

Future monitoring of litter and microplastics in the Arctic – challenges, opportunities and strategies

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32 Abstract

33 The Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) has published a plan and guidelines for the
34 monitoring of litter and microplastics (MP) in the Arctic. Here we look beyond suggestions for immediate
35 monitoring and discuss challenges, opportunities and future strategies in the long-term monitoring of litter
36 and MP in the Arctic. Challenges are related to environmental conditions, lack of harmonization and
37 standardization of measurements, and long-term coordinated and harmonized data storage. Furthermore,
38 major knowledge gaps exist with regard to benchmark levels, transport, sources and effects, which should
39 be considered in future monitoring strategies. Their development could build on the existing infrastructure
40 and networks established in other monitoring initiatives in the Arctic, while taking into account specific
41 requirements for litter and MP monitoring. Knowledge existing in northern and Indigenous communities,
42 as well as their research priorities, should be integrated into collaborative approaches. The monitoring
43 plan for litter and MP in the Arctic allows for an ecosystem-based approach, which will improve the
44 understanding of linkages between environmental media of the Arctic, as well as links to the global
45 problem of litter and MP pollution.

47 Keywords

48 Ecosystem, effects, Indigenous communities, sources, transport pathways

50 Introduction

51 Environmental pollution with litter, in particular plastics, is of increasing concern worldwide (UNEP,
52 2014). As early as the 1970s, plastic litter was reported as a problem in the marine environment
53 (Carpenter et al., 1972). Today, environmental pollution with litter and microplastics (MP), accounting
54 for particles with a diameter < 5 mm (GESAMP, 2016), is observed across all oceans as well as in
55 terrestrial, freshwater and atmospheric environments, including remote regions such as the Arctic. Litter
56 and MP can enter the Arctic environment through local sources and pathways such as landfills, shipping,
57 tourism, fisheries and wastewater discharges (PAME, 2019), but litter and MP also reaches the Arctic
58 from distant areas *via* transport by ocean currents, air, sea ice, or biota (Cózar et al., 2014; Obbard et al.,
59 2014). Consequently, plastic and other items have been found across the Arctic environment (Halsband
60 and Herzke, 2019; Tirelli et al., 2020; Collard and Ask, 2021; Mishra et al., 2021), including on beaches
61 and shorelines (e.g. Bergmann et al., 2017a; Polasek et al., 2017; Strand et al., 2021), in snow (e.g.
62 Bergmann et al., 2019), in water (e.g. Lusher et al., 2015; von Friesen et al., 2020), in sediments/seabeds
63 (e.g. Bergmann et al., 2017b; Buhl-Mortensen and Buhl-Mortensen, 2017), in sea ice (e.g. Peeken et al.,
64 2018), as well as in Arctic biota (e.g. Baak et al., 2020; Granberg et al., 2020).

65
66 Concerns about litter and MP in the environment have been raised at both global and regional levels,
67 including the Arctic. The *Fairbanks Declaration* issued by the Arctic Council in 2017 notes “with
68 concern the increasing accumulation of marine debris in the Arctic, its effects on the environment and its
69 impacts on Arctic communities” and decides “to assess the scope of the problem and contribute to its
70 prevention and reduction, and also to continue efforts to address growing concerns relating to the
71 increasing levels of microplastics in the Arctic and potential effects on ecosystems and human health.”
72 (p.6; Arctic Council, 2017).

73
74 The issue of litter and MP pollution in the Arctic has recently been addressed by several Working Groups
75 of the Arctic Council (Figure 1). For example, the Working Group for the Conservation of Arctic Flora
76 and Fauna (CAFF) addressed the plastic ingestion by seabirds in the Arctic Migratory Birds Initiative
77 (AMBI) (CAFF, 2021a; 2021b). The Working Group for the Protection of the Arctic Marine Environment
78 (PAME) prepared a Desktop Study on Marine Litter including Microplastics in the Arctic (PAME, 2019)
79 and then developed a Regional Action Plan on Marine Litter in the Arctic (PAME, 2021). It includes 59
80 actions under eight main themes, ranging from the reduction of marine litter inputs from fisheries and
81 aquaculture to international cooperation. It also addresses the importance of long-term harmonized
82 monitoring of marine litter for the implementation of the Regional Action Plan, but also for the
83 establishment of spatial and temporal trends. The monitoring of both litter and MP has been the subject of
84 a Monitoring Plan and Monitoring Guidelines recently developed by the Arctic Monitoring and
85 Assessment Programme (AMAP) (AMAP, 2021a; 2021b; Provencher et al., this issue). The prioritized
86 environmental compartments for monitoring include beaches and shorelines (for litter monitoring),
87 seabird stomachs (for monitoring of smaller particles, including MP), water and sediments (both for
88 monitoring of MP) (AMAP, 2021b; Provencher et al., this issue). These have been prioritized for baseline
89 and temporal trend monitoring generating data for future circumpolar assessments of levels and trends of
90 litter and MP.

91
92 Besides this focused recommendation, the AMAP documents address multiple aspects of future
93 monitoring of litter and MP in the Arctic that warrant further discussion and development (AMAP 2021a;
94 b). These include, but are not limited to: 1) challenges that need to be overcome in terms of logistics, data
95 availability and comparability; 2) opportunities regarding synergies with existing initiatives, the
96 involvement of local communities and expansions to other monitoring media, and 3) future priorities and
97 strategies, such as international collaboration and additional focus areas in the monitoring programmes
98 (Figure 2). The objective of this article is to describe and discuss these aspects to elucidate relevant

99 components in the future monitoring of litter and MP in the Arctic that require continued efforts and
100 coordination.

101

102 Challenges

103 The Arctic Environment

104 The remoteness and the climate of the Arctic pose several challenges to the establishment of a monitoring
105 programme for litter and MP at the pan-Arctic scale. These challenges include logistic aspects, such as
106 regular access to monitoring sites, transport of equipment and its operation under extreme environmental
107 conditions, but also financial ones, such as balancing the high costs of running a monitoring programme
108 for litter and MP in the Arctic against other priorities in the environmental and other sectors (Mallory et
109 al., 2018). These circumstances underline the value in connecting with existing monitoring programmes
110 in the Arctic, such as those for contaminants (AMAP, 2016) or biodiversity (CAFF, 2017), to build on
111 existing experience and infrastructure, as further discussed below.

112

113 Similarly, a balance must be found between the use of sampling protocols developed for regions outside
114 the Arctic and the specific conditions in the Arctic. While harmonization with global or regional protocols
115 is desirable, they might include specifics not applicable to, or feasible for, the Arctic. For example, some
116 shoreline litter protocols recommend three months between four seasonal monitoring campaigns.

117 However, the number of surveys feasible to complete under Arctic conditions may be limited to one or
118 two surveys per beach per year, which is less frequent than recommended by the Convention for the
119 Protection of the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR) or US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
120 (NOAA) (OSPAR, 2020; Burgess et al., 2021). However, lower monitoring frequencies will affect the
121 statistical power of spatial and temporal trend assessments. This also applies to other remote regions.

122 Thus, experience from low-frequency sampling should be exchanged between monitoring programs, and
123 implications for the statistical power of trend analyses should be critically assessed.

124

125 Furthermore, these guidelines are often geared toward locations with sandy or fine particulate-based
126 shorelines, whereas Arctic and sub-Arctic shorelines are often rocky and can be ice-covered for
127 significant periods of the year (Melvin et al., 2021). Typical minimum transect lengths (often 100 m) may
128 in some cases not be available based on small beaches bordered by cliffs or other topographical features.
129 This ultimately affects how litter accumulates and how these areas can be surveyed. Specific litter items
130 may have to be added to item classification lists if they have relevance to the Arctic in terms of local uses

131 or frequent occurrences. Examples include items related to hunting and fishing activities in the Arctic or
132 to insufficient local waste management infrastructure, as described in the AMAP Monitoring Guidelines
133 (AMAP, 2021b). The guidelines address the challenges related to the monitoring of beach litter in the
134 Arctic and propose a set of solutions (AMAP, 2021b).

