

# 1 Polar science strategies for institute managers

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6 **ABSTRACT.** Managing polar research is a tremendous challenge. It covers work at sea on rough and intimidating  
7 oceans, and on land over crevassed terrain or rotten sea ice with the prospect of death or frostbite. These environments  
8 are extremely hostile and difficult to work in. Results are costly to obtain, and yet the work is of vital importance,  
9 as the polar regions are the world's freezers, critical components of the climate system, and repositories of amazing  
10 biodiversity. These regions are grossly undersampled, and relatively poorly monitored. National efforts are best carried  
11 out in an international framework, in which cooperation is essential for major breakthroughs, and the exchange and  
12 sharing of data and information and facilities is essential for ongoing monitoring of change. Under the circumstances  
13 the managers of polar research institutes must proceed with well-developed strategies. Given the growing interest of  
14 different countries in the polar regions, it would seem useful to bring together advice won through hard effort over the  
15 years in how best to develop strategies for polar scientific institute management. This discussion paper offers advice  
16 on how such strategies may best be developed.

17 The author has compiled this based on many years of management experience in both the ocean and polar  
18 sciences with the following institutions: the UK Natural Environment Research Council's Institute of Oceanographic  
19 Sciences Deacon Laboratory, the UK's National Oceanography Centre, UNESCO's Intergovernmental Oceanographic  
20 Commission, and the International Council for Science's Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research

## 21 **National strategy**

22 In deciding on what any national institute's research  
23 should be, one must bear in mind that institutes differ  
24 from universities in undertaking research that is of a  
25 more strategic nature, is longer term and is more closely  
26 related to national needs. Institutes sit on the spectrum  
27 in between applied research in industry and fundamental  
28 research in universities. They are funded in the national  
29 interest because universities do not have the capacity  
30 for the kind of long-term commitment required, and  
31 industry does not have the interest because of its focus  
32 on short-term gains. Examples of polar research institutes  
33 might include, for instance, the British Antarctic Survey  
34 (BAS), the Alfred Wegener Institute for Marine and Polar  
35 Research (AWI), the Polar Research Institute of China  
36 (PRIC), the Korean Polar Research Institute (KOPRI), the  
37 Indian National Centre for Antarctic and Ocean Research  
38 (NCAOR), among many others.

39 Most polar research requires institutes, because once  
40 governments have decided they need to obtain knowledge  
41 about the polar regions as the basis for understanding  
42 processes and using that understanding as the basis for  
43 improving prediction, a suitable infrastructure has to be  
44 provided and managed to carry out the work for the long  
45 term. There is a need for ships, aircraft, vehicles, accom-  
46 modation, and communications, as well as laboratories  
47 at home for the analysis of materials and production and  
48 publication of results. As a first step in any one polar area,  
49 'basic-strategic' research will be required to establish the  
50 nature of this largely unexplored area. After a time, as  
51 the environment becomes explored and understood, more  
52 'core strategic' research should evolve. Alternatively, the  
53 basic-strategic phase may be extended, by expanding the  
54 geographical area of research.

Universities should be encouraged to become in- 55  
volved in institute work as a means of encouraging young 56  
scientists to consider polar research as a career. This 57  
may require a significant allocation of resources from an 58  
institute to the university sector. In addition, university 59  
researchers should be encouraged to apply for national 60  
grants to allow them to carry out their own research using 61  
an Institute's facilities. 62

## 63 **Strategic focus**

64 Because of location and environment, the polar sciences  
65 are difficult, time consuming and expensive. It is there-  
66 fore imperative that polar scientific research be focused  
67 on goals that are intellectually challenging, address major  
68 issues, and fit with national priorities. Institute projects  
69 should relate to long-term national strategic requirements  
70 like quality of life, food security, energy security, and  
71 wealth creation. They should focus on addressing key  
72 strategic questions and the production of useful out-  
73 comes, to ensure that decision makers in government,  
74 business and society have the knowledge, foresight and  
75 tools to address strategic challenges: for instance to  
76 mitigate, adapt to and benefit from environmental change.  
77 The evidence base must be developed to support policy.

78 To the extent possible, institute projects should ad-  
79 dress what the international community has accepted as  
80 the major research challenges, which are often referred to  
81 as 'grand challenges'. The general consensus is that the  
82 interlinked major challenges of the day lie in:

- 83 • Climate change (affecting global security through mi- 84  
gration);
- 85 • Biodiversity loss (affecting ecosystem functions and 86  
services);

- 87 • Food security (ability to feed growing populations);
- 88 • Water security (ability to supply people with fresh
- 89 water and sanitation);
- 90 • Energy security (ability to provide growing popula-
- 91 tions with cheap power);
- 92 • Economic security (for example growth of wealth
- 93 through application of new technologies like biotech-
- 94 nology);
- 95 • Human health (improving peoples' health and well
- 96 being).

97 The sustainable development of human society depends  
 98 on meeting all of these grand challenges. The focus  
 99 for much of the natural sciences is on global change,  
 100 which can be seen as embracing all of these to some  
 101 degree (for example as spelled out by the International  
 102 Council for Science (ICSU) at [www.icsu-visioning.org/](http://www.icsu-visioning.org/),

103 and the European Biodiversity Research Strategy at  
 104 [www.epbrs.org/PDF/EPBRS\\_StrategyBDRResearch\\_](http://www.epbrs.org/PDF/EPBRS_StrategyBDRResearch_May2010.pdf)  
 105 [May2010.pdf](http://www.epbrs.org/PDF/EPBRS_StrategyBDRResearch_May2010.pdf)). Polar research can address many of  
 106 these challenges to some extent, as shown in the science  
 107 plan of ICARP (International Conference on Arctic  
 108 Research Planning) ([http://aosb.arcticportal.org/icarp\\_ii/](http://aosb.arcticportal.org/icarp_ii/science_plans/)  
 109 [science\\_plans/](http://aosb.arcticportal.org/icarp_ii/science_plans/)).

