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The Arctic and Nordic Countries in the World of Economyand Politics

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THE UK'S POLICY TOWARDS THE ARCTIC

On 17th October 2013, the Foreign and Commonwealth Office in London published a paper called "*Adapting to Change- UK Policy towards the Arctic*"[2]. The document was the result of a longer consultation process. It involved several ministries, the main scientific institutions as well as the Environmental Committee of the Westminster Parliament[3]. For instance, in 2008 the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) organised a meeting of Arctic 'stakeholders' at the Scottish Association for Marine Science in Oban, Scotland. A key conclusion, noted in the report , was that 'it was clear that there was a need to provide some form of governance framework to address issues not covered by the Arctic Council and to facilitate greater stakeholder participation in decision-making'[4]. This conclusion reflected a need identified in the House of Lords in 2007 'to develop a cross-departmental strategy towards the Arctic.'[5] The issue of climate change and its consequences, which has been attracting the attention of the world for over a decade, was for the first time addressed by the British Government in a systematic and transparent way. In the regions around the North Pole climate change is advancing almost twice as fast as elsewhere, which poses real threats to natural and human habitats and results in unstable weather. Furthermore, it is revealing new spaces for economic activity, including gas and oil exploitation, shipping activity across the new routes or increased eco-tourism. "*Adapting to Change*" presents the government's approach towards the Arctic addressing the complex issues, that affect the region. Mark Simmonds, minister for the Arctic at

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[2] Available at https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/251216/Adapting_To_Change_UK_policy_towards_the_Arctic.pdf.
[3] http://www.scottishglobalforum.net/uk-arctic-strategy-jan2014.html 12.03.2014
[4] GBSC (Global Biodiversity Sub-Committee) 'UK-Arctic stakeholders report', p.6 available at http://jncc.defra.gov.uk/pdf/gbsc_0809ArcticbiodiversityObanReport.pdf.
[5] Hansard(Lords), 15 Jan. 2007, vol.688, col.502

the Foreign Office, said: "We are the Arctic's nearest neighbour and we have long-standing environmental and commercial interest there. Our climate, migrating birds, fishing and shipping industry, and energy needs are all reasons why what happens in the Arctic is of vital interest to us"[6]. The government's framework towards the Arctic stresses out three important principles of respect, leadership and cooperation, which create the base for the government's approach. The paper discusses the consequences of the climate change, declares the UK's readiness to combat its causes, emphasizes the need to provide the Arctic with proper environmental protection. Although the UK is not an Arctic state, British government declares the UK's policy towards the Arctic, stressing out a number of ties and relationships linking it to the High North. Among these ties there is a very important one, which is a geographical location.

The UK is the northernmost country outside of the eight Arctic States. The northern edge of the Shetland Islands is only 400km south of the Arctic Circle. Because of its geographical location the UK can be considered a subarctic country, which is constantly being affected by the climate changes occurring in the High North. Among the states, which constitute the UK, it is Scotland, which in fact is located in the greatest proximity to the Arctic and in the light of its attempts to become a fully independent state, it can expect a larger proportional stake both in fishing and the hydrocarbon sector, and more natural ports for Arctic shipping. Yet, for the time being Scotland is a part of the UK and in this paper it will not be discussed separately.

Another worth mentioning link between Britain and the Arctic is a long tradition of exploration, that dates back to the voyages of discovery. Starting in the 16th century, European interest in the Arctic grew owing to the fisheries , whale hunting and as a result of attempts to find northern sea routes to Asia. British research in the Arctic can be said to be started by Henry Hudson[7] (1565-1611), an English explorer and navigator. Hudson explored parts of the Arctic Ocean and north-eastern North America. The Hudson River, Hudson Strait, and Hudson Bay are named for Hudson. Hudson made four journeys, during his career, at a time of strong competition of countries and companies to find the best ways to reach important trade destinations, especially Asia and India. In 1607 the Muscovy Company, an English firm, decided to employ Hudson to find a water passage from Europe to Asia. In order to complete this task Hudson made two trips (in 1607 and 1608), yet his attempts to find a route to China proved fruitless. In 1607, he sailed to Spitzbergen and had a chance to explore some of the islands near Greenland, among them Jan Mayen Island (a tiny island off eastern Greenland). The trip, however, was not a total failure, as Hudson reported numerous whales in the region, which opened up a promising hunting territory. The following year, Hudson set sail in search of the Northeast Passage. The route he sought proved

[6] http://www.theguardian.com/environment/2013/oct/17/uk-hub-arctic-oil-exploration-greenpeace, 12.032014.

