Persistent and Emerging Threats to Arctic Biodiversity and Ways to Overcome Them:

2	A Horizon Scan
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Abstract

45 Arctic biodiversity is under threat from both climate induced environmental change 46 and anthropogenic activity. However, the rapid rate of change and the challenging conditions 47 for studying Arctic environments mean that many research questions must be answered 48 before we can strategically allocate resources for management. Addressing threats to 49 biodiversity in the Arctic is further complicated by the region's complex geopolitics, as eight 50 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 51 52 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 53 threats or actions, and then categorizing them further into 18 groups. Then, drawing on cross-54 disciplinary and global expertise of professionals in Arctic science, management, and policy, 55 we considered the barriers to answering these questions and proposed potential solutions that 56 57 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 58 lack of fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity) needing attention and is 59 60 intended to guide future conservation action within the Arctic.

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62 Key words: Conservation, barriers, foresight, policy, management, climate change

63 1 | Introduction

While often considered remote, the Arctic plays a large role in the functioning of 64 65 many global environmental systems (Post et al. 2019; Timmermans and Marshall 2020). In 66 particular, the Arctic is involved with the regulation of global climate (McGuire et al. 2006) 67 with important implications for the ongoing climate crisis (Díaz et al. 2019). While the Arctic 68 may hold less biodiversity than other biomes, this biome's biodiversity is unique in that it 69 includes more than 21,000 known species of fungi, plants, and animals that are highly 70 adapted to life in the cold and in some cases could not survive without it (see Figure 1; 71 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 72 freezing and Arctic animals have developed various mechanisms such as fat storage that 73 74 allow them to tolerate frigid temperatures (Callaghan et al. 2004; Guerrero and Rogers 2019). On a global scale, the Arctic is home to 27% of the world's marine mammal species (Payer et 75 76 al. 2013) and more than 20% of the world's lichenicolous fungi species (i.e., fungi that live on lichens; Dahlberg and Bültmann 2013; Paver et al. 2013). The Arctic also provides habitat 77 78 for hundreds of species of birds that migrate to the Arctic from around the globe to breed and 79 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, 80 81 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).

94 The fragmentary nature of information on Arctic biodiversity is especially concerning considering how quickly the Arctic is changing. Significant knowledge gaps exist in relation 95 96 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). 97 Additionally, the Arctic is warming as a result of climate change at a much faster rate than 98 99 most of the globe (AMAP 2021; Rantanen et al. 2022). The last decade has also seen rapid 100 development of extractive resource sectors (e.g., mining; Bartsch et al. 2021), commercial 101 fishing (Fauchald et al. 2021), shipping and port development (Dawson et al. 2018), tourism 102 (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 103 104 understand how threats will impact Arctic biodiversity. Doing so will not only help to 105 understand and predict threats but also help identify effective mitigation and management 106 strategies.

Identifying future threats can be accomplished through horizon scanning, a forwardlooking 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:

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1. What are the most significant questions regarding persistent (i.e., non-novel) and 113 114 emerging (i.e., new and/or existing but being exacerbated) threats facing biodiversity 115 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 116 117 overcome, and what actions could be taken if these barriers were overcome? 118 It was our expectation that this horizon scan would identify the greatest threats to Arctic 119 biodiversity, reveal research priorities, provide insight into how these research priorities could be addressed, and inspire implementation of corresponding policies for threat 120 121 management.

122 **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 130 Web of Science Core Collection (Clarivate Plc, Philadelphia, PA) to identify appropriate 131 132 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 133 also collected email addresses of organizations working throughout the Arctic (e.g., the 134 135 Nunavut Research Institute (NRI), The Arctic Institute, etc.). We then created a "call for 136 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 7,150 137

138 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 139 shared on many of the core authors' (TAL, JDRC, ALH, MLL, SKS, KMS, JP, SJC) personal 140 141 social media accounts with sharing features enabled to reach larger networks. The call was 142 also distributed by the Polar Continental Shelf Program to all the Arctic researchers they 143 support. Emails and social media blasts were distributed between 4-25 October 2023 with 144 initial notices for the call for questions being posted within the first week, and reminder 145 notices being sent two weeks later.

146 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 147 this end, the total number of individuals that received the request is unknown. To help 148 149 streamline information received, for the call for questions we specifically defined the Arctic 150 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 151 152 Boundary' in supplementary information). The respondents submitted questions regarding persistent and emerging threats to Arctic biodiversity, along with information related to their 153 154 experience, sector, role, and geographical location (see 'Form for Call for Ouestions' in 155 supplementary information). The latter information was collected solely to analyze the demographics of the respondents, as submitted questions were anonymous. There was no 156 157 limit to how many questions individuals were able to submit. Within the form, respondents 158 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 170 171 interested in participating in our expert online workshop (hereafter referred to as the expert 172 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 173 174 questions to assess (for completeness, repetitiveness, and accuracy) and their feedback was 175 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 176 177 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 178 179 that would result from overcoming these barriers (see Tables 1 and 2, and Figure 2). During 180 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 181 182 two of the core author teams' main co-authors (JFP, CP, JRB, SJC). These workshop 183 participants were located in Iceland (1), Sweden (1), Switzerland (1), the United States (1), 184 Russia (2), the United Kingdom (3), and Canada (9).

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185 The workshop was designed to facilitate open discussion and to collect thoughts and 186 expert opinion regarding the various project objectives. The workshop participants were 187 informed of the option to co-author the paper to promote effective engagement. Input was

188 collected anonymously through the digital interactive whiteboard application Jamboard (Google LLC; see "Jamboard from Breakout Room 1" and "Jamboard from Breakout Room 189 190 2" in supplementary information), to allow all workshop participants to anonymously and 191 simultaneously contribute their ideas. For each category, workshop participants indicated 192 whether they 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 193 194 within the last five years. This method of self-identification was useful for assessing the robustness of expert input among categories. Once the workshop was completed, the barriers, 195 196 ways to overcome them, and actions for each category were reviewed and summarized (see 197 Tables 1 and 2, and Figure 2).

Post-workshop, the expert panel was emailed and asked if they were interested in co-198 199 authoring the paper. This broader group of experts (i.e., not just the workshop participants) 200 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 201 202 workshop. The expert panel was also provided the workshop results and asked to rank the 203 importance of each category on a scale from 1 - 1000 (Sutherland et al. 2022). Workshop participants were also asked to indicate the confidence level that each discussion captured all 204 205 the barriers to the associated categories. However, there were too few responses, so 206 confidence was instead confirmed by sharing results (by way of sending the draft publication) 207 with the members of the expert panel who expressed interest in co-authoring the paper to 208 confirm their agreement/disagreement with the study's findings.