- 110 Setting long-term strategic goals requires:
- 111 • Acceptance by staff of strategic frameworks and key
  - 112 challenges;
  - 113 • Development of long term strategic collaborations
  - 114 between the research, policy, and business communit-
  - 115 ies (including international);
  - 116 • Significant focus on delivery of results and outcomes;
  - 117 • Promotion of development opportunities (for example
  - 118 via patents and collaborations and via design of tech-
  - 119 nologies for manufacture) and growth of the right
  - 120 (strategic) kind;
  - 121 • Engaging with a range of external sectors (not being
  - 122 inward looking);
  - 123 • Recognizing and describing the impact of research on
  - 124 the economy and society;
  - 125 • Maintaining flexibility to respond to changes of gov-
  - 126 ernment, of funding, and of the research landscape.

127 Developing a comprehensive strategic research pro-  
 128 gramme may thus require a change of culture in the way  
 129 research is designed, supported and implemented.

### 130 **Grand challenges as a framework for future research**

131 As noted by Kennicutt in a paper presented by the  
 132 Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research (SCAR) to  
 133 the 2009 meeting of COMNAP (the Council of Managers  
 134 of National Antarctic Programs):

135 Predicting future directions in Antarctic science is  
 136 difficult at best, as investment in science is often de-  
 137 cided by each nation in very different ways. However,  
 138 one can analyze trends and extrapolate where these  
 139 trends may lead in the future. The questions being  
 140 asked by scientists and society are becoming more  
 141 complex, requiring integrated and interdisciplinary

142 approaches. This reflects a holistic view of Earth  
 143 system science and the recognition that, far from  
 144 being isolated, Antarctica and its surrounding ocean  
 145 are integral parts of the Earth system. Equally, studies  
 146 within Antarctica recognize the co-dependence of  
 147 and linkages amongst physical and living systems.  
 148 Trans-continental observations and experiments have  
 149 become an increasing feature of many programs, and  
 150 access to all corners of the continent is desirable, if  
 151 not required. In many instances large multi-national  
 152 teams of scientists are involved, the range of discip-  
 153 lines and the supporting technologies are diverse, the  
 154 volume of data and information collected is immense,  
 155 and real-time internal and external communications  
 156 are essential (Kennicutt 2009).

157 National institutes have a significant opportunity to con-  
 158 tribute fully to these international activities.

159 In November 2010, ICSU set out a suite of 5 grand  
 160 challenges (listed below):

161 to mobilize the international global change scientific  
 162 community around an unprecedented decade of re-  
 163 search to support sustainable development in the  
 164 context of global change. The pace and magnitude  
 165 of human-induced global change is currently beyond  
 166 human control and is manifest in increasingly danger-  
 167 ous threats to human societies and human wellbeing.  
 168 There is an urgent need for the international scientific  
 169 community to develop the knowledge that can inform  
 170 and shape effective responses to these threats in ways  
 171 that foster global justice and facilitate progress to-  
 172 ward sustainable development goals (Reid and others  
 173 2010).

174 The focus was on global change to understand the  
 175 functioning of the Earth system and the human impacts  
 176 on that system. Polar research can contribute to meeting  
 177 the first 3 of these Grand Challenges, and perhaps also on  
 178 aspects of number 5.

- Forecasting: improving the usefulness of forecasts  
 179 of future environmental conditions and their con-  
 180 sequences for people;
- Observing: developing, enhancing and integrating the  
 181 observation systems needed to manage global and  
 182 regional environmental change;
- Confining: determining how to anticipate, avoid and  
 183 manage disruptive global environmental change;
- Responding: determining what institutional, economic  
 184 and behavioural changes can enable effective steps  
 185 toward global sustainability;
- Innovating: encouraging innovation (coupled with  
 186 sound mechanisms for evaluation) in developing tech-  
 187 nological, policy, and social responses to achieve  
 188 global sustainability.

194 The ICSU document also recommends a shift from:  
 195 Research dominated by disciplinary studies to a more  
 196 balanced mix of disciplinary research and research  
 197 that draws disciplinary expertise into an integrated  
 198 approach that facilitates inter- and transdisciplinarity.

199 It also called for research priorities to be shaped with the  
200 active involvement of potential users of research results.

### 201 **Strategic approaches of major polar institutes**

202 Analysis of the strategic plans of (i) the main polar  
203 research institutions [the UK's BAS, the Australian Ant-  
204 arctic Division (AAD), Germany's AWI, and Antarctica  
205 New Zealand], (ii) the European Science Foundation  
206 (ESF) and European Polar Board, and (iii) SCAR and  
207 IASC (the International Arctic Science Committee) (the  
208 latter informed by ICARP-II), can be used to show  
209 how different polar institutions propose to address these  
210 grand challenges, and demonstrates a commonality of  
211 approach between them. The strategic research plans of  
212 these institutions focus primarily on (i) climate change;  
213 (ii) biodiversity loss; (iii) earth system science (which  
214 recognises the connections between the atmosphere; the  
215 oceans; the deep Earth; snow, ice and permafrost; fresh-  
216 water systems; and living organisms, all of which depend  
217 on changes in other parts of the system); and (iv) de-  
218 velopment of technologies (including numerical models)  
219 needed for enhanced environmental science.

220 Technology development is critical, as research ad-  
221 vances depend heavily not only on new ideas but also on  
222 the application of novel technologies. These may include  
223 remote sensing with sensors based on satellites, aircraft,  
224 or drones in the air; autonomous underwater vehicles  
225 (AUV)s, remotely operated vehicles (ROVs), gliders,  
226 floats and moorings in the oceans; and deployment on  
227 land of intelligent field sensors that work independently  
228 using wireless and other forms of data transmission. Reli-  
229 ability in the field is a key challenge in remote locations.  
230 Novel laboratory instruments are needed to analyse envi-  
231 ronmental samples. A new generation of molecular tools  
232 in fields of genetics, such as genomics and proteomics,  
233 will be critical to our understanding of the environment.

234 Sophisticated models are required of environmental  
235 processes to provide foresight of the future state of the  
236 environment. Rapid advances in software engineering,  
237 and information and communication technologies are  
238 revolutionising the way researchers are working to  
239 use computing power and scientific data repositories.  
240 These new technologies will need data management and  
241 support in terms of power supplies, data acquisition,  
242 transmission devices and platforms. There exists the  
243 potential to develop world-leading technologies. It  
244 is critical to strengthen data management, including  
245 supporting new data products.

246 Development of technologies implies employment of  
247 the technical staff capable of technology development, or  
248 alternatively the purchase of leading edge equipment or  
249 model code.