[7] For more see: Hudson's Biography at http://www.biography.com/people/henry-hudson-9346049#awesm=~oFFQA777GP1LBb.

elusive, Hudson made it to Novaya Zemlya, an archipelago in the Arctic Ocean to the north of Russia. He did not manage to travel any further, since he was blocked by thick ice. In 1609 Hudson was hired by the Dutch East India Company, to try to find the Northwest Passage further south. On this trip in a ship called the Half Moon, Hudson, who was a commander, sailed to Nova Scotia, and then, as ice prevented him from going further, he decided to sail south. He found what is now called the Hudson River. Travelling down the North American coast, Hudson went as far south as the Chesapeake Bay. He then turned around and decided to explore New York Harbor, an area first thought to have been discovered by Giovanni da Verrazzano in 1524. Around this time, Hudson and his crew clashed with some local Native Americans. A 1610-1611 trip through the Hudson Strait and into Hudson Bay ended in a mutiny. Hudson died in 1611 after his crew mutinied and left Hudson, his son, and seven crew members adrift in a small, open boat in Hudson Bay. While he never found his way to Asia, Hudson is still widely remembered as a determined early explorer. Another worth mentioning English explorer of the Arctic was an Admiral, Sir John Franklin (1786-1847)[8]. Franklin, who conducted expeditions to the Arctic, is especially known for leading an ill-fated expedition (1845) in search of a Northwest Passage, a Canadian Arctic waterway connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. From 1819 to 1822 Franklin conducted an overland expedition from the western shore of Hudson Bay to the Arctic Ocean, and he surveyed part of the coast to the east of the Coppermine River in north-western Canada. After his return to England he published *Narrative of a Journey to the Shores of the Polar Sea, in the Years 1819, 20, 21 and 22* (1823). On a second expedition, from 1825 to 1827, Franklin explored the North American coast from the mouth of the Mackenzie River, in north-western Canada, westward to Point Beechey (Alaska, USA). In 1845, Franklin sailed from England with an expedition of 128 men to Canada in search of Northwest Passage. The ship became trapped in ice, and the desperate, freezing and starving survivors resorted to cannibalism. A small contingent of the expedition (without Franklin) may have reached Simpson Strait, the final part of the Northwest Passage. Scottish explorer John Rae determined that Franklin and his expedition had died of starvation and exposure in the Arctic; Eskimos at Pelly Bay told Rae of Franklin's fate. Lead poisoning from poorly-canned food might have also hastened their death. John Rae (1813-1893) was a Scottish explorer, surveyor, and surgeon who explored the Canadian Arctic. Rae made three voyages, in 1848-1849, 1851, and 1853-1854, to find the Arctic explorer Sir John Franklin, who had disappeared together with his Arctic expedition. Rae surveyed and mapped over 1,400 miles (2255 km) of uncharted Canadian coastline. He also showed that King William Land was an island. During his Arctic expeditions, Rae walked over 23,000 miles (37000 km). Sir James Clark Ross (1800 - 1862)[9], a naval officer, went on

[8] For more information, see sir John Franklin's biography at: http://www.rmg.co.uk/explore/sea-and-ships/facts/explorers-and-leaders/sir-john-franklin-(1786-1847).

[9] For more information see James Ross's biography at http://www.athropolis.com/arctic-facts/fact-james-ross.htm.

missions to both the Arctic and the continent of Antarctica, doing magnetic surveys. Ross went on Arctic expeditions with Sir William E. Parry from 1819 to 1827. Ross and his uncle, Sir John Ross, located the north magnetic pole on Boothia Peninsula (in northern Canada, north of King William Island) on May 31, - June 1, 1831.

Historical ties, however, do not only relate to discovery and exploration. The UK has long traditions of whale hunting and fishing. In the late 18th Century, small numbers of British ships began hunting Bowhead whales for their oil around Greenland and Spitsbergen alongside a huge Dutch fleet. Since the British government wanted to avoid being fully dependent on foreign oil, it doubled the whaler's subsidy to 40 shillings per ship ton in 1750[10] to encourage the development of a domestic whaling fleet. There were a few famous British ports, including Hull and Whitby, which became especially successful in the early 19th century. However, it was the port in Liverpool, that received the most whale ships, particularly between 1775 and 1790, when the supply oil from the American colonies had been cut off as a result of the revolutionary wars.