135
136 A specific challenge of monitoring in the Arctic includes the operation of sampling equipment, especially
137 in terms of continuous monitoring. Some monitoring systems remain in the environment for long periods
138 of time to collect continuous data, but given the extreme winter conditions in the Arctic, this is not
139 feasible in many regions. A lack of power supply in remote regions can also be a limiting factor. For
140 example, a continuous and reliable power source is needed for filtration systems for high volume
141 atmospheric/air samples. Mobile laboratory units running on solar and wind power can provide
142 infrastructure to researchers in remote Arctic areas, but may require yearly maintenance, permissions for
143 installing and moving units, and cause start up and maintenance costs. To overcome some of the logistic
144 challenges, connections to existing infrastructure, including research stations, can be beneficial, as further
145 discussed below.

146
147 The environmental conditions of the Arctic might affect plastic transport and degradation processes in
148 ways that are different from lower latitudes. For example, freezing temperatures and exposure to sunlight
149 can lead to embrittlement of plastics (Carroll, 1985; Cooper and Corcoran, 2010; Gewert et al., 2015),
150 potentially generating smaller fragmented items and eventually MP particles. Sea ice is another challenge,
151 which might act both as a barrier for larger plastic items (Cozar et al., 2017), but also as a transport
152 vehicle of MP (Obbard, 2018; Peeken et al., 2018; Tekman et al., 2020). Diffusion rates and partitioning
153 constants decrease with temperature, with potential consequences for a reduced leaching of chemical
154 additives, although a higher fragmentation might counteract this effect (Tanaka et al., 2020). Thus,
155 scientific findings from other regions may not be directly transferable to the Arctic environment and
156 specific experimental studies are needed under Arctic conditions.

157
158 Specific knowledge from the Arctic is also needed for a more comprehensive understanding of the global
159 sources, transport and fate of litter and MP. Thus, monitoring of litter and MP in the Arctic also holds the
160 opportunity to link with other parts of the world, as further discussed below. Climate change progresses
161 more rapidly in polar regions due to polar amplification, changing the Arctic environment in terms of
162 mass balances, flows and seasonal dynamics (AMAP, 2021c; d). This change will likely affect the fate,
163 pathways, and effects of MP (AMAP, 2021d; Welden and Lusher 2017). The most dramatic change may
164 be the loss of permanent sea ice (AMAP, 2021c). In the wake of climate change, intensified human

165 presence and industrial activities are expected in the Arctic, likely leading to increased plastic pollution
166 (AMAP, 2021d). It is advisable to already anticipate this change when planning future monitoring
167 programmes in the Arctic.

168

169 Harmonization and standardization

170 There are currently no standardized methods for determining, assessing and reporting litter and MP in
171 environmental samples, although work is ongoing on standardized approaches in several international
172 frameworks, for example under the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), the United
173 Nations (UN) and in the Regional Sea Conventions. Protocols for sampling and reporting of litter in the
174 oceans have been established by the UN Joint Group of Experts on Scientific Aspects of Marine
175 Environmental Pollution (GESAMP) (GESAMP, 2019). For litter on beaches and shorelines, protocols
176 have been developed for the OSPAR region and the Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment Project
177 (MDMAP) of NOAA (OSPAR, 2020; Burgess et al., 2021). However, the lists of litter categories to be
178 recorded differ between these protocols, which will affect the comparability between the OSPAR and
179 NOAA datasets. A potential third protocol is based on the joint list for macrolitter categories adopted in
180 the European Union (EU) under the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) (Fleet et al., 2021).
181 Further challenges remain in the harmonized reporting of beach litter data (Serra-Gonçalves et al., 2019).
182 For MP, there are no harmonized or standardized measurements in monitoring approaches at present, but
183 protocols are in preparation.

184

185 Standardization refers to the application of specific consistent methods, according to robust criteria. This
186 has the benefit of generating comparable data needed to assess temporal and spatial trends (Provencher et
187 al., 2017; 2019). However, defining a standardized method should not inhibit novel or iterative method
188 development efforts. As part of method standardization processes, but especially in the field of scientific
189 research, the issue of harmonization is of growing importance. It means that differing methods have been
190 rigorously tested to the point that results can be viewed as comparable despite differences in
191 methodologies. The benefit of harmonization is that data can be generated across projects that employ
192 similar, but not necessarily identical methods. Thus, harmonization can be the first step in a
193 standardization process.

194

195 Approaches towards harmonization and standardization of methods include global efforts to define
196 methods, develop standard reference materials (Seghers et al., 2021) and organize interlaboratory
197 comparisons (van Mourik et al., 2021), which is particularly important for the challenges of precise and

198 accurate MP determination. While the current efforts have confirmed that harmonization has not been
199 achieved (van Mourik et al., 2021), the approach to strive for comparability, supported by international
200 quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) schemes, is important for the analytical determination of MP,
201 including the identification of their chemical composition and quantification methods, involving different
202 instruments and methodologies (Primpke et al., this issue). Besides, it provides the baseline for future
203 method development including the use of new instruments for updates of monitoring guidelines and
204 method standards. For sampling methods, standardization of components like mesh sizes for water
205 sampling may be particularly beneficial to achieve higher comparability across studies (Michida et al.,
206 2020).

207
208 An example of harmonization that has been achieved despite different collection methods is that of
209 measuring and reporting plastic content in stomachs of northern fulmars (*Fulmarus glacialis*), a common
210 seabird in the North Atlantic and Arctic regions. Beginning in the 1980s, this bioindicator of plastic
211 pollution has been used in the North Sea, leading to protocols and standards developed by OSPAR
212 (OSPAR, 2008). The original protocols describe the use of beached birds (OSPAR, 2008). Due to the
213 logistic challenges of conducting beached bird surveys in the Arctic, a different sampling strategy was
214 adopted in the Arctic that relies on hunter collected birds and birds collected from fisheries (Trevail et al.,
215 2015; van Franeker et al., 2021). International collaborations have ensured that analytical protocols are
216 harmonized and result in comparable data across the northern hemisphere.

217
218 Given the substantial resources needed for each measurement in the Arctic, many Arctic samples are
219 unique, and sample integrity, assured by rigorous QA/QC measures, is especially important. The risk of
220 sample contamination is high, for example from the functional outdoor clothing typically worn in the
221 Arctic, which may readily shed plastic fibres (Cai et al., 2020). As well, ship-based measurements
222 generally bear the risk of plastic pollution artefacts, either from the vessel itself (e.g. paint flakes, grey
223 water discharges) or plastic equipment (Dibke et al., 2021; Leistenschneider et al., 2021). Although we
224 advocate logistic connections to initiatives undertaken for other purposes, QA/QC strategies and protocols
225 specific to litter and MP are nonetheless essential for data quality and comparability and must be
226 followed.

227 228 [Access to open data to deduce trends](#)

229 While linked to harmonized collections and standardized data reporting, data archives and access merit
230 separate attention as these are critical for data interpretation, including the circumpolar assessment of

231 litter and MP monitoring data. This includes future analyses of spatial and temporal trends, and modelling
232 initiatives, for example emission and transport models, as these are highly dependent on access to quality-
233 assured and comparable monitoring data.

234
235 There is no specific database for litter and MP in the Arctic, and the best and most realistic approaches for
236 future storage of data from various environmental Arctic media, including the terrestrial environment,
237 remain unclear at present. If compatible with these organizations' protocols, data for beach litter could be
238 stored in the OSPAR database for regions covered by the OSPAR area, and shoreline data from the USA
239 could be hosted by NOAA. Data on seabed litter is currently stored in the database of the International
240 Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES), which could be extended to other marine data on litter and
241 MP. Existing databases for atmospheric data, for example EBAS hosted by the Norwegian Institute for
242 Air Research (NILU), and/or ice and snow data housed with the National Snow and Ice Data Center
243 (NSIDC), could possibly be extended to accommodate litter and MP data. The online portal
244 LITTERBASE compiles data on the distribution of plastic debris and MP from scientific studies
245 (Bergmann et al., 2017c), but it cannot facilitate the upload of extensive datasets from monitoring studies
246 in its current form. The G20 initiative of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
247 (OECD) has organized a global database for floating microplastics. This initiative has been coordinated
248 by Japan (Michida et al., 2020; Isobe et al., 2021) and includes data from the Arctic. It also links with
249 global institutions such as Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC) of the United Nations
250 Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and may be an option for storage of MP data
251 from long-term monitoring in surface waters.

