superior curriculum and retention of native language and culture later helped the Soviet Union, whereas in Canada the treatment of the Aboriginals has created social division.

Sovietization sounded rather like the Canadian policy on multiculturalism. Both national systems eagerly changed the cultures of the populations in question. On the other hand, Soviet policy allowed Aboriginal peoples to determine their own membership, whereas the Canadian system dictates to the Aboriginal peoples who have status. Another difference is that in the Soviet Republic, Europeans are Aboriginal to the land also and that is why this book uses the term *nationalities* rather than *Aboriginal*. In Canada, European descendants cannot be Aboriginal. The authors attempt to compare three features of the Soviet system—Sovietization, national consolidation, and northern consolidation—to analogous features of the Canadian system. In each case, the treatment of *When the North* stands in need of expansion.

The most striking of all comparisons, however, remains that of the degree of democracy in each system in the relationship between majority and minority populations. We agree with the text’s implied message that this is the ultimate test of each system.

This study is a welcome addition to the literature on Aboriginals, for it provides information heretofore unavailable.

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This is the latest book by the prolific British educational historian and geographer Professor William Marsden of Liverpool University. Marsden is known to Canadian educational historians as a participant in CHEA/ACHI conferences and as a contributor to *Historical Studies in Education*. This book deserves notice if only for the originality of the theme—the tracing of the teaching careers of father, son, and grandson across nearly 100 years, from the 1840s to the 1930s. The only similar study I am aware of is that of James M. Fleming, a Newfoundlander living in the United States, whose unpublished study of three generations of the Mackey family of Carbonera, Newfoundland, covers much the same period. But whereas Fleming’s work is rather brief, Marsden’s study is a detailed narrative that places the careers of the family members firmly in their social, economic, and geographical setting.

A trans-generational work of this kind, covering a longer period than a single biographical study, enables the author to trace school organization, curricula,
and teaching methods across a century in which schooling developed from relatively primitive forms to the modern system of mass compulsory education. The focus of attention on one family also illustrates how individual teaching techniques are handed on—and transformed—from one generation to the next in more detail and with greater illumination than is possible in an orthodox narrative.

The story begins in 1817, when John Adams, the son of an agricultural labourer, was born in the village of Chapehill, South Wales. Married to Eliza Bateman, Adams had six children, three of whom followed his profession of teacher—William Bateman Adams (born 1841), John Frederick Adams (born 1843), and Richard Adams (born 1849). The father started teaching at Stackpole National School, not far from his birthplace, in 1843, after six months' training in London. Practising the monitorial system (that is, using child monitor-teachers) then in vogue, he taught the thee Rs, grammar, geography, history, and religion. After a move to another school, he continued his teaching career in the large and growing seaport of Swansea until his death in 1883.

Adams was an effective if somewhat strict teacher of the old school, a nonconformist with a combative streak that on occasion brought him into conflict with the Church of England and local authorities. Some of these qualities he passed on to his eldest son, William Bateman Adams. Better educated than his father, at one of the new teacher-training colleges, this son taught at a succession of schools in Wales (including his father's), enhancing his reputation at each, before moving to London, where in 1878 he became principal of Fleet Road School, Hampstead. Fleet Road was one of the new so-called Board Schools founded under the Education Act of 1870. Better equipped in every way than the schools in which Adams Jr. had previously taught, funded by local taxation, and situated in a prosperous area of North London, Fleet Road under Adams' guidance quickly became known as "the Eton of Board Schools."

One strength of Marsden's book is that he shows how the son combined his father's positive traits—hard work, self-belief, a love of teaching, and a tendency to self-advertisement—with the new pedagogical theories and practices of the late Victorian era. The school was co-educational and conducted on the Prussian system, in which children were taught in classrooms and no pupil-teachers used in the upper school. The teaching was far from mechanical—the three Rs were taught via "problems of everyday life," history was a colourful "peoples' history," geography was learned by *sine loco* methods and maps. The curriculum was at once liberal, vocational, cultural, and practical, and extra-curricula activities included lavish entertainments by the pupils.

W. B. Adams' two brothers, John Frederick and Richard, also went into teaching in Wales, although the former, after transferring to London, made a highly successful career as clerk to the Tottenham School Board, becoming nationally known in his sphere. Richard Adams became head of Rudland Street School, Swansea, in 1881, in which post he remained thirty years. Unlike his
brother William Bateman, he was more at ease with the prescriptive and restrictive practices of the previous generation, and, as Marsden notes, "Adams' teaching philosophy and practice were increasingly seen as reactionary in the curriculum changes of the 1890s."

This could not be said of the representative of the third generation, W. B. Adams' son John William Bateman Adams, born in 1868. The son of a successful man often has difficulty emulating his parent, but J. W. B. Adams, with the advantages provided by the increased educational provision and opportunities of the last decades of the nineteenth century—he was educated at London and Oxford Universities—and with self-confidence and a flair for progressive teaching, in many ways exceeded his father's achievements. A Byronic figure—tall, silver haired, eloquent, and sybaritic; a successful author and able amateur cricketer—Adams' greatest successes, after the inevitable spell of teaching in Wales, were as principal of Ashford Secondary School in Middlesex and Head of Christchurch School in Hampshire. Sharing his father's belief in a wide curriculum, he introduced languages (including Spanish), sport, and entertainments (on his father's pattern), giving the latter school a progressive aura until his death in 1934.

Marsden gives a fascinating account of the dynasty, avoiding the whiggish tendency to represent the story solely as one of onward and upward progress, and to present the personages as plaster saints. Ambitious, irascible, and egotistical as they sometimes were, the Adams are presented as human beings in the round. The wives' contributions, where appropriate, is also fully recognized. Not least of the book's virtues is its interweaving of human agency—the belief of all the actors in the civilizing and formative influence of mass education, the exploitation of opportunities for upward social mobility combined with respect for the social values of their time (both W. B. Adams and his son were strong imperialists)—with the generally improving socioeconomic landscape of the period and the consequent opening of educational opportunities to those lower on the social scale.

The value and interest of this book is enhanced by the provision of maps of school catchment areas, photographs and plans of the schools, and photographs of the teaching family (and their residences) and of school plays. All in all, Marsden's book is a model educational historians everywhere could peruse with advantage.

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