While discussing historical ties, the role of Britain and its presence in the High North during the Second World War cannot be forgotten. It was when the Norwegian and Barents Seas became an important strategic route for oceangoing convoys sailing from the UK, Iceland and North America to northern ports of Soviet Union, primarily Archangelsk and Murmansk. There were altogether 78 convoys, which occurred between August 1941 and May 1945. The objective of the convoys was to deliver essential supplies, including tanks, fighter planes, fuel, ammunition, raw materials, and food to the Soviet Union within the Lend-Lease program. About 1400 merchant ships took part in the convoys. They were escorted by ships of the royal Navy, Royal Canadian Navy and the US Navy. Britain lost 104 merchant and sixteen military vessels, thousands of British soldiers lost their lives[11]. After the Second World War, Britain still maintained its role, as a NATO member, to protect the North Atlantic from any potential attacks from Soviet Union forces, that stationed on the militarized Kola Peninsula. During the 1970s and the 1980s the UK's interest in the strategic significance of the Arctic was especially visible through the activities of the Scottish branch of the Royal Institute, where, in 1979 , the Study Group on Northern Waters was founded. Its aim was to examine 'the interrelationships of security, resources and jurisdictional issues in the Northern Waters'[12]. The reality behind this initiative was that the UK's role as a NATO member was to oversee the defence of the Greenland-Iceland-UK 'gap' (the so called GIUK gap) and to be the first responder to any potential invasion of Norway by the Soviet Union[13]. Since the end of the Cold War, the UK's presence in the Arctic has been maintained on a low level and it has

[10] http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-england-merseyside-22399947, 13.05.2014.
[11] http://www.rmg.co.uk/whats-on/exhibitions/arctic-convoys, 13.05.2014
[12] Clive Archer and David Scrivener, eds,*Northern Waters* pp. 55-68 (Totowa,New Jersey :Barnes &Noble, 1986)
[13] *Ibidem*.

been manifested mainly in two ways: through scientific research and military training. However , in recent years (at least since 2007), this moderate UK's presence in the Arctic, has been undergoing changes resulting from the new shape of the High North. As changes of this region, which we have witnessed for over a decade, definitely have a great impact on commercial, environmental and geopolitical factors, they have created new opportunities, that definitely attract a great number of different types of participants, recipients or just observers. For example, these are companies seeking new ways of generating profit, but these are also groups involved in environmental protection. Their activities have been more apparent thanks to public debates and increased interest in the subject presented by the media. In the face of changes taking place and their more consequences, the UK's government has seen the need to express the position of Great Britain towards the Arctic.

The already mentioned document '*Adapting to change…*' devotes much space to the scientific aspect of today's situation in the Arctic. The reasons for that are obvious. As Britain is not an Arctic state and so has no formal role in negotiating international policy within the Arctic Council. However, it has observer status in the Arctic Council as well as Euro - Arctic Council and the Barents Sea. Representatives of the United Kingdom have participated in the Arctic Council since its formal foundation, that is, since 1996. Their role in the Council is, among other things providing academic and expert advice. The UK boasts of being an important actor in the field of science, research and expertise. As it is highlighted in the document, science should be the basis for any decisions concerning the Arctic, as all the factors affecting the region are interrelated. By its nature, science contributes directly to diplomacy, policy and understanding of the Arctic. Thus, the UK's intention is to make science the basis of its co-operation with Arctic States, the Arctic Council and other actors. Making science central to the UK's approach to the Arctic ensures a number of positive outcomes, to name the following: responsible development, environmental protection, good governance, reputation, influence and security.

The "industrialisation of the Arctic", which is driven mainly by the combination of climate change and definitely the ever-growing demand for resources, creates a need of the most up-to-date and robust scientific research. There are at least 77 UK institutions, which are involved in Arctic research, including 46 universities and 20 research institutes. In 2011 alone, more than 500 individual UK scientists with registered Arctic interests produced over 500 Arctic-related publications, which is four times as many as those produced in 2000[14]. Over the past decade funding for UK Arctic environmental research activities has been steadily increasing. A total sum of £50m has been awarded to 138 individual research projects, including the new £15m of thematic funding provided for the Arctic Research Programme by the Natural Environment Research Council

[14] https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/251216/Adapting_To_Change_UK_policy_towards_the_Arctic.pdf, 15.02.2014