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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).

218 The primary affiliation for 74.1% of the respondents to our 'call for questions' was 219 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 220 221 for Questions' in supplementary information). Most respondents were from North America, 222 however we also received replies from many other Arctic countries including all eight with 223 jurisdiction over the area (i.e., Canada, Kingdom of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, 224 Sweden, the Russian Federation, and the United States of America; see 'Number of 225 Respondents to Call for Questions by Country' in supplementary information). Over half of 226 these respondents (56.8%) had more than 21 years' experience working with Arctic 227 biodiversity and most worked in either the terrestrial (40.7%) or marine (34.6%) domain (see 228 'Years of Experience of Respondents to Call for Questions' and 'Main Research Domains of Respondents to Call for Ouestions' in supplementary information). 229

Ranking of categories by the expert panel post-workshop (see Figure 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.

237 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 Figure 2. The categories are listed in order from most to least important based on the ranking performed by the expert panel.

242 4.1 | Species' responses to climate change

243 To understand how biological communities or ecosystems may change as a result of 244 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. 245 246 2011). Numerous modifications in behaviour have already been documented for Arctic 247 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 248 249 timing of breeding, migration, or other timed life cycle events (i.e., changes in phenology) 250 have also been seen (Cherry et al. 2013; Ward et al. 2016). Genetics will also play a large 251 role in a species' response. Past climatic events have been shown to have measurable impacts 252 on genetic diversity (Mellows et al. 2012; Stewart et al. 2016; Fedorov et al. 2020; Westbury 253 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 254 255 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 256 257 genetic basis of traits, like additive genetic variance (traits determined by multiple loci; Singh 258 and Singh 2018) can have unpredictable effects on adaptive potential (van Heerwaarden and 259 Sgrò 2014). A better understanding of these factors and processes could help quantify 260 species' adaptive capacity though there is also debate on whether highly specialized species 261 (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 262

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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).

267 4.2 | Marine cryosphere and hydrological changes caused by climate change

268 Arctic sea ice has been in decline for several decades with over half of multiyear sea 269 ice disappearing between 2002 and 2017 (Kwok 2018; Li and Fedorov 2021). Climate models almost unanimously predict that sea ice coverage will continue to decline through the 270 271 21st Century in response to rising concentrations of atmospheric greenhouse gases (Zhang and 272 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 273 274 associated with sea ice (Kovacs et al. 2011; Laidre et al. 2015; Eamer et al. 2013). For 275 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 276 277 chlorophyll maximum leading to lower primary productivity (Coupel et al. 2015). 278 Furthermore, sea ice loss can impact ice-associated organisms by causing distribution shifts 279 and compromising body condition, ultimately causing declines in reproductive effort or 280 success and abundance (Kovacs et al. 2011; Laidre et al. 2015; Eamer et al. 2013). Horizon scan participants indicated that a lack of large scale and long-term monitoring makes it 281 282 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 283 284 new technologies such as eDNA be used to allow for the implementation of higher resolution 285 monitoring (see Table 1).

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Permafrost underlies 15-25% of the Northern Hemisphere (Obu 2021; National Snow 287 and Ice Data Center 2023). Its thickness can reach great depths, sometimes down to 1,500 m 288 (National Snow and Ice Data Center 2023). As permafrost acts as a carbon sink, it represents 289 290 a large global reservoir of carbon (Robinson et al. 2003; Hugelius et al. 2014). Thawing 291 permafrost therefore releases carbon which can have many impacts to biodiversity. For 292 example, the release of carbon can change the composition of microbial communities 293 (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 294 295 the introduction of contaminants and excess sediments (Vonk et al 2015), with substantial 296 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 297 298 Arctic wildlife and inhabitants (Cohen 2023). However, horizon scan participants indicated 299 that significant research gaps exist for our understanding of this phenomenon (see Table 1; 300 Turetsky et al. 2019). Participants suggested that increased funding would allow for the 301 development of models to help address research questions in this category (see Table 1).

302 4.4 | Natural resource extraction

303 The Arctic remains of interest for natural resource extraction despite the difficulty in 304 extracting resources from the harsh environment (Wilson and Stammler 2016). In 2007-2008 305 melting sea ice resulted in parts of the Northwest Passage becoming a more viable sea trading 306 route; this is concerning given a U.S. Geological Survey estimated that roughly a quarter of 307 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 308 309 be mineral and hydrocarbon extraction (Nekrich 2020). Poor management of natural 310 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 311

312 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 313 314 marine species are sensitive to oil components which can cause a variety of short- or long-315 term, harmful health impacts, including mortality (Peterson et al. 2003, Hendriks et al. 2005; 316 de Hoop et al. 2011). Mining activities have also had a negative impact on environmental 317 health with side effects like effluents entering water systems deleteriously affecting the health 318 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 319 320 decisions, societal interests were identified as a large barrier to answering research questions 321 in this category by horizon scan participants (see Table 1). If industry was required to make 322 all their data publicly available, participants suggested that standards could be implemented 323 to allow natural resource extraction to take place in a way that limits its impact to the 324 environment (see Table 1).

4.5 | Freshwater hydrological changes caused by climate change

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326 Freshwater biodiversity loss is a global issue resulting from pollution, habitat loss and 327 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 328 329 these issues. Some of the impacts climate change is anticipated to have on freshwater 330 hydrology in the Arctic include an increase of precipitation and severe weather events, 331 drought, earlier snowmelt and later snowfall, and an increase in water temperatures (Wrona et 332 al. 2004; CAFF 2013b). These impacts in turn are expected to alter hydrological and climate 333 systems exacerbating the issue (Prowse et al 2015). Changes to permafrost are also expected 334 to greatly influence freshwater hydrology though how is unclear (Walvoord and Kurylyk 335 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 336

the Arctic, acting as a link between marine and terrestrial ecosystems, supporting high
biodiversity that local communities depend on for their livelihoods (see Figure 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).

