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The role of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) in reducing pollution of the Arctic and around the globe

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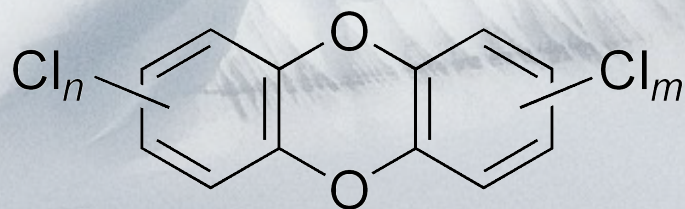
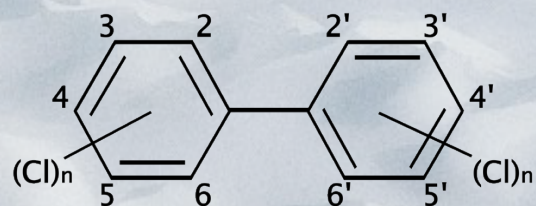
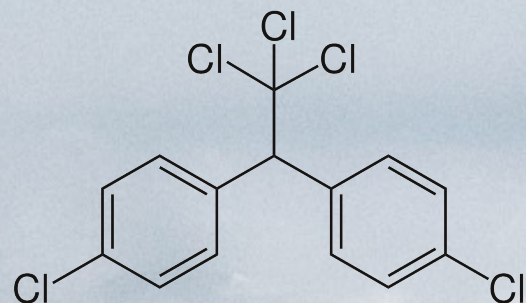
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AMAP

Information/Monitoring



1 **Pollution of the Arctic: The role of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme**
2 **(AMAP) in reducing pollution of the Arctic and around the globe**

3

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 This article presents the initiation and implementation of a systematic scientific and political
20 cooperation in the Arctic related to environmental pollution and climate change, with a special
21 focus on the role of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP). The AMAP
22 initiative has coordinated monitoring and assessments of environmental pollution across
23 countries and parameters for the entire Arctic. Starting from a first scientific assessment in
24 1998, AMAP's work has been fundamental in recognizing, understanding and addressing
25 environmental and human health issues in the Arctic, including those of persistent organic
26 pollutants (POPs), mercury, radioactivity, oil, acidification and climate change. These
27 scientific results have contributed at local and international level to define and take measures
28 towards reducing the pollution not on in the Arctic, but of the whole globe, especially the
29 contaminant exposure of indigenous and local communities with a traditional lifestyle. The
30 lesson learned from the work in the Arctic can be beneficial for other places of the world where
31 contaminants may accumulate and local and indigenous peoples are living in a traditional way,
32 e.g. in Himalaya. Global cooperation is indispensable to reduce the long-range transported
33 pollution in the Arctic.

34

35 **Keywords**

36 Climate change, heavy metals, human health, indigenous peoples, persistent organic pollutants,
37 radioactivity

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 **The Arctic** was for a long time seen as one of the last pristine areas of the globe. However,
41 monitoring, research and assessments performed over the last 30 years have documented that
42 the Arctic area (

43

44 Figure 1) is not as pristine as earlier believed. Long-range transported pollutants reach the
45 Arctic, as well as other remote areas all over the world.

46 Historically, sources of pollutants within the Arctic had especially been linked to industrial
47 sites and military installations. Some of the highest emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and heavy
48 metals have occurred from the large smelters at Norilsk on Taimyr Peninsula and on Kola
49 Peninsula since the 1930ies (

50

51 Figure 1). These smelters did not use filters to reduce the emissions, which caused significant
52 pollution of forests and freshwater ecosystems, both in the immediate surrounding of the
53 smelters and far away (AMAP, 1998) (Figure 2). The Arctic also held sources of radioactive
54 substances, mainly the test site for nuclear weapons at Novaya Zemlja, the storage of
55 radioactive fuel and waste on Kola peninsula and dumped materials (containers and nuclear
56 submarines) in the Barents and Laptev Sea (

57

58 Figure 1).

59 However, the main pollution issues of the circumpolar Arctic include the long-range transport
60 of persistent organics pollutants (POPs) and mercury, primarily carried to the Arctic by air,
61 rivers and ocean currents from Asia, North America and Europe (AMAP, 1997, 1998). The
62 bioaccumulation of these chemicals in ecosystems and their ability to biomagnify in the food

63 chain has led to the exposure of Arctic coastal peoples to harmful chemicals through the
64 consumption of traditional Arctic food, including marine mammals that are high in the food
65 chain. Fish and sea mammals have been a significant part of the traditional diet of the Northern
66 and Arctic indigenous and local peoples living along the coasts of North America, Northern
67 Europe, Greenland, and Chukotka, providing nutrients and energy.

68 The objective of this paper is to describe and discuss the historical development leading to the
69 Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP). It addresses AMAP's impact on
70 pollution control, both in the Arctic and around the world, the impact of global pollution control
71 on pollutant levels in the Arctic, as well as current and future challenges.

72

73

74 Figure 1: The Arctic area as defined by the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP).
75 The figure is modified from AMAP (1997).

76

77 **2. From cold war to Arctic collaboration: The Arctic Environmental Protection** 78 **Strategy (AEPS)**

79 After the end of World War II the two military alliances, the North Atlantic Treaty
80 Organization (NATO) and the Warsaw Pact, constructed military bases and radar installations
81 in the Arctic, nuclear submarines were operating under the sea ice and military airplanes
82 crossed the Arctic area armed with nuclear weapons (Figure 3). The cold war was also taking
83 place in the Arctic. It lasted until the mid-1980ies when US President Ronald Reagan and
84 Soviet Secretary General Michael Gorbachev started to communicate and agreed to reduce the
85 nuclear arsenal and thereby the global nuclear threat. In 1987 Gorbachev held a speech in
86 Murmansk to honor the citizens for their fight during World War II. In this speech he called
87 for a change in the Arctic, to reduce the military activities and to turn the Arctic Ocean into an
88 ocean of peace, science and prosperity (Gorbachev, 1987). He also called for a science
89 cooperation in the Arctic and an environmental program focusing on Arctic pollution. Prior to
90 his speech there had been some negotiations between the East and West about the possibility
91 to initiate an Arctic science cooperation, and in 1990 the International Arctic Science
92 Cooperation (IASC) was established (IASC, 2015). East and West were also represented in the
93 Cooperative Programme for Monitoring and Evaluation of the Long-range Transmission of Air
94 Pollutants in Europe (EMEP), which began operations under the United Nations Economic

95 Commission for Europe (UN-ECE) in 1977 and initially focused on acid rain (Rothschild,
96 2016). It became a cornerstone of the Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution
97 (CLRTAP), which was signed in 1979 and entered into force in 1983.

