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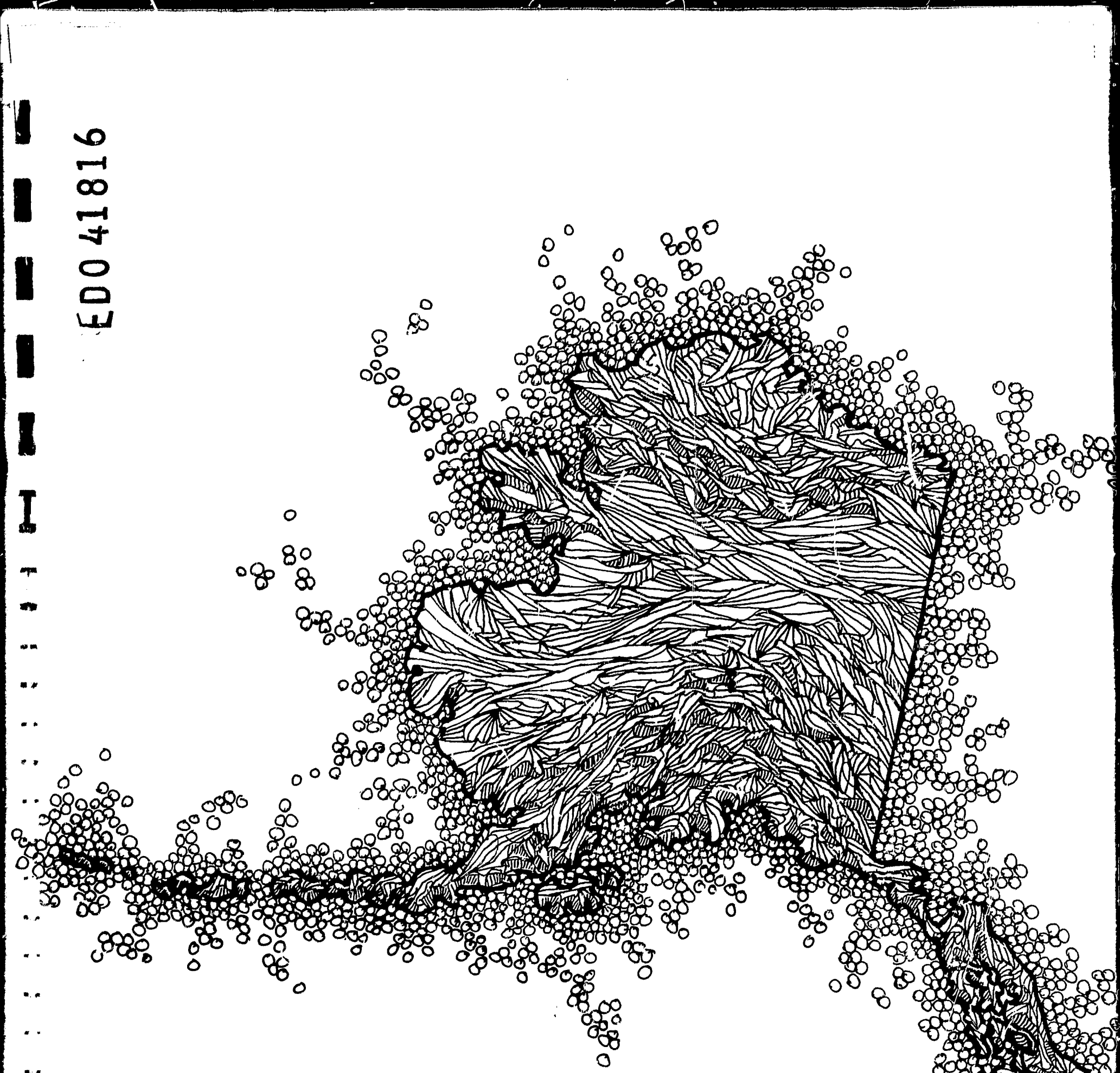
ABSTRACT

The bases for the development of this resource book were notes and a course outline used in teaching Alaska History at the junior high school level. It can be used as a checklist, a guide to organizing lesson plans, selecting classroom and testing materials, and as a source of concepts and information for any grade level. Most of the material is presented in expanded outline form with bibliographies, lists of suitable audiovisual materials and free or inexpensive teaching materials. The basic information is organized by topic: geography, ethnology, Russian exploration and occupation, international rivalry over Alaska, American influence from 1867 to present and the struggle for statehood, role of the American military, industrial development, history of Alaskan education and the formation of a state government. (SBE)



source book on ALASKA

ALASKA DEPARTMENT of EDUCATION
Cliff R. Hartman, Commissioner
January, 1970

SOURCE BOOK ON ALASKA

Compiled by
Robert J. Peratrovich, Jr.

January, 1970

STATE OF ALASKA
Keith H. Miller,
Governor

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Cliff R. Hartman
Commissioner

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FOREWORD

In 1963 the Department of Education published *The Source Unit on Alaska.* This document was a revision by Arnold Granville of the bulletin put out by the Oregon Department of Education in 1961, and was issued with the express permission of the Oregon Department of Education.

This resource unit has been long out of print and has been in steady demand by the teachers of Alaska. Rather than revise it and bring it up to date, the present *Source Book* which was written by Mr. Robert J. Peratrovich, Jr., from the notes he uses in teaching Alaska History in Clark Junior High, Anchorage, is offered to the teachers of Alaska. I hope it will be of help in courses in Alaska History but also when information on Alaska is needed for other classes.

Dorothy H. Novatney
Social Studies Consultant
Department of Education

INTRODUCTION

This source book has been developed by Mr. Peratrovich from the notes and course outline which he uses in teaching Alaska History on the junior high level in the Anchorage public schools. It does not pretend to be a textbook, but rather a reference and a help in organizing lesson plans and preparing teaching and testing material. As such, it can also be used by the teacher of Alaska units in lower grades and by teachers and students in high school classes.

Much of the material is in expanded outline form with bibliographies and lists of suitable audiovisual and free or inexpensive teaching materials. There is more on the Russian period and the school system than on other topics.

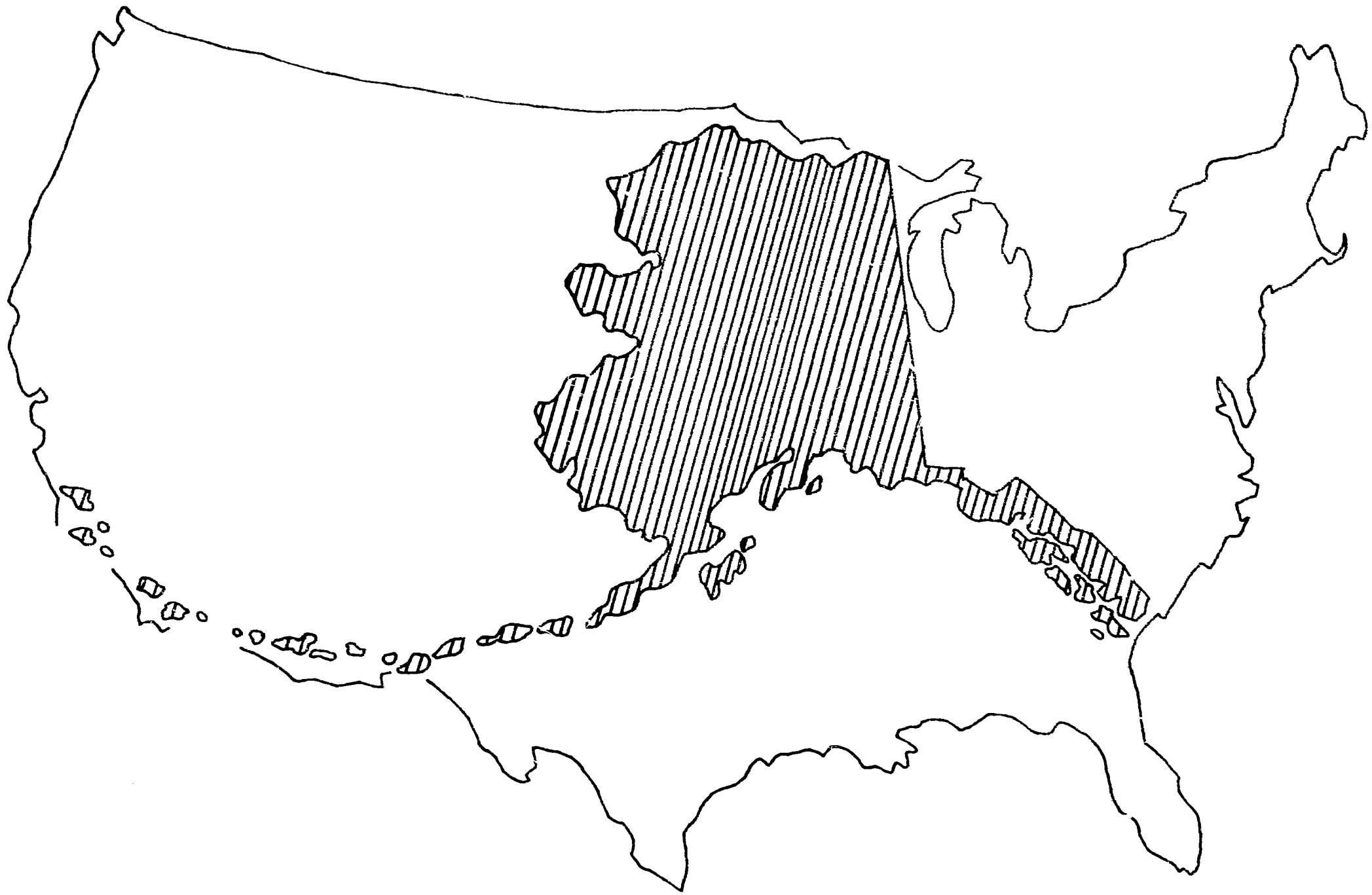
Because of the organization by topics, there will be some repetition from section to section when the item or fact is pertinent to more than one topic.

This source book is not intended to be definitive, but should prove helpful to teachers as a checklist, as an organizer of lesson plans, and as a source of concepts and "where to look for" information. It is convenient in that basic data are organized by topic and grouped together.

Thanks are due to Mr. Robert J. Peratrovich, Jr., for sharing his material with the teachers in Alaska; to Mr. Robert N. De Armond for checking the Source Book for accuracy; to John Logue for the illustrations and maps; and to the others who have assisted in its preparation.

Dr. Cliff R. Hartman
Commissioner of Education

UNIT I. THE LAND AND ITS PEOPLE



RELATIVE SIZE OF ALASKA AS COMPARED TO THE CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES
(same scale)

Unit I. The Land and Its People

A. Location

1. Alaska is on the northwestern peninsula of the North American Continent.

2. Alaska is bordered on the east by Canada, on the north by the Arctic Ocean, and on the south and west by the Pacific Ocean and the Bering Sea.

3. No part of Alaska is directly north of the continental United States.

4. At Bering Strait, the Alaska mainland is only 54 miles from East Cape, Siberia.

5. One may stand on Alaska's Little Diomede Island, which belongs to the United States, and look across the strait to Big Diomede Island, which belongs to the Soviet Russia. This is really "looking at tomorrow" since the international date line passes through Bering Strait between these two islands.

B. Size of Alaska

1. Alaska is more than twice as large as the state of Texas.

2. It is about one-fifth as large as the entire United States.

3. The total land area of Alaska is 586,400 square miles, and its entire coastline stretches 33,904 miles.

C. Physical Features

1. Mountain Systems

a. Pacific Mountain System

1) Aleutian Range
2) Coast Range
3) Chugach Mountains
4) Kenai Range
5) Mentasta Mountains
6) Nutzotin Mountains
7) St. Elias Range
8) Wrangell Mountains

b. Alaska Range

1) Chigmit Mountains
2) Mount McKinley
3) Talkeetna Mountains

c. Brooks Range

1) Baird Mountains
2) Davidson Mountains
3) De Long Mountains
4) Endicott Mountains
5) Philip Smith Mountains
6) Romanzof Mountains
7) Schwatka Mountains
8) Shubelik Mountains
9) Waring Mountains

d. Miscellaneous Mountain Masses

1) Bendeleben Mountains—On Seward Peninsula northeast of Nome.
2) Crazy Mountains—In the Interior northeast of Fairbanks.
3) Kigluaik Mountains—On Seward Peninsula north of Nome.
4) Kilbuck Mountains—In Southwestern Alaska north of Bristol Bay.
5) Kuskokwim Mountains—In Southwestern Alaska northeast of Bristol Bay.
6) White Mountains—In the Interior northeast of Fairbanks.

2. Principal Mountain Passes

a. Anaktuvuk—In Endicott Mountains northwest of Fairbanks; used for caribou hunting.

b. Broad—In Alaska Range on south side of Mount McKinley National Park; used as a transportation route (railroad).

c. Chickaloon—In Talkeetna Mountains northeast of Palmer; used for gold rush transportation.

d. Chilkat—In Saint Elias Mountains northwest of Haines; used for transportation (Haines Highway).

e. Chilkoot—In Coast Range north of Skagway; used for gold rush transportation.

f. Isabelle—In Alaska Range near Paxson; used for transportation.

g. Keystone—In Chugach Mountains southeast of Valdez; used for transportation.

h. Lake Clark—In Aleutian Range west of Seward; used for air navigation.

i. Mentasta—In Mentasta Mountains northeast of Glennallen; used as dog team transportation route (Glenn Highway).

j. Merrill—In Alaska Range west of Anchorage; used as a transportation route.

k. Moose—In Kenai Mountains southeast of Anchorage; used as a transportation route.

l. Portage—In Kenai Mountains southeast of Anchorage; used as a transportation route.

m. Rainy—In Alaska Range southwest of Mount McKinley National Park; used as a dog team transportation route (air transportation now).

n. Survey—In Endicott Mountains northwest of Fairbanks; used as a transportation route.

o. Thompson—In Chugach Mountains east of Anchorage; used as a transportation route (Richardson Highway).

p. White—In Coast Range northwest of Skagway; used as a transportation route (railroad).

3. Glaciers

a. Adams—In Saint Elias Range in Glacier Bay 40 miles southwest of Skagway; it is the southeast tributary of Muir Glacier.

b. Baird—In Coast Range 100 miles east of Sitka on Alaska-Canadian border; trends southwest 22 miles to 1.5 miles north of Thomas Bay, its 1961 terminus.

c. Bering—Heads in Chugach Mountains in Bagley Ice Field and trends southwest 48 miles to its 1950 terminus on the Malaspina Coastal Plain 66 miles east southeast of Cordova; approximately as large as the state of Rhode Island.

d. Brady—In Saint Elias Range in Glacier Bay; trends south 24 miles to its terminus 46 miles northwest of Hoonah; visible from boat.

e. Childs—In Chugach Mountains; trends southwest 8 miles to its terminus 32 miles northwest of Katalla on the Copper River.

f. Columbia—Part of Columbia Icefield; heads in Chugach Mountains 2 miles southeast of Mount Witherspoon and trends southeast 40 miles to its terminus in Columbia Bay 28 miles southwest of Valdez; largest glacier in the world; visible from boat.

g. Denver—In Coast Range; trends northwest 8.5 miles from its head at Alaska-Canadian border to its terminus 4 miles east of Skagway and 1.4 miles east of Twin Dewey Peaks.

h. Guyot—In Chugach Mountains in Icy Bay; heads in Robinson Mountains and trends southeast 19 miles to its 1963 terminus 68 miles northwest of Yakutat at the head of Icy Bay.

i. LeConte—In Coast Range; trends south 6 miles to its terminus in LeConte Bay, 20 miles east of Petersburg; visible from boat.

j. Malaspina—In Saint Elias Range; heads 8 miles south of Alaska-Canadian border and trends south 28 miles to its terminus 38 miles northwest of Yakutat in the Gulf of Alaska; 30 miles across; approximately as large as the state of Rhode Island; visible from boat.

k. Matanuska—In Chugach Mountains; trends northwest 27 miles to its terminus, a tributary of the Matanuska River, 46 miles northeast of Palmer; visible from car.

l. Mendenhall—In Coast Range 10 miles northwest of Juneau; heads north of Mendenhall Towers and trends south 10 miles to Mendenhall Lake, its terminus; visible from car.

m. Miles—In Chugach Mountains; trends west 30 miles to its terminus, Miles Lake, 2 miles north of Goat Mountain and 33 miles north of Katalla; visible from car.

n. Muir—In Saint Elias Range in Glacier Bay; trends southeast 12 miles from its head 9 miles south of Mount Harris to its terminus in Muir Inlet, 77 miles northwest of Hoonah; visible from boat.

o. Norris—In Coast Range 14 miles northeast of Juneau; trends 8 miles southeast from its head in North Branch Norris Glacier to its terminus at Grizzly Bar, Taku Inlet; visible from boat.

p. Portage—In Chugach Mountains on Kenai Peninsula; trends north 6 miles to its terminus Portage Lake, 4 miles west of Whittier; visible from car.

q. Rainbow—In Saint Elias Range; trends east 1.5 miles from its head on east slope of Chilkat Range to its terminus 24 miles southwest of Skagway; visible from car and boat.

r. Taku—In Coast Range; trends southeast 27 miles to its terminus in Taku Inlet, 15 miles northeast of Juneau; may be reached in a very small boat.

s. Twin—In Saint Elias Range 64 miles northwest of Hoonah in Glacier Bay; trends east 1.2 miles from its head 0.6 miles south of Mount Merriam; visible from boat.

4. Islands

a. Aleutian Islands—The total area of the Aleutians is slightly greater than the area of the Hawaiian Islands. The Aleutians consist of five major island groups:

1) Andreanof Islands
2) Fox Islands
3) Islands of the Four Mountains
4) Near Islands
5) Rat Islands

b. Alexander Archipelago

1) Admiralty—96 miles long
2) Baranof—105 miles long
3) Chichagof—72 miles long
4) Kuiu—65 miles long
5) Kupreanof—56 miles long
6) Prince of Wales—132 x 45 miles
7) Revillagigedo—55 x 35 miles
8) Many other smaller islands

c. Hagemeister—24 miles long

d. Hinchinbrook—22 miles long

e. Kodiak—100 x 60 miles

f. Little Diomede—2 miles across

g. Montague—50 miles long

h. Nunivak—60 miles across

i. Pribilof Islands

1) Otter—0.8 miles long
2) Saint George—12 miles long
3) Saint Paul—10 miles across
4) Walrus—0.4 miles long

j. Saint Lawrence—95 x 25 miles

k. Saint Matthew—35 x 4 miles

5. Inland Waterways

a. Behm Canal
b. Chatham Strait
c. Clarence Strait
d. Frederick Sound
e. Icy Strait
f. Keku Strait
g. Lynn Canal
h. Peril Strait
i. Portland Canal
j. Stephens Passage
k. Stikine Strait
l. Sumner Strait

6. Bays, Sounds, and Inlets

a. Bering Strait
b. Bristol Bay
c. Christian Sound
d. Cook Inlet
e. Cordova Bay
f. Cross Sound
g. Dixon Entrance
h. Etolin Strait
i. Kotzebue Sound

j. Kuskokwim Bay
k. Kvichak Bay
l. Montague Strait
m. Norton Sound
n. Nushagak Bay
o. Prince William Sound
p. Salisbury Sound
q. Shelikof Strait
r. Sitka Sound
s. Yakutat Bay

7. Other Bodies of Water

a. Gulf of Alaska
b. Seas

1) Bering
2) Beaufort
3) Chukchi

8. River Systems

a. Colville—Heads in DeLong Mountains and flows east northeast to Harrison Bay, Arctic plain, 350 miles long; used for transportation and some fishing.

b. Copper—heads on north side of Wrangell Mountains and flows south through Chugach Mountains to Gulf of Alaska; 250 miles long; glacial; used for fishing and some transportation.

c. Innoko—Heads south of Cloudy Mountain and flows northeast and southwest to Yukon River; 500 miles long; used for gold rush transportation.

d. Kobuk—Heads in Schwatka Mountains and flows west to Hotham Inlet near Kotzebue; 280 miles long; used for transportation and fishing.

e. Koyukuk—Heads in Endicott Mountains and flows southwest to Yukon River; 425 miles long; used for mining transportation.

f. Kuskokwim—Heads in Kuskokwim Mountains and flows southwest to Kuskokwim Bay; 500 miles long; used for mining transportation and fishing.

g. Matanuska—Heads in Chugach Mountains and flows southwest to Knik Arm, Cook Inlet, 75 miles long; glacial, used some for fishing.

h. Noatak—Heads in Schwatka Mountains and flows southwest to Kotzebue Sound; 425 miles long; used for transportation and fishing.

i. Nushagak—Heads in Taylor Mountains and flows southwest to Nushagak Bay; 242 miles long; used for fishing.

j. Porcupine—Heads in Yukon Territory, Canada, and flows to Yukon River; 460 miles long; used for mining and trapping transportation.

k. Stikine—Heads in British Columbia, Canada, and flows northwest and south across Alaska boundary to Eastern Passage north of Wrangell; 330 miles long; glacial; used for gold rush transportation to the Klondike and for fishing.

l. Susitna—Heads at Susitna Glacier and flows southwest to Cook Inlet; 260 miles long; glacial; used for gold rush transportation and fishing.

m. Taku—Heads in British Columbia, Canada, and flows to Taku Inlet, Coast Mountains; 54 miles long; glacial; used for fishing and mining transportation.

n. Tanana—Formed in Dawson Range by Chisana and Nabesna Rivers at Northway Junction and flows to Yukon River; 440 miles long; used for gold rush transportation and fishing and mining.

o. Yukon—Heads in Yukon Territory, Canada, and flows northwest and southwest to Norton Sound; 1500 miles long; glacial; used for transportation and fishing.

9. Volcanoes (Elevations, Locations, Most Recent Activity)

a. Bogoslof Island—1 mile long; north of Umnak Island, Aleutian Islands; 1951 ash eruption.

b. Iliamna Volcano—10,016 feet; at head of Tuxedni Glacier east of Nondalton, Aleutian Range; 1952-53 smoke.

c. Mount Edgecumbe—2,638 feet; on Kruzof Island west of Sitka; lava flows.

d Mount Katmai—6,715 feet; in Katmai National Monument northeast of Kodiak, Aleutian Range; ash eruption in 1912, steaming since.

e. Mount Mageik—7,250 feet; in Katmai National Monument; 1953 ash eruption.

f. Mount Martin—6,050 feet; in Katmai National Monument; steaming intermittent since 1912.

g. Mount Spurr—11,100 feet; northwest of Tyonek, Alaska Range; 1954 ash eruption.

h. Mount Trident—6,790 feet; in Katmai National Monument; 1953 lava eruption.

i. Mount Wrangell—14,163 feet; east of Glennallen, Wrangell Mountains; eruption within last century, occasional steam and ash now.

j. Pavlof Volcano—8,905 feet; west side of Pavlof Bay, Alaska Peninsula; 1950-53 ash eruptions.

k. Pogromni Volcano—6,568 feet; on Unimak Island, Aleutian Islands; 1827-30 ash eruptions.

l. Redoubt Volcano—10,197 feet; west of Kenai, Aleutian Range; 1933 smoke.

m. Shishaldin Volcano—9,372 feet; on Unimak Island, Aleutian Chain; 1955 ash eruption.

10. Valleys

a. Copper River Valley—Extends approximately 200 miles south between the north side of Wrangell Mountains and the Gulf of Alaska; copper deposits; transportation.

b. Matanuska Valley—Extends 60 miles southwest between Matanuska Glacier terminus and Knik Arm, Cook Inlet; coal beds, other rich mineral deposits; transportation (Glenn Highway); chiefly farming.

c. Susitna River Valley—Extends approximately 140 miles between north of Gold Creek and Cook Inlet; transportation (Alaska Railroad, highway under construction); trapping.

d. Tanana Valley—Extends approximately 400 miles northwest between Northway Junction and the Yukon River; transportation; trapping, farming, mining.

e. Yukon Valley—Extends approximately 1,500 miles northwest and southwest between Marsh Lake, Yukon Territory and Norton Sound; transportation; trapping, gold mining.

