

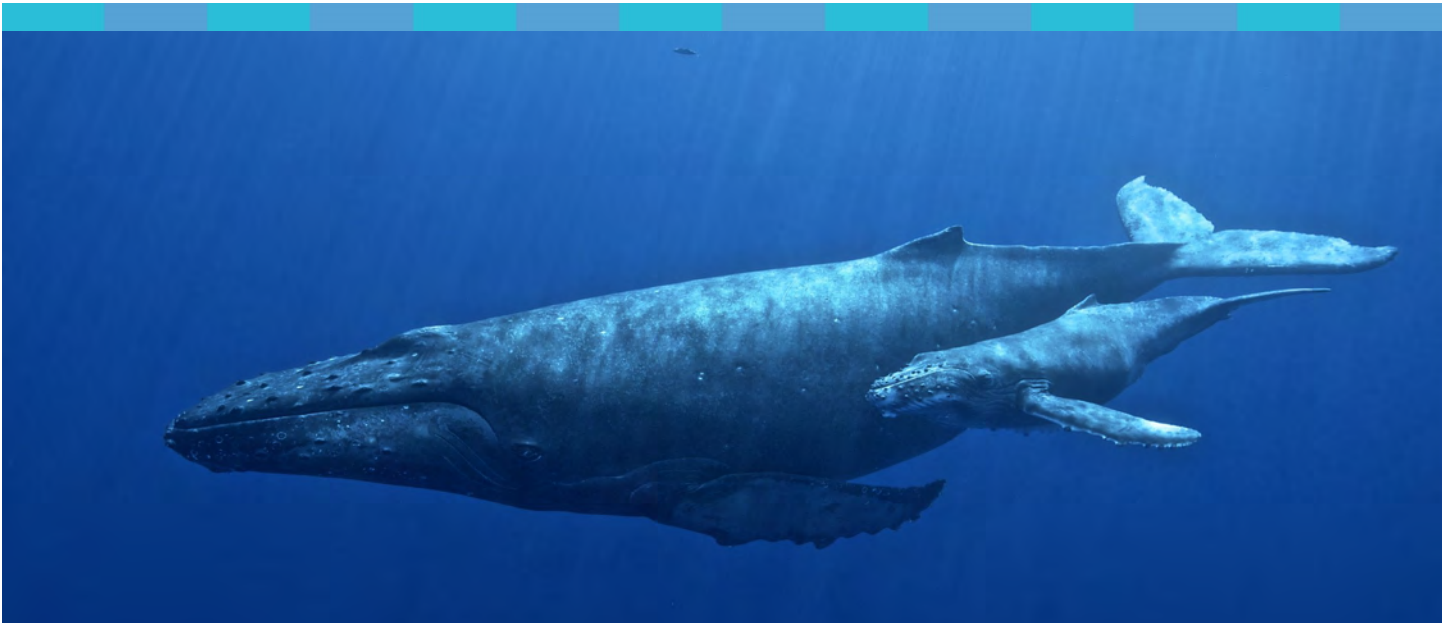
Climate Change Impacts

Hawaiian Islands Humpback Whale National Marine Sanctuary

July 2020

Photo: NOAA Permit #15240





A humpback whale and her calf swim through sanctuary waters. *Photo: Ed Lyman/NOAA Permit #14682-37906*

Our Changing Ocean

The impacts of [climate change](#) are intensifying both globally and locally, threatening America's physical, social, economic, and environmental [well-being](#).¹ [National marine sanctuaries and marine national monuments](#) must contend with [rising water temperatures](#) and [sea levels](#), water that is [more acidic](#) and [contains less oxygen](#), [shifting species](#), and [altered weather patterns and storms](#).¹ While all of our sanctuaries and marine national monuments must face these global effects of climate change, each is affected differently.