98 Figure 2: Emissions of SO₂ at Pechenga and Norilsk (A) and effects on forests in Russia, Finland and
99 Norway (B) (AMAP, 1998, 2006)

100

101 Based on Gorbachev's speech, the Finnish government initiated diplomatic activities among
102 the Arctic countries and organized an Arctic environmental meeting in Rovaniemi, Finland, in
103 September 1989. This process led to the establishment of the Arctic Environmental Protection
104 Strategy (AEPS) signed in Rovaniemi in June 1991 by the Ministers of Environment of the
105 eight Arctic Countries. As part of this declaration, the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment
106 Programme (AMAP) was established, with the mandate to monitor and assess the pollution of
107 the Arctic environment (ocean, land, rivers and air) and associated pollutant exposure of
108 humans, especially of Arctic indigenous and local communities, and to provide policy
109 recommendations based on scientific assessments. At this meeting Norway offered to host the
110 Secretariat for AMAP, where it was established in 1992 (AEPS, 1991 a&b, Stone, 2015).

111 Originally, groups under the AEPS included AMAP, a group on Conservation of Arctic Fauna
112 and Flora (CAFF), on Emergency, Prevention, Preparedness and Response (EPPR) and on the
113 Protection of the Arctic Marine Environment (PAME). These were established as Task Forces
114 and later renamed as Working Groups, a permanent structure, at the first AEPS ministerial
115 meeting in Nuuk, Greenland in 1993 (Ministry of Foreign Affairs Copenhagen, 1993).
116 However, the Canadian government had reservations to the AEPS and worked towards an
117 Arctic organization that had more focus on the Arctic indigenous peoples' situation and on
118 security. In 1996, the Arctic Council was established in Ottawa, Canada, based on the AEPS
119 structure and with the objective to continue the initiated work, with a stronger focus on Arctic
120 indigenous peoples' health and lifestyle, but not including security (Arctic Council, 1996).
121 Thus, AMAP, CAFF, EPPR and PAME became Working Groups under the Arctic Council.

122

123 **3. Development of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP)**

124 Prior to the ministerial meeting in Rovaniemi in June 1991, a consultation meeting regarding

125 an Arctic monitoring programme had been held in Leningrad (today St. Petersburg) in March
126 1990 between Norwegian and Russian experts. Thereafter an international workshop was held
127 in Oslo, Norway, in November 1990, where the draft program for AMAP was upgraded to
128 secure linkages to ongoing research and monitoring programs, to ensure synergies and avoid
129 overlap of work with, e.g., EMEP, the Oslo and Paris Commission for the Protection of the
130 Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR) and the International Council for the
131 Exploration of the Seas (ICES). These synergies have led to greater international awareness of
132 pollution issues and attempts to integrate different aspects of pollution across geographical
133 regions. Significant part of the AMAP draft program is reflected in the ministerial declaration
134 of the meeting in Rovaniemi (AEPS, 1991 a&b).

135

136 Figure 3: Map of military installations in 1988

137

138 In 1991, AMAP was given the mandate to monitor and assess the pollution of the Arctic from
139 any sources. This wording was chosen to ensure that military sources were not excluded from
140 the AMAP program (Figure 3) and enabled the comprehensive and integrative assessment of
141 various aspects of Arctic pollution (Table 1). At the first AMAP meeting in Tromsø, Norway,
142 in November 1991, three indigenous organizations were involved in the AEPS – the Nordic
143 Saami Council, the Inuit Circumpolar Council (ICC) and the USSR Association of small
144 peoples of the North (RAIPON). Observers were the United Nations Environmental
145 Programme (UNEP), the UN-ECE, ICES, IASC, and three non-Arctic countries, i.e. the UK,
146 Poland and Germany (AEPS, 1991a). It was one of the innovations in the AMAP concept that
147 indigenous peoples' organizations were included as equal partners and participants in the
148 program, together with the Arctic states, and that assessments were based on integrations of
149 scientific and local/indigenous knowledge.

150 During the discussions in Tromsø in 1991, the Scandinavian countries were in favor of a
151 mandatory pollution monitoring program in the Arctic, while the position of the USA was that
152 all work should be based on voluntary contributions, which was the final decision. Later, the
153 Senior Arctic Officials (SAOs), representatives of the Arctic countries' ministries of foreign
154 affairs overseeing the work of the Arctic Council between ministerial meetings, decided that if
155 two countries wanted to fund a project, it could be initiated even if other Arctic countries did
156 not contribute to the project. This decision turned out to be a very efficient strategy for

157 financing the monitoring and assessment work as priorities differed between the Arctic
 158 countries. For example, at the beginning of the AMAP work, Norway and Russia were eager
 159 to analyze and reduce all types of radionuclide sources in the Barents region, while Canada and
 160 Denmark were interested to clarify the threats from pollutants to Arctic indigenous and local
 161 peoples. Canada and Sweden took the lead on POPs, and Finland was most concerned about
 162 the acidification of Northern lakes and forests, resulting from emissions from the Russian
 163 smelters.

164 Based on these national interests and following this collaborative approach, AMAP established
 165 six expert groups. Table 1 shows the priority areas for the first AMAP assessment performed
 166 over the period 1992-1997 and the lead countries for the work. The lead countries agreed to
 167 allocate necessary funding and personnel to secure the assessment work. The organizations for
 168 the Arctic Indigenous Peoples were also invited to nominate experts, but due to lack of national
 169 financial support, only few representatives took part during the first few years. Over the years
 170 all countries have contributed to all assessment groups, voluntarily, and thereby secured a
 171 comprehensive circumpolar coverage for monitoring and assessing the pollutants in question.
 172 However, the ice-covered Arctic Ocean has always been a data gap as no permanent stations
 173 exist and sampling had to rely on icebreaking ships of opportunities. Costs related to AMAP
 174 contributions, e.g. for monitoring and research programs and time for assessment experts, were
 175 generally covered from national budgets.

176 Table 1: Priority areas in the first AMAP assessment and associated lead Arctic countries 1992-1997
 177 (AMAP, 1998)

Priority area	Lead Arctic countries
Persistent organic pollutants	Canada and Sweden
Mercury	Canada and Denmark
Oil pollution	Norway and USA
Radionuclides	Norway and Russia
Human health	Canada and Denmark
Adaptation Action for a Changing Arctic	Norway and Sweden
- Barents Sea	- Finland, Norway, Russia and Sweden
- Bering/Chukchi Sea	- Canada, Russia and USA
- Baffin/Davis Strait	- Canada and Denmark

178

179

180 4. Environmental monitoring and assessments performed by AMAP

181 After decisions on priority pollutants, a monitoring program was designed for the different
182 parameters to generate the necessary data from Arctic ecosystems and humans to perform a
183 state-of-the-art scientific assessment. A detailed monitoring program including integrated
184 quality assurance and control (QA/QC) protocols was designed (AMAP, 1993, 2000) to ensure
185 harmonization across the Arctic and with ongoing marine and atmospheric monitoring
186 programs at lower latitudes. However, the primary responsibility for the implementation of
187 monitoring activities was with the individual Arctic countries. The data obtained in the
188 monitoring initiatives were assessed in a circumpolar perspective, following an assessment
189 strategy developed by AMAP (AMAP, 1995). Over the years, both programs have been
190 updated (AMAP, 1995, 2001).

