

Persistent and emerging threats to Arctic biodiversity and ways to overcome them: a horizon scan

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Abstract

Arctic biodiversity is under threat from both climate-induced environmental change and anthropogenic activity. However, the rapid rate of change and the challenging conditions for studying Arctic environments mean that many research questions must be answered before we can strategically allocate resources for management. Addressing threats to biodiversity in the Arctic is further complicated by the region's complex geopolitics, as eight countries claim jurisdiction over the area, with multiple local considerations such as Indigenous sovereignty and resource rights. Here, we identify research priorities to serve as a starting point for addressing the most pressing threats to Arctic biodiversity. We began by collecting pressing research questions about Arctic biodiversity, thematizing them as either threats or actions, and then categorizing them further into 18 groups. Then, drawing on cross-disciplinary and global expertise of professionals in Arctic science, management, and policy, we considered the barriers to answering these questions and proposed potential solutions that could be implemented if barriers were overcome. Overall, our horizon scan provides an expert assessment of threats (e.g., species' responses to climate change) and actions (e.g., a lack of fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity) needing attention and is intended to guide future conservation action within the Arctic.

Key words: conservation, barriers, foresight, policy, management, climate change

1. Introduction

While often considered remote, the Arctic plays a large role in the functioning of many global environmental systems (Post et al. 2019; Timmermans and Marshall 2020). In particular, the Arctic is involved with the regulation of global climate (McGuire et al. 2006) with important implications for the ongoing climate crisis (Díaz et al. 2019). While the Arctic may hold less biodiversity than other biomes, this biome's biodiversity is unique in that it includes more than 21000 known species of fungi, plants, and animals that are highly adapted to life in the cold and in some cases could not survive without it (see Fig. 1; Callaghan et al. 2004; Payer et al. 2013; Ruth et al. 2023). These adaptations come in many forms. For example, Arctic plants and microorganisms have traits that make them tolerant to freezing, and Arctic animals have developed various mechanisms such as fat storage that allow them to tolerate frigid temperatures (Callaghan et al. 2004; Guerrero and Rogers 2019). On a global scale, the Arctic is <image>

Fig. 1. An example of the diversity of lichen and moss found throughout the Arctic. Photo by TAL taken in Resolute, Nunavut, August 2022.

home to 27% of the world's marine mammal species (Payer et al. 2013) and more than 20% of the world's lichenicolous fungi species (i.e., fungi that live on lichens; Dahlberg and Bültmann 2013; Payer et al. 2013). The Arctic also provides habitat for hundreds of species of birds that migrate to the Arctic from around the globe to breed and forage (Sullender 2019). There is even diversity within Arctic sea ice where numerous bacteria, viruses, algae, and sea ice infauna (e.g., ciliates, nematodes, turbellarians, crustaceans) reside (Bluhm et al. 2011; Patrohay et al. 2022).

Biodiversity is the variation that occurs throughout all life on Earth. For the context of our work, we defined biodiversity as having three forms, based on the definition of the Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD): genetic diversity (the genetic diversity within species), species diversity (the number of different species and their abundances), and ecosystem diversity (the diversity of habitats across space and time; CBD 2000). Biodiversity is essential for the proper functioning and productivity of ecosystems as it enables ecosystems to withstand change through building resilience (Tilman 1999; Cardinale et al. 2012). Biodiversity also supports the food security, livelihoods, well-being, and cultures of many people, in particular communities with longstanding residence in the Arctic, including Indigenous Peoples (e.g., the Inuit in Canada, Russia, Alaska, and Greenland, the Sámi in the Sápmi area of northern Europe, and many others; Mustonen and Ford 2013). Despite this importance, these ecosystem services are at risk due to environmental change (Nuttall 2007).

The fragmentary nature of information on Arctic biodiversity is especially concerning considering how quickly the Arctic is changing. Significant knowledge gaps exist in relation to Arctic biodiversity (CAFF 2013a) as its relative remoteness and harsh conditions create inherent challenges such as high costs for conducting research (Mallory et al. 2018). Additionally, the Arctic is warming as a result of climate change at a much faster rate than most of the globe (AMAP 2021; Rantanen et al. 2022). The last decade has also seen rapid development of extractive resource sectors (e.g., mining; Bartsch et al. 2021), commercial fishing (Fauchald et al. 2021), shipping and port development (Dawson et al. 2018), tourism (Runge et al. 2020), and military activity (Depledge and Kennedy-Pipe 2018). Given these issues and the importance of Arctic biodiversity to people and the planet, it is paramount to understand how threats will impact Arctic biodiversity. Doing so will not only help to understand and predict threats but also help identify effective mitigation and management strategies.

Identifying future threats can be accomplished through horizon scanning, a forward-looking process that often consolidates advice, in the form of research questions to be answered, from experts in a field (Sutherland and Woodroof 2009; Cuhls 2019). These scans provide insight on their focal topic to help guide future research and inform subsequent decision-making (Cuhls 2019; Wintle et al. 2020). We therefore conducted a horizon scan to address the following questions:

1. What are the most significant questions regarding persistent (i.e., non-novel) and emerging (i.e., new and (or) existing but being exacerbated) threats facing biodiversity in the Arctic that, if addressed, would inform policy and management?

2. What barriers exist to obtaining answers to these questions, how can these barriers be overcome, and what actions could be taken if these barriers were overcome?

It was our expectation that this horizon scan would identify the greatest threats to Arctic biodiversity, reveal research priorities, provide insight into how these research priorities could be addressed, and inspire implementation of corresponding policies for threat management.

2. Methods

Following the methodology of Sutherland et al. (2011), we conducted a horizon scan to combine expert opinion and evidence to identify persistent and emerging threats related to Arctic biodiversity conservation. The process was structured in two key steps: an elicitation of expert knowledge through a "call for questions" from Arctic experts to identify persistent and emerging threats facing Arctic biodiversity, and an online workshop to identify the barriers to addressing those threats, ways to overcome them, and solutions that could be implemented if those barriers were overcome.

To begin, in October 2023, we used a search string of "Arctic AND biodiversity" in Web of Science Core Collection (Clarivate Plc, Philadelphia, PA) to identify appropriate publications and export a list of author information (including email addresses) to solicit a cross-disciplinary global network of Arctic experts (hereafter referred to as respondents). We also collected email addresses of organizations working throughout the Arctic (e.g., the Nunavut Research Institute, The Arctic Institute, etc.). We then created a "call for research questions" using an online form (Google Forms, Google LLC, Mountain View, CA; see "Form for Call for Questions" in supplementary information) that we sent to the 7150 email addresses collected. Respondents were asked to forward the request for questions to other Arctic experts (i.e., snowball sampling; Vogt and Johnson 2024). The call was also shared on many of the core authors' (TAL, JDRC, ALH, MLL, SKS, KMS, JP, SJC) personal social media accounts with sharing features enabled to reach larger networks. The call was also distributed by the Polar Continental Shelf Program to all the Arctic researchers they support. Emails and social media blasts were distributed between 4 and 25 October 2023 with initial notices for the call for questions being posted within the first week, and reminder notices being sent 2 weeks later.

As in Harper et al. (2021), no limitations were placed on the number of times the call for questions was shared to amplify the number of potential questions and participants. To this end, the total number of individuals who received the request is unknown. To help streamline information received, for the call for questions we specifically defined the Arctic as the area within the boundary outlined by the Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna (CAFF), the biodiversity Working Group of the Arctic Council (CAFF 2001; see "CAFF Boundary" in Supplementary information). The respondents submitted questions regarding persistent and emerging threats to Arctic biodiversity, along with information related to their experience, sector, role, and geographical location (see "Form for Call for Questions" in Supplementary information). The latter information was collected solely to analyze the demographics of the respondents, as submitted questions were anonymous. There was no limit to how many questions individuals were able to submit. Within the form, respondents were also informed to email us if they were interested in participating in the workshop.

The core author team screened all questions received (see "Arctic Biodiversity Call for Questions Responses" in Supplementary information for full list of questions). Questions were assigned to categories based on similar scope, leading to 18 categories, which fell under two distinct themes of threats or actions (see Tables 1 and 2). Categories within the threats theme arose from questions that related to stressors that themselves pose a direct threat to Arctic biodiversity. Categories within the actions theme on the other hand focused on the human dimensions of Arctic biodiversity conservation that if not addressed would result in indirect threats to this biome. This distinction was made because the drivers of biodiversity loss arise, directly or indirectly, from human behaviours, and solutions need to acknowledge human dimensions to be successful; in many cases, the "how" of conservation is as important as the "what" (Cooke et al. 2022).

Respondents who had informed us (by email as directed in the form) that they were interested in participating in our expert online workshop (hereafter referred to as the expert panel) were then contacted via email to confirm their availability. The expert panel was also provided the list of categories with their corresponding definitions and some sample questions to assess (for completeness, repetitiveness, and accuracy) and their feedback was incorporated into the category descriptions for the workshop. The workshop was held on 17 November 2023 from 0900 to 1130 EST and included 18 participants (hereafter referred to as the workshop participants). Discussion during the workshop covered barriers to answering questions related to each category, ways to overcome these barriers, and actions or outcomes that would result from overcoming these barriers (see Tables 1 and 2, and Fig. 2). During the workshop, two breakout rooms were randomly organized and each consisted of five members from the expert panel, a moderator, and a note-taker from the core author team, and two of the core author teams' main coauthors (JFP, CP, JRB, SJC). These workshop participants were located in Iceland (1), Sweden (1), Switzerland (1), the United States (1), Russia (2), the United Kingdom (3), and Canada (9).

