

1                   **An Overview on the Legacy and Risks of Polychlorinated Biphenyls (PCBs) and**  
2                   **Organochlorinated Pesticides (OCPs) in the Polar Regions**

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10  
11 **Abstract:** Polychlorinated Biphenyls (PCBs) and Organochlorinated Pesticides (OCPs) are ‘trapped’ in a  
12 variety of environmental media and can therefore undergo further processing by geochemical cycles. By  
13 reviewing a wide range of research studies, we present and discuss the main progresses that affect legacy  
14 contaminants, such as migration and transformation processes, biological effects assessment across all  
15 Arctic media. PCBs and OCPs demonstrated an overall decreasing concentration trend over time in the  
16 Arctic. Ecological risk assessment was undertaken by comparison with two standards, suggesting that there  
17 was no ecological risk in either soil or sediment. The concentrations of HCB,  $\sum$ HCHs,  $\sum$ DDTs, chlordane,  
18 mirex, and  $\sum$ PCBs increased with trophic levels (TLs), showing a significant linear correlation ( $P < 0.001$ ).  
19 The calculated trophic magnification factors (TMFs) values ranged from 0.0004 to 26.63, among which  
20 DDTs had the highest value. Future research need to focus its efforts on the exploration of the influence of  
21 the long-term fate PCBs and OCPs residues.

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22 Keywords: Polychlorinated Biphenyls; Organochlorinated Pesticides; Arctic; Multimedia;  
23 Biomagnification; Risk

## 24 **1. Introduction**

25 Twelve organic compounds were classified as Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) by the Stockholm  
26 Convention in 2001, and are well-known as the Dirty Dozen. The first list of POPs included 9  
27 Organochlorinated Pesticides (OCPs), Polychlorinated Biphenyls (PCBs) and dibenzo-p-dioxins and  
28 dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs) with the characteristics of persistence, toxicity, bioaccumulation, and long-range  
29 transport (LRT) potential. The 9 OCPs, included aldrin, chlordane, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT),  
30 dieldrin, endrin, heptachlor, hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH), mirex, and toxaphene, which were once  
31 extensively used as agricultural and household insecticides. DDT was extensively used to control the spread  
32 of vector-borne human diseases, like malaria, since the 1940s (Ding et al., 2009; Qiu et al., 2004). OCPs  
33 were the dominant pesticides used after the Second World War before they attracted considerable scientific  
34 and public concern. After the publication of “Silent Spring” by Rachel Carson in 1962, an increasing  
35 audience became aware of the environmental impacts of the widespread use of pesticides. Accordingly, the  
36 usage of 9 OCPs were eliminated or reduced gradually across the world. With respect to Polychlorinated  
37 Biphenyls (PCBs), they are highly stable industrial chemical products that have been used extensively as  
38 industrial fluids, flame retardants, diluents, hydraulic fluids, and dielectric fluids (Zhang et al., 2013).

39 The carcinogenicity, teratogenicity and mutagenicity of POPs have been well documented already for  
40 many years. Toxic effects have been continuously confirmed, such as endocrine disruption, neurotoxicity  
41 and so on. Aldrin has been shown to exhibit serious toxicity in animals and human beings, affecting the  
42 central nervous system causing symptoms such as seizures (Jhamtani et al., 2018). Numerous studies have  
43 showed correlations between technical-grade chlordane (TGC) and reproductive and metabolic disorders  
44 (Moreira et al., 2020). Dieldrin, the product of aldrin biotransformation was classified as Group B2, a  
45 probable human carcinogen by US EPA (Stern, 2014). Endrin is one of the most toxic organochlorine  
46 insecticides with a lethal dose (LD<sub>50</sub>) of 2.3 mg/kg in mice (Rahman et al., 2018). Heptachlor has been

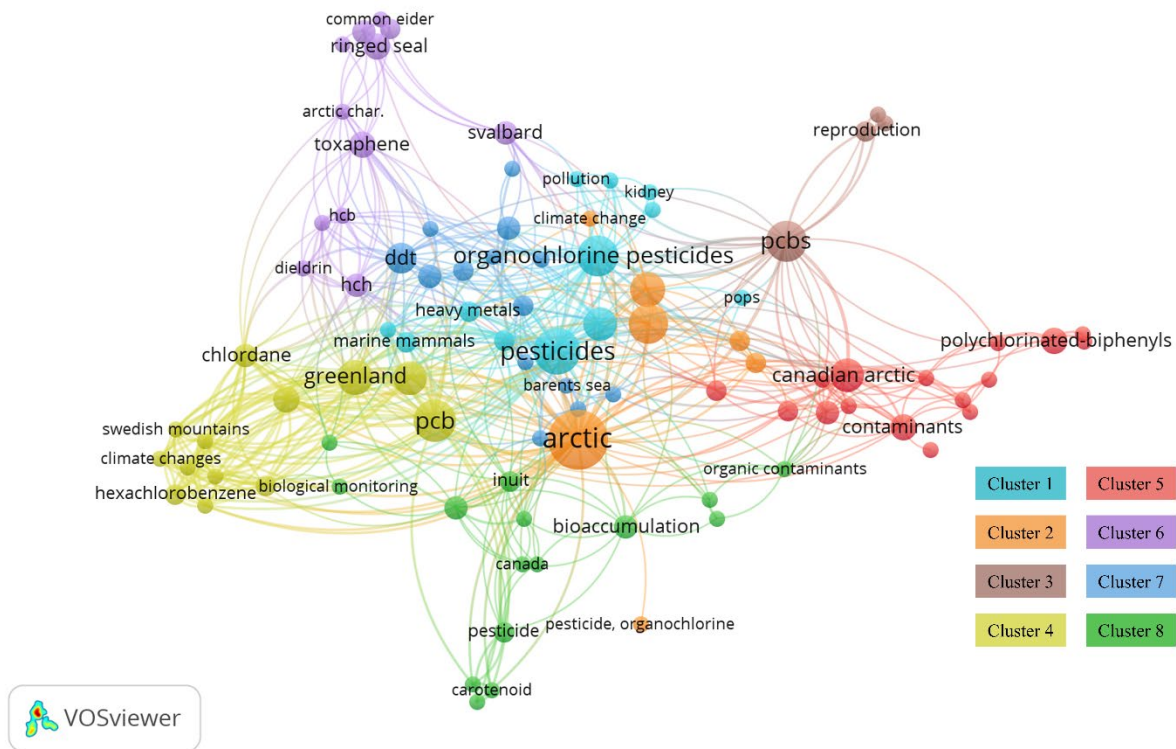
47 recognized as a human carcinogen with its main mode of toxicity attacking the central nervous system  
48 ([Purnomo et al., 2013](#)). Toxaphene, the most widely applied pesticide in the world, was used as an  
49 alternative of DDT in the early 1970s. It has been discovered to be highly toxic to fish and rodents and is  
50 probably also a human carcinogen ([Veyrand et al., 2008](#)). PCBs have been acknowledged to exhibit  
51 neurotoxic and endocrine disrupting effects on birds and mammals in polar regions. More specifically,  
52 chiral PCB congeners, particularly those with 2,3, and 6 substitution patterns on one phenyl ring, have been  
53 associated with neurodevelopmental toxicity in animals and humans, revealing their effects on  
54 neurotransmitter functions in the central nervous system and altering the cellular processes concerning  
55 calcium signaling ([Wu et al., 2014](#)). OH-PCBs have also demonstrated several mechanisms of influence,  
56 for example, disrupting cellular calcium homeostasis by mechanisms including RyRs ([Niknam et al., 2013](#))  
57 or leading to thyroid dysfunction ([Kodavanti and Curras-Collazo, 2010](#); [Meerts et al., 2002](#); [Wu et al.,](#)  
58 [2014](#)).

59       Due to their semi-volatility, persistence and long-range transport potential, OCPs and PCBs are able  
60 to transfer to pristine polar areas. An abundance of studies, reports issued by monitoring programs and book  
61 chapters, have demonstrated that PCBs and OCPs are ubiquitous in polar areas, including the atmosphere,  
62 water, soil, sediments and biota ranging from zooplankton to top predators. Several regional and  
63 international monitoring programs have been undertaken in order to comprehensively explore the status of  
64 POPs in the polar regions, such as the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP), United  
65 Nations Economic Commission for Europe, European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (UNECE-  
66 EMEP) and Global Atmospheric Passive Sampling (GAPS) Network. Polar areas are considered as  
67 “primary sink” of POPs, although they may become a “secondary source” due to global warming.  
68 Specifically, elevated temperatures in polar areas accelerates snow and glacier melting facilitating  
69 volatilization from water. In this present study, progress on the occurrence, environmental behavior and  
70 ecological risks of PCBs and OCPs in the Arctic have been reviewed. The objectives of this present study  
71 were to: 1) present the temporal and spatial distribution of PCBs and OCPs in various environmental

72 matrices and biota, 2) assess their sources and transport path to polar areas and 3) evaluate the ecological  
73 risks and biological effects from exposure.

## 74 **2. Data collection**

75       Based on various combinations of keywords, such as “organochlorine pesticides”, “polychlorinated  
76 biphenyls”, “Arctic”, “bioaccumulation” or “biological impact”, a total of 1241 studies for OCPs and 680  
77 studies for PCBs were retrieved from the “web of science”, including relevant cross-references. These  
78 studies provided decades of concentration data for OCPs and PCBs, reporting their environmental behavior,  
79 and assessing their biomagnification through food webs. The literature sources were exported and analyzed  
80 using VOS-viewer software (version 1.6.19) to produce a cluster view. As Fig. 1 shows, cluster 1 mainly  
81 targeted the pollution of pesticides (such as Current Used Pesticides, CUPs) and OCPs. Cluster 2 mostly  
82 related with investigations within the Arctic; cluster 3, cluster 4 and cluster 5 were joint studies with PCBs  
83 and OCPs and their influencing factors. Cluster 6 and cluster 7 primarily exhibited research with  
84 correlations between specific pollutants and OCPs and PCBs. Cluster 8 mainly focused on the biological  
85 effects caused by pollutant exposure, such as biological amplification. According to data related to polar  
86 OCPs and PCBs, measured concentrations in the atmosphere, water, soil, sediment, plants and animals were  
87 compared, mapped and analyzed in order to provide insights into the protection of the Arctic ecological  
88 environment and the promotion of human health.



89  
90 **Fig. 1.** Cluster analysis of literature data related to PCBs and OCPs.

91 **3. Sampling approaches and analysis methods in polar areas**

92 The Arctic locations included in the studies are shown in Fig. S6, including the Arctic Ocean and parts  
93 of Canada, Russia, Norway, Sweden, Finland and Iceland, and the United States. Both passive and active  
94 sampling approaches have been frequently used as atmospheric POPs monitoring tools in polar areas.  
95 Polyurethane foam disk (PUF) is a common absorption phase and used in both active and passive samplers  
96 (Bidleman et al., 2017; Cabrerizo et al., 2017; Li et al., 2012). The GAPS network uses PUF-disks and  
97 includes sampling stations at Barrow, Ny-Ålesund, Stórhöfði (Storhofdi) and Little Fox Lake (Vorkamp et  
98 al., 2019). Plants, including moss, lichens, dwarf birch (*Betula glandulosa*), have also been considered as  
99 promising passive samplers for POPs monitoring (Luttmer et al., 2013). With respect to water samples,  
100 large volumes of water are extracted using solid phase (SPE) cartridges whilst liquid-liquid extraction was  
101 seldom applied because the low concentrations in water required several litres of water to reach the Limits  
102 of Detection (LODs). More recentl a novel passive sampler, triolein-embedded cellulose acetate membranes

103 (TECAM) has been deployed in the coastal area of Fildes Peninsula, Antarctica, sampling 66 organic  
104 contaminants in sea water (Gao et al., 2018). (Gao et al., 2019) also conducted passive sampling of organic  
105 pollutants during an Arctic cruise using a self-developed device in combination with TECAM. TECAM  
106 may also be applicable to passive sampling of PCBs and OCPs in Arctic seawater.

107 For solids, including soil, sediment, vegetation, birds, fish, mammals, as well as their feces, samples  
108 underwent a stringent process consisting of pretreatment, clean-up and instrument analysis according to  
109 existing analysis guidelines or established methods. Soxhlet extraction, ultrasonic extraction and  
110 accelerated solvent extraction were the three preferred extraction methods. Gel permeation chromatography  
111 (GPC), multi-silica gel column, SPE or combination methods were usually used to eliminate proteins,  
112 pigments and other co-extracted interfering substances in samples.

