of the poem. It is a bit precious, overdone, out of a different context of sensibility from the other lines, and not even a very good joke; just a bit too cute and dandyish for the heart-rending overtones of the treatment of the subject in which it operates. It makes good rational sense, but does not have the depth and inevitability of good poetry. It illustrates the typical unevenness of feeling and attitude in many of Mr. Birney's poems. These poems exhibit almost a too fertile inventiveness, one that rarely for very extended passages is brought under the final governance of a unifying imagination or controlling metaphor. This contrived quality is apparent in the following lines from "North Star West" describing flight in a modern airship:

The seated Fates in the ship's brain whisper each other murmur a hundred leagues to the airport Olympus Eyes read the pulse of a heart powered to a continent's leap hands touch and tauten nerve-ends of flight A forty ton bubble we rise.

I like the "forty ton bubble" very much. In the other lines an analogy is pressed that does not arise from itself or the poem as a whole.

Mr. Birney frequently resorts to a technique of shock in his poems, and he can often employ this most difficult of devices for very moving and touching effects. But by its very nature, he then must pay the price of the poem's unity and coherence. This aspect of his style is a natural outgrowth of those tendencies toward fragmentation that have just been mentioned. One gets the impression that he uses it in part as an attempt to wake his fellow mortal from his self-satisfied lethargy. He employs shock effectively, as a creative device, in many places, but in none better than at the end of "Late Afternoon in Manzanillo". Against the background of the not very genteel picture of Latin squalor, stagnancy, and hopelessness, the poem ends with a picture of nubile adolescence:

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Maria turns the dominoes and rhythmic

prays

that the Dark Virgin

with her hand

will cool

this new pain

surging in her crotch

Of the five sections in the book, I find the one containing the South American poems and the one on Canada itself the two best. Among the most completely realized poems, besides the two quoted, are "Hot Springs", "Sestina for Tehuantepec", "Memory No Servant", "Flying Fish", from the Spanish section; and of the Canadian poems, "From the Hazel Bough", "The Ebb Begins from Dream" (a truly amazing performance), "Way to the West", "North of Superior", "Winter Saturday", "First Tree for Frost". Mr. Birney is best when writing of his own country, and it might be wished that he never moved out of it. He is particularly good in his feeling and empathy for the prodigious manifestations of nature it contains and the concomitants of man's smallness and insignificance beside them. Many of the poems, however, in these sections as in others, are over extended, and some are little more than self-indulgent reminiscing about experiences that have little larger application.

Mr. Birney advises us in his introduction (where it is almost always in bad taste to fence with one's critics) that he write his poems not for others "but out of compulsion to talk to another man within me, an intermittent madman who finds unpredictable emblems of the Whole in the trivia of my experience. . . ."This subjective emphasis appears to be partially the cause of what I feel are the shortcomings of his work. Mr. Birney is perfectly at liberty to forget the demands and discip"nes of Art, but then he should remember that Art may arrogate to itself the same privilege and forget him. That he has failed to keep within the narrow confines of doctrine is the reason we as readers are grateful to him for the good number of lasting accomplishments that grace this volume.

Bear River, Nova Scotia

THEODORE HOLMES

The Church in the French Era. By H. H. Walsh. Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1966.
Pp. xiv, 221. \$7.50.

The appearance of this book, volume one of A History of the Christian Church in Canada whose general editor is Dr. John Webster Grant, is particularly appropriate at the time of the celebration of Canada's Centennial. The initiative for the under-

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taking was provided a number of years ago by the late Lorne Pierce, who believed that the Ryerson Press, of which he was editor-in-chief, could most suitably contribute to the centenary observance, when it arrived, by issuing a definitive study of the place of the Christian church in the history of Canada. He was also largely instrumental in the formation of the interdenominational Canadian Society of Church History. Dr. Walsh, Professor of Church History at McGill, author of The Christian Church in Canada, and a leading authority for Canadian ecclesiastical study, is a member of this Society. So too are Dr. Grant and Dr. John S. Moir, the authors of the two subsequent volumes to appear in the series, and, indeed, this reviewer.