The workshop was designed to facilitate open discussion and to collect thoughts and expert opinion regarding the various project objectives. The workshop participants were informed of the option to co-author the paper to promote effective engagement. Input was collected anonymously through the digital interactive whiteboard application Jamboard (Google LLC; see "Jamboard from Breakout Room 1" and "Jamboard from Breakout Room 2" in Supplementary information), to allow all workshop participants to anonymously and simultaneously contribute their ideas. For each category, workshop participants indicated whether they

Table 1. Summary of findings of each threat category in this horizon scan.

| Category | 4.1: Species' responses to climate chan | ige | |
|--|---|---|--|
| Category definition | How different Arctic species will respo trophic interactions). Includes behavio | | |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What is the adaptive capacity of Arctic (e.g., freshwater, marine, terrestrial) ecosystems to respond to climate change? How is climate change affecting food webs and trophic interactions in Arctic ecosystems? How will changing landscapes (due to climate change) impact species migration? | on species' historic ranges and population sizes Lack of genetic data (i.e., reference genomes, population datasets) Limited knowledge of physiological or reproductive capacities of marine taxa Knowledge gaps on the speed, constraints, and genetic basis of adaptation Difficult to estimate if and at what rate species may shift their ranges Current biodiversity proxies may be insensitive to climate change | tissues for genetic sequencing) Invest in genomic resources, demographic modelling (e.g., paleoarchelogical data), and monitoring technologies like remote sensing | inform policy development of habitat conservation and mitigation measures Give insight into potential invasive species of concern for monitoring/management Intervention measures can be better planned, including the potential to rescue/restore populations in the future Traditional knowledge can help fill fundamental information knowledge gaps, and improve monitoring with year-round, on the ground data |
| Category | 4.2: Marine cryosphere and hydrologic | al changes caused by climate change | : |
| Category definition | How Arctic marine hydrology (e.g., sea impacts of these changes will be (e.g., | , 0 | 0 0 |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| How will Arctic wildlife respond to decreased ice cover? What are the direct versus indirect effects of changing sea ice patterns or biodiversity? What are the cascading ecosystem-level impacts of sea ice loss and thinning across the Arctic? | Need to scale up monitoring to a larger spatiotemporal scale to account for variation | | Higher resolution monitoring |
| Category | 4.3: Permafrost changes caused by clin | nate change | |
| Category definition | How thawing permafrost as a result of gases, ocean acidification) | climate change will impact Arctic bi | iodiversity (e.g., habitat, greenhouse |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What novel microorganisms could be released through permafrost thawing? How does permafrost loss impact ocean acidification, and near-shore carbon cycling/dynamics? How will changes in permafrost impact landscape dynamics (namely slumping and drainage)? | Access to certain areas Detailed models predicting slumps Heterogeneity in the sources and seasonality of permafrost loss Understanding how migrating species are affected Understanding how food supplies change in timing and type Understanding the importance of biodiversity associated with permafrost communities Understanding how aquifers are affected Modelling ecosystem states and processes in mosaic land covers A lack of in situ ground data | • Funding | Studies can be driven by science questions rather than logistic access Can build catchment-level model of permafrost to help assess freshwater biodiversity effects |
| Category Category definition | 4.4: Natural resource extraction How natural resource extraction (e.g., impact Arctic biodiversity | hydropower, mining, wind farms, oil | l, gas, forestry, fishing, hunting) will |

| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
|---|---|---|--|
| How can we quantify the damage to Arctic ecosystems from hydroelectric power generation, including water-land interactions? What are the impacts of resource extraction, such as mining and drilling, on Arctic biodiversity? How does unsustainable exploitation impact Arctic species (e.g., overfishing, overhunting)? | monitoring capacity Societal interests National variation in legislation Gaps in legislation do not cover emerging threats Restricted access to data Impact assessments often are | Ensure publicly available data Improve monitoring capacity (include local and Indigenous knowledge) International treaties Independent monitoring Increased collaboration with industry Require impact assessments to address more subtle indicators | Identify and prove that natural resource extraction is a threat to Arctic biodiversity Earlier action instead of waiting for a population or ecosystem is in "free fall" Common rigorous standards that would help protect the environment, Indigenous rights, and local rights Improved extraction methods |
| Category | 4.5: Freshwater hydrological changes c | aused by climate change | |
| Category definition | How Arctic freshwater hydrology (e.g., impacts of these changes will be on Ar- biogeochemistry, species diversity, etc. | ctic biodiversity (e.g., to weather patt | |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| How will changes in the Arctic affect the availability of freshwater? How is increased river runoff impacting Arctic shelf biogeochemistry, and what are the implications for the ecosystem? How will changes to the amount, duration and physical properties of the snow cover affect animals living in the subnivium and their predators? | and ecological needs Difficult to evaluate issues at larger scales Limited access, resources, and monitoring capacity Geopolitical restrictions Expensive Lack of fundamental information | Engage with local communities for data collection Develop and integrate new technology Improve collaboration throughout the Arctic Invest in resources and training | Deployment of remote sensors alongside locally engaged monitoring programs Development of remote sensing applications Implementation of high-resolution monitoring of ecosystem status and drivers of ecosystem stress Collection of data to guide policy decisions |
| Category | 4.6: Invasive species | | |
| Category definition | The impacts on Arctic biodiversity and that outcompete native species | mitigation of the introduction and e | stablishment of non-native species |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to Overcome Barriers |
| Are endemic local organisms more resistant to extreme abiotic parameters related to climate change than invasive organisms? What are the impacts of invasive/expanding species? As shipping and traffic in the Arctic increases, what new invasive species might emerge in Arctic environments and with what consequences? | invade The distribution of existing species is sparsely known Knowledge on the competitive abilities of existing species is limited Limited monitoring capacity Evaluating compliance and enforcing rules is complicated by | Improve fundamental information Better tools for community-based sampling to document species Increased funding Increased political will Emphasize research identifying what products and species are arriving from human vectors (e.g., ship, plane, truck) and natural vectors (e.g., wind, currents) Establishment of collaborative and thematic programs | Tighter control of vectors to limit the potential entry of invasive species Better predictive modelling in relation to emergence and potential ecological impact Better decision-making If compliance and enforcement are better understood, biosecurity resources could be more efficiently employed Modelling of transmission routes |
| Category | 4.7: Emerging and persistent diseases | | |
| Category definition | Anticipating and addressing emerging | and persistent diseases and their imp | oact on Arctic biodiversity |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What are the impacts of temperature related diseases in a warming climate? How will sea ice loss and other climat change impacts affect the dynamics of disease exposure and transmission for marine mammals and what are the | Monitoring of non-native species Understanding which diseases are present, which are native, and f which are new | | Better predictive monitoring Ongoing long-term monitoring Community-level capacity to track zoonoses Better control of disease transmission vectors (i.e., ships) One bealth approach |

- transmission vectors (i.e., ships)
- One health approach

health and population dynamics? • How can we better anticipate emerging wildlife diseases?

marine mammals, and what are the

implications for marine mammal

stress and disease interact in the

lifestyle switch from commensal to

• Understanding what causes a

Arctic

a pathogen

Table 1. (continued).

| Category Category definition | How various types of pollution will imp | oact Arctic biodiversity (e.g., light, pl | astic, chemical, oil) |
|--|---|--|---|
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What are the long-term effects of pollution, such as oil spills or plastic waste, on Arctic wildlife and ecosystems? What are the impacts of light pollution in the Arctic on low-light adapted animals? What are the long-range and local sources of pollution affecting the Arctic? | actually toxic on ecologically relevant scales Funding long-term monitoring projects Differential behaviour of pollutants in the Arctic and ice-bound environments Establishing a mechanistic link between a pollution event and an effect Abilities and capacities of labs to measure emerging contaminants Finding links between chemical pollution and disease susceptibility and fertility, as well as interaction | Technologies that would allow for easier pollution measuring in communities and (or) smaller labs New technology for autonomous monitoring in situ Educate consumers so that their buying patterns influence industries Specific source identification with communities to understand where to focus efforts Better links with industry and better industrial will Educate electorate so that politicians bring in better legislation Go to the courts and sue | Banning toxic substances Local risk assessments that are done by the communities Better controls at sources Appropriate management policies Better monitoring and more data yield better predictive models and decision-making potential |
| Category Category definition | 4.9: Increasing development How increasing development (e.g., citie | s, roads, tourism) throughout the Ar | ctic will impact its biodiversity |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What impact will development have on Arctic biodiversity (from microbes to plants to animals and finally people)? How are human infrastructure expansion (cities, roads, etc.) impacting wildlife population health including nutrition, disease transmission/susceptibility and reproduction? What are the impacts of light pollution in the Arctic on low-light adapted animals? | | distribution of biodiversity in Arctic ecosystems to inform development planning to avoid developing on diversity hotspots Integrate monitoring programs as part of development plans | Sustainable development with minimal impacts and that align with biodiversity corridors could result Better monitoring technology would make it easier and more e economical to implement monitoring The use of AI in monitoring could enable processing of massive volumes of data to build predictive models and inform decision-making |
| Category | 4.10: Increasing vessel traffic | | |
| Category definition | How increasing vessel traffic as a result | of industry and tourism will impact | Arctic biodiversity |

| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
|--|--|---|--|
| What are the threats posed by the intensification of shipping along the Northern Sea Route? What impacts do cruise ships have on Arctic biodiversity? How does an increase in fishery vessel traffic impact Arctic ecosystems? | Geopolitical restrictions | Develop proactive laws and international agreements Increase research on quantifying impacts of vessels on environment Improve methods for conducting cargo surveys and vessel tracking | Creation of shipping lanes that minimize impacts on communities and biodiversity Development of protected areas and seasons Improvement of vessel anti-fouling and cleaning measures Development of emergency response planning at the community level Inception of pan-Arctic vessel operating procedures |
| Category | 4.11: Other anthropogenic threats | | |
| | | ity unrelated to pollution, vessel traffi ed ecotourism) and how these threats | |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What are the impacts of sonar testing? What are the impacts of human disturbance from ecotourism (ex. Skiing)? | Lack of monitoring and understanding of the impacts of tourism and increased military presence Unpredictable new types of tourisr Wars and (or) preparations for them Desires for sovereignty over the Arctic | Engaging in risk mapping and understanding knowledge gaps Stricter regulations International treaties and agreements | Regulations that support food security and international cultural trade Eco-friendly tourism |