343 4.6 | Invasive species

344 Human presence in the Arctic can influence biodiversity in numerous ways, including 345 the intentional and unintentional introduction of species. The intentional introduction of nonnative species can be the result of farming/harvesting practices, as seen with the Arctic red 346 king crab (Paralithodes camtschaticus) in Norway (Sundet and Hoel 2016), the pink salmon 347 348 (Oncorhynchus gorbusca) in the European North Atlantic region (Lennox et al. 2023), and 349 the Arctic fox (Vulpes lagopus) in the Aleutian Islands (West and Rudd 1983). These 350 introduced species can cause management problems as well as wreak havoc on native 351 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 352 353 and outcompetes native species in this new environment (Whitney and Gabler 2008). These 354 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 355 356 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 357 358 the likelihood of the arrival and establishment of these species in the Arctic (Cottier-Cook et 359 al. 2024). The Arctic specifically is more susceptible to the establishment of invasive species 360 given its relatively low biodiversity as compared to other biomes and because of increased 361 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).

368 4.7

4.7 | Emerging and persistent diseases

As the Arctic warms due to climate change, the geographic and temporal ranges of 369 370 several diseases are likely to expand into the Arctic (Parkinson et al. 2014). This potential for 371 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., 372 373 Giardia spp., and West Nile virus as potentially climate sensitive zoonotic diseases of 374 concern (Parkinson et al. 2014). Additionally, of special concern is avian influenza which has 375 the potential to drastically impact animal populations (Lee et al. 2020; Caliendo et al. 2022) 376 and has recently been detected in breeding colonies of Arctic seabirds (Lee et al. 2020; 377 McLaughlin et al. 2024), subsequently causing sporadic mortality in multiple bird and 378 mammal species including a polar bear (Ursus maritimus; Caliendo et al. 2022; Alaska 379 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 380 381 infected ticks or viruses (Revich et al. 2012). Diseases such as tick-borne encephalitis are 382 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 383 384 the Arctic do not directly impact humans (e.g., avian cholera; Henri et al. 2018, lungworms; 385 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. 386

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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).

392 **4.8** | Pollution

393 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 394 395 pollutants will be released into surrounding environments, potentially negatively impacting 396 biodiversity in associated ecosystems (Botterell et al. 2022). While there have been studies on the effects of pollution upon Arctic environments (Svavarsson et al. 2021; Sonne et al. 2021; 397 398 Lifshits et al. 2021), little is known about how pollution release will specifically impact the 399 environment or the specifics of the release processes, although release from Arctic 400 environmental archives is underway (Ma et al. 2011). The impact of pollution making its way 401 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 402 capacity to negatively influence animal reproduction, growth, metabolism, and behaviour 403 404 (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 405 406 answering research questions within this category that can be mitigated with the development 407 of new pollution monitoring technologies (see Table 1). With this information, participants 408 suggested that it would be easier to regulate toxic substances as well as identify and manage 409 point sources (see Table 1).

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411 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 412 413 that development has on Arctic biodiversity, however, is not as well understood. While the 414 Arctic remains sparsely populated by humans and human infrastructure compared to other 415 parts of the globe, development is increasing (Bartsch et al. 2021) and is being compounded 416 with other stressors. For instance, Arctic species may be facing habitat loss/degradation from 417 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, 418 419 some species use specific migration routes or have high fidelity to parts of their range 420 (Cherry et al. 2013; Joly et al. 2021) which may be negatively impacted by human presence, 421 development projects, or artificial infrastructure (Pálsdóttir et al. 2022). This is especially 422 concerning for species already facing changing landscapes and reduced habitat from climate 423 change such as polar bears and caribou (Rangifer tarandus) that show relatively high site 424 fidelity to seasonal habitats and/or migration routes (Cherry et al. 2013; Joly et al. 2021), as 425 well as many seabirds that return to the same breeding and nesting sites each year (Léandri-426 Breton et al. 2021). Freshwater organisms are also impacted via the development of dams and 427 other water diversion infrastructure, particularly downstream habitats (CAFF 2013b). 428 Expansion of Arctic fisheries will not only lead to enhanced harvest of target species, but 429 greater levels of bycatch of non-target fish, birds and marine mammals (Anderson et al. 2018; 430 Mallory et al. 2022). Horizon scan participants identified inadequate understanding of the 431 environmental impacts of development in the Arctic as well as conflicting interests as barriers 432 to answering research questions in this category (see Table 1). Participants suggested that full 433 research studies including a pre-development assessment and post-development long-term 434 monitoring be included in the permit requirements for developers to overcome these barriers and limit the environmental impacts of development (see Table 1). 435

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436 4	4.10 I	ncreasing	vessel	traffic
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The Arctic has historically been relatively inaccessible for most activities. Ice used to 437 438 block vessel passage for most of the year; however, with the melting of sea ice, the Arctic is 439 becoming more and more accessible for longer periods of time (see Figure 5; Arctic Council 440 2009). This increased accessibility can be seen clearly when examining the distances 441 travelled by vessels throughout the Arctic, which tripled from 1990 to 2015 (Dawson et al. 442 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 443 444 could consequently reduce Arctic biodiversity (CAFF 2013b; Stevenson et al. 2019). It is also 445 anticipated that the pollution that accompanies vessels (e.g., air, noise, greywater, waste, spills) will increase which has a great potential to negatively impact the environment and 446 447 aquatic life (Dunlop 2019; Stevenson et al. 2019). Vessel traffic also contributes to direct 448 mortality via ship strikes (Halliday et al. 2022; Qi et al. 2024). To date, most attention has 449 focused on impacts during the open water season, but there is growing investment in 450 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 451 452 convoys (Wilson et al. 2020). Year-round icebreaking operations potentially pose risks for 453 ice-dependent species, such as ice-breeding pinnipeds (Wilson et al. 2020) and have been 454 shown to have detrimental physical impacts on seal breeding habitats such as causing mother-455 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 456 457 participants indicated that a key barrier to alleviating this threat is the inability to track all 458 vessel movement and laws should be implemented to make this information mandatory (see 459 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 minimalenvironmental impact (see Table 1).

4.11 | Other anthropogenic threats

463 This category encompasses threats that do not fit within the other threat categories 464 identified or could potentially relate to many of them. Arctic tourism, for example, has been 465 increasing in the Arctic with both known and unknown impacts. The sheer number of tourists 466 can directly impact biodiversity by damaging vegetation at tourist sites as well as by 467 changing bird community composition when sensitive species are replaced with generalist 468 species (Tolvanen and Kangas 2016). Given tensions between Arctic countries, war is 469 another concern given not only its impacts to Arctic residents but also its catastrophic 470 environmental impacts. The Arctic is also used for military or other technological testing, 471 such as sonar (National Defence 2021), with some negative, but largely unknown, impacts on 472 wildlife (Halliday et al. 2020). It is also anticipated that the cumulative impacts of all threats 473 will be far more consequential than any threat alone, however, little research has been 474 conducted in relation to these cumulative impacts (Schindler and Smol 2006; Smith et al 475 2022). This general lack of understanding of the impacts of all these activities as well as the 476 fact that they are constantly changing were identified by horizon scan participants as major 477 barriers to answering research questions within this category (see Table 1). Participants 478 suggested that the implementation of international treaties and agreements would be one way 479 to help alleviate these barriers so initiatives like eco-friendly tourism can be enforced (see 480 Table 1).