To many English-speaking Canadians the history of the establishment of Roman Catholicism in Canada, especially in Quebec, should provide both information and enlightenment. Dr. Walsh writes interestingly of the early missions to the Indians, of the Huguenots and Catholics in Acadia, of the internal difficulties among the religious orders in the new territory, and of the episcopates of the six Bishops of Quebec before the British Conquest, placing special emphasis upon those of Laval and Saint-Vallier. The lives of those remarkable women in the early history of New France, Marie Guyart, Jean Mance, Mme. d'Youville, and Marguerite Bourgeoys, are appropriately given their place in the story. Inevitably the reader who finds this book of interest will be drawn to seek, if he can, materials in the Jesuit Relations, the writings of Champlain, biographics of some of the principal figures of the time, and the works of Francis Parkman. More than this, it should be sufficiently clear to any reader that Canadian church history cannot be adequately understood apart from Canadian political, economic, and literary history.

It is to Dr. Walsh's credit that he rejects the "patching-on" view of church history, and that he writes fairly and sympathetically. Perhaps the book emphasizes unduly a distinctive Canadian combination of techniques in the writing of this country's church history, as well as indicating such an early national awareness among the Canadian clergy, as distinct from the French, in these years. Even if this is so, this study may prove to be of future service in another century for the writing of the history of the development of Canada's national identity.

University of King's College

J. В. Ніввіття

Allied Intervention in Russia, 1918-1919, and the Part Played by Canada. By John Swettenham. London: George Allen and Unwin [Toronto: Ryerson Press], 1967. Pp. 315. \$9.00.

This deceivingly smallish-looking book is not a series of pleasant anecdotes connected by a light-weight text while the birds were chirping in the garden and the soup was on the stove. To the contrary, it is a serious book by a serious author who

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has tackled an exceptionally complex subject with tenacity and insight. Not too many Canadians know much about the various aspects and ramifications of the Allied intervention in Russia during the years 1918-1919, and it might be profitable for many readers to refresh their memory by reading first of all the excellent summation supplied in the last chapter.

Revolution in Russia was overdue, of course, and more than justified, but it might have been directed into more civilized channels had the White Russians conducted their operations in accordance with the principles of the art of war, and had they worked for sound reform instead of trying to restore the status quo. And Allied interventions might have succeeded beyond merely relieving the Western Front had they been concerted by a single command and not—as they were at times—the pursuit of special interests by individual major participants.

To the Communists—unremittingly striving for world domination—anything helpful is "moral", anything unhelpful "immoral". But no heed will be paid to the tremendous lessons once again made so clearly apparent, for politicians today are interested only in votes, and ever follow the path of least resistance. Moreover, the Communist apparatus is always poised to commit the propaganda cohorts from long-haired kids to cyanide—dispensing pundits on the air.

Canadian participation in the intervention was not large. All told some 6,000 men were involved, and the reader learns without surprise that it was hamstrung by political dissension at home. A small Canadian party operated in the southern areas; a more substantial contingent participated in the important operations at Murmansk and Petamo; a Canadian artillery brigade performed very well in the Archangel sector; and a Canadian force in Siberia, willing and able to fight, was mainly confined, as a result of the fiasco of the White Russian operations as well as for others reasons, to garrison duty at Omsk and Vladivostok.

Some of the adventurous young Canadians who "were there"—and later became staid and successful citizens—had rather colourful stories to relate, but there is no room for such matters in the exact and precise narrative prepared by a staff officer turned historian. John Swettenham's work is sound and interesting and adds significantly to his stature as an author.

Ottawa A. G. Steiger

Vimyl By Herbert Fairlie Wood. Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1967. Pp. 186. \$5.95.

On Easter Monday, April 9, 1917, the powerful Canadian Corps stormed and took Vimy Ridge. For the first time all four divisions of the Corps attacked together and the assault, on a position considered by the Germans to be impregnable, was the most economical and successful of any carried out by the Allies up to that time. In his intensely readable account of this attack, Wood devotes more space to the

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opposing sides, to personalities and the detailed preparations, than to the battle itself. He is right in that. The plans and the preparations are what gave us Vimy Ridge.