191 The AMAP assessments are produced by scientific experts from the eight Arctic countries,
192 representatives of Permanent Participants, i.e. organizations of indigenous peoples, and experts
193 from countries and organizations that are observers to AMAP. Assessments undergo national
194 reviews, to ensure completeness with regard to available data, and an international peer-review.
195 While priority areas and assessment questions can be identified by policy makers, the scientific
196 assessment process is conducted by independent scientific experts. The AMAP scientific
197 assessment reports are signed off by the scientists involved, and all of them are listed as authors
198 or contributors. The assessment reports, together with summaries for policy makers, are
199 presented to Arctic ministers at the biannual ministerial meetings. Several assessments have
200 also been published as scientific articles in the peer-reviewed scientific literature (e.g. AMBIO,
201 2011, Dietz et al., 2019, Science of the Total Environment, 2010).

202 The first comprehensive AMAP assessment was presented at the AMAP conference in Tromsø
203 in April 1997. With 440 participants, this was the largest Arctic science conference ever held
204 by that time. A few weeks later the key results and recommendations were presented to the
205 AEPS ministerial meeting in Alta, Norway. The first scientific assessment report (AMAP
206 1998) was named the “brick stone” as it consisted of 871 pages addressing several aspects of
207 Arctic pollution in a coherent manner. To make the results readable for politicians and the
208 public a science writer was engaged to write the “layman” style report “Arctic Pollution Issues”
209 (AMAP, 1997). In addition, a video was prepared to convey the observations and findings.

210 For most people, also scientists, some of the results were a surprise. The main source for the

211 pollutants of the Arctic was not as most people expected at that time – originating from the
212 former Soviet Union (Figure 4)!

213 Figure 4: Newspaper article presenting the view at the time of Arctic pollution originating from the
214 Soviet Union

215 The main results of the first assessment were as follows:

- 216 • **The POPs** observed in the Arctic ecosystems and humans such as organochlorine
217 pesticides and industrial chemicals originated from all over the Northern hemisphere
218 and were transported to the Arctic by the atmosphere, rivers and oceans. The
219 atmospheric transport may only take a few days from the sources at mid-latitudes to the
220 Arctic, while contaminant transport by the large rivers typically takes one to two years,
221 and up to several years or even decades if contaminants are transported by ocean
222 currents. Recent AMAP POP assessments have identified a number of new chemicals
223 in Arctic ecosystems and documented that the changing climate influences the fate of
224 contaminants in the Arctic (AMAP, 2017, 2021a).
- 225 • **Mercury** entering the Arctic was mainly carried by air in the gaseous phase, from all
226 over the world, but the main sources were coal fired power plants in Southeast Asia
227 (SEA), which is still valid today. No filters or scrubbers exist that can remove mercury
228 from the gas phase. A new process was identified that takes place in the Arctic during
229 the spring when the sun returns to the North: Photochemical reactions involving
230 reactive halogens on frost flowers on the ice surfaces lead to the rapid release of
231 accumulated mercury into the Arctic environment (Figure 5). Details on these processes
232 can be found in the respective AMAP reports on mercury (AMAP, 1998, 2002, 2005,
233 2021b).
- 234 • **The acidification** of lakes and land in the North was mainly linked to the emissions
235 from the smelters (Figure 2). Although large areas of the North American Arctic were
236 considered to be vulnerable to acidification the assessment did not corroborate this
237 anticipation (AMAP, 1998, 2006). In recent years, the acidification of the oceans has
238 gained increasing interest. It is related to increases in dissolved CO₂ in the oceans and
239 has been the subject of recent AMAP reports (AMAP, 2018).
- 240 • **The oil pollution** of the Arctic was low, except for some spill areas from corroded
241 pipelines on the Russian tundra. Apart from these spills, the main source of oil pollution
242 was linked to natural seeps, e.g., in the McKenzie River. However, if an oil spill

243 happened in the vicinity of the sea ice edge, it could stay in the area for years due to
244 slow natural degradation and the lack of adequate cleaning equipment deployed along
245 the Arctic coasts that can operate under sea ice condition. This is still the situation in
246 the Arctic area today (AMAP 1998, 2010).

- 247 • **The human health** assessment documented that the Arctic indigenous and local
248 communities in Northern Canada, Greenland, Alaska and the Faroe Islands consuming
249 traditional food such as sea mammals and fish, had higher levels of POPs and mercury
250 in their bodies than people living further south and closer to sources. This situation is
251 caused by the long-range transport of these chemicals, their biomagnification in the
252 food chain and a very slow environmental degradation, especially under low
253 temperature. In recent years, internal exposure levels have decreased, presumably as a
254 consequence of decreasing levels in the environment and changes in dietary habits
255 (AMAP, 2021c). Several of these POPs found in mother milk and blood can have
256 negative health effects, especially during pregnancy (Table 2). AMAP results
257 confirmed that the traditional food that had secured the life of the Arctic indigenous
258 and local peoples living along the coasts of Alaska, Northern Canada, Greenland and
259 the Faroe Islands for generations was now contaminated with hazardous chemicals.
- 260 • Regarding the **radionuclide pollution of the Arctic**, AMAP documented that not all
261 the radioactivity pollution of the Arctic originated from the former USSR as had been
262 previously assumed (Figure 4). The main source of radionuclide exposure of people in
263 the Arctic were tests of nuclear weapons performed at several locations of the world
264 (Figure 6).
- 265 • **Risk communication** was an important aspect in this first assessment that required
266 careful consideration. The human exposure levels in particular were very sensitive
267 information to be conveyed to people in the Arctic. Young women were faced with the
268 question if contaminant exposure levels could lead to health risks for their children. In
269 order to ensure easily understandable and balanced information of local communities,
270 including study participants, elder indigenous women worked together with the medical
271 experts to communicate the findings and to give best advice.

272 Figure 5: Formation of reactive gaseous mercury (RGM) in the Arctic, in the presence of sunlight and
273 bromine (AMAP, 2011a)

274

275 Figure 6: Sites with atmospheric testing of nuclear weapons since 1945 (AMAP, 1998 and references

276 therein)

277

278 New organic chemicals are produced and used on the global market, and some of them might
279 have properties that are similar to the POPs of the first assessment. Over the last few years,
280 AMAP has had a special focus on newly detected chemicals that are found in Arctic ecosystems
281 and humans, as a result of long-range transport and/or from local emission sources (AMAP
282 2017, 2021a). These have been categorized as **Chemicals of Emerging Arctic Concern**
283 **(CEACs)**. The detection of new chemicals in the Arctic, in particular in food items, is a health
284 concern for the peoples of the Arctic. Information on persistence, long-range transport and
285 bioaccumulation of unregulated chemicals is important for risk assessments, among others for
286 prioritization of contaminants and reviews of their POP characteristics for global regulations
287 under the UNEP Stockholm Convention on POPs. While the first assessment focused on
288 Mercury in the Arctic environment, it was also identified as a human health concern in the
289 AMAP 2002 human health assessment (AMAP 2003a). This and subsequent assessments
290 documented significant human exposure to mercury for indigenous and local people with a
291 high consumption of sea mammals, exceeding the mercury exposure of people mainly
292 consuming terrestrial food (Figure 7). A long-term study from the Faeroe Islands documented
293 that if mothers had an intake of whale meat more than twice a week, their newborn children
294 had an increased risk of irreversible neurobehavioral effects, as shown in repetition studies
295 performed at the age of 7 and 14. Table 2 shows observed effects in humans due to mercury
296 exposure (AMAP, 2003a, 2009, 2015a, 2021b).