11. Peninsulas

a. Alaska
b. Kenai
c. Seward

12. Lowlands

a. Bristol Bay
b. Cook Inlet
c. Innoko
d. Kenai
e. Kotzebue-Kobuck
f. Koyukuk
g. Kuskokwim
h. Nowitna
i. Stoney River
j. Tanana

13. Highlands

a. Hogatza
b. Kokrines—Hodzana
c. Seward Peninsula
d. Yukon—Tanana

14. Flats, Plateaus, Hills, etc.

a. Copper River Basin
b. Kanuit Flats
c. Lime Hills
d. Malaspina Coastal Plain
e. Nulato Hills
f. Porcupine Plateau
g. Yukon Flats
h. Yukon—Kuskokwim Delta

15. Lakes (And Their Locations)

a. Becharof—Alaska Peninsula
b. George—East of Anchorage
c. Iliamna—Alaska Peninsula
d. Imuruk—Seward Peninsula
e. Long—Alaska Peninsula
f. Minchumina—North of Mount McKinley National Park
g. Naknek—Alaska Peninsula
h. Nuyakuk (and others)—Northeast of Dillingham
i. Nunivakpak—North of Kuskokwim Bay
j. Skilak—Kenai Peninsula
k. Takstesluk—North of Kuskokwim Bay
l. Tazlina—North of Valdez
m. Teshepuk—Southeast of Point Barrow
n. Tetlin—Southeast of Tok Junction
o. Tustumena—Kenai Peninsula

D. Varied Regions

It is difficult to understand just how large Alaska really is. Its differences in geography, climate, people, and economy are almost as great as those between the Middle West and the Rocky Mountain Region or between California and Massachusetts. Alaska has six natural regions:

1. *Southeastern Alaska.* This is the part of Alaska called the "Panhandle." It includes the narrow strip of mainland and the Alexander Archipeligo between British Columbia, Canada, and the Pacific Ocean. Its area is approximately equal to that of the state of Maine. Panhandle climate is mild, with warm winters and cool summers. The temperatures are no lower than Maryland's, seldom dropping to zero. Annual precipitation varies from 25 to 200 inches.

   High, rugged mountains rise steeply from the shoreline. The Coastal Range has many deep fiords. Massive cedar, hemlock, and spruce forests cover most of Southeastern Alaska and are one of the State's most valued resources. Its people are engaged in lumbering, pulp mill operation, fishing, mining, and tourism.

   The local Thlinget, Haida, and Tsimshian (or Tsimpsean) Indians have abandoned their tribal ways. In the summer many are cannery workers or commercial fishermen.

Ketchikan is one of Southeastern Alaska's principal cities. Its main industries are salmon fishing, processing, and canning; logging, lumbering, and pulp mill operation.

At Sitka is the Sitka National Monument (with a major interpretive center, totems, and site of historic Indian battles), Sitka National Cemetery, Mount Edgecumbe School, and Sheldon Jackson Junior College. Fishing, lumbering, and pulp mill operation are important industries.

Juneau, Alaska's capital, nestles between steep mountains and the Inside Passage. The State Library and Museum are in Juneau. The town of Douglas is across Gastineau Channel. World-famous gold quartz mines have operated in both Juneau and Douglas in the past. Juneau was the first town to be founded after the purchase of Alaska by the United States.

Wrangell is the site of Redoubt [fort] St. Dionysius, which the Russians built to keep out the Hudson's Bay Company traders. It was known as Fort Stikine when it was leased by the Hudson's Bay Company and flew the British flag for 27 years. The tribal community house of Chief Shakes, a famous warrior, is a landmark. The major industries are fishing, fish processing, and lumbering.

Petersburg was originally founded by Scandinavian fishermen and fish processors. It is still an important fishing center today.

Haines is the southern terminus of the Haines Highway, which connects it to the Alaska Highway. Timber is a major economic resource; there is also some fishing.

Skagway is connected to Whitehorse, Yukon Territory, by the famous White Pass and Yukon Railroad. A major industry is tourism.

Other towns of Southeastern Alaska are Angoon, Craig, Klawock, Kake, Hydaburg, Metlakatla, Yakutat, and Hoonah.

Most of the region is part of the Tongass National Forest which is the largest national forest in the United States. It has an area of 16,731,000 acres. It was created on September 10, 1907, by Presidential Proclamation. Glacier Bay National Monument is also located in the Panhandle. It is the largest national monument in the United States, with an area of 2,803,840 acres.

2. ***Southcentral Pacific Rim.*** This region along the Gulf of Alaska includes Cook Inlet, the Kenai Peninsula, and Prince William Sound. The 150-mile Alaska range, a short distance from the coast and parallel to it, bars the cold winds which would otherwise blow from the north.

   The region's economy is based on oil drilling, mining, fishing, crabbing, lumbering, and tourism. Much of Alaska's farm land is in the rich valleys of this region. The Matanuska, at the head of Cook Inlet, is the most famous of these. During the relatively short growing season double-size vegetables and berries, large-kerneled grain, and lush hay are grown. Chugach National Forest is also located in this area.

   Centers of population include Anchorage, Alaska's largest city; Cordova; Homer; Kenai; Palmer; Seldovia; Seward; Soldotna; and Valdez. All of these towns and cities, except Soldotna, Wasilla, and Palmer, lie on the coast.

Anchorage is the trading center for a large area which includes the Bristol Bay region and the Matanuska Valley. It is Alaska's principle commercial air center, serving Alaskan and U. S. domestic carriers, as well as Europe- and Orient-bound foreign airliners. It is noted for its cultural assets and metropolitan appearance. More Alaskan Natives live in Anchorage than in any other Alaskan community. Aleuts, Eskimos, Eyaks, Haidas, Thlingets, and Tsimshians are all represented in Anchorage. The Alaska Methodist University and the Anchorage Community College, a branch of the University of Alaska, are located here. Some of Alaska's biggest military establishments are near Anchorage. It is headquarters of the Alaska Air Command.

Whittier and Seward are access ports for the Alaska Railroad; Valdez is the seaport terminus of the Richardson Highway. All have populations under 2,000.

Parts of this Southcentral Pacific Rim area (and Kodiak Island, described under "Southwestern Alaska") were severely damaged by the March 27, 1964 earthquake. Rebuilding began almost within hours after it hit and in most communities is now nearly complete.

3. *Southwestern Alaska.* This narrowest and longest of Alaska's regions includes the Alaska Peninsula, the Aleutian Chain, and the Kodiak group. The Alaska Peninsula extends about 550 miles out into the Pacific Ocean. The Aleutian Islands string out an additional 1,500 miles from the Alaska Peninsula. This region is one of the Northern Hemisphere's "weather kitchens." Sudden storms which affect the weather of all North America brew here. All of the region is mountainous, and a great deal of it is treeless.

One of the world's largest volcanic chains is in Southwestern Alaska. Pavlof Volcano (8,905 ft.) and Mount Veniaminof (8,225 ft.), two of the highest volcanoes, are along the Aleutian backbone. Another volcano, Mount Katmai, exploded in 1912 and formed the Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes in what is today Katmai National Monument, a major travel attraction.

The Aleuts in this region are related to the Eskimos; but their customs, language, and traditions are different. These people were among the first to be exposed to the eighteenth century Russian traders and suffered a great deal from slavery and exploitation. They are a friendly, cheerful, and very religious people. Many have adopted the Russian Orthodox faith.

The Alaska fur seal breeding ground is located on the Pribilof Islands. The U. S. Government controls the conservation and harvesting of the hides. Surplus males are harvested after each annual seal count. The herd now numbers 1,500,000. It faced extermination in 1910 because of pelagic sealing and reckless killings.

Kodiak was Russia's first permanent Alaskan settlement and is the region's largest community. It has grown tremendously since the destruction of so much of its waterfront and economy in the Good Friday Earthquake of 1964. Kodiak is called the "King Crab Capital of the World" because of its numerous large and small canneries and processors. It also boasts major salmon and halibut fishing activity. Sportsmen the world over covet the Kodiak Island brown bear as a trophy.

During World War II the Japanese bombed Dutch Harbor and other communities, and they managed to land at Kiska and Attu. This was the invasion which moved the U. S.

Armed Forces to construct the Alaska Highway through Canada. The American forces repulsed the Japanese.

4. *Western Approaches.* This area is west of the Interior and includes the Bristol Bay region, the Yukon and Kuskokwim deltas, the Norton Sound area, the Seward Peninsula, and many coastal islands. The winters are windy and humid; the summers are rainy, foggy, and cool.

   This area and the Arctic region are the homes of the Eskimos, who are scattered over 200,000 square miles of Bering Sea and Arctic Ocean coasts and the lower Yukon and Kuskokwim River deltas. Intelligent and quick to understand, the dark-skinned Eskimo is known for his marvelous mechanical aptitude. He has a native ability for draftsmanship and mapmaking and is also an excellent hunter and vigorous traveller. Presently, very few primitive Eskimos live in igloos which are constructed from driftwood, sod, earth, and large whalebones. Much of the Eskimo population has been assimilated into Caucasian culture.

   Hides and sinews for sewing and meat are all obtained from reindeer. The people make warm clothing from the hides which protects them from the rigorous climate of the Arctic. There is also commercial market for reindeer meat.

   In Westcentral Alaska the major trading and mining center after the early gold rush was Nome, the largest town in the region. Rich copper deposits are presently being investigated. Nome is often considered an Arctic community, although it is south of the Arctic Circle. A large group of King Island Eskimos now live on the outskirts of Nome on the mainland. They are renown for their skills in ivory carving.

   Bethel, Dillingham, and Unalakleet are other larger communities in the Westcentral area. Some of Alaska's finest baskets are made near Bethel. The Kuskokwim and Nushagak Rivers' red salmon runs are world famous.

5. *The Interior.* This region lies between the Brooks and Alaska Ranges and stretches from the Alaskan-Canadian border almost to the Bering Sea. Isolated groups of mountains accent the vast, rolling upland through which the Yukon River and its tributaries flow toward the west.

   Summertime temperatures around Fairbanks, the second largest city in Alaska, reach 90 degrees in the shade; while wintertime temperatures may drop to -65 degrees. Hardy fruits, vegetables, and grain are raised during the long summer days. Athapascan Indians live in the Interior. Some hunt, trap, or fish; while others are industrial workers. Fairbanks is the terminus of the Alaska, Richardson, and Steese Highways, as well as of the Alaska Railroad. It is second only to Anchorage in importance as an air transportation center. Two large bases near Fairbanks employ nearly half of the military personnel stationed in Alaska. The University of Alaska is nearby, and Mount McKinley National Park is south of Fairbanks.

   Fairbanks was the official exhibition site for the Alaska Purchase Centennial in 1967. A permanent exhibit area comprised of all-Alaska exhibit areas, an authentic relocated gold-rush town, and even a restored sternwheeler was constructed there. Fairbanks flooded in August, 1967.

Circle, Delta, Fort Yukon, Galena, Glennallen, McGrath, Nenana, North Pole, Northway, and Tanana are other communities in this region.

6. *The Arctic Slope.* This region includes the northernmost third of Alaska, much of which is tundra, and lies within the Arctic Circle. A half dozen rivers head in the Brooks Range and flow into the Arctic Ocean. Recent exploration shows that beneath the tundra lie valuable oil and natural gas deposits. It is hoped that the Gubik oil deposits and gas field here will eventually supply natural gas to the Fairbanks area. There are large coal deposits, as well.

   Arctic climate is extreme compared to that of the contiguous United States. Temperatures average about -17 degrees in the winter and about +40 degrees in the summer. The sun never comes above the horizon for about two months during the winter; while during the summer there are two months during which it never sets, making some gardening possible.

   Most of the people are Eskimo, although the natural resources are attracting increasingly more Caucasians. The polar bear and walrus live in this region. An ever-increasing number of tourists are attracted by the opportunity to visit the United States' northernmost regions and to see the picturesque native life. Principal towns are Kotzebue, Noatak, Kivalina, Point Hope, Wainwright, Barrow (northernmost point on North American Continent), and Barter Island. The populations of these communities are mostly Eskimo, but there are a number of Caucasians in each, as well. The subsistence and economy of this Eskimo area depends largely upon hunting, fishing, and reindeer herding. Tourism is also becoming increasingly important. There is no road to the Arctic; but scheduled air transportation is available from Fairbanks and Anchorage, and excellent bush pilot charter service is also available. After the oil discovery at Prudhoe Bay, construction of a winter ice road toward Barrow was begun.

E. Population of Alaska

1867	33,000
1880	33,426
1890	32,052
1900	63,592
1910	64,356
1920	55,036
1930	59,278
1940	72,524
1950	128,643
1960	226,167
1965	253,000 (Est.)
1966	272,000 "
1967	274,000 "
1968	277,000 "
1975	404,000 "

F. Population of Anchorage

1940	3,495
1950	11,060
1960	35,264

G. Population Distributions by Judicial Division, 1940-60

	1940	1950	1960
1st Judicial Div.	25,241	27,572	28,203
2nd Judicial Div.	11,877	12,883	12,272
3rd Judicial Div.	19,312	58,338	59,518
4th Judicial Div.	16,094	28,168	28,650

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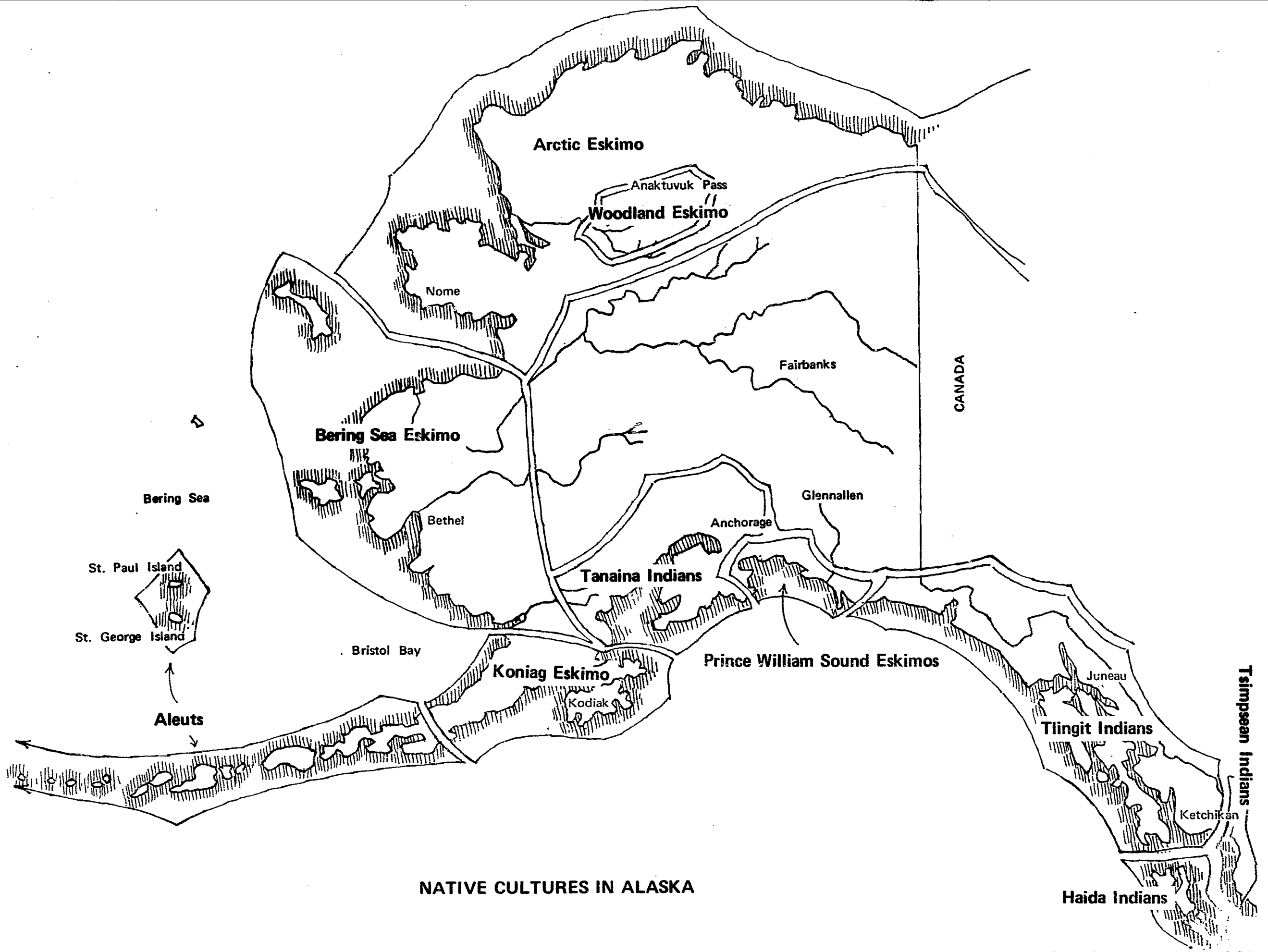
UNIT II. THE FIRST ALASKANS



NATIVE CULTURES IN ALASKA

Unit II. Early Culture of the First Alaskans

Ethnologists recognize four subdivisions of the Alaskan aborigines: the Eskimos, who frequented the Arctic Ocean shores, the Bering Sea coasts, and the Prince William Sound areas; the Athapascan Indians, who inhabited the interior of Alaska and who reached the coast in the Cook Inlet area; the Thlinget-Haida Indians, who dwelled along Southeastern costal region from the Copper River area in Southcentral Alaska to the southern boundary of Alaska at Dixon Entrance; and the Aleuts, who inhabited the Aleutian Islands and the western part of the Alaska Penninsula.

This chapter concerns the early culture and customs of these four subdivisions. The outline format of this publication necessitated using the "ethnographic present tense." The reader should not interpret this to mean that all of the customs described in this chapter still exist today.

The impact of the 20th century has brought about great changes in Alaska's native cultures. They are still changing radically today. This second factor influenced the decision to write this chapter in the present tense. In many cases, it is difficult to pin point which customs ceased to be followed, and when.

Today, many Alaska natives have become outstanding members of our modern culture, while others still live much as their ancestors lived. The latter are not a primitive people, although many do hunt and fish for part of their food, and practice other traditional customs. In order to understand some of the problems faced by present day Indian and Eskimo people, it is necessary to be familiar with their past.

Interesting classroom discussion might be stimulated by attempting to distinguish traces of the early customs described in this chapter which are still in evidence today.

Athapascan Indians

A. Eskimos

1. Physically, the Eskimos are a short, brown-skinned people with dark brown or black hair and dark eyes.

2. They live along northern coastal areas of North America:

   a. About half live in Alaska, under the United States government.

   b. About one-third live in central Canada and Labrador, under the Canadian government.

   c. Most of the rest live in Greenland, under the Danish government.

   d. A few live in Siberia, under the Soviet government.

3. The Eskimo Home

   a. Solid-wall home, for winter:

      1) Logs and driftwood are used in the construction of these winter homes which are dug deep into the earth and have earth or sod piled on their tops and sides. They have earthen floors. Their entryways are long tunnels which keep out the wind.

2) Inside there are wooden platforms which are piled with skins for bedding.

3) Some pottery is made and used. Driftwood is also used as firewood.

b. Houses with round walls of stone, found where there is less wood.

1) These houses have curving whale ribs for support. They are filled with walrus skulls and entirely covered with sod. Each has an opening at the top for ventilation.

c. Skin tent, for summer use.

These have frames made of driftwood, which are reinforced with curved whalebone. Each frame is covered with skins of sea mammals.

d. Snow house, in areas where there are no forests or wood; built only by Canadian coast Eskimos.

1) These are constructed of large blocks of snow cut into cubes. The layers of blocks are placed in ever-smaller circles until a dome is achieved. The entrance is usually a long tunnel.

2) Platforms are constructed and covered with skins for bedding.

3) The interior is heated with a seal-oil lamp made of a shallow stone, and stone utensils are used for cooking.

4. Food

a. Seal, walrus, sea cows (before 1750), whales, polar bear, reindeer (after 1892), caribou, and various waterfowl are hunted.

b. Shee fish, salmon, cod, halibut, and shellfish are parts of the fisherman's catch.

c) Dishes are made of walrus skin or rough wood.

5. Clothing

a. Fur trousers are made of caribou fawn, reindeer, and bear hides. Fur shirts are made of matched caribou hide and birdskin. Some are hooded. They are trimmed with wolverine, wolf, bear, rabbit, or muskrat skins. Waterproof shirts are made of seal intestines, and sometimes intestines of other animals. Waterproof boots with crimped soles are made of sealskin. The women chew it to leather-soft before sewing.

b. Clothing is sewed with animal sinew thread, using an ivory needle.

6. Transportation

a. Kayak

1) Kayak frames are made of driftwood. The seal-hide covers are put on the frames while they are wet, then they shrink to fit.

2) Each kayak has a hole on top which is suitable for one man. The bottom of the man's jacket fits over this hole, making the kayak watertight.

b. Umiak

1) An umiak has a driftwood frame tied together with leather thongs. The frame is covered with walrus hide, also put on while wet then shrunk to fit.

2) The boat is open and can carry up to 30 men.

c. Dog Sled

1) A dog sled is made of a driftwood frame which is tied together. Its runners are tipped with ivory so they will penetrate ice banks. Leather strips are folded then frozen into shape to fit the runners of the sled when wood pieces are unattainable.

2) Harnesses are buckled, with swivels of ivory carved to fit and suit each purpose. Five to nine dogs draw the sled, harnessed in pairs, with one leader. Canadian Eskimos spread dogs in a fan shape to draw the sled.

3) Dogs sleep in the snow without cover. They sometimes bury themselves in the snow during storms.

7. Government

a. There is little need for government among the Eskimos. Any man can become a leader who is physically strong, wise, and a good hunter and provider for his family.

b. Each house has its own leader, and each family group makes laws only as needed.

c. Whalers call their captain "chief."

8. Customs

a. Eskimos love feasts and athletic contests. They hold great celebrations at the end of each hunting season. Souls of sea animals are sent back to the sea during the festivities. Whalers toss their boat captain up on a walrus skin; he later showers gifts and does a little dance step while others sing songs that tell the story of a great hunt. During trading feasts, whole villages exchange goods.

b. The Eskimos believe in medicine men who can call on spirits of earth and air.

c. Marriages are arranged by the elders. If the young man gets the approval of the prospective father-in-law, he has permission to take the girl; that's all there is to the marriage ceremony, and he just takes her away. A girl who shows industry and talent and who keeps herself neat is much desired for a mate. Eskimo girls, in some cases, marry so very young that a girl may continue to play with the other children right up to the time of her first pregnancy. A boy, on the other hand, has to hunt well for many seasons before he accumulates enough property to establish a home; so the husbands of the twelve-year-old brides are frequently grown men, two or three times as old as their wives. To an Eskimo, a wife is more or less an advertisement. The degree of ease and comfort in which she seems to be living is the measure of his ability as a hunter and provider.

B. Athapascan Indians

1. Physically, the Athapascans are tall and slender, have dark brown skin, black or dark brown hair, black eyes, and very large, high cheekbones.

2. These people live in the interior of Alaska along large rivers and their tributaries. They are seminomads, moving from one place to another as the areas provide food. A smaller part of the Alaska Athapascans live near the headwaters regions beyond the migration of the salmon.

