

The Arctic Institute of North America

THE ORIGIN OF THE INSTITUTE

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ON 8 DECEMBER 1953, the Rt. Hon. Louis St. Laurent, Prime Minister of Canada, while moving the second reading of the bill to create the Department of Northern Affairs and National Resources, said in the Canadian House of Commons: "Apparently we have administered these vast territories of the north in an almost continuing state of absence of mind." Some ten years earlier, a few Canadians, concerned over the wholly inadequate attention being paid by both Canadian government and people to the rising importance of the northern regions of the world and the significance for Canada of her own huge northern territories, were discussing among themselves what might be done to remedy this state of affairs. Could a group of Canadians, as private citizens, take action that would focus attention on the North? If so, what would be of the most worth? The group, many of them friends, living within easy reach of each other, increased from some three or so in 1942-43 to about half a dozen by early 1944. Their discussions, at that time solely concerned with a Canadian problem, led to a sequence of events that, by 1945, had culminated in the creation and finally the legal incorporation of the Arctic Institute of North America. The object of this article is to tell the story of how this came to pass. It is an attempt by a Canadian founder of the Institute to describe the atmosphere in which it was founded, and to provide some historical documentation.

For centuries the unknown regions of the world, including those of the northern hemisphere, have acted as a magnet to the adventurous. The desire for knowledge, the urge to explore, the search for wealth, have almost always in some degree found themselves in partnership in most of the great voyages of discovery. From the earliest times the northern polar regions have drawn men to them in this many motivated search. This has been well described, with a wealth of scholarly knowledge, in Paul Emile Victor's *Man and the Conquest of the Poles*. But it is not in the context of world history that the origin of the Arctic Institute is to be discussed. The perspective, at the moment of its creation, was something far shorter in time, and the purpose and motivation more immediate.

With the entry of the United States into the war in 1941 and the expansion of the war itself on a global scale, it soon became evident that the strategic interests of Canada's great neighbour to the south were leading that country to a new and urgent concern with the northern and polar regions. The problem of providing aid to the Allies in Europe while the United States was neutral had led to an interest in Greenland and Iceland

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and a realization that long-range air routes now led over northeastern and northwestern Canadian territory. There was also another fact to be taken into account. Canada's geographical position, owing to the steady development of long-distance aviation, now placed her athwart what was destined to be in the near future a crossroads of the world. Stefansson had pointed all this out, not for the first time, in a prophetic article that had appeared in the American quarterly, *Foreign Affairs*, in 1939; and how much more was to happen in the following twenty-five years!

Canada had now to begin thinking of herself as lying between the two greatest powers in the world — the United States of America and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. For Canada this geopolitical fact could place her in a position of some difficulty, and certainly of great responsibility. In a world where scientific knowledge and the need for its technological application were rapidly expanding, it would be of the first importance that a country such as Canada, finding herself in this position, should make it her business to be able to play a part consistent with her great extent of sovereignty over northern regions, and therefore consistent with the needs of an increasingly interrelated world. Fortunately for Canada, and unlike some countries which in other times have found themselves in a somewhat similar position, she possessed all the essentials which would enable her to play her full and proper role in relation to the North. She possessed political stability, reasonable wealth, and an educated population with a high degree of scientific and intellectual capacity. In short there was no inherent lack of capability within Canada which could place in question her ability to perform in relation to the evident needs of the near future.

The question that did present itself in the mid-1940's, with the end of the war already coming into view, was whether when the fighting ended Canada would take the lead appropriate to the great extent of her arctic and northern sovereignty. Would she move with sufficient energy, in both the public and private sectors, to develop her fundamental knowledge of the North? Would she aim to achieve technical and scientific competence in all northern matters so as to be worthy to rank equally in this respect with the other holder of outstandingly extensive arctic sovereignty — Soviet Russia — and also be a worthy collaborator with the United States, whose concern with the North American North, as seen through Canadian eyes in the years 1943-45, might remain a vital continuing interest? In short, would a post-war Canada demonstrate her awareness of the rising significance of the world's northern regions by taking all necessary steps, both in and out of government, to become the western leader in northern knowledge?