Note: Example questions provided illustrate the types of questions that relate to the category. The columns containing barriers, ways to overcome barriers, and actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers summarize the results of the discussion that took place regarding each category during the workshop. The categories are listed in order from most to least important as outlined in the ranking by our expert panel (see Fig. 3).

self-identified as experts on the topic (by way of using a digital green "sticky note"), based on whether they had published a peer-reviewed paper related to the category within the last 5 years. This method of self-identification was useful for assessing the robustness of expert input among categories. Once the workshop was completed, the barriers, ways to overcome them, and actions for each category were reviewed and summarized (see Tables 1 and 2, and Fig. 2).

Post-workshop, the expert panel was emailed and asked whether they were interested in co-authoring the paper. This broader group of experts (i.e., not just the workshop participants) was contacted to further substantiate workshop findings and to ensure we received input from experts with experience in a more diverse range of fields than those represented in the online workshop. The expert panel was also provided the workshop results and asked to rank the importance of each category on a scale from 1 to 1000 (Sutherland et al. 2022). Workshop participants were also asked to indicate the confidence level that each discussion captured all the barriers to the associated categories. However, there were too few responses, so confidence was instead confirmed by sharing results (by way of sending the draft publication) with the members of the expert panel who expressed interest in co-authoring the paper to confirm their agreement/disagreement with the study's findings.

3. Questions, participants, and ranking

We received 81 responses to our "call for questions" yielding 349 questions (see "Arctic Biodiversity Call for Questions Responses" in Supplementary information). Interestingly, while we asked for persistent and emerging threats to Arctic biodiversity, more than half (52.5%) of the questions we received actually related to actions that if not implemented and (or) dealt with would lead to threats. Also of interest, the category "Understanding fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity" received by far the most questions with 31.2% of questions relating to this category (see "Number of Questions Received per Category" in Supplementary information).

The primary affiliation for 74.1% of the respondents to our "call for questions" was academic, with the majority of respondents being researchers (90.1%; see "Primary Affiliations of Respondents to Call for Questions" and "Primary Roles of Respondents to Call for Questions" in Supplementary information). Most respondents were from North America; however, we also received replies from many other Arctic countries, including all eight with jurisdiction over the area (i.e., Canada, Kingdom of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden, the Russian Federation, and the United States of America; see "Number of Respondents to Call for Questions by Country" in Supplementary information). Over half

Table 2. Summary of findings for each action category in this horizon scan.

| Category | 5.1: Understanding fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity | | |
|---|--|--|---|
| Category definition | Developing an understanding of the fundamental information we need to conserve Arctic biodiversity | | |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| How is biodiversity distributed across the Arctic, what are the drivers of this pattern and how does this relate to ecosystem function in the Arctic? What aspect of diversity (i.e., intrapopulation, genetic variation) is most under threat in species poor Arctic ecosystems? Which are the most vulnerable organisms we are going to lose first? | Taxonomic issues such as the absence of common species lists, especially plants and lichens Lack of resources to collect fundamental data, (e.g., species | Develop joint collaborative research projects and supportive research networks Fund a portfolio of research that combines fundamental work with more applied, mission-oriented research to support many goals | • Recognition that fundamental science is often foundational to solving problems—just on a longer time frame |

Techniques, technologies, and programs that enable long-term monitoring of Arctic biodiversity

Actions that can be taken if able

| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
|---|---|--|---|
| from a satellite?How should we design monitoring programs to follow changes in Arctic biodiversity through time, and what role can new and | Deciding when to transition from research observations to operational monitoring Inadequate understanding of ecosystems, complicating the establishment of tailored monitoring programs Poor understanding of interacting stressors Lack of confidence in existing data Poor understanding of where the knowledge gaps are Expenses associated with data collection Expenses associated with ground-truthing Lack of people to dedicate to long-term monitoring Lack of standardization | Improve access to data Establish transboundary monitoring of cumulative effects on migratory species Make use of existing resources Engage local communities in biodiversity observations Foster a culture of data sharing and collaboration Support the development of tools used to conceptualize and quantify cumulative effects Develop simple protocols for long-term use | Improved decision-makingThe ability to measure the effects |
| Category | 5.3: Supporting Indigenous governa | ance | |

5.2: Implementing and improving monitoring

Category

Category definition

Category definition Consideration of resources, research, and knowledge of Indigenous communities and Rights Holders, and how to collaborate with Indigenous communities and Rights Holders on Arctic biodiversity management

| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
|---|--|---|---|
| How can we best apply Indigenous knowledge to protect and conserve biodiversity? How can we speed up the creation of Indigenous Protected and Conserved Areas to protect Arctic biodiversity? What is the best approach to co-constructing Arctic research with Indigenous communities? | Geopolitical restrictions | Ask Indigenous communities how they would like to work with researchers Include budget to work collaboratively with communities in funding applications Build capacity for Indigenous communities/governments to engage in monitoring Ensure monitoring serves local needs Change in norms/perspectives around knowledge generation | Implementation of better policies and practices that yield equitably distributed benefits Development of co-produced research designs and monitoring plans |
| Category | 5.4: Facilitating collaboration to pro | otect Arctic biodiversity | |
| Category definition | How we can facilitate cooperation a biodiversity including the ecologica | | local scales to protect Arctic |

| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
|--|---|---|--|
| How can local ecological knowledge of communities be integrated with scientific research to improve the conservation of Arctic biodiversity? How can international cooperation and governance frameworks be improved to effectively address threats to Arctic biodiversity? How can the international community support expertise gaps in Arctic science? | developed Unanticipated costs, like funding • for translators Besides mechanics of language barriers, need to find someone who can convey the proper meaning to reach a common understanding (e.g., words with multiple meanings/multiple words describing something, words with no direct translation) Locals might perceive conservation as preventing them from being able to utilize the ecosystem services benefiting them Lack of training on how to navigate forming partnerships | a pre-proposal application window to facilitate co-development of proposals Plan collaboration costs into research budgets Creation of an internationally pooled grant for globally shared issues Consider the lessons learned from other disciplines (i.e., social science, anthropology) where there have already been discussions on working equitably with diverse groups of people Make use of global networks that already exist (e.g., UK Science Innovation Network) Work with local communities to find solutions that work for them, like ecotourism that promotes conservation but still allows locals to enjoy ecosystem services and bring in revenue | research and conservation, with more diverse perspectives for setting research agendas and possible conservation solutions • Pooled grants would help bring together historically affected but excluded groups that have fewer funding opportunities with those that have more resources |
| Category | 5.5: Facilitating improvements to ma | • • • | |
| | Regulations, decision-making, and in biodiversity (these are regulations no | | vance conservation goals for Arctic |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What policies, legislation, or regulations are missing that would ensure biodiversity protection is considered as a priority in land use planning, resource management, impact assessment, and industrial development processes? How do we best define protected areas in Arctic environments, where richness and densities of species are often low? How do we co-manage Arctic natural resources across local, regional and global scales? | transboundary and circum-Arctic issues complicate conservation actions Political "interference" influences management action by moving focus to party needs and away from improving | Increased compliance regarding global treaties and frameworks Address unique Arctic biodiversity and contexts in global processes Centre the evidence by embracing evidence-based approaches instead of politics Acknowledge the value in education and awareness | Better regulations to incite favourable outcomes for conservation More timely decision-making |
| Category | 5.6: Design and implementation of co | onservation solutions | |
| Category definition | How we can design and implement in conservation problems | nnovative conservation solutions | applied to Arctic biodiversity |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| How can we manage population declines of Arctic species? Can drone technology accurately capture changes in plant species composition across the landscape? Can we identify hotspots of biodiversity (across taxa) in the Arctic, and how can these inform conservation priorities? | • | Identify and agree upon national and international responsibilities Leverage existing conventions, such as the Kunming–Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (GBF) or the BBNJ implementation, to hold governments accountable Address gaps in biodiversity groups Replicate experiments, test, and study various interventions Look for bright spots to figure out what works and then scale that up | • Removal of jurisdictional uncertainties and debates to facilitate partnerships |