481 5 | Action Categories

482 The following subsections illustrate the context and key findings from the horizon483 scan for each of the action categories as summarized in Table 2 and Figure 2. The categories

are listed in order from most to least important based on the ranking performed by the expertpanel.

486 5.1 | Understanding fundamental information regarding Arctic biodiversity

487 It is crucial to gain a better understanding of the Arctic biome to inform conservation 488 practices. Fundamental information is obtained through experimental or theoretical work, as 489 well as long-term monitoring (especially to capture fundamental temporal patterns; Gauthier 490 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 491 492 decisions that ultimately lead to better conservation practices (Buxton et al. 2021). 493 Knowledge gaps and resource shortages related to Arctic biodiversity information, such as 494 mapping biodiversity distributions across the Arctic, understanding the drivers of biodiversity 495 patterns, and how this relates to ecosystem function in the Arctic, should be assessed to 496 delineate specific information needs and encourage future research. While it is essential to 497 avoid over-studying at the expense of taking action, fundamental information is still needed 498 to be able to address the various identified threats. Better long-term biodiversity monitoring 499 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 500 501 scan participants as a main barrier to collecting these data and the development of joint 502 collaborative research projects would be an ideal way to alleviate this barrier (see Table 2). 503 Ideally, these initiatives would lead to a common understanding that fundamental information 504 is paramount for identifying and implementing effective conservation solutions (see Table 2).

505

5.2 | Implementing and improving monitoring

506 Monitoring is a conservation tool used to track changes to an ecosystem over time 507 (Lindenmayer and Likens 2009). The information gathered from monitoring programs is then 508 used to inform conservation strategies suited to address a specific issue (Magurran et al.

509 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 510 the impacts of conservation actions effectively. Monitoring initiatives for the Arctic exist 511 512 (e.g., Gill et al. 2011; Culp et al. 2012; Christensen et al. 2013; Jones et al. 2019; see Figures 513 6 and 7), yet issues with data interoperability and sharing information complicate establishing 514 effective monitoring plans. The need for better monitoring has increasingly been recognized 515 (Provencher et al. 2023; Barry et al. 2023a), and several international collaborative initiatives have attempted to identify and address the gaps (e.g., Aronsson et al. 2021; Christensen et al. 516 517 2021). However, realizing these improvements in monitoring has proven challenging with 518 many conservation/research programs still falling short in terms of collecting enough or 519 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 520 521 investment, and even issues with what data are being collected as recognized by horizon scan 522 participants (see Table 2; Hillebrand et al. 2018). Therefore, participants suggested that the 523 development of standard monitoring practices that obtain data that is accessible to all would 524 allow for improved (and more transparent) decision making and the development of a data archive (see Table 2). 525

526 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 534 significant populations in many Arctic jurisdictions, composing the majority of some 535 536 (Bogoyavlenskiy and Siggner 2004, Fondahl and Bogoyavlensky 2014; Young and 537 Bjerregaard 2019). Embracing Indigenous leadership can enhance decision-making as Rights 538 Holder groups have a close connection and knowledge of the local land and ecology. 539 Indigenous involvement is essential to achieve biodiversity conservation goals, following the 540 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 541 542 supported, such as the Centre for Braiding Indigenous Knowledges and Science (CBIKS), that looks at how Indigenous knowledge and empirical science can come together to co-543 develop research projects, methodologies and ethical guidelines, and produce 544 545 knowledge/databases (UMass Amherst n.d.). There is also the Circumpolar Inuit Protocol 546 from the Inuit Circumpolar Council that outlines best practices for equitable and ethical 547 engagement with Inuit knowledge in research (Inuit Circumpolar Council 2022). Other 548 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 549 knowledge in data acquisition, monitoring, mapping, transfer and preservation of knowledge 550 551 (SIKU n.d.; SmartICE n.d.). However, horizon scan participants highlighted that Indigenous Peoples are often not included in the research process presenting a major barrier (see Table 552 2). To alleviate this barrier, participants suggested that Indigenous communities be asked how 553 they would like to work with researchers, and what their own research priorities are, prior to 554 555 any research being conducted (see Table 2). Furthermore, it was suggested that research 556 budgets for funding applications include the funds required to collaboratively work with these 557 communities (see Table 2). Implementation of these practices will allow for better research, policies, and practices that yield equitably distributed benefits (see Table 2). 558

559 5.4 | Facilitating collaboration to protect Arctic biodiversity

Many of the drivers of change facing the Arctic are global, and Arctic states cannot 560 address them in isolation (Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 2013a). The behaviour, 561 562 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 563 564 multiple countries; Burkow and Kallenborn 2000; Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 565 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 566 567 the involvement of the international community (Berkman and Vylegzhanin 2013; CAFF 568 2013a) but conflicting legislation amongst nations becomes detrimental to biodiversity as it does not conform to the same boundaries (CAFF 1997). Likewise, environmental protection 569 570 treaties may be drafted but not accepted/signed by all nations, reducing their effectiveness 571 (Hensz and Soberón 2018). Conflicts involving Arctic nations also influence involvement and cooperation on joint Arctic programs (Dyck 2024). However, there are collaborative bodies 572 573 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 574 data, expertise, methodologies, and technologies (CAFF 2013a). Horizon scan participants 575 576 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 577 578 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 579 inclusive conservation practices (see Table 2). 580

581 5.5 | Facilitating improvements to management & 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, 584 and although the Arctic Council is a consensus-based high-level intergovernmental forum 585 586 that does not implement or enforce its guidelines, assessments or recommendations, the 587 Council successfully coordinates discussions amongst Arctic states and Indigenous Peoples 588 and makes recommendations based on sound science for the benefit of the Arctic. 589 Nonetheless, navigating decision-making in the Arctic proves challenging because of the 590 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 multi-591 592 scalar governance within and across boundaries impedes coordinated governance 593 (Stephenson 2018; Linnebjerg et al. 2021). However, management and policy action are 594 required to regulate and implement conservation action (Mills et al. 2013) so it is important to 595 find ways to optimize management, in the form of regulations, policies, and decision-making, 596 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 597 598 International Polar Bear Agreement (Prestrud and Stirling 1994), and coordination on marine 599 mammal surveys (Boveng et al. 2017). Building on and continuing to find new solutions such 600 as these will be paramount for Arctic biodiversity management. Horizon scan participants 601 highlighted that this growth can be difficult however given the slow speed at which 602 institutions react (see Table 2). Therefore, participants suggested that more timely decision making would be possible if investments to support evidence-based policy making was 603 604 emphasized (see Table 2).