There seemed good reason to ask these questions. Much good work had been done in the Canadian North in the earlier years, especially during the first two or three decades of this present century as well as later. Able and dedicated individuals, both in and out of government, had laboured valiantly and well. But for the most part Canadian governments and the Canadian public gave no serious thought to their North. The North and its inhabitants scarcely existed in the Canadian consciousness.

It may come as a surprise to some whose association with the Arctic Institute has only been in recent years to know that thinking such as this, and especially the thinking on the international aspects, was an important feature of the private Canadian discussions of 1943 and early 1944; but such was the case, and this aspect of the discussions was strengthened in early 1944 by a widening of the group to include, but strictly in their personal capacity, two or three who held responsible senior positions in the policy-making sector of Canadian government service.

Throughout this early period the Canadians were concerned with initiating action within Canada to arouse government and people to some sense of urgency regarding the significance of the North — the Canadian North. Discussion centred around the possible creation of some private organization which would stimulate popular interest in the North and help to focus the attention of government and other agencies on administrative, social, and economic problems as well as those in the field of the natural sciences. At this stage it was a case of Canadians attempting to take thought about a purely Canadian problem.

No matter of wide significance can long be contained within narrow limits. The very state of affairs that had led to concern within Canada had also led quite naturally to closely parallel thinking on the part of the United States, but with a difference of interest and perspective. The United States, deeply involved in every aspect of the war, had gone to great lengths to gather and organize any and every type of information which could be useful for the carrying out of its military operations. This included the Army Air Force's Arctic, Desert and Tropic Information Center in New York, generally known as ADTIC. Heading the Arctic section was a scientist recruited from academic life and with a fine record of arctic and antarctic experience. He and some of his associates, also with special experience and interest in arctic and northern matters were inevitably in frequent contact with government and military circles in Ottawa. They came to hear of what the Canadian group were discussing, largely through one of the Canadians, a geographer, then working for the government in Ottawa and already well known to them from peacetime days. They suggested that Canada and the United States had many common interests in the North, especially where scientific research was concerned, and especially in the field of the natural sciences. Would it not be best if anything done were done on a joint Canadian-United States basis? To this the Canadian group eventually agreed, but not before there had been much careful, and even anxious discussion by them of the pros and cons of this proposal for joint action. The fact remained that in the 1940's Canadian concern with her great northern territories differed radically in some important respects from that of the United States with Canada's North. Lesser, but still substantial differences of interest prevail today. The United States' concern in 1944 was largely a combination of strategic interests, with all that that implied, and the strictly scientific interests of many individuals engaged in research to whom Canada's huge northern territories were of major importance. There was Alaska, of course, with its human

problems and its uncertain, and still to be ascertained, economic potential; and there was Danish Greenland. But, in the whole picture of the western North, it was Canada that held the greatest extent of northern territory, significant for strategic, for scientific, or for developmental reasons whether in terms of resources or human beings. So it was only natural that Americans, when they heard of the Canadian initiative, should urge a joint organization.

There was a further element influencing the group from ADTIC. They had built up a remarkable collection of hitherto unassembled information that they were anxious to see preserved and made generally accessible through some responsible organization when the war came to an end, rather than to see it dissipated, as could so easily happen. Thus they wished to see in existence before the war ended some established institution which could qualify as an appropriate recipient of this material. Then, further, it was felt that at least some of those who had received wartime training in arctic and northern work and techniques and had become interested in the problems of the area would wish to continue in such work, and that a permanent organization on an international Canadian-United States basis would provide a focus for this interest, and one moreover that could be of mutual benefit to both countries. Finally, the logic of this thinking suggested that Greenland should be invited to participate, as well as Newfoundland, at that time not a part of Canada.

