book won the Outstanding Publication Award of the Association of Earth Science Editors. This new book preserves the visually stunning form of the first edition, with photos mostly taken by the authors, who have continued to travel the globe in order to capture images that would grace the pages of National Geographic. However, the authors have not just reproduced the previous photos, but have replaced most of them with new ones. Even in the few cases where first-edition photos appear to have been reproduced, they have cunningly used another photo that was shot from a slightly different angle. I discovered one case where a first-edition photo was used (p. 332), but, as if to defy exact reproduction, it now appears as the mirror image! (It is probably correct in the second edition.)

Several satellite images and figures support the text. Here, one has to be alert, as shown by two examples. On page 112, a NASA image shows a large percentage of the most extensively glaciated part of northwestern North America. A reader might gain the impression that this is all Alaskan territory (as discussed in the text), whereas a considerable portion of the Saint Elias Mountains, where extensive research in glaciology has been done, is in Yukon (Canada). On page 316, two figures illustrate the evaporation of oceanic water destined for deposition on land (with or without an ice sheet). Whereas the authors’ general application of the isotope cycle is acceptable, the meteorological representation (Figure 15.2, p. 316) is completely misleading if one decides to look in detail at the complex and enigma-ridden field of isotope glaciology.

The new edition is twice as thick as the previous one, in part because the authors have expanded the text and used more photographs (now 282 versus 150 in the first edition) but also because it has a hard cover. Rather than the earlier mix of colour and black-and-white photos, all photos are now in colour. This considerably increases the impact of the presentation.

There are four more chapters (for a total of 16) that seem to cover almost every conceivable aspect of glaciers, quite typical of an encyclopedia entry. The new glossary is almost three times as long as the original one. A new addition is a list of selected references: they usefully show what is available to one audience at which this book could be aimed, science teachers preparing courses for pre-university or introductory-level courses. The other audience is the educated layman. In fact, the authors list their first edition as a “general interest book.” It is a very good choice amongst the several titles that I have seen. (Counting the two editions as being sufficiently different from one another, there are now four books with this same title.)

Considering today’s technology, the best format for this material would be a CD-ROM or DVD that could be projected in a classroom. In fact, the authors project the same photos we see in the book in their own classroom presentations. Extending this argument, the best teachers of this material should have “experienced” the glaciers, gathering their own collections of photographs to display for their students, just as Hambrey and Alean have done. However, this would require them to be both well traveled and very good photographers.

In a new Endnote, the authors essentially reiterate what is in the Preface of both editions: “First and foremost we have tried to convey the beauty and fascination of glaciers, based on our personal experiences … glaciers can only be fully appreciated by actually visiting them.” Further: “we hope that [this book] will implant in the reader a desire to visit glaciers and glacial landscapes and gain a deeper appreciation of “snow and ice” (p. 351). That aim is the real essence of this book.

REFERENCE


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Until now, even in Germany, journalist Theodor Lerner has largely been a forgotten figure in Arctic history, although he spent at least six summers and one winter on Svalbard over the period 1896–1914. This situation has now been rectified through the editorial efforts of Dr. Frank Berger, curator of the Historisches Museum in Frankfurt-am-Main. Berger has edited and published Lerner’s autobiographical manuscript, originally written in 1930, which is preserved among the holdings in his care, along with some 200 glass negatives from Lerner’s Arctic trips.

Lerner first visited Svalbard in 1896, on board the small steamer Expres, which had been chartered by a British hunting party. At Virgohamna on Danskøya, he watched the preparations of Salomon Andrée of Sweden and his companions as they built a balloon hangar and made ready to attempt a flight to the North Pole in the hydrogen-filled balloon Örnen. In the event, persistent foul winds and the insurance stipulations on his ship Virgo forced Andrée to postpone his flight attempt to the following year.

Lerner managed to persuade his editor at Die Woche that he should return to Svalbard in 1897 to cover Andrée’s renewed attempt and to give Andrée as much support as
possible. Reaching Danskøya on board Expres again, Lerner and his companions watched Örnen take off on 11 July (Swedish Society for Anthropology and Geography, 1930); thereafter, Lerner cruised around the north coast of Svalbard as far east as Kapp Platen, establishing depots in case Andrée had to retreat to this coast. Lerner and his companions caught a brief glimpse of Örnen in the early hours of 14 July, some 35 km northeast of Sjøøyane, just before it disappeared into the fog; this was only hours before Andrée and his companions were forced to land on the ice and abandon the balloon.

