the North Pole are presented in Part 7. This blends in quite well with the account in Part 8 of Minik’s ‘second’ life with the Inughuit and his exploits with Peter Freuchen. Here we also meet other captivating characters from the annals of arctic exploration like Captain George Comer, Elmer Ekblaw and Donald MacMillan. With the account in Part 9 of Minik’s return to New York in 1916 and his final days in New Hampshire, the story might have been concluded. At this point, however, the author offers the reader a picture of post-Minik in the land of the Inughuit. Even if Parts 10 and 11 are not essential, they provide some interesting insights and an analysis of Minik’s life by an author who has particular familiarity with the Inughuit people.

The thoroughness of the research for this book is amply demonstrated in nearly 50 pages of source materials followed by 45 pages of index material. The story is richly illustrated with interesting old photographs and drawings. Surprisingly, there is no listing of these in the table of contents.

Gilberg’s book is a most informative and interesting read; it is surprising that the author had to publish it on his own. The occasional mistakes and spelling errors, particularly in the illustration captions, probably reflect the home-edited nature of the work. Obviously the strength of Gilberg’s book lies as much in the supplementary material surrounding the events of Minik’s life as in the life itself. As far as the international market is concerned, there is one major problem with the book—presently it is available only in Danish.

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In Arctic Revolution, journalist and broadcaster John David Hamilton has distilled what he saw and heard during fifty years of northern reporting into a lively demonstration of the adage that journalism is the first draft of history. From the 1935 gold miners’ invasion of Yellowknife, the CANOL (Canadian Oil) Project of 1942, Thomas Berger’s Mackenzie Valley Pipeline Inquiry of 1975—which Hamilton dubs a “Magic Circus”—to the 1991 preliminary agreement on the creation of the territory of Nunavut in the Eastern Arctic, Hamilton wends his way through the maze of conflicting social, economic, and political interests to present a readable account of a complicated scene. He does this by respecting the journalistic tradition of keeping his distance from the issues, and by writing in an informal and at times colloquial (if somewhat rambling) style. This work is a good introduction to northern history for the general reader.

The “revolution” of the title dates from the Cold War days of 1953, when the United States built the Distant Early Warning (DEW) Line across northern Canada to protect North America from Soviet attack. That same year the administrative headquarters for the Northwest Territories were moved from Ottawa to Yellowknife, paving the way for that city to be named the capital of the Northwest Territories in 1967—without, however, Ottawa’s giving up its powers. Later, Jean Chrétien summed up the situation when he observed, as Minister for Indian Affairs and Northern Development during the first Trudeau government, that he was “the last emperor in North America.” The devolution of power from Ottawa was complicated by the Northwest Territories’ ethnic mix of Inuit, Amerindians split among several Athapaskan groups and Cree, Métis, and whites, each group with its own agenda. Compromise was (and is) the order of the day, down to such matters as the proper way of conducting a meeting. A major issue was the gap between the Native tradition of government by consensus and the parliamentary tradition of rule by majority, which has been temporarily resolved, at least in part, by eliminating formal political parties. The author is at pains to stress that the transition of power has been voluntary, with the active aid of such administrators as Stuart Hodgson and John L. Parker, both of whom served as commissioners at different times.

Hamilton’s main strength lies in the scope of his coverage, and the offbeat details with which he enlivens his text. The reader learns, for instance, about the pivotal role of airplanes in the development of northern mining; the crucial importance of family allowances for both Amerindians and Inuit, and the problems of delivering payments to distant peoples unfamiliar with a cash economy; and the 1960 outbreak of distemper at the old whaling station at Lake Harbour, which killed 80% of the Inuit’s dogs, making hunting impossible. The outbreak, which spread to other areas as well, capped a series of plagues that had begun in 1946, finally driving the Inuit to town living.

Such disasters highlighted the multiple problems facing arctic administration as traditional subsistence bases diminished under the pressures of industrial development: town living called for permanent housing and provision for such services as medical care, schools, police, and civic administration, to mention only a few items in a long list. As Hamilton points out, the dilemma facing Ottawa was clear enough: traditional hunting and gathering could no longer be relied upon, but rescuing the people from starvation meant undertaking responsibility for their welfare. The government’s response has been to support programs to train the people in the skills needed for coping with the twentieth century’s wage economy, but at the same time to encourage the continuance of hunting and gathering wherever feasible. Similar difficulties plagued the Amerindians of the boreal forest, but not on quite such a dramatic scale.