As already mentioned, there was long and careful discussion within the Canadian group on the pros and cons of agreeing to the idea of a binational organization. On strictly scientific grounds, especially where the natural sciences were involved, there was almost every advantage in the proposal and for both sides. But there was serious discussion on the question of how far there were special needs and interests peculiar to Canada which might not be adequately served, or even could not be properly served at all, by a Canadian-United States organization. Bearing in mind the conditions of the time and the date of its writing, one fragment of the minutes of the meeting of six Canadians held in Ottawa on 31 March 1944 makes interesting reading today:

For some years to come in Canada it will be necessary to stimulate popular interest in the North, and to focus the attention of government and other agencies on administrative as well as scientific problems. Universities should be encouraged to open departments or expand them to include new studies relative to the North. The welfare of Indians and Eskimos alone is of considerable importance and there is urgent need of disinterested research work concerning them. Canadian research projects will need to be encouraged and financial help obtained; young Canadians intending to follow northern careers will require guidance and support. These activities cannot be undertaken by any existing body and do not lie within the purview of an international organization. Discussion of the best system of northern administration for Canada would naturally not interest Americans, and it would be inappropriate for new proposals concerning it to reach the Dominion government from members of an international agency.

Much has happened within Canada since 1944; and some of the opinions expressed then have lost some, but by no means all, of their validity. Popular interest has increased greatly, but not yet to the point where it is sufficiently focused on the really important problems; for the most part it remains at a romantic level, not realizing the new, vital significance of Canada's northern territories in a rapidly changing world. Business and industry, for the most part, do not go very far in making substantial support available for privately initiated northern research. The attitude still appears to obtain that the North and its problems are or should be looked after to the full extent needed by the government, and through government-initiated programs of fundamental and applied research. In fact, within the government itself, those in responsible positions and closest to the situation no longer believe this, recognizing increasingly as each year goes by the all-important part that the universities and other private organizations must play in initiating research programs independently of direct government approval and support. Meanwhile, great progress has been made, but chiefly by and within the government, where nothing less than a revolution has taken place in the degree of skilled and responsible attention now being paid to many northern problems—a change which, nevertheless, does nothing to reduce the continuing importance of the independent role that needs to be carried out by the private sector.

Up to 1944 Canadian government-sponsored research in the North, now so familiar, had been relatively rare. In more recent years the Canadian government has dominated the decisions relating to research, for the simple reason that it has controlled the available funds — a state of imbalance which, if allowed to continue, will not be healthy for the development of an adequately rounded knowledge of northern problems in Canada.

It is appropriate to make a comment on the above quotation from the minutes. The Institute which eventually emerged has demonstrated increasingly its capacity to deal with many purely national aspects of northern and arctic affairs without being embarrassed by its binational character. This fact is a tribute not only to the Institute's own management and the objectivity of its approach to problems, but equally to the breadth of attitude shown by responsible individuals in the governments on both sides of the international border, who recognize the many common aspects presented by northern conditions and realize the mutual benefit to be derived from common endeavour.

I have been at some pains to describe these initial discussions in Canada because there are many today who appear to be unaware that the Institute arose originally from a Canadian initiative. To say this is not to overlook the fact that there were undoubtedly many others both in the United States and Canada who must have been thinking along similar lines. The early Institute files bear witness to this. There was separate talk in the United States of forming an American Arctic Institute. This included Stefansson as well as a wartime official of the Department of State who had been working at Churchill and had become impressed with the need of maintaining

northern research. There was a United States consul in western Canada who, in conjunction with a Canadian newspaper editor, urged some such course. Undoubtedly there were others, unknown at the time or inaccessible to the small group of Canadians and Americans who must have had similar thoughts. The idea was a natural one: it was in the air. But I am describing here just how *this* Institute itself was born, although the fact of its successful birth was undoubtedly greatly assisted by the circumambient atmosphere of the times, which were ready for just such a development.

From the March 1944 Ottawa meeting of the Canadians came agreement that a meeting of a substantially wider group from both Canada and the United States should be held to pursue further the idea of an international Canadian-United States organization. On 13 May 1944 nine Americans and eleven Canadians, out of a wider group to whom invitations had been issued, met in New York. All attended strictly in their personal capacity, but they included senior men from government, academic, scientific, and business life, from foundations and from scientific organizations. There were included from Canadian government circles the Deputy Minister responsible for northern affairs, the Secretary of the federal cabinet, an Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs concerned with United States relations, a senior member of the National Research Council as well as senior university men. The United States group was more heavily weighted with scientists concerned with arctic research, but it included individuals from the scientific and scholarly areas of government in Washington who had some special concern with arctic matters, a foundation director, the director of the American Geographical Society, and, of course, Stefansson.