250 The major national polar science institutions responsi-  
251 ble for strategic research incorporate studies of:

252 ➤ The present climate system (atmosphere, ocean, ice  
253 and their physical and chemical interactions) and coup-  
254 ling between its elements (numerical modelling);

➤ Past climate change; 255  
➤ Observing systems and for detecting change and as the  
basis for predicting future conditions; 256  
➤ Polar terrestrial and oceanic ecosystems and their re-  
sponse to change, including identification of indicators  
and risks; 257  
➤ Biodiversity at all levels including microbial, and in-  
vasive species; 258  
➤ Biogeochemical cycles, impacts and feedbacks, in-  
cluding ocean acidification; 259  
➤ The behaviour of ice sheets, especially in relation to  
sea level rise; 260  
➤ The solid Earth and associated risks (earthquakes,  
volcanoes, hot vents, permafrost); 261  
➤ Resources (conservation, fisheries, biotechnological  
potential, energy); 262  
➤ Geospace from the upper atmosphere (mesosphere,  
thermosphere, ionosphere) to the magnetosphere and  
the sun (e.g. solar storms and communication and  
satellite disturbance) 263  
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They may also include astronomy, astrophysics, and  
the collection of meteorites etc., which tend to be the  
province of university researchers. 275  
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### **The influence of the IPY**

278  
279 The outcomes of the International Polar Year 2007–  
280 2008 (IPY) are helping to determine the future directions  
281 of Arctic and Antarctic science. The IPY portfolio of  
282 science projects (<http://ipy.arcticportal.org/>) provides a  
283 unique 'window' on the future of polar science; many  
284 projects begun during the IPY are continuing well beyond  
285 it. IPY scientific planning and outcomes have set a course  
286 for polar science for years to come, notably with a legacy  
287 of (i) developing and implementing observing systems,  
288 (ii) improving data and information management and  
289 exchange, and (iii) developing the next generation of  
290 researchers. For a comprehensive review see Krupnik and  
291 others (2011). 292

293 IPY's scientific projects focused on the status of polar  
294 systems, change in polar systems, global linkages, new  
295 frontiers, the poles as vantage points, and the human  
296 dimension. Major scientific topics addressed by IPY  
297 projects included the same broad topics as those listed  
298 above; major themes were the grand challenges of climate  
299 change and biodiversity loss. Recognising the academic  
300 nature of much IPY research, topics included sub-ice  
301 hydrological systems and astronomy and astrophysics. 302

303 Ideally, following a proposal from the World Met-  
304 eorological Organization (WMO 2011), polar institutes  
305 should work together to address grand scientific and  
306 technological challenges that require a decadal effort in  
307 the polar regions, notably: 308

➤ developing and maintaining the polar components of  
the global Earth observing system; and 309  
➤ developing a global integrated polar prediction system  
for weather and climate change. 310

310 Implementing WMO's proposal would lead to better ser-  
 311 vices outcomes, for instance by integrating all Antarctic  
 312 meteorological networks into an Antarctic observing net-  
 313 work (AntON) to produce climate messages; defining the  
 314 scope of Arctic and Antarctic regional climate centres,  
 315 and increasing the number and improving the quality  
 316 of their climate products; improving understanding of  
 317 climate processes in the Antarctic; and implementing  
 318 the global cryosphere watch. Given WMO's interests,  
 319 the focus would be on atmosphere, ocean, ice and cli-  
 320 mate measurements. Implementing this proposal would  
 321 mean polar institutes re-orienting some of their work  
 322 to contribute to developing and implementing observing  
 323 systems like iAOOS (the integrated Arctic ocean ob-  
 324 serving system)([classic.ipy.org/development/eoi/AOSB-](http://classic.ipy.org/development/eoi/AOSB-CLIC)  
 325 [CLIC](http://classic.ipy.org/development/eoi/AOSB-CLIC) short plan v4.pdf), and SOOS (the Southern Ocean  
 326 observing system)([www.soos.aq](http://www.soos.aq)). The idea is for the  
 327 international whole to become greater than the sum of  
 328 its national parts. If institutes are to work together to  
 329 improve observing and forecasting systems, there will  
 330 have to be vast improvements by all institutes in the  
 331 collection, management, archiving and exchange of data  
 332 and information - especially in meteorology and oceanog-  
 333 raphy. The objective is win-win; you give me your data  
 334 and I give you mine; we can then both make our own  
 335 forecasts tailored to meet our own needs.

#### 336 **Generic factors in developing a strategic plan**

337 A strategic plan is an institute's roadmap for the fu-  
 338 ture. It should be the product of extensive consulta-  
 339 tion with staff and with key stakeholders. Experience  
 340 suggests that devising a leading edge strategic research  
 341 programme should involve interaction between an insti-  
 342 tute's board of directors and an external advisory board.  
 343 Such groups would utilise techniques like 'horizon scan-  
 344 ning' (as used recently by SCAR (see [www.SCAR.org/](http://www.SCAR.org/horizonscanning)  
 345 [horizonscanning](http://www.SCAR.org/horizonscanning)) to identify emerging trends, opportuni-  
 346 ties and directions for the most appropriate allocation of  
 347 research effort (for example Kennicutt and others 2014a,  
 348 2014b).

349 An institute's strategic plan should be designed to:

- 350 • set broad objectives and strategies for the organization
- 351 and provide a framework for decision-making;
- 352 • provide a view of priorities, and guidance for formulat-
- 353 ing the work programme and budget;
- 354 • set out the thinking on programme activities and de-
- 355 liverables, having considered the possible impacts on
- 356 activities of foreseeable scientific, technological, social
- 357 and economic developments in the polar regions and
- 358 elsewhere;
- 359 • optimise the programme structure and use of available
- 360 resources;
- 361 • provide staff with the longer-term framework within
- 362 which to plan and manage activities;
- 363 • give management a benchmark against which to mon-
- 364 itor progress and performance in the implementation of
- 365 the scientific programmes;

- describe infrastructure and management operations 366  
and aim to make them transparent; 367
- provide guidance for management, staff, funders, and 368  
other stakeholders including the public. 369

