



PELOTASMUN
LET PEACE BE OUR QUEST / 2015

STUDY GUIDE

UNITED NATIONS SECURITY COUNCIL:

TOPIC A: THE SITUATION IN ARCTIC POLAR CIRCLE



Letter from the Chair

Dearest delegates,

First and foremost let us welcome you to the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) of the Third Edition of Pelotas Model United Nations! We are so glad you have chosen the UNSC as your committee and we are absolutely sure we will experience together the richest and the most rewarding discussions concerning International Peace and Security, within the UN's highest organ.

It is an immense pleasure to be part of the Director's board of the Security Council. We have worked during these last few months, willing to expose satisfactorily the issues raised in this committee and we hope that at the end of this reading you are provided with the necessary information to base your studies and have a good use of the future Council meetings.

This welcome letter precedes a briefing packet with information on the conflicts, its histories and a few of the past attempts at its resolutions. Hoping to clarify and allow a fruitful debate on these recent evolutions, we have chosen to bring to discussion two very particular situations in the Security Council's agenda: "The situation in Arctic Polar Circle" and the "Security Threats in the Gulf of Guinea"

The Security Council of the 3rd Pelotas MUN is organized by 8th semester International Relations students at the Federal University of Pelotas: Alexandre Barneche, Anelise do Pró, Juliana Hepp and Matheus Hermógenes. We are especially thankful to Prof. Daniel Carvalho, for lending us some of his experience and guidance throughout the construction of this Study Guide. In order to allow this discussion to happen, we are fully available to solve any doubts and questions that may appear during your preparation process. Our every effort is directed to the production of an enjoyable discussion and unique experience to all.

Best Regards,

Alexandre Barneche, Anelise do Pró, Juliana Hepp & Matheus Hermógenes

UNSC Directors.



Introduction

Created in 1945, the United Nations Security Council holds the primary responsibility for the maintenance of International Peace and Security, following the aftermath of the Second World War. To properly achieve such goals, the Council was designed as the most important organ of the UN, being the only whose resolutions had effective binding power upon all Member States of the UN. In this sense, the UNSC has its attributions and powers specified in Chapter V of the UN Charter.

Originally composed by eleven members, the UNSC had the number of seats expanded to fifteen on August 31st, 1965, with the entry into force of an amendment to article 23 of the UN Charter, approved by the UN General Assembly on December 17th, 1963. Moreover, it is also in the Council's mandate the right to authorize the use of force through peacekeeping operations or military coalitions and also to impose economic and military sanctions, but always as a last resort, when all negotiations have failed. Therefore, the UNSC's first actions when a complaint is brought before it are to recommend to the parties to try and reach a peaceful solution. At last, the UNSC may recommend the suspension or expulsion, by the General Assembly, of a Member State that recurrently violates the principles of the UN Charter (UN Charter, 1973).

The UNSC is formed by fifteen members, of which five are permanent and ten are selected by the General Assembly for two year terms, starting on January 1st, with five replaced each year. The five permanent members of the Security Council are the People's Republic of China (PRC), the French Republic, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the United States of America (USA).

They hold the rule of "great power unanimity" what is commonly known as veto power, that is, for any resolution to be approved it needs the concurring vote of these five States, meaning that if one of them is against, it will



automatically fail. Procedural matters are not subject to a veto, so the veto cannot be used to avoid discussion of an issue.

Since 1971, the People's Republic of China replaced the Nationalist China (Formosa, or Taiwan) as a permanent member. With the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991, Russia has replaced it as a permanent member.

Since 2014, the first five temporary members of the UNSC are Chad, Chile, Jordan, Lithuania and Nigeria. In 2015, five new members were elected by the General Assembly, namely Angola, Spain, Malaysia, New Zealand and Venezuela.

An historical background

The legal treatment of the Arctic region

The legal treatment of the North Pole (Arctic) is quite simple, justified by the fact that few economic interests present themselves; however it is not what we have seen on the few last years. Unlike what is seen on the South Pole, there is no land mass in the arctic region. What exists is mainly frozen sea water dissolved by the heat of summer, offering easier penetration by sea route and some housing in some small islands located there. Besides, the frozen water from the North Pole does not compose any continental region. The climate in the Arctic, considering its latitude, is less cold in relation to the South Pole region.

