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.
This book has a number of notable features for readers interested in Arctic affairs. Chapter 3 is devoted entirely to the Arctic, while numerous Arctic examples throughout the book illustrate cooperation towards environmental protection. Without directly addressing the question, Chapter 3 raises important issues that are currently confronting Arctic policymakers as they seek to implement the Arctic Environmental Protection Strategy and consider the creation of an Arctic Council. Young concludes that the Arctic demonstrates that:

it is appropriate under current conditions to focus on complex ecosystems that are subregional in scope. It makes sense, in other words, to think of the Barents Sea or the Bering Sea or the Alaska-Yukon borderlands as suitable units for the purposes of management rather than that endeavoring to create resource regimes for the Arctic region as a whole. (p. 76)

Given this conclusion, it is regrettable that Young did not take the opportunity to directly address current Arctic developments. The Arctic Environmental Protection Strategy represents a regional initiative by the eight Arctic states which has the potential to develop into a very complex overarching environmental protection regime that will subsume existing subregional arrangements. Given Young’s attention to the Arctic, regime formation, and potential regime effectiveness, current Arctic developments would have made a useful case study. This, however, is a minor criticism, and the reader who is interested in a more specific Arctic focus can readily consult some of Young’s earlier works which address related Arctic issues.

Young also expressly considers the relationship between legal and social science analyses of international environmental cooperation. While acknowledging that the two disciplines adopt very different approaches, he argues that much could be gained by greater collaboration between them, especially a greater appreciation of how environmental regimes deal with enforcement and compliance. Young laments the lack of cooperation and interaction between the two streams of analysis, but argues that his critique is generic and could also easily apply to the study of international governance rather than that endeavoring to create resource regimes for the Arctic region as a whole.

International Governance is to be welcomed as yet another significant contribution by Oran Young to an understanding of why states cooperate and how they may be able to more effectively protect the environment. Understanding these issues will help researchers from many disciplines to better appreciate the impact of these processes on a wide range of international institutions, from the simple bilateral scientific exchange program to large, multilateral environmental conventions that seek to remedy global problems such as climate change. While the book is full of terminology familiar to the international relations specialist, a consistent effort is made to define the specialist terms which are used. Any reader who is interested in gaining an understanding of international cooperation, and especially why states have joined together so frequently during the past few decades to address environmental problems, will find this a worthwhile book.

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THE ARCTIC: A HISTORY. By RICHARD VAUGHAN.

Richard Vaughan is having a very productive retirement, with a book a year since 1991. The title of this, his latest book, is bald and assertive, with no exclusions, no qualifications. The author deals with the entire circumpolar Arctic, with appropriately extensive consideration of the Russian Arctic, and discussion of native peoples besides the Eskimos or Inuit. He has drawn on a good deal of the Russian literature, and the international range of sources used is one of the great strengths of his book. It begins in prehistory, around twelve thousand years ago in Yakutia, and ends with questions about sovereignty and nationhood in the 1990s. It is an analytical review, very tightly packed with information, and accessibly organized. This is in many ways the most comprehensive one-volume history of the Arctic ever written. At times, the narrative becomes almost an inventory, but generally Vaughan’s themes are clearly pursued, so that, in spite of its density, this is a good read. Those themes include the antiquity and effectiveness of native occupation; the exploitative approaches taken by Europeans and Russians, notably in whaling and the fur trade; the devastating effects of European incursions on native cultures; the unsuitability of the Royal Navy’s tactics in tackling the Arctic; the shift from geographical to scientific exploration; the strategic significance of the Arctic; and the emergence of a politicized and educated corps as part of a revival of native cultures. Some of these themes are generally accepted; others are more debatable. Any reader interested in Arctic history will benefit from reading this book, although specialists will wish for more in their own areas, and may occasionally take issue with Vaughan’s views, which are not hidden.

Vaughan draws on archaeological evidence to explore the hunting styles and social organization of early Arctic cultures, including the Old Bering Sea people, and gives a brief vignette of the “Arctic Stonehenge” of Whale Alley off the coast of Chukotka. He stresses the similarities and notes differences among arctic societies, Palaeoeskimos and Neoeskimos (the transition occurring around 1,000 years ago), the Sami, Samoyeds and other groups. And he notes the first encounters with whites, generally disastrous over time, if not immediately, and sometimes very recent, as in the case of the Netsilingmiut.