252
253 Litter and MP data can be relatively complex, as they cover multiple environmental media (e.g. water,
254 sediment, ice, biota for the marine environment alone), multiple parameters or combinations of these (size
255 classes, number of items, mass, polymer type, shape, colour etc.) and associated metadata (QA/QC,
256 location, environmental conditions, biological parameters etc.). Hence, extending existing databases is not
257 straightforward, but requires careful consideration of the type of data presumably needed in the future.
258 For upcoming circumpolar assessments of Arctic monitoring data, the availability of all Arctic data is
259 crucial, preferably in one or few, compatible systems. Besides the access to all Arctic locations, the
260 combination of data from multiple compartments in ecosystem-based approaches will be informative.

261

262 Lack of baseline and benchmark data

263 While for some environmental compartments and locations in the Arctic litter data exist that date back
264 decades (e.g. litter on specific beaches in Alaska; Merrell, 1980), baseline data are lacking for most
265 compartments. Image data from the deep Arctic seafloor have shown that plastic pollution has increased
266 significantly over time (Parga Martínez et al., 2020), as have by-catch data from Continuous Plankton
267 Recorder surveys from a 60-year time series (Ostle et al., 2019). However, the temporal development of
268 environmental levels of litter and MP since the industrial production of plastics is largely unknown in the
269 Arctic. This could be overcome through litter and MP analysis of legacy samples, such as sea ice and
270 glacier samples, although contamination control may be unreliable. Another option is the stratigraphic
271 analysis of sediment samples (Courtene-Jones et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2022), which could also apply to
272 glacier cores.

273
274 However, processes of accumulation of plastics over time or local distribution are site-specific and
275 dynamic: Mallory et al. (2021) noted that the distribution of plastic debris on low slope, sandy Arctic
276 shorelines largely represented recent additions. However, the area lacked beach clean up activities and
277 most of the sampled sites were well-protected from storms, so the data from many of these sites might
278 represent all plastic that has ever washed up. These types of sites where no clean up activities take place
279 also present an opportunity to remove the standing stock of litter and assess the rate of deposition.
280 Monitoring and mapping the occurrence of large seafloor litter in the Arctic using imagery and trawls is
281 complicated by the horizontal transport by currents and accumulation in depressions (Buhl-Mortensen and
282 Buhl-Mortensen, 2017; 2018; Grøsvik et al., 2018). The relation between currents from surface to
283 seafloor and accumulation sites for litter and plastic of all sizes will need further studies to understand the
284 distribution patterns needed for a robust monitoring strategy.

285
286 Given that all plastic materials are man-made, a theoretical baseline of zero could be set for plastics, but
287 might prove impractical in efforts to manage plastic pollution towards this baseline. Instead, a benchmark
288 approach has been suggested, defining the current level of litter and/or MP in the compartments proposed
289 for immediate monitoring (AMAP, 2021a). This level would also be the first point in a time series, and
290 future monitoring results can be compared to this benchmark level, for example to evaluate mitigation
291 efforts.

292
293 Furthermore, a consolidated establishment of benchmark levels of litter and MP in the Arctic across
294 environmental compartments is challenging, as described above. Consequently, the information currently

295 available to policy-makers is incomplete, in particular with regard to temporal developments of litter and
296 MP levels, as a basis for science-based decisions targeting the levels of litter and MP in the environment
297 and evaluating the effectiveness of these decisions. This confirms the need to establish current levels for
298 the prioritized indicators without further delay and with a geographical coverage that is as complete as
299 possible for the eight Arctic countries. Nonetheless, the widespread presence of litter and MP in the
300 Arctic has been well-established (PAME, 2019), showing that mitigation actions are needed.

301

302 Lack of knowledge of sources and transport pathways

303 Knowledge of sources of litter and MP in the Arctic is particularly important with a view to policy-based
304 actions aiming at reducing litter and MP in the Arctic at their sources. Both local sources and distant
305 sources of litter and MP have been identified in the Arctic, but their relative contributions are not known
306 and presumably highly variable for different locations (PAME, 2019). Local sources of MP can include
307 municipal and industrial wastewater, while litter has mostly been associated with fishing activities and
308 solid waste (von Friesen et al., 2020; Herzke et al., 2021; PAME, 2021). The question of distant sources
309 is closely connected with the understanding of transport pathways from lower latitudes to the Arctic as
310 well as within the Arctic.

311

312 The presence of floating or neutrally buoyant plastic particles in the Arctic Ocean is consistent with their
313 advection by the pathway of thermohaline circulation. Oceanographic net fluxes from the Atlantic Ocean
314 across the Fram Strait and Barents Sea are about ten times higher than those through the Bering Strait
315 (Eldevik and Haugan, 2020). This supports the hypothesis of a potential accumulation area in the
316 Eurasian Arctic, as inferred from global modelling and drifter data (van Sebille et al., 2012; Cózar et al.,
317 2017). Other processes affecting the accumulation patterns of plastics in the Arctic include riverine
318 plumes, vertical displacements and interactions with ice and biota (van Sebille et al., 2012); however,
319 these are not well-understood and may be further influenced by the rapidly changing climatic conditions
320 (AMAP, 2021c).

321

322 The large Siberian rivers are main contributors of fresh water to the Arctic Ocean (Shiklomanov et al.,
323 2021). These and other rivers can also transport plastics to the Arctic, as confirmed by a recent
324 expedition reporting plastics of different sizes, morphology and weight in the Siberian river plumes
325 (Yakushev et al., 2021). However, a recent study reported hardly no floating marine macrolitter items in
326 the Kara Sea, Laptev Sea and East-Siberian Sea (Pogojeva et al., 2021). Differences in these observations
327 could be caused by hydrography, as salty Atlantic water is placed below fresh and cold water layers from

328 rivers and the central Arctic Ocean, resulting in a patchy surface abundance of plastics (Yakushev et al.,
329 2021). Surface plastics could also be removed from Arctic surface water to deeper layers as a
330 consequence of downwelling. Vertical displacements of large water masses are a feature of the Arctic
331 Ocean, forced by the formation and sinking of dense water including deep-water cascading (Wobus et al.,
332 2013). A recent modelling study confirmed that in regions of winter convection, floating particles can be
333 drawn down through mixing and downwelling processes, projecting increasing accumulation of MP
334 particles over the next decades in the Central Arctic (Mountford and Maqueda, 2021).

335
336 Plastic items including MP have been recorded from deep Arctic sediments, suggesting that they are a
337 sink of plastics (Bergmann et al., 2017b; Tekman et al., 2017), but the processes around sinking plastics
338 are not fully understood. Furthermore, studies of large litter and plastic items on the seafloor have also
339 indicated horizontal transport along the seabed (Buhl-Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2017). Sea ice can
340 entrap plastics during formation and release it again upon melting, in a different place because of ice drift
341 (Kanhai et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2021). Little is known to date regarding the variability of plastics
342 occurrence in sea ice and how the underlying water body affects MP composition during sea ice growth
343 (Peeken et al., 2018). A route of potentially very fast transport may be atmospheric transport, which could
344 account for a significant contribution of MP to the ocean, especially in high latitudes (Evangelidou et al.,
345 2020). This was corroborated by high MP levels in Arctic snow (Bergmann et al., 2019).

346
347 Models could help address these knowledge gaps and prioritize monitoring sites or sites for actions based
348 on sources and transport processes of litter and MP. In the sub-Arctic and Arctic regions, models involve
349 the backtracking of litter from beaches of OSPAR surveys (Strand et al., 2021), of the distribution of MP
350 in sea ice (Peeken et al., 2018; Mountford and Maqueda, 2021) as well as high-resolution modelling of
351 the vertical and horizontal distribution of MP in the water column (Tekman et al., 2020). Integrated
352 modeling approaches, including freshwater inflow, could provide valuable insights into litter and MP
353 pathways to and within the Arctic. As discussed above, processes in the Arctic may differ from those in
354 other regions and should be considered accordingly in Arctic-specific model components.

