

cohesive alternative to heroic, masculine narratives. But the narrator does not relinquish traditional, romantic dreams of enduring. In a self-reflective gesture, he confesses that people who travel to the Arctic go there “to taunt mortality . . . to drive the self like a stake through the heart of time; to be history” (p. 106). He intimates that, by engaging in endurance sports and writing, he too can achieve this goal. In a deliciously playful and nostalgic conclusion, he envisions his own death (alluding, perhaps, to what Roland Barthes describes as the Death of the Author), and urges readers to look for him in the fictive arctic landscape of his imagination—a landscape which, as he so convincingly argues, exists both “out there” and on the page.

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**POLAR TOURISM: TOURISM IN THE ARCTIC AND ANTARCTIC REGIONS.** Edited by COLIN MICHAEL HALL and MARGARET E. JOHNSON. Rexdale, Ontario: John Wiley & Sons, 1995. 329 p., maps, b&w illus., bib., indexes. Hardbound. Cdn\$90.50.

One would not think that tourism in polar areas had reached the point where a book on the subject might be merited, but in the last few years it has received more attention, especially in Antarctica: A book entitled *Antarctic Tourism* was published in 1994, and several international symposia on polar tourism and Arctic tourism have been held. Tourism in the Arctic has a history of many decades, but in Antarctica it began only in the late 1950s with a cruise vessel to the Antarctic Peninsula. The pace of tourism accelerated in the 1970s and afterward, perhaps because of marketing techniques and the construction of ice-strengthened ships for passenger travel in polar regions.

A relatively recent development in Arctic tourism was the first tour vessel in 1984 through the Northwest Passage of Canada, an itinerary that has since become popular each summer. The availability of Russian icebreakers has made possible annual trips to the Geographic North Pole, Northeast Passage, Northwest Passage, and also various parts of Antarctica. Onboard helicopters for Antarctic itineraries have made adventure tourism attractive because they allow access to emperor penguin colonies within range of the icebreakers.

The editors of this book define polar tourism as “all travel for pleasure or adventure within polar regions, exclusive of travel for primarily governmental, commercial, subsistence, military or scientific purposes” (p. 8). They point out two major differences that affect the management of tourism in the two polar regions—national sovereignty, and indigenous peoples. In the Arctic, all land areas are within national

boundaries and well defined, although some disagreement exists over the definition of international waters. In addition, the Arctic has been populated by indigenous people for thousands of years, and today there are large cities north of the Arctic Circle (e.g., Murmansk). Antarctica has no indigenous population, and as far as anyone can determine, never has had any. A widespread distribution of research stations in Antarctica includes a cumulative total of perhaps a few thousand people at the height of activities, the austral summer. Numbers of tourists there have peaked at about 8000 annually, all from about November through February. The total number of tourists who have visited Antarctica since records have been kept is about 70 000, an insignificant number when compared to those in other environmentally sensitive areas (e.g., Galapagos). In addition, nearly all tourism in Antarctica is conducted from ships, with no shore-based stations, a significant difference from research stations with a permanent presence on land. The exception to ship-based tourism in Antarctica is that of a private company that flies its clients to a base in the interior (from Punta Arenas, Chile, to Patriot Hills, at 80° South), where they have options of climbing the highest peaks on the continent, or traveling further to the Geographic South Pole.

It is possible that interest in polar tourism has been sparked by the “green” or eco-tourism movement that is present in other parts of the world. There is more attention paid now to wildlife areas, in particular those that appear to be vulnerable to visits by humans, especially in large numbers. Management of visitors to the polar areas, with these concerns in mind, appears to be the overriding theme of this book.

The book consists of 17 chapters, with introductory and concluding chapters by the editors. The other chapters are about equally divided on the Arctic (8 chapters) and Antarctica (7 chapters). The authors of the individual chapters all have experience in various kinds of field studies of tourism, or in tourism management in their respective countries. Fringe areas (subarctic, sub-Antarctic) are included by some authors. In Antarctica, these are islands outside the Antarctic Treaty area (north of 60° South latitude), and thus are not under the management regime of the Treaty countries. However, the respective countries owning these islands (Norway, France, New Zealand, Australia, United Kingdom, and South Africa), have individual tourism policies ranging from no visits permitted (Bouvetøya), to moderate controls on numbers of visits by ships and passengers allowed ashore. Many sub-Antarctic islands have already experienced substantial exploitation of wildlife, and have been invaded by a variety of animals (e.g., rats and feral cats) that have affected the native bird populations in particular. As a result, management policies are likely to become stricter as the number of visitors increases.