Table 2. (concluded).

| Category | 5.7: Identifying roles of stakeholders | and Rights Holders | |
|--|--|---|---|
| Category definition | Determining the roles of individuals, institutions, and philanthropic organizations in Arctic biodiversity conservation. | | |
| Example questions | Barriers | Ways to overcome barriers | Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers |
| What roles can philanthropic organizations play in helping to protect and conserve Arctic biodiversity? What are the roles of leading institutions and places of higher education? How can individuals play a role in encouraging biodiversity conservation in the Arctic? | to involve local communities and knowledge holders Staff turnover in organizations that facilitate long-term monitoring Maintenance of databases | Develop forums to bring people in different sectors and roles together Build funding and capacity for partnership and collaboration Train students on how to work with northern communities (e.g., ArcticNet meetings) Develop communication with Northern organizations and Indigenous Peoples Expand mandates and policies to address biodiversity conservation in various stakeholder institutions to bring it into the mainstream | interactions, leading to impactful and efficient researchIdentification of shared priorities for biodiversity conservation |

Note: Example questions provided illustrate the types of questions that relate to the category. The columns containing barriers, ways to overcome barriers, and actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers summarize the results of the discussion that took place regarding each category during the workshop. The categories are listed in order from most to least important as outlined in the ranking by our expert panel (see Fig. 3).

of these respondents (56.8%) had more than 21 years' experience working with Arctic biodiversity and most worked in either the terrestrial (40.7%) or marine (34.6%) domain (see "Years of Experience of Respondents to Call for Questions" and "Main Research Domains of Respondents to Call for Questions" in Supplementary information).

Ranking of categories by the expert panel post-workshop (see Fig. 3 and "rankings.R" in Supplementary information) indicated that the three most important categories (in order from most to least important) were Species' responses to climate change, Understanding fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity, and Marine cryosphere and hydrological changes caused by climate change. The least important categories (in order from least to most important) were Other anthropogenic threats, Identifying roles of stakeholders and Rights Holders, and Increasing vessel traffic.

4. Threat categories

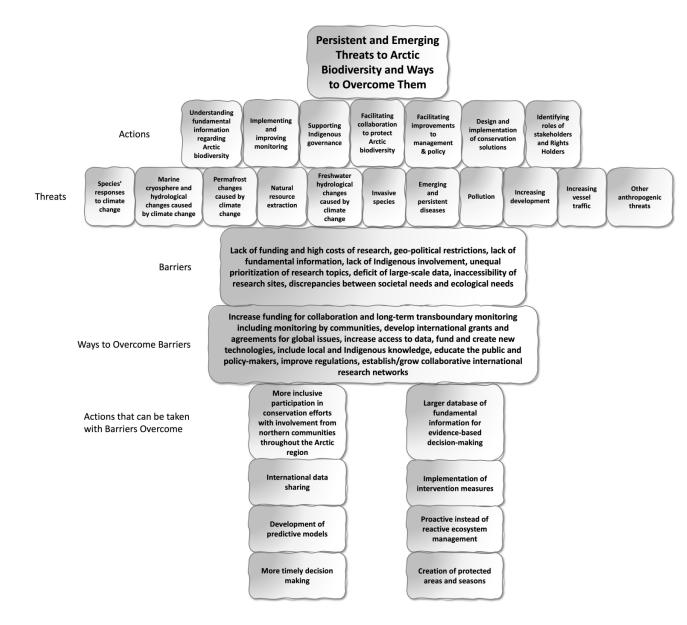
The following subsections illustrate the context and key findings from the horizon scan for each of the threat categories as summarized in Table 1 and Fig. 2. The categories are listed in order from most to least important based on the ranking performed by the expert panel.

4.1. Species' responses to climate change

To understand how biological communities or ecosystems may change as a result of climate change, it is important to understand how individual species will respond, including behavioural, genetic, and evolutionary modifications (Baselga and Araújo 2009; Pucko et al. 2011). Numerous modifications in behaviour have already been documented for Arctic species, including shifts in the breeding range of migratory birds (Anderson et al. 2023) as well as more northerly range shifts for terrestrial species (Chen et al. 2011). Alterations in the timing of breeding, migration, or other timed life cycle events (i.e., changes in phenology) have also been seen (Cherry et al. 2013; Ward et al. 2016). Genetics will also play a large role in a species' response. Past climatic events have been shown to have measurable impacts on genetic diversity (Mellows et al. 2012; Stewart et al. 2016; Fedorov et al. 2020; Westbury et al. 2023), which is likely to be exacerbated with compounded threats like overexploitation or habitat loss further reducing populations (Kellner et al. 2024). Species facing declines in population size are also facing reduced genetic diversity and as a result have lower adaptive potential (McRae et al. 2012; Westbury et al. 2023). Furthermore, factors influencing the genetic basis of traits, like additive genetic variance (traits determined by multiple loci; Singh and Singh 2018) can have unpredictable effects on adaptive potential (van Heerwaarden and Sgrò 2014). A better understanding of these factors and processes could help quantify species' adaptive capacity, though there is also debate on whether highly specialized species (including Arctic species) will adapt quickly enough to changing conditions (Beever et al. 2016; Ainsworth and Drake 2020). A lack of both reference genetic data as well as historic ranges of species was therefore indicated by horizon scan participants as important barriers to answering questions within this category (see Table 1). Promoting this sort of research instead of novel research was suggested by participants as a good way to overcome these barriers so that appropriate intervention measures can be implemented (see Table 1).

4.2. Marine cryosphere and hydrological changes caused by climate change

Arctic sea ice has been in decline for several decades with over half of multiyear sea ice disappearing between 2002 **Fig. 2.** Summary of findings of this horizon scan. As some Indigenous Peoples use the Inukshuk to guide their way, we hope this image will guide and inspire readers in taking actions that protect Arctic biodiversity. Both actions and threats are listed from left to right in order of most to least important as outlined in the ranking summarized in Fig. 3.

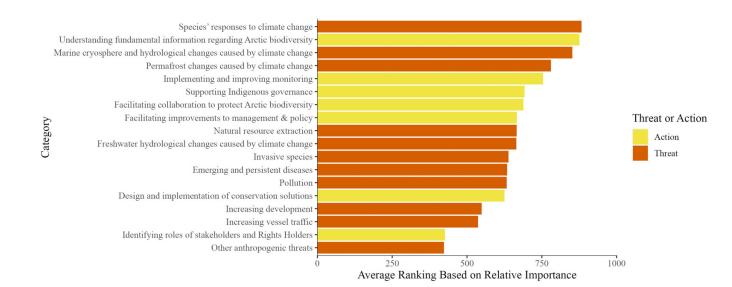


and 2017 (Kwok 2018; Li and Fedorov 2021). Climate models almost unanimously predict that sea ice coverage will continue to decline through the 21st Century in response to rising concentrations of atmospheric greenhouse gases (Zhang and Walsh 2006). This loss of sea ice coverage has a diverse set of impacts from changing the salinity content of the Arctic Ocean (Li and Fedorov 2021) to impacting marine mammals associated with sea ice (Kovacs et al. 2011; Eamer et al. 2013; Laidre et al. 2015). For example, freshening of the Arctic Ocean has a negative impact on primary producers because of the deepening of the nitracline (vertical flux of nitrate) and the creation of a subsurface chlorophyll maximum leading to lower primary productivity (Coupel et al. 2015). Furthermore, sea ice loss can impact ice-associated organisms by causing distribution shifts and compromising body condition, ultimately causing declines in reproductive effort or success and abundance (Kovacs et al. 2011; Eamer et al. 2013; Laidre et al. 2015). Horizon scan participants indicated that a lack of largescale and long-term monitoring makes it difficult to answer research questions in this category (see Table 1). As such, participants suggested that mandatory monitoring through vessel traffic and the development and use of new technologies such as eDNA, be used to allow for the implementation of higher resolution monitoring (see Table 1).

4.3. Permafrost changes caused by climate change

Permafrost underlies 15%–25% of the Northern Hemisphere (Obu 2021; National Snow and Ice Data Center 2023). Its thickness can reach great depths, sometimes down to 1500 m (National Snow and Ice Data Center 2023). As





permafrost acts as a carbon sink, it represents a large global reservoir of carbon (Robinson et al. 2003; Hugelius et al. 2014). Thawing permafrost therefore releases carbon, which can have many impacts to biodiversity. For example, the release of carbon can change the composition of microbial communities (Ricketts et al. 2020) and alter food webs (Wauthy and Rautio 2020). Beyond incremental thawing, the rapid collapse of permafrost can lead to abrupt changes in ecosystems such as the introduction of contaminants and excess sediments (Vonk et al. 2015), with substantial consequences for local biodiversity (Thienpont et al. 2013). There is also concern that pathogens long frozen within permafrost will be released having catastrophic impacts to Arctic wildlife and inhabitants (Cohen 2023). However, horizon scan participants indicated that significant research gaps exist for our understanding of this phenomenon (see Table 1; Turetsky et al. 2019). Participants suggested that increased funding would allow for the development of models to help address research questions in this category (see Table 1).