The plan should help to foster in management and staff a 370  
strong sense of commitment to the actions necessary for 371  
implementation. It should aim to help the organisation 372  
to exploit its comparative advantages to make strategic 373  
choices about future directions. It should provide the 374  
basis for a detailed implementation plan with project- 375  
by-project milestones and targets. Progress against the 376  
implementation plan should be examined through annual 377  
performance reviews, allowing directions to be revised 378  
where necessary (see more detail below). 379

The strategic plan should set out the organisation's 380  
vision, mission, and major objectives, addressing what 381  
the organisation is, does, and should do, and the reasons 382  
why it does it. Ideally, the focus should be on creating 383  
new knowledge, improving understanding of natural pro- 384  
cesses, and combining knowledge and understanding to 385  
improve predictive capabilities and other useful outcomes 386  
related to national strategic requirements. 387

Ideally, institutes should aim to develop a focused 388  
and integrated programme by picking no more than 3– 389  
5 major objectives in science and logistics, and making 390  
sure (to the extent possible) that they are connected. 391  
The goal is to develop major high quality national and 392  
international science programmes addressing key issues 393  
of global importance in an integrated way. To make an 394  
impact nationally and internationally it is better to have 395  
a few important strands than many disparate ones. The 396  
major scientific and infrastructure objectives would be 397  
underpinned by cross-cutting objectives common to all 398  
organisations: (a) to continually improve the effective- 399  
ness, efficiency and flexibility of the structure, working 400  
mechanisms and practices; and (b) to increase funding to 401  
match requirements, and to maintain a healthy funding 402  
stream. Building partnerships is an essential aspect, re- 403  
cognising that no one nation can 'do it all'. There are 404  
many prospective partner organisations (SCAR, IASC, 405  
for example), not forgetting those with a global remit but 406  
having local polar interests (WCRP for example). 407

#### 408 **Links to universities**

An institute's prestige can be enhanced through strong 409  
formal linkages to key national universities. Such links 410  
would lead to institute scientists giving some lectures 411  
at the university and perhaps being accorded visiting 412  
professor status, as well as exposing students more to the 413  
lure of the polar sciences. 414

University scientists at all levels from undergraduate 415  
to professor should be encouraged to become involved 416  
in polar science programmes, either as assistants or as 417  
joint investigators. Undergraduate and graduate students 418  
could be invited to spend summer seasons working at 419  
institute's research stations or on institute ships, as a 420  
means of exposing them to polar science excitement and 421

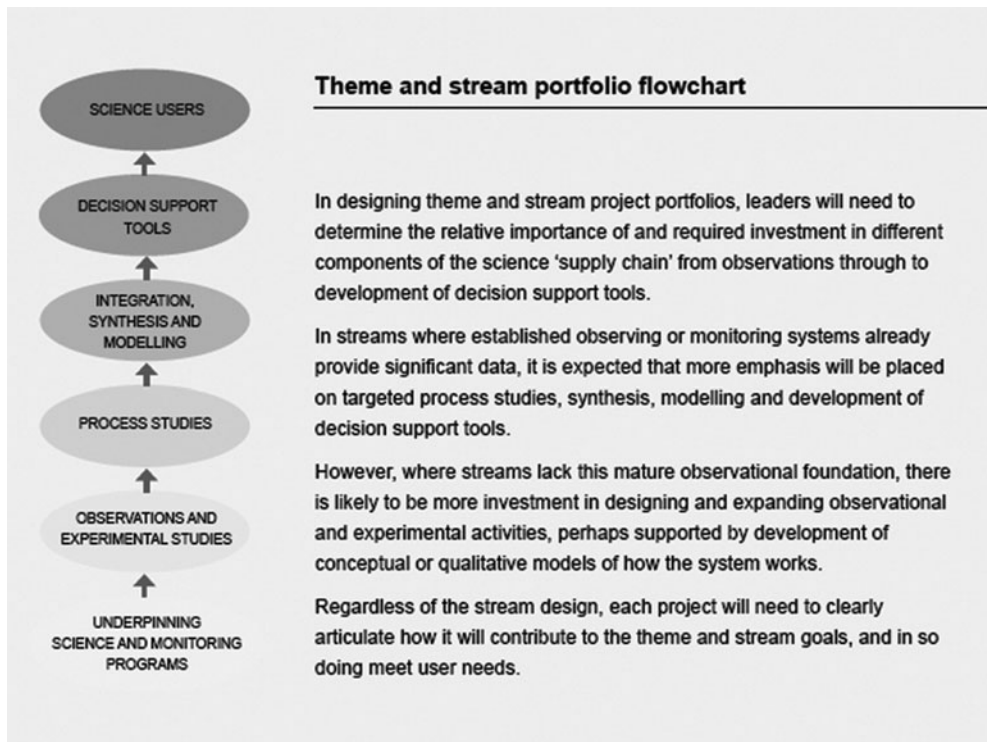


Fig. 1. Example of strategic planning process (Australian Antarctic Division 2011).

422 opportunities. Institutes could encourage universities to  
423 offer course credits for such field activities.

#### 424 Shared facilities

425 Institutes may possess facilities such as bases or ships  
426 that could become platforms for international research.  
427 Icebreakers, for example, are in short supply. More may  
428 be gained from sharing them than from keeping them  
429 just for national use. Following that philosophy, AWI,  
430 for example, makes available the facilities of the RV  
431 *Polarstern*.

#### 432 Productivity

433 Institute managers will need to ensure that scientific pro-  
434 ductivity is high – meaning ideally an average of at least 2  
435 SCI (science citation index) papers per head per year for  
436 permanent science plus support staff, and preferably 3 for  
437 just the permanent science staff. However, managers must  
438 recognise that different sciences have a natural tendency  
439 to produce SCI papers at different rates – for example  
440 because of the relative ease with which microbiological  
441 and genetic papers can be produced from laboratory work  
442 in the life sciences, compared for example with the rate of  
443 publication in Earth system sciences in which extended  
444 field work under harsh conditions is required to gather  
445 the data. To achieve such demanding goals requires that  
446 management (i) makes minimal administrative demands  
447 on scientists' staff time, and (ii) recognises that properly  
448 trained and permanent mechanical and electrical engi-  
449 neering support staff are needed to develop, maintain and  
450 deploy in the field the sophisticated equipment required

to produce data for scientists to work on. Expensively 451  
trained scientists should not be used as equipment tech- 452  
nicians. It is a false economy. 453