355 356 **Lack of knowledge of effects and risks of litter and microplastics**

357 It is well-established scientifically, and prominent in the realm of public concern, that plastic debris has
358 deleterious effects on wildlife (e.g. Vegter et al., 2014; Bucci et al., 2020). Potential impacts include
359 entanglement of marine wildlife in plastic debris including abandoned, lost and discarded fishing gear as
360 well as ingestion of plastic debris, while the effects of MP are studied to a lesser degree (NOAA, 2014;

361 Collard and Ask, 2021). Besides direct harmful effects on an organism, the aspect of habitat destruction
362 by litter has also been highlighted (PAME, 2019). These impacts are especially concerning in the Arctic,
363 because wildlife species are essential subsistence, cultural, and economic resources for many local and
364 Indigenous communities (e.g. Kinloch et al., 1992; Ford, 2009; Pannikar and Lemmond, 2020). The
365 current knowledge base for Arctic biota, including impacts from both litter and MP, has been summarized
366 for invertebrates (Grøsvik et al., this issue), fish (Kögel et al., this issue) as well as mammals and birds
367 (Lusher et al., this issue), essentially documenting research initiatives, but the absence of more systematic
368 data collections. Furthermore, macroplastic particles have been identified as a vector for transport of
369 boreal species, in particular molluscs and algae, regarded as the main reason for re-appearance of *Mytilus*
370 on Svalbard (Węśławski and Kotwicki, 2018).

371
372 In addition to these physical and biological impacts, there can be chemical impacts from toxic compounds
373 that may be released from ingested plastic particles or taken up by organisms after leaching to water (Lu
374 et al., 2019; Fauser et al., 2020). Plastic polymers contain a multitude of additives that create or ensure
375 certain functions, such as plasticizers, flame retardants or antioxidants (Hahladakis et al., 2018; Fauser et
376 al., 2020). The documented occurrence of plastic particles in the Arctic environment may present an
377 additional exposure source of chemicals to wildlife and fish, besides the established long-range
378 atmospheric and/or oceanic transport of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) to the Arctic (AMAP, 2004).
379 While POPs are bioaccumulative by definition, some plastic additives, such as phthalates or
380 organophosphorous flame retardants, are less likely to bioaccumulate in an organism, but might exhibit
381 toxic effects upon uptake, through endocrine disrupting mechanisms (Net et al., 2015; Schang et al.,
382 2016). This field of exposure to non-POP chemicals from plastic-related sources in the Arctic has not
383 been studied in detail. Besides the complexity of a large number of polymers, associated chemicals and
384 species involved, the processes around leaching from the polymers, environmental partitioning and
385 bioavailability are not fully understood. The current state of knowledge is discussed by Hamilton et al.
386 (this issue). Connected to the knowledge gaps regarding exposure, the potential effects of plastic-
387 associated chemicals on Arctic wildlife also present an area of study where more knowledge is needed.

388
389 Impacts of litter and MP on wildlife are not only a conservation concern, but a sovereignty and food
390 security concern for community members in the Arctic (e.g. Ford, 2009; Panikkar and Lemmond, 2020).
391 This concern extends not only to the availability, but also to the health of wildlife for safe food
392 consumption. Thus, the effects of litter and MP in particular extend to concerns about human health in the
393 Arctic (PAME, 2019). Bioaccumulation of MP in animal tissue has been documented, however, current
394 findings do not seem to suggest biomagnification processes (Miller et al., 2020; Covernton et al., 2021;

395 McIlwraith et al., 2021). Besides the accumulation in wildlife and fish, contamination of drinking water
396 resources with MP is a worldwide concern (WHO, 2019). Current data suggest that effects of plastic
397 particles may be most pronounced for small size classes below 10 μm , including nanoplastics (Kögel et
398 al., 2020). Nanoplastics ($< 1 \mu\text{m}$) have recently been shown in ice from the Arctic and the Antarctic
399 (Materić et al., 2022). However, the field of nanoplastic research is still in an early development phase.
400 Due to limitations in the quantification of various polymer types of this size fraction, global
401 environmental levels are largely unknown.

402
403

404 Opportunities

405 Automation

406 The automation of procedures is an important aspect for the evolution of environmental monitoring, in
407 particular in remote areas. Aerial images and gliders have been used to automatically detect shoreline litter,
408 floating marine litter and to assess effects, e.g. the entanglement of seals in litter items (Deidun et al., 2018;
409 Claro et al., 2019; Guffogg et al., 2021). Significant advances in underwater image technology provide new
410 opportunities to monitor seafloor litter, including effects on marine organisms. Deep learning is promising
411 in plastic classification work, but not routinely used (Garcia-Garin et al., 2021). For MP, automated
412 sampling remains challenging, but automation is advanced for extraction, analysis and identification
413 (Primpke et al., 2017; da Silva et al., 2020; Lorenzo-Navarro et al., 2021). Regarding the monitoring of
414 litter and MP in the Arctic, the future may bring some opportunities for satellite imagery, autonomous tools
415 such as Autonomous Underwater Vehicles, wave gliders and drones.

416

417 Working on Litter and Microplastics *via* the Arctic Council

418 The Arctic Council celebrated its 25-year anniversary in 2021, marking two and a half decades of
419 cooperation, coordination and interaction among the Arctic States, Arctic Indigenous peoples and other
420 Arctic inhabitants on common Arctic issues. The topic of litter and MP is on the agenda of the Arctic
421 Council, as expressed in the *Fairbanks Declaration* (Arctic Council, 2017) and reflected in current
422 activities in several Arctic Council Working Groups (Figure 1). The Regional Action Plan on Marine
423 Litter in the Arctic (PAME, 2021) will be followed by an implementation phase under the lead of PAME.
424 The Sustainable Development Working Group (SDWG) has a focus on best practices in waste handling
425 that can reduce sources of marine litter. CAFF focused their work on examining litter and MP in seabirds
426 (CAFF, 2021a; 2021b), a group known to be vulnerable to plastic pollution and also prioritized for plastic

427 monitoring by AMAP (AMAP, 2021a; Provencher et al., this issue). AMAP has prepared the Monitoring
428 Plan and Monitoring Guidelines (AMAP, 2021a; b), which are now being implemented by the Arctic
429 States. When sufficient data are available, a circumpolar assessment is envisaged. In the meantime, the
430 Monitoring Guidelines will be updated as new knowledge becomes available (AMAP, 2021b), and other
431 aspects of plastic pollution in the Arctic will be addressed, amongst these the effects on ecosystems, as
432 discussed above.

433

434 At the international symposium on “Plastics in the Arctic and Subarctic Region” hosted by the
435 Government of Iceland in March 2021, a session was organized by the Arctic Council Working Groups
436 on their collaborative efforts in the field of Arctic pollution (Iceland, 2021). The session reported on
437 recent activities of the Working Groups in the field of litter and MP and analyzed potential obstacles for
438 the next steps, such as the harsh environment of the Arctic and limited resources. Collaboration and
439 collective actions were recognized as efficient and necessary for the way ahead, not only within the
440 Arctic, but also with other organizations active in this field, for example the EU (Iceland, 2021).

441

442 Alignment of priorities with the concerns of northern and Indigenous communities¹

443 Concern has been expressed by northern and Indigenous communities on pollution issues for decades
444 (AMAP, 2021e), and more recently, about litter and MP (Eriksen et al., 2020). Indeed, litter and MP are
445 now noted as priority topics in several funding programs in the Arctic, such as the Northern Contaminants
446 Program of Canada.

447

448 Community-based monitoring can contribute to monitoring litter and MP in the Arctic region in critical
449 and unique ways, including, but not limited to, continuity in sampling and combinations with other data
450 and observations of relevance for environment and health. In Canada, Indigenous hunters are
451 collaborating with research teams to contribute samples from subsistence harvests for litter and MP work,
452 including Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus*) (B. Hamilton, *unpublished data*), ringed seals (*Pusa hispida*)
453 (Bourdages et al., 2020), beluga (*Delphinapterus leucas*) (Moore et al., 2020), and walrus (*Odobenus*
454 *rosmarus*) (J. Provencher, *unpublished data*). In Greenland, litter and MP monitoring involves many local
455 contact points (J. Strand, *unpublished data*), and contaminant monitoring has been organized in
456 collaboration with local hunters for many years (Rigét et al., 2016). The following elements have been
457 implemented in the collaboration on litter and MP monitoring with local contacts in Greenland: i)

¹ This section contains text provided by Max Liboiron (Memorial University of Newfoundland and Labrador, St. John's, NL, Canada) and Liz Pijogge (Lands and Natural Resources, Nunatsiavut Government, Nain, NL, Canada), approved by all authors.