297 In contrast to the exposure to POPs and mercury mainly occurring from the consumption of
298 high trophic-level marine species, the exposure to radionuclides is mainly related to a terrestrial
299 diet. Following the nuclear testing (Figure 6), radioactive emissions were transported from
300 these test sites with the atmosphere and deposited with precipitation. This led to a situation that
301 those Arctic inhabitants mainly living off terrestrial food, especially reindeer meat, e.g., the
302 reindeer herders and their families, were exposed to a higher radioactive dose than other Arctic
303 indigenous and local groups. On the other hand, their exposure to POPs and mercury was lower
304 because their intake of marine food was minor. The flow and bioaccumulation of radionuclides
305 in the terrestrial food chain is shown in Figure 8. The radioactive fallout accumulates in
306 mushrooms and lichen that are eaten by grazing reindeers and eventually find their way into
307 humans consuming reindeer meat. This holistic approach to exposure to different types of
308 harmful substances was a new concept developed through the AMAP work.

309 Surprisingly for most experts, the main source for ^{137}Cs (Cesium) observed in the Barents/Kara
 310 Seas was not related to Russian rivers and upstream Russian nuclear facilities, but originated
 311 from the UK reprocessing plant at Sellafield in the Irish Sea. For ^{99}I (Iodine) the main source
 312 was the Cap La Hague plant in France (**Error! Reference source not found.**). The accident at
 313 Chernobyl in Ukraine/USSR in 1986 is the third largest source of radioactivity affecting the
 314 Arctic, in particular southern Arctic areas. Later assessments showed that the Fukushima
 315 accident in Japan in 2011 could be traced in the Arctic, but at a very low level. The distribution
 316 by air is faster and more dangerous for humans than a leakage to and subsequent transport by
 317 the sea (Christensen et al., 1997).

318

319 Table 2: Health effects of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) and mercury observed in Arctic
 320 populations (AMAP, 2003a, 2009, 2015a, 2021b, 2021c)

Persistent organic pollutants (POPs)	Mercury
Immune system <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Infectious diseases - Reduced effects of childhood vaccines 	Neurobehavioral effects <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - on attention, memory and language - on visuospatial and motor functions - No evidence that selenium was a significant protective factor against methylmercury neurotoxicity.
Endocrine system <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - PFAS affects thyroid homeostasis during pregnancy - Interference with steroid hormone receptor functions - Low sperm concentrations - Reproductive hormone levels indicated lower Leydig cell capacity for testosterone production 	Cardiovascular effects, increased blood pressure More toxic if exposure occurs prenatally than postnatally
Type 2 diabetes associated with some POPs	Results at ages 7, 14 and 22 suggest that effects are permanent
Potential neurobehavioral effects, also related to effects on Vitamin D	
Carcinogenicity	

321

322

323

324 Figure 7: Mercury concentrations in blood of mothers and women of child-bearing age. The figure was
 325 reproduced from AMAP (2021b), with permission from the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment

326 Programme (AMAP)

327 Figure 8: Deposition of ^{137}Cs over time and accumulation in the lichen-reindeer-human food chain, for
328 Northern Finland (AMAP, 1998). “Reindeer” presents reindeer meat, “wholebody” refers to humans.

329

330 Figure 9: Ocean transport of ^{137}Cs to the Arctic. The numbers in bold indicate the concentrations of
331 ^{137}Cs , relatively to a maximum level of 1000 at the primary source. The years indicate the duration of
332 transport, and the distance from the source [km] is given.

333

334 **5. AMAP-related research and monitoring in Russia**

335 Due to the situation in the Soviet Union in the 1990ies, financial resources were made available
336 by the other Arctic countries and the Nordic Council of Ministers to support AMAP work in
337 Russia. Specifically, the monitoring activities in Siberia (Tixi at the Lena River estuary) and
338 Northwest Russia (Amderma) were upgraded, including the operation of monitoring stations
339 for POPs and mercury in the atmosphere. The Typhoon laboratory at Obninsk was upgraded
340 to deliver high quality analyses of POPs and mercury based on internationally accepted
341 protocols and QA/QC standards including annual participation in international laboratory
342 intercalibrations.

343 In addition to funds from most of the Arctic countries, the AMAP Secretariat succeeded to rise
344 financial support in 2000 from the Global Environment Facility Programme (GEF), supported
345 by UNEP and the World Bank, to perform a significant pollution assessment of Russian Arctic
346 indigenous communities on Kola Peninsula, the Nenets area, Taimyr Peninsula and in
347 Chukotka. These studies were co-led by RAIPON and the AMAP Secretariat. This project on
348 “Persistent Toxic Substances, Food security and Indigenous peoples of the Russian North”
349 (AMAP, 2004) was the most significant environmental and health study ever conducted in
350 Russia at the time. The study documented for indigenous communities in Russia what AMAP
351 had already observed in North America and Greenland, i.e. that indigenous people mainly
352 consuming sea mammals and fish had higher levels of POPs and mercury than people with a
353 different diet.

354 Fact sheets were produced to inform local communities on how to avoid these chemicals,
355 together with local governments and the Indigenous Peoples Secretariat, an organization
356 established to coordinate Indigenous peoples’ work under the AEPS, now part of the Arctic
357 Council Secretariat. The study also documented that in addition to the long-range transport of
358 contaminants, local emission sources existed that led to the contamination of drinking water

359 and ecosystems at large. These were mainly connected to old military installations, e.g., old
360 rusty and leaking barrels and technical installations or abandoned radar stations leaking
361 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and fuels into the environment (Figure 3; Figure 10).

362 The results were presented to the Russian government in 2004 and were followed by local
363 actions to clean up contaminated sites and thereby reduce the exposure to the most potent
364 contaminants in these regions, e.g., PCB and the insecticide DDT. Approximately six years
365 later a study was performed to clarify if the information campaign and the local actions had
366 been effective, generally showing decreased levels, but also indications of continuous
367 emissions from local sources.

