THE CANADIAN
ARCTIC EXPEDITION,
1913-1918

A BRIEFING REPORT FOR ACTION CANADA

by David R. Gray,
Grayhound Information Services
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ACTION CANADA
BUILDING LEADERSHIP FOR CANADA’S FUTURE
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To put yourself in the shoes of the Canadian Arctic Expedition, picture a group of thirty rugged men of many sorts and disciplines, from many different countries, gathered together with their leaders for the first time, in the tiny coastal village of Nome, Alaska. It’s July 1913, only a year before the outbreak of the Great War, of which they had no inkling. They simply looked ahead to months of exploration and research in the snowy wilderness of Canada’s Arctic. Over the next three years they would be joined by over a hundred other men and women, mostly local Inupiat, Inuvialuit, and Inuit, who were employed by the Canadian Arctic Expedition (CAE). Seventeen of those men would not return home. Most of the scientists, after working and living alongside the people of the north, returned almost four years later, scarcely informed about the war, and carrying with them thousands of artifacts, crates of specimens, photos, film and sound recordings; scientific data and knowledge which has been used in Arctic science ever since. Two years later the others returned, having carried the Canadian flag to 80° north, and having claimed three new islands for Canada.

The Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913-1918 was the first Canadian Government expedition to the western arctic and at the time, the largest multi-disciplinary scientific arctic expedition ever mounted. It was an important event in Canada’s history and had a profound impact on the world of science, and on the people of the north, an impact that continues to this day.

A story of scientific and geographical exploration, the CAE is also a story of personal trials and tragedies, deaths and births, marriages and a meeting of cultures.

In 2013 Canada is commemorating the 100th anniversary of the launch of the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913-1918. The Royal Canadian Mint issued new commemorative coins on the Expedition in January 2013. Banners depicting the CAE are flying on Parliament Hill this summer. A publically-funded CAE Anniversary Expedition to Banks Island in the Western Canadian Arctic investigated several camps and the headquarters of the CAE this summer. A new documentary film based on this research expedition will be produced this year. Canada Post is also considering commemorative stamps on the Canadian Arctic Expedition.

BACKGROUND TO THE 1913-1918 EXPEDITION

And how did this Expedition come to be? After Norwegian explorer Roald Amundsen achieved the first voyage through the Northwest Passage in 1906, and American Robert Peary claimed to have reached the North Pole in 1909, exploration in Canada’s Arctic became less about getting there first, and more about understanding the geography, the wildlife, and the people. It was a curious world.

When Canadian-born explorer Vilhjalmur Stefansson approached the Canadian government in 1913 for additional funding for a new Expedition to Canada’s Arctic, an Expedition that was backed by the American Museum of Natural History in New York, Prime Minister Borden decided that Canada should take over the entire effort. With the support of his ministers, a strong scientific component was added to the proposed objectives. Thus the Canadian Arctic Expedition was born.

Stefansson, as Expedition leader, was a headstrong adventurer. Dr. R.M. Anderson, appointed leader of the scientific party, was a competent, meticulous scientist, reluctant to work with Stefansson again because of previous experiences, but solid in his ambition to document as much of the biology and culture of the north as the Expedition would allow. The clash between the two leaders began at the launch of the journey and persisted throughout and beyond to the publication of their findings.
Canadian and world newspapers of the day closely followed the progress of the Expedition. However, their return to the “civilized” world was overshadowed by the start of WWI. Consequently, this great Expedition has never been appropriately recognized for what it achieved. It was an event which has had a world impact on polar science and for which Canada should claim great prestige.

The Canadian Arctic Expedition was declared an event of national significance in 1925, the first Arctic event to have been so recognised, but its official designation as an National Historic Event was lost for many years, and only recently restored.

A SUMMARY OF THE EXPEDITION 1913-1918

The Beginning
As the inspiration of anthropologist Vilhjalmur Stefansson, the Expedition was initially to be a continuation of cultural work in the western arctic begun during the Stefansson-Anderson Expedition of 1908-1912 and a new exploration for unknown lands in the Beaufort Sea. With the new Canadian direction of scientific research along the Canadian arctic coast added to the goals, the effort grew significantly.

