learn the identity of what they have been reading up to that point. The document identified as HBCA E.37/3, which Barr, following Anderson, refers to as a full journal (p. 166, n.1), turns out to be what I would call Anderson’s field notes, written daily during the expedition. In contrast, the document that Barr has referred to in footnotes as the “fair copy of Anderson’s journal” (HBCA B.200/a/31), although based on those field notes, was written after the expedition: it shows signs of revision and narrative polish. Barr’s use of the term journal to refer to both documents is misleading, as it blurs that important distinction. Furthermore, justification for subordinating Stewart’s journal (Provincial Archives of Alberta 74.1/137) to Anderson’s is rendered only implicitly: Stewart’s is “generally less detailed than” Anderson’s (p. 166 – 167). One is left to infer that the editing accords with the chain of command, Stewart being Anderson’s junior. None of these three documents is listed in the bibliography. Welcome, as well, would have been a comparative discussion of, on the one hand, the emphasis that Barr exerts in his editing of Anderson’s journal, and, on the other, the emphases placed on that journal by those who edited its two previous published appearances. In the terms Barr deploys, were the two previous editions of the “full journal” or of the “fair copy”?

As Barr notes, James Anderson’s recommendations to Lady Franklin even before he left for the Back River specified pretty nearly the terms under which McClintock sailed in the Fox in 1857 and unlocked the mystery of the fate of Franklin. Anderson and Stewart’s own expedition was the HBC’s remarkably swift if modest response to the Admiralty’s request that Rae’s findings of 1854 be confirmed. It was constrained by a late thaw and bad weather, the lack of an Inuk interpreter, and the fact that the Back River, by necessitating travel in canoes and not some larger craft, precluded the transport of sufficient supplies to permit an overwintering at Chantrey Inlet or King William Island. Anderson and Stewart could have done no more than they managed to do, little though that was. Anderson was right, and Lady Franklin obviously knew it. However, their return trip from Fort Resolution to Simpson Strait in 88 days will likely stand as an unrivalled record in the annals of Arctic canoe travel.

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One might think that, in terms of reader interest and finding new material to present, the topic of the search for the Northwest Passage had been exhausted. Delgado’s Across the Top of the World proves otherwise.

Chapter 1 provides the setting, with an excellent blend of the natural and cultural elements that make up the Arctic world. The author presents the various Inuit peoples encountered by the first Western explorers who recorded their voyages in search of the elusive Northwest Passage. (Unrecorded Arctic voyages by Norsemen who settled Greenland about 1000 years ago can only be inferred from concentrated finds of Norse artifacts on the east coast of Ellesmere Island and from far more scattered Norse finds in the rest of the Arctic. It is highly unlikely that Norse explorers ever penetrated very far into Lancaster Sound.)

As Delgado points out, it was Christian Europe’s search for a new route to spices and other valuable goods in the Orient that led to the earliest known searches for a passage in the northern part of the New World. In chapter 2, the author describes the sixteenth-century voyages of Martin Frobisher and John Davis. Chapter 3 recounts the seventeenth-century voyages of Henry Hudson, Thomas Button, John Ingram, Robert Bylot and William Baffin, Jens Munk, Luke Foxe, and Thomas James, and the mid-eighteenth century voyages of Christopher Middleton and William Moor. In 1668 the Hudson’s Bay Company constructed Rupert House and began its commercial domination of the North American fur trade. As the author points out, the Hudson’s Bay Company was not interested in searching for the Northwest Passage. Ironically it was a “Bayman,” Dr. John Rae, who determined in 1854 that King William Land was an island. Rae also brought back the first Franklin expedition relics, which he had purchased from Inuit who had seen both living and dead members of the expedition.

Of all the seventeenth-century voyages, only the 1616 Bylot and Baffin expedition, in the remarkable ship Discovery, pushed northward beyond John Davis’s old route.
Bylot and Baffin sailed far into northern Baffin Bay before heading south. They crossed the entrance to Lancaster Sound, but they did not enter what eventually turned out to be a principal gateway to the Northwest Passage. The many passage seekers who headed into Hudson Bay and Foxe Basin failed to get through Fury and Hecla Strait, a passage that provides ship access to Lancaster Sound only during summers with favourable ice conditions.