605 5.6 | Design and implementation of conservation solutions

606 Conservation solutions aim to protect and preserve biodiversity and natural resources 607 by addressing pressing environmental concerns with applied problem-solving conservation 608 science (Gibbons et al. 2011). These solutions must be tested and an evidence base

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609 established so that the best interventions for threats to Arctic biodiversity can be implemented 610 (i.e., so that the solutions can become actionable; Cooke et al. 2022). These solutions must 611 also be robust and developed from numerous knowledge bases to ensure their effectiveness 612 (Cooke et al. 2022). Such solutions might include designation of protected areas and other 613 effective area-based conservation measures, restoration and rehabilitation of habitat, or 614 implementation of new technologies and legislations. Regardless of their form, however, any 615 interventions must be implemented at the right time and scale and have the engagement of multi-disciplinary actors to enact real change (Chapman et al. 2015). Innovative conservation 616 617 solutions are needed to mitigate Arctic biodiversity loss, yet horizon scan participants 618 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 619 national and international responsibilities and leveraging existing agreements would allow for 620 621 these solutions to be implemented (see Table 2).

5.7 | Identifying roles of stakeholders and Rights Holders

623 Stakeholders are individuals or groups that are affected by and/or effect 624 environmental management and policy decisions at different levels. Environmental decision-625 making in particular involves dialogue, communication, and collaboration with all 626 stakeholders and Rights Holders. In rural societies, stakeholder participation facilitates decisions that lead to stronger environmental solutions (Berkes et al. 2007; Zikargae et al. 627 628 2022). Community inclusion and public engagement is especially important to foster trust, 629 information sharing, encourage participation and action, and to ensure two-way 630 communication (Cooke et al. 2013; Zikargae et al. 2022). There are an increasing number of 631 examples where collaborative, community-scientist projects in the Arctic are producing 632 strong, biodiversity-related knowledge with long-term support (e.g., Tomaselli et al. 2018; Ostertag et al. 2018; Mallory et al. 2022). With respect to Arctic ecosystems, horizon scan 633

634 participants indicated that identifying the roles that philanthropic organizations, leading 635 institutions, places of higher education, and individuals play in helping to protect biodiversity 636 can be difficult due to a lack of communication (see Table 2). Participants recommended that 637 forums that bring people in different sectors and roles together to foster open communication 638 be created and enhanced (see Table 2). With these roles identified there can then be 639 confidence that stakeholders and Rights Holders are not working against each other or 640 duplicating efforts, both of which are essential given the limited resources available to study the Arctic (see Table 2). 641

642 6 | Barriers

Arctic biodiversity faces many threats that do not have clear solutions (Prip 2016). In 643 our workshop, participants identified several common barriers preventing more effective 644 645 conservation efforts for protecting Arctic biodiversity from being implemented (see Tables 1 646 and 2 and Figure 2). The most common barriers identified were issues surrounding funding 647 for Arctic science. This is due to the costs of research in this region being disproportionately 648 higher than in more southerly areas, even considering some of the special funds made 649 available for this work (see Figure 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 650 651 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 652 653 which research can be conducted, and limits to the relationships that can be formed with 654 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 655 656 that early career researchers value the knowledge of Indigenous Peoples but found that a lack 657 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-658

659 development of the proposal with local partners can require funding beforehand. This restricts inclusive conversations about Arctic conservation and considerations for Indigenous 660 resources, research, knowledge, and ownership, and reduces opportunities for capacity-661 662 building and self-determination in research among Indigenous collaborators (e.g., Sadowsky 663 et al. 2022). Increased funding between nations to allow international collaboration, would 664 also support initiatives such as open-access Arctic information leading to improved 665 monitoring and access to fundamental information (Tulloch et al. 2015; CAFF 2017; 666 Davidson et al. 2020).

667 Another common barrier identified by experts was that the Arctic is under the jurisdiction of numerous countries. International and jurisdictional boundaries as well as 668 political unrest can prevent researchers from engaging in international research partnerships 669 670 and restrict access to Arctic research infrastructure (Ruck et al. 2022). Additional barriers 671 such as language and differences in attitudes towards Arctic conservation may also hinder 672 conservation efforts. Furthermore, recent geo-political events have placed strain on 673 international cooperation and have put a complete pause on important scientific 674 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 675 676 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 677 Cooperation (2017) exist to reaffirm global efforts to cooperate scientifically in the Arctic 678 (Berkman et al. 2017); however, these barriers are still prevalent. 679

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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

684 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 685 686 another, and a poor understanding of species behaviours in the Arctic region. Paleodata can 687 help to fill in some missing information about the baseline history of the Arctic environment 688 (Sun et al 2013; Cohen 2018), a crucial aspect of predicting future environmental changes 689 (Kaplan et al. 2003). However, logistical difficulties create challenges in understanding 690 species and location specific responses to threats leading to further gaps in fundamental information. Furthermore, the compounding effects of these various threat categories is 691 692 complex and makes it difficult to tease out fundamental information specific to the Arctic. It 693 is also difficult to influence policy-makers in implementing effective conservation without 694 appropriate data to support recommendations and data often cannot be collected without policy-maker support, creating wicked problems (Mileski et al. 2018). However, inaction in 695 696 the conservation of Arctic biodiversity due to not having the full picture is a management trap 697 that must be overcome (DeFries and Nagendra 2017) given the current presence of threats 698 outpacing the length of time it will take to collect data.