Credit is given to British staff officers, and rightly so. At the time, the Corps was commanded by Byng. With his senior staff officers, notably Radcliffe and Farmer, he drew up the plan. These men were receptive to new ideas, many of which had struggled up from the lower levels during the costly fighting on the Somme. Self-preservation is perhaps man's strongest instinct, and after the slaughter which marked the Somme battles there was an obvious need for better methods. Two Canadians had great influence on the final plan. Currie suggested infantry tactics that were more intelligent; McNaughton, the newly-appointed counter-battery officer, the better use of guns. Byng had the good sense to incorporate their ideas in his final plan.

Wood describes the preparations in some detail—the construction of roads, railways, tunnels, the burying of telephone lines and the accumulation of supplies. He goes into the briefing of the troops, the rehearsals, and the gathering of intelligence. The preparations made a worthy contribution to the ultimate victory, but this reviewer would have liked to see more pointed reference to the artillery. True, the artillery gets its share of praise ("without the guns not much could have been accomplished") but this is blurred to some extent by the handing out of praise all around the lot—the engineers, signallers, service units, and so on.

Vimy was an artillery battle, just as Messines Ridge, later in the year, was an engineers' success. In neither battle could anything have been accomplished if the infantry had not seized the ground; but, as earlier fighting proved, you can have the best infantry in the world and they will fail if they cannot come to grips with the enemy. The explosion of mines under Messines Ridge knocked the Germans off balance until the infantry were upon them. The guns did the same for the Canadian infantry at Vimy, and though Wood says this he does not emphasize it sufficiently.

When the role of the artillery is considered in this battle, it will be seen that the better use of guns managed to achieve surprise despite the blatant preparations that warned the Germans of attack. Previously, at zero hour, the artillery had switched from the enemy front-line positions to defences farther back; thus the enemy had been alerted. At Vimy there was no slackening, and indeed no increased rate of fire, to give any warning. The preparatory bombardment, which drove the enemy underground, continued while a moving barrage conducted the Canadian infantry across no man's land as far as the entrances to the deep dugouts, where the defenders were sheltering, and beyond. Not only this, the barrage itself was so carefully timed that it achieved fire combined with movement, very different from the Somme where fire had preceded movement. At the

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Somme, especially on the first disastrous day, in the interval between the lifting of the bombardment and the approach of the infantry, the German machine gunners had emerged from their dugouts to mow down the attacking troops in swaths. It was different at Vimy Ridge.

Then again, at Vimy, thanks to the availability of shells with a specially designed fuze, the belts of defensive wire had been cut by the artillery. Thus the swift attack was not slowed by impenetrable wire, and in that alone the guns made an enormous contribution. Finally, through scientific methods, the positions of the German batteries were known to a very large extent. Thus the enemy's guns could be shelled ("neutralized") whenever the infantry were exposed, especially when they were advancing from one objective to the next and were thus in the greatest danger. This was the first battle in which counter-battery methods were employed on any comprehensive scale, and their vital importance was recognized from that time on. At Amiens, the most decisive battle of the war, counter-battery and the use of tanks in mass brought a resounding victory.

Colonel Wood goes some way towards exploding the theory that machine gun barrages (the use of these weapons in an indirect fire role) were effective. Sometimes they were, but only where the contours were such that the bullets could almost graze the ground over long distances. Otherwise the bullets merely pricked the air, the danger space was short, and vast amounts of ammunition were expended to little purpose. As a direct-fire weapon, against targets of opportunity, the machine gun was the master killer of World War I, but in the indirect role well-placed shells could provide a much more effective curtain, and more economically. Indirect fire, Wood tactfully says, was seldom used by machine gunners in the Second World War.