3. The Athapascan Home

   a. The home of the Athapascan is simple and crude—a framework of poles spread out at the ground and gathered and tied together at the upper end. The tent-like house is covered with bark, skins, or brush, with an opening at the peak through which smoke escapes. All materials used in construction of this tent-like house must be lightweight so that it can be easily transported.

   b. There is also a clubhouse for men which has a steam bath and eating facilities.

4. Food

   a. Each group maintains itself by hunting, trapping, and fishing. These people live more on game than fish—mostly caribou, moose, mountain sheep and goats, bear, rabbits, other small animals, and numerous fowls which are mostly grouse, ptarmigan, and water fowl.

   b. Food resources determine the directions the families migrate. The head of the family is always on the lookout for more food. He determines when and where they will move next as soon as their source of supply is near exhaustion.

   c. When there is lack of food during a severe winter, the people let themselves die.

5. Transportation

   a. Birchbark canoes, rafts, snowshoes, and, sometimes, dog teams are their means of transportation.

   b. Dogs are at first trained to carry packs, then to pull toboggans when larger packs have to be carried. Finally, the Canadian Eskimos have taught the Alaskan Eskimos the use of dog-sled teams; they, in turn, have taught the Athapascan Indians to use them.

6. Government

   a. Each group is headed by some man who, by common consent, is recognized as chief. He is allowed only such authority as the individuals are willing to grant him. The chiefs are chosen for their ability to hunt and make wise decisions.

b. The chief's son does not inherit his father's chieftanship. The son has to earn the right to become a chief by being brave, strong, and a good hunter.

c. Community affairs are settled by a general council in which the chief and the older men of the group ruled by custom.

7. Customs

a. Men and women share alike in most of the work, but the men are usually the hunters, while the women are the food gatherers (they collect berries, herbs, etc.) and clothing makers. The women also have the responsibility of raising the children.

b. The primitive weapons of the Athapascans are the bow and arrow, the spear, and the club. Each group has its permanent hunting grounds which it jealously guards. Each group makes long hunting trips to other areas.

c. Intertribal wars are less common among the Athapascans than among the Thlingets and Haidas, their neighbors on the coast. However, there are wars along their frontiers. The interior Indians are sparsely distributed over a vast area. They possess little property which their neighbors desire, so most disputes are over hunting grounds.

d. The Kutchins, the northernmost group of the Athapascans, have a reputation of being fearful fighters. The Kutchins and lower Eskimos fear each other. The Eskimos say the Kutchin Indians are treacherous—that they act friendly, but that they will attack at the first opportunity. Because the Kutchins are a migratory people, they do not have any fortifications.

e. The head of each group has a very good understanding of geography and makes good maps on birchbark. The Kutchins use the stars, especially the North Star, to guide them as they migrate. They also use cloud formations to predict storms.

f. Just as do most of the other Indian tribes, the Kutchin Indians have a lunar calendar which has 13 months. Each month is named. Their unit of measurement is based on the length of the thumb and the hand span. Half-fathoms span from the tip of the chin to the tips of the fingers while one looks straight ahead with the arm extended outward. The full fathom's measure is made by extending both arms outward and measuring that distance.

g. Strict marriage customs are observed anywhere the clan system is used. Because of the sparsity of the population over the vast area where the Kutchin roams and lives, the clan system as practiced by their southern neighbors completely disappears.

h. Smoking is universal among the Kutchins. They used dried leaves of several plants, such as kinnikinnick or fireweed, mixed with some bark which gives them a good taste and aroma when they are smoked.

i. Like that of the Thlingets and Haidas of the coastal areas, the language of the Kutchins is very difficult to speak and master because of its gutteral sounds.

C. Thlingets

1. Physically, the Thlingets resemble closely all of the coastal peoples as far south as Humboldt Bay in Northern California, and their cultures are similar.

2. The Thlingets occupy all of the coastal region of Southeastern Alaska, from as far north and west as the Copper River to Cape Fox near Dixon Entrance.

3. Communities

   a. Because the country is mountainous and the sea resources are rich, Thlinget settlements tend to be concentrated. For generations, Thlingets have occupied permanent villages. These are usually located on or near tidewater in sheltered areas and have access to fresh water. They also have beaches suitable for boat landing, as well as ready access to game animals and fish.

   b. Villages are occupied several months each year, usually during the winter months. Villagers occupy temporary hunting, fishing, and berry-picking grounds from spring to fall.

   c. Their climate is temperate, their food is abundant, and their communications are readily made; thus, they are better off than other natives of Alaska.

4. The Thlinget Home

   a. The Thlinget home has a wooden frame made of hewn planks. It is substantially built and morticed together. It has a low roof which is made of split cedar logs called "shakes." It slopes gently from a height of 10 feet at the ridge to 6 feet at the eaves.

   b. House sizes vary among different clans and communities. They are usually from 40 to 70 feet long and from 30 to 40 feet wide.

   c. The interior of a Thlinget home usually has two or three levels. The lowest level has a dirt floor upon which the fire is made. Other floors are made of planks hewn from split logs.

   d. These houses, made without metal tools, show a high development in mechanical skill. They are the highest form of wooden architecture developed.

   e. Temporary dwellings consist of cedar-bark tents which are transportable by canoe.

   f. Each clan occupies an entire house with spouses from other clans, and each house is named after a clan crest.

5. Food

   a. Berries, barks, herbs, and roots are all abundant in season.

   b. Black bear and beavers are numerous, and Sitka deer are everywhere—on the beaches, hills and muskegs. There are mountain goats and sheep in many areas, as well as waterfowl of many varieties. Eggs of waterfowl are plentiful when in season.

c. An occasional dead whale provides food; and porpoises are plentiful, though they are hard to get since they are fast swimmers. Hair seal is a staple food; it provides meat. Also, its fat is boiled to make oil used with other foods.

d. Salmon of all species is another staple food. Halibut, cod, and shellfish such as clams, mussels, cockles, crab, shrimp, and sea urchins are all abundant. Candlefish, a species of smelt or eulachon (pronounced 'hoo-li-gun), a saltwater fish, is available in fresh or brackish water during spawning. Sea cucumbers are easily obtainable below tidewater levels.

e. Various seaweeds are available on most beaches near the villages.

6. Clothing

a. Garments are woven partly from vegetable fiber and partly from furs and skins of animals.

b. Unlike Eskimos, Thlingets make no great attempt to devise well-fitting garments. Men wear loin cloths made as aprons of interwoven skin and bark fiber.

c. Blankets are made from bark thread, mountain goats' wool, and dog hair. They are highly ornamented for practical and ceremonial purposes.

7. Transportation

a. The Thlingets are the expert boat builders of the North American Continent. Canoes made of dug-out cedar are the only means of transportation.

b. These vary in length from 12 to 75 feet. The smaller canoes are used for fishing and hunting in protected channels, bays, and inlets. The larger canoes are used for voyaging longer distances and for war purposes.

c. Red cedar is utilized for larger canoes, while Sitka spruce is used for smaller craft.

d. Fire is used to fall trees. Fire and stone adzes are used to hollow the insides of the trees.

e. Painted and carved art on canoes is highly developed.

8. Social Organization

a. Tribal social organization is based upon subdivision of the tribe into two phratries, or moieties (meaning "halves" in French): raven and eagle moieties. According to native myths each phratry is descended from an ancient hero, sometimes referred to as a god by the white man. The legend of each phratry involves the animal that is the emblem of the phratry. The phratry should not be confused with the tribe, and it is in no sense a geographic subdivision. The tribe is both phratries together.

b. Marriage is between individuals of different phratries. Children belong to their mothers' phratries. The mothers educate the girls, while the mothers' brothers teach the boys the ways of tribal life.

9. Government

a. No political organization has developed among the Thlingets. Each phratry is, however, further subdivided into clans, each of which has an animal symbol; and each has special rights to certain crests such as bear, beaver, killer whale, and wolf. The raven moiety includes the beaver, raven, crow, sea gull, shark, and other clans; the eagle moiety includes the bear, killer whale, shark, wolf, thunderbird, porpoise, and other clans. Each clan has a leader. Thlingets discourage the use of the term "chief," which is used by the Southern Athapascans to mean something else, in favor of the term "leader."

b. A leader's son inherits neither the wealth nor the emblem of his father. The leader's wealth and emblem are passed on to his sister's son. A leader usually chooses his successor from among his nephews, with the approval of the clan. An inheritor is to be a replacement for the person who dies. In cases of a person's dying unexpectedly, his successor is chosen for his ability to replace the deceased and is not necessarily the person whom the deceased would ordinarily have chosen.

10. Customs

a. Each clan has its own shaman who protects the family from diseases; he is like a family doctor. A common misconception is that a shaman drives away evil spirits. His function is actually to look into the future in order to foretell how stable a man's life is.

b. Every important event demands a lavish ceremony which is called "potlatch," the equivalent of a banquet:

1) Birth of a child to the elite.
2) Burial of a relative.
3) Building of a new house.
4) Erecting of a new totem pole.

Large stores of food and gifts are accumulated in advance for such occasions. Great amounts of furs, blankets, baskets, food, and many other things are given away by the host of the potlatch. Social position and renown in the community are associated with the lavishness of the potlatch. No man becomes a leader or acquires rank without giving a potlatch. Acceptance of gifts at a potlatch involves an obligation to repay them with interest when the guest, in turn, gives a potlatch.

c. Thlingets believe in one great spirit. This spirit is not divided as is the Roman spirit.

d. Warfare—See "Customs" in the Haida section.

D. Haidas

1. Physically, the Haidas are a tall, powerfully built people with attractive features. Their faces are broad, and their cheekbones are protruding. They are dark complexioned and frequently have ruddy cheeks. Their hair is brown or, in many cases, red.

2. Most Haidas live in the Queen Charlotte Islands in British Columbia, along the coasts, rivers, and streams where the fish are plentiful. A large group migrated to Prince of Wales Island in Alaska as the result of intratribal warfare. Their culture is similar in many ways to that of the Thlingets.

3. The Haida Home

   a. The Haida home is built for communal living; several families live together. It is a large structure, often 75 by 100 feet, and frequently very low, such that a person who stands outside might lean on the lower rafters of the structure. Inside the door, a few steps lead down into the interior. The sides of these houses are made of cedar planks four or five feet wide. Each house is well built and is likely to last a century.

   b. Temporary housing is used at some of the fishing grounds.

4. Food

   a. The Haida diet consists mostlly of fish and potatoes.

   b. Lack of vegetables in it during winter months may be what causes sores on the Haidas elbows, shoulders, and other joints.

5. Clothing

   a. The Haidas are usually scantily clad. Their shirts and petticoats are made of roots, bark, or animal skins.

   b. Personal adornments are very common, particularly in their hair which they keep well groomed. Originally bone ornaments, nose rings, and ankle bracelets made from native copper were worn. European glass and metal ornaments have since replaced these. Tatooing is also common.

   c. Bright colors are popular. European fabrics, clothing, and blankets are frequently seen among the Haidas.

6. Transportation

   a. The canoe is the Haida's means of transportation.

   b. The Haidas are very skillful canoe builders and are excellent canoe handlers, as well.

7. Social Organization—Haida social organization is very similar to that of the Thlingets.

8. Government

   a. Haida government is like that of the Thlingets.

   b. Leadership is charismatic in nature. Like a president, a chief must have the support of the majority to carry out his wishes.

9. Customs

a. The Haidas have a shaman or medicine man. One of his duties is to heal the sick. Most disease among the Haidas is pulmonary in nature. Huts or tents are kept closed as much as possible during the winter to avoid losing heat, so the air becomes very stale.

b. During winter months there is much feasting, dancing, and gambling. Potlatches are held, as among the Thlingets. One type of potlatch is held if one chief is jealous of another, and it is destructive. Each of the two chiefs will hold one or more potlatches with the purpose of outdoing the other in demonstrating his wealth. These become contests to see which chief can destroy more of his own property than the other. Each chief is supported in his efforts by the members of his tribe; they supply him with more property to destroy when he runs out. No tribe wants its chief to lose face to another tribe's chief.

c. Warfare

1) Ancient Haidas were very warlike. As a group they were very powerful and terrorized surrounding tribes. The most powerful Haida clan would even harass other less powerful Haida clans, as well as neighboring clans of other tribes. Therefore, inter- and intratribal warfare were both quite common.

2) During wars slaves were taken. Sometimes slaves were traded back, at a great profit to the chief who had captured them. Children of slaves taken in war were also considered slaves.

10. Totem Poles

a. A totem pole is thought of in approximately the same way as is the American flag. It is completely unrelated to religion and is never worshipped.

b. Totem poles are constructed from red cedar or spruce. Their lengths are usually between 30 and 75 feet. Caricatures represent animals and mythical creatures claimed by the clan erecting the totem pole. Each totem pole erected tells a history, a story of great deeds, or a legend. The totem story is the only type of literature invented by the Haidas and Thlingets.

c. Kinds of totem poles:

1) Mortuary—These usually have a hole in them where the ashes of the deceased chief are placed.

2) Memorial—These are made in memory of great events.

3) Heraldic—These display the family crest.

4) Potlatch—These are made to celebrate a particularly big potlatch.

5) Ridicule—These are put up by someone who does not approve of some action, usually by the opposite clan in the other phratry.

6) House Posts—These are placed at the doorway much as a namepost is.

d. Each pole being erected requires great ceremony and is erected only by members of the opposite phratry. If one phratry holds a big potlatch, the other may construct a totem pole as a sign of thanks.

E. Aleuts

1. Physically, the Aleuts are a short, stocky, fair-skinned people.

2. They live along the Alaska Peninsula as far northeast as Ugashik and as far southwest as Pavlof Bay, also including nearby islands of the Aleutian Chain.

3. The Early Aleut Home

   a. These are large communal structures, apparently quite ancient and rather rare, up to 240 feet long and 40 feet wide. Each houses up to 150 people.

   b. Walls and roof supports are made of upright driftwood timbers, or sometimes whalebones. The houses are sunk to a considerable depth in the ground and appear to be wholly underground. Their roofs are made of poles or planks covered with a layer of dry grass which is overlaid with sod. Houses are entered through small openings in their roofs. Notched logs are used as ladders.

   c. Oil-burning lamps provide heat and light.

4. The Later Aleut Home

   a. These are similar in construction to the early home, but they are for individual families.

   b. These are entered through two or three small openings in their roofs.

5. Food

   a. Sea mammals, including hair seal, sea lion, sea otter, and whale.

   b. Land mammals, including brown bear and caribou (on the mainland only), rabbits, sheep, and goats.

   c. Waterfowl.

   d. Fish, including all species of salmon and cod, halibut, and red snapper.

   e. Shellfish, including clams and crab.

   f. Birds' eggs are a staple article in nesting season.

6. Clothing

   a. Waterfowl skins are made into clothes that resemble the Eskimo parka with the hood. Some clothes are made of sea otter or seal skins. Intestines of seal and other sea mammals make waterproof garments.

b. Men wear a peculiar kind of hunting helmet which is made from a flat piece of wood that has been scraped very thin, steamed and bent over, and sewed together at the back. These hunting helmets are conical in shape.

c. Hats are elaborately decorated with painted designs.

7. Government

a. Chiefs and their families constitute aristocracy. Each house chief has a different degree of authority. Little is known about how each chief is selected. An educated guess is that his selection is probably based on the same criteria as the Eskimo's—physical strength, wisdom, and good hunting and providing for his family.

b. Common freemen make up the largest social class.

c. Although the Aleuts are not warlike, prisoners taken during wars are slaves. They form the lowest social group.

8. Transportation

a. Baidarka—The Aleut baidarka has a driftwood frame which is sewed together and covered with hair seal skins. It is a covered boat with a hole in the top suitable for one or two or three men. It is propelled by double- and/or single-bladed paddles.

b. Baidar—The baidar is an open boat much like the baidarka in other respects.

c. Villages need good boat landings.

9. Customs

a. Prior to Russian-introduced Christianity, Aleuts have had only a primitive form of religion. They have believed in a multitude of spirits.

b. Their myths and legends tell how man and the world came into existence. Some of their myths claim they came from the east.

c. Medicine men hold high respect in the tribe.

d. Marriage is arranged by the elders.

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UNIT III. THE EARLY RUSSIAN BACKGROUND

Unit III. The Early Russian Background

A. The First Known People

1. Russian history prior to the ninth century before Christ is little known. Since the seventh century before Christ (the Iron Age) historical accounts have been more exact.

2. Peoples populating the areas north of the Black Sea have been named:

   a. Cimmerians—The Cimmerians are believed to have populated the plain north of the Black Sea prior to the ninth century before Christ.

   b. Scythians—The Scythians seem to have driven the Cimmerians out of the area and to have split the Cimmerians into two groups: western and Asian.

   c. Sarmatians—The Sarmatians are believed to have begun invading the Scythians in the fourth century before Christ. They and the Scythians are sometimes confused. There are two secondary tribes of Sarmatians: The Alani and the Roxolani.

B. Migrations

1. The people moved both east and west, and there is no way to establish their general direction of movement.

2. In the first and second centuries after Christ a real change occurred. The Germanic tribes, led by the Goths, arrived. Then, in the fourth century and under the Goths, the capital of Kiev began to rise. The Goths were also the first to accept Christianity. The Huns arrived and destroyed the fourth century achievements of the Goths. The Huns were replaced by the Avars in the sixth century, and they, in turn, were replaced by the Magyars in the seventh century. Turish tribes, the Khazars, arrived in the eighth century. Judaism was adopted by their upper class; Islam, by their lower class; and Christianity, by some.

C. The Slavs

1. Encountering an Aryan-speaking Slavic people who were expanding northward and eastward brought the movement of the Khazars to a halt.

2. The Slavs found indigenous Lithuanians near the Baltic Sea and infiltrating Finns farther east. The Slavs probably wandered eastward again after they were pushed west by recurring Asiatic invasions. They eventually split into three distinguishable groups whose descendants now inhabit Russia:

   a. The Great Russians
   b. The Little Russians
   c. The White Russians

   The Czechs, Wends, Slovaks, and Poles were other Slavic tribes who settled in Serbia, Rumania, and Bulgaria.

D. Russia Was Hardly a Part of Western Europe

1. The Scandinavian peoples and the Greeks are to be credited with the first development of Russia. The principal settlements were made by the Northmen, and Christianity was brought to them by the Greeks. When the Slavs were overrun by the Varangian, who were apparently from Scandinavia, the Northmen added to their disunity. The Finns seem to have called these Norsemen "Russ" which meant "oarsmen." After the Norsemen mingled with the Slavs, the Slavs, too, were called by this name.

2. The Mongols came to rule Russia in the thirteenth century, so she was subject to the great Khan for 200 years until the prince of Moscow managed to rid her of the Mongol yoke. The Tarter occupation left the Russian people essentially Oriental in terms of their dress, customs, weapons, and industries. Russia kept her Oriental customs until the era of Peter the Great, 1689-1725.

3. Russia came into contact with European culture and began to adopt Western customs gradually. Since Russia had no pathway to the open sea, contact with Western European civilization was difficult for the Slavic people. The way to the Baltic was blocked by Sweden, and the Black Sea was controlled by the Tartars, and later by the Turks. Russia expanded eastward into Asia during this period. She did not become a European power until the time of Peter the Great.

E. Russian Eastward Expansion

1. The Cossacks had opened the door for Russian expansion across Asia. There was no northern Asian power to block the Muscovite expansion to the Pacific since Genghis Khan and his successors' Mongol empire had broken into a number of weak states; the Muscovites pushed across the Ural Mountains. Many Cossacks settled in Siberia, becoming herdsmen and fur gatherers.

2. European and Chinese markets paid excellent prices for Siberian furs. Russian merchants discovered this, and the discovery carried them throughout Asia's vast plains and across the Pacific Ocean to Alaska.

F. The Reign of Peter the Great

1. When his stepbrother Tsar Fedor, III, died, Peter became Tsar at the age of ten, upon the suggestion of the patriarch. He was alert and wanted to learn, though he had not been well educated. In Moscow, a "German suburb," he learned various skills and arts and gained a deep respect for foreign accomplishments and customs.

2. He headed an expedition to Western Europe in 1697. Its purpose was to study its agriculture, industries, government, and military methods. He returned with scientists, engineers, skilled workers, artisans, shipbuilders, and army officers and began to modernize Russia. He eliminated the Council of Nobles ("Duma") and became head of the Orthodox Church. He forbade the practice of keeping women in seclusion, as well as the wearing of beards and the use of Oriental robes. Besides strengthening the army and creating a navy, the Tsar improved the civil administration, partially amended the calendar, and reorganized the Church. After bringing scientists back, he also established the Russian Academy of Science.

3. Procurement of Ice-free seaports was another objective of Tsar Peter. In order to gain a foothold on the Black Sea, he took Azov from Turkey; but he lost this in 1711. He fought Sweden which was then ruled by a young military genius, Charles XIII. He was defeated for several years but finally destroyed her army at Boltava in 1709, a victory through which Russia won most of the Baltic provinces. Peter the Great built the naval base of Kronshtadt and the capital of St. Petersburg (Leningrad today) in the new territory. He went to war with Persia in 1722 and gained Derbend and Baku on the Caspian Sea.

4. Before his death, Peter the Great organized Bering's Kamchatka Expedition of 1725.

G. The Results of the Geographical Renaissance

1. Discovery and exploration of unknown parts of the world introduced new settlement opportunities.

2. The world's commercial center shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic. The commercial revolution led to the decline of seaports such as Genoa and Venice and to the rise of oceanports such as Lisbon, London, and Amsterdam.

3. The supply of precious metals increased.

4. Tobacco and other new commodities began to be used.

5. Large trading companies arose and world trade grew. New facilities in credit and banking developed.

6. Europe expanded through the founding of colonial empires, and there were rivalries and wars among the colonies.

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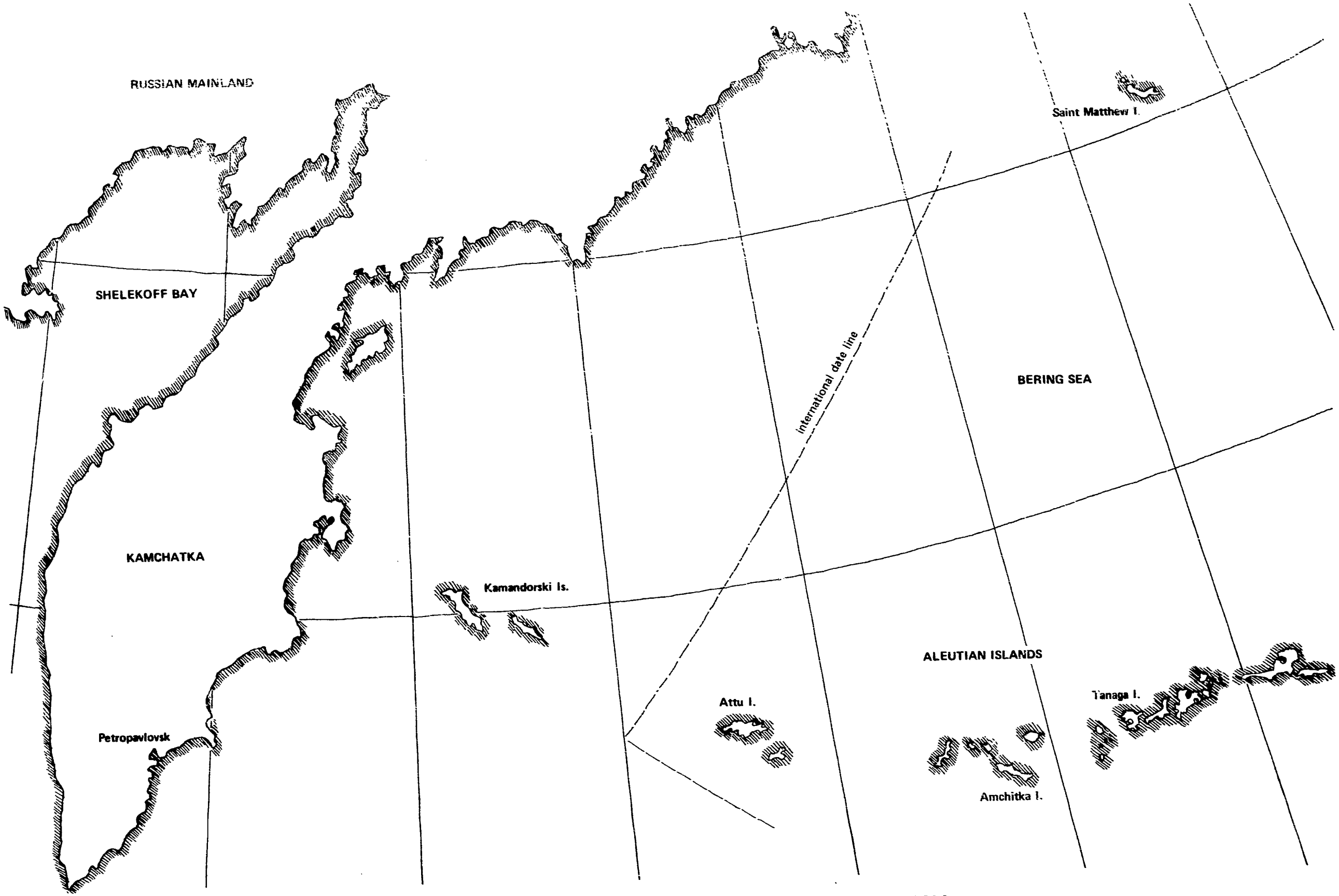
UNIT IV. RUSSIAN EXPLORATION AND EXPEDITIONS



THE PROXIMITY OF THE ALEUTIAN ISLANDS AND RUSSIA

Unit IV. Russian Exploration and Expeditions

A. Europeans Heard of Alaska for the First Time

1. A salt miner and fur trader, Anika Stroganoff was one of a family commissioned to exploit eastern Russia, which was later called "Siberia."

