

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/,

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The ICSU document also recommends a shift from:
 Research dominated by disciplinary studies to a more
 balanced mix of disciplinary research and research
 that draws disciplinary expertise into an integrated
 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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278 **The influence of the IPY**

279 The outcomes of the International Polar Year 2007–
2008 (IPY) are helping to determine the future directions
of Arctic and Antarctic science. The IPY portfolio of
science projects (<http://ipy.arcticportal.org/>) provides a
unique 'window' on the future of polar science; many
projects begun during the IPY are continuing well beyond
it. IPY scientific planning and outcomes have set a course
for polar science for years to come, notably with a legacy
of (i) developing and implementing observing systems,
(ii) improving data and information management and
exchange, and (iii) developing the next generation of
researchers. For a comprehensive review see Krupnik and
others (2011). 280
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292 IPY's scientific projects focused on the status of polar
systems, change in polar systems, global linkages, new
frontiers, the poles as vantage points, and the human
dimension. Major scientific topics addressed by IPY
projects included the same broad topics as those listed
above; major themes were the grand challenges of climate
change and biodiversity loss. Recognising the academic
nature of much IPY research, topics included sub-ice
hydrological systems and astronomy and astrophysics. 293
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301 Ideally, following a proposal from the World Met-
eorological Organization (WMO 2011), polar institutes
should work together to address grand scientific and
technological challenges that require a decadal effort in
the polar regions, notably: 302
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➤ developing and maintaining the polar components of
the global Earth observing system; and 306
➤ developing a global integrated polar prediction system
for weather and climate change. 307
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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). 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

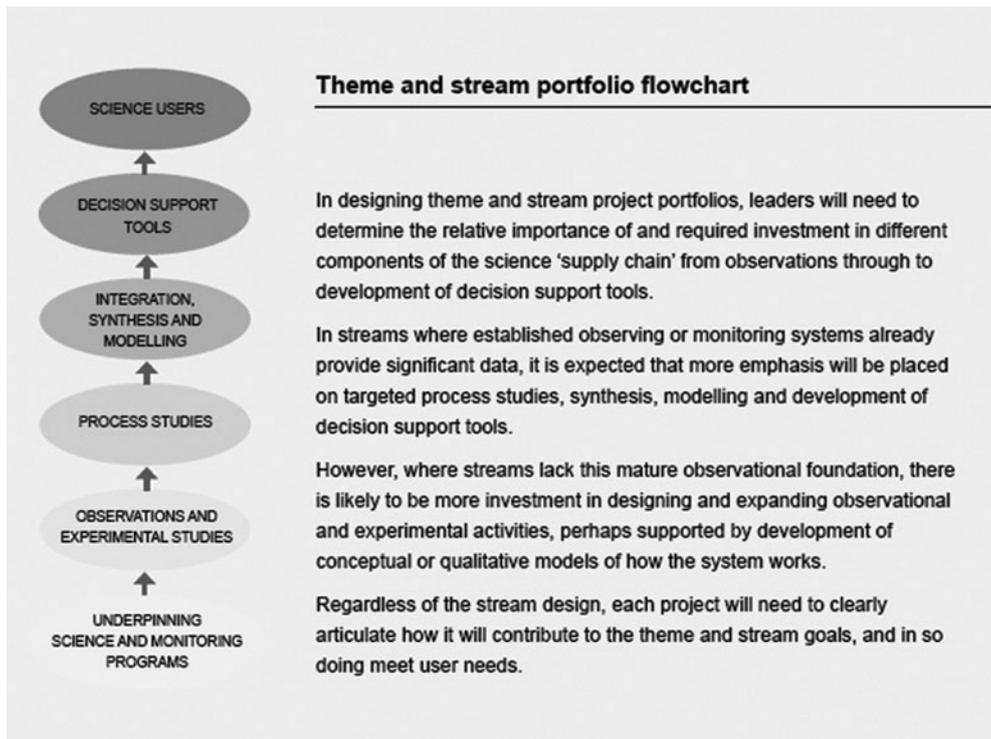


Fig. 1. Example of strategic planning process (Australian Antarctic Division 2011).

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 engin-
449 eering 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)
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).
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)). 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).
 673

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.
 697

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

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

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

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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