The final meeting at which it was decided to launch the Institute as a binational North American organization took place in Montreal on 8 September of the same year, 1944. Essentially the same group met again, although with some added individuals. It was finally agreed that a private, nonprofit, strictly objective international Institute should be set up with headquarters in eastern Canada, near to, but entirely independent of a well-equipped university having good library and other facilities. This Institute should include, in addition to Canada and the United States, representatives from Greenland and Newfoundland, at that time not yet part of Canada (with specific mention also made of Labrador). At the outset there was considerable discussion as to where the headquarters of the Institute should be situated. The relative merits of a site in the United States and Canada were weighed. Hanover, New Hampshire, where Dartmouth College is situated, Edmonton, the locale of the University of Alberta, New York, and Montreal; all were brought under careful scrutiny. Discussion finally centred on Montreal. It seemed suitable from every point of view. The important considerations were the existence in Montreal of both English-speaking and French-speaking universities, excellent communications with everywhere both abroad and within North America, and relative propinquity to the two national capitals, Ottawa and Washington. It was by a member of the United States group that the definite proposal was made that the Institute's headquarters should be

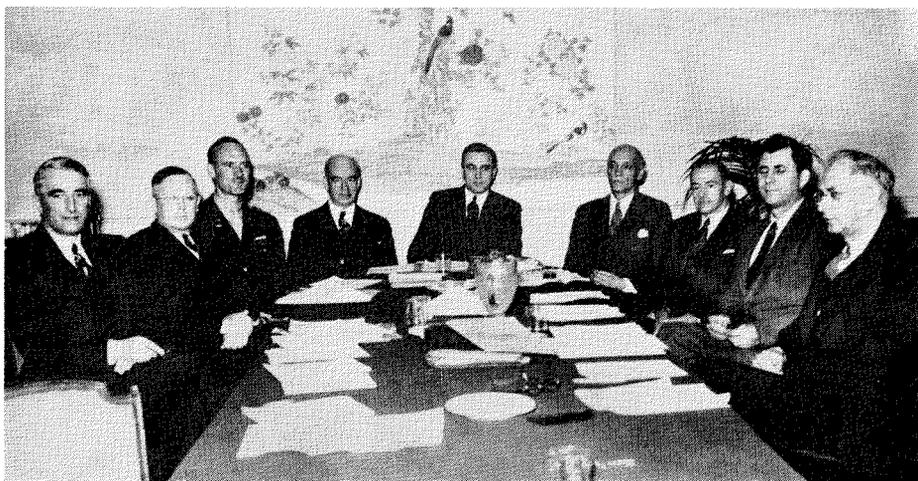
in Canada, with subsequent unanimous agreement that the locale should be Montreal.

The composition of the last two meetings calls for a comment, because it revealed a certain basic difference between the two groups — Canadian and American — that combined to found the Institute. The group the United States members from ADTIC brought to these meetings consisted predominantly of individuals whose interest, directly or indirectly, lay in the fields of scientific research. At neither meeting was there anyone from the United States equivalent to the very senior Canadian government civil servants included in the Canadian group, who occupied positions closely concerned with government policy. This expressed one basic difference between the two countries, at any rate at that time. One country, Canada, held sovereignty over a major portion of the world's arctic areas, while the other country, the United States, was not displaying *at that time* any clear signs of an undoubted continuing, active post-war interest in the North as a whole, but its already dedicated, arctic-minded scientists wished to see a continuance not only of their own pre-war work, but also of the work so well begun for war reasons. The Canadians were as much, or even more, concerned with the political, administrative, social, and economic aspects of problems in their own North, whereas the American scientists were quite naturally primarily concerned, so far as Canada's North was concerned, with problems of scientific research. Later years may have modified this situation somewhat, but there still remains a basic difference between the United States concern and the Canadian concern with the great area of the North that lies within Canadian sovereignty.