4.4. Natural resource extraction

The Arctic remains of interest for natural resource extraction despite the difficulty in extracting resources from the harsh environment (Wilson and Stammler 2016). In 2007-2008, melting sea ice resulted in parts of the Northwest Passage becoming a more viable sea trading route; this is concerning given a U.S. Geological Survey estimated that roughly a quarter of the world's undiscovered oil and gas deposits were located in the Arctic (Harsem et al. 2011). Subsequently, a 2020 study found the primary economic activity in the circumpolar Arctic to be mineral and hydrocarbon extraction (Nekrich 2020). Poor management of natural resources to date has already led to population declines of Arctic organisms (Bunnefeld et al. 2011), and increased extraction can have drastic, deleterious impacts on Arctic animals, including threatened species (Johnson et al. 2005; Dabros et al. 2018). For example, oil extraction and potential spills

associated with transport pose a threat to biodiversity as many marine species are sensitive to oil components, which can cause a variety of short- or long-term, harmful health impacts, including mortality (Hendriks et al. 2005; de Hoop et al. 2011). Mining activities have also had a negative impact on environmental health with side effects like effluents entering water systems deleteriously affecting the health of ecosystems (Smith et al. 2005). However, in other cases, the impacts of resource extraction on wildlife are less clear (Grajal-Puche et al. 2024). Given society's impacts on political decisions, societal interests were identified as a large barrier to answering research questions in this category by horizon scan participants (see Table 1). If industry was required to make all their data publicly available, participants suggested that standards could be implemented to allow natural resource extraction to take place in a way that limits its impact to the environment (see Table 1).

4.5. Freshwater hydrological changes caused by climate change

Freshwater biodiversity loss is a global issue resulting from pollution, habitat loss and degradation, invasive species, overexploitation, and changes to water flow (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Reid et al. 2019). Changes to freshwater hydrology via climate change will exacerbate these issues. Some of the impacts climate change is anticipated to have on freshwater hydrology in the Arctic include an increase of precipitation and severe weather events, drought, earlier snowmelt and later snowfall, and an increase in water temperatures (Wrona et al. 2004; CAFF 2013b). These impacts in turn are expected to alter hydrological and climate systems exacerbating the issue (Prowse et al. 2015). Changes to permafrost are also expected to greatly influence freshwater hydrology, though how is unclear (Walvoord and Kurylyk 2016). Some of these effects are already being observed (Smol and Douglas 2007; Hansen et al. 2014), which is especially concerning given that freshwater ecosystems are important in the Arctic, acting as a link **Fig. 4.** Example of freshwater lakes in the region, which are home to Arctic char and threespine stickleback. In the background, you can see the edge of the Ice sheet. Photo by BM taken on a lake in Qassiarsuk, Greenland, September 2021.



between marine and terrestrial ecosystems, supporting high biodiversity that local communities depend on for their livelihoods (see Fig. 4; Wrona and Reist 2013). Given this connection, horizon scan participants recommended that an ideal way to mitigate the barriers of limited access to research sites and resources would be to work with local communities for data collection (see Table 1). With these data, remote sensing applications could then be developed (see Table 1).

4.6. Invasive species

Human presence in the Arctic can influence biodiversity in numerous ways, including the intentional and unintentional introduction of species. The intentional introduction of non-native species can be the result of farming/harvesting practices, as seen with the Arctic red king crab (*Paralithodes camtschaticus*) in Norway (Sundet and Hoel 2016), the pink salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbusca*) in the European North Atlantic region (Lennox et al. 2023), and the Arctic fox (*Vulpes lagopus*) in the Aleutian Islands (West and Rudd 1983). These introduced species can cause management problems as well as wreak havoc on native biodiversity if they become invasive (West and Rudd 1983; Sundet and Hoel 2016). A species is considered invasive if it has been established in an area outside of its normal range and outcompetes native species in this new environment (Whitney and Gabler 2008). These species

can also be unintentionally introduced by pathways such as container ships and shipment of infested wood (Hulme 2009; Humble 2010). Invasive species are a threat to biodiversity because they can outcompete native species for resources and put pressure on the stability of native populations (Whitney and Gabler 2008). Ongoing global change increases the likelihood of the arrival and establishment of these species in the Arctic (Cottier-Cook et al. 2024). The Arctic specifically is more susceptible to the establishment of invasive species given its relatively low biodiversity as compared to other biomes and because of increased development in the area (CAFF and PAME 2017). However, minimal invasions have occurred thus far, so there is an opportunity to prevent significant harm if immediate actions are taken (CAFF and PAME 2017). A significant barrier identified by horizon scan participants to implementing these actions is not knowing the current distributions of native Arctic species or how well they would be able to compete with invasives (see Table 1). It is therefore pertinent to conduct research to collect this fundamental information so that predictive models can be created (see Table 1).

4.7. Emerging and persistent diseases

As the Arctic warms due to climate change, the geographic and temporal ranges of several diseases are likely to expand

into the Arctic (Parkinson et al. 2014). This potential for increased disease is concerning for both wildlife and for humans through zoonotic pathogens. An international circumpolar group of experts identified diseases such as Brucella spp., Giardia spp., and West Nile virus as potentially climatesensitive zoonotic diseases of concern (Parkinson et al. 2014). Additionally, of special concern is avian influenza, which has the potential to drastically impact animal populations (Lee et al. 2020; Caliendo et al. 2022) and has recently been detected in breeding colonies of Arctic seabirds (Lee et al. 2020; McLaughlin et al. 2024), subsequently causing sporadic mortality in multiple bird and mammal species including a polar bear (Ursus maritimus; Caliendo et al. 2022; Alaska Division of Environmental Conservation 2024). One of the primary vectors of zoonotic diseases entering the Arctic is the northward movement of organisms such as birds that carry infected ticks or viruses (Revich et al. 2012). Diseases such as tick-borne encephalitis are experiencing an upward trend in the northern European Arctic with climate change as a contributing factor (Revich et al. 2012). While some of these diseases making their way to the Arctic do not directly impact humans (e.g., avian cholera, Henri et al. 2018; lungworms, Kafle et al. 2020), there are indirect impacts given the "One Health" concept in that animals, humans, and the environment are all dependent upon each other for their health (Ruscio et al. 2015). Therefore, horizon scan participants advocated that research must be focused on understanding and monitoring all types of disease to truly protect Arctic biodiversity (see Table 1). Most importantly, participants suggested that with the identification of the vectors of disease transmission, it may be possible to manage their spread and limit their impact (see Table 1).

4.8. Pollution

While pollution is a global threat, some associated risks particularly impact the Arctic, such as ice-bound pollutants. As polar ice continues to melt, an increasing number of pollutants will be released into surrounding environments, potentially negatively impacting biodiversity in associated ecosystems (<mark>Botterell et al. 2022</mark>). While there have been studies on the effects of pollution upon Arctic environments (Lifshits et al. 2021; Sonne et al. 2021; Svavarsson et al. 2021), little is known about how pollution release will specifically impact the environment or the specifics of the release processes, although release from Arctic environmental archives is underway (Ma et al. 2011). The impact of pollution making its way to the Arctic from the South is also an area of concern. For example, microplastics enter the Arctic from more Southern locations via oceanic and atmospheric currents and have the capacity to negatively influence animal reproduction, growth, metabolism, and behaviour (Anderson et al. 2016; Mishra et al. 2021). The lack of a clear understanding of pollution's impacts to Arctic ecosystems was identified by horizon scan participants a key barrier to answering research questions within this category that can be mitigated with the development of new pollution monitoring technologies (see Table 1). With this information, participants suggested that it would be easier to regulate toxic substances as well as identify and manage point sources (see Table 1).

4.9. Increasing development

The negative impacts of human development and infrastructure (e.g., cities, roads, tourism) on biodiversity are well recognized globally (Coffin 2007; IPBES 2018). The impact that development has on Arctic biodiversity, however, is not as well understood. While the Arctic remains sparsely populated by humans and human infrastructure compared to other parts of the globe, development is increasing (Bartsch et al. 2021) and is being compounded with other stressors. For instance, Arctic species may be facing habitat loss/degradation from both human infrastructure and climate change (Wauchope et al. 2017; Pálsdóttir et al. 2022), and by development facilitating the spread of invasive species (Bock 2013). Additionally, some species use specific migration routes or have high fidelity to parts of their range (Cherry et al. 2013; Joly et al. 2021), which may be negatively impacted by human presence, development projects, or artificial infrastructure (Pálsdóttir et al. 2022). This is especially concerning for species already facing changing landscapes and reduced habitat from climate change such as polar bears and caribou (Rangifer tarandus) that show relatively high site fidelity to seasonal habitats and (or) migration routes (Cherry et al. 2013; Joly et al. 2021), as well as many seabirds that return to the same breeding and nesting sites each year (Léandri-Breton et al. 2021). Freshwater organisms are also impacted via the development of dams and other water diversion infrastructure, particularly downstream habitats (CAFF 2013b). Expansion of Arctic fisheries will not only lead to enhanced harvest of target species, but greater levels of bycatch of non-target fish, birds, and marine mammals (Anderson et al. 2018; Mallory et al. 2022a). Horizon scan participants identified inadequate understanding of the environmental impacts of development in the Arctic as well as conflicting interests as barriers to answering research questions in this category (see Table 1). Participants suggested that full research studies including a pre-development assessment and postdevelopment long-term monitoring be included in the permit requirements for developers to overcome these barriers and limit the environmental impacts of development (see Table 1).