368 Figure 10: Barrels and old radar equipment at Franz Josef Land in 2004, presenting potential sources
369 of oil, lubricants, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and warfare chemicals. Photos: Yuri Sychev

370

371 In May 1995, a study organized by the AMAP Secretariat in cooperation with the Russian
372 Federal Service for Hydrometeorology and Environmental Monitoring (Roshydromet), with
373 experts from Russia (mostly from the Navy) and from Norway, Sweden and Finland (only
374 civilians) documented the significant nuclear sources in the Arctic and their potential threats
375 for health and environment e.g., old nuclear submarines, nuclear waste (fluid and hard
376 materials), power plants, etc. A report presenting these “hot spots” and also including options
377 for cleanup and a rough cost estimate was produced and presented to the Barents
378 Environmental Ministerial meeting in Rovaniemi, Finland in December 1995
379 (AMAP/NEFCO, 1995). In January 1996, this report was presented to the International Atomic
380 Energy Agency (IAEA) in Vienna, Austria. The report, with its documentation and
381 recommendations was an important basis for planning the cleanup actions of radioactive
382 sources in Northwest Russia, decommissioning of 198 nuclear submarines of which 122 were
383 in Northwest Russia, upgrading the safety procedures at the Kola Nuclear Power Plant,
384 handling of radioactive fluid and hard waste, etc. Approximately €250 mill. (by 2010) plus in-
385 kind contributions from Russia were spent on these actions.

386

387 **6. Actions to reduce the pollution of the Arctic and the globe**

388 Prior to the development and adoption of the UN Stockholm Convention on POPs, the only
389 international agreement to reduce long-range transported pollution was CLRTAP under the
390 UN-ECE. Experts from Canada and Sweden brought drafts of the AMAP 1998 assessment to

391 CLRTAP to inform about the presence of contaminants in the Arctic and their effects on
392 indigenous populations (Stone, 2015, Steindal et al., 2021). The scientific data from AMAP
393 documented the global dimension of the POP pollution and played a significant role in the
394 establishment of the UN Stockholm Convention on POPs, which regulates chemicals on the
395 basis of being persistent, transported over long distances, bioaccumulative and toxic. Arctic
396 data were instrumental in the recognition of POPs as a global problem, which was caused by a
397 variety of chemicals of different uses, but with similar physical-chemical properties favoring
398 the transport to and accumulation in the Arctic environment. Data from the Arctic have
399 provided evidence of persistence and long-range transport, and bioaccumulation, if measured
400 in biota, and have been a substantial contribution to the risk assessments of new chemicals
401 under the Stockholm Convention. Furthermore, the long-term monitoring of POPs in the Arctic
402 has generated time series that are used to evaluate the effectiveness of these global regulations
403 (e.g., Rigét et al., 2019). These data confirm that the regulations by the Stockholm Convention
404 have had a significant effect in reducing the levels of POPs in the Arctic.

405 Similarly, the effects of long-range transported mercury on humans in the Arctic was conveyed
406 to UNEP by experts from the Arctic countries and contributed to the UN Minamata treaty,
407 signed in 2015 to reduce emissions of mercury (Stone, 2015, Platjouw et al., 2018). Phasing
408 out coal-fired power plants as a significant source of mercury as well as CO₂ to the atmosphere
409 will have the positive side-effect of reducing global CO₂ emissions as well. These international
410 agreements have reduced the environmental levels of POPs and mercury and the associated
411 human exposure, not only in the Arctic, but all over the world.

412 In addition to these long-term global conventions, actions on the regional scale have reduced
413 the risks of contaminant exposure. Food advice was provided to the indigenous and local
414 peoples living in the Arctic in order to reduce potential exposure risks. Local health experts in
415 cooperation with leaders from local indigenous groups worked together to convey AMAP
416 results and advise on their implications. The exact food advice was adjusted to the local
417 situation and considered the importance of food security in the Arctic. Until one or two decades
418 ago, alternative food sources to cover the need for energy and vitamins were not easy to provide
419 in the North. In addition, the traditional local food has an important role in the cultural identity
420 of many peoples, as well as a social function in the communities, which goes far beyond the
421 role of food for energy and nutrition supply. Figure 11 shows an example from the Faroe
422 Islands where food advice has considerably reduced the population's exposure to mercury,
423 although Hg levels in pilot whales, an important exposure source, has increased at the same

424 time (AMAP, 2021b).

425 Figure 11: Summary of dietary advice given to the population of the Faroe Islands, along with mercury
426 levels in human hair and blood as well as mercury levels in pilot whales. The figure was reproduced
427 from AMAP (2021b), with permission from the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme
428 (AMAP).

429

430 Figure 12a shows decreasing levels of DDE (the persistent transformation product of the
431 insecticide DDT) and mercury in the blood of people living in the Arctic. This decrease likely
432 reflects a combination of results from food advice and generally decreasing levels in the
433 environment, including Arctic animals (AMAP, 2015a). Table 2 shows observed effects related
434 to POP and mercury exposure.

435

436

437 Figure 12b: Concentration development of p,p'-DDE (A) and mercury (B) in blood of Inuit from
438 Greenland and Nunavik, Canada (AMAP, 2015a)

439

440 **7. Climate change**

441 Climate and ozone/UV were part of the first AMAP assessment report in 1998 but covered
442 only 50 pages of the 871-page report! In the 1990ies the political focus was mainly on ozone
443 and UV due to the ozone hole observed over Antarctica. The AMAP assessment did not find a
444 similar ozone depletion over the Arctic (AMAP, 1998). Regarding climate change, the
445 conclusions of the first AMAP assessment in 1998 were: There are three signals observed over
446 the Arctic, some areas are warming, part of the ocean is cooling and for some areas there is no
447 clear signal.

448 Since 1998, climate change has gained importance in AMAP, also related to combined effects
449 with pollutants in the Arctic (AMAP, 2021a). At the 1997 AEPS ministerial meeting in Alta it
450 was decided, based on a proposal by the USA, that AMAP should prepare a more
451 comprehensive climate assessment report. The first meeting of the Assessment Steering Group
452 for the climate assessment was held at the US National Oceanic and Atmospheric
453 Administration (NOAA) center, Silver Spring Washington DC, in 1999. At this meeting a close
454 cooperation started between AMAP, IASC and CAFF on an assessment related to climate

455 change, the Arctic Climate Impact Assessment (ACIA) (AMAP, 1999).

456 In November 2004, the ACIA report was presented at a science conference in Reykjavik,
457 Iceland, and the following week to the Arctic Council ministerial meeting. A key conclusion
458 was that climate change was not a future scenario, but already ongoing “now”. Another
459 important conclusion was that the melting of land and sea ice would make new resources
460 accessible (e.g. minerals and marine species) and open a commercial shipping route between
461 Northwest Europe and Northern Asia. This would reduce the traditional route via the Suez
462 Canal by 40% (ACIA, 2004, 2005).

463 This result triggered interest among many non-Arctic countries to call for an observer status at
464 the Arctic Council e.g., China, Japan, South Korea, Singapore, the EU, etc. They wanted to
465 learn more about the accessibility to the new resources such as minerals, oil and gas and
466 fisheries, and not least about the general effects of a changing climate that would also affect
467 lower latitudes.