#### 113 **4. Sources and long-range transport paths to polar areas**

114 PCBs and OCPs have been introduced into pristine polar areas through several pathways, involving the  
115 air mass movement (Hao et al., 2019; Montone et al., 2003; Ubl et al., 2012; Vecchiato et al., 2015; Wania,  
116 2003), ocean currents (Kallenborn et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2015), animal migration (birds (Blais et al., 2005;  
117 Choy et al., 2010; Eckbo et al., 2019; Michelutti et al., 2009; Warner et al., 2019), fish (Evenset et al., 2004;  
118 Ewald et al., 1998), bears (Sonne, 2010) and so on), revolatilization from oceans and melting glaciers on  
119 account of climate change (Ademollo et al., 2021; Corsolini et al., 2011; Herbert et al., 2005; Jones et al.,  
120 2005; Khairy et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2011).

##### 121 *4.1. Atmospheric sources and long-range transport*

122 It is well established that PCBs and OCPs have been introduced into the pristine Arctic from their  
123 production and usage areas via long-range transport. The “grasshopper effect” of atmospheric long-range  
124 transport via repeated volatilization/condensation steps has played a dominant role in the presence of legacy  
125 of POPs in the Arctic (Aslam et al., 2019; Gouin et al., 2004). The existence of OCPs in polar areas has  
126 been attributed to cold condensation and global fractionation during long-range atmospheric transport  
127 (LRAT) (Wania, 2003). Three southern air mass routes have contributed to transport in winter: the

128 Norwegian Sea (40%), Eastern Europe/Siberia (15%), and Bering Sea (25%), respectively, which accounts  
129 for about 80% of the annual north-south atmospheric transport (Iversen, 1996). Thus, atmospheric transport  
130 was the main pathway in winter. On the contrary, summer air pressure is comparatively higher in the polar  
131 regions than in the middle and high latitudes, hindering the incursion of Arctic of air masses (Macdonald  
132 et al., 2005).

133 The presence of PCBs in the Arctic have been attributed mostly to Europe, Asia and Canada  
134 (Macdonald et al., 2000; Malanichev et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2011). Some models have been used to predict  
135 the propagation distance of PCBs. For instance, the estimated Characteristic Travel Distance (CTD) of  
136 PCBs has been reported to be in the range of 578 km (PCB194) ~ 7411 km (PCB52) by the TaPL3 model,  
137 and 1484 km (PCB194) to 26908 km (PCB153) by the ELPOS model (Wania, 2003; Wania and Dugani,  
138 2003). The octanol-water partition coefficient ( $K_{OW}$ ) and octanol-air partition coefficient ( $K_{OA}$ ) values of  
139 PCBs were considered as two key influencing factors for their migration and transformation. The Globe-  
140 POP model inferred that PCBs were transferred from low latitudes to the Arctic via multiple jumps of  
141 repeated cycles of deposition and re-evaporation, suggesting that the chemicals with log  $K_{OW}$  values of 5 ~  
142 8 (log  $K_{OA}$  ranged from 6.5 to 10) undergo air-surface exchange. Nevertheless, less volatile chemicals (log  
143  $K_{OA} > 9.5$ ) were unlikely to take “multiple jumps” as they did not volatilize effectively after being deposited  
144 into water or soil, and so they had to arrive in the Arctic with a single atmospheric LRT event (Wania,  
145 2003).

#### 146 4.2. Currents, rivers, ice and snow input

147 Ocean currents and riverine input have been important to the arrival of OCPs in the Arctic Ocean. For  
148 decades, sediment release, sewage discharge and soil leachate infiltration have been the main ways for  
149 OCPs to flow into rivers. Ocean currents and rivers from the source areas served as significant pathways  
150 (Ma et al., 2015). For example, the rivers flowing from Russia were regarded as important to organochlorine  
151 compounds transport via estuaries and regional seas, particularly those of close to the Arctic basin  
152 (Alexeeva et al., 2001; Zhulidov et al., 2000). The main input route of  $\alpha$ -HCH into the Arctic Ocean was

153 atmospheric LRT from 1945 to 1990, while it has been substituted by ocean currents since the early 1990s  
154 (Li and Macdonald, 2005). With the banning of technical HCH usage during the 1980s, the transition of the  
155 Arctic Ocean from a sink to a source of HCH in the atmosphere occurred due to the atmospheric  $\alpha$ -HCH  
156 concentrations decline. It has been well documented that residual HCHs in the cold, ice-covered surface  
157 waters of the western Arctic Ocean continue to supply HCH to out-flowing waters in the Canadian  
158 Archipelago (Pućko et al., 2013). Moreover, the re-volatilization and release of OCPs from glaciers,  
159 attributed to the recent melting of ice and snow on account of global climate change, are considered as  
160 potential important secondary sources (Bogdal et al., 2009; Khairy et al., 2016; Macdonald et al., 2005).

#### 161 *4.3. Sources apportion associating with their usage*

162 The ratio of OCP isomers, also known as their fingerprint, are regularly utilized to determine the  
163 sources and status of their industrial production. There are two sources of HCHs in the environment,  
164 technical HCHs and Lindane. The ratio of  $\alpha$ -HCH/ $\gamma$ -HCH is an indicator of historical usage, recent technical  
165 HCHs or Lindane input. The discrepancy in the ratio of  $\alpha$ -/ $\gamma$ -HCH isomers suggests a distinct possible  
166 source. For example, there was a significant difference in the ratio of  $\alpha$ -/ $\gamma$ -HCH isomers between the Arctic  
167 (10.2) and Antarctic sites (2.5) (Nash et al., 2017). The reason for this phenomenon can be explained by  
168 the fact that the northern temperate and cold zones were the main sources of  $\alpha$ -HCH, while the recent usage  
169 of Lindane in the southern hemisphere led to a higher proportion of  $\gamma$ -HCH in the waters of the Antarctic  
170 Ocean (He, 2013).

171 The comparative proportions of the parent compound DDT and its metabolites DDD and DDE were  
172 indicators for investigating potential sources of DDT residues in the environment. The relative abundance  
173 of parent and metabolite has been used to differentiate fresh ( $\Sigma\text{DDT}/\Sigma\text{DDE} > 1$ ) and aged ( $\Sigma\text{DDT}/\Sigma\text{DDE}$   
174  $< 1$ ) composition. The increasing content of  $\Sigma\text{DDTs}$  (DDT and its isomers) suggested fresh utilization of  
175 DDT in the corresponding regions (AMAP, 2004). To date, technical DDT was the predominant source.  
176 DDT in the Arctic was not as fresh as in the Far East by comparison. For dicofol (related to DDT), the



177 contribution was estimated to be low. “New” *o,p'*-DDT has been observed in the North Pacific and Arctic,  
178 indicating that DDTs were more likely to derive from dicofol type DDT (Ding et al., 2009).

179 Technical chlordane, consisting of a mixture of *trans*-chlordane (TC) and *cis*-chlordane (CC), is the  
180 present primary source of residual insecticide in the ecological environment. CC has been found to degrade  
181 faster than TC, resulting in the gradual decline of the concentrations ratios. Therefore, the isomer ratio could  
182 be used to assess historical legacy or recent input. Generally the CC/TC proportion in the range of 1.2 ~ 1.3  
183 demonstrates that fresh technology chlordane products enter the environment (Lin et al., 2012).

#### 184 4.4. Animal transport

185 Some animals such as sea birds, whales, pinnipeds, salmon and cod, etc., are migrate long distances,  
186 travelling through many human-intensive industrial and agricultural areas, countries, eventually reaching  
187 polar regions. To date, some studies have speculated that animal migration was another confirmed route for  
188 OCPs to enter polar regions. Organic contaminant concentrations were found to be twice as concentrated  
189 in salmon spawning lakes as in salmon-free lakes, with the composition of compounds found in salmon  
190 being similar. Bio-transport was suggested to have a greater influence to PCBs and DDT loadings in lake  
191 biota than atmospheric inputs in Alaskan river systems (Ewald et al., 1998). Seabirds have also been  
192 reported to be involved in bio-transport of certain OCPs into the Arctic, resulting in OCPs in bird habitats  
193 being elevated several fold higher than corresponding background concentrations (Blais et al., 2005; Choy  
194 et al., 2010; Evenset et al., 2004; Michelutti et al., 2009; Wania, 2003).

### 195 5. Transformation processes

196 Several studies have shown that PCBs changed their chiral characteristics in the environment after  
197 long-distance transport through air, oceans and lakes, although the mechanisms are not clearly understood.  
198 For example, changes in the enantiomer fraction (*EF*) of PCB136 have been observed in equatorial Indian  
199 Ocean (Huang et al., 2013) and Arctic regions (Bidleman et al., 2012). Fresh PCBs which were released  
200 into air via air-water or air-soil exchange played an important role in determining the PCB *EF* values.

201 It has been demonstrated that OH radicals in air oxidize PCBs in the gas phase (Mandalakis et al.,  
202 2003). A five-year atmospheric monitoring study demonstrated that some of the lighters chlorinated PCBs  
203 showed a significant decrease in the Arctic atmosphere due to the degradation by OH radicals. Whereas,  
204 for heavier congeners, precipitation or removal processes such as particle deposition and snow removal  
205 may be more significant (Hung et al., 2001).

206 After PCBs entering an organism, they can be transformed into water-soluble compounds through  
207 phase I and II biotransformation enzymes. Phase I cytochrome P450 enzymes, for example, play an  
208 important role in metabolizing and eliminating mono-ortho or *non-ortho* chlorine congeners of PCBs. CYPs  
209 catalyze direct insertion of an OH-group into a PCB molecule to form arene-oxide intermediates through  
210 which OH-PCBs is formed. In addition, one of the phase II enzymes, glutathione S-transferase (GST),  
211 formed methyl sulfones (MeSO<sub>2</sub>-PCBs) via hydrolytic coupling of glutathione (GSH) to peptidases  
212 (Helgason et al., 2010). OH-PCBs and MeSO<sub>2</sub>-PCBs, two metabolites, have been found in Arctic seabirds,  
213 including glaucous gulls, northern fulmar chicks and even in arctic foxes (Helgason et al., 2010; Nost et al.,  
214 2012; Routti et al., 2016; Verreault et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2014). The biotransformation of PCBs in biota  
215 was found to be highly species-dependent. Generally, invertebrates have a lower capacity to metabolize  
216 PCBs compared to fish, birds or mammals.

217 OCPs can also be converted under some circumstances in the natural environment. DDT, can be  
218 transformed to DDE and DDD through oxidation and reduction reactions, respectively. The diverse physical  
219 and chemical properties of each HCH isomer have led to differences in their stability in the marine and  
220 atmospheric environments.  $\gamma$ -HCH is susceptible to degradation to  $\alpha$ -HCH in the via microbial metabolism  
221 and photochemical reactions (Walker et al., 1999), while  $\alpha$ -HCH can be converted to  $\beta$ -HCH which has a  
222 more stable symmetric structure (Ya et al., 2017). In studies of heptachlor and its metabolites, it has been  
223 proposed that heptachlor metabolites would undergo the initial metabolic transformation processes of  
224 epoxidation, dechlorination and hydrolysis (Purnomo et al., 2013). The parent chlordane compounds were