The Arctic region has over 30 million kilometers and twenty-four time zones, and a population of about four million people, having also vast natural resources. It is located to the north where the Arctic Ocean lies, and the region is almost completely enrolled in the Arctic Circle. There are local indigenous cultures - Eskimos - who are adapted to cold and extreme conditions (sparse vegetation and polar night); and it is a sensitive region to climate change, their reactions reverberate widely to the global environment.

In addition, the Arctic region is located in international waters; the North Pole belongs to everyone, that is, to no State in particular. It is governed by the United Nations International Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), which declares to be the seabed, located beyond national jurisdiction, "common heritage of mankind". This Convention was signed in 1982 and ratified in late 1994.

In some regions in which it is possible to speak of effective occupation, the problem of acquisition of territory is solved by applying the so-called theory of the sectors or area of attraction. The initial conception was in 1907 on studies by Canadian Senator Pascal Poirier, and it was systematized in 1926 by the Russian jurist V.L.Lakhtine who published the famous monograph entitled "*Prava in*

Severnye polyamyje prostranstva, meaning duties on Arctic regions". This theory assigns to certain European and American countries the ownership rights in respect of regions of the North Pole that would be simple extension of the territories of those countries, not knowing immediately any securities of contiguity or fictitious occupation. The theory of sectors intended to confer the so-called "Arctic States" sovereignty over the icy waters circulating the North Pole, but only justified by the principle of contiguity, the domain of existing islands in the area, eight hundred kilometers or more from the point of convergence. Therefore, these sectors are embodied in the projection on the pole: the north coast of Canada (covering the Sverdrup Islands), Denmark (because of Greenland), the south coast of Finland, Sweden, Norway (reaching the archipelago of Spitzbergen) and Russia (reaching Wrangel Island and the archipelago of Franz Joseph, among other plots of land). The United States of America became an Arctic nation upon the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867.



Source: National Research Council

Relying on the principle of contiguity, the States claim to have territorial control over these islands. Through unilateral acts, this fact apparently does not raise any objection on the part of the international society. However, in the legal doctrine a few lawyers claim that natural proximity does not constitute grounds for validity for the acquisition of sovereign rights over such islands. One author is

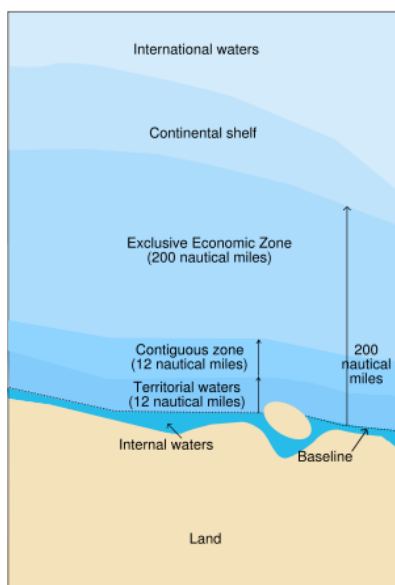
Ian Brownlie, for whom this principle remains a "gross delimitation method", which has "the defects of any doctrine based on contiguity".

With the advent of UNCLOS in 1982, the consistency of the theory of sectors became increasingly questioned. Today, the Treaty is the primary source of law comprising the Arctic, although, ironically, it does not make a literal reference to the region on any of its devices. Therefore, the Arctic does not have, under the Convention, a specific provision regarding the legitimacy of the occupation of its islands, leaving the question in charge of international norms of positive law and customary law, the same way as all other regions of the globe. The main peculiarity of the region, the presence of ice throughout the majority of the year, finds only the provision of Article 234, which is open to multiple understandings and would require a stronger interpretation.

The legal treatment thus dispensed to the Arctic region has always been subject to intense debate in the international legal doctrine.

The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea

The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea rules all the juridical matters about the international Waters use and determinations of the territorial Waters of the signatory countries. The UNCLOS defines legal terms about contiguous zone, exclusive economic zone, territorial and internal waters and baseline as illustrated in the following map.