#### The planning process 454

All institutes need a strategic planning process. An ex- 455  
ample comes from the Australian Antarctic Science stra- 456  
tegic plan (Australian Antarctic Division 2011) (Fig. 1). 457

Planning processes should focus on: 458

- (i) carrying out leading edge scientific research; 459
- (ii) improving national capabilities for polar research, 460  
by: developing and sharing polar infrastructure 461  
to enhance the scope of the science, and by de- 462  
veloping the next generation of polar researchers 463  
through collaborative research with universities 464  
and other institutions, and through education and 465  
training programmes; 466
- (iii) improving scientific standards: through national 467  
and international collaboration and training at the 468  
highest level with partner institutions; through 469  
increasing publication in high impact interna- 470  
tional scientific journals; and through attempting 471  
to increase participation and leadership in major 472  
international polar science programmes and lo- 473  
gistical and advisory structures. 474
- (iv) managing data and information in such a way as 475  
to make results widely available, and to exchange 476  
them with other polar research institutions. 477

The planning process should engage external advisors 478  
and/or stakeholders in considering what the institute's 479

480 priorities ought to be for the decade ahead, where it is  
481 important to engage in ‘horizon scanning’ to detect future  
482 trends and opportunities as part of a 10-year planning  
483 process.

484 Planning should make the most of an institute’s sev-  
485 eral disciplines, for example by encouraging the develop-  
486 ment of research proposals across divisional boundaries.  
487 Divisional heads must be encouraged to think beyond  
488 their immediate work plans to consider the development  
489 of their science areas in a 10-year time frame, and in the  
490 context of what is happening at the international level.

#### 491 **The research focus**

492 SCAR’s recent horizon scanning process ([www.scar.org/horizonscanning](http://www.scar.org/horizonscanning))  
493 offers a good example of identify-  
494 ing where the big polar challenges lie for the next decade  
495 (for example Kennicutt and others 2014a, 2014b). But  
496 aside from that there are some obvious pressure points:

#### 497 **Climate science**

498 Climate science is needed for a full understanding of  
499 the Earth’s climate system so as to underpin accurate  
500 forecasts of weather and climate, nationally and globally.  
501 Climate research must address the fact that many  
502 aspects of the climate system at both poles are grossly  
503 under-sampled, despite the fact that the climate signal is  
504 amplified and having its greatest effect there (see reports  
505 of the global climate observing system (GCOS) at [www.wmo.int/pages/prog/gcos/index.php?name=Publications](http://www.wmo.int/pages/prog/gcos/index.php?name=Publications)).  
506 Continued investment is needed in the network of  
507 automated weather stations on land (for example  
508 in under-sampled West Antarctica). Sustained  
509 measurements are required of changes in the cryosphere;  
510 and in the ocean, not least in especially remote areas like  
511 the Amundsen Sea, but also *en route* to and from the  
512 polar regions, following the published design plans for an  
513 integrated Arctic Ocean observing system (by IASC) and  
514 SOOS (by SCAR: ([www.soos.aq/resources/publications?view=publications](http://www.soos.aq/resources/publications?view=publications))). The requisite data collection is dual  
515 use, on the one hand providing new observations to test  
516 scientific hypotheses about the operation of the polar  
517 oceans and climate, and on the other hand providing the  
518 monitoring needed by the user community for weather  
519 and climate forecasts. Routine radiosonde measurements  
520 should be an integral part of observations to understand  
521 climate change.

524 To understand climate change, measurements are  
525 also required of ‘geospace’, comprising the upper atmo-  
526 sphere (mesosphere, thermosphere and ionosphere) and  
527 the magnetosphere. These measurements are important  
528 in indicating the occurrence of magnetic storms and  
529 associated disturbances that may interfere with electronic  
530 systems in satellites and at the Earth’s surface. Changes in  
531 the upper atmosphere may propagate down to the Earth’s  
532 surface affecting the climate there.

533 Observations of past climate change, from offshore  
534 piston cores and drill cores, and from onshore ice cores

and rock cores, are also need to provide an accurate  
paleoclimate perspective on climate change.

#### **Life sciences**

Life Sciences contribute significantly to knowledge of  
biodiversity on land and in the ocean, thereby contribut-  
ing to the Antarctic Treaty’s and Arctic Council’s ability  
to practice conservation in the face of issues such as  
climate change and the invasion of species (for example  
via the Committee on Environmental Protection (CEP)  
in the south, and the Conservation of Arctic Flora and  
Fauna (CAFF) in the north). Research is moving toward  
ascertaining the effects on, and responses of, organisms  
to climate change, and working with remote sensing  
specialists to study biological variability with time in  
geographical space. As pointed out by Chown and others  
(2012) a great deal more effort is required by national  
programmes to ascertain the variability of Antarctic bio-  
logical systems, as the basis for an effective conservation  
strategy.

Comprehensive studies are needed of the ways in  
which both marine and terrestrial plants and animals  
have adapted to living in the cold environments of the  
polar regions, where the extreme conditions provide extra  
selection pressure leading to unique features of biochem-  
istry and biology in endemic species; some of these  
cold adaptations (for example antifreeze proteins - AFPs)  
may have commercial application. Science is needed  
to build polar genomic databases. We also continue to  
need more comprehensive information on Antarctic fish  
and their food, all the way from the base of the food  
chain. Studies of the physical, chemical and biological  
oceanography of polar seas will contribute directly to the  
IGBP’s Integrated marine biogeochemistry and ecosys-  
tem research programme (IMBER), the Southern Ocean  
part of which is the Integrated climate and ecosystems dy-  
namics programme (ICED), and would support the work  
of such groups as CCAMLR (the Convention on Circum-  
Antarctic Marine Living Resources) in the south and the  
FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) for its fisheries  
area 18, (the Arctic) and the Arctic Council (for ex-  
ample its Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme  
– AMAP). In addition marine research will contribute  
to environmental protection programmes like the Arctic  
environmental protection strategy (AEPS), and the Arctic  
contaminants action programme (ACAP) of the Arctic  
Council. Continuous plankton recorders (CPRs) can be  
used more widely to sample the upper water column  
and contribute to SCAR’s international circum-Antarctic  
CPR database, which will enable decadal variations in  
Southern Ocean plankton (the base of the food web) to be  
assessed in relation to climate change (a strategic benefit  
to CCAMLR).