458 identifying surveyors interested in long-term involvement in community-based monitoring; ii) selection
459 of survey sites and initiating field surveys with related training and workshops; iii) ensuring
460 reimbursement of survey-related expenses; iv) establishing QA/QC frameworks (including e.g. photo
461 documentation); v) facilitating data sharing (J. Strand, *unpublished data*). In northern Canada, Indigenous
462 knowledge platforms like the Inuit Sea Ice Knowledge and Use (SIKU) programme
463 (<https://sikuatlas.ca/index.html>) and other community-based programmes such as the Local
464 Environmental Observer (LEO) network (<https://www.leonetwork.org/>) could be expanded to include
465 litter observations.

466
467 The recommendations for research and monitoring expressed by an international scientific community
468 can be different from research needs and priorities of communities and Indigenous peoples in the Arctic.
469 Some of the methods, categories, standards, and research questions in plastic pollution research in the
470 Arctic are skewed towards approaches common in the international scientific community (Liboiron et al.,
471 2021, Melvin et al., 2021). Natan Obed, the President of Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami (ITK), an organization
472 representing 65,000 Inuit in the Canadian Arctic, has written in ITK's *National Inuit Strategy for*
473 *Research* that, "for far too long, researchers have enjoyed great privilege as they have passed through our
474 communities and homeland, using public or academic funding to answer their own questions about our
475 environment, wildlife, and people. Many of these same researchers then ignore Inuit in creating the
476 outcomes of their work for the advancement of their careers, their research institutions, or their
477 governments. This type of exploitative relationship must end" (p.3; ITK, 2018). ITK recommends five
478 priority areas for research in their homelands, including: advancing Inuit governance in research,
479 including being part of funding decisions; enhancing the ethical conduct of research, including strong
480 community partnerships; ensuring Inuit access, ownership, and control over data and information
481 gathered in their homelands, including monitoring data; and building capacity in Inuit research through
482 skill-sharing, equal partnership, and research infrastructure (p. 4; ITK, 2018). While each Indigenous
483 group and community in the Arctic will be different, many of these principles will hold across the Arctic.
484 Pijogge and Liboiron (2021) point out that future monitoring research should align with these principles
485 with an emphasis on the priorities of local and regional Arctic communities. These are important points to
486 consider for methodological recommendations that come from and focus on scientific communalities. A
487 reconciliation science approach yielded important approaches to data analysis on the abundance and types
488 of plastic pollution in surface waters in the Eastern Arctic (Inuit Nunangat), so they aligned with Inuit
489 governance (Liboiron et al., 2021).

490

491 Litter and MP monitoring can also include a broader complementary citizen- and community-science
492 component with the purpose of raising public awareness of the litter and MP problem, including its
493 sources and impacts, and/or collecting data at a larger scale (Zettler et al., 2017; Syberg et al., 2020). To
494 date, these citizen scientists have played a limited role in existing monitoring programs in most regions in
495 the Arctic, but can contribute significantly to data collections, in particularly in remote areas (Bergmann
496 et al., 2017a; Ershova et al., 2021). Most experience exists from beach litter programs, including clean-up
497 activities (e.g. Falk-Anderson et al., 2019; Haarr et al., 2020).

499 An ecosystem approach, linking Arctic monitoring to the global issue of litter and 500 microplastic pollution

501 The issue of litter and MP pollution in the Arctic and elsewhere often focusses on the marine environment
502 where large amounts of litter and MP have been found all over the world (UNEP, 2014). However, the
503 AMAP Monitoring Plan also addresses monitoring in the freshwater, terrestrial and atmospheric
504 environment, and the AMAP Monitoring Guidelines provide technical details on monitoring approaches
505 in these compartments (AMAP, 2021a; b; Provencher et al., this issue). They define three priority levels
506 for monitoring: The highest priority compartments, proposed for immediate monitoring, include beaches
507 and shorelines, seabird stomachs as well as water and sediments, while second priority approaches
508 include the monitoring of atmospheric deposition, and the monitoring in fish and invertebrates. The water
509 monitoring recommended as one of the monitoring approaches of highest priority is directed at both the
510 marine and the freshwater environment, for example also targeting the rivers that discharge into the Arctic
511 Ocean and that may be relevant sources of litter and MP to the Arctic (PAME, 2019; AMAP, 2021a).

512
513 The AMAP Monitoring Plan proposes the monitoring of atmospheric deposition as a Priority 2 activity
514 and regards terrestrial soils as well as ice and snow as compartments for which monitoring of litter and
515 MP needs further development. The atmospheric transport of microfibers and MP particles to the Arctic
516 has been described (Bergmann et al., 2019) and may be a second significant transport pathway of plastics
517 to the Arctic, besides the recognized ocean transport (Cózar et al., 2017; Evangelidou et al., 2020).

518 Monitoring in this field, with due attention to the challenges described above, including the risk of
519 contamination, will considerably improve the current understanding of the long-range transport of plastic
520 particles to the Arctic. Nanoplastics will be relevant as well (Materić et al., 2021), but their determination
521 includes many methodological challenges at present. The monitoring in ice and snow will improve our
522 understanding of the role of the cryosphere in the transport and fate of litter and MP and thus provide
523 possibilities to link with alpine environments and litter and MP research in the Antarctic.

524
525 The recommendation of monitoring terrestrial compartments reflects that sources of litter in the Arctic
526 can be land-based, sea-based or of atmospheric origin (Bergmann et al., 2019; PAME, 2019). For
527 example, it was recently shown that seabirds foraging at sea ingest and then deposit MP back at their
528 terrestrial colonies (Bourdages et al., 2021), although these sites do not appear to be MP “hotspots”
529 (Hamilton et al., 2021). However, the Monitoring Guidelines recognize that the current monitoring
530 strategies and tools are not sufficiently developed to ensure routine monitoring in the terrestrial
531 environment with comparable high quality data (AMAP, 2021b).

532
533 The dramatic changes that are taking place in the Arctic due to climate change have led to a
534 remobilization and redistribution of contaminants between different environmental compartments, for
535 example a release from melting ice to the aquatic environment (AMAP, 2021d). Similar processes are
536 possible for litter and MP, making it particularly important to understand the interconnectivity of different
537 compartments and the movement of microplastics between these. The multi-compartment approach that is
538 outlined in the AMAP Monitoring Plan has the potential of ultimately connecting data from different
539 compartments and thus moving towards an ecosystem approach that improves the holistic understanding
540 of the transport to and distribution of litter and MP in the Arctic.

541

542 Synergies with other research and monitoring programs

543 A wide range of environmental monitoring and research activities are taking place throughout the Arctic.
544 Most Arctic countries have established national contaminant monitoring programmes with a focus on
545 organic contaminants and/or metals in biota and air that feed into the circumpolar AMAP assessments
546 (e.g., AMAP, 2017; Rigét et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2021). CAFF has established biodiversity-based
547 monitoring of Arctic populations (CAFF, 2017). Additional monitoring efforts taking place in the
548 European Arctic address seafood safety with a focus on maximum limits of contaminants set by the EU
549 and report to food safety authorities (Julshamn et al., 2013; Maage et al. 2017). Water is monitored in
550 many locations for pH, temperature, salinity, CO₂, nitrogen, algae growth, and radioactivity (Skjerdal et
551 al., 2017; van der Meeren and Prozorkevich, 2021). Acoustic disturbance is also monitored in some
552 regions (Tyack et al., 2021). To minimize extra costs for litter and MP monitoring, synergies with
553 existing programs and infrastructure may be sought. In this way, litter and MP can be efficiently
554 implemented using harmonized or standardized procedures and repeated over time to acquire the data
555 needed for a trend analysis.