The new objectives resulted in a division into two parties: the Northern Party led by Stefansson, to explore north of the mainland, and the Southern Party, led by Dr. R.M. Anderson, an experienced arctic zoologist, to conduct research on the northern mainland. Two government agencies were assigned responsibility: the Department of Naval Service and the Geological Survey of Canada. It was to be a three-year work, employing fourteen scientists.

1913 Departure
In June 1913 they set out from Victoria, B.C., on the former Arctic whaler, Karluk, under the command of Captain Robert Bartlett, an experienced Arctic captain from Newfoundland who had helped Robert Peary attain his farthest north in 1909. The official send-off featured speeches from the Mayor of Victoria and the Premier of B.C. who presented the CAE with new Canadian flags. Many other dignitaries, such as British Columbia’s Lieutenant Governor, also took part, and the luncheons, dinners, ceremonies, speeches, and salutes created a grand send-off. This was a huge event for the young country.

Two schooners, Alaska and Mary Sachs, were purchased at Nome, Alaska, to handle the increase in men and supplies due to the expanded objectives. The two smaller Expedition schooners were able to navigate in shallow water as far as Collinson Point, Alaska, where they overwintered. However, severe ice conditions along the north coast of Alaska entrapped Karluk and several other ships. Captain Bartlett and Stefansson did not see eye-to-eye on the details of Arctic navigation. When it seemed clear that Karluk would not be freed from the ice, Stefansson left Karluk with five others to hunt caribou in September 1913, leaving Bartlett with the responsibility for the safety of the ship and men.

1914 Loss of the Karluk
Karluk drifted west with the pack ice, and Stefansson never re-joined his ship. Karluk was crushed and sank in January 1914 near Wrangel Island, north of the Siberian coast. Thanks to Captain Bartlett’s leadership, most of the 25 people on board reached Wrangel Island safely.
However, four men who left the ship against Bartlett's wishes, were lost on the ice and four others died after reaching nearby Herald Island. After establishing a camp on Wrangel Island, Bartlett and Inupiat hunter, Kataktovik, crossed the dangerous ice to the Russian mainland and completed an incredibly rugged journey along the Siberian coast and east to Alaska to arrange the rescue of the others. Three men died on Wrangel Island before they were rescued in the fall of 1914. Only one of the six scientists on Karluk survived the ordeal.

After the loss of Karluk, Stefansson purchased the schooner North Star and new supplies, and hired local hunters, seamstresses, and ship's crew from several localities along the arctic coast of Alaska to assist in the planned work of the Expedition.

The First Winter 1913-1914
The men of the Southern Party spent the first winter at Collinson Point, Alaska, learning to hunt, travel, and drive dog teams, and making various scientific observations. Anthropologist Diamond Jenness excavated old Inuit settlements on Barter Island and studied the Mackenzie Inuit. In the late winter the topographers and geologist, Chipman, Cox, and O’Neill, completed contour and geological mapping along much of the coast from the international boundary, up the Firth River, and throughout the east and west channels of the Mackenzie River Delta.

In March 1914, Stefansson visited the Southern Party, announcing that he planned to use Mary Sachs, as well as some of the southern party's supplies and dogs, for his northern exploration. This led to considerable conflict between the two leaders, and between Stefansson and the other scientists, part of a series of disputes resulting from Stefansson's leadership of an expedition with two parties, two objectives, and two funding authorities giving instructions. Eventually Stefansson left with his ice party of three sleds, heading north over the Beaufort Sea ice to drift for several months before landing at Banks Island.

In the summer of 1914, the three small Expedition schooners made their way along the coast to Herschel Island, arriving only one year behind schedule! They continued east to Dolphin and Union Strait where their established their headquarters at Bernard Harbour. These schooners were the first ships to carry the Canadian flag along the western arctic coast.