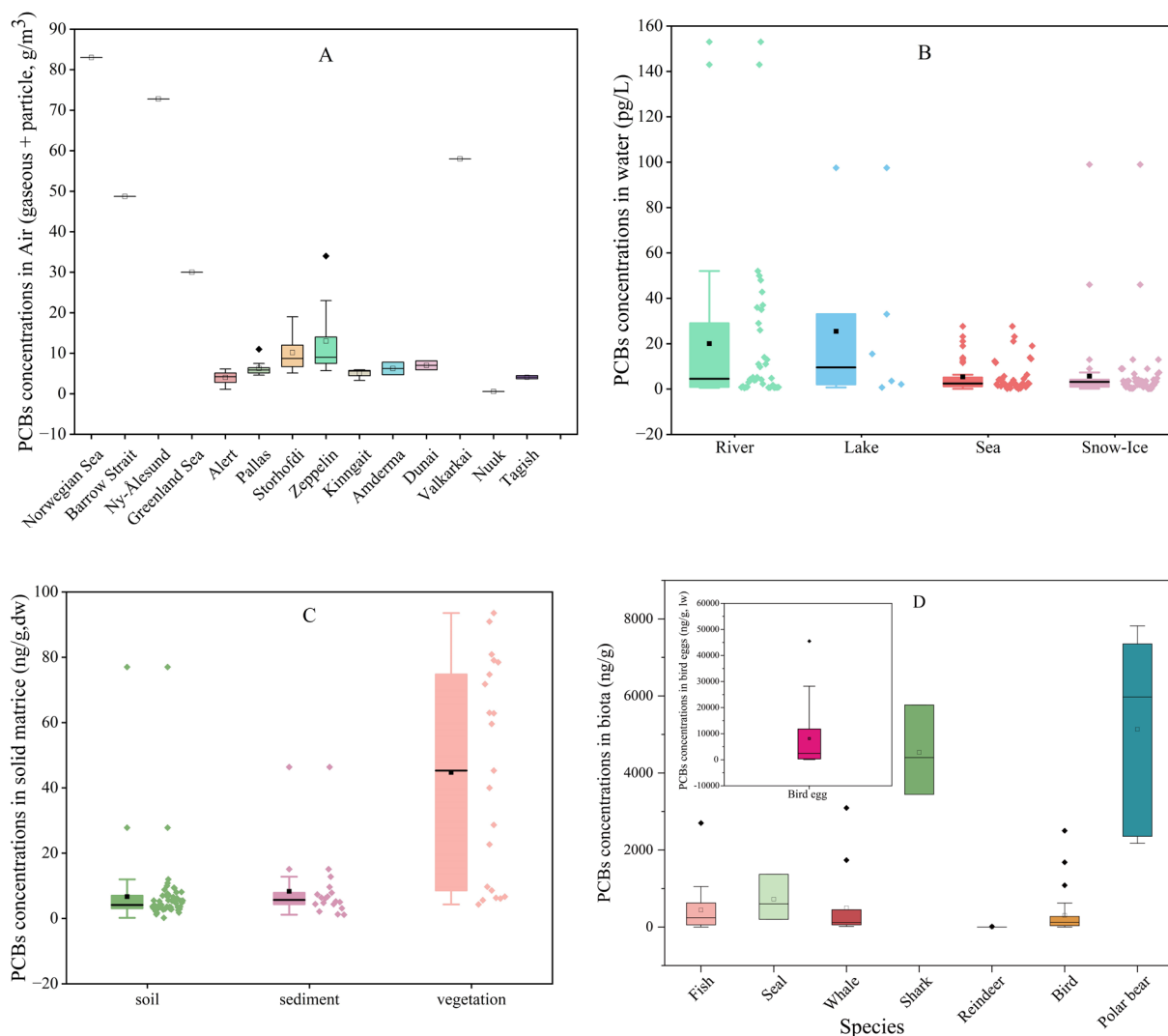
225 also transformed under environmental conditions, into oxychlorodane and heptachlor *exo*-epoxide, two  
 226 stable degradation products (Su et al., 2008).

## 227 6. Legacies and temporal tendencies in multimedia of polar areas

### 228 6.1. Legacies and temporal tendencies of PCB in the multimedia of the polar areas

229 Data from previously published studies on the occurrence of PCBs in atmospheric, aquatic and solid  
 230 samples along with biota are illustrated in Fig. 2.

231



232

233 **Fig. 2.** The PCBs concentrations in air ( $\text{pg}/\text{m}^3$ ), water ( $\text{pg}/\text{L}$ ), solid matrices ( $\text{pg}/\text{g dw}$ ) and biota ( $\text{ng}/\text{g}$ ) in  
 234 the Arctic. The original data was retrieved from a range of studies, whose references were listed in Tables  
 235 S1 ~ S7 of Supporting Information.

236 *6.1.1. Atmosphere*

237 Atmospheric PCBs concentrations in Arctic air have been reported to be in the range of < LOD to  
238 several 10's of pg/m<sup>3</sup>. The highest concentrations were found in the Norwegian Sea, followed by Ny-  
239 Ålesund, which reached 83 and 72.8 pg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. The lowest concentration was reported in Nuuk  
240 at 0.56 pg/m<sup>3</sup> (Fig. 2A; Table S1). Long-term monitoring results demonstrated a general downward trend  
241 for most legacy POPs in Arctic air (Hung et al., 2010; Hung et al., 2016). In the west coast of Sweden and  
242 the subarctic region of northern Finland, the temporal tendencies of declining atmospheric concentrations  
243 of PCBs, HCHs, chlordane and DDTs were recognized at the rates of 2 ~ 4%, 6 ~ 7%, 3 ~ 4% and 2 ~ 5%  
244 per year, respectively (Bargagli, 2008). Monitoring data have consistently demonstrated that the levels of  
245 most PCBs in the Arctic atmosphere have declined differently over the past few decades.

246 *6.1.2. Water*

247 PCB concentrations in Arctic sea water and lake water have been found to be comparable, ranging  
248 from < LOD to several 10's of pg/L (Fig. 2B; Tables S2 - S3). Nevertheless, the concentration of PCBs in  
249 ice and snow varied significantly by 3 orders of magnitude. In general, PCBs concentrations in sea water  
250 and lake water were much lower than in snow and ice. Studies have reported that the concentrations of  
251 PCBs in the West and East Lakes of Melville Island, as well as in seawater, have increased sharply during  
252 the non-glacial period, possibly due to the melting of the ice layer and the input of river runoff (Cabrerizo  
253 et al., 2019). Consequently, the concentrations trends suggest that snow/ice melting is serving as a  
254 secondary source of PCBs in Arctic Ocean.

255 *6.1.3. Solid media*

256 The residues of PCBs in solid media of the Arctic ranged from < LOD to 10's of ng/g, with higher  
257 accumulations in plants (Fig. 2C; Tables S4 ~ S6). Mean concentrations of PCBs in lichens and mosses  
258 were usually several times higher than those in abiotic substrates. Results from a number of studies have  
259 suggested that total PCBs concentrations ( $\sum_{29}$ PCBs) in soil, sediment, plant, bird guano and reindeer feces  
260 in the Ny-Ålesund region of the Arctic were in the range of 2.76 ~ 10.8 ng/g, 3.09 ~ 8.32 ng/g, 22.5 ~ 56.3

261 ng/g, 35.4 ~ 51.4 ng/g, and 31.8 ~ 39.6 ng/g dry weight (dw), respectively (Zhang et al., 2014). Average  
262 ΣPCBs concentrations in vegetation ( $6.90 \pm 0.81$  ng/g dw) were obviously higher than that in soils ( $3.70 \pm$   
263  $0.36$  ng/g dw) (Aslam et al., 2019). PCBs were negatively correlated with elements derived from local  
264 bedrock, suggesting that their levels may be impacted by atmospheric deposition.

#### 265 6.1.4. Biota

266 PCBs bioaccumulate in Arctic organisms to significantly different extents (Fig. 2D; Table S7).  
267 Concentrations of PCBs in birds' tissues varied from < LOD to several thousand ng/g, but reached up to  
268 tens of thousands ng/g in eggs. The concentrations of PCBs were all significantly higher than those detected  
269 in Ivory Gull eggs collected from the Canadian Arctic in 1976, 1987, and 2004, with concentrations  
270 approximately 4 ~ 8 times higher than those reported in 2004 (Su et al., 2006). The concentrations of PCBs  
271 in polar bears exceeded 7,000 ng/g with higher concentrations in adipose tissue than in the liver. The  
272 discrepancy was possibly caused by the differences in biochemical processes and liver biotransformation  
273 (Gebink et al., 2008). Bioaccumulation of PCBs in the adipose tissue of polar bears may be attributed to  
274 the exposure of commercial PCBs and their mixtures (Verreault et al., 2005). The average concentration of  
275 PCBs in the plasma of Greenland sharks from Kongsfjorden (Svalbard) reached 5776 ng/g (Neerland et al.,  
276 2019), and the average PCB concentration analyzed in the muscle and liver of Greenland sharks from  
277 Iceland was 4100 and 4400 ng/g, respectively. This difference could be related to the parts of the body  
278 sampled, feeding habits, and nutritional status (Strid et al., 2007). Three compounds of *non-ortho*-, *mono-*  
279 *ortho*- and *di-ortho*-substituted PCBs congeners (NO-CB, MO-CB and DO-CB) were detected in the lipid  
280 of ringed seals in Holman (Canadian Arctic) during the 1980s and 1990s without obvious temporal variation  
281 in their total concentrations (Addison et al., 2005). However, PCB concentrations in Baltic Sea fish  
282 measured along the Finnish coast of the Baltic Sea have decreased by approximately 80% from 1978 to  
283 2009 (Airaksinen et al., 2014). PCBs concentrations in the liver of arctic foxes (*Vulpes lagopus*) have  
284 declined at a rate of 4 ~ 11% per year. It was probably due to changes in the diet associated with climate  
285 change that influenced concentrations in the arctic foxes from Svalbard (Andersen et al., 2015).

286 Zooplankton represent an important link between the base of the food web and higher trophic levels (TLs)  
287 ([Lomartire et al., 2021](#)). A study reported that the mean concentrations of PCBs in herbivorous zooplankton  
288 from Isfjorden, Svalbard showed seasonal variation, with concentrations of 4.43 ng/g in May and 1.6 ng/g  
289 in August ([McGovern et al., 2022](#)).

290 PCB concentrations in biota (particularly in seabirds and mammals) were approximately 3 ~ 4 times  
291 higher than those in environmental media, suggesting that accumulation and magnification of PCBs  
292 occurred in organisms. The Baltic food web model predictions revealed that the equilibrium lipid  
293 concentrations of all PCB congeners increased with position, with the highest concentrations predicted for  
294 cod and salmon ([Nfon and Cousins, 2007](#)). The bioaccumulation factors (BAF,  $C_{\text{organism}}/C_w$ ) of 4 PCB  
295 congeners in the food webs of the Barents Sea (Arctic zone, 77 °N ~ 82 °N) and Baltic Sea (temperate zone  
296 sea, 54 °N ~ 62 °N) were compared, both of which included zooplankton, fish, and seal. The  $BAF_{\text{arctic}}$ :  
297  $BAF_{\text{temperate}}$  ratios of the four PCB homologues in zooplankton and fish were all greater than 1, ranging  
298 from 6.4 to 13.8 and 2.9 to 5.0, respectively, while the ratios in seals were less than 1.0 ([Sobek et al., 2010](#)).  
299 Both the above model and the investigation revealed that temperature had an important impact on the  
300 bioaccumulation of PCBs via food web ([Cabrerizo et al., 2018b](#); [Nfon and Cousins, 2007](#); [Sobek et al.,](#)  
301 [2010](#)). Trophic magnification factors (TMFs) are important parameters that characterize the degree of  
302 biological amplification. Some researchers have found that legacy PCBs and DDTs were significantly  
303 amplified via the TLs, with TMFs values above 1.0 ([Kim et al., 2021](#)).

304 In summary, there is strong evidence of intentionally manufactured PCBs remain in the Arctic  
305 environment, but the recent detection of unintentionally produced PCBs (UP-PCBs), including PCB5 and  
306 PCB11, have become a growing concern as well ([Bartlett et al., 2019](#)). Surface snow gathered in the  
307 Lomonosovfonna region of Svalbard in 2009 ~ 2010 and 2013 ~ 2014 had a high content of PCB11,  
308 accounting for 4% of the entire PCBs ([Garmash et al., 2013](#)). PCB11 and other UP-PCBs have not been  
309 fully explored in Arctic yet. Even though these UP-PCBs were not as high in concentration as some residual

310 PCBs, the toxicity of the parent and metabolite remains vague, which may lead to unknown negative  
311 ecological impacts.

## 312 *6.2. Legacies and temporal tendencies of OCPs in multimedia of the polar areas*

### 313 *6.2.1. Atmosphere*

314 Air concentrations of OCPs have been summarized at seventeen Arctic stations during 1993 to 2017,  
315 including Alert, Kinngait, Tagish, Little Fox Lake, and Cornwallis Island in Canada; Pallas in Finland;  
316 Storhofdi in Iceland; Zeppelin, Meteorological station, Tromsø, and Andøya in Norway; Point Barrow in  
317 the USA; Amderma, Dunai, Valkarkai, and Tiksi in Russia; and Villum Research Station (VRS) in  
318 Greenland see Fig. 3 and Table S8. Concentrations of OCPs monitored at each station varied considerably,  
319 with OCPs average concentrations at the stations of Alert (Canada), Zeppelin (Norway), Kinngait I and II  
320 (Canada), Tromsø (Norway) and VRS (Greenland) were notably higher than other stations. With respect to  
321 the temporal variation, a generally decreasing trend were observed at most of the stations. HCHs and HCB  
322 took the top two places alternatively among the total OCPs in Canada and Norway, implying the different  
323 usage strategies in two countries. Air concentrations of HCB reported at all the stations except Storhofdi  
324 were high, with mean air concentrations ranging from 29 to 120 pg/m<sup>3</sup> from 1993 to 2006. After 2015, all  
325 stations exhibited relatively low air concentrations ranging from an average of 10 to 78 pg/m<sup>3</sup> except for  
326 Tromsø, which presented the highest air concentrations of 118 pg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2013 ~ 2014. Because the sampling  
327 campaigns were executed mainly in warmer months, the atmospheric concentrations demonstrated obvious  
328 seasonal variation characteristic, that is, the higher concentrations were determined during the warmer  
329 months, while the lower concentrations were observed during the colder months. Furthermore, gas-particle  
330 partition was also affected by temperature leading to higher gas phase concentrations at higher temperature  
331 ([Casal et al., 2018](#)).