2. During his flight from Russia in 1578, Yermak Timofeivef visited Anika when he heard of the "land to the east" from the natives.

3. Yermak and his band of Cossacks took Sibir, the fort which guarded the sole good route to "Siberia," within two years. He sent a personal gift to Tsar Ivan: all the yasak, or furs paid in tribute by the natives. Ivan responded by pardoning them all for their crimes.

B. The Century March of the Cossacks, 1578-1724

1. The Cossacks pushed south to the Black and Caspian Seas.

2. The Promyshlennikis were hunters and trappers who also did some trading. They began an eastward expansion in their search for new trapping areas and were followed by the Cossacks. They occupied the Ob River, reached the still farther east Lena River, established Yakutski Ostrag, and explored the Amur River. They discovered the Arctic Seaboard shores and founded Okhotsk.

C. The Kamchatka Expedition, 1725

1. Peter the Great wanted to find a route to India and China via the Arctic Sea. He proposed and, in 1724, arranged an expedition to explore the area. Its purposes were:

   a. To see whether America and Asia were separate or joined.

   b. To test the new Russian ships and the new Russian discipline, as well as to see what the Austrian, Dutch, and Prussian men he had invited could do for him.

   c. To chart the areas visited, to make landings, to find the names of the places visited, and to get other reliable information prior to returning, as well as to find out if any other European ships were in the vicinity.

2. Though Peter the Great died before the expedition left, his work was continued by Empresses Catherine I and Elizabeth.

3. The Kamchatka Expedition originated in St. Petersburg.

   Vitus Bering, a Dane, commanded the expedition, and Alexei Chirikof was second in command.

4. They finally reached Kamchatka where they built ships. From there they sailed north through Bering Strait, proving that Asia and America are separate. Bering was not sure of this fact, however.

D. Bering's Second Expedition, 1733-1741

1. The Russian Senate was not satisfied with Bering's report that America and Asia were separate; however, they approved another expedition "for the glory of the Empire."

2. This second expedition, though it left St. Petersburg in 1733, did not receive all the necessary supplies which followed Bering to Okhotsk until 1740.

3. The Russian Senate instructed that the Kuril Island be explored; and Martin Spanberg, a Dane, was delegated to this exploration.

4. Prior to Bering's expedition to find the "land to the east," Spanberg returned from the Kuril Islands.

5. In trying to locate Company Land, Gama Land, and Terra de Jeso, including special routes to America, Bering lost time. After he and Chirikof conferred, they finally began to sail to the southeast, Bering commanding the St. Peter and Chirikof commanding the St. Paul. The two were separated during a fog which was followed by a heavy storm.

6. Chirikof first sighted land on one of the islands of Southeastern Alaska on July 15; Bering sighted the St. Elias Range the next day.

7. Bering's ship was wrecked in a storm, and Chirikof's ship returned to Kamchatka.

8. In early December Bering died on the island in the Komandorskiyes east of Kamchatka Peninsula which bears his name. His crew buried him there.

9. Scurvy killed many members of Bering's crew. Those surviving managed to salvage enough materials from the wreck of the St. Peter to construct a smaller boat which they sailed to Kamchatka.

10. When they returned, most of the crew were wearing handmade skin clothing and were carrying many pelts with them.

11. Though the Russian government had become disinterested in Bering's second expedition, their enthusiasm for obtaining more furs was rekindled by private initiative, led by the Promyshlenniki.

E. Exploration of the Aleutian Islands

1. The first person to follow the footsteps of Chirikof and Bering was Yemelyan Basov, a sergeant in the Lower Kamchatka Command and a fur hunter. He and A. Serebrennikov, a Moscow merchant, formed a partnership and sailed for Bering's Island in the summer of 1743.

2. In 1744, Basov again left for Bering's Island; he was subsidized by N. Trapeznikov, a merchant.

3. In 1745, a peasant from Tobolsk, Mikhail Neodchikov, left for the Aleutian Islands in a boat which a group of merchants had built. He had previously participated in Bering's second expedition. On the return trip his ship wrecked.

4. In 1746, Adrian, of the Tolstoy family, commanded a ship built by a group of merchants. He was a seafaring merchant from Selenginsk and searched for new sources of furs.

5. In 1759, the first person after Chirikof visited Umnak and Unalaska Islands. He was a hunter, S. Glotov.

6. By 1761, the boat which belonged to Bechevin, an Irkutsk merchant, reached the Alaska Peninsula. Issanakskie Strait, also called Protassof Bay, was discovered. It is located at the southern tip of Bechevin Bay and is very suitable for anchoring.

7. For many years numerous fortune seekers made the difficult crossing to the Aleutians where hunters would stay for several years at a time. They obtained most of their pelts through barter with the natives, or through robbery.

8. By the 1750's, the Aleutians were thoroughly stripped. Then hunters began to look for new places where others had not yet been.

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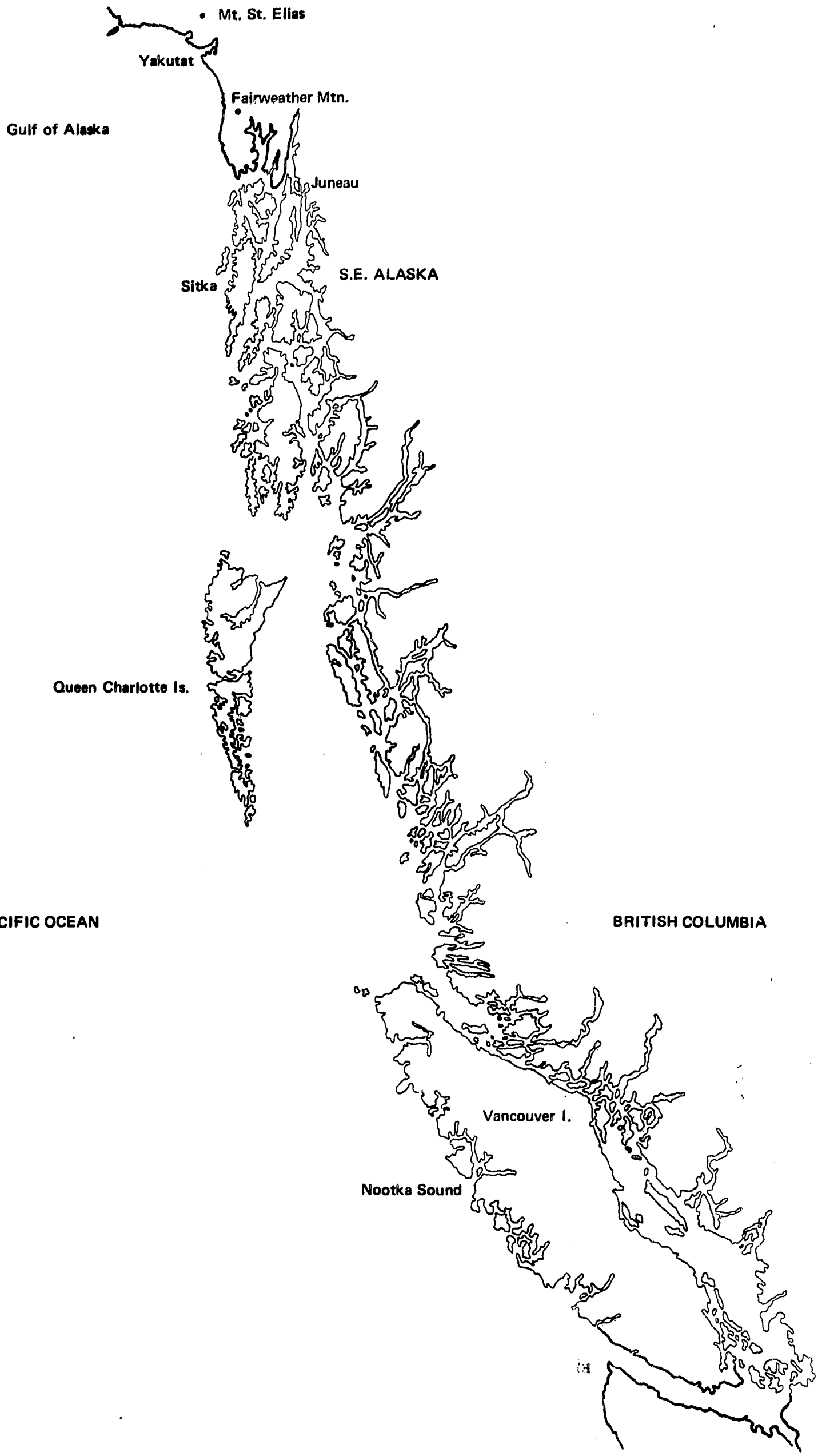
UNIT V. INTERNATIONAL RIVALRIES



The Northwest Coast from the Northern Tip of Washington to Yakutat, Alaska

Unit V. International Rivalries

A. Spanish Expeditions

1. Objectives

   a. To follow the coast to 60 degrees north latitude.

   b. To possess any existing settlement without disturbing the Russians.

2. Expeditions

   a. In 1774, Juan Perez set sail from San Blas, Mexico.

   b. Bruno Heceta was in charge of a second expedition which left March 16, 1775; and he was accompanied by Lieutenant Juan Francisco de la Bogeda y Quadra who was on a smaller ship.

   c. Captain Ignacio Arteaga headed a third expedition in 1779.

   d. In 1789, Haro and Martinez visited Nootka Sound.

   e. In 1790, Lieutenant Salvador Fidalgo set sail from Nootka, the newly established Spanish base on Vancouver Island.

3. Results of Spanish Expeditions

   a. The Spanish ascertained how far south the Russians had penetrated.

   b. They also recognized Russia's Alaska possessions.

   c. They established the boundary which was later to be used as the boundary between Canada and the United States.

B. English Expeditions

1. Objective—To determine whether there was a Northwest Passage between the Pacific Northwest and the Atlantic Ocean.

2. Expeditions

   a. Captain James Cook started out on July 16, 1776, in search of a Northwest Passage. He followed the outer coast of North America, at some distance offshore, until he reached Cook Inlet, where he made his first deep penetration. He did not enter any of the waterways of what is now British Columbia, or any of Southeastern Alaska. After he reached Cape Prince of Wales, he felt he had passed the westernmost extremity of North America; so he went south again and wintered in Hawaii.

   b. In April, 1791, Captain George Vancouver set sail. His purpose was to make detailed explorations and surveys of areas which Captain Cook had previously explored.

3. Results of English Expeditions

   a. Captain Cook discovered the Hawaiian Islands.

   b. His crew began the maritime fur trade on the Pacific Ocean when they sold furs for fabulous prices.

   c. The surveys and charts made during these voyages became the basis of later charts.

   d. It was thought that no Northwest Passage existed.

C. French Expeditions

1. Objectives

   a. To claim territory visited.

   b. To found trading settlements.

2. Expeditions

   a. In August, 1785, Comte de la Perouse left Brest to begin a scientific expedition around the world.

   b. In 1791, Etienne Marchand sailed from Marseilles. His expedition's interest was Alaskan fur trade, though he sailed around the world, too.

3. Results of French Expeditions

   a. Both expeditions failed in that neither succeeded in claiming any territory or in establishing any settlements for the French Government.

   b. Marchand's entering the fur trade, did, however, advance the maritime trade among nations.

D. Maritime Fur Trade

1. Upon the return of Captain James Cook's third voyage, its members told of the high value Chinese merchants placed on sea otter furs from the northwestern coasts of America.

2. Many sailors wanted to return to Northwest America to get cargoes of pelts to sell in eastern Asia.

3. Cook's Journal of his final voyage was published in 1783, along with several unofficial editions. It told the world of the fortunes which could be reaped in the West Coast fur trade.

4. Both American and British traders were soon along the western shore to reap the harvest.

5. Since the Russians were forbidden to enter Chinese ports with their ships, they could not send furs to China by direct sea routes. They did make some diplomatic efforts to get the Chinese ports opened to them, without success. The only place there they were allowed to trade was at Kiakhta, an inland border town; this, too, was closed down during the second half of the eighteenth century.

   a. The pelts which the Russian trappers obtained from the Alaskan coasts eventually got to Irkutsk.

   b. Here they were carefully sorted and the best of them were sent to Moscow.

   c. The Chinese received only second-grade pelts which came through the interior border towns.

6. Later on, when Baranof wanted to send seal skins to China, he had to employ American vessels to transport them. Until the Americans and British brought them via direct route, first-rate sea otter pelts were something which Chinese merchants had never seen.

7. Britishers who wished to trade between American coasts and China directly faced difficulties.

   a. The East India Company monopolized all British trade which entered Chinese ports.

   b. The South Sea Company had exclusive trading rights in the northern Pacific Ocean. British traders were forced to devious means of trading between northwestern America and China because of the East India Company's monopoly.

8. The first British sailor to enter trade was Captain James Hanna, in 1785.

9. In 1786, Captain Lowrie set sail under license of the East India Company.

10. He was followed by Captain Barkley in 1787.

11. Captains G. Dixon and N. Portlock of the King George Sound Company were both veterans of Cook's expedition. They left their headquarters in Hawaii in the spring of 1786, reached Cook Inlet during July, and were in Nootka Sound in 1787.

12. The New England merchants entered the maritime fur trade in 1787, through Captains Robert Gray and John Kendrick. Each had his own vessel.

13. John Mears founded a trading post in Nootka Sound. In 1789, the Spanish traders seized British ships and the trading post because the British were infringing upon the exclusive sovereignty of the Spanish there. Only at Nootka were there any seizures of British possessions or ships. The incident was closed after prisoners and vessels were released.

14. British traders found many places which were wholly untouched by the Russians, Spaniards, or Captain Cook.

15. When Etienne Marchand arrived in 1791, the French, too, became participants in the maritime fur trade in the Pacific Northwest.

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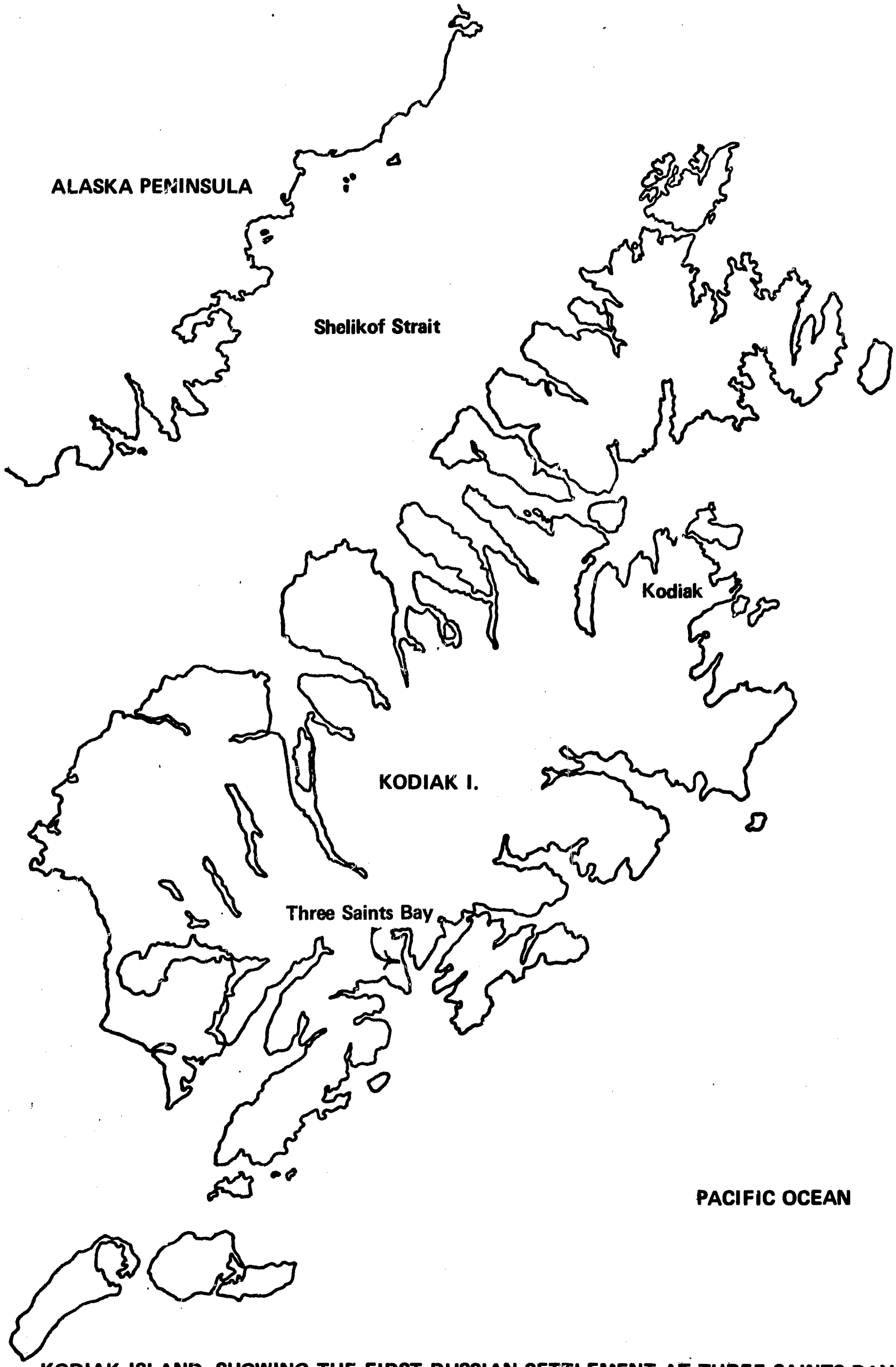
UNIT VI. RUSSIAN OCCUPATION



KODIAK ISLAND, SHOWING THE FIRST RUSSIAN SETTLEMENT AT THREE SAINTS BAY

Unit VI. Russian Occupation

A. Siberian Merchants and Traders

1. When Bering's crew returned (without him), there was much excitement in the Kamchatka area because of the furs they brought back.

2. In 1777, Gregor Ivanovich Shelekhov became one of the Russian expansionists in America. He established the first Russian settlement in Alaska, Three Saints Bay, in 1784.

3. Russian traders were rivals.

4. Shelekhov and Lebedef-Lastochkin formed a partnership in order to trade in the Kuril Islands.

5. In the Aleutian trade, Luka Alin was one of Shelekhov's associates.

6. Shelekhov also formed the Shelekhov Company with the Panof brothers and Soloviеf, in 1777.

7. He joined Ivan Golikov in fitting out a vessel for the Aleutian trade, in 1778.

8. In 1790, the Shelekhov-Golikov Company appointed Alexander Baranof to be general manager. He reached Three Saints Bay in July, 1791. Because there was a better harbor and better access to timber for ship repair, he moved the settlement to what is now Kodiak, in 1792.

B. Russian American Company

1. Baranof was responsible for the move of the Shelekhov-Golikov Company's headquarters to Paul's Harbor, as Kodiak was then called in honor of the Prince Imperial.

2. There was constant friction among the rival companies who established trading posts along the Aleutian Chain and in other good fur-producing areas.

3. Baranof discouraged the activities of rival interests by threats, force, or any other means he could find.

4. Shelekhov attempted to interest the rival trade companies in forming one large company which could apply to the Imperial Government to get an exclusive charter to trade in the area. Before he knew the results of his attempt, Shelekhov died.

5. In 1779, a charter was granted to the Russian American Company, which was then controlled by the heirs of Shelekov. That same year Baranof established a post in Southeastern Alaska now known as Old Sitka.

6. After the Company's employees had been massacred by the Thlinget Indians in 1802, the settlement was moved to Sitka or Fort Archangel Michael, in 1804.

7. The Russians had forbidden American or English ships within 100 miles of the Alaska coast. By treaties in 1824 and 1825, this restriction was lifted; they were allowed to enter territorial waters and to trade for furs in such areas as the Russians did not trade. Actually, the maritime fur trade had all but ended by that time and this trading privilege had little value.

8. Russian fur traders explored the Yukon River as far upstream as Nulato in 1838; however, this was a very minor achievement.

9. Russia sold Alaska to the United States in 1867, for the sum of $7,200,000.

C. Why Did Russia Want to Sell Alaska?

An investigation of the records reveals the principal reasons for the Russian sale of Alaska:

1. If the Russian American Company was to continue, it would need a large subsidy paid it since it was no longer self-sustaining. The Russian Government could not afford this.

2. Russia would probably not be able to defend Alaska in the event of a war, and the enemy would be able to seize Alaska without much difficulty.

3. Russian finances were in poor condition to meet the above expenses, so sale for a fair price was considered the best move.

D. Russian Weakness in America

1. Russia's attitude was further modified by the advent of the Crimean War.

2. Had England not made an agreement with Russia not to extend the war to North America, Alaska, which lay open to seizure, would surely have fallen to the enemy. The British realized that American public opinion favored Russia and would not allow British domination to expand in North America, according to the Monroe Doctrine.

3. Russia could not rely on this favorable situation indefinitely. As soon as the Crimean War ended, there were new threats to Alaska.

4. There was a Polish uprising in 1863, and the Tsar was afraid that France and England might use it as a pretext for a new attack.

5. Russia's American possessions would not be protected since her fleet did not have appropriate support and lacked coaling stations and harbor facilities in the Pacific and since the United States was occupied with a civil war.

6. The Russian Pacific fleet was dispatched to the United States because of considerations of this kind. Two years earlier Russia had abolished serfdom, so a popular interpretation of her action was that it was to build good will toward the abolitionist North. It was also a protection for her ships in neutral ports.