Wilkins, the Expedition photographer, took Mary Sachs to Banks Island in August with supplies for Stefansson's Party and established the first base camp for the Northern Party near Cape Kellet (at a place now called Mary Sachs Creek). Stefansson and his three men landed on Banks Island in late June after 96 days and 500 miles of travel over the ice. They spent most of the winter at the camp, which consisted of a wood-frame house with sod walls and several double-walled tents, before heading North again.

The Second Year 1914-1915
After a busy winter of preparation, Dr. Anderson, along with Jenness and marine biologist Frits Johansen, explored the lower Coppermine River in February 1915, passing through what is now the town of Kugluktuk. Jenness then visited a large Copper Inuit snowhouse village on the sea ice near the Berens Islands. Later he travelled to Victoria Island and lived with an Inuit family for several months. At Bernard Harbour, he acquired a fabulous collection of representative utensils, tools, weapons and clothing of the Copper Inuit, described their material culture, and made sound recordings of their songs.
Also in February 1915, the crew of Alaska, other trappers and traders wintering along the coast, and several Inuit were afflicted with what they suspected was scurvy. Recognizing the lack of variety in their diet, they began eating more meat. In a somewhat ironic switch of roles, the Alaska’s engineer, Daniel Blue, was able to trade chewing gum for some “scurvy medicine” or citric acid, from the local natives. The problem cleared up as long as the medicine and fresh meat lasted.

“Apr. 15th. The scurvy has set in again in my legs, now all the provisions we have are, Peas, flour, and sugar, no medicine for scurvy, I procured a bottle of Enoch’s Fruit Salts from Mr. Girling,… (Daniel Blue Diary, 1915)

Blue returned from a ptarmigan hunt, riding on a sled and apparently suffering from pneumonia, and died on 2 May 1915 after an illness of ten days.

As soon as the severe winter conditions allowed travel in 1915, the Southern Party travelled east from Bernard Harbour, through Coronation Gulf, to Bathurst Inlet by dogsled, umiak, and schooner. They surveyed and mapped copper-bearing rocks in Bathurst Inlet, collected hundreds of specimens, and explored, mapped, and named islands and rivers along the coast. Wilkins, Natkusiak, and North Star assisted the Southern Party before heading to the northwest coast of Banks Island to re-join Stefansson.

Discovering New Lands 1915-1916
Meanwhile, travelling by dog sled over the sea ice and supporting themselves by hunting seals, caribou, and muskoxen, the men and women of Stefansson’s Northern Party established winter camps on Banks and Melville Islands. From there smaller parties discovered Brock and Borden Islands. Stefansson purchased a fourth ship, the schooner Polar Bear, in August 1915 and tried to go north to Melville Island by sea, but was forced by ice to winter at Victoria Island.

The Northern Party continued work in the northern islands in 1916, starting off in late January and discovering Meighen Island at 80o North in mid June. In August they explored their third “New Land,” later named Lougheed Island, then retreated south to the winter camp at Cape Grassy, on Melville Island.

1916 Return to Ottawa
After wintering again at Bernard Harbour, the Southern Party scientists continued their research, and several men returned to Bathurst Inlet in March 1916 to complete their studies. Johansen explored the southern coast of Victoria Island to Murray Point, including what is now called Johansen Bay. When they all re-united at their headquarters, all the collections, specimens, and equipment were packed on board the Alaska. With 27 people, 25 dogs, and tons of scientific cargo, Alaska left the Bernard Harbour headquarters in mid July. The Southern Party paid off and discharged their local assistants at Baillie and Herschel Islands, and reached Nome, Alaska in mid August. Traveling south by coastal steamer the scientists reached Victoria, BC, then took the train back in Ottawa, arriving unheralded due to the focus on the war, in October 1916, thus successfully completing the planned three-year Expedition.