332 Air concentrations of HCHs measured during the period 1993 ~ 2006 ranged from 6.1 to 92 pg/m<sup>3</sup> and  
333 had been decreasing annually. After 2000, air concentrations dropped to 2.1 ~ 34.9 pg/m<sup>3</sup> at all stations,  
334 except for Little Fox Lake and Valkarkai ([Su et al., 2006](#)). The higher air concentrations detected at Little

335 Fox Lake were attributed to secondary emissions of technical HCH that had previously deposited in the  
336 soil. Although the use of technical HCH resulted in an increase of HCH concentration, higher temperatures  
337 were conducive to HCH volatilization (Su et al., 2006). Higher concentrations may also be attributed to the  
338 increasing volatilization previously deposited in the ocean, sea ice cover reduction and the continuous  
339 usage of some pesticides containing HCH (Hung et al., 2010). After 2015, the concentrations of HCHs were  
340 less than 10 pg/m<sup>3</sup>. The decrease in air concentrations of  $\alpha$ -HCH and  $\gamma$ -HCH across Arctic stations was  
341 probably on account of the reducing global emission of technical HCHs and lindane (Wong et al., 2021).

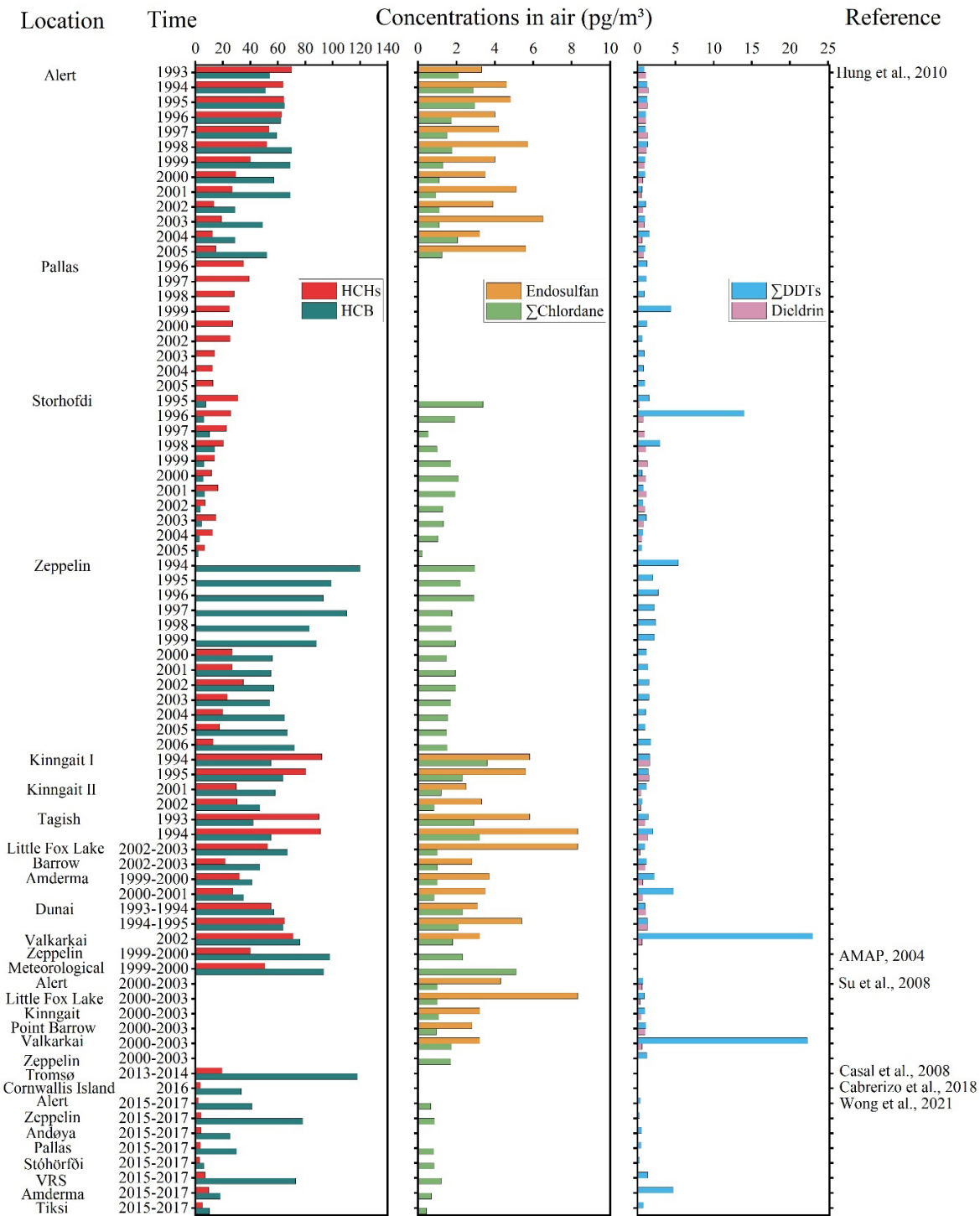
342 Technical chlordane was primarily composed of *trans*-chlordane (TC), *cis*-chlordane (CC), *trans*-  
343 nonachlor (TN), *cis*-nonachlor (CN), as well as traces of heptachlor (HEPT) and some other contaminants  
344 (Hung et al., 2010). The concentration of  $\Sigma$ chlordane at all stations were reported as the sum of four  
345 chlordane-related compounds, including TC, CC, TN, CN, with the exception of Pallas. The  $\Sigma$ chlordane  
346 in the air from 1993 to 2006 ranged from 0.83 to 3.60 pg/m<sup>3</sup>, while all stations exhibited relatively lower  
347 air concentrations ranging from 0.427 to 1.198 pg/m<sup>3</sup> after 2015. Su et al. (2008) demonstrated that the  
348 seasonal variation of chlordane-related compounds was unremarkable in that the monthly mean values of  
349 TC, CC, and TN varied within a factor of 4 at five stations (excluding Valkarkai). Seasonality of chlordane-  
350 related substances might be ascribed to other factors, involving inputs by LRT, degradation, temperature  
351 and atmospheric mixture heights variations as well.

352 Endosulfan was a broadly applied CUP on plants, such as cotton, tomatoes, and apples. Endosulfan I  
353 was reported with the range of 2.5 to 8.3 pg/m<sup>3</sup> at Alert and all satellite stations, including Kinngait, Tagish,  
354 Little Fox Lake, *etc.* The highest concentrations reported at Tagish in 1994 and Little Fox Lake in 2000 ~  
355 2003 were both 8.3 pg/m<sup>3</sup>, and the same concentration was measured again at Little Fox Lake in 2000 ~  
356 2003 by another study. Since the two sites were located in the western lower reaches of the North American  
357 Arctic, they may be affected by air masses from Asia and western North America, where endosulfan was  
358 frequently used (Hung et al., 2010).



359 Concentrations of DDTs were relatively lower in the Arctic atmosphere, when compared with HCB  
360 and HCHs. Air concentrations of *p,p'*- and *o,p'*-DDD were predominantly lower than Method Detection  
361 Limit (MDLs) in many studies. The concentration of DDTs in the atmosphere were less than 2.97 pg/m<sup>3</sup> at  
362 almost all stations except Valkarkai in 2000 ~ 2003 (22.28 ~ 23 pg/m<sup>3</sup>), Storhofdi in 1996 (13.98 pg/m<sup>3</sup>).  
363 Valkarkai is a distant coastal meteorological station, with probable sources of DDT-related compounds at  
364 related to weathered sources (Su et al., 2008). This explanation was also demonstrated in Hung's study  
365 (Hung et al., 2010) who reported air concentrations of DDTs in Storhofdi at 13.98 pg/m<sup>3</sup> in 1996.

366 Dieldrin was found at low concentrations, quite close to detection limits in Arctic air, except on a few  
367 occasions. Dieldrin concentrations in air ranged from MDL ~ 1.6 pg/m<sup>3</sup>, as shown in Fig. 3. On one hand,  
368 atmospheric concentrations of dieldrin in the Arctic in 2000 ~ 2003 dropped approximately by half  
369 compared with the results in the 1990s because the half-life of dieldrin was about 13 years in the Arctic  
370 atmosphere (Hung et al., 2005; Su et al., 2008). On the other hand, some studies have shown that significant  
371 negative temperature-dependent relationship, suggesting that the volatile emissions might lead to the high  
372 summer air concentrations (Su et al., 2008).



373

374 **Fig. 3.** The concentrations of OCPs in gaseous phase and particle phase of air ( $\text{pg}/\text{m}^3$ ) in the Arctic. The  
 375 original data was retrieved from many researches, whose references were listed in Table S8 of Supporting  
 376 Information.

### 377 6.2.2. Water

378 HCB was detected in fresh water and sea water with average concentrations in the range of 1.41 to 6.4  
379 pg/L (Fig. S1, Table S9 - S10), while HCB was measured at Svalbard for the first time and dominated the  
380 aqueous phase, ranging from 14 to 66 pg/L with maximum concentrations in Ebbaelva in 2018 (Johansen  
381 et al., 2021). The differences in concentrations indicated that they were the result of a combination of source  
382 distribution, biochemical processes, and environmental conditions.

383 The concentrations of HCHs in fresh water and sea water of the Arctic were in the range of 22.09 to  
384 3900 pg/L. The general pattern of OCPs in seawater was dominated by HCH (Cai et al., 2010). The  
385 concentrations of HCHs at Chukchi Sea and Bering Sea in 1999 were only about one seventh of the data  
386 reported by Chernyak et al. (1995) in 1988, due to the prohibition of HCHs in the majority of northern  
387 hemisphere nations from the early 1970s (Yao et al., 2002). The total concentration of the 17 classic OCPs  
388 increased from the Sea of Japan to the Arctic Ocean via the Okhotsk Sea and Bering Sea in that order. The  
389 different latitudinal trends of  $\alpha$ -HCH and  $\gamma$ -HCH were discussed in combination with their differences in  
390 thermodynamic properties, which might lead to slight fractionation effects during their northward migration  
391 driven by LRAT. The source of HCHs was determined via the ratios of  $\alpha$ -HCH/ $\gamma$ -HCH, all of which were  
392 less than 4, suggesting that the composition of HCHs was mixed with lindane (Cai et al., 2010). In Arctic  
393 sea water and sea ice meltwater,  $\alpha$ -HCH contributed predominantly to the total OCPs, with concentrations  
394 ranging from 224 to 253 pg/L and 34.7 to 48.2 pg/L, respectively (Bigot et al., 2017).

395 As for DDTs, a bell shape trend was found in the Chukchi Sea and Bering Sea from 1988 to 2008  
396 alongside the ascending trend in the Sea of Japan. Geographical differences could be the reason for this  
397 temporal trend (Cai et al., 2010). Average concentrations of  $\Sigma$ DDTs ranged from 0.11 to 0.33 pg/L in East  
398 and West Lakes, from 0.21 to 0.49 pg/L in the Barrow Strait, while higher concentrations detected in rivers  
399 ranged between 1.40 to 2.78 pg/L, possibly relating to higher sediment loads. Moreover, HCHs and DDT  
400 in snowmelt waters were far higher in West River without obvious seasonal differences in East River  
401 (Cabrerizo et al., 2019).

402 Data on other OCPs rather than for HCHs and DDTs was limited. In some studies (Cai et al., 2010;  
403 Chernyak et al., 1995; Yao et al., 2002), dieldrin and endosulfan I were identified for the first time in  
404 Chukchi Sea and Bering Sea (Fig. S2, Table S9 - S10). Their mean concentrations were 52.29, 39.67,  
405 100.67 pg/L in Bering Sea and 28.00, 32.50, 67.00 pg/L in Chukchi Sea, respectively. Dieldrin was also a  
406 significant organochlorine contaminant which has been detected in most of the matrices in the Arctic, with  
407 concentrations ranging from <LOD to tens of pg/L in water matrices. They were consistent with the results  
408 of several previous studies on OCPs in sea water from polar regions (Bigot et al., 2017). Aldrin, heptachlor  
409 and heptachlor epoxide were also observed in the polar areas. Heptachlor, with average concentration up to  
410 94.54 pg/L was detectable in 47% of stations in Chukchi Sea. Heptachlor epoxide, a metabolite of  
411 heptachlor, was reported with average concentration up to 80.9 pg/L in Chukchi Sea (Yao et al., 2002). The  
412 wide-spread acceptable theory with regard to the global distribution of OCPs was that the main sources of  
413 OCPs emissions were in the tropics, with concentration changes in a gradient from south to north.