E. Why Did the United States Want to Make the Purchase?

The Committee on Foreign Affairs made a report, "The Motive Which Led the United States Government to Make the Purchase of Alaska," dated May 18, 1868. The following reasons were in the report:

1. The laudable desire of the citizens of the Pacific Coast to share in the prolific fisheries of the ocean, seas, bays, and rivers of the Western World.

2. The friendship of Russia for the United States.

3. The necessity of preventing the transfer by any possible chance of the Northwest Coast of America to an unfriendly power.

4. The creation of new industrial interests on the Pacific necessary to the supremacy of our empire on the sea and on land.

5. To facilitate and secure the advantages of an unlimited American commerce with the friendly powers of China and Japan.

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Unit VII. The American Period, 1867 to Present

A. Period of Neglect, 1867-1884

1. On March 30, 1867, Alaska was purchased from the Russian Government for $7,200,000.

2. On October 18, 1867, Alaska was transferred, and the United States flag was raised at Sitka.

3. Alaska was under military occupation from 1867-1877.

   a. President Johnson put Alaska under jurisdiction of the War Department.

   b. The Army controlled Alaska from 1867-1877.

   c. Because Alaska's area was so large and its population so sparse, civil government for it in 1867 seemed to government administrators in Washington, D. C. to be an impossibility.

   d. Most of Alaska's white population were there on temporary basis. The biggest part of the white population was military.

   e. Uncivilized natives and half-breeds were the permanent residents.

4. The United States laws concerning navigation, commerce, and customs were extended to Alaska in the Customs Act of July, 1868.

5. The Customs Act provided for a Collector of Customs at Sitka and a number of deputies. These were stationed at first at Sitka, Wrangell, Tongass, Kodiak, and Unalaska. Others were added from time to time as business warranted.

   a. The Customs Act became Section 1954 of the Revised Statutes, Volume I, p. 95. It prohibited the importation of distilled liquors. Later, the Army, by regulation, prohibited the importation of wine. There was no prohibition of beer; and Sitka, from its very early days, had one or two breweries. John H. Kinkead, who later became the first governor, was interested in one of them.

      The act also prohibited the importation of breech-loading firearms. Muskets, such as those that had been used in the Civil War, were thus legal.

   b. Permission or license from the Secretary of Treasury was required for killing fur-bearing animals.

   c. The Oregon, California, and Washington Territory courts were to enforce the Act.

   d. The Pribilof Islands were placed under the Secretary of Treasury's jurisdiction as a special reservation for governmental purposes, in 1867. The secretary could lease the Pribilofs if he wished.

6. In 1877, the Nez Perce Indian uprising in Idaho caused the last American Military detachment in Alaska to be called to the United States.

7. The highest official of the United States in the entire district was the Collector of Customs at Sitka. Other representatives of the United States included his deputies, several postmasters, and people on the Revenue Cutters which cruised Alaskan waters each year.

8. The Thlingets became lawless after the military forces were all withdrawn. They went on long drinking sprees and looted and pillaged warehouses which were unguarded.

9. Sitka residents dispatched several petitions to Washington, D. C. asking for some protection.

10. The Sitka residents, in 1879, appealed to the authorities in Victoria, the capital of British Columbia.

11. Captain A'Court, on the vessel Osprey, was sent to Sitka to protect the people until a United States vessel arrived.

12. The Collector of Customs, as representative of the Treasury Department, had exactly the same jurisdiction he had had under the Army — to regulate commerce, navigation, and the customs. By order of the Army, certain buildings were transferred to his custody. He had no other law enforcement powers. To assist him in the powers he did have, the Revenue Cutter Service, an arm of the Treasury Department, was under his command when it had vessels in Alaskan waters.

13. From the time of the arrival of the USS Alaska (a steam-powered cruiser) on April 3, 1879, under Captain George Brown, USN, until the passing of the Organic Act of 1884, the territory was administered by a navy captain and the customs collector. The USS Jamestown (a sailing vessel, without steam power) arrived at Sitka on June 14, 1879, whereupon the Alaska departed. The Jamestown was in command of Commander Lester A. Beardslee who became a captain on November 26, 1880, while stationed at Sitka. Brown and Beardslee were the only two senior Naval officers in Alaska during these years who held the rank of captain. All others — Henry Glass, Edward P. Lull, Frederick Pearson, Edgar C. Merriman, Joseph B. Coghlan, Albert G. Caldwell, and Henry E. Nichols — who served prior to the appointment of the first civil governor in 1884, held the rank of commander.

B. District of Alaska, 1884-1912

1. The Organic Act of 1884 brought Alaska civil government and made it "a civil and judicial district." It made Sitka the temporary seat of government.

2. The region's official title was the "District of Alaska" until it became a territory in the second decade of the twentieth century.

3. The Organic Act called for the appointments of a governor; a district attorney; commissioners at Sitka, Wrangell, Kodiak, and Unalaska; a judge; a court clerk; and a marshal.

4. The Act extended Oregon's state laws over Alaska.

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UNIT VII. THE AMERICAN PERIOD, 1867 to PRESENT

5. It also provided for schools.

6. The Criminal Code was adopted March 3, 1899, and the Civil Code, June 6, 1900, after the influx of settlers at the time gold was discovered. The latter made Juneau the "temporary seat of government."

7. The 59th Congress passed the Alaska Delegate Bill on May 7, 1906. This gave Alaska the right to elect a single delegate to Congress; he did not have voting power, however.

8. By this bill, suffrage was restricted to male United States citizens who had lived in Alaska for a year and in the precinct for 30 days prior to the election.

9. Election precincts would be set up in the commissioners' districts.

C. Territory of Alaska, 1912-1959

1. The second Organic Act was passed by Congress in the summer of 1912 and approved by President Taft on August 24, 1912. It created a territorial legislature with two houses; the Senate had eight members, and the House of Representatives had sixteen.

2. Juneau became Alaska's capital.

3. The Organic Act had nothing to do with the judicial districts into which Alaska was divided, although the Act did make the election districts coincide with the judicial districts. All Alaska was created one judicial district under the Act of May 17, 1884. The Act (Civil Code) of June 6, 1900, divided it into three districts, with seats at Juneau, Eagle, and Nome, In 1909, the third district was divided. The upper part of the Third District became the Fourth (the headquarters then being Fairbanks), and the southern part was retained as the Third District, with headquarters at Valdez.

4. From each of the four judicial districts two senators and four representatives were to be elected.

5. The term of office for senators was four years and for representatives was two years.

6. Electors and candidates were to be adult male United States citizens who had lived in the Territory at least a year.

7. Electors were to have lived in their respective election precincts at least 30 days preceding the election.

8. Congress, in 1927, required that every new voter prove that he could read and write the English language.

9. The number of legislators in both houses was increased in 1942.

   a. The Senate now had four members from each judicial district, for a total of sixteen.

   b. The House now had eight members representing the first district; four, the second; seven, the third; and five, the fourth.

10. The legislature had limited powers.

    a. The legislature could not dispose of the soil.

    b. It could not grant exclusive franchises or privileges.

    c. It could not grant divorces or reduce the term of residence required for a divorce.

    d. It could not legislate to permit gambling in any form.

    e. It could not relax any restrictions placed by Congress on the sale of liquor.

    f. It could not set up any court system.

11. The governor could veto individual items of appropriations bills; however, a two-thirds vote of each house could override his veto.

12. The governor was required to transmit one copy of each Act to the Secretary of the Territory of Alaska, the Secretary of State, and the President of the United States; the latter, in turn, was to transmit a copy to Congress, which had the power to disapprove such Act, whereupon it would become null and void.

D. The Long Battle for Statehood

1. Not long after the initial big gold strike was made by Richard Harris and Joe Juneau in 1880, the miners started to clamor for Alaskan self-government.

2. At the peak of the gold rush at the turn of the century, the agitation grew considerably.

3. In 1885, the second governor of Alaska, Alfred P. Swineford, suggested a motive. He stated that the Alaska Commercial Company had "paid agents" who were making a "studied and determined effort... to imbue the general public, as well as the government, with the belief that there is nothing of value in Alaska except its fur-bearing animals." He explained that the company "was defeating nearly every proposed settlement and development of Alaska," for the purpose of shutting out competition and continuing its monopoly of sealing in the Pribilof Islands. Swineford also made the charge that agents of the company and even some officials of the government "broadcast statements concerning the climate and undeveloped resources of Alaska which they knew were utterly false."

4. Washington's response was small, and Alaskans sometimes became impatient.

5. Valdez residents passed a resolution in 1905, to have Canada annex Alaska, since they felt that Congress would never pass the pending bill which would grant Alaska an elected delegate to Congress. There were citizens in Seward, Valdez, and Fairbanks who, for some years, felt that Canada might be more likely to make Alaskans first-class citizens. Their move was essentially to pressure the Congress, which, in 1906, finally allowed Alaska an elected delegate who would not have the power to vote.

6. Judge James J. Wickersham was appointed June 6, 1900, by President William McKinley to serve as U. S. District Judge for the Third Judicial District of Alaska with headquarters at Eagle. Judge Wickersham also filled in on the bench of the Second Division (Nome) and the First Division (Juneau) from time to time.

7. In 1908, he was elected to be Alaska's delegate to Congress. The 1912 Organic Act of Alaska was in large measure his achievement; it granted Alaska limited territorial status.

8. Wickersham introduced the first bill for Alaskan statehood in 1916.

9. In 1923, President Harding visited Alaska and predicted that Alaska would be admitted to the Union.

10. The establishment of the Matanuska Valley Project, in 1935, was the only action of lasting importance during President Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration, though he showed a greater interest in Alaska than did certain of his predecessors. Since this project initially established agriculture on a firm footing, it was a major advance for Alaskans.

11. World War II, rather than the New Deal, was responsible for the rediscovery of Alaska with its aspirations for statehood. The war increasingly focused attention on Alaska; and in 1943, about 27 years subsequent to Wickersham's first attempts toward achieving statehood, Delegate Anthony J. Dimond introduced a bill for statehood.

12. In 1945 and 1947, the next bills for statehood were introduced by Delegate E. L. "Bob" Bartlett.

13. The House approved both Alaskan and Hawaiian statehood bills in 1950, but both were killed in the Senate.

14. In the Senate in 1952, statehood lost by only one vote.

15. The Senate finally approved both Alaskan and Hawaiian statehood bills in 1954, but then the House tied up the bills.

16. A Senate committee reported, in 1951, that within Alaska there was little opposition to statehood and that "the burden was carried by representatives of the fish-packing industry with headquarters in the states."

17. Arguments opposing Alaskan statehood grew stale and shopworn.

18. Although the small population of Alaska was repeatedly cited, it was refuted by others who cited population statistics of other territories which had been granted statehood.

19. Another favorite topic for Congressional oratory was Alaska's weather. One Congressman, Senator Stennis of Mississippi, read and reread a newspaper article which contained the sentence: "Brief exposure can mean death," and banged on his desk to emphasize it.

20. In themselves, the arguments were not persuasive.

21. A new labyrinth of obstacles stood in the way of statehood.

    a. Senators from the South who were more concerned about the probability that Alaskan and Hawaiian senators would oppose racialism and the white supremacy position, as well as unlimited "Dixie" filibuster, had suddenly rediscovered that Alaska was cold.

b. Republicans believed that Alaska's elected Congressional delegation would be Democratic.

c. Democrats were afraid that Hawaii would be Republican.

d. Statehood for both of the territories turned into a political football.

e. In 1953, President Eisenhower reversed his position on statehood. He had favored immediate statehood prior to his election in 1952.

f. Charles E. Wilson, Secretary of Defense, said it was "in the interest of the national security for Alaska to remain a territory," although numerous leading military people were in favor of statehood.

22. The issue appeared to be a deadlock. The embattled Alaskans made the next move, finding and reading up on the Tennessee Plan. The Tennessee Plan is a means by which they would elect the same representation they would have in Congress if they were a state.

23. In 1955, Alaskans duly elected their delegates to a constitutional convention.

24. The state constitution which the delegates drafted was approved decisively, in 1956, by a two-to-one vote.

25. Under the Tennessee Plan, Alaskans sent two "senators" and a single "representative" to Washington, D. C. in October of 1956.

26. The new "Congressional" delegation gained support as it toured the country in a statehood caravan. It served as a potent statehood lobby in Washington, D. C.

27. On June 30, 1958, the House passed the statehood measure; the Senate was favorable, as well.

28. Presidential approval and voter ratification were the last steps, and were only a matter of form.

29. This time statehood received five-to-one support. President Eisenhower signed the Alaska statehood bill on January 3, 1959; this officially admitted the 49th State to the Union.

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Unit VIII. U. S. Armed Forces

A. The United States Army

1. "If we would provide an adequate defense for the United States, we must have. . . Alaska to dominate the North Pacific" were the words of William Henry Seward in his argument in Congress for the Alaska purchase.

2. As with most of the western territorial acquisitions of the United States, Alaska was first placed under the jurisdiction of the U. S. Army.

3. Troops were sent north in 1867 and arrived to take part in the ceremony of transfer at Sitka on October 18.

4. Army posts were established at Sitka, Wrangell, Tongass on the southern boundary, Kenai, and Kodiak, with a detachment from the latter sent to the Pribilof Islands. Sitka was the headquarters.

5. Alaska was first designated the District of Alaska, under the Military Division of the Pacific. In the spring of 1868, it became the Department of Alaska, under Brevet Major General Jeff C. Davis. On July 1, 1870, the Department of Alaska was discontinued and Alaska became a part of the Department of Columbia.

6. One of the duties of the Army in Alaska was the protection of the inhabitants and their property.

7. After a few years, all of the Army posts except the one at Sitka were closed and abandoned. The post at Fort Wrangell was re-established in 1874 with the start of the gold rush to the Cassiar in British Columbia, as most of the traffic for that point passed through Wrangell.

8. The Army's interest in Alaska continued, though its troops were withdrawn from the territory.

9. As early as 1876 weather stations were operated by the Signal Corps and the land was being crisscrossed by parties of explorers.

10. When First Lieutenant Patrick Henry Ray and nine men arrived at Point Barrow in 1881, inland explorations were made to places never previously touched by civilized man.

11. A military party was assigned to make a reconnaissance between Chilkoot Inlet and Fort Selkirk on the Yukon River. This is generally known as the Frederick Schwatka expedition. Lieutenant Schwatka and his party actually travelled from the headwaters of the Yukon at Chilkoot Pass to its mouth.

12. A reconnaissance of the Copper River was made in 1884, and there were further explorations in the Valdez area.

13. In 1885, a party of explorers travelled up the Copper River and down the Tanana Valley, making a side trip to the Koyukuk River and Nulato prior to going down the Yukon River to St. Michael which ended the trip.

14. Army units were returned to Alaska during the great Klondike gold rush of 1897-1900 to avert lawlessness. Posts were established in Southeastern Alaska, at Valdez, and along the Yukon River from St. Michael to Eagle City.

15. Since civil government was stabilized by 1910, the number of troops in Alaska was reduced to fewer than a regiment.

16. On May 26, 1900, Congress passed an Act and appropriated money to provide for connecting all military posts in Alaska by telegraph. This job was given to the Army Signal Corps which built and operated the lines. At that time the only telegraphic connection between Alaska and the states was a Canadian line. A submarine cable was laid by the Signal Corps, starting in 1903, to provide an American communications line. Wireless stations were later added in some places. Lieutenant William "Billy" Mitchell, who later gained fame as an aviator, was one of the men who built telegraph lines in Alaska.

17. This communications system drew the territory's populated sections together and linked them with the continental United States. It was, perhaps, greater and more lasting in value to Alaskans than the many benefits which the gold discovery brought them.

18. Electronic communication was not the only effort of the Army in the first years of the 20th century. The first trails were surveyed in connection with the telegraph lines above mentioned.

    Congress created the Alaska Road Commission by Act of January 27, 1905, and placed it under the Army. The Board first had its headquarters at Skagway, with Major Wilds P. Richardson as its President. It was given the job of building and improving trails and roads in Alaska. Much of the early work was devoted to winter trails, but some of these — the Valdez Trail among them - were gradually improved for summer use as well and eventually became roads. The Valdez Trail is now the Richardson Highway.

19. The Alaska Engineering Commission, which was created to build the Alaska Railroad, was like the Alaska Road Commission, a civilian organization but the members were mostly drawn from the Army, especially in the early years of the organization. Congress authorized the Alaska Railroad in 1914, and Lieutenant Colonel Frederick Mears supervised the construction. Army engineers laid out the railroad town which was later to be Anchorage.

20. Though World War I barely touched Alaska, an estimated 1,500 Alaskans went south to enlist in the Army and another 2,223 were drafted.

21. Army strength in Alaska declined between World Wars I and II. All Army posts in the territory, with one exception, were abandoned by 1925.

22. Increase in world tensions led to the establishment of Fort Richardson in 1940. It is located just out of Anchorage and has since become one of the world's biggest military installations.

23. The aggressiveness of the Japanese in the Aleutians stressed Alaska's strategic importance.

UNIT VIII. U. S. ARMED FORCES

24. The territory progressed greatly because of Army activity there during World War II. There was a great influx of soldiers and civilians, as well as of countless millions of dollars which were spent for construction work.

25. The construction of the Alaska Highway by the Corps of Engineers was the epic task and highlight of this period. It gave Alaska its only overland connection with the rest of the world.

26. There was a redesignation of Army troops as the United States Army, Alaska, on November 15, 1947. These troops were assigned the Alaskan Command, which was the first unified command of the United States and was jointly staffed by Army, Air Force, and Navy officers.

B. U. S. Revenue Cutter Service, 1865-

The predecessor of the U. S. Revenue Cutter Service was organized within the U. S. Treasury Department in 1790. From 1843 to 1880 it was known as the U. S. Revenue-Marine Bureau.

1. The first Revenue Cutter to visit Alaska was the Shubrick, in 1865. She came north to Sitka in connection with negotiations for the Western Union Telegraph Expedition.

2. After the treaty of purchase had been concluded in the spring of 1867, the Revenue Cutter Lincoln came north with a number of scientists, including geographer George Davidson, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. The scientists remained in Southeastern Alaska, but the cutter cruised as far west as Unalaska.

3. In 1868, the cutter Wayanda cruised through Southeastern Alaska and into the Gulf of Alaska, Cook Inlet, and Bering Sea.

4. Vessels of the Revenue Cutter Service and its successor, the Coast Guard, have been active in the waters of Alaska, including Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean, each year since 1868.

5. Some of the cutters in Alaska service included the *Reliance, Oliver Walcott, Richard Rush, Thomas Corwin, Commodore Perry, U. S. Grant, Hugh McCulloch, Tallapoosa, Unalga, Alert, Cygan,* and *Northland.*

6. The services performed by the Revenue Cutters were many in addition to their regular duties of enforcing the Customs laws, collecting duties and taxes, and preventing smuggling. These included:

   a. Carrying government officials from place to place, including governors, officials of the U. S. Department of Education, fisheries inspectors, school teachers, and any others who could not find regular transportation.

   b. Providing medical aid to isolated communities.

   c. Delivering the U. S. mails.

d. Transporting reindeer from Siberia to Alaska. This service was performed by the famed *Bear* and by the *Thetis.*

e. Assisting in taking the U. S. census.

f. Guarding the fur seal herds and their rookeries on the Pribilof Islands.

g. Transporting exploring and scientific expeditions.

h. Performing rescue missions, as in the winter of 1897-98 when Lieutenant D. H. Jarvis of the Revenue Cutter Service drove a herd of reindeer to Point Barrow for the relief of whaling vessels caught in the ice.

i. Carried U. S. District Judges and other court officials from Valdez to isolated communities as far west as Bering Sea so they could hold court. This was popularly known as "the floating court," although the actual court sessions were always held ashore.

C. U. S. Navy

1. The Navy had three ships at Sitka for the ceremony of transfer on October 18, 1867, the *Resaca,* the *Ossipee,* and the *Jamestown.*

2. In 1879, after the Army left Alaska, the USS *Alaska* was sent north from San Francisco for the protection of the citizens of Sitka, where she arrived on April 3.

3. Thenceforth until the outbreak of the Spanish-American War in 1898, there was always a U. S. Navy Vessel stationed in Alaska.

4. These vessels included the *Jamestown, Wachusett, Adams,* and *Pinta.* There were also visits by other Navy vessels.

5. From June, 1879 until September, 1884, the senior Navy officer in Alaska shared with the Collector of Customs jurisdiction over Alaska.

6. On September 15, 1884, the USS *Pinta* fired a 17-gun salute in honor of the first civilian governor of Alaska and turned jurisdiction over to him.

7. In the 1890's, when the fur seal herds were threatened by pelagic sealing at sea and by raids on their rookeries on the Pribilof Islands, several Navy vessels were sent to Bering Sea to guard the herds.

8. In 1894 the Navy built a coaling depot on Japonski Island in Sitka Harbor to supply coal to ships of the Pacific fleet. Coal was imported from Cardiff, Wales. This later became an important Navy base during World War II.

9. Beginning about 1907, the Navy established a system of wireless communication stations located at or near Sitka, Cordova, Kodiak, Unalaska, and the Pribilof Islands. These augmented the communications systems stations of the Army and provided for communications with ships at sea.

10. In 1929 a Navy flying squadron mapped Southeastern Alaska by aerial photography. Another aerial survey was made following World War II.

11. From 1933 to 1936 the Navy conducted hydrographic and coastal surveys in the Aleutian Islands.

12. The Navy played a very important part in Alaska in World War II, establishing principal bases at Sitka, Kodiak, Dutch Harbor, and Adak and many smaller bases.

13. Today the Navy maintains bases at Kodiak and Adak and has jurisdiction over the Alaska Sea Frontier, an area of almost three million square miles including the North Pacific, Bering Sea, and the Arctic Ocean.

D. U. S. Air Force

1. A crew of 25 locally hired men began construction of what is now Elmendorf Air Force Base on June 8, 1940.

2. Clearing got underway and a field office and repair shed were built.

3. This was the extent of construction progress completed when the initial Alaska Defense Force of 30 officers and 774 enlisted men arrived 19 days later.

4. Birth of Elmendorf Field came when the first Air Corps personnel arrived for permanent assignment.

5. Major Everett S. Davis and two enlisted crew members flew their B-10B bomber into Merrill Field on August 9, 1940.

6. They pitched tents and got their water from a two-inch pipe which ran from Ship Creek, because no barracks or other facilities were available to them.

7. On December 12, 1940, the War Department issued General Order No. 9 which named the military reservation near Anchorage and the flying field at Fort Richardson, Fort Richardson and Elmendorf (in honor of Captain Elmendorf), respectively.

8. Ladd Air Force Base was constructed adjoining the city of Fairbanks, and Eielson Air Force Base only 26 miles south of Fairbanks.

9. From its inception, Elmendorf has been a terminal for military aviation, resupply, and headquarters in Alaska.

10. The air bases throughout the Alaska mainland, on the Alaska Peninsula, and in the Aleutians had their beginning in the hangers and warehouses of Elmendorf Field, and were manned by personnel sent out from this point.

11. When war came Elmendorf became a rear base and the headquarters of Army Air Corps activity in Alaska.

12. Elmendorf today is one of the principal air bases of the United States Air Force, and will retain its important position in this nation's aerospace power.

13. Ladd Air Force Base has recently been renamed Ft. Wainwright.

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UNIT IX. THE BEGINNINGS OF INDUSTRIES

Unit IX. The Beginnings of Industries

A. Fur Trade

1. Although the fur seal had been known and hunted in the southern hemisphere, it was not until 1742 that there was a scientific report on the North Pacific fur seal.

2. This report was made by George Wilhelm Steller, a German scientist who accompanied Vitus Bering and, following the wreck of the *St. Peter* spent the winter on Bering Island, in the Commmander Island group in western Bering Sea. There he found fur seals, sea otter, several varieties of foxes, and sea cows, which soon afterward became extinct.