Reluctant Return 1917-1918
Stefansson, however, prolonged his stay in the Arctic, in spite of instructions from the Canadian government to return. In March 1917 the Northern Party dog sleds again headed north from Melville Island to Borden Island and out into the sea ice, reaching a latitude beyond 80o north before scurvy forced a return in late April. Some of the men had been eating food cached by Bernier’s expedition to Melville Island, some seven years before and suffered the consequences.
“Oct 25, 1916. Storkerson, Castill and Split arrived at 2 pm. today. They have been to Winter Harbor where they found a fine cache which was left by Capt. Bernier at the Arctic Expedition 1906-10. In the cache was a large variety of things which will as far as the years work is concerned will put us on easy street. There was sugar, milk, beans, peas, corn, butter, lanterns, axes, rope, saws, and in fact everything one could wish for.” (Harold Noice Diary, 1915-1917, Library and Archives Canada).

Stefansson's support parties returned south to the Polar Bear at Victoria Island where Storkersen mapped much of the Island's north coast.

Stefansson reached northern Banks Island again in August 1917 and was forced to walk across the Island to the south coast. There he found Mary Sachs had been re-launched after three years on shore, but then abandoned and wrecked by the Captain of the Polar Bear, Gonzales. Stefansson was luckily able to get out by purchasing a passing schooner, the Challenge. He caught up to Gonzales and the Polar Bear as she worked her way west in September, and dismissed the disobedient captain.

When the Polar Bear ran aground on Barter Island, Alaska, on the way out to Nome, Stefansson took the opportunity to remain for the winter, and planned another Beaufort Sea ice trip. When illness prevented him from this undertaking, Stefansson headed south in 1918, leaving Storkersen in charge of the last ice party. Polar Bear and her crew reached Nome in September 1918. The five-month ice drift was completed in November, thus ending five years of exploration. Stefansson never returned to the Arctic.

THE FRIENDLY ARCTIC?
Although Stefansson's published narrative is entitled The Friendly Arctic, seventeen men died during the Expedition: eleven after Karluk sank, two members of the Southern Party, and four members of the Northern Party. The causes of the deaths were varied: exposure, starvation, suicide, heart attack, pneumonia, scurvy, and drowning. Although Stefansson promoted the idea of living off the country, his exploration parties always carried large amounts of food to supplement their hunting, and at times his men were reduced to eating old skins and rotting meat from long-dead muskoxen.

Charles Thomsen and Peter Bernard died on the north coast of Banks Island in December 1916 or January 1917 while trying to take new sledges and supplies to Stefansson's Northern Party on Melville Island. Bernard's body was never found. They likely died from a combination of weather, exposure, hunger, and exhaustion.

A memorial plaque listing all those who died while serving on the Canadian Arctic Expedition (except Inupiat hunter Pipsuk who died in 1918 at Barter Island, Alaska): “In Memory of Those who Perished - Canadian Arctic Expedition 1913-18” was dedicated in 1926 and displayed in the National Archives building in Ottawa. When the building was torn down in 1967, the plaque was lost.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS
The four islands discovered in 1915 and 1916 by Stefansson's Northern Party were the last major new islands discovered in the Canadian High Arctic, and the only major Canadian islands discovered by a Canadian expedition. Several other unknown islands were discovered from the air after the Second World War, during flights to complete aerial photography of the North. The Canadian Arctic Expedition's ice trips confirmed that Croker Land (northwest of the Arctic islands)
and Keenan Land (north of Alaska) do not exist. The regular soundings of ocean depth during the ice trips also established for the first time, the nature of Canada's polar continental shelf.

The Canadian Arctic Expedition re-drew the map of northern Canada. Stefansson and his Northern Party not only discovered four new islands which were added to Canada's territory, but also discovered and re-mapped significant errors in the maps and charts previously available, some of which were based on British Naval expeditions of the 1850s, part of the search for Sir John Franklin's lost expedition. Maps of Banks and Victoria Islands were clarified or completed, Lougheed Island was delineated as one of the Findlay Islands, and many rivers were described for the first time. During the ice trips Expedition members made many sounding of the ocean floor, and carried out the first tidal observations in this area.