556

557 There are advantages and limitations to implementing new monitoring programs on existing frameworks.
558 Given that work in the Arctic is logistically challenging and expensive (Mallory et al., 2018), there is a
559 need to maximize the usefulness of sample collections. By collecting samples for litter and MP
560 monitoring alongside other programs, supporting data and information (e.g. environmental and biological
561 parameters) could be used for several purposes. The availability of additional information may also allow
562 a broader set of questions to be addressed in relation to the fate and effects of litter and MP. Furthermore,
563 the existing monitoring programs for contaminants in biota are designed with considerations of the
564 statistical power needed to describe trends in the data (Rig  t et al., 2019). Thus, experiences gained from
565 contaminant monitoring regarding the natural variation in the Arctic environment can be a relevant
566 starting point for similar evaluations in the context of litter and MP monitoring although transport and
567 accumulation processes are likely to differ. As discussed above, studies of MP need tailored QA/QC
568 measures that have to be integrated into existing programs if their extension to MP monitoring is
569 intended. Sampling strategies might have to be adjusted to meet the requirements and purposes of a litter
570 and MP monitoring programme, for example in terms of number of samples or sampling times and
571 frequencies.

572

573 Strategies for future monitoring

574 Framing litter and microplastic monitoring within an Indigenous and northern research 575 strategy

576 There are many ways to work with partners throughout the Arctic. The movement from ‘exclusion to self-
577 determination in research’ as described in the *National Inuit Strategy on Research* (ITK 2018) is a useful
578 framework for future collaboration with northern and Indigenous partners on litter and MP monitoring in
579 the Arctic. The community-based monitoring and research on litter and MP was discussed above,
580 including the importance of aligning several approaches to, and priorities in, research and monitoring.
581 Examples of successful collaborations include recent work on plastic pollution in the eastern Canadian
582 Arctic in the context of reconciliation (Liboiron et al. 2021). Given that litter and MP in the Arctic are
583 often collected by Indigenous groups on their traditional territories, Indigenous access, ownership and
584 control over the data should be considered during the planning of research activities.

585

586 Coordination with litter and microplastic programmes outside the Arctic

587 The problem of litter and MP is addressed by several organisations outside the Arctic, mainly with a focus
588 on the marine environment and with geographical overlaps with the Arctic. These include global
589 initiatives (e.g. GESAMP and the OECD G20 initiative), the Regional Sea Conventions such as OSPAR,
590 the EU and national programs (e.g. NOAA). Five resolutions on marine litter have been adopted by the
591 UN Environment Assembly (UNEA), the most recent one as of 2022 on ending plastic pollution through
592 an international legally binding agreement (UNEA, 2022). The G20 initiative published an Action Plan on
593 Marine Litter in 2017, and, in 2019, an implementation framework (OECD, 2017; Japan, 2020). The EU
594 has developed a plastics strategy as part of its Circular Economy Action Plan, including actions within
595 recycling, reduction of single-uses, developments towards circular solutions and global collaboration (EU,
596 2020). Regional Sea Conventions such as OSPAR and the Baltic Marine Environment Protection
597 Commission (HELCOM) have developed Regional Action Plans for marine litter, for the Northeast
598 Atlantic and the Baltic Sea, respectively, with items similar to the actions put forward for the Arctic
599 (HELCOM, 2015; OSPAR, 2014; PAME, 2021). Regional efforts are also undertaken under the auspices
600 of the Nordic Council of Ministers, also covering parts of the Arctic. The Nordic Ministerial Declaration
601 was adopted in 2020 on the need for a global agreement to prevent marine plastic pollution
602 ([https://www.norden.org/en/declaration/nordic-ministerial-declaration-need-new-global-agreement-](https://www.norden.org/en/declaration/nordic-ministerial-declaration-need-new-global-agreement-prevent-marine-plastic-litter)
603 [prevent-marine-plastic-litter](https://www.norden.org/en/declaration/nordic-ministerial-declaration-need-new-global-agreement-prevent-marine-plastic-litter)). Furthermore, the Nordic cooperation developed a programme to reduce the
604 impact of plastics (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2017).

605
606 The intergovernmental organisation ICES and its sister North Pacific Marine Science Organization
607 (PICES) provide scientific support for monitoring in the North Atlantic and North Pacific regions. This
608 includes work on marine litter, for example *via* the ICES Working Group for Marine Litter (WGML). The
609 trawl surveys in the North-East Atlantic are an example of regional cooperation. Initial results are being
610 developed within the framework of the OSPAR Quality Status Report planned in 2023. Similarly, PICES
611 and the Northwest Pacific Action Plan (NOWPAP) are developing a strategy for monitoring litter and its
612 impacts that does not exclude the Arctic area's environmental features.

613
614 At the regional level, the EU MSFD has mandated European states to monitor marine litter and its
615 impacts along European coasts. These include marine areas of the European Arctic, which supports
616 harmonisation between various programmes. The role of the Arctic is important for EU MSFD
617 monitoring as the Arctic could provide reference levels for the definition of baselines or thresholds to
618 determine Good Environmental Status. The NOAA MDMAP includes sites in Alaska, but these are not

619 necessarily representative of the state or region as a whole given the size and scale as well as variations
620 from site to site. MDMAP was designed to measure and quantify shoreline debris loads, which can be
621 repeated over time and space to make inferences at different scales, rather than as a method to measure
622 against a defined metric or threshold. None of the marine areas are isolated from each other and a wider
623 geographical perspective is necessary to assess broader issues, such as the question of long-range
624 transport of litter and MP. Bilateral collaboration, such as the Working Group on the Marine Environment
625 of the Joint Russian-Norwegian Commission in the field of environmental protection also includes
626 recording of litter and MP in the Barents Sea and provides possibilities for collaboration on harmonisation
627 and standardisation of methods on monitoring programmes from the Barents Sea and the Russian Arctic.
628 These initiatives are of major importance since they allow collaborations across national borders and
629 common discussions on sources and measures.

630
631 The geographical overlaps and interconnections suggest that it will be useful to seek coordination and
632 share information with regard to regional action plans, scientific advice and monitoring strategies at the
633 regional and national level, and to feed into global initiatives coordinated by the UN. Arctic monitoring
634 data may have special relevance as reference sites, but also for the understanding of global transport and
635 accumulation processes. Time trend monitoring data can feed into global agreements in a similar way as
636 established for contaminants (AMAP, 2016; 2021d). Thus, the international exchange and coordination
637 can lead to both global indicators and regionally important metrics.

638
639 **Including litter and microplastics monitoring in existing Arctic research and monitoring**
640 **activities**

641 Monitoring programmes for chemical contaminants have been in operation in the Arctic for decades.
642 They include a suite of initiatives that collect samples (typically of air and biota, but not restricted to these
643 matrices), determine contaminants in these samples, and contribute to the circumpolar AMAP
644 assessments, such as those on spatial and temporal trends (AMAP, 2016; Rigét et al., 2019; Wong et al.,
645 2021). While the monitoring of POPs and heavy metals, in particular mercury, present the backbone of
646 these programmes, they are typically sufficiently flexible to accommodate new parameters, such as
647 chemicals of emerging Arctic concern (AMAP, 2017). However, any extension of existing programs
648 needs careful considerations if sampling strategies require adjustments, for example to avoid
649 contamination.

650

651 In the Canadian Arctic, seabirds have been collected under the Northern Contaminants Program for
652 contaminant monitoring since the 1970s, including eggs and tissues sampled in collaboration with local
653 Inuit community members (e.g. Braune and Letcher, 2013; Braune et al., 2014). Since 2008, seabirds
654 collected under this program have also been used to monitor plastic ingestion and associated chemical
655 contaminants (Poon et al., 2017; Provencher et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2019). During the dissections of
656 seabirds in communities, it is easy to remove and sample the entire gastrointestinal tract (GIT)
657 specifically for litter and MP analysis (Provencher et al., 2013). The removal of the intact GIT is aligned
658 with the recommended protocols for seabird monitoring and thus provides standardized metrics for global
659 comparisons (Provencher et al., 2017; 2019).

660
661 The contaminant monitoring under AMAP also includes a human health programme focusing on
662 exposure to and effects of POPs and heavy metals on the human population of the Arctic (AMAP, 2021e).
663 Similar to the contaminant monitoring in biota, ongoing activities could be extended to include studies on
664 litter and MP, in close collaboration with local communities.

