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(p. 230). Principalement destinées à la formation professionnelle, les écoles primaires supérieures (EPS) s'ajoutaient à ce système. Elles préparent surtout à des emplois de subalternes dans les bureaux ou les entreprises, bien qu'elles n'en assurent pas moins une certaine mobilité sociale ascendante. Cependant, en 1906, « EPS et cours complémentaires confondus, représentaient toujours moins de 2 % de la scolarisation élémentaire » (p. 234). Le système français mit donc beaucoup moins d'accent sur cet enseignement intermédiaire que sur l'enseignement primaire proprement dit, attendant au XX^e siècle pour le faire significativement, « laissant bourgs et villages en marge du mouvement » (p. 237).

L'étude se termine sur la question budgétaire. Il est révélateur d'y voir que le budget total consacré au primaire en 1907, habituellement sans le coût des bâtiments, est de 25 fois supérieur à ce qu'il était en 1837. Pendant la même période, « le budget global de l'État central n'avait que quadruplé » (p. 249). Comme ailleurs, l'étude décortique ensuite beaucoup cette donnée synthétique. On y retrouve pratiquement tous les thèmes précédemment évoqués, sous l'angle financier.

En somme, une telle analyse quantitative est un moyen efficace pour en percevoir les exceptions régionales, les tendances générales et, surtout, pour en situer les lignes de force plus globales. Dans ce cas-ci, les auteurs ont raison de souligner que l'école primaire est d'une « importance remarquable dans l'histoire sociale, culturelle et politique de la France moderne » (p. 301).

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Steve Hewitt — *Spying 101: The RCMP's Secret Activities at Universities, 1917–1997*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2002. Pp. xiv, 295.

Examining the relationship between intelligence agencies and academe is not new. In Britain and the United States, the countries with which Canada has enjoyed the longest and most intimate intelligence-sharing relationship, it has been a recurring theme. British studies have explored the subject from two perspectives. Writers have focused primarily on the recruitment of a small group of students at Cambridge University in the 1930s as future Soviet spies. While some of these studies consider the influence of certain Marxist professors, they do not discuss what university life was like or what activities intelligence agencies performed on campus, either to recruit spies or to thwart such recruitment. During the Second World War British intelligence drew heavily on universities. This was evident at Bletchley Park where German codes were broken. Though code breaking relied primarily on advanced mathematical skills, studies of the practice touched on the relationship between academe and intelligence only in passing.

In the United States, where the Central Intelligence Agency's (CIA) headquarters are often referred to as “the campus”, the so-called “cloak-and-gown” relationship has been depicted as waxing and waning between periods epitomized by positive working partnerships and unhealthy conflicts. During the Second World War and

immediately thereafter, U.S. intelligence also drew heavily on academe for the research and analytical skills universities could provide. Not surprisingly, some have seen this period positively, particularly the contribution of Ivy League universities like Yale. The period has not been without its critics, however, as more recent studies have viewed it as compromising the university's integrity. By the 1960s, the relationship soured after *Ramparts* magazine revealed that the CIA had secretly funded the National Students Union and a project to train South Vietnamese Police at Michigan State University. The subsequent Katzenbach Commission concluded that the U.S. government should not provide covert financial assistance to any educational facilities. More recently, the relationship has again been seen positively as fresh demands for analytical skills and scientific expertise have grown. The university as a place to be watched also appears in the literature, focusing on the role of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Here again the relationship is time-specific and tends to concentrate on the years when the university was perceived as a hotbed of anti-war sentiments and New Left philosophies.

Though the Canadian Association of University Teachers has long been interested in the activities of intelligence agencies on Canadian campuses and has persistently lobbied government for better controls, the area remained without a major Canadian study until the timely publication of Steve Hewitt's *Spying 101*.

Why academic researchers study the subjects they do has been the subject of much debate. Some argue it is simply a matter of intellectual choice. Others posit it has all to do with the writer's background and social experience. Little, however, has been said about the role of serendipity in subject selection and approach. Clearly, with *Spying 101* it played a significant part. Steve Hewitt admits that, when trying to avoid work on his dissertation one hot afternoon in the Canadian National Archives, he started to examine a finding aid concerning the Royal Canadian Mounted Police's (RCMP) records. This showed that the RCMP had collected information at several Canadian universities, including his own, the University of Saskatchewan. He made a request for these records and subsequently wrote an article about the practice, which generated much publicity. Encouraged to broaden the scope into a book, he began the study which is the subject of this review.

Spying 101 differs in three important respects from the British and American literature. First, it covers a much longer time frame, some 80 years. Secondly, instead of focusing on a few elite universities, it covers a broad sample from across the country. Finally, it concentrates on how and why the RCMP's Security Service placed professors, students, and staff under surveillance and what the service drew from the ideas disseminated. As such, the book makes a significant contribution to the social and political histories of two important Canadian institutions, the country's federal police force, arguably the quintessential symbol of Canada, and the university.

The work's lengthy span shows these institutions to be moving in opposite directions. When the RCMP came into being in 1920, recruits were almost entirely white, English-speaking, working-class males. Pay scales were such that few from the upper echelons of society were attracted to policing as an occupation. The relative cost of education — annual university tuition being equal to the income of many

working-class families — meant such families could not afford to send their children to college. University education was thus a bastion of conservatism for the privileged few.

By the end of the century things were different. The RCMP had changed from an institution with low educational requirements to one that recruited from a much broader segment of society and openly encouraged university graduate entrants, in-service education, and bilingualism. By contrast, the university had become, thanks to broadly available financial support, a mass educator. Anyone with the necessary educational skills could now aspire to attend. Instead of cultivating morality and culture within the elite, university faculties now openly encouraged critical thinking. What had once been dogma was now routinely challenged.

Hewitt's study consists of four parts. While the first provides the necessary theoretical underpinnings and background for the study, it also reveals how the author himself became a "person of interest" to the RCMP. The remaining three parts cover distinct historical periods and rely heavily on released government documents and in-depth interviews with former participants. Part 2 covers the first four decades of the organization's life. During this period the RCMP was mainly concerned about left-wing ideas spreading to the university from outside. The third concentrates entirely on the "crisis years" of the 1960s, when the universities became radicalized by New Left ideas and the anti-war movement. The last part focuses on the final years of the RCMP Security Service, its replacement by a civilian organization, the Canadian Security Intelligence Service (CSIS), in 1984, and subsequent developments within the force. By the beginning of the 1970s the RCMP's concerns had reversed. Now emphasis was placed on the spread of subversive ideas from the university to the external community.

Collectively the chapters show that surveillance of academe was practised across the country over a long period of time without independent oversight until the Security Service's replacement by CSIS in 1984. Such surveillance was conducted despite little substantive evidence of a real threat. Consequently, much effort and considerable resources were spent on an endeavour for little reward. Too often the activities took on the appearance of make-work projects and sometimes focused on illusionary groups. Significantly, *Spying 101* shows that the RCMP's capacity to understand and analyse subversive activity and ideologies was found by the late 1960s not to be its strong suit. To its credit the Security Service took steps to become more professional and to rely more heavily on civilian analysts with academic qualifications. At CSIS all aspiring intelligence officers now need a university degree as a minimum entry requirement to the Service.

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Nancy Janovicek and Joy Parr, eds. — *Histories of Canadian Children and Youth*. Toronto: Oxford University Press, 2003. Pp. 317.