



Klaus Dodds

THE ANTARCTIC

A Very Short Introduction



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Chapter 1

Defining the Antarctic

The German geophysicist Alfred Wegener (1880–1930) developed the theory of continental drift, which postulated that the Antarctic was part of an ancient super-continent called Pangaea. Created some 300 million years ago, this super-continent broke up 100 million years later to establish the current configuration of continents. Publicly articulated in 1912, the year of Captain Robert Scott and his party's demise in the Antarctic, Wegener's thesis was made possible in part by educated guesswork but also through accumulating knowledge of the continents, and their underlying geology. The Antarctic continent was the last to be discovered by humans even if its presence was postulated far earlier. In 1773/4, the British explorer Captain James Cook saw at first hand the potential for an additional landmass. Over the following hundred years, outlying islands and the coastal portion of the Antarctic was sighted, charted, and partially explored.

Ushering in a new era of continental exploration and international rivalry, the Antarctic is now as much a symbol of global anxiety (with associated rescue fantasies), as it is a site of ongoing scientific collaboration and knowledge exchange – snow, ice, and the cold are new geopolitical and scientific front lines.

Tracing the Antarctic

The Antarctic has been defined and delineated with reference to latitude, climatic characteristics, ecological qualities, political and legal boundaries, as well as through appeals to its sublime wilderness and endangerment. There is some congruence between these spatial definitions but also important gaps. Some definitions are more tightly defined while others emphasize how the Antarctic might be thought of in more elastic, even fuzzy, terms.

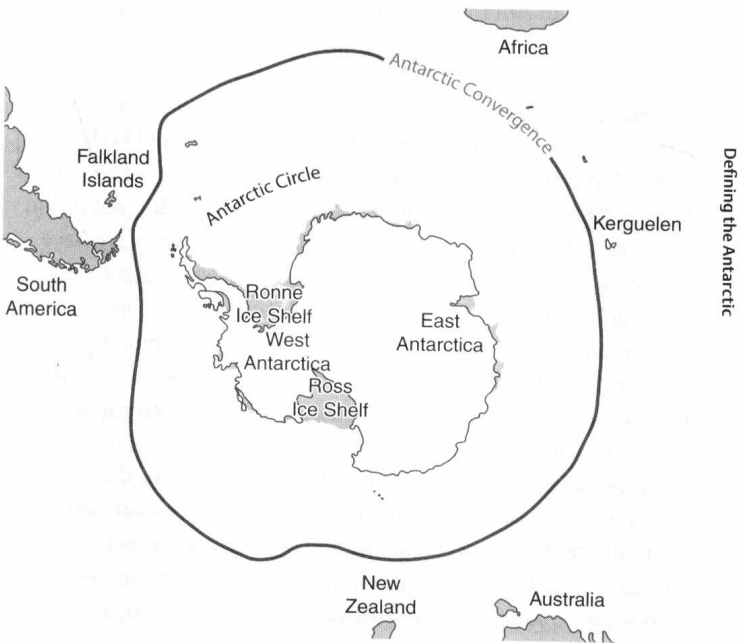
Defining the sub-Antarctic

This refers in the main to island groups that lie close and sometimes north of the Antarctic Convergence – where the colder waters of the Southern Ocean meet the warmer waters of the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans. These groups include Bouvet Island, the Kerguelen Islands, and the South Sandwich Islands. Unlike the Antarctic continent, countries such as Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa exercise sovereignty over these islands. Thus, they are in the main subject to undisputed territorial seas, exclusive economic zones, and continental shelf rights.

However, the ownership of some sub-Antarctic islands, such as South Georgia and South Sandwich, are disputed, in this case involving a long-standing disagreement between Britain and Argentina. In April 1982, the two countries were drawn into conflict over South Georgia and, further to the north, the Falkland Islands/Islas Malvinas. There are other islands, which are not considered sub-Antarctic *sensu stricto*, for example Southern Oceanic islands such as Gough and Auckland.

The Antarctic as an area, according to geographical convention at least, refers to everything below the *Antarctic Circle*, including ice shelves and water. The Antarctic Circle is distinguished from

Antarctica, which refers to the landmass that is the southern polar continent. While the two terms are often used interchangeably, this is a fundamental distinction, as the area south of the Antarctic Circle (defined as 66°S of the Equator) experiences at least one day of continuous daylight every year (the December solstice), and a corresponding period of continuous night-time at least once per year (the June solstice). When it comes to the governance of the Antarctic, the *Antarctic Convergence* (see Figure 1) has also been used to manage activities such as fishing.