Quite apart from such survival problems, Amerindians and Métis have their own particular expectations, as do the whites. One of the best known Amerindian expressions of this is the Dene Declaration of 1975, at the time characterized by
the White establishment as an adaptation of Julius Nyerere’s Tanzanian Declaration of Independence in Africa. Be that as it may, it expressed in ringing terms the aspirations of the people: “We the Dene of the Northwest Territories insist on the right to be regarded by ourselves and the world as a nation.” The Dene were aiming at nothing less than independence and self-determination, although within Canada. Their original dream of realizing this by means of a kind of federated Amerindian state has faded as related groups have signed separate agreements with Ottawa: the Gwich’in in 1992, the Sah’tu in 1993, with others indicating similar intentions. The Métis, who came up with their own declaration in 1980, were careful to note that they were “loyal citizens of Canada.” Even the more homogenous Inuit have not avoided divisions, signalled by the Inuvialuit of the Western Arctic when they signed their own agreement in 1984. Inuit of the Eastern Arctic are in the preliminary stages of establishing a separate territory, Nunavut, scheduled to be finalized in 1999. It will comprise one-fifth of Canada’s land surface. Administratively speaking, the Northwest Territories that once embraced practically all of the Canadian Arctic and Subarctic is being whittled down to a fraction of its former self as territories are hived off. About one thing there is no doubt: the days when the North was governed by the South have passed; Northerners are well on the way to becoming full partners in the Canadian federation. Out of this maze of wheeling, dealing, and compromise, have emerged a number of remarkable aboriginal women—in fact, an “astounding” number, according to Hamilton. The best known, at least to the south, are Nellie Cournoyea, Norwegian/Inuvialuit, currently head of the Northwest Territories government; and Ethel Blondin-Andrew, Sah’tu, elected to Parliament as a Liberal from the Western Arctic, and since 1992 Secretary of State for Youth and Training Programs.

Informative as this work is, it would have benefitted from more stringent editing to avoid such obvious slips as misspelled names and inconsistent dates. The index, confined to personal names, is inadequate even on its own terms. The illustrations are more interesting for their subject matter than for their quality of reproduction. The maps, while indicating administrative divisions, do not give place names; since these abound in the text, a reader unfamiliar with the land is lost. All of these comments relate to the production and presentation; a pity, as Hamilton’s recounting of the development of a relatively little-known (in popular terms) but vital part of our country deserves better.

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The protection of the global environment is an issue that has attracted increasing global attention since 1972, when the Stockholm Conference on Human Environment was held. In the interim period there have been hundreds of international conventions, declarations, and statements made on the need for states at both a regional and global level to cooperate in environmental protection. This period of activity probably reached its zenith in 1992 with the UN Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro. However, despite the considerable efforts made to deal with environmental protection, it seems that there have been few successes in actually redressing the problems. The ozone layer continues to be depleted, greenhouse gasses continue to be emitted, species continue to be endangered, and states continue to engage in activities that have substantial transboundary impact. Nevertheless, states continue to seek and devise ways and means to deal with ongoing and newly emerging environmental problems. It is this process which Oran Young seeks to unravel in his latest book.

International Governance contains eight chapters, of which five have previously been published in another form. Together, they form a study of how and why the international system has reacted to environmental crises, in an attempt to understand what Young calls ‘international governance.’ Young seeks to provide the reader with a greater understanding of why states have sought cooperative responses to regional and global environmental crises, and how social science researchers may be able to develop even better techniques to understand these processes. This is not a new area of study for the author. He is widely recognised as one of the leading exponents of international relations regime theory, around which much of the book revolves. However, he has also had a particular interest in the Arctic, and how regimes have managed natural resources disputes. It represents a natural progression, then, for him to consider environmental regimes as a discrete area of study.

The introduction provides a broad framework to the study, and stresses the importance of understanding international institutions and the state actors which develop them. Chapter 1 deals with international environmental governance, defining governance for the purposes of the study. To illustrate the issues further, the next two chapters are designed as case studies of the global climate regime and the management of shared natural resources in the Arctic. Chapters 4 to 6 address theoretical questions, including a review of the various stages of regime formation, the range of factors which impact upon a regime during its existence, and the question of regime effectiveness. The concluding chapters consider the relationships of governance systems with international organizations, and with international legal regimes.