

the legendary unicorn, and valued for its reputed property of neutralising poisons. Other materials used in scrimshaw work are horn and, more rarely, elephant ivory and the large canine teeth of the southern elephant seal.

Although carving and decorating cetacean bone, baleen, and ivory were well established in Europe in the seventeenth century, it was the development of hunting sperm whales on the high seas in the Pacific Ocean from the late eighteenth century onwards, with voyages lasting two, three, or more years, that provided the opportunity for the flourishing of scrimshaw work by whalers in the periods of inactivity between sightings of sperm whales. Although whaling vessels from Britain, France, Germany, and elsewhere took part, this period was dominated by American whalers, and so scrimshaw, to which they gave the name, has tended to be regarded as an American 'folk art.' The authors suggest that the word 'scrimshaw' may have been derived from the dialect work 'scrimption' meaning 'a very small piece, a miserable pittance,' and in use in Ireland and North America. The surname 'Scrimshaw' has no link with the whaler's work.

In the twentieth century, scrimshaw continued to be produced, not only by Norwegian and British whalers working on floating factory ships and shore whaling stations in the Antarctic, but also by the sperm whalers in the Azores and Madeira in the North Atlantic, until this whaling ceased in the 1980s. The cessation of all commercial whaling at the same time virtually ended the production of scrimshaw by whalers.

In recent years, the study of scrimshaw has made big advances, with the examination of the type of motifs used by the whalers, especially in the decoration of sperm whale teeth, plaques made from panbone, and stay busks. This has led to the recognition of the subjects and style of decoration used by certain individuals, and it is now possible to identify some of their work and they themselves. There is now a *Dictionary of scrimshaw artists* available (Stuart 1991), not all of them being whalers. Only occasionally is scrimshaw dated, and the date given may not necessarily be that when the piece was made. The earliest American scrimshaw artist identified at present is Edward Burdett (1805–1833) and the earliest Englishman is Captain J.S. King (fl 1817–1823). A chapter is devoted to Burdett's work, one tooth being in the Hull Museum.

With the increasing interest in scrimshaw, a number of skilled contemporary artists and engravers in the US started to produce fine work on sperm whale teeth, sometimes scenes of old American whaling but also subjects unrelated to whaling. The introduction of legislation to protect marine mammals and the ban on trade in their products led to a scarcity of suitable material and to the manufacture of scrimshaw reproductions made from synthetic 'polymer ivory.' Some of these are copies of genuine specimens and are identified as synthetic copies. However, a large amount of this synthetic scrimshaw is not labelled as such. There is a very useful chapter on distinguishing faked old scrimshaw from genuine old scrimshaw. This can be difficult if old materials have been

used and attention has been given to detail in producing the faked piece. A short glossary and a good bibliography and reference list complete the book.

This is a very nicely produced book and surprisingly low priced considering the number of illustrations. In some cases the illustrations referred to in the text are not on adjacent pages. However, with so many illustrations it was probably not possible to place all of them in close proximity to their textual references. Inevitably there are a few misprints, some affecting references, and one or two of the references appear to be confused. The authors have produced a book that is recommended to the scrimshaw collector as important, as it is also for anyone interested in the subject as part of the background to the history of whaling. (Sidney G. Brown, 24 Orchard Way, Oakington, Cambridge CB4 5BQ.)

Reference

Stuart, F.M. 1991. *Dictionary of scrimshaw artists*. Mystic, CT: Mystic Seaport Museum.

INTERNATIONAL ENVIRONMENTAL POLITICS: PROTECTING THE ANTARCTIC. Lorraine M. Elliott. 1994. New York: St Martin's; London: Macmillan. xv + 336 p. Illustrated, hard cover. ISBN 0-312-12136-9.

A timely contribution to the now burgeoning literature on international relations in the Antarctic, *International environmental politics: protecting the Antarctic* stands out for its meticulous, systematic, and scholarly examination of the record of environmental protection under the Antarctic Treaty. It goes to the full credit of Lorraine M. Elliott that she first locates the Antarctic case study in the broader context of international environmental politics, before demonstrating how environmental protection rules have been compromised by other geopolitical interests in the course of the evolution of the Antarctic Treaty System (ATS). Now that the Convention on the Regulation of Antarctic Mineral Resource Activities (CRAMRA) has been set aside in favour of the Protocol on Environmental Protection to the Antarctic Treaty, can we claim that a 'paradigm shift' has occurred in the Antarctic regime?

Chapter 1 outlines the theoretical framework and illuminates the precise focus of the study. Both are informed by the literature on international cooperation and, more specifically, on international regimes and institutions. The emphasis here is on adopting perspectives that (a) transcend narrow state-centric and power-political approaches to international politics; (b) address normative issues relating to intergenerational equity, ecological accountability, and responsibility; and (c) account for the growing role and importance of non-state actors, especially the scientific community and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in an increasingly interdependent world. The discussion in this remarkably concise chapter also identifies certain propositions of regime analysis that are said to be useful in explaining the nature of environmental politics and cooperation in the ATS and in measuring the effectiveness of environmental rules.