1. The Antarctic Convergence represents an important climatic boundary between air and water masses, and is also an approximate boundary for the Southern Ocean, surrounding the Antarctic continent. The water around the land mass is cold and with a slightly lower salinity than north of the convergence zone. The area is also rich in nutrients, providing a key support for the ecosystems in the Southern Ocean

Geographical latitude is only one possible register of the Antarctic. For the Swedish geologist Otto Nordenskjöld, writing in 1928, the polar regions were defined by their coldness. Characterized as desert-like, with annual precipitation of only 200 millimetres along the coast and less in the interior, only specially adapted plant and animal life was thought to be able to endure. As Nordenskjöld concluded, 'Nowhere on earth is nature so completely and directly characterized by the daily regular weather – by what we might call the normal climate – as in the polar lands.' Temperatures in the interior of the continent can be as low as -50°C and, at their very worst, -89°C , recorded at the Soviet/Russian Antarctic research station on the polar plateau called Vostok.

The Antarctic Convergence (sometimes termed the 'Antarctic polar front' or the 'polar frontal zone'), where the cold body of water that is the Southern Ocean meets the warmer waters of the Indian, Pacific, and Atlantic Oceans, provides another definition of the Antarctic. Rather than a latitudinal delineation, we have here an oceanographic/climatic frontier that acts as a zone of transition emphasizing movement and connection. The convergence itself varies from year to year, depending on sea temperature and climatic trends. So these are flows that make, remake, and unmake a zone of some 30–50 kilometres in width, encircling the polar continent, and stretching north of South Georgia and Bouvet Island. It roughly coincides with the mean February isotherm (10°C) and lies around 58°S , considerably north of the Antarctic Circle. Air and sea surface temperatures change markedly once one crosses the Antarctic Convergence. In resource management terms, the Antarctic Convergence is significant because of the wealth of marine life, especially plankton and shrimp-like krill – the food of choice of birds, fish, and whales – that is found there. As such, it also means that fishing stocks and sea birds tend to be concentrated around the Antarctic Convergence, leading to greater interest in managing these areas of the Southern Ocean.

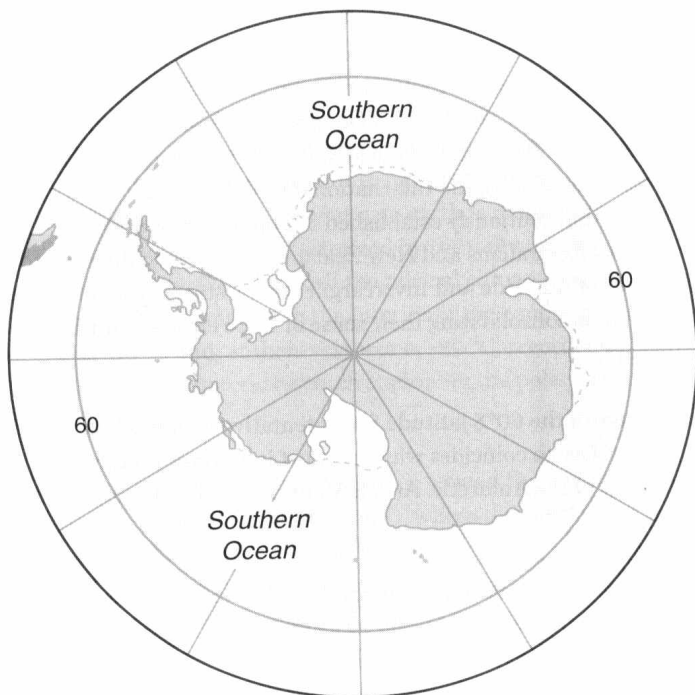
Unlike the zonal qualities of the Antarctic Convergence, the Southern Ocean is often defined as being south of 60°S latitude, and thus encircling the continent. There is a disagreement, however. Does the Southern Ocean possess a more northerly boundary? While Captain James Cook used the term to describe the vast seas of 50°S, the International Hydrographic Organization cautiously established the boundary at 60°S in 2000. For Australians and New Zealanders, however, the water off the cities of Adelaide and Invercargill are the start of the Southern Ocean, thus consolidating their sense of these cities as 'Antarctic gateways'.

The usage of the 60°S latitude for its tentative definition of the Southern Ocean coincides with the most important political definition of the Antarctic. Article VI of the 1959 Antarctic Treaty notes:

The provisions of the present Treaty shall apply to the area south of 60° South Latitude, including all ice shelves, but nothing in the present Treaty shall prejudice or in any way affect the rights, or the exercise of the rights, of any State under international law with regard to the high seas within that area.

This area of application entered into force in June 1961.