4.10. Increasing vessel traffic

The Arctic has historically been relatively inaccessible for most activities. Ice used to block vessel passage for most of the year; however, with the melting of sea ice, the Arctic is becoming more and more accessible for longer periods of time (see Fig. 5; Arctic Council 2009). This increased accessibility can be seen clearly when examining the distances travelled by vessels throughout the Arctic, which tripled from 1990 to 2015 (Dawson et al. 2018). Increasing vessel traffic has the potential to bring with it many complications (Qi et al. 2024). For example, shipping is a known vector for the spread of invasive species, which could consequently reduce Arctic biodiversity (CAFF 2013*b*; Stevenson et al. 2019). It is also anticipated that the pollution that accompanies vessels **Fig. 5.** Passengers on an expedition tourism vessel moving through sea ice in the Northwest Passage, Nunavut. Photo by MLM, 2023.



(e.g., air, noise, greywater, waste, spills) will increase, which has a great potential to negatively impact the environment and aquatic life (Dunlop 2019; Stevenson et al. 2019). Vessel traffic also contributes to direct mortality via ship strikes (Halliday et al. 2022; Qi et al. 2024). To date, most attention has focused on impacts during the open water season, but there is growing investment in industrial icebreaking vessels that can operate year-round such as ice-rated LNG tankers that export gas via the Ob estuary in Russia, and nuclear-powered icebreakers that lead cargo convoys (Wilson et al. 2020). Year-round icebreaking operations potentially pose risks for ice-dependent species, such as ice-breeding pinnipeds, (Wilson et al. 2020) and have been shown to have detrimental physical impacts on seal breeding habitats such as causing mother-pup separations during lactation and direct mortality due to collisions (Wilson et al. 2017). Progress has been made in tracking shipping vessels (PAME 2024); however, horizon scan participants indicated that a key barrier to alleviating this threat is the inability to track all vessel movement, and laws should be implemented to make this information mandatory (see Table 1). As a result, participants suggested that knowledge of vessel movements would allow for the creation of shipping lanes that are both efficient and allow for minimal environmental impact (see Table 1).

4.11. Other anthropogenic threats

This category encompasses threats that do not fit within the other threat categories identified or could potentially relate to many of them. Arctic tourism, for example, has been increasing in the Arctic with both known and unknown impacts. The sheer number of tourists can directly impact biodiversity by damaging vegetation at tourist sites as well as by changing bird community composition when sensitive species are replaced with generalist species (Tolvanen and Kangas 2016). Given tensions between Arctic countries, war is another concern given not only its impacts to Arctic residents but also its catastrophic environmental impacts. The Arctic is also used for military or other technological testing, such as sonar (National Defence 2021), with some negative, but largely unknown, impacts on wildlife (Halliday et al. 2020). It is also anticipated that the cumulative impacts of all threats will be far more consequential than any threat alone; however, little research has been conducted in relation to these cumulative impacts (Schindler and Smol 2006; Smith et al. 2022). This general lack of understanding of the impacts of all these activities as well as the fact that they are constantly changing were identified by horizon scan participants as major barriers to answering research questions within this category (see Table 1). Participants suggested that the implementation of international treaties and agreements would be one way to help alleviate these barriers, so initiatives like ecofriendly tourism can be enforced (see Table 1).

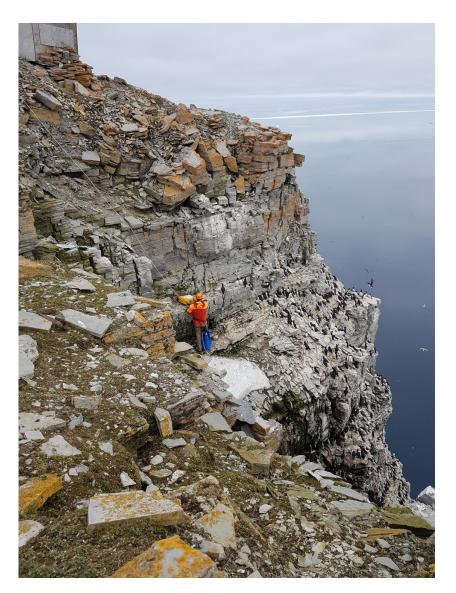
5. Action categories

The following subsections illustrate the context and key findings from the horizon scan for each of the action categories as summarized in Table 2 and Fig. 2. The categories are listed in order from most to least important based on the ranking performed by the expert panel.

5.1. Understanding fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity

It is crucial to gain a better understanding of the Arctic biome to inform conservation practices. Fundamental information is obtained through experimental or theoretical work, as well as long-term monitoring (especially to capture fundamental temporal patterns; Gauthier et al. 2013) and is especially important to conservation biology (Courchamp et al. 2015). Robust information is necessary to address biodiversity crises and support evidence-based decisions that ultimately lead to better conservation practices (Buxton et al. 2021). Knowledge gaps and resource shortages related to Canadian Science Publishing

Fig. 6. Monitoring pollution in the Arctic since 1975 using eggs from seabirds. Photo by MLM taken at Prince Leopold Island, Nunavut, 2023.



Arctic biodiversity information, such as mapping biodiversity distributions across the Arctic, understanding the drivers of biodiversity patterns, and how this relates to ecosystem function in the Arctic, should be assessed to delineate specific information needs and encourage future research. While it is essential to avoid overstudying at the expense of taking action, fundamental information is still needed to be able to address the various identified threats. Better long-term biodiversity monitoring needs to be conducted in conjunction with environmental monitoring to be able to provide context to data (Gauthier et al. 2013). An overall lack of resources was identified by horizon scan participants as a main barrier to collecting these data, and the development of joint collaborative research projects would be an ideal way to alleviate this barrier (see Table 2). Ideally, these initiatives would lead to a common understanding that fundamental information is paramount for identifying and implementing effective conservation solutions (see Table 2).

5.2. Implementing and improving monitoring

Monitoring is a conservation tool used to track changes to an ecosystem over time (Lindenmayer and Likens 2009). The information gathered from monitoring programs is then used to inform conservation strategies suited to address a specific issue (Magurran et al. 2010) such as securing food, detecting change, educating, or supporting economic futures (Wheeler et al. 2018). Monitoring can be resource-intensive and requires baseline data to track the impacts of conservation actions effectively. Monitoring initiatives for the Arctic exist (e.g., Gill et al. 2011; Culp et al. 2012; Christensen et al. 2013; Jones et al. 2019; see Figs. 6 and 7), yet issues with data interoperability and sharing information complicate establishing effective monitoring plans. The need for better monitoring has increasingly been recognized (Barry et al. 2023; Provencher et al. 2023), and several international collaborative initiatives have attempted to identify and address the gaps (e.g., Aronsson et al. 2021; Christensen et al. 2021). How**Fig. 7.** These buoys and sondes (EXO2) are deployed for weeks at a time to measure high-frequency changes in oxygen, temperature, conductivity, algal biomass, and fluorescent-dissolved organic matter. The aim is to quantify lake metabolism. One of the constraints on such ecosystem monitoring is the need to replace the batteries and service the sensors every few months, making long-term deployments (e.g., over winter) difficult. Photo by BM taken on a lake in Qassiarsuk, Greenland, September 2021.



ever, realizing these improvements in monitoring has proven challenging with many conservation/research programs still falling short in terms of collecting enough or adequate information and being adaptive to the conservation goal (Legg and Nagy 2006; Hillebrand et al. 2018). This includes shortcomings like insufficient scales, lack of resource investment, and even issues with what data are being collected as recognized by horizon scan participants (see Table 2; Hillebrand et al. 2018). Therefore, participants suggested that the development of standard monitoring practices that obtain data that is accessible to all would allow for improved (and more transparent) decision-making and the development of a data archive (see Table 2).

5.3. Supporting Indigenous governance

Indigenous Peoples have been stewards of the land since time immemorial; however, the important role they play in global conservation is only recently being recognized (Nitah 2021). Land currently managed by Indigenous Peoples makes up only around 20% of global land, yet holds 80% of the world's biodiversity (Mearns and Norton 2010). Over a third of the world's intact forested landscapes are also found on Indigenous land (Fa et al. 2020). Indigenous governance,

thus, is a key component of sustainable land management (CBD 2000; IPBES 2018; IPCC 2022). Supporting Indigenous governance is important globally; however, it is even more paramount in the Arctic where Indigenous Peoples comprise significant populations in many Arctic jurisdictions, composing the majority of some (Bogoyavlenskiy and Siggner 2004; Heleniak and Bogoyavlensky 2014; Young and Bjerregaard 2019). Embracing Indigenous leadership can enhance decision-making as Rights Holder groups have a close connection and knowledge of the local land and ecology. Indigenous involvement is essential to achieve biodiversity conservation goals, following the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples framework (IPBES 2018; Nitah 2021; IPCC 2022). Various partnership networks exist, and should be further encouraged and supported, such as the Centre for Braiding Indigenous Knowledges and Science, that looks at how Indigenous knowledge and empirical science can come together to co-develop research projects, methodologies, and ethical guidelines, and produce knowledge/databases (UMass Amherst n.d.). There is also the Circumpolar Inuit Protocol from the Inuit Circumpolar Council that outlines best practices for equitable and ethical engagement with Inuit knowledge in research (Inuit Circumpolar Council 2022). Other

Arctic-specific Indigenous networks include the SIKU Indigenous knowledge network or the SmartICE platform, which is centred around providing tools to integrate Indigenous and local knowledge in data acquisition, monitoring, mapping, transfer, and preservation of knowledge (SIKU-The Indigenous Knowledge Social Network n.d.; SmartICE-Sea Ice Monitoring and Information Inc. n.d.). However, horizon scan participants highlighted that Indigenous Peoples are often not included in the research process presenting a major barrier (see Table 2). To alleviate this barrier, participants suggested that Indigenous communities be asked how they would like to work with researchers, and what their own research priorities are, prior to any research being conducted (see Table 2). Furthermore, it was suggested that research budgets for funding applications include the funds required to collaboratively work with these communities (see Table 2). Implementation of these practices will allow for better research, policies, and practices that yield equitably distributed benefits (see Table 2).