(NERC) that runs from 2011 to 2016[15]. The UK research station, which was established by NERC in 1991 in the international village of Ny-Ålesund, northwest Svalbard, provides a summer research facility in the High Arctic. Over the past decade, the station has already supported over 100 projects[16], including the seven supported in the summer of 2013 and the fourteen ,which were led by non-UK scientists, reflecting the collaborative nature of UK science in the Arctic. The areas of research are varied, including: glaciology, geology, hydrology, terrestrial and marine biology as well as atmospheric physics. The station is involved in international bodies such as the International Arctic Science Committee (IASC), the Arctic Ocean Sciences Board (AOSB) and the Secretariat of the Arctic Science Summit Week. Among the UK-based institutions with substantial Arctic interests are the following: the Scott Polar Research Institute of the University of Cambridge, the National Oceanography Centre at Southampton and the Arctic Office recently established by the British Antarctic Survey, in the midst of the International Polar Year (2007–08), in order to co-ordinate further UK Arctic research on climate change. The long tradition and excellent experience of the UK's wider Antarctic science community gives a great support to complicated and sophisticated scientific programmes in the Arctic making it possible to transfer knowledge and expertise across both polar regions. Additionally, UK polar assets are currently being deployed to carry out advanced research in the Arctic. For instance, one of the two ice-capable vessels operated by the British Antarctic Survey (BAS), namely the RRS James Clark Rose, featuring state-of-the-art oceanographic research facilities, now operates two to three cruises each year in the western Arctic. Recently, the vessel has been used to support research on topics such as ocean circulation, ocean acidification, sea-ice processes, marine plankton and methane hydrates. Both BAS and its parent organisation NERC operate a fleet of research capable aircraft. In summer 2012, NERC's BAe-146 atmospheric chemistry aircraft was deployed to carry out a research on the sources and patterns of distribution of methane and other greenhouse gases in northern Scandinavia and the Barents Sea. The same aircraft, in 2013, worked alongside with a BAS-operated Twin Otter aircraft, the RRS James Clark vessel to study the Arctic clouds and aerosols. Another example of an excellent way of making use of the Antarctic expertise is the European-funded, UK-led ice2sea project. The result of the project is the 5th Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Report, which delivers improved understanding and estimates of ice sheeting melting, including Greenland and the West Antarctic Ice Shelf. The significance of the project for better sea-level rise predictions is vital. The ICE-ARC project coordinated by the UK and funded by the EU is €12 million programme of research aiming to understand and quantify the multiple stresses involved in the change in the Arctic marine environment. The ICE-ARC stands for Ice, Climate,

[15] *Ibidem*.
[16] http://www.arctic.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/8/sites/8/2014/01/December-2013-Newsletter.pdf, pp. 8, 03.01.2014

and Economics- Arctic Research on Change, which clearly implies the scope of the programme. ICE-ARC objectives include: improved climate prediction for the Arctic Ocean, understanding of climate change impacts on marine ecosystems, assessment of socio-economic vulnerabilities to the people and to the Earth, improved global marine policies to cope with the implications of increasingly ice-free Arctic, effective policy and management options for responses to climate change. As mentioned earlier, the programme is led by the UK, yet it brings together leading experts from 21 institutions in 11 countries, which is just another example of the collaborative nature of UK science in the Arctic.

Another example of visible presence of the UK in the Arctic are its military activities, which entail close cooperation with Norway and Canada (both fellow NATO members and Arctic states). The UK still sends Royal Marine Commandos and other units to train for cold weather operations in Canada and northern Norway. It also regularly participates in joint military exercises in Arctic waters. The example trainings are: Cold Response, Arctic Roller, Loyal Arrow. The exercises include specifying a potential threat, testing military equipment and identifying the human response in the face of the threat. Exercising in the harsh environment within the Arctic Circle, where temperatures can drop to -40 degrees Celsius, helps prepare Marines for survival and fighting capability anywhere in the world. During the visit to Norway in March 2013, the Secretary of State for Defence Philip Hammond said: "The High North is an area of strategic importance to the UK so it's very much in our national interest that we work with the Norwegians and that we have the skills that would be necessary if we ever needed to work with the military in the region"[17]. The statement surely confirms the UK's role and support for the High North. Although a military conflict resulting from the current changes in the Arctic, is rather unlikely to occur today, Britain declares its readiness to protect the region, its further participation in both military training and in the Arctic Security Forces Roundtable Forum[18], whose aim is to support security co-operation on issues such as situational awareness and rescue missions. There also other reasons for Britain's support for Norway, among which the most important is its dependence on Norwegian oil and gas. Norway is the largest external supplier of energy to the UK. In 2012, more than half of gas (55%) and almost half of the oil (46%) of the UK's imports came from Norway[19], which once again demonstrates the need for support policy and reliable energy partnership between the two countries. As the UK promotes transition to low carbon economy, and with the decline in domestic oil and gas production, the UK will become increasingly reliant on imported energy, which is additionally reinforced by the fact of proximity and long existing cooperation between the two countries. An additional advantage is more than 30 years of Norway's experience developing offshore oil and gas in the Arctic waters.