It has often been said, as Wood points out, that "Canada became a nation" at Vimy. This cliché gives the impression of smoke-grimed troops, gazing out across the Douai Plain from the crest of Vimy Ridge, slapping each other on the back and saying, "We're a nation now!" Wood does not say that; he says Vimy "marked a point in Canada's progress towards nationhood", which is a more careful statement and more correct. It will be remembered that Sir Robert Borden had been working towards autonomy for some time before the Vimy battle. In a New Year's Message to the Canadian people. Borden announced that the target Canada would aim at, commencing on January 1, 1916, was half a million men in uniform. Why this enormous commitment? Because, as he wrote to Sir George Perley four days later, a powerful contribution by Canada would carry her a long step forward on the road to autonomy: "It can hardly be expected that we shall put 400,000 or 500,000 men in the field and willingly accept the position of having no more voice and receiving no more consideration than if we were toy automata."

Canada could not provide these numbers, but nevertheless her unstinted war

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effort—and Borden's tactics—paid off. In March, 1917,—almost three weeks before Vimy—Borden attended the first meeting of the Imperial War Cabinet at the invitation of the British; he had protested that British statesmen were taking upon themselves the framing of war policy without bothering to consult the Dominions. At these meetings Borden noted with satisfaction that "Great Britain presided, but the Dominions met her on equal terms"; it was Borden's own resolution that substituted the name "Commonwealth" for "Empire" after he had called for "full recognition of the Dominions as autonomous nations of an Imperial Commonwealth."

"There seems little doubt," the Canadian official historian of the First World War points out, "that Sir Robert confidently expected a creditable war effort by Canada to constitute a charter of full nationhood." At the end of the war it was obvious that Canada's war effort had been more than creditable. After the Armistice, Borden opposed the return of Canadian troops from Siberia (which Canadian public opinion demanded) because Canada's "position and prestige" would be impaired. Because of her position and prestige, largely earned by the magnificent Canadian Corps, Canada signed the Peace Treaties separately and was seated separately at the League of Nations. With that she was on the way to complete autonomy.

In these events, Vimy—though not the one decisive factor—had a place. Before the Easter battle the Canadian experience had consisted of mixed success and failure; at Vimy, and in every succeeding battle, there was no longer any failure and it was that record of unbroken success that helped strengthen Borden's hand. The turning point was Vimy, it was the watershed, and in that lies the significance of the battle. Herbert Wood has not lost sight of this in his fine account.

Herbert Wood died in May of this year. We shall enjoy no other books from his pen. This is a tragedy, for Vimy! is a good book.

Ottawa

JOHN SWETTENHAM

Canada at Vimy. By D. E. Macintyre. Toronto: Peter Martin Associates, 1967. Pp. x, 228. \$6.50.

Vimy Ridge. By Alexander McKee. London: Souvenir Press [Toronto: The Ryerson Press], 1966. Pp. 242. \$7.75.

The coincidence of the fiftieth anniversary of Vimy—"Canada's coming of age"—with the centenary of Confederation has naturally produced more than one appraisal or re-appraisal of this significant victory. The most authoritative recent separate and unofficial study is that of Colonel Wood, reviewed above by John Swettenham, formerly of the Directorate of History, Canadian Forces Headquarters. It keeps more closely to planning, strategy, and the long-range effect of



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the successful assault, and is well supplied with illustrations, maps, and a bibliography. But it is not lacking in a human attitude toward the lower ranks or in frank criticism of the higher. While for their part, the two books here briefly noticed are by no means lacking in exact description and documentation, so that there is much necessary repetition of the basic facts, each has its own approach, and the three together give complementary material and judgments on a turning-point in Canadian history that is of interest alike to the military historian, the old soldier, and the general reader. The "coming of age", as Mr. Swettenham has rightly noted, was the beginning not the completion of maturity; but it was a beginning that became manifest in world history as well as in Canadian sentiment.

Lieut. Col. Macintyre's book combines the human approach of the amateur with the skilled analysis of the staff officer who—to his own modest surprise though not to that of his superiors—was rapidly advanced from a young and inexperienced civilian volunteer to responsibilities of organization that continued after the war. His last four chapters deal with the first pilgrimage, with the design construction and unveiling of the memorial, and with Vimy as a physical and spiritual memorial after the Second War, and are followed by an "epilogue". He writes chiefly from his own diaries and letters, preserved by his wife, so that his book is in a sense the story of one man's war; but it has also not only the accuracy of the officer who knew at all times where he was, where his troops were, and where the enemy was, but also the humour and humanity of a Henry V who before Agincourt could provide "a little touch of Harry in the night".