5.4. Facilitating collaboration to protect Arctic biodiversity

Many of the drivers of change facing the Arctic are global, and Arctic states cannot address them in isolation (Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 2013a). The behaviour, health, and survival of many species are affected by countries outside the Arctic, either directly or indirectly (e.g., pollution diverting to the Arctic or migratory species that inhabit multiple countries; Burkow and Kallenborn 2000; Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 2013b). Namely, climate change is one of the largest threats to the Arctic and is a prime issue that must be addressed globally (CAFF 2013b). Efficiently mitigating these threats requires the involvement of the international community (Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 2013a), but conflicting legislation amongst nations becomes detrimental to biodiversity as it does not conform to the same boundaries (CAFF 1997). Likewise, environmental protection treaties may be drafted but not accepted/signed by all nations, reducing their effectiveness (Hensz and Soberón 2018). Conflicts involving Arctic nations also influence involvement and cooperation on joint Arctic programs (Dyck 2024). However, there are collaborative bodies that bring the Arctic nations together, such as the Arctic Council, and wide collaborative groups such as these can have great benefits, like maximizing scarce resources by sharing data, expertise, methodologies, and technologies (CAFF 2013a). Horizon scan participants indicated that a barrier to these collaborations can often be a communication issue due to challenges with language as well as a lack of funding causing the unequitable involvement of those who will be impacted by decision-making (see Table 2). Participants suggested that funding designated towards allowing different groups to come together would allow for more inclusive conservation practices (see Table 2).

5.5. Facilitating improvements to management and policy

The Arctic boundaries extend across eight Arctic states, each subject to its respective national and sub-national jurisdictions as governed by internal laws (Smieszek et al. 2021). Collaboration and governance in the Arctic are fostered and supported by the Arctic Council, and although the Arctic Council is a consensus-based high-level intergovernmental forum that does not implement or enforce its guidelines, assessments or recommendations, the Council successfully coordinates discussions amongst Arctic states and Indigenous Peoples and makes recommendations based on sound science for the benefit of the Arctic. Nonetheless, navigating decision-making in the Arctic proves challenging because of the array of opinions involved, a consequence of its shared nature (Cole et al. 2014). Border disputes remain among the eight Arctic countries (Schofield and Østhagen 2020) and multiscalar governance within and across boundaries impedes coordinated governance (Stephenson 2018; Linnebjerg et al. 2021). However, management and policy action are required to regulate and implement conservation action (Mills et al. 2013), so it is important to find ways to optimize management, in the form of regulations, policies, and decision-making, to advance conservation goals. These optimized management practices have been successful within the Arctic in the past through the implementation of effective policies such as the International Polar Bear Agreement (Prestrud and Stirling 1994), and coordination on marine mammal surveys (Boveng et al. 2017). Building on and continuing to find new solutions such as these will be paramount for Arctic biodiversity management. Horizon scan participants highlighted that this growth can be difficult however given the slow speed at which institutions react (see Table 2). Therefore, participants suggested that more timely decisionmaking would be possible if investments to support evidencebased policy-making was emphasized (see Table 2).

5.6. Design and implementation of conservation solutions

Conservation solutions aim to protect and preserve biodiversity and natural resources by addressing pressing environmental concerns with applied problem-solving conservation science (Gibbons et al. 2011). These solutions must be tested and an evidence base established so that the best interventions for threats to Arctic biodiversity can be implemented (i.e., so that the solutions can become actionable; Cooke et al. 2022). These solutions must also be robust and developed from numerous knowledge bases to ensure their effectiveness (Cooke et al. 2022). Such solutions might include designation of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures, restoration, and rehabilitation of habitat, or implementation of new technologies and legislations. Regardless of their form, however, any interventions must be implemented at the right time and scale and have the engagement of multidisciplinary actors to enact real change (Chapman et al. 2015). Innovative conservation solutions are needed to mitigate Arctic biodiversity loss, yet horizon scan participants emphasized that a lack of evidence and jurisdictional complexities cause difficulties in their design and execution (see Table 2). Participants suggested that identifying and agreeing upon national and international responsibilities and leveraging existing agree-

5.7. Identifying roles of stakeholders and Rights Holders

Stakeholders are individuals or groups that are affected by and (or) effect environmental management and policy decisions at different levels. Environmental decision-making in particular involves dialogue, communication, and collaboration with all stakeholders and Rights Holders. In rural societies, stakeholder participation facilitates decisions that lead to stronger environmental solutions (Berkes et al. 2007; Zikargae et al. 2022). Community inclusion and public engagement is especially important to foster trust, information sharing, encourage participation and action, and to ensure two-way communication (Cooke et al. 2013; Zikargae et al. 2022). There are an increasing number of examples where collaborative, community-scientist projects in the Arctic are producing strong, biodiversity-related knowledge with longterm support (e.g., Ostertag et al. 2018; Tomaselli et al. 2018; Mallory et al. 2022b). With respect to Arctic ecosystems, horizon scan participants indicated that identifying the roles that philanthropic organizations, leading institutions, places of higher education, and individuals play in helping to protect biodiversity can be difficult due to a lack of communication (see Table 2). Participants recommended that forums that bring people in different sectors and roles together to foster open communication be created and enhanced (see Table 2). With these roles identified, there can then be confidence that stakeholders and Rights Holders are not working against each other or duplicating efforts, both of which are essential given the limited resources available to study the Arctic (see Table 2).

6. Barriers

Arctic biodiversity faces many threats that do not have clear solutions (Prip 2016). In our workshop, participants identified several common barriers preventing more effective conservation efforts for protecting Arctic biodiversity from being implemented (see Tables 1 and 2, and Fig. 2). The most common barriers identified were issues surrounding funding for Arctic science. This is due to the costs of research in this region being disproportionately higher than in more southerly areas, even considering some of the special funds made available for this work (see Fig. 8; e.g., Mallory et al. 2018). Ibarguchi et al. (2018) argued that funding has not necessarily kept pace with the need to improve our understanding of the changing Arctic. This has led to inadequate resources to collect fundamental information, the inability to operate in the challenging Arctic environment, a restriction on the timespan over which research can be conducted, and limits to the relationships that can be formed with Indigenous Peoples (at a time when governments and Indigenous Peoples are actively seeking research engagement, e.g., ITK 2024). For example, a 2017 survey from 22 countries found that early career researchers value the knowledge

of Indigenous Peoples but found that a lack of funding and a lack of networking opportunities were preventing more inclusive practices (Sjöberg et al. 2019). Furthermore, most funding applications require a proposal, but co-development of the proposal with local partners can require funding beforehand. This restricts inclusive conversations about Arctic conservation and considerations for Indigenous resources, research, knowledge, and ownership, and reduces opportunities for capacity-building and self-determination in research among Indigenous collaborators (e.g., Sadowsky et al. 2022). Increased funding between nations to allow international collaboration would also support initiatives such as open-access Arctic information leading to improved monitoring and access to fundamental information (Tulloch et al. 2015; CAFF 2017; Davidson et al. 2020).

Another common barrier identified by experts was that the Arctic is under the jurisdiction of numerous countries. International and jurisdictional boundaries as well as political unrest can prevent researchers from engaging in international research partnerships and restrict access to Arctic research infrastructure (Ruck et al. 2022). Additional barriers such as language and differences in attitudes towards Arctic conservation may also hinder conservation efforts. Furthermore, recent geo-political events have placed strain on international cooperation and have put a complete pause on important scientific communication and data sharing in some regards (Berkman et al. 2017; Koivurova and Shibata 2023; López-Blanco et al. 2024). We note, however, that the Arctic Council has modalities for the resumption of work at the working group level (Arctic Council 2023). International agreements such as the Agreement on Enhancing International Arctic Scientific Cooperation (2017) exist to reaffirm global efforts to cooperate scientifically in the Arctic (Berkman et al. 2017); however, these barriers are still prevalent.