In 1898 Lerner headed north once again, on board the fishing vessel Helgoland. One objective was to search for traces of Örnen or Andrée and his companions. Also on board were scientists F. Römer and F. Schaudinn, who were to pursue zoological and marine biological research and his companions watched the scientific outcome was the impressive six-volume Fauna Arctica, edited by Römer and Schaudinn, containing some 92 articles on the Arctic collections and observations from the expedition.

During his voyages to Svalbard in 1897 and 1898, Lerner had become aware of the extensive coal deposits, thus far unexploited, on Bjørnøya and Spitsbergen. Hence in 1899 he travelled north in a small sailing vessel, Terschelling (Captain Lindeman), on behalf of a German mining consortium. He staked claims to the coal deposits in an area covering about 40% of Bjørnøya, and trial adits were driven into three coal seams. There was considerable excitement when the Russian cruiser Svetlana (Captain A.M. Abaza) appeared off Bjørnøya and a landing party raised the Russian flag. When it came to the crunch, neither government decided to press the matter of sovereignty over Bjørnøya, so Lerner’s attempts to develop the coal resources of the island came to naught.

Seven years later (in 1906) his newspaper sent Lerner north yet again, and again aboard Expres, this time to cover Walter Wellman’s attempt at the North Pole in the dirigible America, also from Virgohamna on Danskøya. But construction of the hangar and other preparations took so long that Wellman had to postpone his attempt until 1907 (Capelotti, 1999). Lerner, meanwhile, engaged in hunting; while so doing, he spotted a large cruise ship that had run aground at the east entrance to Raudfjorden; she was the French ship Île de France, with about 150 tourists on board. Lerner tried unsuccessfully to tow the French ship off the rocks with Expres. He then went in search of the Dutch cruiser Friesland (10000 hp), which he knew was somewhere close by. He located her in Liefdefjorden and escorted her back to the stranded French vessel. Friesland then succeeded in towing the latter off the rocks. The grateful French tourists later sent Lerner a gold pocket chronometer.

In 1907, Lerner again went north on board Expres, to observe and report on Wellman’s next attempt at a flight to the Pole, but also to carry out some topographic surveys with a new Zeiss photo-theodolite, with the aid of two officers from the Army’s Topographic Division. America finally took off on 2 September, but Wellman, unable to control the dirigible in strong winds and a snowstorm, was forced to make an emergency landing on a glacier after only three hours in the air. Lerner, in Expres, spotted the stranded dirigible and helped to transport its disassembled components back to Virgohamna.

Along with Hjalmar Johansen, who had been a member of Fridtjof Nansen’s expedition on board Fram and had wintered with Nansen under very primitive conditions on Zemlya Frantsa Iosifa in 1895–96, Lerner next wintered in a hut at Bohemanneset, on the north shore of Isfjorden, across from Longyearbyen. They carried out meteorological observations throughout the winter, while obtaining both exercise and fuel by mining coal from a nearby exposed seam. In April 1908, they set off northwards, bound for Virgohamna on Danskøya, with eight dogs hauling a sledge on which they also transported a kayak. Their route took them via Dicksonfjorden, then over the ice cap to Liefdefjorden and Raudfjorden; they reached Virgohamna on 15 May 1908, having completed one of the most impressive and least-known sledge trips in the history of Svalbard. Lerner then spent the summer surveying the Liefdefjorden area before returning to Virgohamna. On 16 August, the Austrian Lloyd steamer Thalia arrived and Lerner boarded her; here he met Lydia Stoltze, and they were married in February 1909.

Lerner’s next Arctic expedition occurred in 1913. His aim was to search for the missing members of Lieutenant Herbert Schröder-Stranz’s expedition. Having travelled north on board the schooner Herzog Ernst, Schröder-Stranz and three companions had been landed on the sea ice between Nordkapp and Kapp Platen in mid-August 1912, with sledges, dogs, kayaks, and adequate food and equipment (Barr, 1984). They intended sledding across Nordaustlandet and Hinlopenstretet, then round the north coast of Spitsbergen to Krossfjorden. They were never seen again.