468 Since 2004, AMAP has delivered several climate-related assessments, e.g., related to
469 contaminants (AMAP, 2003b, UNEP/AMAP, 2011) as well as Short Lived Climate Forcers
470 such as black carbon (AMAP/Bluestein, 2008, AMAP, 2011b, 2015b, 2021d) and methane
471 (AMAP, 2015c). A report on the Arctic Ocean acidification documented that the cold Arctic
472 seas would become acidic faster than warmer oceans would because cold water can store more
473 CO₂. Some of the Arctic Sea may become corrosive within the next decade (AMAP, 2018).
474 The same process takes place in Antarctic oceans.

475 A bilateral agreement between the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) chair
476 Robert Watson and the ACIA chair Robert Corel in October 2000 ensured collaboration
477 between the organizations. The AMAP climate assessments have been made available to the
478 work of the IPCC and several lead authors have contributed to the work by both organizations,
479 but the content has not always found its way into their reports, due to some obstacles in the
480 process, e.g. number of pages allocated to the polar areas.

481

482

483 **8. Sustaining Arctic Observing Network (SAON)**

484 During the AMAP assessments some obstacles were met, related to accessing geographical
485 areas for observations and to the use of stored data at private and governmental institutions.

486 Some institutes requested payment for data to be used in assessments. These institutes view
487 their data as their “family silver” that could be sold several times to different users. In addition,
488 data sharing was not necessarily beneficial for a young researcher’s career who was expected
489 to be the first author of a publication. The willingness to share data was not credited. In an
490 attempt to overcome some of these obstacles, AMAP and IASC took an initiative in the mid-
491 1990ies to improve the observation network and the access to data (Arctic Council, 2006). In
492 2011 the Arctic Council established the Sustaining Arctic Observing Network (SAON:
493 <https://www.arctic-council.org/projects/saon/>). SAON has improved the availability of Arctic
494 monitoring and research data to international networks and agreements such as EMEP,
495 OSPAR, Working Groups of the Arctic Council as well as the UN Stockholm and Minamata
496 Conventions.

497 In 2017, the existing collaboration on environmental research and monitoring in the Arctic was
498 extended to other fields of research. An Arctic research agreement was negotiated under the
499 Arctic Council umbrella and signed by Ministers of Science of the Arctic countries. The first
500 Arctic Science Ministerial Meeting was held in the USA in 2016, two more ministerial
501 meetings have been held subsequently, one in Berlin in 2018 (co-hosted by Finland, Germany
502 and the EU) and a partly virtual meeting in 2021 (co-hosted by Iceland and Japan) (Arctic
503 Science Ministerial, 2021). Despite discussing observing networks and data sharing
504 continuously, these issues have not been fully resolved yet.

505

506 –

507 **9. Inspiration from the Arctic collaboration**

508 **9.1 Hindu Kush Himalaya (HKM) – International Centre for Integrated** 509 **Mountain Development (ICIMOD)**

510 A substantial part of the chemical pollutants transported to the Arctic is produced, used and
511 released in SEA. Significant pollution and contaminant exposure also occurs locally in these
512 emission areas. If actions can be taken in SEA to reduce/stop the pollution in the region, it will
513 have positive effects not only for the Hindu Kush Himalaya (HKM) region, but also other areas
514 of the world, including the Arctic.

515 ICIMOD is an intergovernmental knowledge and learning center that develops and shares
516 research, information, and innovations to empower people in the eight regional member

517 countries of the HKM – Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, India, Myanmar, Nepal, and
518 Pakistan. The head office is in Kathmandu, Nepal. The AMAP Secretariat was invited to
519 inform about the Arctic Council and AMAP, the scientific and outreach work and AMAP's
520 products. They also informed about the impacts these reports had for international agreements,
521 such as the UN Stockholm and Minamata Convention, and about regional actions, such as food
522 advice to the local and indigenous Arctic people.

523 Several meetings and workshops have been held in Kathmandu, Nepal and Tromsø, Norway.
524 Inspired by the AMAP work ICIMOD established HIMAP (Himalaya Monitoring and
525 Assessment Program) and in 2019 a comprehensive climate and environmental report of 600
526 pages was delivered to the IPCC (Wester et al., 2019).

527 **9.2 Antarctica**

528 Over the years there have been contacts between the AMAP Secretariat and scientists working
529 in the Antarctic region to benefit from AMAP's expertise for a POP monitoring program in the
530 Antarctic area (Bengtson Nash, 2011). Recently, an Antarctic Monitoring and Assessment
531 Programme (AnMAP) has been proposed, and advice has been sought from the AMAP
532 Secretariat and scientists involved in AMAP regarding the AMAP experience of harmonizing
533 monitoring initiatives and implementing new technologies in contaminant monitoring. This is
534 an ongoing process.

535

536 **10 Reflections and recommendations**

537 The development of AMAP happened on the positive political wave after the cold war and the
538 speech held by Michael Gorbachev in 1987 and systematized, expanded, coordinated and
539 improved Arctic research and monitoring. This process has provided very important
540 information for a better understanding of the pollution and climate change of the Arctic, its
541 ecosystems and human inhabitants, in circumarctic assessments involving indigenous peoples.
542 It has also provided the necessary scientific documentation for global actions to reduce the
543 pollution and exposure of humans in the Arctic, but also all over the world. This scientific work
544 has been a significant peace process to keep the Arctic as a low-tension area where one could
545 solve questions through dialogue and joint work. A process that other parts of the world could
546 learn from.

547 There are still significant pollutant questions to be handled, especially how to incorporate risks

548 for Arctic pollution in approval systems for use of new chemicals, with could be POPs, e.g.
549 including documentation related to toxicity and persistence at low temperatures, the
550 interactions between lower latitudes and the Arctic – and vice versa.

551 Today – in September 2022, with the conflict in Ukraine, the Arctic Council and its working
552 groups are put on hold. The near future of the next five to ten years may not see the same
553 positive cooperation as had been the situation from 1987 until the winter of 2021/2022. Given
554 the rapid changes in the Arctic, a disruption in collaboration and science-based policy advice
555 can have dramatic consequences for the Arctic environment.

556 Science cooperation is an important contributor to peace and prosperity, as Michael Gorbachev
557 called for in 1987. While this article was in preparation, he passed away on the 30th of August
558 2022. The hope is that new leaders can stand up like him and continue the work initiated in
559 1987.

560

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566 Arctic countries, the Nordic Council of Ministers, the Nordic Environment Finance
567 Corporation (NEFCO) and the Global Environment Facility Programme (GEF).