In the Arctic context, the importance of a law that rules the Sea is intrinsically connected to the relation between the maritime and the land areas of the zone. This region is mainly composed by water and the land possessions that each country owns are substantially lands.

Therefore, The UNCLOS is of extreme relevance in a moment when the spotlights are back to Arctic due to the opening of new maritime routes, as well as for the economic exploitation of natural resources and the militarization of the region.

Across the years, the UNCLOS signatories arctic countries (excepted by the United States), may present claims of sovereignty to the United Nations over the land or waters (sea floor). Canada and Norway did it in the last decade, and in the end of 2014, the Kingdom of Denmark along with its territory of Greenland submitted to the UN a claiming of a 900,000-km² area.

For its turn the Russian Federation Minister of Natural Resources stated that in partnership with the Foreign Affairs Ministry, the country will submit a claiming of a 1,2 million km² area this year of 2015.

If both submissions pass, the definition shall be done in bilateral negotiations as already happened with Russia and Norway and as fixed by the Ilulissat Declaration signed in 2008 by the coastal states of the Arctic Ocean.

An historical overview

The region, for its own geo-climatic characteristics, had never been the subject of territorial or political disputes until the early twentieth century. The difficulty of navigation and the impossibility of a satisfactory settlement on the North Pole were sufficient reasons to keep the region away from the interests of big nations. Indeed, in the last century, only indigenous ancestral peoples of the region, most companies Inuit hunters, inhabited the Arctic.

The interests panorama in the Arctic region starts suffering changes in the mid of 1920. The resulting technological development causes in 1926 the first transarctic flight, opening the door to the exploitation of the region. The so-called

"Arctic Fever" lasted from 1925 to 1930, and it was characterized by increased expeditions to the region, with the discovery of several islands, national flags and raising claims of sovereignty over the North Pole.

The Arctic held a huge geostrategic importance during the Cold War, when it was the area of greatest concentration of nuclear forces of the Soviet Union and where it parked its powerful fleet resulting from strategic concept presented by the Commander of the Soviet Navy Admiral Sergei Georgievich Gorshkov. After the Cold War the importance of the region was decreasing but new factors have emerged and made the world begin once again to look into the Arctic, no longer exclusively in a military perspective but also from an economic one.

One of the factors that contributed most to this new situation was the report USGS World Petroleum Assessment 2000 which estimated that about 25% of unexploited world reserves of oil and natural gas are in the Arctic.

The combination of this one fact and other two factors were essential for the reappearance of interest in the Arctic. The adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982 and the dismantling of the USSR.

Arctic as a store of natural resources

Between 1999 and 2011, the price of oil went from \$ 17 to \$ 115 per barrel. The new reserves found, for example the Brazilian pre-salt layer exploration is difficult and expensive, and in major producing countries, North Africa and the Middle East, political instability is a constant threat to the world supply. All this has made the world look into the Arctic as a new El Dorado. Its reserves have remained intact until present time, because they were almost unreachable. In addition to the severe and extreme cold, the long days with few hours of light and strong winds, the Arctic has much of its frozen extension preventing economic exploitation on a large scale.

Nevertheless, climate change is transforming the situation with particularly severe consequences in the Arctic, as in a global context, the effects are amplified in the higher latitudes. It is expected that the warming of the Arctic may be more than twice the global average - from 3 to 4 Celsius - the next 50 years.



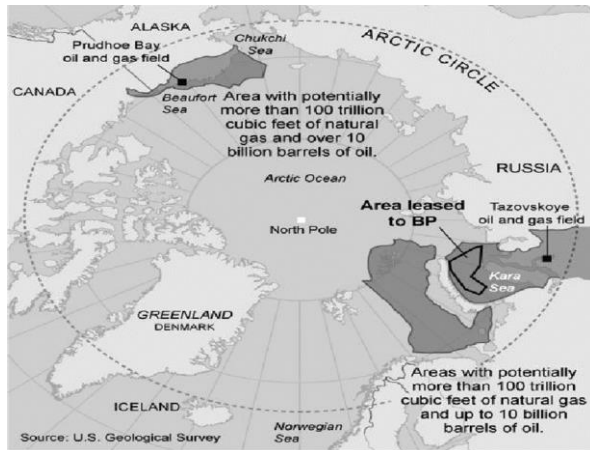
As a result, the ice cap is shrinking and becoming increasingly thin. In 2007, the thickness of ice in the Arctic seas, monitored by satellite for nearly three decades, reached a record low. On some forecasts the ice of late summer will disappear by the end of this century.