An overall lack of fundamental information regarding Arctic ecosystems was another common barrier identified surrounding Arctic biodiversity conservation. The Arctic is a large, sparsely and patchily inhabited region, which remains one of the least explored regions on Earth (Gradinger et al. 2010; Virkkala et al. 2019). During our workshop, participants identified some of the largest knowledge gaps as being a lack of in situ data, a lack of confidence in existing data, poor understanding of how multiple stressors interact with one another, and a poor understanding of species behaviours in the Arctic region. Paleodata can help to fill in some missing information about the baseline history of the Arctic environment (Sun et al. 2013; Cohen 2018), a crucial aspect of predicting future environmental changes (Kaplan et al. 2003). However, logistical difficulties create challenges in understanding species and location-specific responses to threats leading to further gaps in fundamental information. Furthermore, the compounding effects of these various threat categories is complex and makes it difficult to tease out fundamental information specific to the Arctic. It is also difficult to influence policy-makers in implementing effective conservation without appropriate data to support recommendations, and data often cannot be collected without policy-maker support, creating wicked

Fig. 8. An extensive amount of research throughout the Arctic requires the use of helicopters to be able to access study sites. The costs associated with positioning the helicopters to the Arctic from the South as well as for caching the fuel these aircraft require for their use is astronomical. These high costs limit the amount of research that can take place. Photo by TAL taken in Resolute, Nunavut, July 2019.



problems (Mileski et al. 2018). However, inaction in the conservation of Arctic biodiversity due to not having the full picture is a management trap that must be overcome (DeFries and Nagendra 2017), given the current presence of threats outpacing the length of time it will take to collect data.

7. Ways to overcome barriers

Workshop participants also made numerous recommendations for overcoming these barriers such as increasing funding. Importantly, increasing funding to practices such as longterm data collection is key for establishing a baseline understanding of Arctic biodiversity that can be used to measure environmental change and other efforts; an area of research that currently lacks adequate support. Additionally, costs associated with collaboration, as well as working with northern communities (see Fig. 9), should be planned into budgets allowing for collaborative efforts to develop research projects and monitoring plans leading to better co-production between researchers and Arctic communities. Internationally pooled grants for globally shared issues were also suggested to remove barriers impeding international collaboration and to facilitate the inclusion of groups that are typically excluded and (or) have fewer resources.

The implementation of international agreements was also proposed as a method for overcoming barriers. Agreements suggested to include international treaties similar to the 1973 Agreement on the Conservation of Polar Bears (Lentfer 1974), global research networks like the Canada–Inuit Nunangat– United Kingdom Research Programme, global targets such as the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (CBD 2022), and international organizations such as the International Arctic Science Committee. Strengthening existing agreements to conserve Arctic biodiversity such as the CAFF's Circumpolar Biodiversity Monitoring Program (CBMP; Barry et al. 2023) would also be key. Past international actions like the Minamata Convention (2013), a global legally binding agreement on mercury, have shown the impact that international cooperation can have (Platjouw et al. 2018). A large part of the scientific information that led to the Minamata Convention (2013) came from the Arctic Council's Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme working group (Platjouw et al. 2018), demonstrating the important role Arctic science can play in international conservation efforts. However, developing international action takes time, and scientists need a diverse set of tools to address issues that require fast solutions.

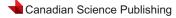
Additionally, workshop participants stated the need to improve access to data to make the information more accessible to the researchers and communities who need it. Increased international cooperation will improve this data sharing and monitoring programs (Prip 2016). Making data more accessible to those who need it is one of the goals of the CBMP. Barry et al. (2023) identified seven prerequisites to effective implementation of the CBMP as being effective coordination, sufficient and sustained funding, standards and protocols, coproduction of knowledge, good data management, communication and outreach, and adequate resources to engage in international fora. Ensuring these prerequisites are met not only when utilizing the CBMP but for general cooperation in scientific endeavours would help to facilitate greater access to data as well as improved cooperation. **Fig. 9.** An image of the community of Resolute, Nunavut in both the fall (top) and winter (bottom). Photo by TAL taken in Resolute, Nunavut, September 2019 and March 2018.



8. Actions that can be taken if able to overcome barriers

Actions that could be taken towards protecting Arctic biodiversity should the barriers be overcome were also discussed. The most common action identified was more inclusive participation in conservation efforts with involvement from northern communities throughout the Arctic region, an action that would be empowered with more funding and planned capacity for cooperation and inclusion (Doering et al. 2022; ITK 2024). Additionally, goals should go beyond inclusive participation to include self-determination for Indigenous communities. The National Inuit Strategy on Research (2018) lays out a plan for self-determination in research for Inuit communities and states that for self-determination to occur Inuit research objectives must no longer be marginalized and ignored by governments, researchers, and institutions, and that Inuit priorities should be made to be among the priorities of funding agencies (ITK 2024).

Another key action that could be taken with barriers removed is the global sharing of data using the FAIR and CARE principals (Carroll et al. 2021). Data sharing would allow scientists to harmonize data with one another by creating standards for data collection and storage (Barry et al. 2023) creating more comprehensive international datasets that are of greater use to the researchers and communities who need them. International data sharing has been suggested in the past as potentially beneficial if managed correctly and is most successful when participants are invested in maintaining datasets and ensuring their availability when needed (Gaiji et al. 2013; Chawinga and Zinn 2019). Currently, there are some mechanisms in place such as the Arctic Council and its affiliated working groups for international cooperation in the Arctic (Kankaanpää and Young 2012). This Council has had success identifying issues and presenting them to policymakers (Kankaanpää and Young 2012). Additional initiatives such as this that allow data sharing are essential for the implementation of effective conservation actions.



Collectively these actions would lead to an extension of the fundamental science available, potentially resulting in more informed international conservation decisions (Buxton et al. 2021). The availability of fundamental information would also enable the development of predictive models, allowing for the implementation of intervention measures, and overall enable proactive rather than reactive ecosystem management. However, having ample evidence for decision-making is just a first step as this information must also be translated into action towards conservation issues as a lack of information is not always the issue, but instead, it is often the mechanisms to actions that are lacking (Buxton et al. 2021). Therefore, with the barriers removed, the mobilization of this knowledge into action through mechanisms such as open science practices must also take place (Roche et al. 2022).

9. Persistent versus emerging threats

The Arctic Biodiversity Assessment (ABA; CAFF 2013b) was a multiyear scientific undertaking of over 250 contributors to assess the knowledge on the status and trends of Arctic biodiversity. This assessment included population size and distribution of Arctic species and, where available, presented projections of future change. The ABA discussed broad trends in habitat condition and extent, ecosystem function, and overall biodiversity, and identified important knowledge gaps and mechanisms driving change. This report and subsequent policy recommendations were delivered to the Arctic Council, with instructions for follow up in Arctic Council Ministerial Declarations. This horizon scan is markedly different to large-scale scientific reporting such as the ABA. Horizon scanning exercises can and should be conducted regularly to ensure expert opinion and up-to-date information is available for strategic decision-making and planning. As such, this horizon scan exercise for Arctic biodiversity provides a glimpse into the current status of this topic 11 years after the ABA.

All threats identified in this paper were also identified in the ABA. However, many of these threats have intensified since 2013 when the ABA was published. For example, shipping has increased in the Arctic (Dawson et al. 2018), more range shifts have been seen (Anderson et al. 2023), more sea ice has been lost (Kwok 2018), there has been an influx of disease (McLaughlin et al. 2024), and more development has taken place (Bartsch et al. 2021). Of note however is that while the categories in our actions theme were identified in the ABA, they were not identified as threats but as solutions. Yet when we sent out our call for questions for threats to Arctic biodiversity, these actions were all identified as threats. This shift in classification by experts from solutions to threats is likely due to the lack of implementation of these actions, as well as the inability to track their implementation, exacerbating the other direct threats to Arctic biodiversity mentioned. As such, we recommend that more rapid assessments by experts via regular horizon scanning for threats to Arctic biodiversity be conducted following this paper to allow for more timely and larger scale decisionmaking

10. Limitations

While this study includes Arctic biodiversity experts from across continents, our workshop was limited by geographical time constraints, as international participation can be limited by different time zones and languages. Furthermore, while we attempted to reach participants from a broad range of affiliations and countries who had diverse roles in Arctic conservation, the majority of our participants were academic researchers from North America, which has the potential to bias our results. Also, a key limitation to our study was the lack of Indigenous participants. Additional, longer term approaches to Indigenous participation and other local traditional knowledge bases are essential, allowing for a more holistic view. In fact, we urge that this horizon scan be viewed as one that is limited by the experiences, perspectives, and biases of participants and should be complemented with additional scans focused on Indigenous knowledge and perspectives, and complementary fields of expertise. Doing so would require more time and resources than were available here.

11. Conclusion

The Arctic is an internationally shared and unique region and must be managed accordingly. Although many barriers are associated with this, the shared nature of the Arctic opens opportunities for collaboration, cross-boundary regulations, and knowledge sharing to optimize research investment. Ideas that came from this study should be seen as recommendations and used by a variety of disciplines (e.g., ecologists, policy-makers, protected area managers, government) to inform conservation decisions. Understanding and addressing the threats to Arctic biodiversity requires a holistic approach. The shared responsibility for the Arctic's future calls for sustained collaboration, informed decision-making, and adaptive management strategies. We reiterate here the biggest limitation in our review being a lack of Indigenous involvement and suggest additional efforts to capture Indigenous research priorities. Those efforts may be most effective at a local scale where Indigenous communities and governments can be involved in identifying research relevant to their contexts. Nonetheless, by identifying these persistent and emerging threats, recognizing common barriers, and proposing collaborative solutions, we hope this paper will contribute to the ongoing discourse on Arctic conservation and assist in moving it forward.

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Data availability

Data generated or analyzed during this study are provided in full within the published article and its Supplementary material.

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