Alexander McKee also writes as a professional—but as a writer and reporter, not himself as a soldier. His book is well illustrated, and perhaps because he is a layman his end-papers will provide the clearest of all the maps for the common soldier and the common reader. He gives the basic facts from official histories, but beyond that his documentation and personal evidence are of a different kind: a massive collation of eye-witness testimony from diaries, letters, and personal interviews "supplied by more than 100 people", of various ranks and units, as well as many official (both English and German) and unofficial histories. In many ways, the book recalls the documentary history of the First War—with which in fact it has some connection—recently produced by the CBC.

While emphazing with natural pride both the initiative and the disciplined courage of the Canadians and—with due recognition of the professional and the personal worth of the "Imperial" General Sir Julian Byng—the growing authority and independence of General Currie and his division and brigade commanders, all three books make clear the stupidity (and the recognition of stupidity) of trench warfare as it was practised from 1914 to 1918: the mud, the lice, the "iron rations", the foot-slogging, the cold and the wet, the rats, the barbed wire, and the gas—all "to gain a little patch of ground/That hath in it no profit but the name."

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The most bitter of all the ironies that emerge from the history of Vimy is that this victory released Douglas Haig from mounting criticism of his obstinate stalemates and allowed him, following the later advance (engineered, though not fought, largely by Canadians) over a second ridge at Messines, to proceed to the ultimate horror of Passchendaele.

Dalhousie University

C. L. Bennet

Fools of Time: Studies in Shakespearean Tragedy. By Northrop Frye. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1967. Pp. viii, 121. \$4.95.

Fools of Time: Studies in Shakespearean Tragedy is a series of three papers, presented at the University of Toronto as the Alexander Lectures for 1965-6. The first lecture, entitled "My father as he slept: The tragedy of order", deals principally with Julius Caesar, Hamlet, and Macbeth. The second, "The tailors of the earth: The tragedy of passion", speaks about Romeo and Juliet, Henry V, Coriolanus, Antony and Cleopatra, and Troilus and Cressida. The third "Little world of man: The tragedy of isolation", deals with some twenty plays and Dante. Othello, Lear, and Timon of Athens are the plays intended chiefly for discussion.

Tragedy, for Dr. Frye, finds its ultimate meaning in the re-enactment of experience, within time, of the contract between man and "nature"; death shapes the experience; and the mood of tragedy is concerned with a man's feelings about the annihilation of experience in, for him, the conclusion of time. The two great tragic conceptions of "being" and "time" involve the heroic struggle of man, separated from his social context, confronted with nature. What is man, in this nauseating and absurd vision? Is there any force that desires the destruction of this man of tragic vision?

Dr. Frye goes to Nietzsche's The Birth of Tragedy for the idea of Apollonian and Dionysian views of social order. He sees the Apollonian as the "sense of the limited and finite" in man, the Dionysian as the "sense of infinite heroic energy . . . where the individual is not assigned a place in the scheme of things." Though he sees these as central insights into a critical theory that we must reckon with, he is not always consistent in following the ideas through. In theory he sees ours as a Dionysian approach that cannot understand the Elizabethan Apollonian one; in practice, he sees the Shakespearean hero as a man whose infinite desires, good or evil, release a nemesis that shows itself as a moral or social force, beyond present time, concerned in human affairs.

Although Dr. Frye's terms, whether from Nietzsche or Blake, are unusual, the chief difficulty in the book lies not in the unusual but in the usual that has not been clearly presented. It tells us little to say that history's continuous action ties it more closely to fortune's wheel than does tragedy's "rounded action". At one

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place, Dr. Frye is saying that tragedy is linked to past time, lost ideals, and a strong ruler dead. At another place he can see that "time" in Shakespearean tragedy involves a swift present for a person alive, working his way to the next death, as in history, where nothing is ever permanently done.