3. Russian fur hunters began taking furs from the Commander Islands and the Aleutians to establish the Russian fur trade in America.

4. Each spring fur seals were observed swimming northward through the Aleutian passes, to disappear into the fog of Bering Sea.

5. In 1786 Gerassim Pribilof successfully followed the fur seals and found their rookeries on what are now known as the Pribilof Islands.

6. These fur seals were determined to be a completely different herd from those that breed on the Commander Islands. The latter travel up the Asiatic coast each spring, while the Pribilof Islands herd travels up the American coast. The two herds do not mingle.

7. The Russian fur trade depended heavily on the sea otter, but all varieties of furs were taken. In the 122 years between 1745 and 1867, the reported Russian take of furs from Alaska included the pelts of 263,321 sea otter; 3,354,478 fur seals; 244,538 land otter; 71,659 black fox; 127,541 cross fox; 200,480 red fox; 86,339 blue fox; 413,356 beaver; and 48,187 marten.

8. In addition to these totals, a great many furs were taken by independent American and British fur traders, and by the Hudson's Bay Company, which established a fur trading post on the upper Yukon River and leased the mainland of southeastern Alaska from the Russians.

9. The fur-bearers of Alaska seemed well on the way to extinction when the Russian-American Company, in 1799, was granted a monopoly in the Russian fur trade in Alaska. Not long after that the independent American and British traders began to leave the field because it had become unprofitable. The Hudson's Bay Company confined its activities to the eastern part of Alaska.

10. The Russian-American Company, not long after it was granted a charter, began to institute conservation practices, particularly with regard to the fur seal and the sea otter. Hunting of these species was curtailed and regulated and the populations were gradually built up again.

11. In early years the fur seal skin was used more as a hide — for making work clothing, mittens, and caps — than as a fur. This was because each seal skin has many long guard hairs, protecting the soft fur underneath. At that time, the guard hairs could only be removed by a tedious hand process, and this could only be done profitably in China, where labor costs were very low.

12. By 1867, when Alaska was sold to the United States, the fur seal population of the Pribilof Islands had been stabilized. The tota was estimated to be at least 2 million animals, and some estimates placed it as high as 3.5 million. The Russians were harvesting about 17,800 pelts a year.

13. With the sale to the United States, conservation practices were thrown to the winds. Although the taking of fur-bearing animals was at first prohibited entirely, then opened only to native Alaskans, the slaughter was terrific. This is shown by a comparison of the fur catch during the last 23 years of Russian rule and the first 23 years of American rule:

14. In 1868, the first year of the American occupation, an estimated 240,000 seal skins were taken from the Pribilof Islands.

15. American firms took over the posts of the Russian-American Company.

16. In 1869, the sealing privilege on the Pribilof Islands was put up for bids and a San Francisco firm, the Alaska Commercial Company, won the contract and the right to harvest 100,000 seal pelts a year for 20 years. The contract went into effect in 1870.

17. At about that same time the fur seal pelt became recognized as a fine fur rather than as a utility hide. This was largely the work of one American and one English firm. Independently they developed methods of plucking, shearing, and dyeing the skins. The cost was still very high, however, and the market limited.

18. For centuries the Indians of Washington, British Columbia, and Alaska had hunted the fur seal as the herds passed by each spring, using dugout canoes and harpoons. Their catches were limited, however, by the distances a canoe could be paddled in a day, and by bad weather.

19. In 1878 an enterprising British Columbia sea captain, owner of a small trading schooner, experimented with taking Indian hunters and their canoes out to sea, where the seal herds were passing. The hunting was very successful, but the price was still low because of poor demand for the skins.

20. On April 12, 1881, Gustave and Ferdinand Cimiotti patented an unhairing machine for use on seal skins and similar skins. This immediately cut the cost of processing the skins and increased the demand for the fur. The price of raw seal skins rose sharply.

21. More and more small schooners, both British and American, got into the business of hunting seals at sea — known as pelagic sealing. They carried from 16 to 36 men each, and by 1894 a total of 110 vessels were engaged in the business. Some of them hunted only along the American coast, others went to the coast of Japan to hunt the Commander Islands herds, and many finished the season in Bering Sea, hunting both herds. In 1894, the pelagic catch was 121,143 skins — more than the number that had been allowed by the Alaska Commercial Company each year.

22. In 1889, when the Pribilof Island lease was up for bids again, a new firm, the North American Commercial Company, won the award. This lease was also for 20 years, but the annual harvest was greatly reduced because the herds were obviously being depleted.

23. In 1897 Congress passed a law forbidding American vessels to engage in pelagic sealing. This, so far as the Americans were concerned, eliminated the small independent hunter in favor of the San Francisco monopoly. So angered were many Americans that they put their vessels under the Canadian flag and continued to hunt.

24. By 1910 the Pribilof Islands fur seal herds had declined to an estimated 125,000 animals. Canada, Japan, and Russia entered into an agreement with the United States not to engage in pelagic fur sealing. This protected both the American and the Russian fur seal herds, the latter having also declined drastically. The American government today has a monopoly on the Pribilof Islands, but Japan and Canada are paid a percentage of each year's catch in return for their abstention. The American herd now numbers in excess of 1,500,000 animals.

25. In the meanwhile, the sea otter had also been hunted to virtual extermination. It, too, was placed under complete protection in 1911, and in the Aleutian Islands and a few other places the sea otter populations have again increased. The State of Alaska now harvests a limited number of these pelts.

26. Many of the other fur resources of Alaska were very greatly depleted during the first five decades under the American flag and only in the years since about 1910 have stringent and effective conservation measures been enforced.

B. Pacific Whaling

1. In the years when whale oil was burned for light and used as a lubricant, and when whalebone had many uses, whaling was a big business in the United States.

2. Whalers began to appear off the Alaska coast at any early date. In 1835, an American whaler hunted on the Kodiak grounds, and in 1848 the first whaler went through Bering Strait into the Arctic.

3. The American Civil War was hard on the whaling industry. Some ships were sold to the Federal Government for blockade purposes. Others were captured by Confederate privateers. One of these, the *Shenandoah,* followed the whalers clear to Bering Sea in 1865 and captured and burned many of them.

4. Most of the whalers sailed from New England ports until after 1884. By then so much of the whaling was being done in the North Pacific, in Bering Sea, and in the Arctic Ocean north of Alaska that many whalers moved their bases to San Francisco.

5. Until 1880 the whaling fleet was entirely sail, but in that year steam entered the field. This was especially important in the Arctic, where steam power helped get vessels through the ice.

6. Many whalers were lost to the ordinary perils of the sea and the extraordinary perils created by Arctic ice packs. Between 1848 and 1870, 16 whalers were lost in the Arctic. Then in the single year 1871 a total of 26 vessels were caught and crushed by the ice.

7. The year 1897 was another bad one for the Arctic whaling fleet and although only four were crushed, many were trapped and their crews marooned without sufficient food for the winter. An appeal was sent to Washington, and the Revenue Cutter *Bear* was sent north on a relief mission. A herd of reindeer was secured by Revenue officers headed by Lieutenant David H. Jarvis and driven north to Barrow in time to save the whaler hunters from starvation.

8. Although they took thousands of whales from the waters around Alaska, the whalers contributed almost nothing to Alaska's economy and often did a great deal of harm. When whales were scarce they hunted walrus, thus depriving the Eskimos of an important food supply. Whales were also a staple food of the Eskimos, and as whales grew scarce the Eskimos often had to rely upon caribou and seal, which were insufficient for their needs.

9. By 1915 the Arctic whaling industry was virtually at an end. This was partly because of the decline in the number of whales and partly because petroleum and steel had supplanted whale oil and whalebone.

C. Fishing and Salmon Canning

1. The Russians salted and dried salmon, but almost entirely for local use.

2. The first Alaska fishery engaged in by Americans, aside from the whale fishery, was the cod fishery. In the 1860's, while Alaska was still Russian territory, American cod fishermen fished off the coasts of Alaska and Siberia. This business was expanded after the purchase of Alaska by the United States; and several shore stations were built, mostly on islands of the Shumagin group.

3. After the purchase of Alaska, American fishermen began salting salmon at Sitka and other locations for shipment to San Francisco.

4. The commercial canning of salmon commenced on the Sacramento River in 1864 and moved to Alaska in 1878 when a cannery was built at Klawock and another near Sitka.

5. In 1882 two canneries were built in Central Alaska, and in 1884 the first cannery was built on Bristol Bay. The business increased rapidly until in 1898 there were 55 salmon canneries operating in Alaska.

6. Several schooners from New England came around Cape Horn in the late 1880's to try halibut fishing in the North Pacific. Some of these fished off the Alaska coast. Halibut was salted for shipment to market, but later glacier ice began to be used to pack around and preserve the fresh fish. The first shipment of fresh halibut went south from Juneau in 1897. The halibut business increased gradually until 1908, when the first cold storage plant was built in Alaska, at Ketchikan. Thereafter it grew rapidly and has formed an important part of the Alaska economy.

7. The commercial fishing of herring began at Killisnoo in Southeastern Alaska about 1882 and was an important industry for many years. Herring were salted for food, processed into oil for industry and into fertilizer. Shipments of fertilizer went from Killisnoo to Hawaii and to England. In later years many herring reduction plants were built along the coast from Southeastern Alaska to Kodiak Island; but they have now been closed, partly as a conservation measure and partly because other fertilizers have taken the place of herring meal. Today many herring caught in Alaska are sold for bait.

8. Trolling for king salmon and the processing of the catch as mild cured salmon began to be an important industry in Southeastern Alaska soon after the turn of the century. The coming of cold storage plants also increased the market for frozen salmon and for other species of fish.

9. Although most early salmon canneries were owned by small companies, the large corporate structure began to appear in the 1890's and over the years such giants as Alaska Packers Association, Pacific Packing & Navigation Company, Northwestern Fisheries, Booth Fisheries, Libby, McNeill & Libby, and Pacific American Fisheries dominated the field. Of these listed, however, three went bankrupt and another retired from the field entirely, showing that it has been a precarious business financially. The "big" companies have often been criticized because of their "absentee" ownership and the fact that they hired most employees outside Alaska; but Alaska capital has never been available to finance the industry.

10. The salmon canners, like other businesses, resisted laws that levied taxes upon them; but they were not nearly as successful as some other businesses, especially mining. Commencing in 1899 the salmon canners were taxed upon every case of salmon they produced, and this tax was greatly increased by the Territorial Legislature after Alaska became a territory. The miners, on the other hand, were not taxed on gross production until 1937, and even then the first $10,000 of production was exempt.

11. The largest pack of canned salmon was made in 1936 and amounted to 8,437,603 cases of 48 one-pound cans. The value was $44,741,633 and exceeded the value of all minerals produced in Alaska that year.

12. The volume of the annual pack has declined since 1936, quite drastically in some years; but because of increased prices the value has gone up and has often been in excess of $100 million a year.

13. The decline of the salmon pack is blamed on a variety of factors, including over-fishing and natural cycles. Better conservation practices now seem to be restoring the salmon runs.

14. Crabs, clams, and shrimps have for many years been a minor but locally important part of Alaska's total fishery production. Clam canning has centered around Cordova, while Wrangell and Petersburg for many years were centers of the shrimp and crab industries. Since World War II, however, the king crab industry has become a major factor in the Alaska economy and has centered at Kodiak and points west of there.

D. Mining During Russian Occupation

1. A graduate of the Imperial Mining School of St. Petersburg, Peter Doroshin, was sent to investigate mineral potentialities at the Russian American colony at Sitka, as early as 1849.

2. Doroshin travelled widely and spent some four years visiting many coastal areas where there was lignite coal.

3. He found enough outcropping of coal to recommend that a mine be opened on Cook Inlet at Port Graham, though he did not uncover any big high-grade deposits through his investigations.

4. According to Furuhjelm, the engineer in charge of the Port Graham coal mine, the machinery for it was purchased in San Francisco.

5. The mine never did come up to expectations and hopes people had when it opened.

   a. Russian creoles were inexperienced miners.
   b. The coal deposits were inaccessible and of poor quality.
   c. Costs of production proved to be extremely high.

6. In 1852 the British opened mining operations on Vancouver Island at Nanaimo. This ended Russian hopes of developing an export trade.

7. Doroshin had directed gold prospecting, as well.

8. He did not investigate the Juneau area since it was leased by the Hudson's Bay Company and, therefore, was not available to him.

9. Doroshin's prospectors found some gold along Russian River on the Kenai Peninsula.

10. No lode or placer deposits which could be mined economically were found anywhere.

11. After two unprofitable years, the Russian-American Company compelled Doroshin to give up his search.

12. Although small quantities of gold had been reported from the Kuskokwim and the Yukon River, as well as those made by Doroshin, the first real discovery was made in 1861 by Alexander "Buck" Choquette near Telegraph Creek on the Stikine River.

13. The Stikine discovery was deserted largely because the amount of gold recovered there was actually rather small.

E. Mining During the American Period

1. Gold was discovered near Sitka as early as 1872, and at Windham Bay, south of present Juneau, about 1876; but the deposits were small. The first stamp mill in Alaska, to recover gold from quartz deposits, was built at Sitka in 1879 but was not a success.

2. Gold was discovered in the Cassiar district of British Columbia, north of the Stikine River, in 1872 and resulted in a big rush to that area in 1874 and subsequent years. This was not in Alaska, but it helped to build the economy of Wrangell and it sent many prospectors into Alaska.

3. Gold was discovered on Gastineau Channel in 1880 by Richard Harris and Joseph Juneau. Both had worked in the Cassiar area and at Sitka, and they were furnished a prospecting outfit by a Sitka merchant, N. A. Fuller, and the engineer who had erected the Sitka stamp mill, George Pilz. This discovery, which included both placer and lode deposits, resulted in the building of Juneau, the first town to be established in American Alaska.

4. Soon after the discovery at Juneau another find was made across the channel at what is now Douglas. The result was the Treadwell Mine complex, one of the world's great gold mines, which operated until it caved in in 1917.

5. Prospectors entered the upper Yukon River country as early as 1873, while the first prospector to cross Chilkoot Pass to the Yukon did so in 1874. Only small finds were made at first, in Canadian territory; but in 1886 there was a discovery on the Fortymile River, in Alaska. Many prospectors and miners began to go to the Yukon.

6. In 1894 a discovery was made on Mastodon Creek, near the Yukon, and this resulted in the founding of Circle City and another small rush.

7. In 1895 gold in paying quantities was found in streams running into Turnagain Arm, Cook Inlet. This resulted in the founding of Hope and Sunrise and the production of a good deal of gold.

8. In August, 1896, George Carmack found gold in what became known as the Klondike. This was then part of Northwest Territories, Canada; but soon the area became Yukon Territory. It resulted in a great rush of people to the North, nearly all of whom came through Alaska, either by way of Dyea, Skagway, or Wrangell in Southeastern Alaska or St. Michael in Western Alaska. The White Pass and Yukon Railroad was built north from Skagway and dozens of steamboats began to ply the Yukon.

9. Although several earlier discoveries of gold had been reported on Seward Peninsula in Northwestern Alaska, the discovery by Jafet Lindeberg, Erik Lindbolm, and John Brynteson in September, 1898, touched off the Nome gold rush. The three discoverers were reindeer herders who had been brought over from Lapland by Sheldon Jackson.

10. No fewer than 15,000 people landed on the beach at Nome in 1899 and 1900. Much of the mining was carried on along the beaches, but most of the creeks in the area were also found to contain gold. A railroad was built from Nome to Anvil Creek to make claims there easily accessible. Later two more small railroads were built to reach mining areas on Seward Peninsula, and the railroad to Anvil Creek was greatly extended.

11. In June, 1900, the Alaska court system was expanded by creating two new districts. Nome was named the headquarters of one of the new districts, and Alfred H. Noyes was sent there as District Judge. He immediately began to enter into conspiracies with a number of other men to gain control of valuable mining properties. These actions formed the basis for the Rex Beach novel ***The Spoilers*** and resulted in the removal and fining of Judge Noyes, while one of his accomplices was sent to jail.

12. Prospectors had been searching for gold for a couple of years when, in the summer of 1901 E. T. Barnette landed on Chena Slough to establish a trading post. The following year Felix Pedro located a discovery claim on Cleary Creek on August 1 and another discovery claim on Pedro Creek on September 11, starting the rush to the Tanana. Before long a settlement had grown up around Barnette's trading post and was named Fairbanks in honor of Senator Fairbanks of Indiana, soon to become the vice-president.

13. Other discoveries were made in the Fairbanks area, and it soon became one of the best gold producers in Alaska. Most of the gold was at great depth, however, and its recovery required a good deal of capital. In later years huge dredges were put to use in both the Nome and Fairbanks gold fields.

14. In 1906 there was a gold discovery in the valley of the Innoko River, resulting in the founding of the settlements of Iditarod and Flat.

15. In 1907 gold was found near the Yukon and resulted in the founding of Ruby. This camp grew considerably after further discoveries in the district in 1911.

16. Other placer gold discoveries on the upper Koyukuk River, the Tolovana district of the Tanana River, and the Shushanna district of central Alaska all resulted in minor gold rushes known as "stampedes."

17. After the easy-to-reach placers were worked out, big dredges continued the recovery of placer gold; while lode operations thrived in several areas. One was the Willow Creek District, just north of the Matanuska Valley. Another was the Prince William Sound area, and a third was in Southeastern Alaska. At Juneau the Alaska-Juneau Gold Mine, employing hundreds of men, operated until 1944.

18. Although gold was the principal mineral product, in point of value, there were other mines in Alaska. On Prince of Wales Island, in Southeastern Alaska, two copper smelters were built to smelt local ores; and these operated from around 1906 to 1910.

19. Marble quarrying was another branch of mining in Southeastern Alaska. Marble for the state capitol at Olympia, Washington, and for many buildings in Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, Spokane, and other cities came from quarries in Alaska. The marble in the Alaska State Capitol is also a native product. West of Juneau there was a g um mine in operation for many years; while west of Ketchikan, at View Cove, a lime rock quarry provided a basic material for cement plants on Puget Sound.

20. In central Alaska, three large copper mines operated for many years. Two were on tidewater, at Latouche and Ellamar. The third was some distance inland and was reached by the Copper River and Northwestern Railroad, 196 miles in length. This was the Kennecott Mine, and the terminus of the railroad was Cordova. The railroad was completed in 1911 and operated until the mine closed in 1938.

21. Coal has been of importance in the Alaska mining industry for many years. In the 1890's and until about 1918, mines near Homer on Cook Inlet supplied coal for use in Alaska, as well as some for export. With the building of the Alaska Railroad, started in 1914, coal mines were opened in the Matanuska Valley and in later years in the Healy area south of Fairbanks. These supplied coal for the railroad, for power plants, and for domestic use. Coal is now being supplanted by oil and natural gas, and the coal mines are closing down.

22. Other minerals produced in Alaska have included platinum, at Goodnews Bay near the mouth of the Kuskokwim; tin north of Nome; mercury in the valley of the Kuskokwim; antimony near Mount McKinley; and chrome on Kenai Peninsula.

F. The Reindeer Industry

1. Dr. Sheldon Jackson learned of the starvation which the Eskimos were facing when he first travelled along the Arctic Coast in 1890. Most of the walrus had been slaughtered by commercial ivory hunters. Natives with their skin boats could no longer easily reach whales since the whalers were driving them out of reach. The rate at which seals were being taken for their skins would see them wiped out within a few years. The Eskimos were to be doomed by these large-scale operations which the U. S. Government was doing nothing to control.

2. Also during his Arctic trip of 1890, Dr. Jackson visited coastal villages of Siberia, just across the Bering Sea. Several American whaling ships were crushed in the ice off Siberia's Cape Navarin a number of years before. One American had been rescued and nursed back to health by native Koriaks.

3. Congress voted to reward the Koriaks. Captain Healy was to take them $1,000 in gifts (sugar, tea, tobacco, cotton material, and toys) aboard his Revenue Cutter *Bear.* It seemed to revenue cutter personnel that domestic reindeer would thrive in northwestern Alaska. Barren ground or wild reindeer there were proof that domestic reindeer would not be placed in an unfavorable environment if they were introduced there.

4. Dr. C. H. Townsend was the first person to suggest the introduction of domestic reindeer into Alaska. In 1885 he had accompanied the Corwin Arctic Expedition.

5. It was in 1890 that Captain Healy made the suggestion to Dr. Jackson that reindeer could possibly solve the problems of the Eskimos. Dr. Jackson returned to Washington, D. C. in the fall of 1890 and there recommended to Congress that it appropriate funds for transporting domestic reindeer from Siberia to Alaska. The Congressmen expressed no interest.

6. Dr. Jackson appealed publically for funds and collected about twenty-five hundred dollars by subscription. He got permission for Captain Healy to move the reindeer from Siberia, as well.

7. In the first experiment the reindeer were transported to Unalaska. It failed, probably because the climate was much warmer and rainier. In 1892 Dr. Jackson again appealed to Congress, without success.

8. During the summer of 1892, he made five trips to Siberia and brought back 175 reindeer. This was again with private funds. At Teller (on the Seward Peninsula), which was named after Colorado's Senator Henry M. Teller who had supported Dr. Jackson's project from the start, a reindeer station was established. This experiment was completely successful.

9. Congress made an appropriation of $6,000 in 1893 and did so again in 1894. Dr. Jackson transported another 167 reindeer that summer. The first herd at Teller began to increase rapidly. Reindeer were distributed to several of the missions in the north.

10. In 1898, when the people of Point Barrow were starving, a herd of reindeer was sent north for their rescue. The Congressmen grew increasingly receptive to the plan which would import more animals from Siberia. Congress made appropriations of more than $200,000 between 1894 and 1908 to import and care for the animals.

11. The original herd had grown to approximately 95,000 animals by 1917. Estimates place the size of the herd by 1930 at 600,000 animals. By 1932, herds were located in all of the coastal area from the Alaska Peninsula to Barrow. Within six years the reindeer population decreased to around 380,000. In the winter of 1938-39, there were severe storms and heavily crusted snow which further reduced the herd by a third. From then until 1950, the decrease continued at a rapid rate until the reindeer numbered only about 25,000. By 1959, the herd had again increased to approximately 40,000.

12. The original policy in connection with the reindeer industry was encouragement of natives privately owning herds. This did not work well because the herds would graze in the same range and get mixed together. This caused ownership disputes. A new policy in 1918 encouraged community or company ownership of the herds. Then, in the middle and late 1940's, another policy was established. This encouraged private ownership of herds with each herd restricted to a natural range area.

13. Congress passed the Reindeer Act in 1937. This stipulated that the reindeer industry was to be totally native owned; non-native interests were to be purchased by the Government. This was completely in effect by 1940.

14. The BIA now has jurisdiction over the industry. Some of the island herds which were not in use by natives were turned over to the Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife in 1957 to be managed as game animals. These reindeer numbered about 9,000 in 1959.

15. Storage and transportation of both hides and meat are problems in the reindeer industry. The fact that Eskimos are historically hunters and have had little experience with the practices of animal husbandry also presents problems.

G. Timber Industry

1. Prior to 1954, only a small volume of timber was cut.

2. High-grade spruce logs were specially cut for export during both World Wars, and lumbering was stepped up to meet defense construction needs. Outside of this, timber cutting was mostly to satisfy local requirements for mine timbers, building lumber, dock pilings and timbers, fish trap pilings, and packing cases.

3. The annual cut increased when the first big pulp mill opened in 1954.

4. From 1909, when the first records were kept, through 1953 inclusive, a 45-year period, the cumulative total cut was 1,844,512,000 board feet. From 1954 through 1958, a 4 1/2-year period, the cumulative total cut was 864,768,000 board feet. The quantity of timber cut during the first 4 1/2 years of a pulp mill's operation has been 46.9 per cent of the total cut for all of the previous 45 years' small sawmill operation.