699 7 | Ways to Overcome Barriers

700 Workshop participants also made numerous recommendations for overcoming these 701 barriers such as increasing funding. Importantly, increasing funding to practices such as long-702 term data collection is key for establishing a baseline understanding of Arctic biodiversity 703 that can be used to measure environmental change and other efforts; an area of research that 704 currently lacks adequate support. Additionally, costs associated with collaboration, as well as working with northern communities (see Figure 9), should be planned into budgets allowing 705 706 for collaborative efforts to develop research projects and monitoring plans leading to better 707 co-production between researchers and Arctic communities. Internationally pooled grants for globally shared issues were also suggested to remove barriers impeding international 708

collaboration and to facilitate the inclusion of groups that are typically excluded and/or havefewer resources.

711 The implementation of international agreements was also proposed as a method for 712 overcoming barriers. Agreements suggested include international treaties similar to the 1973 713 Agreement on the Conservation of Polar Bears (Lentfer 1974), global research networks like 714 the Canada-Inuit Nunangat-United Kingdom Research Programme (CINUK), global targets 715 such as the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (CBD 2022) and 716 international organizations such as the International Arctic Science Committee (IASC). 717 Strengthening existing agreements to conserve Arctic biodiversity such as the Conservation 718 of Arctic Flora and Fauna's Circumpolar Biodiversity Monitoring Program (CBMP; Barry et 719 al. 2023a) would also be key. Past international actions like the Minamata Convention 720 (2013), a global legally binding agreement on mercury, have shown the impact that 721 international cooperation can have (Platjouw et al. 2018). A large part of the scientific 722 information that led to the Minamata Convention (2013) came from the Arctic Council's 723 Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme working group (Platjouw et al. 2018), 724 demonstrating the important role Arctic science can play in international conservation efforts. 725 However, developing international action takes time and scientists need a diverse set of tools 726 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 Circumpolar Biodiversity Monitoring Program (CBMP). Barry et al. (2023b) identified seven prerequisites to effective implementation of the CBMP as being: effective coordination, sufficient and sustained funding, standards and protocols, co-production of knowledge, good

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data management, communication and outreach, and adequate resources to engage in
international fora. Ensuring these prerequisites are met not only when utilising the CBMP but
for general cooperation in scientific endeavours would help to facilitate greater access to data
as well as improved cooperation.

738 8 | Actions that can be Taken if Able to Overcome Barriers

Actions that could be taken towards protecting Arctic biodiversity should the barriers 739 740 be overcome were also discussed. The most common action identified was more inclusive participation in conservation efforts with involvement from northern communities throughout 741 742 the Arctic region, an action that would be empowered with more funding and planned 743 capacity for cooperation and inclusion (ITK 2024; Doering et al. 2022). Additionally, goals 744 should go beyond inclusive participation to include self-determination for Indigenous 745 communities. The National Inuit Strategy on Research (2018) lays out a plan for self-746 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, 747 748 researchers, and institutions, and that Inuit priorities should be made to be among the priorities of funding agencies (ITK 2024). 749

Another key action that could be taken with barriers removed is the global sharing of 750 751 data using the FAIR and CARE principals (Carroll et al. 2021). Data sharing would allow 752 scientists to harmonize data with one another by creating standards for data collection and 753 storage (Barry et al. 2023a) creating more comprehensive international data sets that are of 754 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 755 756 successful when participants are invested in maintaining datasets and ensuring their 757 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 758

international cooperation in the Arctic (Kankaanpää and Young 2012). This Council has had
success identifying issues and presenting them to policy makers (Kankaanpää and Young
2012). Additional initiatives such as this that allow data sharing are essential for the
implementation of effective conservation actions.

763 Collectively these actions would lead to an extension of the fundamental science 764 available, potentially resulting in more informed international conservation decisions (Buxton 765 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 766 767 enable proactive rather than reactive ecosystem management. However, having ample 768 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 769 770 instead it is often the mechanisms to actions that are lacking (Buxton et al. 2021). Therefore, 771 with the barriers removed, the mobilization of this knowledge into action through 772 mechanisms such as open science practices must also take place (Roche et al. 2022).

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9 | Persistent versus Emerging Threats

774 The Arctic Biodiversity Assessment (ABA; CAFF 2013b) was a multi-year scientific undertaking of over 250 contributors to assess the knowledge on the status and trends of 775 776 Arctic biodiversity. This assessment included population size and distribution of Arctic 777 species and, where available, presented projections of future change. The ABA discussed 778 broad trends in habitat condition and extent, ecosystem function, and overall biodiversity, and 779 identified important knowledge gaps and mechanisms driving change. This report and subsequent policy recommendations were delivered to the Arctic Council, with instructions 780 781 for follow up in Arctic Council Ministerial Declarations. This horizon scan is markedly 782 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 783

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.

787 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, 788 789 shipping has increased in the Arctic (Dawson et al. 2018), more range shifts have been seen 790 (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. 791 792 2021). Of note however is that while the categories in our actions theme were identified in 793 the ABA, they were not identified as threats but as solutions. Yet when we sent out our call 794 for questions for threats to Arctic biodiversity, these actions were all identified as threats. 795 This shift in classification by experts from solutions to threats is likely due to the lack of 796 implementation of these actions, as well as the inability to track their implementation, 797 exacerbating the other direct threats to Arctic biodiversity mentioned. As such, we 798 recommend that more rapid assessments by experts via regular horizon scanning for threats to 799 Arctic biodiversity be conducted following this paper to allow for more timely and larger 800 scale decision-making.

801 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.

814 11 | Conclusion

815 The Arctic is an internationally shared and unique region and must be managed 816 accordingly. Although many barriers are associated with this, the shared nature of the Arctic 817 opens opportunities for collaboration, cross-boundary regulations, and knowledge sharing to 818 optimize research investment. Ideas that came from this study should be seen as 819 recommendations and used by a variety of disciplines (e.g., ecologists, policy makers, 820 protected area managers, government) to inform conservation decisions. Understanding and 821 addressing the threats to Arctic biodiversity requires a holistic approach. The shared 822 responsibility for the Arctic's future calls for sustained collaboration, informed decision-823 making, and adaptive management strategies. We reiterate here the biggest limitation in our 824 review being a lack of Indigenous involvement and suggest additional efforts to capture 825 Indigenous research priorities. Those efforts may be most effective at a local scale where 826 Indigenous communities and governments can be involved in identifying research relevant to 827 their contexts. Nonetheless, by identifying these persistent and emerging threats, recognizing 828 common barriers, and proposing collaborative solutions, we hope this paper will contribute to 829 the ongoing discourse on Arctic conservation and assist in moving it forward.

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Table 1

Summary of findings of each threat category in this horizon scan. 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 Figure 3).