665
666 In addition to the contaminant-focused monitoring programs, there are a variety of other programmes
667 suitable for collecting samples and providing information on litter and MP in the Arctic. In the Canadian
668 Arctic, fisheries monitoring programs have collected samples of Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus*) for litter
669 and MP assessments (B. Hamilton, *unpublished data*). Additionally, some research programs can collect
670 non-target species, such as bycatch in fisheries, for litter and MP monitoring. This has been applied in
671 Arctic Canada where fulmars accidentally caught by fisheries (Anderson et al., 2018) have been examined
672 for plastics (Mallory et al., 2006). In the Barents Sea, the Norwegian-Russian ecosystem cruises, which
673 contribute to the population monitoring of fish species for sustainable catch, now house manta trawling
674 equipment for plastic in water and plankton, and they also record floating litter and litter as bycatch in
675 trawls (Grøsvik et al., 2018; van der Meeren & Prozorkevich 2021). While this opportunistic, yet targeted
676 sampling presents an optimized use of resources and could enable access to locations that could not be
677 visited otherwise, the specific QA/QC requirements for sampling of litter and MP need to be rigorously
678 integrated in sampling campaigns with a different primary focus, in particular for the MP component.
679 This also includes sample storage, transport and pre-processing, prior to the actual MP analysis.

680
681 Ships of opportunity can also be used to survey litter on the water surface or to collect MP with
682 designated samplers, as further discussed below. Mallory et al. (2021) reported floating litter throughout
683 the Canadian Arctic as part of bird surveys aboard expedition cruise vessels. Based on at-sea surveys
684 covering 263,543 km of marine survey transects, anthropogenic debris was observed floating in marine

685 waters from the southeastern coast of North America into the Canadian Arctic, north to ~78° N. Over this
686 region, 1,266 pieces of floating debris were observed, of which 74% were plastics (Mallory et al., 2021).
687 Interestingly, these results differed somewhat from Bergmann et al. (2016), who, on a different vessel,
688 found that all floating debris in the Fram Strait and Barents Sea was plastic. Such data collection
689 approaches may help fill in knowledge gaps in regions where only a few vessels transit each year, and
690 consequently, expensive, systematic surveys may simply be impractical.

691

692 Use of established networks of Arctic Research Stations

693 Permanent or long-term infrastructure in the Arctic provides possibilities for new monitoring platforms
694 for litter and MP, in particular *via* existing networks of Arctic research and monitoring stations. Several
695 Arctic monitoring stations focussing on the terrestrial environment are linked in the INTERACT network
696 (International Network for Terrestrial Research and Monitoring in the Arctic; <https://eu-interact.org/>).
697 This focus on the terrestrial environment could provide a relevant complementary component to marine
698 monitoring activities, and thus support the ecosystem approach envisaged for litter and MP in the Arctic
699 environment. In Canada, a large number of stations, facilities and structures are organized in the Canadian
700 Network for Northern Research Operators (<http://cnro.ca/our-facilities/>), also providing contact points in
701 different locations and environments.

702

703 The HAUSGARTEN observatory in the eastern Fram Strait was originally installed to observe the impact
704 of climate change from the sea surface to the deep seafloor at 21 sampling stations located along a
705 bathymetric (250 -5500 m depth) and latitudinal gradient (Soltwedel et al., 2016). It has recently also
706 been used to assess litter and MP in different ecosystem compartments following an observation of
707 increasing litter quantities in deep-sea photographs (Bergmann et al, 2016; Tekman et al., 2017; 2020;
708 Parga Martinez et al., 2020). Its platforms such as benthic landers and year-round moorings with sediment
709 traps along with annual sampling campaign using an ice breaker targeting all ecosystem compartments
710 facilitate regular access that is needed for trend analyses. Legacy photographs from seafloor surveys
711 could be used to assess seafloor litter pollution and increase our knowledge of its distribution throughout
712 the Arctic.

713

714 The opportunities related to the collaborative use of existing research infrastructure for studies of plastics
715 in the marine environment were recently presented by Ó Conchubhair et al. (2019). The authors
716 highlighted the European Strategy Forum on Research Infrastructure (ESFRI), which could play a role in
717 European initiatives addressing plastic debris in the marine environment. Microplastics could be sampled

718 in the Arctic with FerryBox systems on ships of opportunities (Ó Conchubhair et al., 2019). This was
719 recently tested for microplastic samplers on ferries crossing Danish waters and could be extended to the
720 Arctic, including tailored QA/QC protocols (Lusher et al., 2021).

721

722 Monitoring sources and accountability measures

723 With marine plastic pollution research becoming more common in scientific communities and
724 crowdsourced initiatives globally, there are calls within non-governmental organizations, and advocate
725 communities that are impacted by marine plastic pollution for another type of approach to methods and
726 metrics, accounting for sources of plastic pollution. This includes both methods (what is observed, where
727 it is observed, and to what ends) and metrics (what is counted, what categories are salient). Accountability
728 measures are uniquely suited to inform action on mitigating or eliminating sources of marine plastic
729 pollution.

730

731 The most developed accountability measure in marine plastic pollution is the brand audit, popularized by
732 the global #breakfreefromplastic movement (BFFP, 2021). A brand audit records plastic items where
733 brand names of items are apparent. It has been carried out worldwide on an annual basis (BFFP, 2021)
734 Recording counts of items by brand is designed to show the industrial origin (often called a “parent
735 company”) of marine plastics, and is tied with extended producer responsibility (EPR), where producers
736 of waste are responsible for the fate of their packaging products. The use of such accountability measures
737 in the Arctic would allow mitigation measures to be directed to those types of pollution that are the most
738 prevalent ones, while offering linkages to other parts of the world. Despite regional differences, products
739 of companies with worldwide markets have also been found all over the world (BFFP, 2019).

740

741 Another form of accountability measures may be introduced in relation to fishing gear, a major pollutant
742 in many regions of the Arctic (Buhl-Mortensen and Buhl-Mortensen, 2017; PAME, 2019). Annual clean-
743 up surveys in the most important fishing grounds along the Norwegian coast have removed over 1000
744 tonnes of gear since 1983, including 22,000 gill nets with a combined length of over 600 km
745 (<https://www.fiskeridir.no/English/Fisheries/Marine-litter/Retrieval-of-lost-fishing-gear>). The Food and
746 Agricultural Organization (FAO) of the UN has developed voluntary guidelines for marking fishing gear
747 (FAO, 2019), which PAME (2021) supports as an action for the Arctic. Likewise, a required reporting of
748 lost fishing gear, as part of national regulations, has been suggested as an action for the Arctic (PAME,
749 2021). In total, of the 59 actions in the Regional Action Plan on Marine Litter in the Arctic, eleven relate
750 to fisheries and others target ship traffic, waste handling and similar waste sources (PAME, 2021).

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Conclusions

The monitoring of litter and MP in the Arctic has been initiated under the auspices of AMAP, with the purpose of generating information for regulatory bodies, addressing research priorities of northern and Indigenous communities and contributing to a better scientific understanding of a global pollution issue. Current challenges are related to the specific environmental conditions of the Arctic, the lack of standardization and harmonization, in both measurements and reporting, as well as major knowledge gaps with regard to baselines and benchmarks, sources, transport and effects of litter and MP. These challenges need consideration for the newly established monitoring programme to be successful, including careful definitions of monitoring purposes and related strategies, both in terms of scientific approaches and feasibility. The well-established networks under AMAP and other Arctic Council Working Groups, for example from long-term monitoring of contaminants or biodiversity, can facilitate the exchange of knowledge and experience between the Arctic States. In addition, the infrastructure used in other Arctic monitoring programmes and research projects could provide a platform for the litter and MP monitoring to build on. Thus, synergies are possible and should be explored, however, always keeping in mind that litter and MP monitoring needs rigorous QA/QC measurements to ensure accurate and precise data. Engaging with Arctic communities in the development and implementation of this research and monitoring will not only help address inequities of past approaches and help adhere to recommended ethical practices, but should also provide new options for data collection that were not considered in the past. Additionally, benefits accrue in learning from past experiences and exploring multi-purpose uses of supporting data. Aspects of human health might be included in future developments of monitoring strategies, being directly linked with pollution issues in the Arctic environment, accumulation of MP and other contaminants in wildlife and resulting concerns about food security.