#### **Earth sciences**

Ideally, earth sciences should be organised in such a way  
as to contribute to understanding past climate change  
through integrated studies of core samples from both

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591 onshore and offshore. Historically the collection of such  
 592 data and their analysis has been carried out by separate  
 593 marine and terrestrial groups, which is unwise. National  
 594 efforts should be designed to contribute to international  
 595 efforts such as the international trans-Antarctic scientific  
 596 expedition (ITASE), SCAR's shallow ice coring pro-  
 597 gramme on land, which plans to study recent climate  
 598 variability in detail over the past 2000 years so as to  
 599 better understand Antarctica's climate evolution. The  
 600 goal should be to test climate change hypotheses on the  
 601 relatively short time-scale (a few thousand years). The  
 602 over-riding question to be asked of ice cores is 'how has  
 603 climate changed with time and how has that affected the  
 604 environment'. Key (important) climate change questions  
 605 include – (i) how has sea ice changed through time? –  
 606 which may be reflected in ice cores in dimethyl sulphide  
 607 or its derivatives through time; (ii) from which direction  
 608 were the winds blowing through time? This may be  
 609 indicated from sea salt proxy analyses. Combining ice  
 610 core and sediment core studies into one project will create  
 611 a powerful, integrated palaeoclimatic and palaeocean-  
 612 ographic research approach that could lead to major  
 613 breakthroughs in understanding regional climate history  
 614 in the global context.

615 Antarctica offers the prospect of studying active  
 616 geological processes (volcanoes), active glaciological  
 617 processes (behaviour of the glaciers draining the polar  
 618 plateau), and neotectonics. Offshore there are exciting  
 619 opportunities to find and study new hydrothermal vent  
 620 fields on the mid-ocean ridge system around Antarctica.

### 621 **Technology development**

622 Technology development is critical to the success of  
 623 much ocean and Antarctic science, where much sci-  
 624 entific data comes from measuring or observing phe-  
 625 nomena remotely, using instruments. The institutes with  
 626 the best and most novel equipment are able to make  
 627 the biggest breakthroughs in scientific understanding. To  
 628 get the most out of technologies requires investment in  
 629 engineering support teams like those at the Woods Hole  
 630 Oceanographic Institution (WHOI), BAS, AWI, or the  
 631 UK's National Oceanography Centre, which enable the  
 632 development of novel technologies needed for scientific  
 633 breakthroughs. This helps to keep the science at the  
 634 leading edge. Technology development should follow  
 635 the philosophy of 'design for manufacture'. This can be  
 636 achieved by ensuring that new technologies are designed  
 637 by a team comprising the scientists who need the an-  
 638 swers, a technologist/engineer capable of converting the  
 639 scientists' ideas into a design for a piece of equipment,  
 640 and someone from a commercial company who can  
 641 advise on what needs to be built into the design so as  
 642 to make it easy to manufacture and sell if it should  
 643 prove to be successful. It may prove profitable to sell  
 644 equipment designed in this way to others lacking the  
 645 engineering facility to make their own. This is a great  
 646 way to establish scientific leadership by comparative  
 647 technological advantage.

### **Data and information management**

648 Data and Information Management is not an optional  
 649 'add on' to the science. It is fundamental to success.  
 650 Meeting the increasingly complex, multidisciplinary and  
 651 multinational challenges of today's polar science, es-  
 652 pecially in the global context, requires access to an  
 653 extensive base of scientific data and information. One  
 654 of the most useful services institutes can provide to  
 655 the wider scientific community and their own staff is  
 656 comprehensive and integrated high level data and in-  
 657 formation management to facilitate high quality, interdis-  
 658 ciplinary science. This will add value to data that were  
 659 extremely costly to collect, by making them available  
 660 to the wider community for multiple investigations (the  
 661 principle should be 'collect once; use many times').  
 662 Data sharing is also a requirement of the Antarctic  
 663 Treaty. Ideally, data should be managed through a na-  
 664 tional Arctic or Antarctic or polar data centre along  
 665 lines recommended in the SCAR data and information  
 666 management plan (Finney 2013). Metadata should be  
 667 entered into the SCAR Antarctic master directory, and  
 668 national groups should contribute (for Antarctic work)  
 669 to SCAR's Standing committee on data and information  
 670 management (SCADM). Marine data from the Southern  
 671 Ocean can be contributed to SCAR's MarBIN (Marine  
 672 biodiversity information network).  
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### **International scientific linkages**

674 No matter what the country, the international ideas pool  
 675 is far larger than the national ideas pool. To encourage  
 676 researchers to aim for the leading edge of science it is  
 677 important for them to communicate widely, which means  
 678 visiting and spending time at overseas institutions, then  
 679 returning with new ideas, networks and collaborative  
 680 programmes. It also means to engage directly in leading  
 681 edge research internationally, and publishing more in top  
 682 quality international journals, so as to make a bigger  
 683 impact both nationally and internationally. An outward-  
 684 looking approach is essential, with incentives for national  
 685 polar researchers to work jointly with individuals in other  
 686 institutes and universities nationally and with overseas  
 687 scientists, for example through an exchange programme.  
 688 Equally, national researchers should be encouraged to  
 689 become engaged in SCAR and IASC projects and pro-  
 690 grammes and meetings. For example, in the Antarctic,  
 691 existing and future research efforts on King George  
 692 Island (KGI) have the potential to significantly contribute  
 693 to SCAR science, as pointed out in a SCAR document -  
 694 *King George Island and SCAR science* by M.C. Kenni-  
 695 cutt, SCAR President, an invited paper for the COMNAP  
 696 meeting in Punta Arenas, 3 August 2009.  
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### **Capacity building, education and training**

698 In-house mentoring is required for the development of  
 699 young scientists. International scientists can also play a  
 700 role in providing mentoring for individuals. In addition  
 701 institutes might find it useful to devise a strategy for  
 702

703 capacity building, education and training (CBET), so as  
704 to raise individuals' capabilities to the desired level. This  
705 could be based, for example, on the SCAR CBET strategy  
706 (SCAR report 27, [www.scar.org](http://www.scar.org)). It should suggest tar-  
707 gets for 2, 5, and 10-year periods, and recommend a  
708 set of possible performance measures to ensure that the  
709 programme is both efficient and effective.