The resources that the melting will exhibit are not yet known but it is estimated that the Arctic are 13% of the full potential of undiscovered oil reserves in the world and 30% of gas, according to data compiled by Heather Conley, a researcher at the center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS) in the US. In this region, there are vast amounts of nickel, iron, plutonium and rare land according to the scientist. It could supply 25% of the global demand for rare land core in the new digital technologies.

The changes to explore these vast resources have begun. A report on the geopolitical and economic changes in the Arctic, published in 2012 by the Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS) of the United States shows how the decline in oil production close to the region - especially from Alaska and Norway - has led countries to advance the exploration into the Arctic. A big step in that direction was taken in 2012, when Shell company started drilling wells in the Beaufort Sea, northeast of Alaska - an initiative strongly criticized by environmentalists, especially Greenpeace that published on their website a petition to prevent the company from continuing its purpose.

According to the US Geological Survey:

“The vast area of Arctic is inhabited only by 4 million people what has an inestimable value in the field of international security in comparison to political situation in the populous Middle East. Besides, it is a transparent possibility for Arctic countries to take an international advantage on this argument. Estimations up to 2030 argue that more than 90% of Arctic energy resources will be in Russian and American (Alaskan) possession (see the map below).”



The Arctic Council

As composition of international environmental law of the Arctic, it is worth mentioning the Arctic Council. In 1996, the Ottawa Declaration formally established the Arctic Council as a high-level intergovernmental forum to provide a means for promoting cooperation, coordination and interaction among the Arctic States, with the involvement of the Arctic Indigenous communities and other Arctic inhabitants on common Arctic issues; in particular, issues of sustainable development and environmental protection in the Arctic.

Decisions in the Council are made by consensus of the parties. The Member States of the Council are Canada, Denmark (including Greenland and the Islands Faroe), Finland, Iceland, Norway, Russia, Sweden and the United States. Besides them, there is the category of Permanent Participants also open to organizations of indigenous Arctic peoples, ensuring their full participation. Moreover, there is the possibility of non-members as Inter-governmental Organizations, non-governmental, inter-parliamentary, regional and global to watch and even to assist the meetings, which are biennial, and even within the work groups. The work performed, in this aspect, sets an excellent illustration of implementation of sustainable development, and it is worth mentioning, therefore, the awareness of environmental problems that leads the region to meet and to seek different methods of growth in order to harmonize the local and national development, with a rational management of the environment, and that's the idea of eco-development, emphasizing local powers and seeking to supply what has been weak.

The Arctic Council influences Arctic shipping through assessments, such as the Arctic Marine Shipping Assessment (2009) with follow up activities and non-binding guidance for its member states. Moreover, under the auspices of the Arctic Council, eight Arctic states negotiated the Agreement on Cooperation on Aeronautical and Maritime Search and Rescue in the Arctic and the Agreement on Cooperation on Marine Oil Pollution Preparedness and Response in the Arctic.

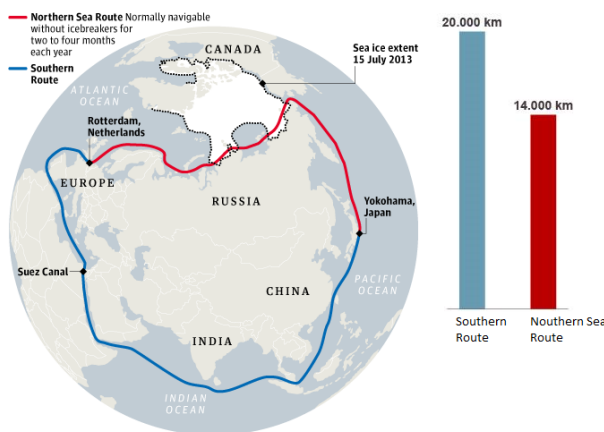
The maritime routes

The melting of the ocean ice allowed opening maritime routes that connect, in a faster and cheaper way, the European northwest to the Asian northeast. The opening of these new routes, however, threaten to cause the obsolescence of the southern sea route that links the ports in north and northeast Europe to all Asia through the Mediterranean Sea, the Suez Chanel, the Indian Ocean and the Malacca strait to the China meridional sea and thereafter the Korean peninsula and the Empire of Japan.