The Southern Party completed the detailed mapping of the Arctic coast from Alaska to Bathurst Inlet, a job that started with Hearne’s trip down the Coppermine River to the arctic coast in 1771. They also mapped the East Channel of the Mackenzie River, the area where Inuvik is now located. Mapping the extent of the copper deposits in the Bathurst Inlet area was a major objective of the Expedition. Another more local map created was a chart of the harbour at Bernard Harbour based on a survey by Cox with the assistance of Patsy Klengenberg, the youngest working member of the CAE.

Dr Anderson and Diamond Jenness recorded many traditional Inuktitut names for places along the Arctic coast from Alaska to Bathurst Inlet. Some of these names were almost lost as they had not been passed on even through local oral histories.

**Collections**
The Southern Party returned with thousands of specimens of animals, plants, fossils and rocks, thousands of artifacts from the Copper Inuit and other Eskimo cultures, and about 4,000 photographs and 9,000 feet of movie film, covering all aspects of the Expedition and its objectives. All of this has laid the scientific foundation for knowledge of Canada’s North. This material has been used in countless scientific projects and publications, including identification keys and guides. The photographs have been and continue to be used in many publications and the film footage taken by Wilkins has appeared in many television and film productions. Many of the artifacts and specimens collected, including some of the larger mammals that were mounted by taxidermists, have been shown in permanent and travelling exhibits in museums across Canada.

Some real CAE voices are preserved in sound recordings made during the Expedition, including those of Russian Inuk Mike Siberia, and many Mackenzie Inuit and Copper Inuit singers including Jenny, Palaiyak, Taipana, Kuniluk, Takohoqina, and Naneroaq. Other CAE voices recorded in later radio interviews, are those of anthropologist Diamond Jenness, seaman Robert Williamson, and Expedition leader Stefansson.

**Impact**
The Canadian Arctic Expedition had a considerable impact on the northern communities of both the Inuit and Inuvialuit, and also in the south where the new knowledge opened a new world to the Canadian public. Inupiat seamstresses and hunters from Alaska, such as Panigabluk and Natkusiak, moved into the Canadian Arctic as employees of the CAE. Some men married local women, and stayed behind when the Expedition left. Trading for Inuit artifacts introduced new tools, guns, and various utensils to the Copper Inuit. Fox trapping was established as a local industry and lifestyle, and local assistants gained valuable experience and became important members of Arctic communities. The CAE introduced the wage economy, the Canadian Government, and the RNWMP to the Copper Inuit.
Bernard Harbour
The site of the CAE Southern Party’s headquarters at Bernard Harbour became a Hudson’s Bay Company store (from 1916 to 1932) and the base of the Anglican mission to the area in the summer of 1916, soon after the CAE left. The Mission closed in 1928. Later an RCMP post (1926-1932) was established. With this attraction, more of the Copper Inuit families focussed their activities in the area. The construction of a Dew Line site and airstrip increased the numbers of people there, but when the site closed, most people moved to Coppermine, now Kugluktuk. People from Kugluktuk still come to the area near the site of the CAE headquarters to fish for Arctic charr in the nearby fishing creek. On the site of the Canadian Arctic Expedition house today, there are few signs of the activity of 100 years ago. The outline of the house is only indicated by the remnants of the sod walls used to insulate the house.

The “Cape Kellet” Headquarters
The site of the major camp of the Northern Party of the CAE from 1914 to 1917 is located at Mary Sachs Creek, just west of today’s community of Sachs Harbour. The foundations of the CAE huts built in 1914 plus a few remnants of the Expedition’s schooner Mary Sachs are the main features of the site today. Coastal erosion is slowly encroaching on the site and small artifacts on the surface of the site are falling to the beach below, and being lost in the sand. These remnants document the almost continuous use of the site from 100 years ago, to the 1930s, and during the last 50 years as well.

It was not only the CAE headquarters that left an impact on the people and the land: Two of the Expedition schooners were left behind, forming a focal point for camps and settlements. The abandonment of the Mary Sachs on southern Banks Island, and Natkusiak’s acquisition of the North Star, along with the introduction to fox trapping, resulted in the increased use of Banks Island by the Inuvialuit. People were living in the wheelhouse of the Mary Sachs as early as 1928.