### 710 **Organisation and management**

711 Effective management of an institute requires application  
712 of leadership, encouragement of excellence, development  
713 of basic management skills, effective communication,  
714 and application of techniques like 'management by res-  
715 ults'. Ideally institute managers down to and including  
716 division chiefs should be trained in management. It  
717 should not be assumed that good scientists may be good  
718 managers without management training. Management  
719 training is win:win in that the individual benefits but so  
720 too does the institute, from the improved performance  
721 of trained individuals. Investments in training are all too  
722 often overlooked as a kind of 'window dressing'. That is  
723 a fatal flaw in the high performance stakes.

724 In selecting science managers, it is wise not to  
725 give them full-time administrative responsibility, as that  
726 would constitute a misuse of scientific talent. A non-  
727 scientist administrative assistant hired for each division,  
728 or shared between them, would take the administrative  
729 load off PhD division chiefs, enabling them to retain  
730 oversight of the activities of their divisions while at the  
731 same time maintaining an involvement in research and so  
732 exerting both scientific and managerial leadership. There  
733 is always the danger that administrative tasks commonly  
734 seem to take on a greater urgency, to the detriment of the  
735 science, which requires a longer lead time.

736 Institutes should ensure to the extent possible that  
737 most of the available money is going into science and  
738 operational support for science rather than into admin-  
739 istration. It should be remembered that administrative  
740 effort can often expand to fill the time available (a sort  
741 of self-justification).

742 Managers should, nevertheless, attend regular science  
743 reviews by scientific staff, so that they can keep a finger  
744 on the pulse. Equally, managers should involve principal  
745 investigators in the design of the annual science plans.  
746 There is always going to be a natural dynamic tension  
747 between control (doing what management wants, which  
748 may not be creative) and creativity (doing what the scient-  
749 ist wants, which may not be strategic). These tensions can  
750 best be resolved through dialogue between management  
751 and staff.

752 Responsibilities for implementation should be de-  
753 veloped to the lowest reasonable level, for example first  
754 to principal investigators (PIs) in charge of teams, and  
755 then to individuals within those teams. Great advances  
756 frequently come from work at the interfaces between dis-  
757 ciplines, so these interfaces should be regularly explored.  
758 To ensure that maximum use is made of opportunities

759 for interdisciplinary research across division boundaries,  
760 there should be annual meetings between all division  
761 heads and PIs, attended by the research director, with the  
762 objective of developing interdisciplinary cross-linkages.  
763 The idea is to encourage cross-fertilisation of ideas, and  
764 to avoid becoming stuck in research silos.

765 All Divisions should engage routinely in scanning  
766 the horizon for new ideas or technologies that might be  
767 incorporated into the project to expand its capabilities.  
768 This is part of the search for comparative advantage that  
769 will keep projects as close as possible to the leading edge  
770 within their particular scientific niche.

771 Developing new strategic directions demands flexib-  
772 ility. It commonly means either (i) finding new money  
773 to employ new staff on a new topic, or (ii) redeploying  
774 current staff from some other (lower priority) topic area  
775 onto the new topic, or (iii) reassigning to the new area  
776 staff posts that become vacant in a topic area no longer  
777 considered high priority. Staff who find themselves in,  
778 or managing, what are determined by management to be  
779 lower priority areas will not be pleased. That is partly  
780 why it is important to demonstrate that the decisions  
781 have been made with advice from a knowledgeable and  
782 respected external advisory board.

783 Science managers must always remember that it is  
784 difficult to get all of their scientists working together  
785 and planning ahead, not least because of the widely  
786 recognised problem that 'managing physicists is like  
787 herding cats' (reputed to be from US Nobel physicist  
788 Richard Feynman). Institute scientists need to appreciate  
789 that the institute exists with the taxpayers money and at  
790 the behest of a government that wants to see results for  
791 its investments. Institute scientists are not free to do as  
792 they wish, only what the structure permits. That does not  
793 mean they are not free to do good science, only that the  
794 good science that they do should fit certain pre-selected  
795 strategic research themes. There is a difference between  
796 what they are employed to do and what is done in a  
797 university.

798 To control that impulse, the challenge is to set specific  
799 top-down directions (research frames or themes) within  
800 which research will be encouraged to meet pre-selected  
801 grand challenges in science that meet the urgent needs  
802 of society. The next step is to encourage the development  
803 of (preferably interdisciplinary) bottom-up proposals that  
804 address the key challenges and issues within the confines  
805 of the frames or themes and over a 10-year time scale.  
806 The third step is to have those proposals externally  
807 reviewed to ensure that the best science is being done  
808 and that the proposers are not reinventing the wheel.  
809 Inviting proposals from the bottom up without that top  
810 down constraint will lead to disintegration rather than  
811 integration.

812 The discipline of proposal writing is a tool to aid  
813 decisions about funding allocations, provided that this  
814 does not lead to disintegration rather than integration of  
815 the science programme. Proposals should be short, so as  
816 not to direct potentially creative science effort into sterile



817 administrative channels. Most scientific effort should go  
 818 into writing research papers, not proposals. The standards  
 819 by which institute proposals are vetted should as tough as  
 820 those for the award of funds to researchers in universities.  
 821 Proposers must express clearly what they want to do, why  
 822 they want to do it, how they propose to do it, what the  
 823 milestones will be, what the outcomes will be, in what  
 824 time frame, and what the overall significance of the work  
 825 is in the longer-term (10-year) context. A clear 10-year  
 826 view of science development is essential for indicating  
 827 probable growth trends in staff numbers and equipment  
 828 needs.

### 829 Performance reviews

830 To facilitate management's engagement with staff, and  
 831 the process of 'management by results', each science  
 832 group within an institute should annually produce a  
 833 written plan indicating the activities it expects to carry  
 834 out, the results that it expects to achieve, the time frame in  
 835 which they should be reached, and the strategic rationale  
 836 for the work. Mature plans should be reviewed by an  
 837 advisory board comprising in-house management and  
 838 external scientific advisors, and only approved if key  
 839 criteria are addressed (including addressing key strategic  
 840 goals) and key outputs are anticipated.