The following maps compare in terms of time and distance the difference between both routes, the Northern one (NSR) and the Southern one (SSR). But there is also another difference between them, the quantity of greenhouse gases produced by the ships in the *NSR* is lower than in *SSR*, and the cargoes volume of each one.



Northern Sea Route



The Southern Route

The southern sea route connects the north/northeast ports of Europe, especially Rotterdam and Hamburg to the Asian ports of Shanghai and Yokohama through a path that hems the south coasts of both continents.

This route touches the Atlantic coastline of Europe (United Kingdom, France, Spain and Portugal) and when it passes through Gibraltar strait, gets closer to the Mediterranean coast of Spain, France and Italy.

Its next step is to connect the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea through the Suez Chanel, in Egypt, and after the Indian Ocean by circling the Arabic peninsula. In this point, it is important to note the proximity of the route with the piracy in the Somali coast and the instability that affects the Yemen.

After that, the route navigates in the waters of the Indian Ocean, and passes next to India and Sri Lanka, until it ultimately reaches the Malacca Strait

The Malacca Strait is the main passage between the Indian Ocean and the China Meridional Sea. It is amid Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore, but in an expanded view it comprehends a bigger region that includes Thailand, Vietnam, Cambodia and many other countries that together created the ASEAN - the *Association of Southeast Asian Nations*.

The strait has one of the world's biggest flows of ships and suffers with the struggling inherent to the lack of infrastructure common in the region. There are many solution proposals to solve this situation, such as the Thai Chanel that would cut Thailand in a process similar to the Panama and Suez channels or the reallocation of the flow to the Lombok and Sunda straits, in Indonesia.

The Northern Route

Maritime transport in the Arctic has increased in recent years. The growing traffic is closely linked to the development of economic activities within the Arctic and the export of raw materials such as petroleum and minerals. Arctic cruise tourism is also growing. A few ships have made transit voyages between Europe and Asia.

The International Maritime Organization (IMO) is the competent United Nations agency with responsibility for important regulations related to shipping globally.

Since the 1990s growing concern over the rapidly melting polar sea ice cover and debates over Arctic sovereignty have drawn attention to the lack of adequate transportation in the region and the associated infrastructure that would be needed to support improvements. The importance of transportation in the future development of the Arctic is now being appreciated as never before.

