FIRST ON THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT. By C.E. BORCHGREVINK. First pub. London: George Newnes, Ltd., 1901. New ed., with Introduction by Tore Gjelsvik, Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press, 1980. 333 p., Appendices, index, maps. Hardcover. $49.00.

At that time in Canadian history when the ring of the miner's pick echoed through the gold-filled valleys of the Klondike, ten men at the other end of the world were living through a winter on the Antarctic continent. They were the first to do so; the year was 1899. Though the name of Scott has become synonymous with the Antarctic, it was Carsten E. Borchgrevink, a Norwegian, leading a small expedition flying the British flag, who was the first to experience the inhospitable, desolate, yet uncannily beautiful land which had remained elusive for such a long time.

Ever since Sir James Clark Ross had returned from his eminently successful 1840-41 voyage, from bountiful seas and what one of Ross's scientists called "the whitest if not the brightest jewel" in Queen Victoria's crown, interest had been growing in the Antarctic. As a member of H.J. Bull's 1894 expedition in the steam whaler *Antarctic*, Borchgrevink had been one of the seven-man boat party to effect a first landing on the Antarctic continent. Returning to England after that epic experience, Borchgrevink obtained financial support from Sir George Newnes to lead his own expedition. He departed on 22 August 1898 for that mystical land, in the steam-powered barque-rigged *Southern Cross*. The Borchgrevink expedition received comparatively little publicity in England at the time of its preparation and has remained somewhat obscure ever since. There is little doubt that there was some indignation at the thought of a polar party carrying the British flag and financed by an Englishman, being led by a Norwegian, particularly at a time when plans were being made for the fielding of a large British national expedition (Scott's *Discovery* expedition).

The subsequent account of Borchgrevink's establishment and occupancy of Camp Ridley at Cape Adare, Victoria Land through the winter of 1899 has been overshadowed ever since by the accounts of the Scott and Shackleton expeditions which followed a few years later. While it is inconceivable to imagine that Scott did not benefit a great deal from Borchgrevink's report, no reference is made by Scott to the *Southern Cross* expedition; this is especially surprising in view of the fact that Scott had two of Borchgrevink's men with him in 1903.

First on the Antarctic Continent is a book for the polar historian and for every library. It is needed to fill in the blanks and serve as the opening paragraph in the story of Antarctic exploration through the heroic era. The price tag is stiff but it is nicely bound and printed, and lavishly illustrated with photographs representing the first scenes the world saw of the "unknown continent" and its maritime fauna, and of man's activity in a polar environment.

One must question the extent and dimension of the scientific program and why Borchgrevink did not make a more serious attempt to explore inland: was he in fact so topographically confined to the beach? It is obvious that as a leader he did not realize the great value and importance of constant activity during a polar winter that confines all members to the shelter of the base hut. Members of the Borchgrevink party grew weary of one another through inactivity, and that *esprit de corps* that permeated later expeditions was clearly absent. Of course, the fact that many polar expeditions in the early 1900s were essentially naval in structure, with the attendant discipline, would account for much of the contrast.

The zoologist Hanson died of natural causes, but otherwise the party survived the winter in good health. Some spring sled journeys were made along the coast and on 28 January 1900 the *Southern Cross* returned to pick up the Camp Ridley party. Prior to heading north, and home, the *Southern Cross* cruised south along the Barrier (terminus of the Ross Ice Shelf) to tie up in the vicinity of the Bay of Whales (later used by Amundsen), from which point a sled journey was made to provide the expedition with a farthest southing of 78°58′S (Ross had cruised to 78°12′S).

Borchgrevink was not a polar traveller in the way that we may regard Amundsen, but neither was Scott. Compared to the Scott, Shackleton, Mawson, and Amundsen expeditions that followed, with their great contributions in terms of scientific enquiry and the techniques of polar travel, Borchgrevink's expedition could only be termed a polar reconnaissance. But Borchgrevink was a pioneer and his accomplishments may today be recognized in that light with greater clarity and appreciation.

For those who are interested in the history of the Antarctic the account of man's first wintering on that unique continent must be an important chronicle. McGill-Queen's University Press are to be congratulated for reminding us of an expedition which has never received the recognition that was its due.

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NORTH TO THE HORIZON. SEARCHING FOR PEARY'S CROCKER LAND. By HARRISON J. HUNT and RUTH HUNT THOMPSON. Camden, Maine 04843: Down East Books, 1980. ix + 117 p., 1 map, 13 photos, index. Hardcover. US$11.95 plus $1 for shipping.

This a compact book, of importance in the history of the Arctic. It was done by a daughter from the notes and reminiscences of her late father who practiced medicine for 56 years, four of them as surgeon of the 1913-1917 Crocker Land Expedition. The expedition ship departed from Brooklyn, New York, on 2 June 1913. Hunt describes the voyage briefly: the ship was handled badly and went aground in Labrador and, in getting a replacement and transferring cargo, precious time was lost. The plan was to base the expedition in the Cape Sabine area of Ellesmere Island, but being prevented by ice conditions, they settled on the eastern side of Smith Sound at Etah, Greenland. A relief ship was to call for them in two years — three at most — but four years passed before one reached this far north.

