

the head of the civil service, the Permanent Secretary to the Treasury, was responsible to Cabinet through the Prime Minister. This strengthened the place of the Cabinet as an institution and the Prime Minister's hand in Cabinet. The Secretariat's editorial control over Cabinet documents circulated to the departments also contributed to a reduction of significant former levels of departmental autonomy. At the political level too, the new era of records-keeping had major effects. The mismanagement of government documents which resulted in leaks to the press or politicians (such as Winston Churchill during the debates on defence policy in the 1930s) could embarrass a ministry and shape political events.

Custody of Cabinet records consequently acquired the utmost importance. The Secretariat countered constitutional questions about its legitimacy and consolidated a place in Cabinet administration by becoming the custodian of Cabinet records. Naylor finds little to commend the custodial regime Hankey helped build. It cloaked public administration in the sort of excessive secrecy which resulted in dubious application of the Official Secrets Act in 1934 to prosecute Edgar Lansbury for unauthorized use of Cabinet documents in a biography of his father, George Lansbury, a former Cabinet minister. That George Lansbury was not charged for making the documents available to his son illustrates the highly selective application of records policies. Indeed, only former Cabinet ministers were granted permission to use Cabinet materials. Historians and other interested persons were not allowed more liberal access to records created after 1916 until the Wilson government opened Cabinet records which were more than thirty years old. Naylor concludes that this restrictive regime (which in all essentials still governs access to Cabinet records in Britain) has adversely affected discussion of British public affairs. Publication of the Crossman diaries in 1975, while bringing wider freedom to former Cabinet ministers to disclose information in Cabinet documents, did not affect the terms of access to those documents for academics and the general public.

A Man and an Institution is an important book for archivists. Naylor demonstrates that study of a major records-keeping administration yields valuable information about the variety and quality of the records, institutional developments, and public affairs. These findings are obviously the basis of informed archival custody of such records; at the same time they invite archivists to pursue their own knowledge of the history of records-keeping systems toward similar contributions to the study of government and society.

Tom Nesmith

National Archives of Canada

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The Science of Social Redemption: McGill, the Chicago School, and the Origins of Social Research in Canada. MARLENE SHORE. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1987. xviii, 340 p. ISBN 0-8020-6645-3.

Marlene Shore's *The Science of Social Redemption: McGill, the Chicago School, and the Origins of Social Research in Canada* follows the history of the social sciences at McGill University from the founding of the Department of Social Study and Training in 1918 to the demise of the interdisciplinary approach to the social sciences by the start of the Second World War. No mere institutional or departmental history, this book is an

ambitious attempt to arrive at a social and intellectual history of the interwar period through the study of a single academic discipline. Unfortunately, Shore does not succeed in her ultimate goal and some of her conclusions fall disappointingly flat. What remains, though, is a prodigiously researched study of an important aspect of the growth of Canadian intellectual life in the 1920s and 1930s.

The growth of the social sciences in Canada, and of sociology in particular, was the direct result of the ideal of service that existed in Canada during the First World War and the zeal for social and economic reconstruction that followed it. The popularity of social reform joined with the cult of scientific efficiency in the formation of the Department of Social Study and Training at McGill University in 1918. McGill, with its strong tradition of utility in education, was the ideal home for a programme devoted to the production of professional social workers.

The book centres around Carl Dawson, a Canadian trained in sociology at the University of Chicago, whom McGill hired to head the new Department of Sociology, which was established in 1922 as a more theoretical successor to the Department of Social Study and Training. Dawson brought most of the hallmarks of the "Chicago School" to Montreal, including human ecology, which was concerned with the relationship of man to his environment, and the role that relationship played in the development of society. Unlike those who had participated in the social reform efforts of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the Chicago school was not interested in active participation in and influence over social change. The new social scientists, Dawson included, were devoted to pure, unbiased social research, which they hoped would reveal the ways in which society naturally evolved. The application of this research would result in enlightened public policy, not in emotional reactions to perceived problems.

Dawson's interest in human ecology led him to develop a theory of metropolitan-hinterland dominance as a means of understanding the nature of Canadian society. In order to test his theories, Dawson and his students turned Montreal into a living laboratory in which the social life and organization of the city was put under a microscope. Dawson's interest in the metropolitan relationship logically led him to study Montreal's hinterland, which he believed to be the Canadian West, and he became interested in patterns of migration and settlement in the Prairies. Despite his Chicago-influenced disavowal of active involvement in social reform, Dawson saw a chance to influence social policy through his research on immigration to the West. To Dawson, the Canadian West, remote areas of which were still being opened for settlement during the 1920s, was another laboratory in which he could test his theories of metropolitan dominance and immigrant adjustment and, because settlement was ongoing, Dawson still had a chance to influence the ways in which settlement was managed.

The highlight of the social sciences at McGill was the university's participation in two American-funded research projects, the Canadian Frontiers of Settlement Project and the Social Science Research Project. Although begun in 1928 as an American venture to use findings on the current Canadian experience of settlement to influence social policy in the United States, Shore believes the project became an important exercise in the expression of nationalism by the Canadian intellectuals who conducted the research. Carl Dawson led the sociological part of the research, and he and his assistants produced three books on western settlement in which Dawson put forward his recommendations on the best methods of settlement and administration of the Canadian West.

The Social Science Research Project, however, proved much more controversial than its predecessor. In 1930 McGill, which was having second thoughts about the feasibility of a full-fledged Department of Sociology during difficult economic times, devised the Social Science Research Project, a large-scale, multi-disciplinary study of unemployment in Montreal, in order to take advantage of grant money from the Rockefeller Foundation. McGill hired a young London School of Economics lecturer named Leonard Marsh as project director.