There were some interesting aspects of this September meeting which the carefully prepared minutes reveal. Following the May meeting a small committee had been entrusted with the task of drafting a Proposal for an Institute. This Proposal had initially included the suggestion that a majority of the Board of Governors should be scientists. At this finally determining meeting, however, the opinion clearly emerged that the majority of the Institute's Governors need *not* be scientists. It was recognized, of course, that while scientists would be absolutely essential, especially on the various technical committees that the Institute could be expected to set up, the Board itself required, if it were to be fully effective, a degree of breadth which was unlikely to be adequate if there were a predominance of scientific members. The September minutes succinctly summed up the careful discussion on this point: "The difficulty of finding suitable representatives of all the special fields of research falling within the scope of the Institute's programme and the necessity of having on the Board men of experience and ability in financial management and administration were stressed. While, obviously, scientists should be well represented on the Board, it was agreed that they need not predominate."

The detailed Proposal for an Arctic Institute of North America as agreed upon at the September 1944 Montreal meeting emphasized a number of features that are worth recalling at this time. To quote from the Proposal:

“the situation in the far northern part of this continent today is analagous in some respects . . . to the situation in the undeveloped west in the middle of the last century . . . questions of basic importance in a number of scientific fields can be solved only through studies undertaken in the Far North . . . scientific research can furnish a sound basis for the thoughtful planning upon which the development of North America’s last frontier, the welfare of the people who live there now, . . . and who may be expected to live there in the future should be built . . . an independent programme of scientific study . . . would constitute a broad public service of immediate practical significance.” Throughout, the Proposal emphasized the importance of coordinating any studies embarked on by the proposed Institute with other work already under way to ensure that these would be systematically designed to obtain answers to major questions called for by any intelligent and orderly development of the North. These, the Proposal said, would necessarily involve three main things: “(a) general research into the natural conditions of the North; (b) studies applied to specific problems of the development of the Arctic and arctic living; and, finally, (c) a broad study of the relationships of the arctic regions to the physical, social and economic problems of the world as a whole.” The Proposal then went on to outline in considerable detail the general scope of activities of the proposed Institute within the two distinct aspects involved — pure research and applied studies in both the natural and social sciences, with some special emphasis on the latter. It also emphasized the great importance of having the good will and cooperation of the government, if its work in such fields was to be effective and the consequent need of close, frank, and mutually helpful relations with every type of government agency. Finally the importance of developing the



First meeting of the Board of Governors, Arctic Institute of North America, Windsor Hotel, Montreal, 19 January 1945. From left to right: Philip Chester, Raleigh Parkin, R. F. Flint, E. M. Hopkins, Hugh Keenleyside, Charles Camsell, Henry Collins, Laurence M. Gould, Walter Rogers.

closest possible relations with other similar research organizations, both within North America and abroad, whether private or governmental, was stressed. The concluding comment of the Proposal read: "The provision of adequate finances should be recognized as a direct and continuing responsibility of the Board."

Following the September meeting, a Board of Governors was formed and thus the Institute actually came into existence in the autumn of 1944, although the process of legal incorporation in Canada and the United States did not occur until a year later. This was effected in the latter months of 1945 by an Act of Parliament in Canada (9-10 George VI Chap. 45) and incorporation under the laws of the State of New York.

I have so far said nothing about the individuals who were responsible for bringing the Institute into existence during the first early period up to 1945, nor about others who came into the picture soon afterwards and did so much to give impetus and life to the Institute during its initial years. This account of the origins of the Institute would be wholly incomplete if at least certain names were not mentioned. It so happened that I was closely involved in the Institute's creation from the early 1940's through to early 1947, serving initially as a point of contact between all concerned and later as a governor and as Secretary of the first Board of Governors' Executive Committee. Thus I was in close touch with almost everything relating to the Institute's development during this period.