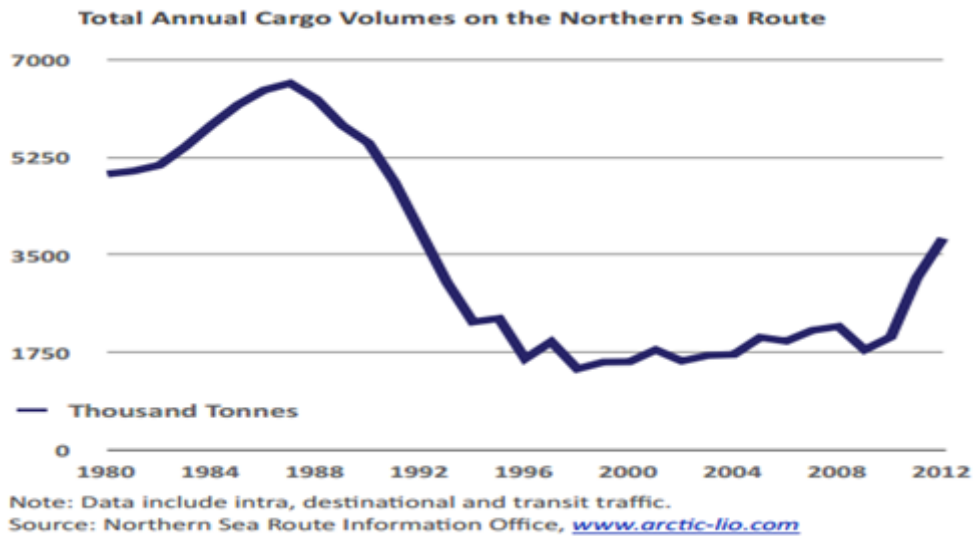


Besides the effects on the exploitation of natural resources in the Arctic region, defrost will also cause the opening of new maritime commercial routes, originally two: the Northwest Passage and Northern Sea Route. There is also the possibility of a third alternative, the Transpolar Route. The Northwest Passage consists of at least four possible routes through the so-called "Canadian Arctic Archipelago" - a set that can add 19,000 islands and rocks - connecting the north Pacific Ocean, the Bering Strait with its 52 nautical miles (less than 100 km) and a maximum draft opening between 30 and 50 meters deep, over 1,500 kilometers before emptying in Baffin bay and Davis Strait, located between Canada and Greenland (Roston 2009, 451; Spears 2009, 11).

The Northern Sea Route passes through the Russian Arctic seas - Barents, Kara, Laptev, East Siberian and Chukchi - heading west / east. Similarly to the Northwest Passage, in the North Sea Route a number of approaches are possible, depending of ice conditions. The most common route is close to the Russian coast and the support of Russian ports is used, primarily as cabotage.

Indeed, there is no consensus as to what the future holds in this regard. Transport Canada scientists believe that, even with the sea ice melting, ice conditions are still too unpredictable to allow regular commercial shipping. Environment Canada scientists believe that the complexity of ocean currents, the presence of large areas of land-fast ice (ice attached to the land) and the extreme year-to-year variability of ice conditions in the Arctic will make the Northwest Passage less desirable, in the short term, than traditional routes. Given this unpredictability, it would be difficult for shipping companies to guarantee reliable transit times, which are key to the economic viability of the shipping industry.

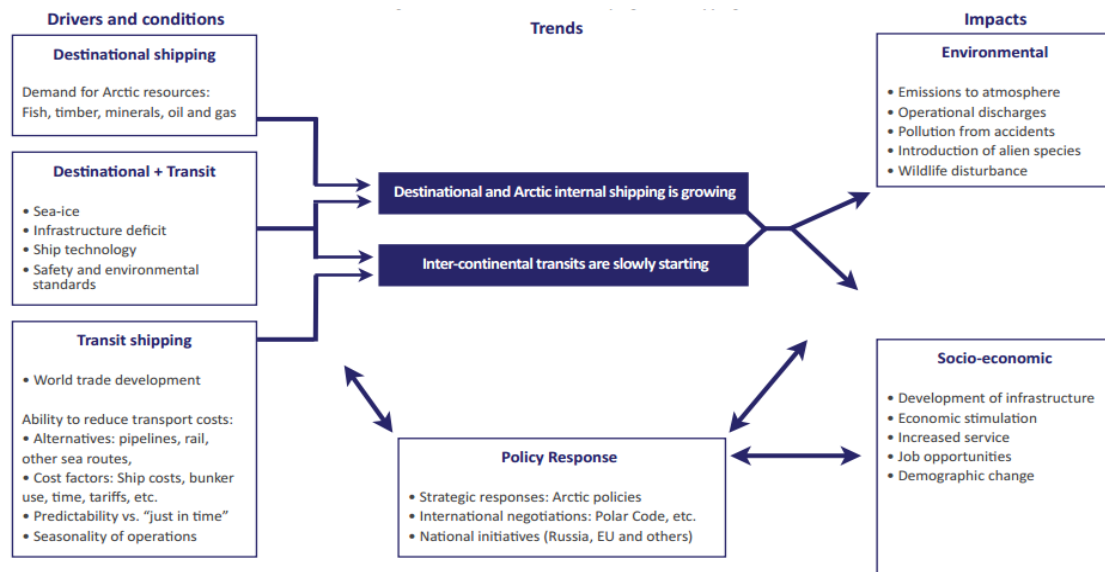
According to *Northern Sea Route Information*, the volume of cargo transported along the NSR has been growing, as illustrated in the following figure, though traffic has not yet reached levels seen in the Soviet era. An emerging pattern is that Russian raw materials such as gas condensate and iron ore from the northwest are being exported directly to Asia.