There is a chapter on persons and life at Etah, one on the polar Inuit, then a diary 13 October 1913 to 1 June 1914 (at other times Hunt kept notes irregularly), then a further chronological account. The epic portion is the account of Hunt's winter trip south to Holsteinborg, some 1500 American miles, parts of its overland, and practically all of it under unusually adverse conditions. The book closes with a brief epilogue.

The serious reader will familiarize himself with at least the principal earlier account of the same expedition, written by its leader, Donald B. MacMillan (1918). It is considerable of a promotion-piece and, even with hairbreadth escapes, accidents, and death, it leaves one with a feeling that, on the whole, trips north are cheery adventures. Other useful accounts include MacMillan (1915, 1928) and Green (1928). The best short summation is in Laursen (1972).

But the story is different with Hunt. He had been an outstanding athlete, was an idealist and a dreamer, and whenever he focused on any goal he proceeded with dispatch and dogged singlemindedness. At age 35 he went north against the wishes of his father and despite the grief of his wife. Financially, he could not affored to go.

Matters went awry from the beginning. Hunt (and others) signed aboard on faith, not having checked the contract which had not been revised as promised; later, they felt that they had been bamboozled. All publication rights belonged to MacMillan and materials "of every kind" became the property of the American Museum of Natural History. But what especially rankled with Hunt was that "the parties of the second part individually assume all personal risks pertaining to the expedition . . ." and "all payment of salary . . . will cease immediately upon his death or complete disability." In his posthumous book Hunt comes through always as very strong physically, thoroughly disciplined, a hard worker, and liked by whites and Inuit alike. MacMillan, who used nicknames for other persons, mentioned Hunt rather formally — not as Hal. Just possibly, being an M.D. made some difference. They appear to have agreed to disagree, but behaved in a correct manner.

The expedition personnel were new to the north — except for MacMillan who had been there before with his hero, Peary. His status as leader (with perquisites), augmented by his previous experience, were exploited by him to his advantage. For example, he knew what was the best dog-harness material and got it for his own team. There were recurring problems, such as ship's stores for the staff not being distributed equitably but instead being traded for furs. This did not set well with staff nor local traders Peter Freuchen and Knud Rasmussen. (In due course the Danish administration made restrictions regarding who had permission to trade.) Hunt declined to cohabit with Inuit women. His reactions to situations seem fair, but he could be critical. For instance, he regarded Freuchen and Rasmussen as bad planners when they traveled with dogs in poor condition, with minimal food, and with women. If he himself were to go a certain distance, he equated this with so much biscuit, so many dead seals for the dogs, and no impedimenta, so as to get there in briefest time. He saw a trip as a job to be done forthwith — not in the native way of making it a social event. Most of the difficulties among personnel, poor planning, matters of questionable or divided leadership, and treatment of

women recur in Hunt's book and not in MacMillan's. Some expedition members, incidentally, had a penchant for naming geographical features, both in Greenland and in the Canadian sector.

In autumn of 1914 Hunt already was thoroughly frustrated and yearned to be back home in Maine, but he had his orders and obeyed them. Much later, when he was ordered to go south, he began his epic journey. With Knud Rasmussen, W.E. Ekblaw, and an entourage including women, children, and some 70 dogs, Hunt started from North Star Bay on 18 December 1916. The group stayed briefly at Cape York and then, in bad weather, continued on beyond Upernavik; most of the party then turned around and headed back home. Ekblaw was in bad shape, especially after a brutal crossing of Melville Bay, and so stayed at Upernavik to recover and to catch a southbound ship later at Jakobshavn. Then Hunt, with three Inuit, continued on south — parts of the journey overland over nearly impassable terrain (see the map) and with difficulties from thin ice and open water around coastal islands — to Jakobshavn (8 March midnight) and (more bad travel) to Egedesminde. He left there on 18 March, via skin boat, and arrived at Holsteinborg on 22 April — three months later than anticipated. On 12 May the *Hans Egede* arrived there. She sailed with Hunt aboard and reached Copenhagen on 1 June 1917. It was wartime, his 39th birthday, and he was penniless and still wearing the sealskin clothing of the south Greenlanders. He was given credit and clothes and traveled to Oslo; thence, via U.S. ship, he arrived in New York on 20 June.

The whole expedition might be viewed in another context. In the Russian sector, very early in the 1800s, one Jacob Sannikov thought he saw land north of the New Siberian Archipelago. Perhaps he saw icebergs on the horizon, or possibly (from refraction) Bennett Island — so named by De Long in 1881 for the American newspaper publisher, James Gordon Bennett, Jr. This was the genesis of "Sannikov Land", in search of which Baron Toll and companions lost their lives, as recounted in detail by Barr (1981). It does not exist. In the Canadian sector Peary thought he saw land in the polar sea northwest of Axel Heiberg Island. This he named "Crocker Land" — for George Crocker of the Peary Arctic Club. Before Hunt departed northward he asked Peary if he was certain that he had seen "Crocker Land" and not a mirage. Peary's reply was insulting; nobody was to question his word. But an Inuk had said it was only mist. In MacMillan's 1918 book, the existence of "Crocker Land" is denied early, on page 82; in Hunt's book it is mentioned briefly, on page 55. It does not exist.