Six Canadians met in Ottawa on 31 March 1944, following a considerable period of earlier meeting and discussion: J. R. Beattie, W. F. Hanna, Diamond Jenness, Trevor Lloyd, G. Raleigh Parkin, and A. Erling Porsild. Several in this group had already been talking for some time about taking action at a purely Canadian level. They met now because of the approach, mentioned earlier, from certain members of ADTIC — the United States Army agency, whose Arctic Section was headed by Laurence M. Gould, the geologist with arctic and antarctic experience from Carleton College in Minnesota, later to become Carleton's president and now Chairman of the Committee on Polar Research of the United States Academy of Sciences. Associated with him were two other geologists, both with arctic experience and scientific interest — Richard Foster Flint and Albert Lincoln Washburn. It was primarily Washburn's comings and goings between New York and Ottawa that had developed contact with the Canadians through Gould's Canadian friend and former colleague at Carleton, Trevor Lloyd, a geographer then on loan by Dartmouth College to the Canadian Government for special wartime service. It was out of their informal talks that the decision to explore the idea of a Canadian-United States institute developed and hence the two meetings of May and September 1944 in New York and Montreal.

From a wider list of persons invited there were some twenty who actually met at each of the meetings in New York and Montreal. Their names appear in the list of Founders at the end of this number of *Arctic*. In addition to those whose names have already been mentioned, I would add here only those of a few others who were most active and influential

in bringing the Institute to birth. These were: Patrick Baird, the Commander of the Moving Force of the Canadian Government's 1946 Exercise Musk Ox and later Director of the Institute's Montreal Office; R. W. Boyle, Director of the Division of Physics of Canada's National Research Council; Charles Camsell, Deputy Minister of the Department of Mines and Resources, at that time responsible for the Northwest Territories of which he was Commissioner; Arnold Heeney, then Secretary of the Canadian federal cabinet, in later years to be Canadian Ambassador in Washington and today Chairman of the Canadian Section of the International Joint Commission; Hugh Keenleyside, at that time an Assistant Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs who, later, as Deputy Minister in succession to Camsell gave new thought and direction to the handling of Canada's North; J. Tuzo Wilson, at that time on the General Staff in Ottawa, later Director of Exercise Musk Ox and now Professor of Geophysics at the University of Toronto; Robert Newton, then President of the University of Alberta and a member of Canada's National Research Council; J. J. O'Neill, Dean of Engineering, Chairman of McGill's Department of Geological Sciences, and earlier a member of the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913-1918 led by Stefansson.

From the United States there were: Gordon Bill, Dean of the Faculty at Dartmouth College; William S. Carlson, at that time Director of ADTIC; Walter Rogers, Director of the Institute of Current World Affairs, a New York foundation; Vilhjalmur Stefansson; John K. Wright, Director of the American Geographical Society; Henry Collins, Director of the Ethnogeographic Board of the Smithsonian Institution. Finally, the first Board of Governors, constituted by a process of selection following the Montreal September meeting introduced into Institute counsels seven others: Ernest M. Hopkins, President of Dartmouth College; Philip Chester, General Manager of the Hudson's Bay Company; Philip S. Smith, head of the Alaskan Division of the United States Geological Survey; Henri Bélanger of Quebec City, a professional surveyor with northern experience; Raymond Gushue of St. John's, Newfoundland, later to be the first President of Newfoundland's Memorial University; C. J. Mackenzie, President of Canada's National Research Council; Dr. Morten Porsild, the distinguished botanist and Director of the Danish Arctic Research Station at Godhavn, who became the first representative of Denmark and Greenland on the Board. Such was the gradually enlarging group who first conceived of the Institute, who brought it into being, and a few of whom as members of a Board of Governors eventually accepted responsibility for guiding its initial activities.

A word of comment should be added regarding the group of individuals whose names appear in this number of *Arctic* as Founders. There was not much logical tidiness in this group that came together by degrees in the course of 1943 and 1944. The fact is that one thing led to another as a few persons exchanged ideas; then they talked with other nearby friends. It was not very long before a few individuals on both sides of the international border found themselves taking part in the meetings already mentioned. Those who found it possible to be present at these wartime meetings were

by no means the full roster of those actually invited — these included, for instance, three heads of Canadian universities. Others who might well have been included for a variety of good reasons were inaccessible. Each individual acted in a private capacity and in no way represented his professional, governmental, or business connection. Under the pressures and limitations created by wartime conditions, and without any financial support available prior to late 1944 to carry the load of a thorough and systematic approach, the group had to act as best it could within the opportunity and time available. The present writer, on whom fell a considerable share of the burden throughout 1943 into 1944 of organizational correspondence and related secretarial activity, only found it possible to carry on thanks to the public-spirited cooperation and benevolent acquiescence of his institutional employers. The others concerned were similarly situated. Whatever its limitations, the group that thus came together had the considerable merit of including individuals who knew what they were talking about and what they were trying to do. Most of them had a real knowledge of the North and its problems and some form of responsible relationship to that area. All, without exception, were determined to do something in their private capacity to overcome the neglect of the North.

