

МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЕ КОНТАКТЫ ААНИИ В ПЕРИОД ХОЛОДНОЙ ВОЙНЫ

Ю.А. Лайус

*Лаборатория экологической и технологической истории
Центра исторических исследований
Школы гуманитарных наук и искусств
НИУ Высшая школа экономики, Санкт-Петербург*

jlajus@hse.ru

Основные концепции:

- Циркуляция знания
- Инфраструктуры знания – устойчивые сети людей, институтов, инструментов и других артефактов, позволяющие производить, поддерживать и передавать знания (Paul Edwards).
- Медиаторы, научная дипломатия
- Ограниченный интернационализм

Основные центры полярных исследований в 1950-х – 1960 х гг.



АНИИ, Ленинград, СССР



В.В. Фролов



Арктический институт
Северной Америки,
Монреаль, Канада



Полярный институт
им. Р.Скотта, Кембридж,
Великобритания



G. C. G. C. L. Bertram

Изучение морского льда и ледников



Шведский полярный гляциолог Ханс Альман, посещал ААНИИ в 1934, 1945, 1958 и 1960 гг.

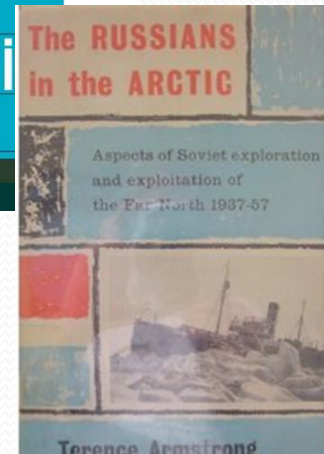
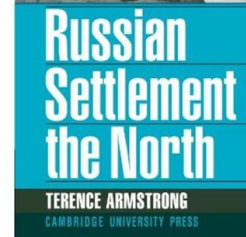
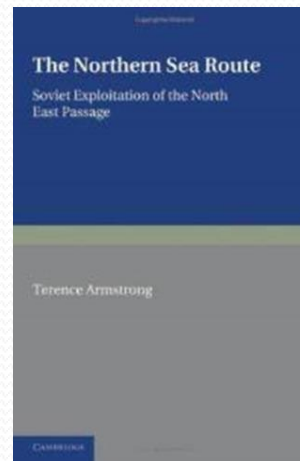


П.А. Гордиенко,
ААНИИ

Arctic Sea Ice Conference,
Easton, Maryland, США, февраль 1958



Книги Т.Е. Армстронга



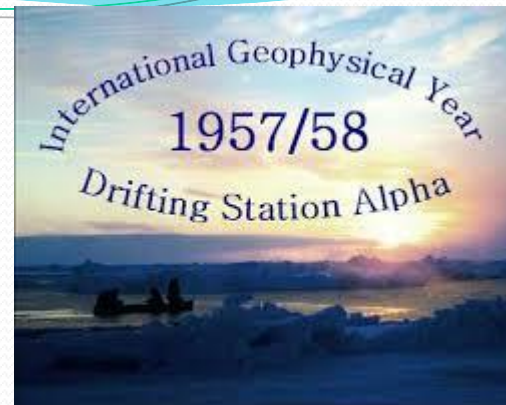
**Теренс Армстронг (Terence Armstrong),
Полярный институт им. Скотта
Визиты в ААНИИ в 1956, 60, 65 гг.**



Ллойд первый использовал
термин циркумполярный
север **Circumpolar North**
в политико-экономическом
контексте в 1969.

Тревор Ллойд
Trevor Lloyd
Географ Университета МакГилл,
Монреаль, Канада,
посещал ААНИИ в 1958 и 1960 г.

Норберт Унтрештайнер NORBERT UNTERSTEINER



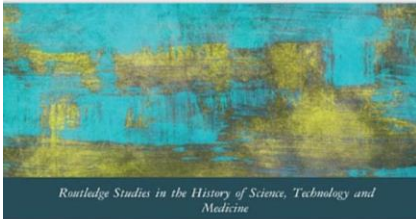
В середине 1970s гг. в период улучшения советско-американских отношений сотрудники ААНИИ работали по несколько месяцев в Полярном научном центре Университета штата Вашингтон в Сиэттле, организованном Унтрештайнером .