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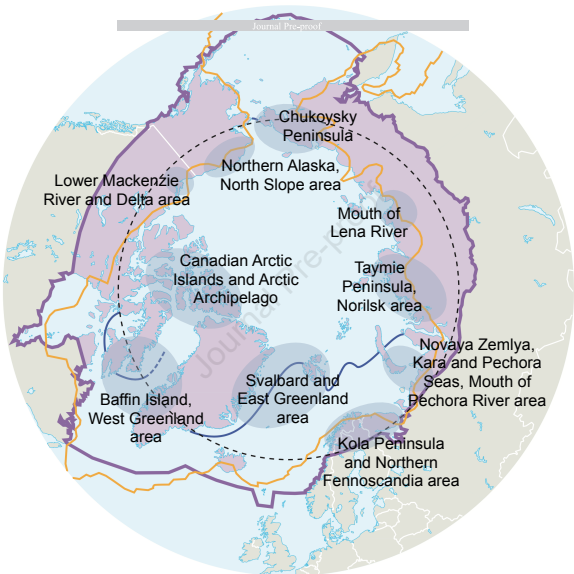
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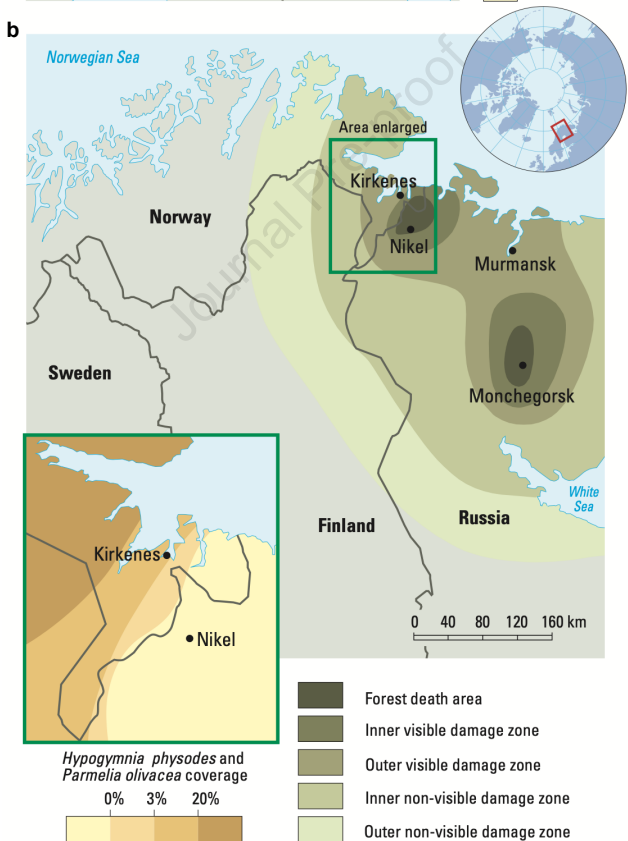
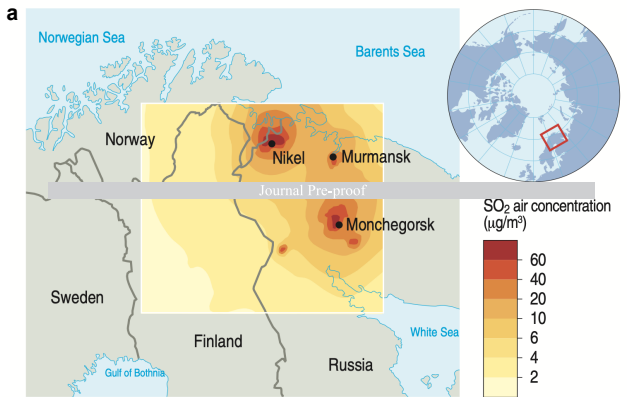
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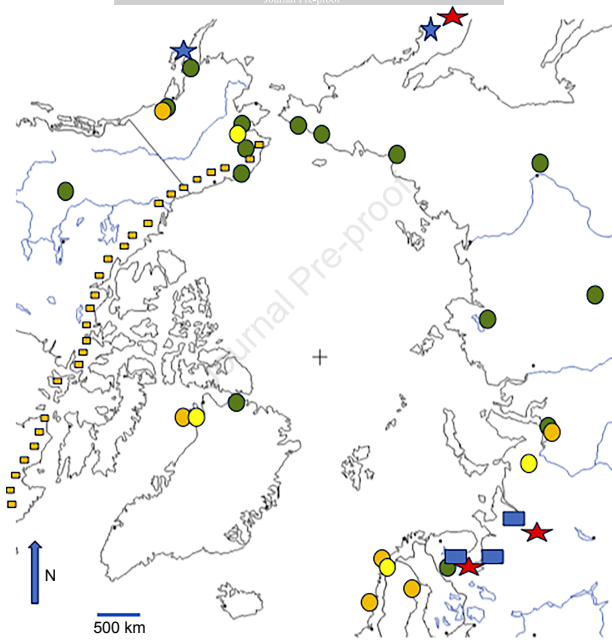
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AMAP area — Arctic marine boundary - - - Arctic circle — 10 C July isotherm





OUR PEOPLE

ANOTHER **DRAKE** DIFFERENCE

The Globe and Mail

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145th YEAR, NO. 43,378 • THURSDAY, DECEMBER 15, 1988

Sunrise 7:45 Sunset 4:42

Windy, flurries

High -3

Weather details on page 7



CANADA LIFE

The Canada Life Assurance Company

Soviet, European pollution threatens health in Arctic

BY MATTHEW FISHER
The Globe and Mail

CHESTERFIELD INLET, NWT

Canadian scientists fear that the health of Canada's 22,000 Inuit has been put at risk by pollution from chemicals used primarily in agriculture and industry in the Soviet Union and Europe.

The chemicals, including PCBs and DDT, have entered the fragile Arctic ecosystem and are being found in the fish and animals that form the basis of the Inuit diet.

PCBs, polychlorinated biphenyls, have been linked to cancer in laboratory animals and to brain, liver and other defects in humans. The pesticide DDT was banned in the early 1970s in Canada and the United States.

Federally financed research conducted over the past four years in the Far North has found dozens of toxic substances in every part of the Arctic food chain, from bottom-feeding sea organisms to seals, polar bears and Inuit mothers' milk.

The potential magnitude of the problem is such that "the Inuit might have to go on

a diet of chicken and beef," said Dennis Gregor of Environment Canada's water quality branch in Regina. He is in charge of a special study of toxic substances found in Arctic snow.

"That would require a huge diet and cultural change. It would not be good for them," Mr. Gregor said.

The chief medical officer for the Northwest Territories, David Kinloch, said: "We are finding a whole range of toxic substances. . . For the people of the Northwest Territories it is a very fundamental ques-

tion — the contamination of their food supply."

The inter-departmental project to identify the contaminants and analyze the risk they pose to Inuit and Arctic wildlife "is our highest priority," said the program's co-ordinator, Grant Bangay, director of regional planning and resources for the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development.

While it is too early to draw categorical conclusions from the research, Hiram Beaubier, director-general of natural resources and economic development for the

department, said: "We acknowledge the significance of the problem. We are now preparing a report on its magnitude. . . It is being looked at very, very carefully. We are taking it very seriously."

Once the situation and its effect on native northerners is better understood, the department will use "a reasoned and sensible approach" to advise those affected, Mr. Bangay said.