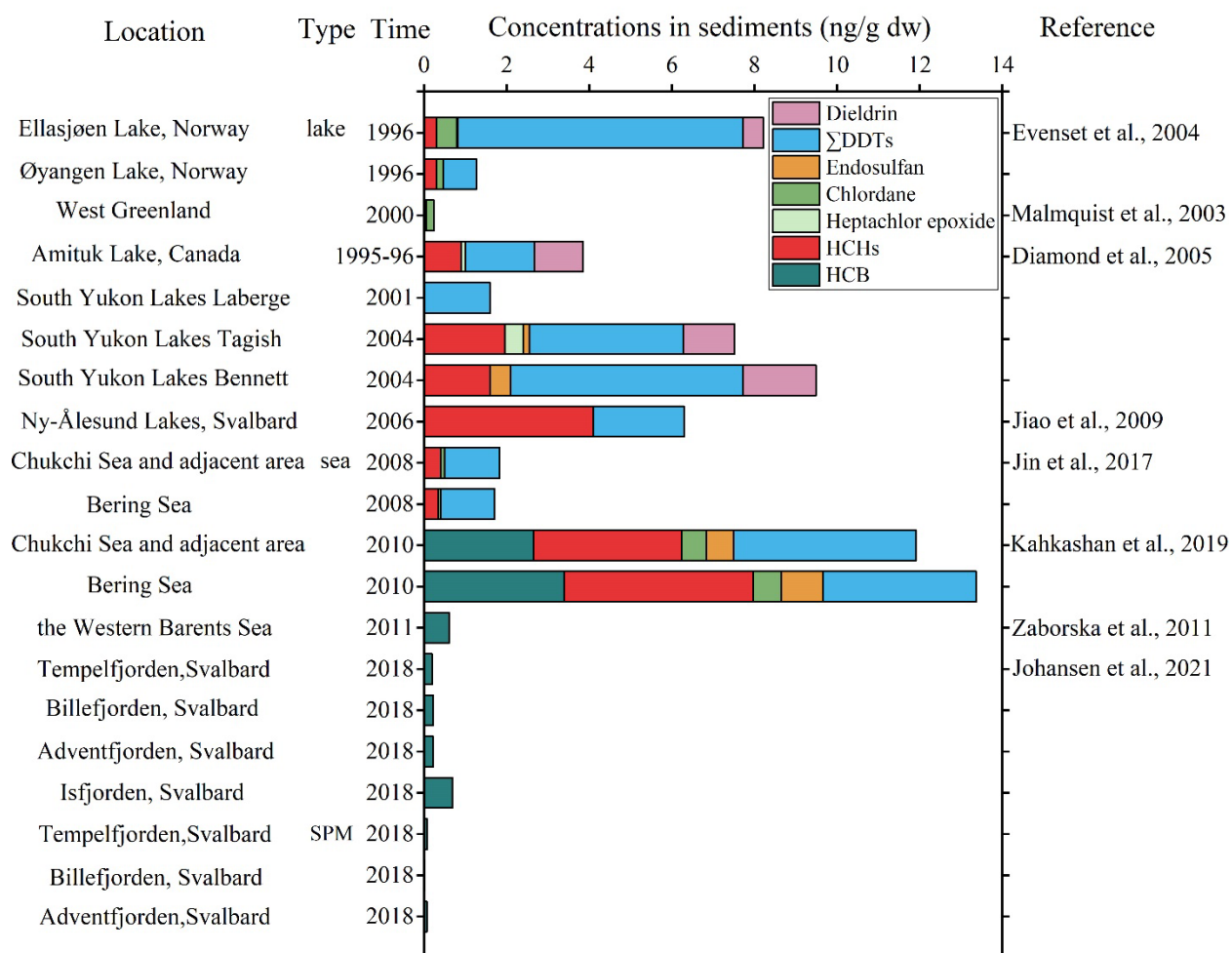
#### 414 6.2.3. Soil and sediment

415 Soil has been regarded as a primary reservoir of semi-volatile organic pollutants including PCBs and  
416 OCPs, playing an important role in their distribution in the atmosphere (Cui et al., 2020). HCHs ( $\alpha$ -HCH,  
417  $\gamma$ -HCH), and DDTs were the predominant OCPs compounds measured in most of the soil samples, with  
418 concentrations ranging from MDL to 1.54 ng/g dw for HCHs, 0.34 to 19.5 ng/g dw for DDTs, respectively  
419 (Fig. S3; Table S11). Casal et al. (2018) reported that HCB was the main contributor ( $96 \pm 3.9\%$ ) to OCPs,  
420 with soil concentrations ranging between 0.61 to 1.5 ng/g, dw. Concentrations of OCPs did not present a a  
421 clear tendency for seasonal variation. In contrast, obvious temperature-related seasonal changes were found  
422 among the ambient air and soil (or snow) fugacity of HCHs and HCB (Casal et al., 2018).

423 The resuspension of sediments results in the release organic pollutants back to the aquatic environment,  
424 serving as a secondary source of OCPs, which could pose an influence on their cycling in the environment  
425 (Palm et al., 2004). The most abundant OCPs were HCHs and DDTs in Arctic sediments with average  
426 concentrations ranging from 0.2 ~ 4.58 ng/g dw to 0.8 ~ 6.9 ng/g dw respectively (Fig. 4; Table S12).

427 Compositional patterns of HCHs and DDTs suggested that they are primarily derived from early residues  
428 of river runoff. HCB was also detected in Arctic sediments with concentrations between MDL to 3.39 ng/g  
429 dw. The highest concentration was in the Bering Sea (3.39 ng/g dw) which showed a decreasing trend over  
430 time. The concentrations of total OCPs (HCB, HCHs, chlordane, endosulfan,  $\Sigma$ DDTs and dieldrin) in the  
431 sediment of the Bering Sea (13.37 ng/g dw) were slightly higher than those in the Chukchi and adjacent  
432 Arctic Ocean (11.915 ng/g dw) in 2010. Deposition rates were high in the northern Bering and Chukchi  
433 Seas, while much lower in the central Arctic Ocean (Darby et al., 2009). Therefore, marine sediments in  
434 the Arctic coastal shelf regions with the highest deposition rates were likely to be important reservoirs of  
435 POPs (Kahkashan et al., 2019).

436 Some studies have demonstrated that POPs stored in suspended particulate matter (SPM) in glaciers  
437 and rivers, whose catchments could be discharged into the receiving marine environment can be secondary  
438 discharge sources (Carlsson et al., 2018; Garmash et al., 2013; Kallenborn et al., 2012). HCB concentrations  
439 in marine sediments (0.192 ~ 0.687 ng/g dw) were higher than those in river suspended particles (0.016 ~  
440 0.073 ng/g dw), as Fig. 4 shown. Furthermore, terrestrial particles with low pollutant concentrations were  
441 likely to be regarded as adsorbents for dissolved pollutants in coastal environments, thereby affecting the  
442 bioavailability of POPs to the marine food web and resulting in lower concentrations in coastal sediments  
443 and waters (Johansen et al., 2021).



444  
 445 **Fig. 4.** Average concentrations of OCPs (ng/g dw) in sediments and SPM in Arctic areas. The original data  
 446 was retrieved from a range of studies, whose references were listed in Table S12 of Supporting Information.

447 *6.2.4. Vegetation and biota*

448 Despite the importance of OCPs as major ecosystem contaminants, there is lack of information about  
 449 their presence in soils and vegetation in circumpolar Arctic regions. Vegetation, including lichens and  
 450 mosses, has been the main focus of limited studies of terrestrial food webs in the Arctic (Fig. S4; Table  
 451 S13). [Cabrerizo et al. \(2018a\)](#) was the first study since 1999 ~ 2002 to report the residual of PCBs and  
 452 OCPs in lichens and vegetation in Arctic. Consequently, gaps in current and historical data on POPs  
 453 concentrations in Arctic terrestrial vegetation have been filled. HCHs, the main component of OCPs, had

454 an average concentration range of 0.06 ~ 8.59 ng/g dw before 2000 (AMAP, 2004), whereas Cabrerizo et  
455 al. (2018a) measured an average concentration range of 0.07 ~ 1.39 ng/g dw in Melville Island and  
456 Cornwallis Island from 2015 to 2016. The average concentration of DDTs ranged from 0.03 ~ 2.94 ng/g  
457 dw prior to 2000 (AMAP, 2004), while the average concentration declined ranging from 0.007 ~ 0.22 ng/g  
458 dw (Cabrerizo et al., 2018a). The average concentration of HCB (0.13 ~ 0.59 ng/g dw) was comparable  
459 across recent studies. The most enriched PCB congeners and OCPs compounds in vegetation were the low  
460 molecular weight PCBs and OCPs, proving the significance of long-range atmospheric transport (Cabrerizo  
461 et al., 2018a).

462 Animals are also important parts of the ecosystem. Keeping track of OCP concentrations across diverse  
463 species of animals is important to explore the trends of legacy of pollutants, which is of great significance  
464 to the improvement of ecological environment and human health. The main POPs reported in fish were  
465 DDT and its degradation products, HCB and HCHs were also frequently detected in fish in both fresh and  
466 sea water. Among the target compounds for OCPs in Arctic char caught from four lakes (Amituk, Resolute,  
467 Char and Hazen Lakes), toxaphene always displayed the highest concentrations, followed by  $\Sigma$ DDTs and  
468  $\Sigma$ HCHs, whose average concentrations varied from 1.6 to 172 ng/g ww (wet weight) for toxaphene, from  
469 0.54 to 61 ng/g ww for  $\Sigma$ DDT and from 0.03 to 4.24 ng/g ww for  $\Sigma$ HCHs, respectively (Fig. 5; Table S14).  
470  $\Sigma$ DDTs were found to have declined in four lakes (Amituk, Resolute, Char and Hazen Lakes), with  
471 proportion from 7.1%/yr to 11%/yr. Meanwhile,  $\alpha$ -HCH decreased remarkably in all lakes as well, with the  
472 rate of 7.8%/yr ~ 14%/yr. HCB also dropped at a rate of 4%/yr. However,  $\beta$ -HCH did not exhibit any  
473 considerable decrease. Toxaphene concentrations only reduced in Amituk Lake and Lake Hazen at the rate  
474 of 6.4%/yr and 7%/yr, respectively (Cabrerizo et al., 2018b). In sea water, the concentrations of OCPs were  
475 two to three times higher for cod than for pelagic saithe on the Norwegian Coast, especially for highly  
476 halogenated-substituted compounds. It is likely that they bioaccumulate through benthic organisms rather  
477 than pelagic food chains, possibly on account of the adsorption of higher molecular weight compounds on  
478 bottom sinking particles (Bustnes et al., 2012). Moreover, it has been shown that the composition of