Arctic Ice Dynamics Joint Experiment (AIDJEX); Arctic Buoy Program как часть the Global Atmospheric Research Program (GARP)

12 Institutions and the changing nature of Arctic research during the early Cold War

Lize-Marié van der Watt, Peder Roberts and Julia Lajus

Historians of science have long recognized that bricks-and-mortar institution play central roles in the production of knowledge, and in the creation and maintenance of cultures that facilitate that production. Studies of early modern learned societies have emphasized their role as meeting-place where experiments were conducted and facts agreed upon, with these processes embedded within the political and cultural contexts of their time and places.¹ The flowering of these societies under royal patronage across Enlightenment-era Europe pointed to their additional function as emblem of national achievement: tributes to the vitality of a society and its monarch. In the nineteenth century, the acquisition and collation of geographical and cartographical knowledge at locations such as the British Admiralty produced new linkages between states and learned societies.² As Felix Driver has argued in the case of Britain's Royal Geographical Society (RGS), guideline for geographical knowledge production helped to constitute and to manage



Routledge Studies in the History of Science, Technology and Medicine

COLD SCIENCE

ENVIRONMENTAL KNOWLEDGE IN THE NORTH AMERICAN ARCTIC DURING THE COLD WAR

Edited by Stephen Bocking and Daniel Heidt



Melting the glacial curtain: the politics of Scandinavian–Soviet networks in the geophysical field sciences between two polar years, 1932/33–1957/58

Julia Lajus^{a,b} and Sverker Sörlin^{c,d}

^aDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^bCenter for Environmental and Technological History, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, 1404, Trondheim, Norway
^cDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^dDepartment of Environmental and Technological History, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, 1404, Trondheim, Norway

Abstract

While providing a brief background of the development of Scandinavian–Russian relations in the polar sciences in the early 20th century, this paper focuses on the period from the 1930s when the Swedish geographer Hans Almqvist and Norwegian oceanographer Harald Høivind developed a continuity of the Soviet Union as a field for the practice of Arctic science. Visit of the Arctic Research Institute in Leningrad to 1934 further enhanced Almqvist's sympathy and in 1935 he founded the Society for the Promotion of Cultural and Scientific Relations between Sweden and the Soviet Union. After further wartime collaboration, Almqvist returned to the Soviet Union in 1938 and 1940 as president of the International Council of Geographical Sciences, being his longtime Soviet contacts to persuade the Soviet Central Committee to issue a key figure in maintaining the flow of scientific information between East and West. New materials from archives open perspectives for better understanding of the international connections and transfer of knowledge in geophysical and geographical sciences in this limited period. The key message from this paper is that while institutions did exist and generated scientific with differential capacities, they still managed to find ways to undertake fruitful scientific collaborations even under political restrictions and small sometimes play political roles.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

In a radio broadcast shortly after the outbreak of World War II, Winston Churchill, then First Lord of the Admiralty, uttered his famous words about the Soviet Union and its role in the war that lay ahead. It cannot forecast to you the action of Russia. It is, in a word, we argued in a meeting inside an engine, but perhaps there is a key. That key is Russian national interest.³ This image has become a common shorthand for many aspects of Soviet security in the interwar years, through World War II and into the Cold War. It has also been used to describe Soviet science. Depicted as participants in a complex enterprise held tight by the state and ideologically

approved, Soviet scientists were often envisioned conducting research in secret laboratories and institutes located in remote 'show towns'.⁴ Similar notions were applied to Arctic science, which had developed rapidly in the Soviet Union. Arctic research was conducted in a research institute in Leningrad, in several university departments both in Leningrad and Moscow and on ice floes and field stations in or near the Arctic Sea.⁵ What could the secretive Russians be up to? Certainly nothing good. . .