I was pleased to see that Delgado included an account of Danish explorer Jens Munk’s 1619–1620 voyage to the west coast of Hudson Bay. The Munk voyage and wintering near present-day Churchill is an element of Canadian exploration history that is often overlooked. The Danish King Christian IV, who sent Jens Munk on the journey to Hudson Bay, claimed sovereignty over the land Munk discovered, and planned to send Danish settlers to the area on a later voyage. However, the death of all but Jens Munk and three of his men, who miraculously managed to sail a small ship non-stop back to Norway, put an effective end to the Danish king’s colonizing agenda.

In chapter 4, Delgado presents the renewed eighteenth-century British efforts in Arctic exploration, beginning with Samuel Hearne’s overland trek to the shores of the Arctic Ocean in 1771. Other expeditions followed, many of them searching not only for a passage but also for a mythical open Polar Sea, a figment of geographical imagination that later drew the attention of people like Elisha Kent Kane, Isaac Hayes, and Charles Hall. The origin of the open polar ocean myth is not known. With imagination, one could suggest that Inuit and Norse knowledge of the North Water polynya in northern Baffin Bay provided early mariners with notions of an open polar sea. Bylot and Baffin would also have remarked on the open-water conditions that they met once they had sailed beyond the ice-choked Melville Bay.

Two hundred years elapsed between Bylot and Baffin’s voyage into northern Baffin Bay and a British return to the Davis-Baffin route. In 1818, the Admiralty appointed John Ross to lead an expedition that included Edward Parry and Ross’s young nephew, James Ross. John Ross followed Baffin’s route and made the first recorded contact with the “Arctic Highlanders,” the present-day Inughuit of North Greenland. John Ross repeated Baffin’s mistake of thinking that Lancaster Sound was only a land-locked bay. Spiteful attacks were levelled against John Ross upon his return to England. The Admiralty then turned to Parry, who successfully penetrated Lancaster Sound, reaching Melville Island in 1819 and wintering there before returning to Baffin Bay.

Delgado has captured the wonderfully interwoven fates in Arctic exploration—the men and ships appearing in one setting then fading away for a while only to return in another. John Franklin is of course one of those men. While John Ross pushed into Baffin Bay in 1818, John Franklin entered the Arctic Ocean east of Greenland. In 1819, while Parry was cutting his ships through ice in Parry Channel, Franklin set out to retrace, in part, Samuel Hearne’s route to the Arctic Ocean. When Franklin eventually reached Point Turnagain on Kent Peninsula, he was only a few hundred kilometres from the place where his 1845 Northwest Passage attempt was to end in disaster and his own death.

While Franklin was trying desperately to get back from his overland expedition alive, Parry placed his ships, Fury and Hecla, into winter quarters near present-day Igloolik. From here Parry could only look west at the ice-choked strait that, under more favourable circumstances, provided a sea route to Lancaster Sound.

In 1824 the Admiralty sent four expeditions into the Arctic: John Franklin (overland), Frederick William Beechey (through the Bering Strait), George Lyon (to Repulse Bay), and Parry into Prince Regent Inlet. Franklin and Beechey hoped to meet up somewhere along the Arctic coast and came close to doing so. Although Lyon’s and Parry’s expeditions were less than successful, Parry did establish a substantial food cache at Fury Beach; a cache that eventually saved lives during at least one future expedition. Accompanying Parry was his friend Francis Crozier, who later signed on as second-in-command on the doomed Franklin expedition.

The author describes how the British quest for a passage became a private initiative when John Ross launched an expedition in 1829. The most remarkable achievement of the expedition was accomplished by James Clark Ross, who reached the North Magnetic Pole by sled in 1831. On his trip to the magnetic pole, James Ross set foot on the northwest shore of King William Island (which he believed was part of Boothia Peninsula) and constructed a cairn. As fate would have it, the cairn was erected close to the first point of land that Franklin’s men reached in 1847 as they explored the area closest to their ice-bound ships. Following James Ross’s return to Victory Harbour, the expedition members abandoned their ship, Victory, and struggled northward to reach the Parry cache at Fury Beach, where they spent yet another Arctic winter. Not until the fall of 1833 did they escape into Lancaster Sound, where a whaling crew sailing in the Isabella, John Ross’s 1818 expedition ship, rescued them.