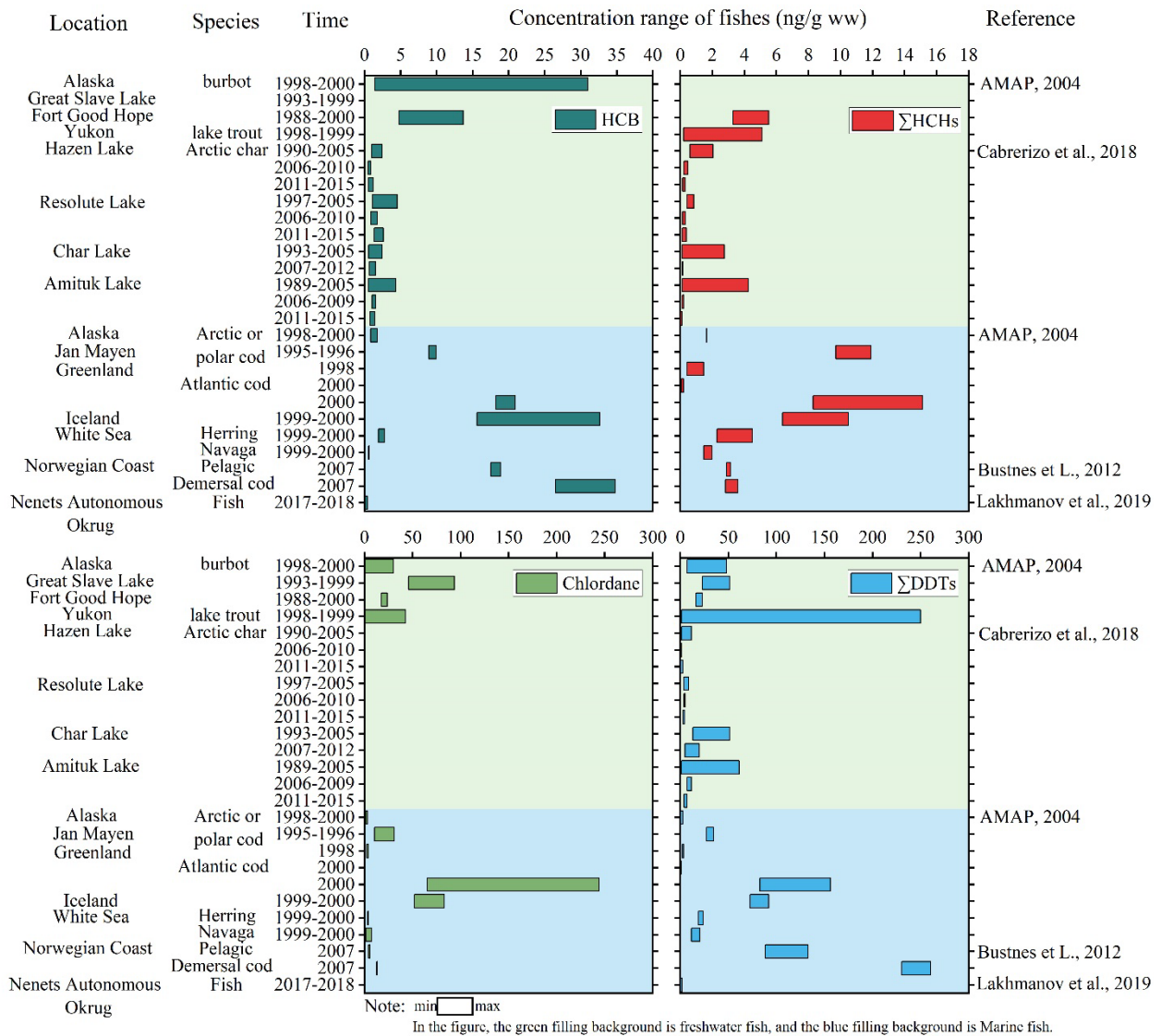
479 contaminants in cod changed gradually from south to north, particularly for HCB, chlordane and  $\Sigma$ DDTs  
480 in the contaminant burdens of cod applied with latitude, whereas the latitudinal fractionation was  
481 insignificant in saithe, which was likely resulting from its pelagic and nomadic behavior (Bustnes et al.,  
482 2012). In addition, OCPs, such as DDTs, were highly positively correlated with lipid content (Lakhmanov  
483 et al., 2020).

484 Concentrations of OCPs in Arctic birds were in the range of < LOD to tens of thousands of ng/g (Fig.  
485 6; Table S15). The OCPs levels in the species of Arctic seabirds were the highest and it was identified as a  
486 vital stressor in a species already at risk owing. For example, the concentrations of OCPs in ivory gull eggs  
487 were more than 30 000 ng/g lipid weight (lw) in the Russian Arctic in 2007 (Miljeteig et al., 2009). HCB,  
488 chlordane, DDTs, dieldrin and mirex in eggs of thick-billed murres, northern fulmars and black-legged  
489 kittiwakes exhibited significant decreases or no prominent variation between 1975 and 2003 measured from  
490 Prince Leopold Island of the Canadian High Arctic. Nevertheless, significant increases were found for  
491  $\Sigma$ HCH in the kittiwakes and fulmars (Braune, 2007). The main component of DDTs was DDE, and its  
492 presence in birds showed an annually decreasing trend. High levels of OCPs were observed in all tissues,  
493 except in adipose tissue. Eggs generally exhibited the highest concentrations, with muscle containing  
494 relatively high levels while adipose tissue displayed the lowest levels both on a lipid weight and a wet  
495 weight basis. More than a hundredfold higher variation in contamination loads was reported amongst  
496 individuals. The variations in concentrations between males and females were not remarkable, but the  
497 discrepancies between juveniles and adults were significant (Jaspers et al., 2013). These findings suggested  
498 that birds can be useful bio-indicators providing high spatial resolution for contaminant source  
499 apportionment in Arctic terrestrial environments.

500 Reindeers, serving as a valuable bioindicator, were the only long-lived vegetarian mammals feeding  
501 on local vegetation, being exposed to contaminants mostly via diet of different kinds of locally grown lichen  
502 and moss. In regard to 15 interested pesticides, only DDT and its metabolites exceeded the detectable limit,  
503 with the highest detectable value of *p,p'*-DDD (57.5 ng/g dw) in one sample from Longyearbyen. However,



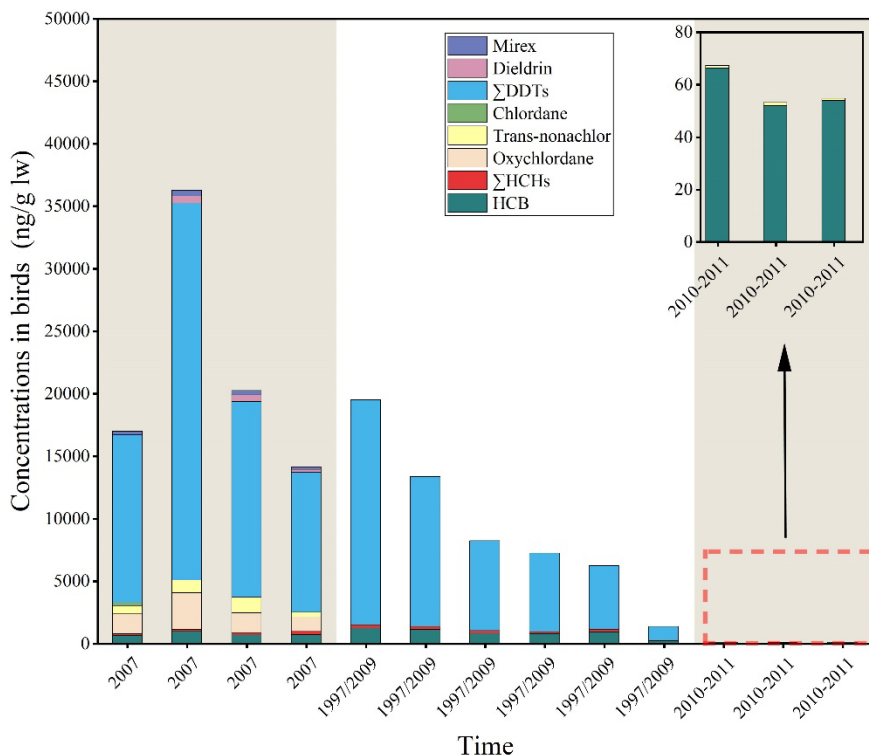
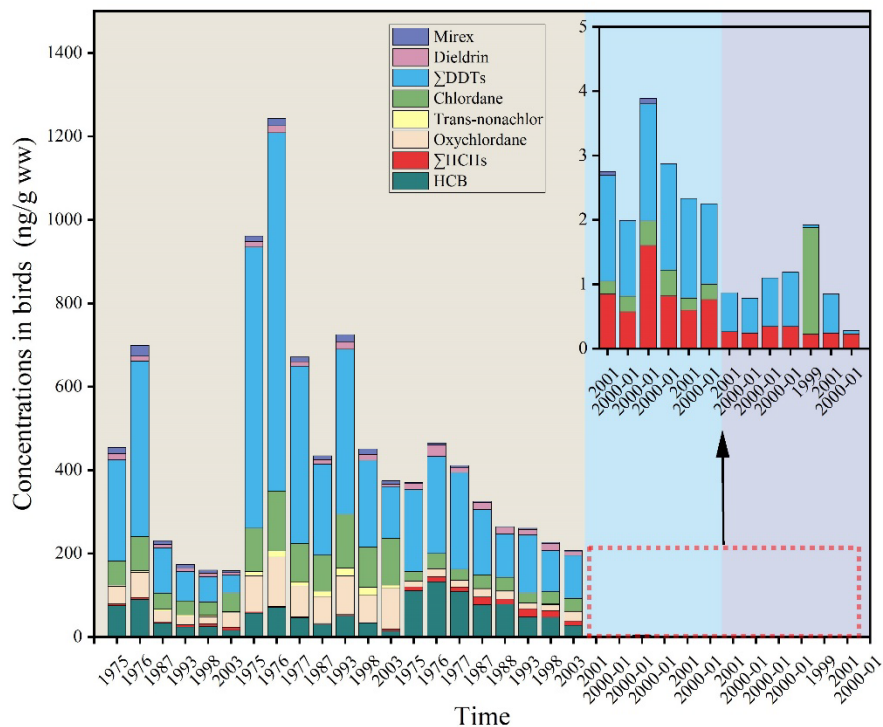
504 despite this single outlier, *p,p'*-DDD concentrations in the remaining samples were much lower (median  
505 1.44 ng/g dw) (Pacyna-Kuchta et al., 2020). Some OCPs were detectable in human plasma in the  
506 Arctic/subarctic region of mainland Russia, mainly including PCBs, *p,p'*-DDE, *p,p'*-DDT,  $\beta$ -HCH, and  
507 HCB, with those in the Aral Sea region of Uzbekistan serving as a control group. The contamination in  
508 human plasma can be explained by local consumption of marine mammals, as well as the recent use of  
509 pesticides. Polar bears in the western Russian Arctic had the highest concentrations of chlordane and *p,p'*-  
510 DDE, compared with polar bears in the western and eastern regions. There were regional differences in  
511 OCPs concentrations, which indicated differences in contamination sources and dietary habits. Furthermore,  
512 it inferred the existence of an important source in the Russian Arctic (Lie et al., 2003). As rising  
513 temperatures in the Arctic have created new communities that attract new predators such as whales, the  
514 levels of POPs in Arctic whales should be monitored continuously to provide long-term data. Tartu et al.  
515 (2020) reported that DDTs and PCBs were the major POPs in fin whales and blue whales in Svalbard,  
516 Norway, and the concentration of pollutants in fin whale was 1.6 ~ 3 times higher than that in blue whale,  
517 which may be due to the higher trophic level of fin whale. There were fewer available concentration data  
518 on OCPs in Arctic invertebrates (Table S17). Studies have shown that macroinvertebrates such as  
519 *Gammarus* species and molluscs have been used in the past for biomonitoring of POPs, but the former have  
520 been mainly associated with metals, whereas the latter's OCPs concentrations in the body do not correlate  
521 with some of the OCPs concentrations in the sediment. This is probably as result of their lower position in  
522 the food chain (Lebrun et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2017). McGovern et al. (2022) observed indications of  
523 accumulation of remobilized  $\alpha$ -HCH in coastal zooplankton in the summer, but the resulting concentrations  
524 were low, which also suggested that glacial meltwater was a secondary source of  $\alpha$ -HCH to zooplankton.  
525 Invertebrates play an important role in the stability of freshwater and marine ecosystems. Glacial melting  
526 and terrestrial inputs can affect the distribution of contaminants in the environment, and future research  
527 should be carried out on the effects of a combination of factors on the fate of OCPs in invertebrates.



528

529 **Fig. 5.** The concentrations of OCPs in fishes (ng/g) in the Arctic. The original data was retrieved from a

530 wide range of studies, whose references were listed in Table S14 of Supporting Information.



Note: The khaki background filling represents the egg, light blue represents the liver, and light purple represents the muscle.

531

532 **Fig. 6.** The concentrations of OCPs in birds (ng/g) in the Arctic. The original data was retrieved from a

533 wide range of studies, whose references were listed in Table S15 of Supporting Information.

## 534 7. Current-use pesticides

535 Since the legacy OCPs have been banned or restricted for use in recent years, current-use pesticides  
536 (CUPs) have served as substitutes as CUPs are thought to be less persistent in environment and safer for  
537 biota. CUPs contain more than 900 active ingredients, involving organophosphate pesticides, pyrethroids,  
538 carbamates, neonicotinoids, and sulfonylureas (Wang et al., 2018). Recently, however, several studies have  
539 demonstrated that CUPs undergo long range transport from source regions to pristine polar areas through  
540 air mass transport (Matthies et al., 2009; Pućko et al., 2017; Scheringer et al., 2009; Stocker et al., 2007).