Nor does Dr. Frye's idea of the three areas of conflict in "time" reveal much that is new. Disturbance of the social order, the collision of duty with passion, the social dismemberment of alienation all have been noticed before in Shakespeare. The newness may lie in the illustrations. Henry IV as a successful hero; Henry V as a man with a passion for France; Coriolanus as a man with a passion for Bellona, who fights a patrician army of occupation; these interpretations may interest producers of the plays. Even Shakespeare's heroes being "fools of time" (surely a misreading of words taken from their context in Sonnet 124) may be appealing at first glance. But these bright remarks cry out for more justification than Dr. Frye has given them.

Basically, the disturbing areas of this book involve both focus and fact. Dr. Frye's concern is to place trios of figures neatly opposite each other: the order-figure is contrasted with the tyrant; the rebel-figure with the traitor; the nemesis-figure, presumably, with various figures seen in isolation in society. In fact, the book is concerned with man at the mercy of fortune (seen as hostile) in time (undefined), or responding resolutely and spontaneously as an agent of nature (again undefined) to events in time.

Since "nature" and "fortune" are placed in antithesis, the basis for reading the book is removed, for usual medieval and Elizabethan concepts are either challenged or confused. If Dr. Frye were doing that—facing the problem of man's place in society within "nature"—something valuable might be gained. But unfortunately this book bears the signs of hasty writing, opinion, confusion, contradiction, and unfounded statements. Because he has given us so much more that was illuminating in the past, more is now expected of Dr. Frye.

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Political Parties and the Canadian Social Structure. By F. C. ENGELMANN and M. A. Schwartz. Scarborough, Ont.: Prentice-Hall of Canada, 1967. Pp. 227. \$3.95.

Aside from a host of articles on political parties and the party system, portions of more general political works, and a few accounts of particular parties, this critical area of political behaviour has been relegated to a secondary position behind the more institutional phenomena of the political structure of Canada. This initial work is therefore of significance as the first major attempt to provide a framework for examination of the relevant data. Professors Engelmann and Schwartz, though restricted by the limitations arising from the general lack of empirical data on the



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subject, have presented, by their exploration and analysis of the existing evidence, not only a comprehensive account but a study that should perform a heuristic function for future research.

Inasmuch as the authors wish to account for the causes of political parties and their effects on the Canadian political and social systems, the rationale for their partially extra-political concern rests upon the assumption that "the roots of Canadian parties are in Canadian society and our understanding of parties is dependent on an appreciation of the nature of that society" (p. 24, emphasis supplied). This could be said to be the basic assumption underlying the authors' approach, and like most assumptions it shapes, to a large extent, the theoretical framework that is constructed. Moreover, while the introductory chapter presents both a typology reminiscent of Maurice Duverger's classic Political Parties, and a systems model borrowed mainly from the work of the American theorist, David Easton, the assumption of social causation facilitates giving paramount importance to the systems model in the chapters that follow. The approach of the systems analyst, therefore, enables Professor Engelmann, the political scientist, to explicate the reciprocal influences of parties and other political forces on each other, while at the same time it permits Miss Schwartz, the sociologist, to incorporate the relevant socio-economic variables.

Throughout their investigation of the effects of the structural differentiation of Canadian society, the authors present their major theme—that the two crucial dimensions shaping the structures and functions of parties are the "regional-ethnic" and the "regional-economic". Besides restricting the rise of "national" parties from other sources, such as class, the authors point out that the result of this dichotomy of forces has been to create the "aggregative" style of the two major parties, while simultaneously contributing to the proliferation of minor parties, parties more concerned with articulating regional interests or demands.

Some general questions might be raised. First, the examination of "minor" parties vis-à-vis interests groups, viewed within the national system, poses the question of whether parties not only articulate but aggregate interests and demands. The actual role of the minor parties creates some difficulties for the authors' delineation of the Easton model, if not in general theory, at least in their practical application of it to the Canadian experience. Secondly, one wonders if enough attention is given to the question of decision-making outside of the party arena, e.g., in Dominion-provincial conferences, and to the resulting problems that these changes create for the party system.

For the interested observer of Canadian politics this book will be found informative and clarifying; for the student of politics it will be useful both for its examination and for its systematic analysis.

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