Changes in Arctic maritime transport may affect the European Union (EU) including areas of economic significance for trade and consumption; ports and shipping companies; security and safety of transport opportunities; and environmental interests.

Destination shipping in the Arctic is expected to expand, and so is transit traffic later. However, there is considerable uncertainty regarding the timing and magnitude of future traffic levels. Operations must be safe, reliable and profitable to reach large volumes.

The graphic below shows the trends and elements shaping arctic shipping:



Source: arcticinfo.eu

The Statement of the issue

Militarization in Arctic

The thaw of the boreal polar cap permitted the discovery of mineral resources and the development of new maritime routes in the Arctic Polar circle. The discovery of these new economic resources, both natural and commercial, inevitably bring along the issue of power disputes.

The Cooperation in the polar region is under the auspices of the Arctic Council and its founder charter, signed in Ottawa, in 1996, does not allow the organization to deal with security questions.

It is possible to observe with the establishment of transarctic routes a growing armament of the region, mainly by the Russian Federation. The president of the country, Vladimir Putin, stated, however, that the Kremlin's objective is not the militarization of the region, but to ensure the security in the North of the country, plated by the Artic polar ocean.

Aiming to increase the security apparatus of its arctic coats, Russia, through its military doctrine of 2014, has invested in the technological development of its armed forces, especially its navy, once the region consists

mostly of water. The military doctrine of 2014 is a replacement of the one that was valid since 2010 and maintains a defensive posture, despite of pointing the advance of NATO in Eastern Europe as a threat to Russian security, mainly in a crisis context as the one that is settled in the border between Russia and Ukraine.

Moscow announced the fabrication of a series of icebreaker ships to the region to reinforce its fleet that already counts with six atomic icebreaker ships. Aligned with this, the Kurs Institute developed along the Russian navy another five mechanisms of defence. They are an ice-cutter laser, subaquatic navigator, subaquatic rescue kits, and amphibious vehicles.

The estimates are that until 2018, Russia will already have self-sufficient military force in the Arctic region, what puts the United States one step behind, not only in military issues, but also in civil exploration of the pole.

According to the commandant of the US Coast guard, Paul Zukunft, in interview to the Newsweek, the United States do not compete with the Russian in the same level, they are not even in the game. While Russia intends to grow its fleet of atomic icebreakers, the Americans own just two diesel fuelled ships on to region, of which one is disabled. Another key point is the warlike power of the Russian armed forces in comparison with the former Soviet Union, which, despite bigger, was less technological than present Russia.

Besides, the drawdown in key-states of the western power affects not only the continental Texas, or the archipelago of the Hawaii, but also Alaska itself, bought from the Russian Empire in 1867, what opened the doors of the Arctic to the United States.

To the American Senator of the Alaska, the cut in the contingent, in a moment when Russia grows its tentacles over the Arctic, is not befitting with the strategic plan of military operations demanded by the Congress to the Department of defence.

However, the Russians, even with the apparent disinterest of the Americans in demonstrating power over the region, justify its recrudescence as a result of the threats caused by the presence of atomic American submarines in the region of the Sea of Barents and by the implantation of a system of antimissile

defence between the United States and Canada. The Canadians themselves already began a project of 3.2 billion dollars that aims to install a naval arctic patrol.

The Nordic countries are also concerned about the rising militarization of the region, especially Sweden. Even Norway, that during the last 20 years realized military exercises along with Russia in the region, suspended these activities in the last year.

Instead, Norway, Iceland, Denmark, Sweden and Finland realized military exercises conducted by NATO forces in the north of Europe and the Arctic, one month after the announcement of a military cooperation as response to Russia.

The Ukrainian crisis, which involves the Russian Federation, is also another issue that affects the situation in the Arctic Polar Circle. The European Union is also one of the major interested in economic cooperation in the polar circle and submitted itself to being a permanent member of the Arctic Council, once the Ottawa Declaration allows international organizations to be permanent observers of the Council.