Chapter 2 introduces the Antarctic regime, takes a brief look at the history of Antarctic politics (claims and counterclaims of territorial sovereignty), and underlines the geopolitical and geostrategic interests that prompted the states concerned into the Antarctic Treaty negotiations. The key argument here is that in the hierarchy of values, geopolitical and geostrategic interests took precedence over scientific cooperation and environmental protection in the Antarctic. Hence the *ad hoc*, piecemeal, and slow approach to decision-making and management, as well as a strong tendency to avoid enforcement mechanisms and sanctions. Elliott is right in pointing out that, despite the increase in Treaty membership and mounting criticism over the nature, scope, and functioning of the ATS in the United Nations, no change took place in the ATS throughout the first three decades of its functioning, either in terms of the hierarchy of values or the dominance of sovereignty norms.

Chapter 3 begins with a succinct section on the ecological and scientific importance of the Antarctic, stressing that 'the Antarctic Treaty is not an environmental treaty. Protection of the environment is barely mentioned. References to the preservation and conservation of living resources were as much to do with economic sustainability as with the intrinsic protection of the Antarctic species' (page 52). This is followed by a critical account of the development of the Antarctic environment regime within the ATS, focusing on the changing nature and pattern of interaction among the dominant bureaucratic actors in the ATS, the scientific community as a source of knowledge and advice (represented particularly through the agency of the Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research), and the non-governmental environment and conservation organizations such as ASOC and IUCN. It is argued that in the wake of an effective Greenpeace International Antarctic campaign, most notably its construction of a scientific station in the Antarctic in 1987, a 'learning process' was introduced in the ATS. As a result, the Treaty parties were compelled to change their behaviour and demonstrate their environmental credentials and commitment to the world. Yet 'the political dominance of sovereignty norms engendered environmental rules that incorporated a permissive approach to compliance and a resistance to any effective form of centralised or independent monitoring agencies' (page 81).

Chapter 4 evaluates the strengths and shortcomings of the Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Seals (CCAS) and the Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR) as conservation instruments. Both conventions contributed to the development of the ATS by extending its legal framework, widening the scope of cooperation among the consultative parties, and ensuring that conflict over resource use could be avoided. However, points out Elliott, both are flawed in that commitment in principle to conservation values is not matched by the record of implementation. Both suffer on account of lack of compliance and enforcement and are

compromised by political and economic concerns. In other words, both conventions actually reinforce rather than challenge the hierarchy of values in the ATS. The chapter concludes by pointing out that the experience of CCAMLR in particular shows that (a) in the face of entrenched economic interests, it might be difficult to negotiate effective conservation rules for species already being exploited; (b) agreements based on unanimity principle are often ineffective and lack internal coherence; and (c) coalitions among conservation-minded states, NGOs, and scientific communities can exert significant political pressure about environmental issues.

Chapter 5 is concerned with the third — and by far the most complex and controversial — of the resource conventions negotiated by the ATCPs, that is, the Convention on the Regulation of Antarctic Mineral Resource Activities (CRAMRA). This extremely well-argued chapter explores at length the political nature of early debate about the minerals activity in the 1970s and the challenge it posed to the ATS. It points out that 'Although the problem of environment was discussed, the minerals questions were perceived primarily as a political rather than an environmental challenge especially as the issue was defined by foreign office bureaucrats rather than scientists' (page 103). The highlights of the chapter include a brief assessment of Antarctic mineral resources in the light of constraints imposed by geopolitical, economic, technological, and ecological considerations and a critical look at the growing international interest in the Antarctic 'wealth' in the context of UNCLOS III and the principle of the Common Heritage of Mankind. Elliott points out the differences of opinion between the Antarctic powers and the NGOs on the minerals issue. In the 'collective judgement' of the consultative parties, a minerals regime had to be negotiated in order to ensure that growing commercial interest in Antarctic mineral resources — coinciding with the 1973 oil crisis — did not lead to international discord over the Antarctic. Accordingly, 'The parties were responding not to knowledge or environmental terms, but to political pressures and fears. Thus regime maintenance was an important factor in determining the parties' decision. It was a reactive response, rather in the way that the Treaty had been, to deal with the problem without any clear idea of what a regulatory regime would look like' (page 109).

Chapter 6 looks more specifically at the CRAMRA negotiations in the 1980s, and the attempt on the part of the ATCPs to achieve 'internal accommodation' through managing a variety of competing interests. This provides a balanced account of divergent perspectives about the question of whether CRAMRA was a convention for protection or development. Acknowledging that CRAMRA contained extensive environmental principles and rules that imposed obligations on the parties, Elliott explores whether they were adequate and strong enough on compliance. On the first, she concludes that 'the traditional Antarctic hierarchy of values which places political con-

cerns, in the end, above environmental ones, shaped the negotiations. Environmental protection mechanisms were weakened in the search for agreement on political and legal issues' (page 153). In the second case, 'the dominance of sovereignty norms within the regime once again placed limits on what states would accept in terms of monitoring and enforcement institutions and rules. Thus their ability to ensure compliance must be questioned' (page 153). The internal accommodation of CRAMRA did not finally hold, the author concludes, because it became increasingly unacceptable that a regulatory mechanism could also function as a conservation and environmental protection regime.