Many of those great and venerable societies that exist today in many countries had an origin not too dissimilar to that of the Arctic Institute in that they owed their existence to a few individuals who took thought together in the hope of thereby adding a cubit to the national stature. The British Royal Society had just such an origin in the years prior to the granting of its charter in 1662 by Charles II. The Académie Française was for several years before 1635 no more than a small group meeting informally for discussion. Undoubtedly, many similar long-established institutes and societies in both Canada and the United States came into existence in much the same way. Thus, in the manner of its founding, the Arctic Institute finds itself in distinguished company.

But a Board of Governors, however experienced or wise — and the Institute's first Board contained a full measure of these qualities — cannot of itself provide the impetus and drive that bring any organization alive. This can only be done by a qualified full-time Director and such essential staff as its resources can afford. At the outset, the Institute had some exceptional good fortune. The war was still in progress, but the end was now in sight. At this juncture, Gould, who had ably chaired and guided the May and September 1944 meetings, agreed to serve briefly as acting Director so as to bridge the gap which must ensue, for already a decision had been made to invite Washburn to become the Institute's first full-time Director. Washburn accepted, was eventually released from military service, and took over his duties in Montreal in October 1945.

It is difficult to appraise the debt the Institute owes to Washburn. He not only brought to it a dedicated and experienced interest in northern research, and an unrelenting industry in the handling of Institute affairs, but also great generosity in his willingness to make his services available to an

A. Lincoln Washburn, Executive Director of the Institute, 1945-50.



initially almost penniless organization. The development and even the survival of any newly born organization largely depends on the man who first takes over its direction. Washburn gave the Arctic Institute that essential and all-important start which has subsequently enabled it to develop and move forward with changing times and circumstances. It was under Washburn that many of the most valuable continuing activities of the Institute came into being — the journal, *Arctic*, in 1947 under the initial editorship of Trevor Lloyd and later for several years under Diana Rowley; *Arctic Bibliography* in 1947, edited from the outset by Marie Tremaine, until then Associate Head of the Toronto Public Library's Reference Division, and under the general direction of Henry Collins; the system of grants for research, largely made possible through initial contract support from the United States Office of Naval Research; the initial establishment at the Montreal headquarters of what is now one of the three or four great polar libraries in the world; and, to effect all this, the creation of the needed administrative organization.

No director, not even a Washburn, can get very far unless he has a staff to back him up. In this connection the Institute was ably if briefly served at the outset, by its first Executive Secretary, Mary Bridge, who had already, under Keenleyside in External Affairs, played a key role in Ottawa, almost immediately to be succeeded by Margaret Murray, both of whom now hold positions of responsibility in the International Civil Aviation Organization and the National Library of Canada respectively.

No organization comes to maturity in a moment of time and it would be unjust as well as misleading, after mentioning the names of those who

were responsible for the actual founding of the Institute, not to include some of those who, along with Washburn, helped to put flesh on the bare skeleton inherited from the founders. Some have already been mentioned in connection with *Arctic* and *Arctic Bibliography*. Some others, at least, must be included here. Walter Wood, now President of the American Geographical Society, made a contribution as valuable as it was varied, serving as a Governor, as Director for some years of the Institute's New York Office, and as a generous supporter as well as a most successful persuader of others to give support to the Institute. Another was Philip Smith, whose gift of his own fine collection of books constituted a major step in the establishment of the Institute's own library. Yet another was Sir Hubert Wilkins, who for a brief period, as Assistant to the Chairman of the Board, brought his imagination, practical experience and personal prestige to the service of the Institute.