5. Besides a good supply of timber, water transportation between forest and mill and between mill and market, as well as inexpensive power, is available.

6. It has been easy to find satisfactory mill sites.

7. The prospect of succeeding in the timber industry is less promising than often supposed because of several other economic factors.

   a. The consuming markets available are quite distant from Alaska.

   b. The pulp and newsprint needs of the region are already adequately supplied by mills along the Pacific Coast.

   c. Shipping costs are presently very high, and which way they will go in the future is unknown.

   d. Construction costs are also very high.

   e. Costs of equipment, materials, and labor are much higher than they were formerly. Though newsprint and pulp prices have also been high, there is a possibility that they may drop in the future.

   f. Costs of buildings, however, once incurred cannot be reduced.

8. The dedication of the Ketchikan Pulp Company on July 14, 1954, marked the breakthrough of the pulp industry. The mill was built by a company jointly owned by the Puget Sound Pulp and Timber Company of Bellingham, Washington and the American Viscose Company of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, at a cost of 52.5 million dollars. Its initial production capacity was 300 tons daily of high alpha pulp, which is used in rayon and cellulose acetate. Later this increased to 525 tons.

9. Other plants which use timber were begun during this period of pulp mill planning and construction.

   a. Juneau was the home of plywood operations begun by the Alaska Plywood Corporation in July 1953; but these closed down after several years of operation, and the plant has been completely removed.

   b. Metlakatla and Ketchikan were the homes of new sawmill operations. Operations at Wrangell were revived and expanded; production was for export to Japan.

   c. Not long after it was leased, the Metlakatla plant closed.

   d. The plant at Sitka has also closed and been completely removed.

10. A Japanese corporation, a subsidiary of the parent Alaska Pulp Company, was formed in 1953 in order that a pulp mill, and perhaps a sawmill, which would use Tongass National Forest timber could be constructed. On November 25, 1959, the first finished product came from the drying rolls of the Alaska Lumber and Pulp Company's mill at Sitka. This was the second pulp mill to open in Alaska.

11. A third Alaskan pulp mill is to be built near Juneau. Power will be supplied by the Snettisham Dam which is now under construction.

H. Petroleum Industry

1. Russian explorer-trappers at Iniskin Bay, which is on Cook Inlet across from Kenai, were the first to spot signs of oil in Alaska when they happened to find some gooey seeps. This was in 1853. The first known oil claims in Alaska were staked in this area in 1891, and oil well drilling was reported to have been in progress there in 1900.

2. Eskimos had reported that oil seeped through the tundra about 60 miles east of Point Barrow. Charles D. Brower, known as "King of the Arctic," investigated these reports about 1890.

3. Hordes of excited gold seekers roamed Alaska in and following the discovery of gold along the Klondike River in 1896. These people, too, reported oil seeps, from areas as scattered as Becharof Lake on the Alaska Peninsula and Katalla Slough near the Gulf of Alaska.

4. Drilling in the vicinity of Katalla commenced in 1902 and resulted in the discovery and production of oil there, in rather small quantities. The oil, however, was of sufficiently high grade to be used in steam boilers and some internal combustion engines. A small refinery was built there about 1915 and continued in operation until 1933, when it was destroyed by fire.

5. The Alaska Peninsula had a good deal of oil excitement in the 1920's and again in the 1930's, when several companies drilled wells near the town of Kanatak.

6. Modern oil history began in 1953 with the drilling of a well near Eureka on the Glenn Highway. This was followed by others around Cook Inlet, near Yakutat and at Yakataga, and finally, the thirteenth well drilled, Richfield's Swanson River No. 1. This well was started on April 5, 1957.

7. On Kenai Peninsula near the Swanson River, Richfield's drilling bit struck oil at the 11,230-foot level. This was on July 23, 1957. The initial short test showed that the well produced 900 barrels daily, and a longer subsequent test showed it produced 500 barrels daily.

8. Oil was pumped from a well at Prudhoe Bay on July 11, 1968. Another well near it on the Arctic slope is reported to have made the largest strike in the world.

I. Construction Industry

1. The defense establishment constructed during the actual hostilities of World War II was tailored to the requirements of a technology based upon relatively short-range aircraft and conventional chemical explosives.

2. Airfields, airstrips, and defense outposts had been scattered over the face of Alaska, but even before the end of the hostilities many were being decommissioned — Mt. Edgecumbe, for example.

3. The atomic and hydrogen bombs and evolution of the long-range bomber and jet fighter superimposed upon Alaska a new type of defense establishment concentrated within its 'heartland' bound by five big bases near Fairbanks, Big Delta, Anchorage and Kodiak.

4. Alaska's first post-World War II construction boom came in 1947 with the start of the construction of what was to be the world's biggest airfield, Eielson Air Force Base, near Fairbanks.

   a. Improved and extended facilities at Elmendorf and Ladd Air Force Bases.

   b. The rebuilding and elaboration of Army facilities at Fort Richardson near Anchorage and Big Delta on the Alaska Highway, later to be rechristened as Fort Greely.

   c. Navy facilities at Kodiak, the 17th Naval District Headquarters, and Adak in the Aleutian Islands.

5. DEW Line (Distant Early Warning Line) radar stations were constructed from Point Barrow to Canada's Baffin Islands. The White Alice System connects these to each other and to the major defense centers.

6. These systems and facilities as a whole probably make up the ultimate organization for detecting, intercepting, and retaliating enemy attack and utilize the most advanced manned-aircraft technology.

7. There is likely to be a large cutback of Alaska-stationed military personnel since anti-missiles and ICBM's based in the continental United States are replacing manned jet fighters and bombers for national defense.

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UNIT X. EARLY MISSIONS AND SCHOOLS

Unit X. Early Missions and Schools

A. Russian Orthodox Church

1. When the Russian-American Company made its decision to move to Kodiak, Gregory Shelikov requested Archimandrite Joassof, who was an elder of the Order of Augustinian Friars, to sail there. Russia's Empress Catherine I granted the request. Joassof arrived at Kodiak, with nine other members of the clergy, in 1794.

2. There is some confusion about the building of the first church. Bancroft says, "It was not until July 1796 that the first church was built in Kodiak, at Three Saints."* This seems to indicate that it was built at the original settlement at Three Saints Bay, which was not entirely abandoned when the headquarters was moved to Kodiak in 1792. Bancroft also says, however, "In 1795 or perhaps a year or two later, a chapel was built at St. Paul — the first in Russian America."** St. Paul was the Russian name for the present Kodiak.

3. The first ecclesiastic at Sitka was Aleksandr Sokolov. The first church at Sitka was St. Michael's Church. This was not the cathedral, which was built in the 1840's and dedicated November 20, 1848.

4. In 1840 a diocese was formed of the eight chapels and four churches which were in Russian America. Alaska's first bishop was Father Veniaminof; he later became "metropolitan," or head of the church, in Moscow.

5. There were 16 deacons and 11 Orthodox Priests in Alaska when it was sold to the United States in 1867.

6. Approximately 7,000 natives became Orthodox Church members between 1842 and 1861. In another two years, 1863, the Church in Alaska had about 8,000 members.

7. Church services were held in several languages, including Aleut, Russian, the Kodiak languages, and several dialects of Thlinget.

8. A boys' school was established at Kodiak by Father Nectar and an agricultural school, by Father German. A girls' school was founded in 1805 by N. Rezanof and was placed in charge of Mrs. Banner.

9. Baranof established a school in Sitka sometime prior to his leaving in 1819, but up to 1833 its teaching was inefficient. Five additional schools were founded there later.

   a. There was a special school for commercial and technical training.

   b. Mrs. Etolin's girls' school taught languages, needlework, household arts, history, and geography.

   c. Between 1841 and 1858, there was a theological school at Sitka.

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* Bancroft, Hubert H. , History of Alaska 1730-1885, New York, Antequarian Press Ltd. 1959. Page 362

** Ibid, page 699

10. Russian missions and schools continued to be supported by the Synod of Russia until 1917, when the Russian Revolution broke out.

B. The Presbyterian Church

1. According to Dr. Sheldon Jackson's official report to the Secretary of the Interior, Mrs. Amanda McFarland accompanied him to Wrangell in 1877 and took over a school which had already been opened by Clah, a Tsimpsean Indian, who had opened it in 1876. Mrs. McFarland established the mission and took over the operation of the school, with Clah as her assistant. This school and mission were moved to Sitka in 1884. Although Dr. S. Hall Young is not mentioned by the Jackson report in connection with the school, he did open a church at Wrangell when he went there in 1878. The building was completed in 1879.

2. The Reverend John Brady and Miss Fanny Kellogg arrived at Sitka in March, 1878, and in April opened a school in the old Russian barracks, which had been vacant since the American Army left Sitka the previous year. This was the start of what became the Sheldon Jackson School and Sheldon Jackson Junior College.

3. New Yorker Alonso E. Austin took over the school at Sitka in the fall of 1879. It was moved to the old hospital building in 1880. The native boys were permitted to live in the empty rooms, marking the first boarding at what is today Sheldon Jackson School.

4. Boarding schools were founded at Haines and Juneau. The school at Fort Tongass was not a boarding school. There was also a school at Hoonah, which seems to have been continued for only a short time. Howkan also had a school.

C. The Roman Catholic Church

1. Father Emile Petitot took the old Hudson's Bay Company route from the Porcupine River to the upper Yukon River and arrived there in 1870. Canada's Anglican Church had already established missions in the upper basin of the Yukon River, and he did not try to compete with them.

2. Reverend Charles J. Sehgers, who was Bishop of Vancouver Island, B. C., travelled north in Alaska as far as Kodiak in 1878. He did not disturb the missions already there. He did found a chapel at Wrangell, however. Bishop Sehgers was travelling on the Yukon, in search of a site for a mission, with one companion, a lay worker of the Church, named Francis Fuller. Bishop Sehgers was murdered by Fuller at Nulato in 1886.

3. By 1889 there were Roman Catholic missions and schools at Nulato and Holy Cross on the Yukon River and a school at Juneau.

D. Moravians

1. The Moravian Church in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania was given an invitation to do missionary work in the Kuskokwim Valley, by Dr. Sheldon Jackson, in 1883.

2. Hans Forgersen, John Henry Kilbuck, and William Wienland established a Moravian mission on the lower Kuskokwim at Bethel in 1885. Dr. J. H. Romig, a medical doctor, joined this mission's staff in 1896.

3. Carmel, which was located on the Nushagak River, was the site of the second Moravian mission in 1887.

4. Ugovik and Quinhagak were the sites of additional missions; these were near Bethel and were founded by 1897.

E. Episcopalians

1. Canada's Anglican Church missionaries moved to the Fort Yukon area shortly after Fort Yukon was established in 1847.

2. Archdeacon Robert McDonald reached the Fort in 1862. He studied the Athapascan Indians' Tinnah dialect and adapted church services and scriptures to their language.

3. In 1869 the post was taken over by the United States. Bishop Bompas was doing missionary work there then.

4. St. James Mission was founded ten miles below the Yukon-Tanana River junction in 1880 by Bishop Bompas. Reverend T. Carnahan was in charge of it.

5. Nukluklayet was the site of the Indian day school which the Anglicans opened in 1883.

6. The Canadian Anglican Church missions were taken over by the American Episcopal Church about 1887.

7. In 1887 the Reverends Roy O. Parker and John W. Chapman established Christ Church Mission at Anvik.

8. St. Thomas Mission was established at Point Hope in 1890 by Reverend John B. Driggs.

9. Another mission was established by Reverend J. L. Prevost at a site near the Yukon-Tanana River junction.

10. Bishop Peter T. Rowe travelled widely in Alaska in 1895 and after. He recognized Alaska's need for recreational facilities, such as club houses and libraries, and for hospitals. He was a key figure in the establishment of hospitals at Fort Yukon, Wrangell, Fairbanks, Anvik, and Nenana.

F. The Methodist Church

1. Bishop Gilbert Haven died before he could put into effect his plan of 1879 to establish a Methodist Episcopal Church mission in Alaska.

2. By 1886 Reverend and Mrs. J. H. Carr were to open a mission and school at Unga. In 1887 she died, and he later moved out of the community.

3. In 1889 Mr. and Mrs. John A. Tuck were sent to Unalaska to establish the Jesse Lee Home, a child-care institution. The Church's Women's Home Missionary Society raised the funds for the project, which was to serve the whole area. In later years this home was moved to Seward and then to Anchorage.

4. In 1897 Bishop McCabe appointed Reverend C. J. Larsen to build the first Methodist Church building in Alaska at Dyea, which was a flourishing town at that time.

5. Dyea became a deserted village when the White Pass and Yukon Railroad began operation; its terminus was at Skagway.

6. Reverend Larsen was replaced by Reverend J. J. Walter. The Reverend Walter established McCabe College at Skagway. It opened its doors on September 19, 1899, with Dr. Lamont Gordon as President and an enrollment of 18.

7. A stone building was erected, but financial difficulties forced the college to close; it was sold to the Federal Government for a court house. It is today the Skagway Museum.

8. A 1947 directory shows Methodist churches at Anchorage, Douglas, Homer, Hope, Juneau, Ketchikan, Metlakatla, Moose Pass, Nome, Seldovia, Seward, Unalaska, and Unga. And in 1960 Alaska Methodist University opened in Anchorage.

G. The Friends (Quaker) Church

1. Dr. Sheldon Jackson was responsible for the establishment of yet another early Arctic Coast mission.

2. Anna Hunnicutt was a missionary sent in 1895 to Douglas and Kake in Southeastern Alaska to teach. In 1896 the Friends Mission at Douglas was in charge of Mr. and Mrs. C. N. Reploge and the Friends Mission at Kake was in charge of Mr. and Mrs. S. R. Moon.

3. Miss Hunnicutt expressed to Dr. Jackson her desire to find a place where California Friends could do mission work. Later in the summer he took a trip along the Arctic Coast. He recommended her to Kotzebue Sound Eskimos who asked to have missionary teachers live among them.

4. Anna Hunnicutt reached Kotzebue the next summer, accompanied by Robert and Carrie Samms.

5. The Samms built a cabin that winter and began mission work up the Kobuk River about 170 miles. They remained there about 50 years.

6. The Kotzebue Friends School was officially accepted by the United States Government in 1901. It was provided classroom supplies, some teacher compensation, and fuel.

7. The Friends field superintendent received an appointment to the position of U. S. Commissioner and Postmaster in 1904.

8. Building materials for a hospital were shipped to Kotzebue in 1909. If a physician for Kotzebue could be found, the government would pay his salary. The Eskimos had raised three hundred dollars toward this end. A Friend, Dr. Benjamin Newsome from California, became the doctor.

9. The first high school above the Arctic Circle was established by the Friends at Kotzebue. Later it was taken over by the U. S. Government. The Friends then joined Unalakleet's Evangelical Covenant Mission in supporting a Christian High School there.

H. Lutherans

1. The Russian-American Company invited Mr. Winter, a Lutheran missionary, to come to Sitka to serve its 120 Finnish employees. He arrived about 1842, and the Company paid his salary.

2. A plot of land was given to the Lutheran Church and became private property. Like other private property in Sitka, a deed to the land was given by the Russian governor, Prince Maksoutoff, in 1867; a church was erected and the congregation of the church elected trustees. The building was torn down in 1889 because it had become dangerous, and another was not built on the site until the 1940's.

3. In the 1890's the Swedish Evangelical Mission Covenant of America entered the Alaska field and established missions at Golovin Bay and Unalakleet in western Alaska, with outstations at Kangusuk and Kotzebue Sound, and at Yakutat in Southeastern Alaska.

4. The Lutherans also established a mission at Teller in about 1898.

I. Baptists

During the spring and summer of 1893 the Woman's American Baptist Home Missionary Society erected a large two-story building at Wood Island as an orphanage and school. Mr. and Mrs. W. E. Roscoe were placed in charge, with Miss C. C. Currant as assistant. The institution operated for many years.

J. Congregational

In 1890 the American Missionary Association (Congregational) established a school and a station at Cape Prince of Wales, the most westerly point on the North American continent, and placed Mr. and Mrs. W. T. Lopp in charge. This school and mission operated for many years.

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UNIT XI. NEGLECT OF EDUCATION IN ALASKA

Unit XI. Neglect of Education in Alaska

A. Education During the Russian Period

1. For nearly sixty years after Vitus Bering discovered Alaska in 1741, education was not part of its cultural environment.

2. Early Russian explorers were concentrating on expanding the wealth-producing fur trade. They were interested not in colonizing the new territory but in exploiting its natural resources.

3. Alaska's first school was established in 1785 at Three Saints Bay by Gregory Shelikof, founder of the Russian-American Company.

4. There were three basic categories of schools and teachers during the Russian period.

   a. There were public schools which the Russian-American Company controlled. These were staffed with Company employees.

   b. There were religious schools which were directed by the Russian-Greek Orthodox Church. The teachers were missionaries.

   c. There were Government Schools, as well. They were staffed with regular professionally trained personnel later in the Russian period.

5. Each of the three types of schools had an educational program designed for a different purpose.

   a. The Company's public schools were primarily to train personnel.

   b. The religious mission schools' purpose was to Christianize the natives.

   c. The Government schools' concern was the education of company officials' sons.

6. The school curriculum consisted of religion and reading. The reading was taught primarily so scriptures could be read.

7. Only mission schools were ever founded among the Eskimos. Eskimo Alaska did not begin to experience education until 1843, the year a mission school was established at Nushagak. In 1860 one was also founded at Kwikpak. No real attempt was made to educate Alaska's natives by either the Russian-American Company or by the Russian Church.

8. After the transfer Russian Company officials and Russian officers left, so only Russian priests remained to continue the educational and religious teaching.

9. In the annexation treaty the Church was permitted to keep its property and to continue it activities.

B. Education Neglected During the American Period

1. Russian withdrawal created a void in education which the United States Government and churches were slow to fill. The years from 1867 to 1877 are known as the "Period of Neglect."

2. The residents of Sitka in 1867 formed a municipal government and established a school. This was supported by popular subscription and perhaps by some Army funds and seems to have been open to all white children. It was the first English-language school in Alaska.

3. Mission churches of several denominations gradually responded to the lack of educational facilities.

4. Congress appropriated 50 thousand dollars for education in Alaska. Vincent Colyear had travelled in Alaska in 1869 and secured this appropriation. Because no agency was found to administer the funds, they were never used.

5. More mission schools were built after 1884 than before, and many mission schools continued to operate for many years; a few are still in operation.

6. The Organic Act of July 4, 1884, appropriated an additional 15 thousand dollars to support and educate Indian children of both sexes at Alaska industrial schools. The Bureau of Education, then a branch of the Department of the Interior, recommended distribution of the money among the existing mission schools and the appointment of a general educational agent for Alaska. Dr. Sheldon Jackson received this appointment; he had become prominent through his work in connection with the Presbyterian missions in Alaska.

7. It was a problem to provide schools for a school population of about 6,000 children who were scattered over an area of more than 500 thousand square miles. Dr. Jackson's policy was to supervise and subsidize the mission schools.

8. Not all of the funds went to mission schools, however. Public schools were established at Sitka and Juneau at least as early as 1885, and others followed as they were required or as funds were available. By 1891-92 there were two public schools (one each for natives and whites) in each Sitka, Juneau, and Douglas, and one public school at each Killisnoo, Wrangell, Jackson, Haines, Klawock, Kake, Kodiak, Unga, Karluk, and Afognak.

9. It was essential that the government and the missions cooperate. Mission teachers continued to be needed and were used with Dr. Jackson's stipulation that instruction was to be nonsectarian in the public schools and people were to have full freedom to express their religious liberty. The territory was divided into unofficial missionary districts.

10. In 1887 the Quakers (Society of Friends) founded a school at Kotzebue. By 1902 they were working in Shungnak, Kivalina, and Deering, as well. They also established schools at Douglas and Kake, and these seem not to have been subsidized by the government.

11. Mission schools were no longer subsidized after 1894. The Bureau of Education took over most of the schools, although a few were still denominationally supported and continued their operations.

12. A "Territorial Board of Education" of three members appointed by the Secretary of the Interior was created at least as early as 1890, and under this Board were local School Committees in places where there were public schools. The three members of each School Committee were appointed by the Board of Education.

13. Nome had a local board operating by 1902. That was also the year during which the first racial conflict emerged.

14. Incorporated city schools tended to be all-white schools which in certain cases did not provide education for native children.

15. In 1905 the Nelson Act passed. This act concerns the establishment of schools for outside of municipalities. The Governor was to supervise and direct these public schools as "ex officio superintendent of public instruction." Locally elected school boards were to directly manage the schools. Any community which had a population of twenty white children between six and twenty years old within an area of 40 square miles could petition to have a school district established.

16. The Nelson Act also created the "Alaska Fund" which was the income from the sale of trade or occupation licenses and liquor licenses. One quarter of this money was to be used to fund the public schools in the district.

17. The Secretary of the Interior has continued to direct the education of Alaska's natives since 1905, so Alaska has really had two distinct school systems. There had been two types of school systems prior to 1905, too, in Sitka, Juneau, and Douglas.

C. Higher Education

1. The University of Alaska in College was originally a Territorial College and School of Mines. The college opened on September 18, 1922. On July 1, 1935, the college became the University of Alaska through an act by the Territorial Legislature. It is Alaska's largest institution of higher education and is fully accredited.

2. Alaska Methodist University in Anchorage is Alaska's second largest institution of higher education. The first classes were held on October 3, 1960. The University is accredited and its enrollment has increased each year.

3. Sheldon Jackson Junior College in Sitka is a fully accredited two-year residential college. Originally it was a Presbyterian mission. Then it became a boarding school, later becoming a boarding high school, and, finally, a junior college.

4. Community Colleges, which are branches of the University of Alaska have been established at Anchorage, Ketchikan, Juneau, Sitka, Palmer, Kenai and Kodiak.

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UNIT XII. DUAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN ALASKA

Unit XII. Dual System of Education in Alaska

A. The Government Finally Gives Assistance

1. Alaska has had a dual system of education since 1905. This has been based on the belief that white and native populations need different kinds of education.

2. Many communities, such as Eagle, Fort Yukon, Juneau, Ketchikan, Nome, Sitka, and others, had mixed populations, resulting in the presence of both Federally and Territorially operated schools.

3. In some places only one of the two types of schools was operating. In such cases students who would otherwise have attended the other school were admitted.

4. Although the above was true, the idea of unifying the two types of schools was not considered for 24 years after the dual system was established. There were three major objections which the Territory had to combining the two systems:

   a. There would be friction between the two races.

   b. The natives tended to be irregular in their school attendance.

   c. The natives would be unable to conform to white standards of health and sanitation.

5. Early in 1930's Territorial officials began to recognize the need to unify the two systems. The pleas for more Federal funds for native education tempered the idea of unification.

6. The policy of the Bureau of Indian Affairs since World War II has been to gradually eliminate its educational functions. Several factors have been significant in the policy change.

   a. The Department of the Interior announced that it desired to decentralize Indian Administration. It wished to distribute Bureau of Indian Affairs functions among other Federal and state agencies, many of which were not previously concerned with Bureau of Indian Affairs activities. In 1953 this policy received official recognition. The House Concurrent Resolution 108, which formally established the policy of gradually eliminating the Federal trusteeship of the Bureau of Indian Affairs special services to Indians, passed in the Eighty-third Congress. The principles behind it are that native children should be afforded the same opportunities for public school education as other children and that they will better adjust to living among all people if they are allowed to associate with other children attending public schools.

   b. The increase in the number of natives living in larger population centers, particularly since World War II, has also influenced the decision.

   c. Natives have been increasingly accepted by the white population as full citizens and have benefited accordingly. The passage of the Territorial Antidiscrimination Law of 1945 demonstrates this.

d. The Territory has been increasingly more willing to take over functions of the Federal Government which have been traditionally state government functions.