Lerner’s search expedition, only one of several mounted in the summer of 1913, travelled north aboard the Norwegian sealing vessel Lövenskiöld from a base at Beverleysundet. Lerner and his companions searched the shores of Nordaustlandet from Nordkapp east to Rijpfjorden and north to Waldenøya, but found no trace of Schröder-Stranz. But then Lövenskiöld was crushed by the ice and had to be abandoned on 27 June at the western entrance to Beverleysundet. Lerner and companions retreated by sledge and boat to Sorgfjorden, where Herzog Ernst was wintering, and returned south to Tromsø with her.

In the following year (1914), Lerner had planned yet another trip to Svalbard, on board the schooner Whitrose, this time aimed at zoological and geological research. At Kongsfjorden, on 11 August 1914, he heard of the outbreak of World War I and had to abandon his expedition. Thereafter, he served on the Western Front, was made a
Knight of the Iron Cross, and rose to the rank of Leutnant (Second Lieutenant). He died at his home in Frankfurt on 12 May 1931, having just completed the manuscript of his book, which would lie unpublished for 74 years.

Dr. Frank Berger is to be commended for publishing this important manuscript. Lerner’s book throws interesting new sidelights on many important events in the history of Svalbard that were already quite well documented, such as Andrée’s and Wellman’s attempts at flying to the North Pole, the Helgoland expedition, and the search for Schröder-Stranz. In other cases, e.g., his attempts at establishing coal-mining on Björnöya, his wintering with Johansen at Bohemanneset, and their sledge trip across Spitsbergen to Danskøya, his account provides the first details of events. By including footnotes and a biographical sketch of Lerner, as well as a fine selection of over 75 photos and a number of maps, Dr. Berger has greatly enhanced Lerner’s original manuscript. In short, this book is a valuable addition to the literature on the history of Svalbard.

REFERENCES


Between June and August 1905, Mina Benson Hubbard and four indigenous guides undertook an arduous canoeing expedition from the community of North West River to the Hudson’s Bay Company post at Ungava Bay by way of the Naskaupi and George rivers in Labrador. In doing so, Hubbard sought to map hitherto unknown territory in Labrador and complete a journey undertaken unsuccessfully by her husband, Leonidas Hubbard, in 1903. On that occasion, the party of Hubbard, an inexperienced and naive American journalist, mistakenly bypassed the Naskaupi River and turned westwards into the Susan Brook. Two months later, with a bitter winter approaching, Hubbard made a series of significant errors of judgement, which culminated in his death by starvation and the subsequent failure of the rest of the group to complete the trek. Determined to exonerate her husband’s reputation, Mina Benson Hubbard employed George Elson, the chief guide from her husband’s expedition, to lead her to the George River post. On the same day, another journey with this goal was launched by Dillon Wallace, also a member of the ill-fated 1903 Hubbard party. Mina Benson Hubbard completed her mission before Wallace and reached the Hudson’s Bay Company post, becoming the first documented non-indigenous person to follow this route. Hubbard’s book about the expedition, A Woman’s Way through Unknown Labrador, was based on her original expedition diary. It was published in 1908 by John Murray in London, England, and William Briggs in Toronto, Ontario. Out of print between 1920 and 1981 (when Breakwater Press published a lacklustre paperback edition without the original introduction, map, and index), Hubbard’s book was only recently edited by Sherrill Grace and republished in 2004 by McGill-Queen’s University Press. Buchanan, Hart, and Greene’s The Woman Who Mapped Labrador: The Life and Expedition Diary of Mina Hubbard, released in 2005 during the centenary of her epic voyage, marks the first biography of this remarkable woman and the first publication of her original expedition diary.

A comparison of the expedition diary in The Woman Who Mapped Labrador with Mina Benson Hubbard’s published book reveals that Hubbard glossed over details that depicted her in an unflattering light and highlighted other incidents in order to heighten the readership appeal. The diary illustrates that she is a much more emotionally complex person than is evident in the book. For example, in the expedition diary, she is unguarded about venting her wrath on Dillon Wallace, a man she believes besmirched her husband’s professional reputation. She also uses the diary as a means of cathartic release as she mourns the death of her young husband. However, her diary also corroborates the most striking elements of her book: her fair-minded, progressive attitude towards indigenous people, including her guides and those whom the expedition encountered along the way, and the manner in which she identifies herself as an intrepid traveler rather than a conqueror of new lands (and peoples).

Arguably, two of the most influential early writers on Labrador are Dillon Wallace and Warburton Pike. Wallace’s The Lure of the Labrador Wild (1905) and The Long Labrador Trail (1907) and Pike’s earlier (and less seminal) The Barren Ground of Northern Canada (1892)