[17] http://www.royalnavy.mod.uk/News-and-Events/Latest-News/2013/March/02/130302-DEFENCE-MINISTER, accessed 12.03.2014.
[18] *Adapting to change…*, *op.cit*., pp.17-18.
[19] *Ibidem*, p. 14.

As it is well known, global warming is one of the most serious threats to both the Arctic and the earth. The UK, which has invested, as previously mentioned, huge financial resources in climate change studies and attempts to determine how to save the environment, has been involved in a number of activities aiming to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. These activities have been especially progressively implemented since 2010, the year of the climate summit in Cancun, where possibilities and ways of reducing greenhouse gas emissions, the tragic consequences of deforestation and the distribution of funds to combat these factors of climate change were discussed. The UK's commitment to reduce UK emissions of greenhouse gases by 34% on 1990 levels by 2020 and by 80% by 2050 through the Climate Change Act 2008[20] is one of the examples of British engagement in environmental issues. Achieving this outcome will be possible through various measures, ranging from energy investments in low-carbon technologies to reducing the consumption of coal. Other measures include reducing the production and emission of Short Lived Climate Forcers, such as methane and soot.

The already mentioned document, published by the UK's government, *Adapting to change…* focuses on the issue of the environmental protection a number of times. It provides many examples of great concern for the climate and the environment, emphasizes Britain's leadership in climate change mitigation. Yet, it quite smoothly turns to the question of extracting hydrocarbons. The two issues, namely environmental protection and developing and consuming hydrocarbons seem to exclude each other, however the government recognizes the fact that the world economy is going to rely on fossil fuels, so Norwegian success in further developing its Arctic gas reserves gives the UK energy security. Britain's view on the issue of extraction is that it should depend on decisions of the relevant authorities of Arctic states and the operators themselves and should be related to regulations and market conditions. The factor, which definitely needs to be treated with great care are the standards of extracting operations. Moreover, there British companies, which have been involved in mineral exploitation and exploration, both onshore and offshore in the Arctic and whose interest, more or less directly contributing to the UK's economy, must be secured. For instance, there are companies such as Shell and BP, which have been carrying out extraction in the Arctic for quite a long time, as well as a smaller operators, such as Cairn Energy, which operates in the regions of Greenland with shorter extracting traditions. Another example of the UK's commercial activity in the Arctic is an American-British company, Sakaati, engaged in the acquisition of three elements: copper, nickel and platinum. The exploration works take place in Finland, 150 km north of the Arctic Circle.

Adapting to change … neither questions the ever growing demand for fossil fuels, nor connects it directly to the climate change. Moreover, it declares Britain's

[20] Summary of the key provisions of the Climate Change Act 2008, available at: http://www.sduhealth.org.uk/documents/publications/1232893824_kmNp_3_summary_of_the_main_provisions_of_the_climate_c.pdf.

openness to ‘support investments in new infrastructure, that would connect Norway’s new Arctic gas finds with the existing North Sea pipeline network’[21].