However, Russia uses the request of E.U. as bargain to avoid the embargoes imposed by the community countries to the Federation after the annexation of the Ukrainian, now Russian, region of Crimea and the tension in the east of Ukraine.

The European bid, which was already vetoed once in 2013 by Canada, in a trade issue with the indigenous people of the American nation, was once again postponed to 2017.

The Baltic Question

Another struggling point between the countries of this region is the growing militarization of the Baltic Sea in the north of Europe. The countries plated by this sea are Sweden and Finland, in Scandinavia, Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia, the Russian oblast of Kaliningrado, Poland, Germany and Denmark.



At the same time that Russia accuses the western countries of threat due to the NATO military exercises in the Baltic, the western countries countered that Russia exercises are also threats to the region, but this time to its security.

A group of hackers, invading the Lithuanian armed forces system, revealed that a part of NATO's exercises has the goal of training the native forces to occupy the oblast. The officials answered that this information was leaked to maculate the partnership between Lithuania and the security organization.

In the other hand, Americans accuse the Russian Federation of training to capture the Nordic islands of Gotland, on Sweden, Aland, of Finland and Bornholm, of Denmark.

Bloc positions

Angola, Chad and Nigeria: These three African countries have no interests in the Arctic, but consider the situation an important international matter, and defend the peaceful use of the seas to international cooperation.

Chile: Is one of the countries that claim sovereignty over the Antarctic territory, so discussions about the Polar Regions sovereignty situation may concern its delegation.

The People's Republic of China: Along with India, China won, in mid-2013, the status of observer country at Arctic Council, which enabled the country to shape a specific foreign policy for the region. The country claims that its interests are

mostly related to researches about climate changes, but the access to the energy reservations of the region is also one of the main Chinese interests for the Arctic, also associated with the maritime route of the North, which allows faster access to the Shanghai port.

France: The French delegation acts as one voice of the European Union interests in Arctic along with the other bloc members in this council.

Jordan: Similarly to other African countries, it has no interest in Arctic, but stands for peaceful solutions.

Lithuania: Along with France, Spain and United Kingdom; Lithuania is one of the few countries of the European Union that are present in the Security Council this year, but is the only country out of the four that is not a permanent observer in the Arctic Council. Moreover, Lithuania is plated by the Baltic Sea, another cause of tension between Russia and the West, and it is bordered with the Russian region of Kaliningrad.

Malaysia: The country had one of the main ports of the Strait of Malacca, the main passage of the Southern route. That is why the use of the trans-arctic route might not be interesting for this country.

New Zealand: Such as Chile, New Zealand claims sovereignty over the Antarctic region and is one of the signatories of the UNCLOS.

Russian Federation: As widely reported throughout this guide, the Russian Federation, through its Military Doctrine, released at the end of 2014, considers NATO a threat for the security of the country's borders, not only in east Europe, but also in Arctic Circle. Russia claims that it is not the county's intention to use military force, but the steady increase of the its military power in the region represents a threat to the West.

Spain: Spain, such as the United Kingdom, is also a permanent observer of the Arctic Council, but looking from its coastal position to the Mediterranean Sea, one may infer that the country has interests in the use of Southern maritime routes, just like Malaysia.

The United Kingdom: The United Kingdom, along with France and Spain, is one of the Security Council countries that is present in the Arctic Council as an

observer-state, but as a member of European Union, it seeks to guarantee the participation and the entity's interests under the Arctic organization.

The United States of America: As the only effectively arctic country besides the Federation, the United States admit that the polar region is highly important for the country's energy matrix. At the same time that it draws down soldiers from Alaska, its Arctic state, it performs military exercises with Canada, also a State that is present in the Arctic, which, in the military Russian doctrine's point of view, allied to its participation in NATO, represents a threat for the old soviet republic.

Questions to Ponder

Does the United Nations have to approve the Arctic Circle countries' requests for enlargement of the territorial sea?

What is the security guarantee of maritime routes through the Arctic once the main routes are over the Russian coast and the country continuously militarizes the region?

Shall cooperation prevail or will conflict guide the relations along the countries in the Arctic?

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