As happens with almost every voluntary organization, the Institute had to start from scratch so far as financial resources were concerned. It is of interest now — twenty-one years later — to recall just who were the individuals and organizations who through their support gave the Institute in its very first two or three years the ability to operate.

At the outset, in the fall of 1944, the National Research Councils of both Canada and the United States provided \$200 each to cover the bare initial outlays, and this was followed very soon by a further \$1000 from each Council. A particular interest attaches to one contribution, because it was the sort that warms the heart and provides encouragement when most needed. One day, entirely unsolicited by the Institute's founding group, there arrived in the mail addressed to Gould a cheque for \$1000 from William Baldwin of North Williamsbury, Massachusetts. In his letter of thanks Gould said with complete appropriateness, "This is the most important gift which the Institute will ever receive" because, as he pointed out, it was the first private, unsolicited contribution made at a time when the Institute had almost nothing in the bank.

Early in 1945 came the first indications of substantial help in the form of a \$5000 contribution from the Hudson's Bay Company — a contribution which was to continue in this amount for several years; and an equally important grant from the Canadian War Technical and Scientific Development Committee, later known as the Banting Fund, of \$50,000 payable over ten years. Finally, in the course of 1947-48 the Institute received support from several sources: the Carnegie Corporation of New York made two grants totalling \$55,000 to provide the Institute with the means of operating during the difficult initial period; the Northwest Territories Council gave \$5,000; from the United States Office of Naval Research came a \$100,000 contract for grants in aid of research; and three outstanding Canadian companies gave \$2,500 each, the initiation of annual contributions.

In the autumn of 1944, when the decision had been made to set up the Institute's headquarters in Montreal, a committee of the newly appointed Governors called on the University of Montreal and McGill University, to

ascertain whether and how far mutually beneficial relations might be established. As already mentioned it was considered essential that the Institute should be situated in the vicinity of a well-equipped university, although remaining wholly independent of it. Both universities welcomed the creation of the Institute. At that time its needs were essentially financial support or its equivalent in kind. In the event it proved possible for McGill to offer accommodation centrally situated in the city on a basis which was virtually free of expense to the Institute, an offer which the Institute gratefully accepted.

A debt of gratitude is owed to both universities for the welcome and encouragement they gave it at this early stage, and especially to McGill which happened to be in a position to provide suitable accommodation — the very assistance most needed at that time. For twenty years, the friendly, informal association with McGill, the interest taken in the Institute by successive Principals and faculty members, and the continued provision of accommodation on generous terms have been a major factor in the Institute's life. McGill's assistance at this critical stage in Institute history was one of the determining factors in the Institute's ability to come into effective operating existence.

In mid-1946, as the Institute was only beginning to get underway, there appeared a publicly expressed welcome to the fact of its creation. This came from a man, at that time the senior civil servant in charge of Canada's Department of External Affairs and later to become successively its Minister for External Affairs and Canada's Prime Minister. In an article which appeared in the July 1946 number of *Foreign Affairs* entitled "Canada Looks 'Down North' ", Lester Pearson said "such an Institute should act both as a spur and a guide to the two Governments."

This account of the origin of the Arctic Institute of North America, while it has included much, has also omitted much which might have been interesting or appropriate to record. Undoubtedly the small group who founded the Institute may have varied somewhat in the emphasis each placed on certain of the objectives here discussed. But all agreed, in the successive meetings, that the Institute should pursue its concern with the North on the broadest front, and that to achieve this it must bring into its counsels and its management individuals of widely varying experience and knowledge.

It is interesting to note that the earliest records of membership of the British Royal Society included the names of Christopher Wren (astronomer before he was architect), John Evelyn, Samuel Pepys, and John Dryden. This was no accident. Sir Cyril Hinshelwood, in his presidential address on the occasion of the Royal Society's tercentenary celebrations in London in 1960, laid special emphasis on "the humane tradition of the Society, the union of thought and action, and partnership between men of the study and men of the world, which has been maintained throughout its existence, is preserved, we would like to hope, today, and will decide its future." Certainly this was the sort of thinking that animated the founders of the Arctic Institute of North America twenty-one years ago.