MacMillan, having learned how to make expeditions pay, went north many times and there is a considerable literature — mostly popular — about him and the schooner *Bowdoin*. Hunt stayed in Maine and, never taking the easy route, was a pioneer in the treatment of venereal disease at a time when it was unmentionable and long before the discovery of penicillin. His last employment (1954-1960) was as general practitioner under comparatively primitive conditions off the coast on Swan's Island. He died on 17 July 1967, at age 89.

Cape Hunt (80°41′N, 53°33′W) on the "W coast of Warming Land" was so named by the Second Thule Expedition, in tribute, for Harrison Hunt, American surgeon on the Crocker Land Expedition (Laursen, 1972). His book deserves a considerable audience.

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ALEUTS: SURVIVORS OF THE BERING LAND BRIDGE. By WILLIAM S. LAUGHLIN. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980. viii + 151 p., 6 maps, 53 figs., gloss, bib. of cited and recommended reading. Softbound. US$7.00.

The quality and strength of this anthropological study of the Aleuts lie in the author's ability to integrate ethnological, archaeological, linguistic and physical information. Laughlin's perspective is both humanistic and scientific, resulting in a refreshingly vital study of a people.

The volume is part of the Case Studies in Cultural Anthropology Series, edited by George and Louise Spindler. The series, in the editors' words, is designed "to bring . . . insights into the richness and complexity of human life", particularly for undergraduate students in the social sciences. Laughlin addresses this book also to the Aleut people, to scientific researchers, and to government and legal personnel involved with the Aleuts. It demonstrates clearly the anthropological approach to human studies: each sub-discipline contributes to the goal of producing a complete view of the Aleuts and their lifeway. This example of the procedures and results of anthropological research should prove particularly valuable to the student and to northern scholars from other disciplines. Because of its brevity and summary nature, however, *Aleuts* lacks the technical detail and documentation necessary to the scholar of the particular area and discipline.

The volume opens with a list of "key items in the Aleut information matrix" (p. 1-2), which is in fact a straightforward list of things to bear in mind in understanding the Aleuts. The occasional use of terminology such as "information matrix" is unfortunate because it obscures the presentation of basic and interesting facts. Following this introduction, however, the book is organized into one chapter each on physical anthropology, Aleutian Islands geography and environment, the historic period (which focuses on contact between Aleuts and Russian fur seekers) and language; two chapters on archaeology; and three covering various aspects of Aleut culture. These latter are categorized under hunting, village life and treatment of the dead. The final chapter places today's Aleuts in the context of the modern world, including organization into native corporations, administration under the Alaskan and United States governments, and adaptation to new village groupings brought about through population decline and resettlement within the Aleutian Island chain.

Those familiar with northern anthropology will immediately recognize Laughlin's unwavering conviction that today's Aleuts are the ethnic, physical and linguistic descendants of the people who first occupied the Aleutian area about 8500 years ago. The archaeological sequence of the Aleutians begins with the well-dated unifacial core and blade material from the Anangula Blade site. This sequence continues with evidence from the Anangula Village site which is interpreted as the "transition culture" (p. 70-75) linking the early unifacial lithic material with later, well preserved and documented Aleut archaeological remains. The Chaluka Village site provides remains from the most recent 4000 years of Aleut prehistory.

Stratigraphic interpretation and numerous radiocarbon dates support this sequence. The ethnic identity of the people responsible for the remains is, however, open to interpretation. Extension of the ethnic identity of living peoples into the past is always tempting, yet it can be misleading. Here, the archaeological evidence indicates several shared traits between the Aleuts and the Eskimos of the North Pacific. The ethnological, physical and linguistic evidence in this study lend support to the argument for an 8500-year time depth to Aleut ethnic identity. In this case, there is no question of the course of events, only of the time span of their occurrence. Archaeological evidence from elsewhere on the islands and coasts of the Gulf of Alaska and the Bering Sea may yet indicate that the final divergence between Aleuts and Eskimos occurred well after the first occupation at Anangula, or at least after a significant period when the cultural, physical and linguistic boundaries between them were less clear than they are today. Laughlin's viewpoint, however, is so strong as to verge on bias.

One strength of the book lies in the careful blending of descriptive material with examples of problem-solving through research. The summation of Aleut prehistory and history (p. 92-95), the description of training children to hunt (p. 28-31), and the historical chapter ("Cossacks") are particularly vivid examples. In the latter, Laughlin reviews the oral Aleut account of the premeditated massacre of several Russians, then describes the discovery and excavation of 13 skeletons found with Russian artifacts. Osteological study showed that the skeletons were not Aleut. Russian journals provided information about the identity of a