The North Star Camp
This camp was established ¾ of the way up the west coast of Banks Island as the Northern Party attempted to get the schooner North Star as far North as possible, to serve as a staging site for the northern explorations in 1916. When the schooner became trapped by ice conditions, Stefansson gave the boat to Natkusiak in lieu of wages owed to him by the Expedition. Natkusiak was not able to get his schooner out for another four years. No one has investigated this site since the schooner days.

Natkusiak’s Camp
Natkusiak’s 1916 winter camp on the Gore Islands, just off the coast at Cape Prince Alfred, has not been visited, except by local hunters in winter, since the time of the Expedition.

Sachs Harbour
Sachs Harbour, the most northerly community in the Northwest Territories, is named for the CAE schooner, Mary Sachs. The Harbour was first described by members of the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913-1918, who briefly anchored the Mary Sachs behind the sandspit in August 1914. At that time there were no people living year-round on the Island, though archaeological sites along the coast dating to the Thule period show that the area was occupied some 500 to 1000 years ago. The traditional name Ikaahuk (“where you go across to”) refers to both the movements of people from Victoria Island to Banks Island to hunt, and the later seasonal use of the Island for fox trapping.
After the departure of the Canadian Arctic Expedition in 1917, fox trapping activity on Banks Island increased and several seasonal camps were established along the coasts by people who travelled from the Mackenzie Delta and Victoria Island. During the time known as “the Schooner Days,” Sachs Harbour provided a place where their schooners could be hauled up safely with the protection of the large sandspit near the mouth of the Sachs River. The present name for the harbour first appeared on official maps in 1946.

Inuvialuit trappers first wintered at Sachs Harbour in 1932 and in the winter of 1941 there were seven families living in the camp at Sachs Harbour. After a short period of little use, activity was renewed in the early 1950s. An RCMP post was established at Sachs Harbour in 1953 and a post office and weather station in 1955. The name of the village became official in 1955. In 1958, Fred Carpenter, who built the first cabin at Sachs Harbour in the late 1930s, established a store and trading post to serve the eight families trapping there.

The 1960s brought more major changes to community life. People began spending their summers there and the last schooner trip to Sachs Harbour occurred in 1961. In 1966 the whole of Banks Island was registered as a group trapping area in which only members of the Sachs Harbour Hunters and Trappers Association had the right to trap. In 1967, as part of a centennial project, a cairn incorporating several parts of the engines of the schooner Mary Sachs was erected on the hillside above the town, commemorating the founding of Sachs Harbour.

SOVEREIGNTY

The Canadian government was clearly concerned with establishing Canada’s sovereignty over any new lands discovered by the CAE. The Honourable J.C. Patterson was paid an annual salary of $2,400 for seven years, between 1914 and 1920, “for investigating titles to British possessions in Arctic seas.” Patterson was a former Minister of the Militia and Secretary of State, and also served as Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba between 1895 and 1900.

The concern was justified. Many of the Arctic islands transferred to Canada from Britain in 1881 had been discovered and mapped by Otto Sverdrup, a Norwegian explorer. American explorers had travelled extensively on the “Canadian” islands where few Canadians had been. At the same time that Stefansson was exploring the Arctic islands from the west, the American explorer Donald MacMillan was following in Sverdrup’s footsteps. He too was interested in demonstrating that Peary’s “Croker Land,” supposedly located northwest of Axel Heiberg Island, did not exist. From his base in Greenland, MacMillan visited Ellef Ringnes Island in April 1916, just three months before Stefansson arrived there to find his cairn and messages. It was Captain Robert Bartlett, former captain of the CAE vessel Karluk, who brought MacMillan’s party home in 1917 on the ship Neptune.

The scientists of the Canadian Arctic Expedition, especially Diamond Jenness, documented the traditional use of winter snowhouse villages out on the ice of Coronation Gulf, part of the Northwest Passage by the Copper Inuit, a little-known aspect of Canadian sovereignty.