The monitoring of litter and MP in the Arctic has to find a balance between Arctic-related specific questions and the link to the global pollution issue of litter and MP. The current programme offers possibilities of an ecosystem approach, improving the understanding of linkages between environmental compartments within the Arctic, also taking into account the rapid dynamics in the Arctic environment caused by climate change, as well as the geographically broader view on transport pathways and source regions. Ultimately, data from the Arctic will be an important element in broad-scale international approaches to the problem of litter and MP pollution, through reference data, elucidation of transport pathways and sources, and trend data for evaluations of mitigation actions.

785 Acknowledgements

786 The authors wish to thank Max Liboiron and Liz Pijogge for critical discussions, insights into
787 community-based research in Arctic Canada and information about the Inuit Tapiriit Kanatami and its
788 *National Inuit Strategy on Research*, including text provided for the section on “Alignment of priorities
789 with the concerns of northern and Indigenous communities”.

790 KV and JS acknowledge funding from the programme *Miljøstøtte til Arktis* of the Danish Environmental
791 Protection Agency. MG acknowledges financial support from the Swedish Environmental Protection
792 Agency. BEG and TK were funded through the Institute of Marine Research, Bergen, Norway by the
793 Ministry of Trade, Industry and Fisheries, Norway. BMH acknowledges funding support from the
794 Northern Contaminants Program of Canada and the University of Toronto. This publication is Eprint ID
795 54463 of the Alfred-Wegener-Institut, Helmholtz-Zentrum für Polar und Meeresforschung and benefits
796 from the Pollution Observatory of the Helmholtz-funded programme FRAM (Frontiers in Arctic Marine
797 Research). MBe and IP are funded by the PoF IV program “Changing Earth - Sustaining our Future”
798 Topic 6.4 of the German Helmholtz Association. FG, ALL, SP and JS acknowledge that this work
799 contributes to part of a project that has received funding from European Union’s Horizon 2020
800 Coordination and Support Action programme under Grant Agreement 101003805 (EUROqCHARM).

801

802

803 Competing interests

804 The authors have no competing interests.

805

806

807 Author contributions

808 JP: Conceptualization, methodology, writing – original draft, writing – review & editing, visualization,
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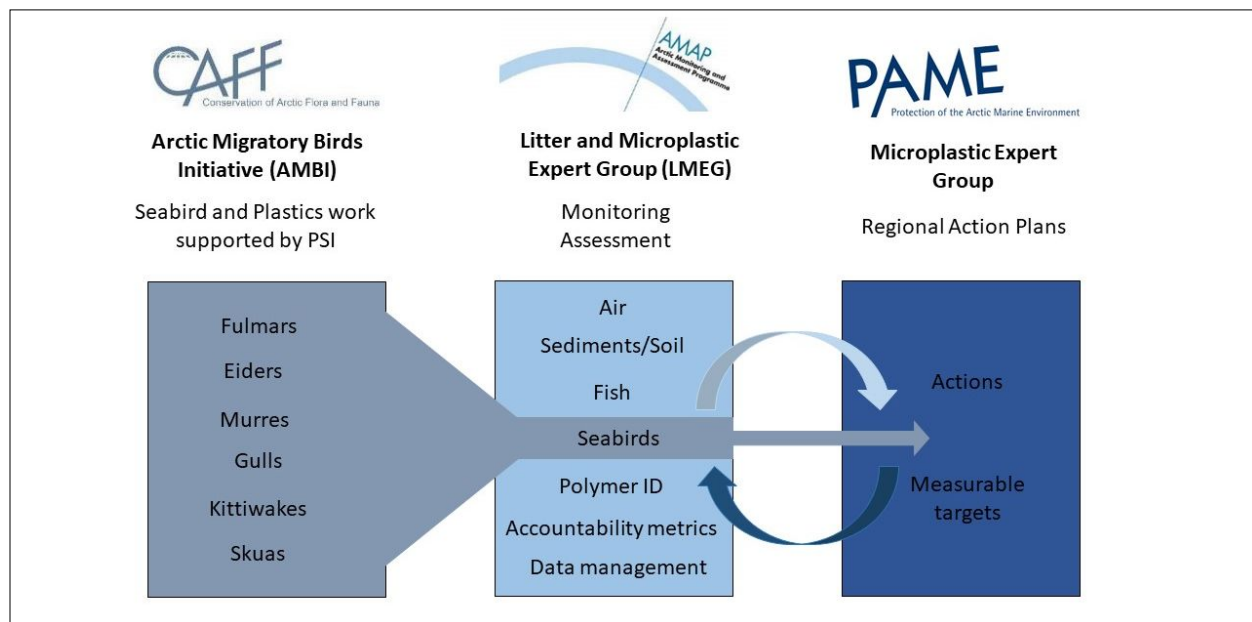
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Figure 1 – Example of the cooperation and coordination on litter and microplastics work among three of the Arctic Council's Working Groups.

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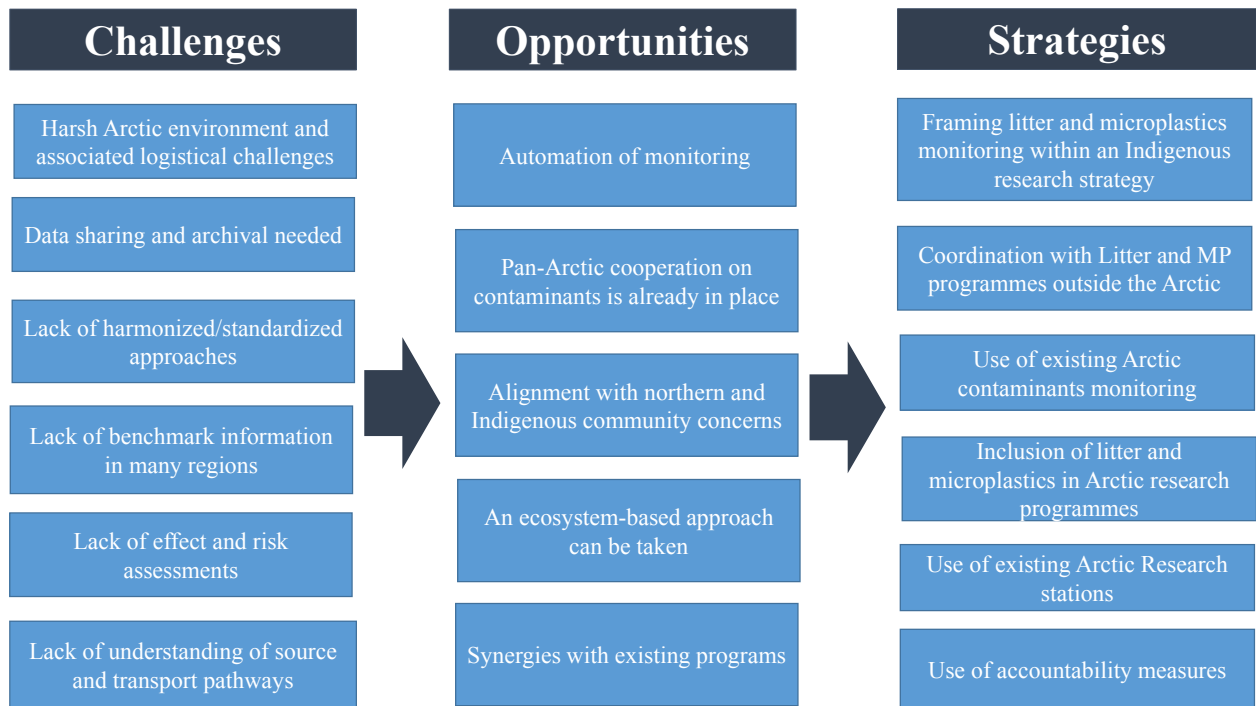
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Figure 2: Summary of challenges, opportunities and strategies with regard to future monitoring of litter and microplastics in the Arctic.