The strength of this book is the section on Antarctica and the sub-Antarctic. Tourism history there began with the onset of the International Geophysical Year (1957–58) and coincides more or less with the succeeding growth of research stations. The Antarctic Treaty (1959, ratified in 1961) governs all activities there, as the self-appointed Treaty signatories

have included tourism along with science activities as part of their responsibilities. Thus, codes of conduct exist for all visits by humans, with one for tourists resembling that practiced by tour operators for many years prior to a recent recommendation enacted at the Treaty meeting in 1994. The latter stresses protection of wildlife and vegetation, as well as guidance for station visits to prevent interference with science programs.

Tourism in both polar regions is currently being used to support territorial claims (such as the Northwest Passage in the Canadian Arctic), and in Antarctica offers a potential mechanism to justify claims which are held in a suspended state by Treaty signatories. Territorial claims in Antarctica by seven countries did not have to be surrendered according to the 1959 Treaty, but are unenforceable and not recognized by other Treaty signatories. No passports or visas are required to enter Antarctica. In the Arctic, passports are required to travel among the land areas in polar latitudes, and visas in some cases. Tourism practices vary with the individual country, but do not approach the standardization seen among tour operators in Antarctica, some of which also conduct tourism in the Arctic. The formation of the International Association of Antarctica Tour Operators (IAATO) in 1991 was a major step in setting aside the commercial competition of the operators and acting as a single body to initiate standardized guidelines of operations for themselves and for their tourist clients. The IAATO members have cooperated with the Antarctic Treaty members at meetings to adopt management policies that are certain to lead to stricter controls on tourism, but will also protect wildlife. In Antarctica, science is the primary reason for a human presence, but properly managed tourism has found a niche that is compatible with science.

“Co-operation among tour operators is less common in the northern polar regions, probably because it has not seemed necessary or possible” (editors, p. 304). But there has been both self-regulation and governmental regulation there, with many policies for particular aspects of tourism. The eight countries that have circumpolar territory have individual policies for tourism, and within some of the countries (e.g., political units within Canada) more specific regulations. With the tourist frontiers (polar regions) receiving more interest, it appears that other areas are no longer unique, or are becoming overly crowded, and tourists want something a little different and more adventurous. Mass tourism in polar areas sounds repulsive, however: hence the need for the appropriate authorities to provide management policies that are environmentally sound. A step in this direction might be to adopt a comprehensive code for visitors to the Arctic that covers the various types of tourism activities there (road, rail, air, ship), and would also be agreeable to all involved countries (Mason, 1994). The existing IAATO Guidelines and the recently enacted “Guidance for Visitors” (Antarctic Treaty Consultative Meeting, 1994) are a start, with a counterpart of IAATO to be instituted for the Arctic tour operators. The next polar tourism conference is a good place for dialogue on this subject.

Overall, the book satisfies the objective of covering all salient aspects of polar tourism, both north and south, and

bringing the reader up to date on current regulations that pertain to each area. The quality of printing and illustrations is excellent, and the book has few mistakes or omissions. The map on p. 19 could have been better chosen to illustrate the territorial claims in Antarctica (no northern boundary is shown, and Norway’s claim is inaccurate). The audience for the book can conceivably include not only tour operators, but also tourists, environmentalists, policy-makers for tourism management, and officials in offices of economic development. There is an overriding message in this book: protection of the environment in the remaining pristine polar areas of our planet is possible, and lessons learned there can be applied to areas of comparable vulnerability elsewhere.

#### REFERENCE

MASON, P. 1994. A visitor code for the Arctic. *Tourism Management* 15(2):93–97.

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MARTIN FROBISHER’S NORTHWEST VENTURE, 1576–1581: MINES, MINERALS & METALLURGY. By D.D. HOGARTH, P.W. BOREHAM and J.G. MITCHELL. Hull: Canadian Museum of Civilization, 1994. Mercury Series, Directorate Paper 7. xiii + 180 p., maps, illus., bib., index. Softbound. Cdn\$21.95.

The story of the three Frobisher expeditions to the eastern Arctic, 1576–78, remains deeply fascinating for many of us. This is partly because despite much research, both archaeological and historical, many questions remain answered. The most notable of these is why, with the relatively advanced technology of the late 16th century, could so much effort have been expended in mining worthless rock? How could the assays have given such erroneous and diverse results? What are the geology and mineralogy of the ore that was mined, and how was a gold content first linked with this ore? What is the actual gold content of this ore? This book addresses these technological questions using a modern scientific and analytical approach.

Originally planned as a voyage of exploration in search of a Northwest Passage to the Orient, the first Frobisher expedition (two barks plus a pinnace, with a total of 37 men), reached what is now known as Frobisher Bay in 1576. It brought back to England a black rock, which initial assays showed to contain appreciable quantities of gold. Although almost all of the many subsequent check assays showed that the rock was in fact worthless, the organizers of the expedition chose to pursue the issue and to undertake another expedition the following year (with three ships and 146 men) as a prospecting and mining venture. This expedition