Category	4.1: Species' responses to climate change		
Category Definition	How different Arctic species will respond to interactions). Includes behavioural, genetic,		expansion/contraction, trophic
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? 	 Lack of fundamental information 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 effects in species-poor Arctic communities Travel to the Arctic is expensive Proposals that test novel hypotheses often prioritized 	 Promote research on basic ecology, life histories etc. Collaborate with long-term ecological research sites Optimize information gathered, including bio-banking (collecting tissues for genetic sequencing) Invest in genomic resources, demographic modelling (e.g. paleoarchelogical data), and monitoring technologies like remote sensing Fund large open-access data archives (e.g. Arctic Animal Movement Archive) Engage local communities and develop tools for monitoring 	 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 hydrological ch	anges caused by climate change	
Category Definition	How Arctic marine hydrology (e.g., sea ice) changes will be (e.g., to weather patterns, bi		general and what the impacts of these
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 vs. indirect effects of changing sea-ice patterns on biodiversity? What are the cascading ecosystem level impacts of sea ice loss and thinning across the Arctic? 	 Lack of information on how sea ice dependent communities function and vary Need to scale up monitoring to a larger spatiotemporal scale to account for variation Need for long term monitoring data to identify long term effects 	 New technologies (eDNA) More funding Mandatory high-level tracking for ships combined with tracking of marine mammals 	• Higher resolution monitoring
Category	4.3: Permafrost changes caused by climate of	change	
Category Definition	How thawing permafrost as a result of clima acidification).	ate change will impact Arctic biodiversity	(e.g., habitat, greenhouse gases, ocean
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 models of permafrost to help assess freshwater biodiversity effects

Category	4.4: Natural resource extraction		
Category Definition	How natural resource extraction (e.g., hydrobiodiversity.	power, mining, wind farms, oil, gas, forest	ry, fishing, hunting) will impact Arctic
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)? 	 Lack of in situ ground data and monitoring capacity Societal interests National variation in legislation Gaps in legislation do not cover emerging threats Restricted access to data Impact assessments often are linked to large scale changes not fine scale ones (i.e. contaminants, parasites) 	 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 cause	d by climate change	
Category Category Definition	4.5: Freshwater hydrological changes cause How Arctic freshwater hydrology (e.g., run changes will be on Arctic biodiversity (e.g.,	off) will change because of climate change	
	How Arctic freshwater hydrology (e.g., run	off) will change because of climate change	
Category Definition	How Arctic freshwater hydrology (e.g., run changes will be on Arctic biodiversity (e.g., Barriers	off) will change because of climate change to weather patterns, water availability, biog	geochemistry, species diversity, etc.). Actions that can be Taken if Able to

Category Definition	The impacts on Arctic biodiversity and miti native species.	gation of the introduction and establishmen	t of non-native species that outcompete
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? 	 It is unknown which species will 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 the vastness of species 	 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 p	persistent diseases and their impact on Arcti	c 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 climate change impacts affect the dynamics of disease exposure and transmission for marine mammals, and what are the implications for marine mammal health and population dynamics? How can we better anticipate emerging wildlife diseases? 	 Monitoring capacity Monitoring of non-native species Understanding which diseases are present, which are native, and which are new Understanding how physiological stress and disease interact in the Arctic Understanding what causes a lifestyle switch from commensal to a pathogen 	 New technologies (eDNA, qPCR) More research on stress and disease Scaled up monitoring of disease with new technologies to identify vectors of disease transmission 	 Better predictive monitoring Ongoing long-term monitoring Community level capacity to track zoonoses Better control of disease transmission vectors (i.e. ships) One health approach
Category	4.8: Pollution		

Category Definition	How various types of pollution will impact	Arctic biodiversity (e.g., light, plastic, chen	nical, 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? 	 Proving that compounds are 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 with climate stressors Insufficient monitoring to actively site pollution and identify causes in remote areas Industrial willingness to engage 	 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	4.9: Increasing development		
Category Definition	How increasing development (e.g., cities, ro	bads, tourism) throughout the Arctic will im	pact 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 	 Understanding which species will be most impacted and which are most sensitive (sensitivity and threshold levels are largely unknown) Lack of ecological and demographic data (where 	 Pre-development studies are needed to study the ecology of the area to understand what species might be affected, what the impacts could be, and monitor any changes Fundamental research mapping 	 Sustainable development with minimal impacts and that align with biodiversity corridors could result Better monitoring technology would make it easier and more economical to implement

 health including nutrition, disease transmission/susceptibility and reproduction? What are the impacts of light pollution in the Arctic on low-light adapted animals? 	 sensitive species are located, or what types of habitats they use) Limited information on how development impacts connectivity, dispersal, or migration in the Arctic Varied responses to development (impacting some species negatively, others positively) can have unknown interactions with cascading effects Inadequate impact assessment of development projects (potentially more so for "green" infrastructure e.g. electronic data storage facilities) Very little monitoring capacity Change in government can shift values between economic development, Indigenous rights, nature conservation etc. Unpredictable investment from government, industry, and civil sources Conflicts of interest between conservation and wanting to develop and exploit resources 	 the distribution of biodiversity in Arctic ecosystems to inform development planning to avoid developing on diversity hotspots Integrate monitoring programs as part of development plans Further investment in monitoring technologies, like autonomous sensors and remote sensing, and AI 	 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 i	industry and tourism will impact Arctic bio	diversity.
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 	 Inability to track all vessel movement Inadequate knowledge of vessel cargo 	 Develop proactive laws and international agreements Increase research on quantifying impacts of vessels on 	 Creation of shipping lanes that minimize impacts on communities and biodiversity Development of protected areas and

 have on Arctic biodiversity? How does an increase in fishery vessel traffic impact Arctic ecosystems? 	 Geopolitical restrictions Lack of consistent policies for vessel traffic Lack of fundamental information 	 environment Improve methods for conducting cargo surveys and vessel tracking 	 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		
Category Definition	Other threats caused by human activity unrelated to pollution, vessel traffic, or development (e.g., military or technological testing, experience-based ecotourism) and how these threats will impact Arctic biodiversity.		
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 tourism 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

Table 2

Summary of findings for each action category in this horizon scan. 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 Figure 3).