In chapters 6 and 7, Delgado presents the complex story of the many Franklin search expeditions—the heroic efforts and epic man-hauling feats over land and frozen seas, the first traces of the vanished Franklin expedition coming to light, and the final discovery of bodies along the shores of King William Island. It is a curious fact that despite all the books published on this subject, the story continues to fascinate. It should be pointed out that the Franklin expedition was not lost in the sense of not knowing where they were. Franklin must have had a very good idea of just how close he was to Point Turnagain, which he had reached on his first overland expedition. There is evidence to suggest that some of his men, under Commander James Fitzjames, reached the mainland to the south on foot, thus closing the last geographical gap of the Passage, while the Erebus and Terror lay pinched in the ice off King William Island.
In the final chapter, the author tells the story of Roald Amundsen’s successful voyage (1903–06) through the Northwest Passage in the small, 46 ton sloop Gjoa. Amundsen was without doubt one of the most competent of all the early Arctic and Antarctic explorers. Together with seven crew members, he took three years to complete the passage, which included two winterings in Gjoahavn, present-day Gjoa Haven (Uqsuqtuq). Another forty years elapsed before Canada, in one of its sporadic assertions of Arctic sovereignty, sent the Royal Canadian Mounted Police schooner St. Roch through the Northwest Passage. Under the command of Norwegian-born Henry Asbjorn Larsen, the St. Roch travelled from west to east between 1940 and 1942 and from east to west in 1944. The 1944 trip diverged from the previous track, following Parry’s old 1819 route to Melville Island and then heading south-west through Prince of Wales Strait, between Banks and Victoria Islands.

James Delgado’s book is both well researched and well written. The dramatic story is superbly illustrated with reproductions of well-known and less well known photos, drawings and paintings. Given the huge amount of material covered, it is not surprising that a few minor errors have occurred in the superb telling of the dramatic story of the Western quest to find the Northwest Passage. I highly recommend the book.

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Over the years while working at Clyde River, I have often wondered as I travelled southward to Henry Kater Peninsula and into Home Bay if my camp was in a place that Boas had visited during his longest foray north from Cumberland Sound. Certainly when I first came to Clyde, Boas’s ethnographic observations and major map aided many of my first inquiries about Inuit history and settlement. And on almost every trip out of the community, I tried to imagine whether Boas had experienced the same cold, travel delays, and Inuit companionship.

Franz Boas among the Inuit fills much of this gap in these personal musings and in my understanding of Boas’s, and anthropology’s, intellectual development. In every way, this book, so painstakingly and completely assembled by Ludger Müller-Wille and ably translated by William Barr from the original German edition (1994), satisfies both my personal and professional musings.

In and of itself, this book strikes me as an unparalleled contribution to understanding this earliest of episodes in Inuit studies. Boas’s capabilities as a comprehensive chronicler and correspondent are matched by the care and insight brought to these copious materials by both editor and translator. Especially notable is Müller-Wille’s own contribution to this volume, based on the detailed research on Inuit toponymy that he and his wife, Linna Müller-Wille, did in Cumberland Sound. The Müller-Willes both used and “corrected” Boas’s place name inventory, making it a truly useful research tool and, at the same time, more accessible to contemporary Paniturmmiut.

This book also helped me understand the roots of Boas’s other contributions to anthropology: the great majority did not relate at all to the Inuit specifically, but certainly began to form during his year on Baffin Island and even before. While The Central Eskimo (1888) is about Inuit, Franz Boas among the Inuit, for all its insights and sometimes almost tactile “feel” about and for the Inuit, is ultimately more revealing about Boas as a scientist and human being.

This is a book of incredible depth, something not easily discernible without benefit of a detailed reading. It is certainly a volume that cannot just be skimmed and set aside. The details Boas provides about the life of both the Inuit and the Qallunaat in the Sound are rich—surely far richer than almost any chronicle kept by other non-Inuit in the North at the time. In these terms, there are lodes of ethnographic information to be mined. However, it is what these letters, journals, and field notes tell of Boas himself that most captured me.

Every person interested in the opening of the Canadian Arctic to scientific inquiry will find substance here, as will students of Inuit life and society, intellectual history, and scientific “autobiography” (although autobiography was clearly not Boas’s intent). On occasion, the details provided by Boas, coupled with those contributed by the editor, are near daunting. They are also always worth the exertion.

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