541 The research on CUPs in polar areas are rather limited, albeit attracting worldwide attention. Thus, the  
542 transport paths of CUPs as well as the role of polar areas in their global distribution still remains uncertain.  
543 Balmer et al. (2019) have reviewed the presence of CUPs in Arctic areas. Three compounds, dacthal,  
544 chlorothalonil, and endosulfan, were the most widely reported CUPs in Arctic air. Passive sampling  
545 methods were used to monitoring CUPs, with the absorption phase of PUF, XAD or PUF-XAD sandwich.  
546 The concentrations of  $\alpha$ -endosulfan (at the level of several or 10's of  $\text{pg}/\text{m}^3$ ) were the highest among the  
547 detectable CUPs (Baek et al., 2011; Bossi et al., 2013; Bossi et al., 2016; Jantunen et al., 2015; Pozo et al.,  
548 2006; Wania et al., 2003). CUPs in air samples collected on a scientific cruise stretching from the East  
549 China Sea to the High Arctic demonstrated that the Arctic could be influenced by direct input from Russia  
550 and North America (Balmer et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2012).

551 In surface seawater from the Sea of Japan into the Chukchi Sea and western Arctic Ocean,  $\alpha$ -  
552 endosulfan,  $\beta$ -endosulfan, endosulfan sulfate and methoxychlor were the most detected CUPs with the  
553 concentrations range of < MDL to 10's of  $\text{pg}/\text{L}$  (Zhong et al., 2012). However, concentrations of endosulfan  
554 sulfate and dacthal were the highest and the most frequently measured CUPs in the dissolved phase,  
555 followed by chlorpyrifos, pentachloronitrobenzene (PCNB) and  $\alpha$ -endosulfan in the Canadian Arctic.  
556 (Morris et al., 2016). Pućko et al. (2017) discovered that melt ponds in Canadian Arctic Archipelago might  
557 play an important role in the delivery of CUPs to the surface layers of the Arctic Ocean, based on the result  
558 that the concentrations of 4 CUPs (chlorpyrifos, dacthal, PCNB and trifluralin) in snow-melt ponds were

559 10 ~ 16 fold higher of those in sea water. On the contrary, chlorothalonil and  $\alpha$ -endosulfan were not  
560 found in the ponds, suggesting they either volatilized into the atmosphere or were flushed into the ocean  
561 before the snowmelt began (Balmer et al., 2019). Moreover, the runoff of glacial melt water had an impact  
562 on the levels of  $\alpha$ -endosulfan in surface sediments of a glacial fjord in Svalbard, Norway (Balmer et al.,  
563 2019; Ma et al., 2015).

564 By reviewing studies on the temporal variation of CUPs in Arctic areas, it was demonstrated that the  
565 concentrations of CUPs in sea water and air have slightly declined or remained stable over recent times.  
566 Specifically, atmospheric concentrations of  $\alpha$ -endosulfan at Alert have declined slightly, while in Fox lake  
567 (Canada) they remained relatively constant (AMAP, 2014; Yu et al., 2015). Nevertheless, in surface sea  
568 water collected in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago from 2011 to 2013, concentrations of several CUPs  
569 increased, although there was no obvious temporal change in the concentrations of other CUPs (chlorpyrifos,  
570 dacthal) (Balmer et al., 2019; Jantunen et al., 2015).

571 Due to the lack of the research on CUPs in vegetation, fish and mammals in the Arctic, CUPs  
572 biomagnification and transport through food web were remains difficult to determine. CUPs were detected  
573 in a variety of plants in Arctic Canada, such as lichens, moss and cotton grass. The concentrations of CUPs  
574 in vegetation were higher than those in caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*), and wolves (*Canis lupus*), suggesting  
575 that no bio-magnification existed (Morris et al., 2016). In order to discern the trophic dilution or trophic  
576 magnification of CUPs, more biota data are required.

## 577 **8. Ecological risk assessment and biological amplification**

### 578 *8.1. Ecological risk assessment*

579 Sediments and soils are essential pathways for aquatic and terrestrial biota to be exposed to PCBs and  
580 OCPs. Two indicators, interim sediment quality guidelines (ISQGs) and probable effect levels (PELs)  
581 which were set in accordance with the specifications described in Canadian Council of Ministers of the  
582 Environment (CCME) (Gaudet et al., 1995) can be used for ecological risk assessment of sediments. A  
583 value less than ISQG indicates no risk, a value greater than PEL indicates a possible risk, and a value

584 between ISQG and PEL represents an occasional impact (Kahkashan et al., 2019). The mean concentrations  
585 of PCBs in sediments at all sites in Table S5 did not exceed the PCBs ISQG value (34.1 ng/g in freshwater  
586 sediments and 21.5 ng/g in marine sediments), except for Lake Ellasjøen (Bjørnøya, Norway) and Ebbaelva  
587 River (Isfjorden, Svalbard), where the average PCBs concentrations were 46.4 ng/g and 582.89 ng/g,  
588 respectively. The concentration of PCBs in Lake Ellasjøen did not exceed the PEL value of PCBs (277  
589 ng/g), but the highest concentration of PCBs in Ebbaelva River (Isfjorden, Svalbard) reached 2800 ng/g,  
590 indicating that there may be a possible ecological risk in this area and further studies on sources of  
591 contaminants and sediment quality improvement programs in the area are required. According to the studies  
592 we reviewed (Table S12), chlordane concentrations were all below the ISQG value (2.26 ng/g), indicating  
593 no biological effect risks. The concentrations of most DDTs did not exceed the ISQG value (4.48 ng/g), but  
594 some exceeded the ISQG value but fell below the PEL value (386.28 ng/g) at sites Ellasjøen Lake (6.9 ng/g,  
595 Norway) and South Yukon Lakes Bennett (5.63 ng/g). The comparison between concentrations of HCHs  
596 and the PEL indicate that there may be an occasional impact in the study area.

597 Canadian Soil Quality Guidelines (SQGs) were developed by integrating both human health and  
598 ecological environmental impacts. The human health soil quality guidelines (SQG<sub>HH</sub>) and the environment  
599 soil quality guidelines (SQG<sub>E</sub>) were formulated respectively, and the lower of the two was taken as the soil  
600 quality guideline value (SQGs). Within this guideline, the agricultural land standard was the highest, so the  
601 agricultural land standard was used for ecological risk evaluation. The mean concentration for PCBs in soil  
602 in Table S4 did not exceed the SQGs value (500 ng/g), but higher concentrations were reported at individual  
603 sampling sites, such as Barentsburg (Russia) (28700 ng/g) and Pyramiden (Russia) (13900 ng/g). The  
604 potential reason was that the sampling sites were located in a coal mining settlement, where the paint (3520  
605 mg/kg) and small capacitors (114,000 mg/kg) had very high concentrations of PCBs, suggesting that these  
606 two were the main sources of local PCBs pollution (Jartun et al., 2009). None of the average DDT soil  
607 concentrations shown in Table S11 were higher than the SQGs value (700 ng/g). The ecological risk  
608 assessment of PCBs and OCPs in soil was also compared with the Chinese Soil Environmental Quality

609 Standard (GB15618-2008) ([Zheng et al., 2022](#)) which is more stringent than the Canadian standard, and  
610 again no ecological risk of PCBs and OCPs was apparent.

611 Even though the average concentration of PCBs in soil shown in Table S4 did not exceed the level I  
612 threshold value (15 ng/g), the highest concentrations at some sampling sites did, although they did not  
613 exceed the secondary criterion (100 ng/g) for agricultural land (except for Barentsburg, Pyramiden, and  
614 Cape Dyer (591 ng/g, Canada). Both HCHs and DDTs in soil did not exceed the first level standards (HCHs  
615 is 10 ng/g, DDTs is 50 ng/g), except for DDTs in Alaskan soil from the United States which reached 19.5  
616 ng/g dw during 1991 ~ 1993 (Table S11). Combining the two methods for assessing the impacts of PCBs  
617 and OCPs on human health and the ecological environment, we found that these two groups presented no  
618 risk on human health and the ecological environment across the Arctic, with the exception of a few sampling  
619 areas that were potentially associated with nearby industrial production.

620 Plasma concentrations of PCBs in people from Arctic regions have been investigated for several  
621 decades as PCB exposure occurs via the food web. Owing to dietary habits similar to those of marine  
622 mammals, plasma levels of PCBs have been consistently high in circumpolar residents, especially in East  
623 Greenland, where PCBs concentrations in blood have exceeded Canadian standards ([Deutch et al., 2007](#)).  
624 Total PCB concentrations in the blood of pregnant females in Nunavik declined by 84% from 1992 to 2017.  
625 However, 10% of the plasma samples of women were above the guideline values in 2017. Despite the  
626 marked reductions in PCBs levels, the exposure to these contaminants remained quite common among  
627 pregnant women in Nunavik ([Adamou et al., 2020](#)). Many studies have confirmed that OCPs can cause  
628 endocrine disorders and immune dysfunction in birds. Some OCPs delayed the time of laying and increased  
629 the number of non-viable eggs ([Miljeteig et al., 2012](#)). In future studies, we should strengthen the  
630 monitoring of new pollutants, such as CUPs, antibiotics and microplastics, establishing concentration  
631 thresholds that may pose risks to better assess their impact on humans and the entire ecosystem.

## 632 8.2. Biotransfer pattern through food web

633 In the Arctic ecological environment, PCBs and OCPs are transferred through the food web,  
634 continuing to accumulate and concentrate. This effect can lead to high concentrations of pollutants in top  
635 predators at higher TLs, ultimately endangering biodiversity as well as human health (Binnington et al.,  
636 2016; Nuijten et al., 2016; Szczybelski et al., 2016). Pedro et al. (2017). Atkinson et al. (2019) found very  
637 high concentrations of PCBs and OCPs ( $\Sigma$ CHLs and  $\Sigma$ DDTs) in biota across Greenland, Denmark and  
638 Russia. The average lipid concentration was 40 to 70  $\mu\text{g/g}$ , with the exposure threshold of organic  
639 halogenated pollutants in Arctic organisms estimated to be at the 1  $\mu\text{g/g}$  level, with the concentration in  
640 killer whales exceeding the threshold by dozens of times. A series of studies have shown that  
641 biomagnification is more evident in polar areas. Verhaert et al. (2017) elucidated that the TMFs for PCBs  
642 in Arctic food webs were higher than those in subtropical aquatic food webs. Kelly et al. (2009) discovered  
643 that in the Arctic marine mammal food web, the concentrations of Perfluorooctane Sulfonamide (PFOSA)  
644 and lipophilic organochlorine compounds increased with the increase of TLs, with PCB153 and *p,p'*-DDE  
645 showing obvious biomagnification. Hobson et al. (2002) studied the *in vivo* transformation behavior of  
646 PCBs, establishing the linear relationship between pollutant concentration and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , demonstrating the  
647 biomagnification process of PCB153 in Arctic food webs. Corsolini and Sarà (2017) built the relationship  
648 between TLs and concentrations, which demonstrated the biomagnification of polar PCB and DDE by  
649 calculating the TMFs.