Hawaiian Islands Humpback Whale National Marine Sanctuary

[Hawaiian Islands Humpback Whale National Marine Sanctuary](#) was designated by Congress in 1992 to protect North Pacific humpback whales and their habitat. Covering 1,400 square miles of shallow waters in the main Hawaiian Islands, the focus of the sanctuary is on the protection and monitoring of the Hawaiian Discrete Population Segment (HDPS) of North Pacific humpback whales. The sanctuary encompasses the main breeding grounds of these whales, which migrate to Southeast Alaska, British Columbia, and other parts of the North Pacific to feed during the spring and summer months.



Increasing Water Temperatures

As global temperatures rise, the ocean absorbs much of the heat. The average ocean temperature is [rising worldwide](#),¹ and recent water temperatures in the sanctuary are the highest on record. In fact, the average water temperature of the Hawaiian Islands is projected to increase by as much as 5°F by 2100.^{2,3} Further, the waters of the HPDS' Alaskan feeding grounds have been warming by 1.25°F per decade, one of the fastest warming rates on Earth.^{4,5}

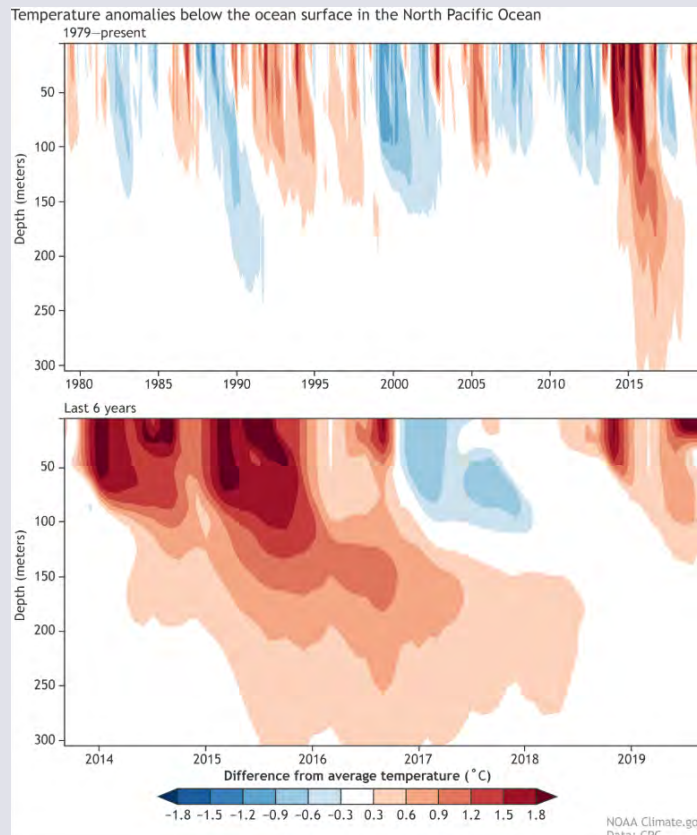
While humpback whales are unlikely to be directly impacted by increased temperatures, there is evidence they are being affected by temperature-driven changes to their prey. Warmer waters reduce [upwelling](#), decreasing productivity and leading to fewer [krill](#),^{4,6} a primary prey item. Increasing water temperatures have also allowed [less nutritious zooplankton](#) to shift northwards into the feeding grounds, reducing the energy available to the food web and the whales.⁷⁻⁹



The humpback whales in the sanctuary feed off the coast of Alaska, exposing them to climatic changes in these northern waters. *Photo: NOAA*



Case Study 1—A trifecta of warming waters



Subsurface temperature anomalies were averaged in the North Pacific Ocean. Photo: Climate.gov based on figure provided by Caihong Wen

The 2013-2018 decline in humpback whale sightings corresponded to a “trifecta” of warm water events in their Alaskan feeding grounds.⁴ In 2013, a marine heat wave known as “[The Blob](#)” formed in the North Pacific. The Blob persisted until 2016 and resulted in water temperatures more than 5°F above normal.⁴ The next year, in 2014, the large-scale climate cycle known as the [Pacific Decadal Oscillation \(PDO\)](#) switched to a pronounced positive phase.⁴ A positive PDO is associated with higher ocean temperatures and weakened [upwelling](#), which impacts the forage fish that whales depend on by reducing biological productivity.⁴ Finally, a strong El Niño event began in 2015 and persisted through 2016, further encouraging warmer waters in the Alaskan feeding grounds. While neither the El Niño nor the shift in the PDO can be definitively tied to climate change, climate models suggest both of these processes will be altered, with El Niño becoming more extreme.^{16,17} Further, climatological modelling suggests that The Blob could not have formed without climate change.⁷ A reduction in food due to this trifecta may have reduced the ecosystem carrying capacity of the HDPS, resulting in the observed declines in whale sightings and health.⁴