Exploration and extraction activities are not the only ones strongly connected with the issue of environmental protection. The issue of maritime transport, which in the light of new possible routes connecting Europe with Asia, also evokes a lot of environmental discussions. Increased shipping traffic, especially during summer months, will definitely pose a threat to the environment, due to greenhouse gas emissions and the possibility to affect biodiversity in the Arctic waters. It is the UK’s view, that in the fields of maritime safety and prevention of pollution UNCLOS, SOLAS (Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea) and MARPOL (the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships) should remain authoritative. In case of shipping industry regulation, it should take place on a global basis through IMO (International Maritime Organisation), in which the UK plays a leading role. The view can be easily explained by the global nature of shipping industry and the need of equitable approach in its regulation. As the climate change evolves, an access to the Northwest Passage (through the waters of Canada and Alaska) and the Northern Sea Route through the waters north of Russia will provide a significantly shorter travel distance between Europe and Asia creating obvious savings of time and money, compared with traditional routes through the Suez Canal and around the Cape of Good Hope. The UK intends to take advantage of these opportunities, emphasizing its geographic location, number of ports , maritime industry achievements and invaluable experience. It is also widely discussed aspect of navigational safety in the context of harsh, unpredictable weather conditions, the relative lack of good charts, limited possibility of exploration and rescue operations and the lack of shore infrastructure. The document*, Adapting to change…* indicates that perhaps a good solution would be creating a Polar Code[22] within the IMO, which would identify the type of equipment and operating methods of ships moving in the waters of the Arctic. Such code could also address the issues of safety and environmental protection. It should be also emphasized a significant role of the British Hydrographic Institute (UK Hydrographic Office) with its vast experience in surveying the Arctic regions of Norway to the Bering Strait and the areas around the U.S. and Canada. United Kingdom intends to apply for observer status in the Regional Hydrographic Commission.

Among a number of aspects discussed in the paper, there is also an issue of the stewardship of the Arctic. The UK recognises the sovereign rights of the eight Arctic states and underlines the presence of the people living and working in the region. "The UK will continue to support and respect the sovereign rights of the Arctic states to exercise jurisdiction over their territory; the peoples who live and work in the Arctic; and the unique and fragile natural environment. At the same time, [the strategy] outlines the UK's legitimate interests in the region, our

[21] *Adapting to change…*, *op.cit*.
[22] *Ibidem*, p. 26.

priorities for practical action and our willingness to show leadership in appropriate areas"[23].

Common issues are settled by international agreements and treaties, of which the UK particularly, promotes the UN Convention on the Laws of the Sea (UNCLOS), the Convention on the International Maritime Organization (IMO), International Maritime Organization regarding the Shipping Code and the Arctic Council (Arctic Council) . The paper definitely accepts the status quo in relation to the management of the Arctic, mentions the need to develop Regional Fisheries Management Organisations in managing fish stocks and marine ecosystems, including in waters in the Arctic. It highlights the positive role of the Arctic Council expressed through practical cooperation, especially on environmental issues and sustainable development of the Arctic. It definitely expresses the UK's preference to rely on existing documents, rejecting the idea of creating a single Arctic Treaty[24].

To sum up, *Adapting to change…* formulates a formal strategy of the UK in the Arctic. The UK acknowledges the role of the Arctic states in governing the region, however, the paper approaches the potential benefits of the state through such sectors as raw material extraction, tourism, maritime industry. In addition, it emphasizes the role of the UK in organizations or international forums, that relate to the region in a more or less visible way. Moreover, the UK's political role is emphasized, for example by the Arctic Council, its military role through NATO and its invaluable contribution to scientific research.

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[23] *Ibidem*, p. 13.
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Abstract

The paper deals with the most recent and so far the only written, formal framework of the British government towards the Arctic. It also refers to historical, geographical, commercial and environmental links between the UK and the High North. It discusses the areas of the UK's interests in the Arctic and the potential benefits of the state through such sectors as raw material extraction, tourism, maritime industry. In addition, it describes the role of the UK in organizations or international forums, that relate to the region in a more or less visible way. Moreover, it presents the UK's political role , for example by the Arctic Council, its military role through NATO and its invaluable contribution to scientific research.

Polityka Wielkiej Brytanii wobec Arktyki

Artykuł odnosi się do najnowszego i jak dotąd jedynego formalnego, pisemnego stanowiska rządu Wielkiej Brytanii wobec Arktyki. Przypomina również o historycznych, geograficznych, handlowych i środowiskowych powiązaniach między UK i Daleką Północą. Omawia obszary brytyjskich interesów w Arktyce i potencjalne korzyści państwa przez takie sektory, jak wydobycie surowców, turystykę czy przemysł morski. Ponadto opisuje rolę Wielkiej Brytanii w organizacjach i forach międzynarodowych, które odnoszą się do regionu, w mniej lub bardziej widoczny sposób. Dodatkowo, przedstawia polityczną rolę Wielkiej Brytanii, na przykład poprzez Radę Arktyki, rolę wojskową przez NATO i jej nieoceniony wkład w badania naukowe.

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