Publications

Fourteen volumes of scientific results of the Expedition were published, as well as many scientific papers. Four books have been written on the Karluk disaster and the subsequent rescue from Wrangel Island, but much of the detailed story of this first major Canadian sci-
entific expedition to the Arctic still remains in expedition diaries. Of all the diaries kept (there were at least twenty), only Diamond Jenness’ has been published in full (Arctic Odyssey). Books about the Northern Party include Stefansson’s The Friendly Arctic, Noice’s With Stefansson in the Arctic, and Montgomery’s re-telling of Lorne Knight’s Adventures in the Arctic. A book written for young people in 1925 by Violet Irwin, based on Stefansson’s diaries, The Shaman’s Revenge, tells much of the story of the Northern Party, focussing on the events on Banks and Melville Islands, including the destruction of the Mary Sachs. Until recently the only books about the work of the Southern Party were Jenness’ The People of the Twilight and Dawn in Arctic Alaska. Diamond Jenness’ son, Stuart, has done much to rectify this. His recent books, The Making of an Explorer (the story of Sir Hubert Wilkins’ time with the CAE) and Stefansson, Dr. Anderson and the Canadian Arctic Expedition, 1913-1918: A Story of Exploration, Science and Sovereignty, provide the first comprehensive accounts of its history.

Journal Treasures
An example of the value of the unpublished diaries and journals is the story of a rare Copper Inuit kayak. The kayak has been exhibited several times at the Canadian Museum of Civilization, and is one of thousands of artifacts collected by the Canadian Arctic Expedition. This kayak came to the Museum with no information about its previous history and owner. Expedition anthropologist, Diamond Jenness, was a careful recorder of data about the items he collected, so this missing data was a mystery.

The mystery was solved during a search through the diaries of Expedition biologist, Dr. Rudolph Anderson. Rather than being collected by Jenness, it was Anderson who had recognized the kayak’s significance and arranged to buy it from the Copper Inuit hunter, Kannoyuak. Dr. Anderson lent his shotgun to Kannoyuak and traded a supply of powder, lead and primers for the kayak and paddle.

One of the most exciting fossils to be found in the North is a partial mammoth tusk discovered by the CAE “on Melville Island.” As the northernmost discovery of mammoth remains, its significance was lessened by the absence of precise location data. The missing information was recently discovered in Aarnout Castel’s CAE journal. The tusk was found inland in September 1916 in a riverbed near Storkersen’s Camp on Liddon Gulf.
RESOURCES

Publications (books)


Canada, Department of Mines. Report of the Canadian Arctic Expedition 1913-18 Volumes 3 to 14, Ottawa: King's Printer, Various dates 1922 to 1944

Diubaldo, R. Stefansson and the Canadian Arctic, Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press, 1978

Jenness, Diamond. The People of the Twilight, New York: Macmillan, 1928


Jenness, Stuart E., The Making of an Explorer, George Hubert Wilkins and the Canadian Arctic Expedition, 1913-1916. McGill-Queen’s University Press, 2004


Noice, Harold, With Stefansson in the Arctic, New York: Dodd Mead, 1924


Stefansson, V. The Friendly Arctic: The Story of Five Years in Polar Regions, New York: Macmillan, 1921

Publications (articles)


Documentary Films

Icebound, the final voyage of the Karluk (2005), a docu-drama about the Karluk disaster.

The Copper Inuit. Some of the CAE ethnographic sequences were used in a series of museum educational films produced in the 1960s.


CAE Websites
2. Expedition Arctic 1913-1918 at the Canadian Museum of Civilization. Curator David Gray. Short videos on the exhibition introducing some featured artifacts from the exhibition at Expedition Arctic 1913-1918 on the Canadian Museum of Civilization’s website:

www.civilization.ca/arctic and CAE Blog
www.civilization.ca/arctic/blog

3. Commemorating the 110th Anniversary of the CAE www.canadianarcticexpedition.ca

David R. Gray
Grayhound Information Services
Metcalfe, Ontario K0A 2P0
613-821-2640 grayhound@xplornet.com