Both Mr. Bangay and Mr. Beaubier said they were concerned that the problem

Long-range transport

Hg(0)

Fast

$h\nu$

Br

Long-range transport
out of the Arctic

Re-emission

HgBr₂
(RGM)

TPM

Br₂

Hg(0)

Snow

Fast

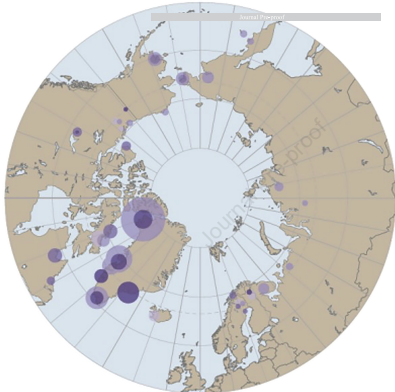
Slow

Sea ice

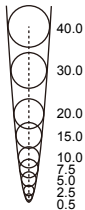
Sea surface





Frost flowers

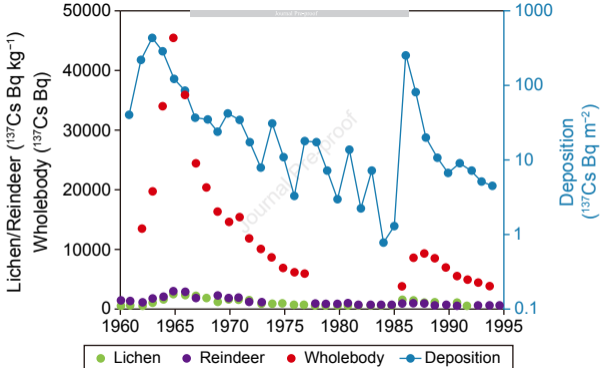




Hg concentration
($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)



-  1990–1999
-  2000–2007
-  2007–2013
-  2013–2018

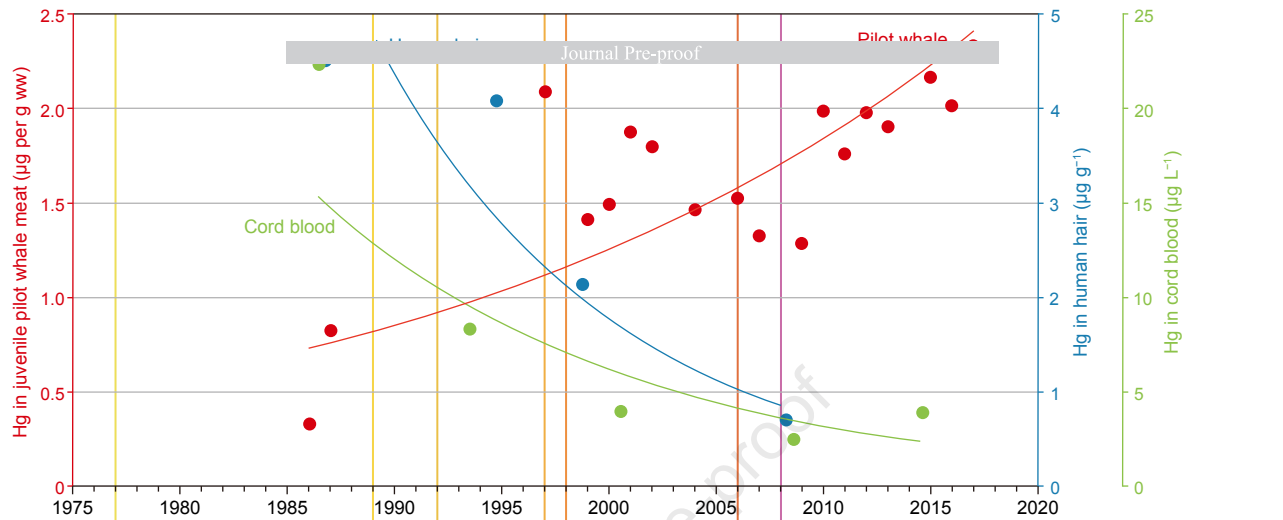




a

Journal Pre-proof

b**c****d****e****f**



Effects from MeHg exposure in children still detectable during adolescence

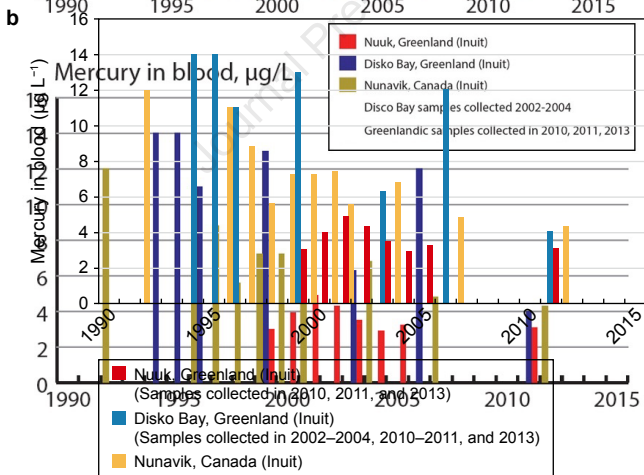
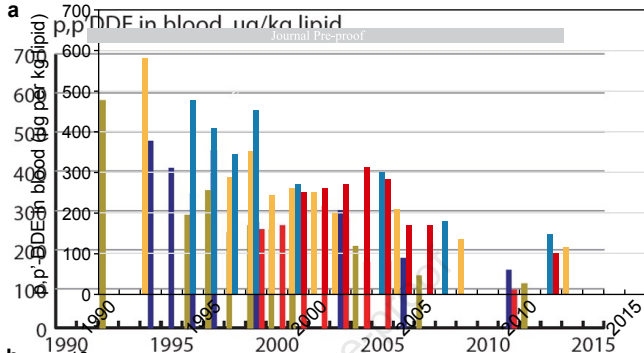
Women: advised not to eat blubber until having given birth to children and to abstain from eating pilot whale meat within three months of planning to become pregnant or breast feeding
Adults: advised not to consume pilot whale blubber and meat more than once or twice a month
General population: advised not to eat liver and kidneys

High MeHg concentrations in maternal hair and cord blood
 Effects on brain function, decreased heart rate variability and increased blood pressure in children due to prenatal MeHg exposure

Umbilical cord blood from 1023 births showed a median blood-mercury concentration of $24.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and 25% of samples exceeded $40 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$

High level of mercury in pilot whale meat
General population advised to limit consumption to: 150–200 g whale meat per week; 100–200 g whale blubber per month; no liver or kidneys

High level of mercury in pilot whale meat, kidney, and liver
First recommendation to the general population to limit the consumption to only one main meal of meat weekly and avoid liver and kidneys.



The role of the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) in reducing pollution in the Arctic and around the globe

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Highlights

- AMAP has monitored and assessed Arctic pollution since 1991.
- The main source of Arctic pollution is long-range transport from lower latitudes.
- AMAP data have been fundamental in developing international chemical regulations.
- Food advice has reduced contaminant exposure in local communities.
- Other monitoring and assessment frameworks have been developed after AMAP's model.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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