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? 	 Lack of in situ ground data Taxonomic issues such as the absence of common species lists, especially plants and lichens Lack of resources to collect fundamental data, (e.g., species loss and invasive species) and geographically balanced data 	 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
Category	5.2: Implementing and improving monitori	ng	
Category Definition	Techniques, technologies, and programs that enable long-term monitoring of Arctic biodiversity.		rctic biodiversity.
Example Questions	Barriers	Ways to Overcome Barriers	Actions that can be Taken if Able to Overcome Barriers
 What are the most efficient monitoring techniques we can use to monitor different levels of biodiversity? How well does remote-sensing data 	 Deciding when to transition from research observations to operational monitoring Inadequate understanding of ecosystems, complicating the 	 Improve access to data Establish transboundary monitoring of cumulative effects on migratory species Make use of existing 	• Sharing existing data and knowledge and examine opportunities to create and integrate a national pan-arctic long-term data archive

 reflect biodiversity associations, e.g., how much useful information can we gain from a satellite? How should we design monitoring programs to follow changes in Arctic biodiversity through time, and what role can new and emerging technologies such as environmental DNA play? 	 establishment of tailored monitoring programs Poor understanding of interacting stressors Lack in 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 	 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 	 Development of comprehensive datasets that can guide future research Improved decision making The ability to measure the effects of policy and management decisions
Category	5.3: Supporting Indigenous governance		
Category Definition	Consideration of resources, research, and k collaborate with Indigenous communities a		
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? 	 Exclusion of Indigenous Peoples in research groups Time required to develop partnerships Geopolitical restrictions Lack of recognition of role Indigenous communities play in conservation 	 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 protect Ar	ctic biodiversity	
Category Definition	How we can facilitate cooperation at the international, national and local scales in order to protect Arctic biodiversity including the ecological knowledge of communities.		
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? 	 Political unrest, conflicts, lack of resources needed to establish equitable research partnerships Can require funding beforehand if projects are to be jointly 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 	 Adjust funding cycles to include 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 	 More inclusive participation in 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 or that have fewer funding opportunities with those that have more resources
Category	5.5: Facilitating improvements to managem	nent & policy	
Category Definition	Regulations, decision-making, and implementation of policies that advance conservation goals for Arctic biodiversity. These are regulations not impacts.		
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,	 Diverse interests involved with transboundary and circum-Arctic issues complicate conservation actions Political "interference" influences 	 Increased compliance regarding global treaties and frameworks Address unique Arctic biodiversity and contexts in 	 Better regulations to incite favourable outcomes for conservation More timely decision making

 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? 	 management action by moving focus to party needs and away from improving policies Protected areas network development can be a slow process Protected areas may not be responsive or adaptive enough to reflect on-the-ground changes in the functionality of sites 	 global processes Centre the evidence by embracing evidence-based approaches instead of politics Acknowledge the value in education and awareness 	
Category	5.6: Design and implementation of conserva-	ation solutions	
Category Definition	How we can design and implement innovat problems.	ive conservation solutions applied to	Arctic biodiversity conservation
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? 	 Debates related to jurisdictional responsibilities Uncertainty in the evidence base leading to decision paralysis 	 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
Category	5.7: Identifying roles of stakeholders and R	ights 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

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 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? 	 Lack of effective communication and integration of different ways of knowing Limited capacity of researchers to involve local communities and knowledge holders Staff turnover in organizations that facilitate long term monitoring Maintenance of databases 	people in different sectors and roles togetherBuild funding and	 Increased and more meaningful interactions, leading to impactful and efficient research Identification of shared priorities for biodiversity conservation relevant to all stakeholders Confidence that stakeholders are not working against each other and/or duplicating efforts
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Figure 1: An example of the diversity of lichen and moss found throughout the Arctic. Photo by Tanya Lemieux taken in Resolute, Nunavut, August 2022.

1422x800mm (72 x 72 DPI)

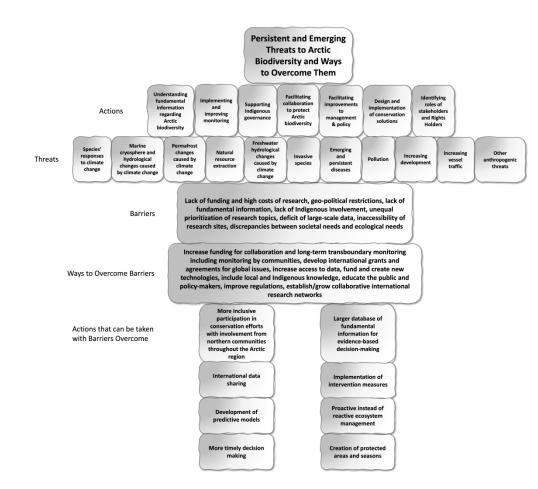


Figure 2: Summary of findings of this horizon scan. As some Indigenous Peoples use the Inukshuk to guide their way, we hope this image will guide and inspire readers in taking actions that protect Arctic biodiversity. Both actions and threats are listed from left to right in order of most to least important as outlined in the ranking summarized in Figure 3.

445x398mm (330 x 330 DPI)

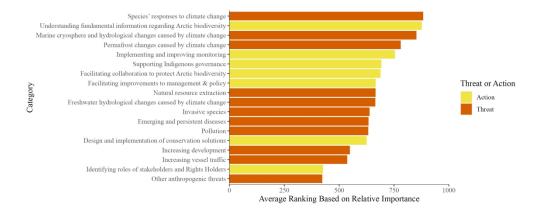


Figure 3: The average importance of each category relative to all other categories as per the expert panel.

1058x423mm (72 x 72 DPI)



Figure 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 Blake Matthews taken on a lake in Qassiarsuk, Greenland, September 2021.

410x308mm (144 x 144 DPI)



Figure 5: Passengers on an expedition tourism vessel moving through sea-ice in the Northwest Passage, Nunavut. Photo by Mark Mallory, 2023.

1422x800mm (72 x 72 DPI)



Figure 6: Monitoring pollution in the Arctic since 1975 using eggs from seabirds. Photo by Mark Mallory taken at Prince Leopold Island, Nunavut, 2023.

1422x1066mm (72 x 72 DPI)



Figure 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 Blake Matthews taken on a lake in Qassiarsuk, Greenland, September 2021.

490x367mm (144 x 144 DPI)



Figure 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 Tanya Lemieux taken in Resolute, Nunavut, July 2019.

1422x691mm (72 x 72 DPI)



Figure 9: An image of the community of Resolute, Nunavut in both the fall (top) and winter (bottom). Photo by Tanya Lemieux taken in Resolute, Nunavut, September 2019 and March 2018.

215x193mm (330 x 330 DPI)