Chapter 7 traces the more recent events leading to the abandonment of CRAMRA and the negotiation of the Madrid Protocol. It is argued that both these developments cannot be understood through the conventional state-centric, power-political explanations. The coalitions that arose to mobilise change in the Treaty regime were not just between states; they were between states and other actors. The impact of environmental NGOs on the institutional bargaining process was thus substantial. While referring to SCAR, Elliott points out that 'whereas NGOs were influential actors (as a source of new ideas and in generating support for these ideas), the scientific community did not function in this process as an epistemic community (in policy advocacy) nor even successfully in support of its own interests in the regime. In this respect, the scientific community and NGOs were in competition for influence and power within the Treaty System' (page 195).

Chapter 8 offers a brief assessment of the Protocol as an environmental protection agreement. While considerable uncertainty surrounds the Protocol's future, especially its effective implementation, the Protocol has brought about a qualitative change in the approach to environmental issues in the Antarctic regime. The balance of participation and knowledge, which in the past has favoured the consultative parties and bureaucratic actors, can no longer exclude NGOs. That said, the claim cannot yet be that interdependence norms have replaced sovereignty norms within the ATS. Although some change is noticeable in the hierarchy of values, 'we have not observed a paradigm shift in the Antarctic regime' (page 210).

To sum up: an excellent book. A highly original, thought-provoking, and forcefully argued case study in international environmental politics. It is highly recommended to all with interests in the Antarctic. It will also be an important text for students and researchers in environmental management and environmental politics. (Sanjay Chaturvedi, Department of Political Science, Panjab University, Chandigarh 160 014, India.)

THE VOYAGES OF THE 'MORNING'. Gerald S. Doorly. 1995. Banham: Bluntisham Books and the Erskine Press. xx + 224 p, illustrated, hard cover. ISBN 1-85297-040-5. £24.95; \$US45.00.

Crucial to the safe return of Captain Robert Falcon Scott's ship *Discovery*, beset in the ice of McMurdo Sound, were

the two relief expeditions, the first in 1903 in *Morning*, the second in 1904, again in *Morning*, accompanied by *Terra Nova*. No official account of these expeditions has ever appeared in print other than a brief report in the *Geographical Journal* (23: 741–744) by *Morning*'s captain, William Colbeck. It was left to a junior officer on *Morning*, Gerald Doorly, to fill the gap. According to Doorly, the idea of a book had originally been put to Lieutenant E.R.G.R. (Teddie) Evans by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, to be written with Doorly's cooperation. In the event, Evans had to drop out, and it was left to Doorly to produce, as late as 1915, a draft that he duly sent to Sir Clements Markham, 'father' of the *Discovery* expedition and owner and manager of *Morning*. In a letter to the publisher Reginald Smith, Sir Clements commended Doorly's draft as 'pleasantly written — first impressions of a keen observer...The whole story is well told.' He was also agreeable to providing an introduction, but, alas, this was prevented by his sudden and tragic death. The book was published the following year, 1916, by Smith, Elder.

In his opening chapters, Doorly describes how his golden opportunity to voyage south was occasioned by his friendship with Teddie Evans. As cadets on the training ship *Worcester*, the two youngsters had become inseparable chums. Subsequently they were destined to go their own ways, Evans into the Royal Navy, Doorly into the Merchant Service. Both kept regularly in touch until one day in June 1902 Doorly received a telegram from his friend suggesting he should immediately apply to join an Antarctic relief expedition. The prospect of adventure was not to be resisted and Doorly hastened to London to stake his claim. Following a favourable interview with Markham, Doorly found himself appointed third officer on *Morning*, with Evans as second officer. The ship set sail for the Ross Sea via New Zealand on 9 July 1902, only marginally delayed by the unexpected delivery of a last-minute gift from Markham — a brand new piano. Doorly gives an amusing account of how, having failed to manoeuvre the precious instrument into *Morning*'s tiny wardroom, Morrison, the chief engineer, proceeded to resolve the dilemma by cutting it in half with a hacksaw! The importance of music as a morale booster on a polar expedition cannot be over-emphasised; Morrison's flair for verse coupled to Doorly's ability to compose music produced the 'Songs of the *Morning*,' two of which are reproduced in this volume with their scores.

Notwithstanding its period style, with echoes of G.A. Henty and R.M. Ballantyne, Doorly tells his story with a verve and pace that make for compelling reading. His first-time impressions of the Antarctic scene evidence a keen sensitivity to natural beauty, which in places bears comparison with Edward Wilson's journal entries a year previously. Equally refreshing is the complete absence of rancour and criticism of superiors; Evans he obviously hero-worshipped; Colbeck, an experienced ice-master, he much respected. As for Scott, 'that gallant officer and ideal leader,' he has nothing but praise. In February 1903,