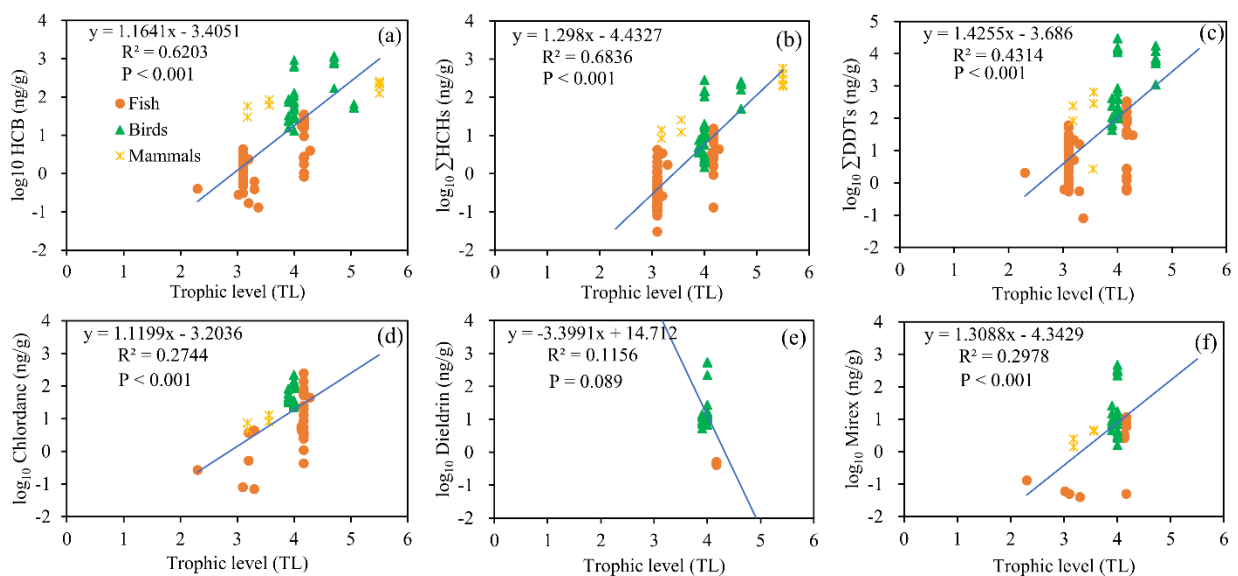
650 Data were collected on concentrations of PCBs and OCPs in Arctic fish, birds, and mammals, as well  
651 as TLs for each species. According to the previous studies (Alava and Gobas, 2016; Fisk et al., 2001;  
652 Hallanger et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2009; Verhaert et al., 2017), the relationship between the  $\log_{10}$ -  
653 transformed compounds concentrations and TLs has been established. In addition, TMFs were calculated  
654 by  $\log_{10} C = a \times \text{TL} + b$ ,  $\text{TMFs} = 10^a$ . As shown in Figs. 7 and Fig. S5, the concentrations of HCB and  
655  $\Sigma$ HCHs increased significantly with TLs, indicating a significant positive linear correlation ( $R^2 = 0.6203$ ,  
656  $R^2 = 0.6836$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), while  $\Sigma$ DDTs increased moderately with TLs, exhibiting a significant relationship



657 ( $R^2 = 0.4314$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). Chlordane, mirex, and  $\sum$ PCBs concentrations also increased with TLs. Although  
658 their  $R^2$  was greater than 0.2 and less than 0.3, their sample sizes were large with significant correlations  
659 between  $\log_{10}$ -transformed concentrations and TLs ( $P < 0.001$ ). The differences in the relationships between  
660 pollutant concentrations and TLs might be caused by the discrepancy of the contaminants physicochemical  
661 properties, the distinction in feeding habits of diverse species of organisms, and the diversity in pollutant  
662 absorption and enrichment capacity (Masset et al., 2019). However, there was no significant relationship  
663 between the concentration of dieldrin and TLs ( $R^2 = 0.1156$ ;  $P = 0.089$ ), which might be due to the limited  
664 concentration data associated with dieldrin and the narrow range of biotrophic levels involved. Calculation  
665 of the TMFs are depicted in Fig. 8, with TMFs all over 1, except for dieldrin, ranging from 6.33 to 26.64.  
666 These data indicate that biological magnification of HCB,  $\sum$ HCHs,  $\sum$ DDTs, chlordane, mirex, and  $\sum$ PCBs  
667 occurred to certain extent. This observation was consistent with the results of previous studies. For example,  
668 Kelly et al. (2008) reported that the TMFs for PCBs in invertebrates, fish, seals, and polar bears varied from  
669 2.9 to 11. Muir et al. (2003) provided the TMFs of OCPs for invertebrates, fish and seals which ranged  
670 between 0.66 to 9.6 (chlordane) and for PCBs between 0.8 to 3.4. The differences in TMFs are due to  
671 varying concentrations of OCPs and PCBs in Arctic fishes, birds, and mammals collected in this review,  
672 which covered a wider range with higher TLs, making it more meaningful to analyze biomagnification  
673 through food webs. This may also be the reason for the relatively high TMF values in this study.  
674 Biomagnification is associated with the interactions of a range of factors. For example, the greenhouse  
675 effect influenced the melting of Arctic glaciers to accelerate the release of POPs into the food web (Amiriaux  
676 et al., 2023). Moreover, biological invasion (Frossard et al., 2023), ecological characteristics of organisms  
677 (respiratory elimination), feeding habits (Masset et al., 2019), the long half-life of POPs, their  
678 biomagnification potential, and so on, all had impact on the process (Evenset et al., 2016). It has also been  
679 discovered that the  $K_{OW}$  and  $K_{OA}$  of compounds also altered biomagnification. The pollutants with lower  
680  $K_{OW}$  and higher  $K_{OA}$  were more likely to bioaccumulate (Moses et al., 2015). Benthos was found to  
681 contribute a lot to higher-trophic level organisms (Amiriaux et al., 2023), and more effort should be made

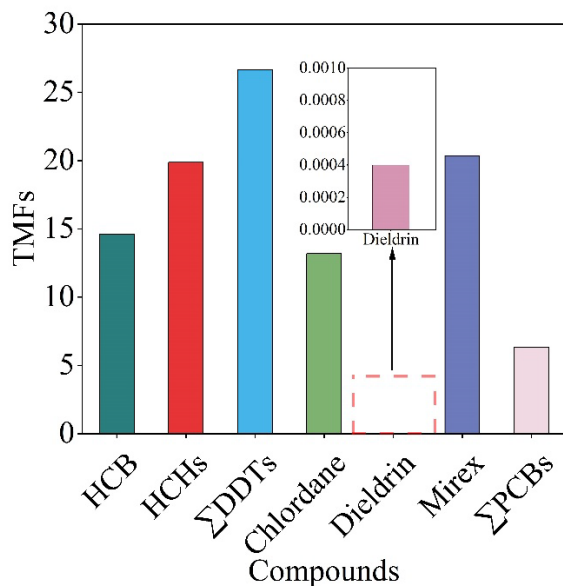
682 to understand the impact of phytoplankton and animals on higher trophic species. [Hallanger et al. \(2011\)](#)  
 683 confirmed that zooplankton are able to magnify POPs, which generated a biological amplification effect as  
 684 a crucial food source for fish. Recent studies have found that bioaccumulation of Microplastics (MPs) was  
 685 found in many zooplankton functional groups in the oceans ([Aytan et al., 2022](#); [Botterell et al., 2019](#);  
 686 [Goswami et al., 2023](#)). [Xu et al. \(2020\)](#) collected 38 species of invertebrates, and suspect microplastics  
 687 were found in 32 species of organisms. MPs could also be vectors of hydrophobic organic pollutants, such  
 688 as PCBs and OCPs owing to their large surface area to volume ratio and lipophilicity. The effects of MPs  
 689 on the enrichment and biotransformation of PCBs and OCPs in Arctic organisms have not been reported,  
 690 and future research on the impact of MPs on PCBs and OCPs in polar regions should consider these factors.

691 The biomagnification of OCPs and PCBs ultimately affects biodiversity and has a profound effect on  
 692 the health of top predators, including humans. Meanwhile, residents, especially those living in polar regions,  
 693 can confront lower health risks by adjusting dietary strategies, such as reducing the consumption of seafood  
 694 from highly contaminated areas. In the future, it is expected to conduct more in-depth research on the Arctic  
 695 ecological environment, put forward more valuable propositions for the conservation of the polar regions  
 696 even the global ecological environment.



697

698 **Fig. 7.** The relationship between  $\log_{10}$ -transformed concentration for selected OCPs (ng/g) and trophic level  
699 (TL) in fishes, birds, and mammals in the Arctic.



700

701 **Fig. 8.** Tropic Magnification Factors (TMFs) for OCPs and PCBs in Arctic trophic webs.

## 702 9. Conclusions and perspectives

703 The presence of POPs in the Arctic has been of global concern in recent decades and a great deal of  
704 effort has been devoted in exploring their environmental behavior. By reviewing a hundred current pieces  
705 of research, the main purpose of this study was to discuss their legacy, sources, environmental behavior and  
706 risks. On a global scale, PCBs and OCPs from Eurasia and Northern America were transferred into the  
707 Arctic areas through air mass movement. However, river runoff inputs, animal migration, glacier melt also  
708 played key roles in specific locations, such as Bering seas of Russia, Norway, and Canada. On the basis of  
709 more than two decades of scientific investigation on PCBs and OCPs in the Arctic atmosphere, it is clear  
710 that PCBs and OCPs concentrations have been gradually declining. After 2015, the concentrations of HCB,  
711 HCHs and chlordane in the atmosphere have reduced by one to several orders of magnitude compared with  
712 those before 2000. In aqueous samples, concentrations of PCBs and OCPs increased dramatically during  
713 non-glacial periods, suggesting that snowmelt water in these countries was the source to nearby rivers.  
714 PCBs were more abundant in Arctic vegetation than in soil and sediment, with concentrations several higher

715 than in the latter. The most abundant OCPs in soil were HCHs and DDTs, although there was no seasonal  
716 trend in concentrations. The contribution of HCHs and DDTs to OCPs was higher in sediments, which were  
717 mainly derived from river runoff. PCBs and OCPs in the Arctic areas undergo dynamic cycling between  
718 air, soil and water with sinks and sources swapping places. Levels of PCBs and OCPs in biota were higher  
719 than those in environmental media, especially in seabirds and mammals with high TLs. Although PCBs and  
720 OCPs are banned, some emerging unintentionally produced PCBs and CUPs are still detected in the Arctic,  
721 which require continuing assessment of their human health and ecological risk.

722 The ecological risk assessment of soil and sediment was carried out by combining the Canadian Soil  
723 Quality Guidelines and Chinese Soil Environmental Quality Standard (GB15618-2008). With the exception  
724 of occasional high concentrations, neither PCBs nor OCPs in soil and sediment exceeded the values of these  
725 two standards, indicating that there was no ecological risk in Arctic soil and sediment. In order to analyze  
726 the biological effects of PCBs and OCPs, the relationship between TLs and  $\log_{10}$ -transformed compound  
727 concentrations in fish, birds and mammals was established. The concentrations of HCB,  $\sum$ HCHs,  $\sum$ DDTs,  
728 chlordane, mirex, and  $\sum$ PCBs increased with TLs, suggesting a significant positive linear correlation. This  
729 confirms the biological magnification of HCB,  $\sum$ HCHs,  $\sum$ DDTs, chlordane, mirex, and  $\sum$ PCBs. The  
730 biomagnification of OCPs and PCBs ultimately disrupts biodiversity and has a profound effect on the health  
731 of top predators, including humans. Consequently, we need to continue to pay close attention to the presence  
732 of PCBs and OCPs residues in polar areas.

733 (1) Laboratory detection methods need to be further developed to cover a wider range of target  
734 compounds. Some UP-PCBs, account for a relatively higher proportions of totals, and some degradation  
735 products have not been fully understood yet, and maybe more toxic. The optimization of analysis methods  
736 and more advanced instrumentation are the prerequisite for accurately determining their concentrations.  
737 Therefore, the analytical capacities need be strengthened in the future.

738 (2) Tissue-specific protein and lipid content as well as many other biochemical processes are of  
739 significance to the toxicokinetics and fate of metabolites and natural products of chlorinated contaminants.

740 Therefore, the selective retention of certain organohalogens in specific tissue/body parts are likely to make  
741 contributions to site-specific toxicological effects on heavily contaminated species such as Arctic white  
742 gull. Detailed studies are required to elucidate processes and mechanisms of macromolecular binding  
743 interactions and accumulation of organohalogens such as OCPs and PCBs in birds and other Arctic species.  
744 In addition, MPs can act as carriers of PCBs and OCPs, and the effects of MPs on the accumulation and  
745 biotransformation of PCBs and OCPs in Arctic organisms has not yet been reported, and future research on  
746 the combined effects of some new environmental factors, such as MPs, on PCBs and OCPs in polar regions  
747 is required.

748 (3) It is important to set up concentration thresholds for individual compounds and mixtures for the  
749 protection of polar ecosystems. For one thing, there is a necessity to identify and refine concentration  
750 thresholds for biologically related health effects for polar wildlife and fish. For another thing, there is a  
751 necessity to better characterize the cumulative impacts and interaction thresholds for contaminant exposure.  
752 This facilitates a more accurate and comprehensive assessment of the ecological risks arising from  
753 contaminants.

754 (4) It is important to clarify the relationship among the food web with high trophic position species  
755 and pollutants, to use and optimize multiple models to quantify the relationship between the two more  
756 accurately. Factors that affect biomagnification need to be investigated in more detail and with the  
757 ecological dynamics of organic contaminants . In addition, the effects of pollutant impacts on individual  
758 organisms, species groups and communities need to be assessed to provide an understanding of the overall  
759 health of birds and mammal populations to protect biodiversity and human health.

#### 760 **Declaration of competing interest**

761 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests.

#### 762 **Acknowledgment**

763 This study was jointly supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (22076112 and  
764 21976045), and China Scholarship Council (CSC) Scholarship (202308610123).

765 **Appendix**

766 Supporting Information to this article can be found online at.....

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