7. In the late 1940's Congress decreased its Bureau of Indian Affairs appropriations, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs put into effect its new policy by discontinuing maintenance of Federal schools in places where there were already Territorial schools, as in Bethel, Haines, Juneau, Sitka, and Ketchikan. It also closed several schools in native communities because they had insufficient enrollment.

8. Although Territorial officials favored unification of the two school systems, they were dismayed at the short notice which the Federal Government gave them about its move.

9. This situation resulted in Territorial and Federal officials planning for the unification of the two systems.

10. Commissioner of Education Ryan had proposed a plan to amalgamate the two systems as early as 1945. Among the nine basic principles in the proposal were that schools should be operated democratically, that operations should be economically efficient, that the Territory is legally responsible for educating all of its citizens, and that racial segregation was to be eliminated. The plan provided for the transfer of all Federal schools, except for the boarding schools, to the Territory. There would still be Federal financial help, but it would decrease over a 25-year period and cease after this. Neither the Territorial Legislature nor the Department of the Interior supported this plan, however.

B. Johnson-O'Malley Act

1. Representatives of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the Territorial Department of Education negotiated and reached an agreement in 1950. It was decided that the Johnson O'Malley Act of 1934 would be followed in the orderly transfer to the Territory of Federal schools.

2. The Bureau of Indian Affairs would fund the operations of these schools through the authorized transfer of Federally appropriated funds to state and local agencies for services they render. The Federal Government would retain title to the physical property involved.

3. On July 1, 1951, five schools were to be transferred to Territorial control. This plan was to be continued each year until 1960 when the transferring of all schools was expected to have been completed. The transferring went as planned, and a total of 22 schools had been transferred to Territorial jurisdiction by 1953-54.

4. The Bureau of Indian Affairs plan was presented to the Territorial Board of Education in 1954. By this plan Federal schools would have been permanently transferred to the Territory. There would be continued temporary Federal assistance through the plan in the Johnson-O'Malley Act. Educational activities would become the responsibility of the Territory and of the local districts as rapidly as they were able to assume them. The Territory or local districts would also receive title to all of the BIA's educational facilities.

5. The Territorial Board of Education did not accept this plan. The major reason for this was the plan's provision to cut off financial support to the schools and because the Board felt that the Territory was not prepared to assume the additional financial burden it would carry and that it should not be expected to assume it.

6. Both of the school systems, which were established in 1905, continue to operate today — 1969. The major problem to be solved in amalgamating the two systems is the Territory's, now the State's, inability to finance a public school system to serve all of its citizens.

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UNIT XIII. STATE GOVERNMENT

Unit XIII. State Government

A. The State Constitution

1. The Constitutional Convention met at the University of Alaska in 1955 and 1956. The Convention comprised a president, a secretary, and 53 delegates.

2. The Constitutional Convention tried to create a basis of government which would allow flexibility with the changing times and at the same time guarantee fundamental rights and freedoms.

3. Some of the main aspects of the Constitution are pointed out here, but these cannot be satisfactorily substituted for a reading of the actual document. Alaska includes in its constitution provisions for all of the following which all other states make in their constitutions either in more general language or in more detail:

   a. The rights of free speech, press, assembly and religion.

   b. Protection from unwarranted searches and seizures and guaranteed due process and equiprotection of law in civil and criminal proceedings.

   c. Qualifications to vote and the methods which will be used in handling elections.

   d. The distribution of governmental powers among legislative, executive, and judicial branches.

   e. The methods of amendment.

4. Other Provisions Made in the Constitution For:

   a. Health, Education, and Welfare
   b. Natural Resources
   c. Finance and Taxation
   d. Local Government
   e. Initiative, Referendum, and Recall
   f. Voting. A qualified voter may vote in any election and party nomination. Voting qualifications are:

      1) An elector must be a United States citizen.

      2) He must be at least 19 years old.

      3) He must have been a State resident for at least a year and a resident of the election district in which he wishes to vote for at least 30 days immediately prior to the election.

      4) He must be able to read or speak the English language unless he is physically unable to do so, or have legally voted in the November 4, 1924, general election.

5) [The Legislature has also enacted a law in regard to Presidential elections. This allows any United States citizen who is at least 19 years old and who has not lived in Alaska for one year to request a Presidential ballot from the Secretary of State of Alaska. The applicant is then to return his ballot to the Secretary of State along with a certificate signed by two witnesses.]

g. General Provisions include:

1) State Boundaries
2) Intergovernmental Relations
3) Oath of Office
4) Merit and
Retirement Systems for State employees
5) Residual and Law-making Powers
6) Interpretation of the Constitution
7) Disclaimer and Agreement
regarding property belonging to the U. S. Government and the native population.

h. The final article of the Constitution schedules transitional measures designed to make the transition to statehood an orderly one.

B. Adoption — The Territory's voters adopted the Alaska Constitution in 1956.

C. The Legislative Branch

1. Making the State's laws is the duty of the Legislative Branch.

2. There are 40 members of the House of Representatives and 20 members of the Senate.

3. Prior to a recent ruling of the U. S. Supreme Court, Senate apportionment was based on area, and House apportionment was based on population. Now both apportionments are based on population. According to the State Constitution, reapportionment was to take place after each decennial United States census.

4. Senators are elected to four-year terms; each two years, half of them are elected. Representatives are elected to two-year terms.

5. To be a legislator, a person must be a qualified elector, at least a three-year resident of Alaska, and at least a one-year resident of his election district immediately prior to his filing for office. Senators must be at least 25 years old; and representatives, at least 21 years old when they take their oaths of office.

6. Each member's qualification and election is subject to rejection by the members of his own house; he is subject to expulsion if two-thirds of them agree that he should be expelled.

D. The Executive Branch

1. The duty of the Executive Branch is to enforce the State's laws.

2. Alaska's Governor has, through the Constitution, been given a great deal of power and responsibility — perhaps more than any other state governor.

3. The Governor and the Secretary of State are the only elected officials in the Executive Branch.

4. The Governor appoints the head of each of the State's departments. His appointments are subject to the approval of the Legislature; thus the Governor has the final responsibility for the functioning of all the administrative departments.

5. If the Governor is temporarily or permanently absent from his official duties, the Secretary of State serves in his place.

E. The Judicial Branch

1. Interpreting the State's laws is the duty of the Judicial Branch.

2. Here, also, the Governor makes appointments — those of the judges and justices of the District, Superior, and Supreme Courts. The Judicial Council makes nominations for these offices, and the Governor makes the final appointments. These appointed judges and justices are subject to rejection by the voters after certain terms in office.

F. Statehood

1. In July, 1958, President Eisenhower signed the statehood bill.

2. On January 3, 1959, he signed the statehood proclamation, making Alaska the forty-ninth state. It was then that the Constitution became the basis of our State Government.

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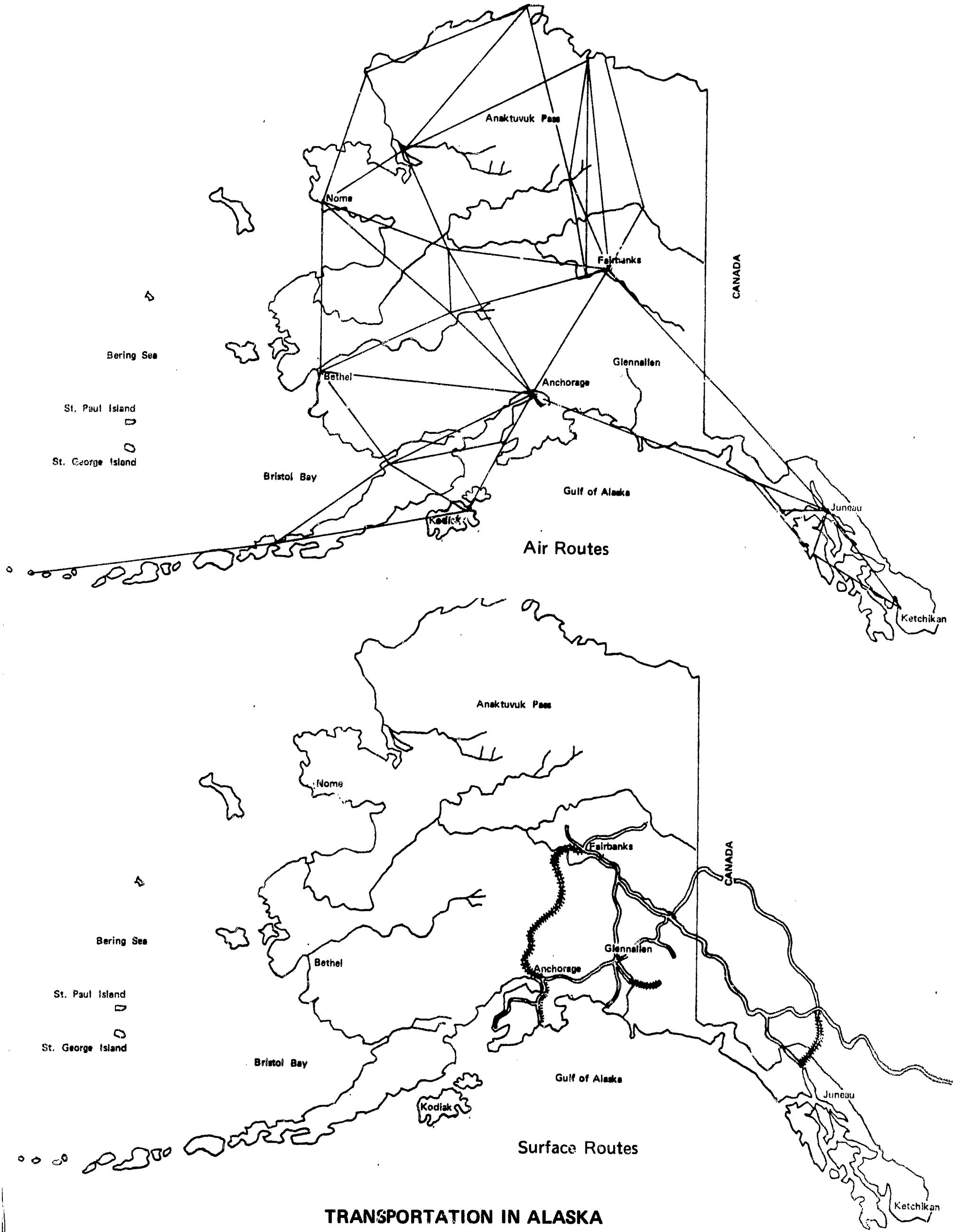
UNIT XIV. THE STATE OF ALASKA AND ITS PROBLEMS



TRANSPORTATION IN ALASKA

Unit XIV. The State of Alaska and Its Problems

A. Transportation

1. Southeastern Alaska's most important cities are Juneau, Ketchikan, Petersburg, Sitka, and Wrangell; and all of them may be reached only by ship or airplane. Most of the people in the Interior live at Fairbanks and Nenana, which depend upon sea plus road and rail transportation, as well as air travel.

2. Distances are great, land forms are rugged, and population centers are few, so overland routes — both truck and rail — are long and costly to build. Sea routes are frequently difficult to travel since there are storms, fog, strong ocean currents, and narrow waterways. Thus, airplanes are Alaska's most important means of travel; they fly over the vast empty spaces easily and quickly. Anchorage and Fairbanks have large, all-weather airfields which make major domestic and foreign airlines' passenger and cargo flights possible on a regular basis.

3. The Alaska Highway is the only land route between the contiguous United States and Alaska. The distance from Seattle to Fairbanks is 2,367 miles, with the greater part of it in Canada. Transportation costs are dependent upon distance. Freighting by truck over the more than 2,300 miles of Alaska Highway is very costly. Rebuilding and paving the Canadian portion of the Alaska Highway would decrease the cost of trucking over it and make it more attractive to tourists, as well.

4. Proper transportation is needed to aid in development of rural areas. Existing roads could be extended to the Barrow, Kotzebue, Nome, Unalakleet, Bethel, and Bristol Bay areas to open them up so their natural resources may be used.

5. Alaska's 570 miles of railroad track is of local importance only. It's longest railroad runs from Seward, a coastal port, to Anchorage and Fairbanks. There is no railroad connection to the "South 48" or to any of North America's large population centers. Extensions of the existing railroads could be made to the Bethel and Bristol Bay areas to the southwest, to Nome to the west, and to the Barrow area to the north. The North Commission is now studying this matter but has announced no decisions as to what should be done.

6. Marine transportation is generally less costly than truck, rail, or air transportation. Ships usually carry more freight than other carriers and do not require the construction of roads or railroads. Alaska receives most of its foodstuffs and other necessities by marine transportation. Although marine transportation is generally less costly than overland or air transportation, ships often must return with only partial loads because Alaska does not produce enough to fill them; thus marine transportation to Alaska is costly compared to marine transportation elsewhere. Alaska's State Ferry System provides efficient means of marine travel for both passengers and autos, as well as transportation for some freight. The Federal Jones Act does not permit the British Columbia ferries to carry freight to Alaska. Amendment of the Jones Act so the B. C. ferries could carry Alaska cargo would not only increase the frequency with which cargo could be delivered to Alaska, but it would also decrease the cost of shipping to some areas of Alaska. Extension of marine cargo and passenger services to Bristol Bay, to the coast of the Bering Sea, and to Kotzebue Sound, as well as north to Barrow when seasonally possible, is desirable. To do this, more suitable ships are needed.

B. Education

1. Elimination of Alaska's dual system of education is desirable. Placing the BIA schools and those of the State Department of Education all under the jurisdiction of the State Department of Education would eliminate parallel overhead costs, as well as improve and upgrade further the scholastic standards of Alaska's native schools.

2. The BIA could contribute its share of funds for native education either through the State Commissioner of Education or through the U. S. Office of Education.

C. Fisheries, Labor, and Manpower

Alaska's fisheries and other industries employ many seasonal laborers from outside the State. It seems that Alaskan laborers should be employed in industries, as well as for State and Federal projects in Alaska, before out-of-state laborers are imported.

D. Land Resources

1. Native land claims now involve 70 per cent of the total land area of Alaska. They have virtually halted the State's land selection program, thus stalemating Alaska's progress. The case is presently under adjudication.

2. Alaska's sea boundary has been defined. For fishing purposes it is 12 miles offshore. This boundary is intended to prevent foreign encroachment upon Alaska's fisheries resources within its boundary and to encourage conservation of all sea resources.

E. Tourism

1. Further development of tourism is to be encouraged.

2. Wherever feasible, highways and roads should be paved.

3. More parking areas and trailer courts could be provided along all of Alaska's highways. There is also need for more motels and hotels which are reasonably priced.

4. A decrease in the cost of travel to Alaska would make it more attractive to tourists.

5. Tourist aid offices could be established in each state, as well as in Canada and in other foreign countries.

6. More emphasis could be placed on the sale of native arts and crafts, as well as on locally manufactured products.

F. Governmental Coordination

1. Federal-State coordination is desirable, and participation in grant programs is to be encouraged.

2. To prevent duplicating each other's services, Federal and State agencies need adequate communications.

3. Better coordination of purposes and processes of State government is achieved through placing the Governor in charge and having him delegate tasks to other agencies under his supervision.

G. Other Problems

Such problems as costs, including cost of living, problems created by small population and great distances, and several other problems have not been discussed here, but certainly are important problems. There are also many problems attributable to the arctic and sub-artic climate, such as ice fog and permafrost.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

There are many Audio-visual aids for teaching about Alaska, almost every company making teaching materials has a few such aids on one educational level or another.

It is impossible to provide an exhaustive list of aids and sources for them, but a few suggestions follow.

The following list of films, filmstrips, film loops, records and instructional materials may be obtained from PERCY, the Division of State-Operated Schools Instructional Materials Center. Teachers in BIA and state-operated rural schools may order materials from PERCY by writing to the Division office, 650 International Airport Road, Anchorage, Alaska 99502. Also, be sure to check "Percy's News" for a listing of newly-acquired films and materials.

All teachers in Alaska may rent or buy films and other aids from Pictures, Inc. 811 — 8th Avenue, Anchorage, Alaska 99501.

Free or inexpensive films may be secured from various commercial agencies.

A few aids, classified according to type are listed here. These are not to be considered all available or even the best, but the list should suggest the types of audio-visual aids now available.

16 m.m. Films

Alaska
(Animated maps with 3 main climates and seven great industries) 1947. 10 minutes, black and white, Encyclopedia Britannica Films

Alaska
(scenery, natural resources and some history) 1945, 12 minutes, black and white, Nu-Art Films, Inc.

Alaska
(historical background and current status, including significance as an arctic outpost) 1954, 21 minutes, black and white, U.S. Department of Defense

Alaska - - a Modern Frontier
(Fairbanks, Eskimos, Matanuska Valley, Gold Miners and Salmon Fishermen) 1959, 11 minutes, color and black and white, Coronet Films

Alaska - - America's Last Frontier
(scenery, gold mining, fishing and pioneering) 1962, 28 minute color, Standard Oil Company

Alaska - - America's Northern Frontier
(physical geography, economy and culture) 1965, 18 minute, color, McGraw-Hill Textfilm

Alaska - - Cruise Style
(trip through inside passage) 1963, 15 minute, color, Canadian National Railway

Alaska - - Newest of the United States of America
(Physical characteristics, resources, transportation, etc.), 18 minutes, black and white, U.S. Office of Education

Alaska - - The 49th State, 2nd Ed.
(obstacles to be overcome before Alaska reaches potential) 1960, 16 minute, color, Encyclopedia Britannica Films

Alaska - - Trail to the Midnight Sun
(cruise from Vancouver to Skagway) 1952, 30 minutes, color, Canadian National Railway

Alaska - - U.S.A.
(a study of size, location, flora, fauna resources, etc) 1960, 22 minute color and black and white, Bailey Films, Inc.

Alaska and its Natural Resources
Development from early pioneers to the present) 26 minutes, color, Du-Art Films Lab., Inc.

The Alaska Highway
(History, etc. with pictures in all four seasons) 22 minute, color

Alaska's Modern Agriculture
(conservation, recreation, transportation, education opportunities, etc.) color , Bailey Films, Inc.

Alaskan Eskimo
(Eskimo family life in a typical village) 1957, 30 minutes, color, Walt Disney, purchase - $300.00, rental - $10.00

The Alaska Sanitation Aide
(Sanitation program in Kotzebue and Kobuk areas) 1961, 26 minutes color, Alaska Department of Health and Welfare

Alaska Sled Dog
(Summer and winter life) 1967, 18 minute, color, Walt Disney, purchase $2 00

The Alaskans
(Cities, industries, people) 1960, 12 minute, color, Classroom Film Distributors

Men Against the Arctic
(U.S. Coast Guard) 30 minutes, Walt Disney, purchase - $300.00, rental - $10.00

Seal Island
(The Pribilofs), 27 minutes, Walt Disney, purchase - $300.00, rental - $10.00

White Wilderness Series
Part I The Artic Region and its Polar Bears 28 minutes, Walt Disney - purchase $275.00
Part II The Lemmings and Arctic Bird Life 21 minutes, Walt Disney - purchase $225.00
Part III Large Animals of the Arctic, 22 minutes, Walt Disney - purchase $230.00
or all 3 parts in one - 73 minutes - purchase $670.00, - rental,$24.50

35 m.m. Film Strips

Alaska
(From Peter the Great to Statehood) 90 frames, black and white, Life

Alaska - - Frontier State Series,
1962 - Encyclopedia Britannica

Commerce and Industry	46 frames
Discovery and Development	44 frames
Land and its Resources	46 frames
The People and their Way of Life	46 frames

Alaska - - a series, 1960
Eye Gate House, Inc.

People and Industries	36 frames
Other Industries, Transportation	47 frames
Geographic Background	43 frames

Alaska - - our 49th state
1958, 40 frames, color, Popular Science

Alaska - the land and its people
1953, S.V.E., 49 frames, color

Alaska after Statehood - a series, 1961 - Bailey Films, Inc.

The Wilderness Frontier	45 frames
The 49th State	44 frames
Farming in Alaska	45 frames
Industries of Alaska	45 frames
Living in Alaska	44 frames
Transportation	45 frames

Alaska - a series, 1961 - John W. Gunther

Eskimo Village Children	47 frames
Eskimo Village Life	48 frames
Geography of Alaska	48 frames
Memories of the Past	38 frames
Southeastern Towns	43 frames

Alaska, Our Northernmost State
60 frames, color, S.V.E.

Sea-going Hunters
(Indians of the Northwest Coast Series) 31 frames, color, S.V.E.

Work of Snow and Ice
(glaciers), 48 frames, color, S.V.E.

Epic of Man, Part III B - Mesalithic Age Today
(Eskimos and Caribou) 53 frames, color, Life

Alaska: America's Frontier State
42 frames, color, McGraw-Hill

The Arctic Wilderness Series - Encyclopedia Britannica

Birds of the Northland	50 frames
The Northland	50 frames
Rodents of the Northland	50 frames
Marine Animals of the Northland	50 frames
Arctic Foxes and Wolves	50 frames
Wolverines and Weasels	50 frames

8 m.m. Film Loops

Alaska Series - a Series, Bailey
Geography, 3 minute, color,
Cities and Transportation, 3 minutes, color
Fishing, 3 minutes, color
Industry, 3 minutes, color
Agriculture, 3 minutes, color

Records

Audio-American History Library
Alaska: Act for Statehood E A D 8 A

Free or Inexpensive Material

The Heritage of Alaska
A packette of a series of eight pamphlets relating interesting themes on the history, culture and development of the 49th State.
National Bank of Alaska
4th and E
Anchorage, Alaska 9950l

Airlines
Alaska Airlines
Western Airlines
Wein Consolidated
Japan Airlines
Free illustrated materials, especially posters and maps.

Multi-Media Kit

Alaska - Land of Tomorrow
Modern Alaska unfolds its story in a kaleidoscope of materials exploring people, places, economics and communications systems.
Six sound-color filmstrip $66.00
(Note: Ready for distribution by fall 1969)
International Communication Films
Film Library
811 Eighth Avenue
Anchorage, Alaska 99501

Addresses of Publishers Mentioned in the List of Films

Alaska Department of Health and Welfare
Juneau, Alaska

American Can Company
100 Park Avenue
New York, New York

Bailey Films, Inc.
6509 De Longpre Avenue
Los Angeles, California

Canadian National Railways
Motion Picture Library
630 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York

Classroom Film Distributors, Inc.
5620 Hollywood Blvd.
Los Angeles, California

Coronet Films
Coronet Building
Chicago, Illinois

Du Art Films Lab, Inc.
245 West 55th Street
New York, New York

Eye Gate House, Inc.
146-01 Archer Avenue
Jamaica, New York

Encyclopedia Britannica
Educational Corporation
1150 Wilmette Avenue
Wilmette, Illinois

Herbert M. Elkins Company
10031 Commerce Avenue
Tujunga, California

John W. Gunter
1027 S. Claremont Street
San Mateo, California

McGraw-Hill Textfilm
3306 West 42nd Street
New York, New York

Northern Films
Box 98
Maine Office Station
Seattle, Washington 98111

Nu-Art Films, Inc.
247 West 46th Street
New York, New York

Standard Oil of California
Public Relations Department
225 Bush Street
San Francisco, California

Society for Visual Education, Inc.
Div. General Precision Equipment Corp.
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, Illinois

U.S. Department of Defense
The Pentagon
Washington, D.C.

U.S. Office of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C.

Walt Disney Productions
Education Film Division
350 S. Buena Vista Avenue
Burbank, California

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