While this image is not altogether false, it is certainly far from complete. Contrary to common beliefs, the Soviet Arctic science

¹ Compagnon, *Imaginaire*.
² Email address: geography@geography.cam.ac.uk.
³ News for BBC broadcast 1 October 1939 entitled 'First month of war' in Churchill Collection, Churchill College, Cambridge, UK. See http://www.archives.gov.uk/pdfs/newsforbbc_011039.pdf. See also: <http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-1939-10-01>.
⁴ For a recent discussion on a one-sided approach to the analysis of the Soviet science by contemporary western scholars and its consequences in last two decades see: Kopylov and K. Kold, *Introduction: Intelligence science inside and outside Russia*, *White 2008*, 1–30, pp. 11–13.
⁵ On Arctic concept as a part of Soviet propaganda in the 1930s see: M. G. Kozlov, *Red Arctic: Polar Exploration and the Myth of the North in the Soviet Union, 1912–1939*, New York, 2004.



Strategic Arctic science: national interests in building natural knowledge – interwar era through the Cold War

Ronald E. Doel^{a,b}, Robert Marc Friedman^c, Julia Lajus^{c,d}, Sverker Sörlin^{c,d} and Urban Wärbäck^e

^aDepartment of History, The Florida State University 401 Bellamy Bldg., Tallahassee, FL 32306-2010, USA
^bInstitute for Advanced Study, Princeton University 304A, Princeton, NJ 08542, USA
^cCenter for Environmental and Technological History, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Trondheim, Norway
^dDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^eDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^fDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^gDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^hDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
ⁱDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^jDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^kDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^lDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^mDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
ⁿDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^oDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^pDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^qDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^rDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^sDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^tDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^uDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^vDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^wDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^xDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^yDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation
^zDepartment of History, National Research Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, 190023, Russian Federation

Abstract

From the 1830s through the 1950s—the decades bracketing the second and third international polar years—research in the physical and biological environmental sciences of the Arctic increased dramatically. The heroic, expedition-based style of Arctic science, dominant in the first decades of the twentieth century, gave way to a systematic, long-term, strategic and largely state-funded model of research which increased both Arctic presence and the volume of research output. Factors that made this change possible were distinct for each of the five circumpolar nation states considered here. For Soviet scientists the Arctic was an uncharted land containing vast economic resources, it with the reach of its long-neglected Russian Far East. Soviet officials sought environmental knowledge of this region with a range of motivations from economic and strategic concerns to enhancing the prestige of socialism. In contrast, United States officials largely ignored the Arctic until the outbreak of World War II, when military commanders quickly grasped the strategic importance of this region. As a result the Arctic might become a hot battleground between East and West by 1947, as the Cold War began. Post-war leaders funded six northern research programs, including in Sweden, in Canada, in the United States, and in Norway. While appreciating the national security concerns of its powerful southern neighbor—were even more concerned with maintaining sovereignty over its northern territories and gaining knowledge to assist its northern economic ambitions, Norway and Sweden, in particular, states, faced distinct challenges. With strong claims to Arctic heritage but limited resources, leaders of these states sought to create independent research institutes while, especially in the case of Norway, protecting their geopolitical interests in relation to the Soviet Union and the US. This article provides the first internationally comparative study of the multiple economic, military, political, and strategic factors that motivated scientific activities and programs in the far north from the interwar period through World War II and the Cold War, when carefully coordinated, nation-based research programs were introduced. The production of knowledge about Arctic's physical environment—including its changing climate—had little resemblance either to state-of-the-art practices, or responses to perceived environmental concerns. Instead, it demonstrates that strategic military, economic, geopolitical, and national security concerns influenced and shaped most science undertakings, including those of the International Polar Year of 1932–1933 and the following polar year, the International Geophysical Year of 1957–1958.

© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Arctic; Polar; Science; Cold War; IPCC; UK; United States; Canada; Soviet Union; Norway; Sweden; Environment

^{*} Corresponding author.
 E-mail address: rodoel@fsu.edu, robert.friedman@fsu.edu, jlajus@postbox.com, sorlin@postbox.com, urban.waerback@postbox.com.

0921-7885 – see front matter © 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhig.2013.12.004>

Публикации