841 Progress against approved plans should be monitored  
 842 regularly by annual formal project review, so that prob-  
 843 lems can be identified and corrective actions taken in  
 844 a timely fashion. Formal reviews should follow an es-  
 845 tablished procedure with paper input indicating stated  
 846 goals, achievements against those goals, publications,  
 847 other measures of success, and indications of where and  
 848 why targets have not yet been met, supported by face-to-  
 849 face presentations to senior management by the research  
 850 teams, and discussions between senior management and  
 851 research teams on progress and plans. The process offers  
 852 opportunities to shift direction if needed.

853 As mentioned above, informal reviews should take  
 854 place within divisions and involve presentations by staff  
 855 on their progress and immediate plans. The reviews are  
 856 designed to enable the teams to work better together, to  
 857 enable individuals to get advice on how to improve their  
 858 performance, and to keep senior management appraised  
 859 of progress. They also offer an opportunity for regular  
 860 feedback up and down the management chain.

861 Wider reviews, of an institute as a whole, from out-  
 862 side, should focus on

- 863 • what the institute's objectives are;
- 864 • what it has to do to meet those objectives;
- 865 • what its progress has been towards those objectives and  
 866 how to measure that progress; and
- 867 • what its achievements and issues are - including how  
 868 to measure and remedy them.

869 Evaluation is a primary task for management, not least to  
 870 ensure that research effort is not wasted. In the UK it has  
 871 been found that some 26% of 621 environmental research

872 grants awarded by the Natural Environment Research  
 873 Council (NERC) in 2002–2004 was considered wasted  
 874 because publication did not feature in the Web of Science  
 875 ([http://thomsonreuters.com/products\\_services/science/science\\_products/a-z/web\\_of\\_science/](http://thomsonreuters.com/products_services/science/science_products/a-z/web_of_science/)). Asking key  
 876 questions helps to identify where efforts may be wasted,  
 877 for example:  
 878

- Are relevant and high priority questions being posed 879  
 for research solutions to policy-related questions? 880
- Are potential stakeholders involved in deciding on the 881  
 relevance of the questions to be addressed, to ensure 882  
 that, to the extent possible, the questions do address 883  
 key strategic goals? 884
- Are qualified external scientists involved in evaluating 885  
 the questions posed, to ensure that they are at the 886  
 leading edge and not mundane. 887
- Are the methods proposed appropriate? Do the pro- 888  
 posed studies take account of existing effort? Do they 889  
 contain biases? 890
- Has consideration been given to engaging partners to 891  
 improve solutions? 892
- Are the results published (in high impact journals) to 893  
 maximise the benefits of the research? Are all results 894  
 reported including negative outcomes? 895
- Are the reports unbiased and usable? Are the studies 896  
 clearly and comprehensively described? 897
- Is best use made of data collected (data should be 898  
 captured and stored in a way that makes it easily 899  
 exchangeable and shareable as a national (and inter- 900  
 national) resource, following the principle of 'capture 901  
 once, use many times. 902

All too often, when reporting, scientists simply set out 903  
 their objectives and describe what actions they took. 904  
 What they should focus on is saying what results they 905  
 found and explaining the significance of those results. 906  
 Writers of scientific papers, of scientific reports, and of 907  
 illustrated presentations should follow the template for a 908  
 typical abstract for a scientific paper, with sections on: 909

1. why you did the work (what hypothesis were you 910  
 testing; or what research question were you trying 911  
 to answer?); 912
2. how you did it (what methods did you use; how 913  
 accurate are they?); 914
3. what the main results were; 915
4. how you interpret them (what do they mean?); 916
5. what the implications are. 917

One aspect affecting the rate of publication is the ability 918  
 of the science staff, or their attitudes. Every attempt 919  
 should be made to recruit the highest possible calibre 920  
 staff, and to ensure that they know what rate of output 921  
 is expected. There are various means to encourage an 922  
 increase in performance, notably a rigorous internal an- 923  
 nual appraisal of individual performance, followed by 924  
 appropriate training and development. Training should 925  
 also encompass how to deal with the extreme hazards 926  
 of working in the polar environment. In addition, there 927

928 has to be a mechanism for ‘letting people go’ if they are  
 929 no longer performing adequately, and it has to be used  
 930 rigorously. No modern science institute can afford to be  
 931 ‘carrying passengers’.

### 932 Summary

933 Polar science operations at land and sea are both unusu-  
 934 ally expensive and potentially hazardous. Extra care in  
 935 management is therefore needed to ensure that the best  
 936 possible results are obtained safely and at the most appro-  
 937 priate cost. Polar research institutes should follow clearly  
 938 defined national strategies focussed on long-term goals  
 939 that are intellectually challenging, address major issues,  
 940 and fit with national priorities. They should address what  
 941 the international community agrees are major challenges,  
 942 and should produce useful outcomes. Best use should  
 943 be made of novel technologies that amplify the limited  
 944 abilities of human researchers. Most major polar chal-  
 945 lenges are beyond the capabilities of individual national  
 946 institutes, and can only be met by working in partnership  
 947 with the university sector and with external partners in-  
 948 ternationally. Sharing and exchanging data are essential,  
 949 especially in the case of making polar observing systems  
 950 work for the benefit of all. Sharing of facilities such as  
 951 bases, ships and aircraft is also essential for full efficiency  
 952 and effectiveness. Institutes should focus their work on  
 953 a limited number of challenging objectives, following  
 954 implementation plans with clear milestones and targets.  
 955 Every effort should be made to ensure that institute staff  
 956 are as productive as university staff and produce papers  
 957 of the same quality, and that the administrative burden is  
 958 kept to an absolute minimum. Interdisciplinary research  
 959 should be encouraged wherever possible, recognising the  
 960 interdependence of organisms and their environment. The  
 961 poles are the world’s freezers. Institutes play a key global  
 role in expanding and managing the supply of informa-

tion about how those freezers operate, for the benefit of 962  
 all. It is critical that those institutes are managed well. 963

### Correspondence 964

Both the author and the Editor would welcome cor- 965  
 respondence on the issues raised in this paper. Such 966  
 contributions might be intended for publication in this 967  
 journal or be private. 968

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