These lines and zones are just one way of tracing the Antarctic. In a more imaginative sense, we might acknowledge appeals to the sublime and wilderness. For 19th- and 20th-century explorers and scientists, the Antarctic was as much traced via the sublime as it was tentatively mapped and charted. As a literary expression, this notion refers to the capacity of things in nature to overwhelm the human mind by their sheer grandeur and immense possibility. A place or landscape might, as a consequence, inspire awe or provoke terror. So the sublime refers to something beyond the calculable and measurable, and more to a state of mind. The Antarctic in this particular sense is a true frontier of the human,



2. The Antarctic Treaty's Zone of Application

and a testing ground of men in particular. Apsley Cherry-Gerrard's memoir of Scott's last expedition, *The Worst Journey in the World* (1922), memorably referred to the Antarctic as a place of privation and suffering. As he noted caustically, 'Polar exploration is at once the cleanest and most isolated way of having a bad time which has been devised.' But it could also be compelling, as Cherry-Gerrard noted, 'And I tell you, if you have the desire for knowledge and the power to give it physical expression, go out and explore.'

The notion that the Antarctic landmass should be defined by its wilderness qualities is explicitly noted in Article 3 of the 1991

Protocol on Environmental Protection, which demands that Antarctic Treaty Consultative Parties (ATCP) commit themselves to the 'protection of the Antarctic environment...and the intrinsic value of Antarctica, including its wilderness and aesthetic values'. As well as for its own sake, Antarctica's wilderness values matter when considered as part of an ongoing global debate about the fate of the planet. Recent television programmes (e.g. the BBC's *Frozen Planet*), films (e.g. *The March of the Penguins*), music (e.g. Peter Maxwell Davies's *Antarctic Symphony*), art (e.g. Anne Noble's *British Petroleum Map*), and novels (e.g. Kim Stanley Robinson's *Antarctica*) suggest that the idea of the Antarctic landmass as wilderness provokes fascination, but also anxiety about what damage we might be doing as a human community to it. Are economic and ecological meltdown co-producing one another?

Thus, as we ponder some of the region's diverse human and physical geographies, our regional scope will extend northwards of the Antarctic Circle to encompass the northern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula, and islands such as Campbell, Prince Edward Islands, South Orkneys, and South Georgia, as well as the Southern Ocean. When we consider the Antarctic more broadly, whether it be culturally, economically, politically, or environmentally, our terms of reference will need to be ever more flexible to acknowledge bi-polar, global, and even extra-terrestrial connections, including the Moon (for parallels with Earth).

Making and unmaking the Antarctic

A satellite composite image of the Antarctic, a rather recent representation of the region, reveals a continent composed of two parts – East and West Antarctica with the western section characterized by a serpentine tail pointing towards the southern tip of the South American continent. The Southern Ocean is far removed from other continents and accompanying centres of population. The continent itself encompasses some 14,000,000

square kilometres, some 6,000,000 square kilometres larger than the United States. The coastline encompasses nearly 18,000 kilometres and is composed of a mixture of ice shelves, ice walls, rock and ice streams. The Antarctic ice sheet covers about 98% of Antarctica, and is on average 1.6 kilometres thick and some 25 million cubic kilometres in volume. The continent contains 90% of the world's ice and 70% of the world's fresh water. If the ice sheet was to melt in its entirety, then sea water levels would, it is believed, rise by some 60 metres, with devastating consequences for lower-lying regions around the world.

But this satellite image, however striking, is misleading. The Antarctic is the world's most unstable space, with extraordinary changes being recorded every year in terms of snow accumulation and sea ice extent. The satellite image literally freeze frames. Every September, in the late winter period, the size of the continent effectively doubles. A large area of the Southern Ocean extending more than 1,000 kilometres from the coastline is temporarily covered in sea ice. This capacity to alter has, over time, played havoc with attempts to map and chart the Antarctic. Countless explorers and mariners have discovered to their cost that existing maps are hopelessly inaccurate, and that there is a rich tradition of islands and coastlines being in the 'wrong place' or simply 'disappearing'.

Geologically, the Antarctic has a long and complex history, its composition ranging from Precambrian crystalline rock to glacial deposits of a recent vintage. Some of the world's oldest rock is found in the Antarctic, dating back some three billion years. Geological evidence suggests that the Antarctic has not always been characterized by the snow and cold; it was, for much of its history, a green continent. Sedimentary rocks, to be found in the Antarctic Peninsula region, reveal fossilized tropical ferns and pollen specimens, while coal deposits in the Trans-Antarctic Mountains suggests a climate favouring temperate vegetation. In the Cambrian era (590 to 505 million years ago), what we now term Antarctica