The enthusiasm of the university for the project, and especially of its business-dominated board of governors, was short-lived. The findings of the various studies produced under the SSRP proved controversial in the political atmosphere of the Depression. A study by one of Carl Dawson's students, *The British Immigrant*, criticized the continued immigration of unskilled Britons who, although intended as farm labourers, usually ended up as part of the unemployed in Canadian cities. The book's call for greater immigration restrictions angered Sir Edward Beatty, the chancellor of McGill and the president of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which profited from the transportation of immigrants. Leonard Marsh also infuriated the governors of McGill with his "collectivist" calls for a system of unemployment insurance in Canada. In the end, the Social Science Research Project proved too much of an irritant to the university, and McGill decided not to continue funding it after the Rockefeller grant ran out in 1940.

While Shore recounts in great detail a very interesting time in Canadian intellectual life, she ultimately does not produce a satisfying justification for her decision to study the history of the discipline of sociology at McGill in the 1920s and 1930s. Most of the students strongly influenced by Dawson left Canada to pursue careers in the United States, and Shore admits that the accomplishments of the McGill Sociology Department were forgotten by later generations of Canadian sociologists. Only Leonard Marsh was able to have a lasting impact through his authorship of the 1943 *Report on Social Security for Canada*, also known as the Marsh Report, which helped set the agenda for the establishment of the Canadian welfare state after the Second World War. Shore is forced to turn to the writing of history in Canada in order to claim lasting influence for Dawson and his students, concluding that Dawson had an indirect influence on the introduction of the metropolitan-hinterland theory into the writing of Canadian history. As evidence, Shore points to the similarities between the writing of Innis and of other Chicago-influenced sociologist, including Carl Dawson, and to the fact that Harold Innis was influenced by the Economics Department at Chicago. The emphasis that Shore places on historiography in her conclusion is surprising, as she pays little attention to history elsewhere in the book, even though historians participated in at least one of the major interdisciplinary projects she studies.

The failure of the author to convince the reader of the significance of the trends she studies may be due to the narrowness of her focus. By studying intellectual developments centred around only one department in one university, the impact of McGill sociology is not placed in any context. Had the developments at McGill been examined in the light of intellectual activity at other Canadian and American universities, Shore may have been able to make a better case for the uniqueness of McGill's approach to the social sciences and the importance of the ideas that emerged from the McGill Department of Sociology to twentieth-century Canadian nationalism and intellectual thought.

Shore's inability to offer more meaningful conclusions regarding the significance of sociology at McGill may also be attributed to her approach to her book rather than the

shortcomings of the people she has chosen to study. *The Science of Social Redemption* grew out of Shore's doctoral dissertation and the book continues to bear the stamp of a Ph.D. thesis; like many theses, it is marred by an overattention to detail and a dearth of analysis. It may be that too many Ph.D. theses are being turned into books too quickly. While the drive to publish is understandable, the result, all too often, is that an impressive thesis published too soon makes for only an average book. Still, *The Science of Social Redemption* remains a formidable piece of scholarship which will probably become a reference work for those intending to study Canadian intellectual history after the First World War.

Sheila Powell

National Archives of Canada

Lost Islands: The Story of Islands that have Vanished from Nautical Charts. HENRY STOMMEL, with a foreword by REAR-ADMIRAL G.S. RITCHIE, R.N. (Ret.). Vancouver: University of British Columbia Press, 1984. xxi, 146 p. ill. 2 charts in pocket. ISBN 0-7748-0210-3 \$37.50

Water has always held a special attraction for human beings well beyond its uses in sustaining life and providing routes for transportation. As for islands — whether they be sandbars in a river or islands in the ocean — who does not yearn for a fantasy, a treasure, a lost island, a kingdom all their own? The purpose of a nautical chart is to enable a ship to sail safely from place to place. To do this, the navigator must know where all the islands and rocks, and any other navigational hazards are. Sometimes, however, charts show islands which are not really there. Nineteenth century nautical charts and atlases have some two hundred islands now known not to exist, but some of those islands are still shown on modern globes, commercial atlases, and official sailing directions.

Henry M. Stommel, oceanographer and senior scientist at Woods Hole Oceanographic Institute in Massachusetts, has written at least four other books in addition to the one presently being reviewed: *The Gulf Stream: A Physical and Dynamical Description* (1958); *Kuroshio: Physical Aspects of the Japan Current* (1972); *Oceanographic Atlases: A guide to Their Coverage and Contents* (1978); and *Volcano Weather: The Year Without a Summer* (1983). In 1981, he was honoured with a festschrift, *Evolution of Physical Oceanography: Scientific Surveys*. Stommel became interested in lost islands when he noted Ganges Island, shown as being east of Japan and in a favourable position for oceanographic monitoring of the Kuroshio Current, the great current system of the North Pacific, then discovered that the island did not exist. Alerted and looking further, he discovered more non-existent islands. Stommel uses Admiralty charts, an American list of doubtful islands compiled by Jeremiah N. Reynolds for the U.S. House Committee on Naval Affairs in 1828, and the International Hydrographic Bureau list to tell his story. He considers only nineteenth and twentieth century charts, omitting legendary and fantastic islands unless they appear on the Admiralty charts. "Choosing these charts assures that hard-headed practical mariners had authorized and edited them and that accurate chronometric navigation was in widespread use."

Stommel has divided his story into twenty-two chapters, most of which are six pages or less in length. The chapters are arranged chronologically and geographically. Specific islands are discussed, including the history of their appearance, an explanation of the