There is some evidence that these effects of warmer waters on prey may already be impacting the HDPS. Since 2013, emaciated whales have been reported in Alaska and Hawai‘i¹⁰ and sightings of humpback whales and mother-calf pairs in Hawai‘i fell by as much as 76% between 2013 and 2018.⁴ Scientists suggest this decline was triggered by a “trifecta” of warm water events: the 2013 formation of a persistent marine heat wave called “[The Blob](#),” a switch to a positive phase in the [Pacific Decadal Oscillation \(PDO\)](#) in 2014, and the strong 2015-2016 El Niño⁴ (Case Study 1). These events created water temperatures up to 5°F above normal in the Alaska feeding grounds of the HDPS, negatively impacting the prey of humpback whales.⁴

Warmer temperatures are also expected to lead to larger and longer lasting [harmful algal blooms \(HABs\)](#). HABs release toxins dangerous to whales and their prey, and have been implicated in [mass whale mass mortality events](#).¹¹⁻¹⁴ HABs that spread along the North American west coast during The Blob may have contributed to declining whale sightings, either by directly impacting whales or by reducing prey.

The sanctuary is also home to vibrant coral reefs. Ocean heat waves, when combined with increasing average temperatures, can cause corals to become stressed and expel the [algae](#) that provides their food. This phenomenon, known as “[bleaching](#)” because corals appear white due to the loss of algae, can lead to death. Reefs in the sanctuary could experience yearly bleaching by 2045¹⁵ with major consequences for sanctuary ecosystems.



Corals in the sanctuary are expected to be exposed to an increasing number of bleaching events. Photo: NOAA



Case Study 2—Climate Change, Humans, and Humpback Whales



Interactions with humans, such as entanglement, may increase as the climate changes. Photo: Ed Lyman NOAA/MMHSRP Permit #932-1905

Interactions with humans are the primary cause of whale injury and death.¹¹ Ship strikes and entanglement in fishing gear can injure and kill whales, while human-caused noise can interfere with communication and cause stress or injury.¹¹

The increasing navigability of the Arctic¹⁸ is likely to result in greater human activity in the feeding grounds of the HDPS.¹¹ Increased shipping could lead to more ship strikes¹⁹ while noise associated with heightened human activity could disturb or injure whales.¹¹ Further, as temperatures rise, some valuable fish stocks are expected to shift northward, increasing fishing pressure and the risk that whales will become entangled in fishing gear.¹¹ Changes in whale behavior due to

climate change could also raise the risk of entanglement. During [The Blob](#) marine heatwave, changes in the distribution of prey due to altered [upwelling](#) in parts of the North American west coast drove humpback whales closer to shore to feed and resulted in record numbers of reported entanglements in the region.²⁰ Entanglement risk was further exacerbated by a change in the timing of fisheries due to a [harmful algal bloom \(HAB\)](#) fueled by The Blob, which led to an increased overlap between fishery and whale feeding seasons.²⁰ Separately, whale watching may increase as climate change makes other forms of ocean tourism less viable.¹¹ Whale watching can cause harmful stress if whales are crowded or harassed, particularly in breeding areas like Hawai‘i, where calves and mothers are especially vulnerable to increased stress and harassment.¹¹

While human impacts can be mitigated to an extent within the sanctuary, humpback whales are wide-ranging and susceptible to changes in human behavior throughout their range. This is especially true of their feeding grounds as increasing industrial interest in the nearby Arctic has and will continue to increase.¹⁹



A team of specially trained NOAA-led responders work to free a whale entangled in gear. Photo: R. Finn/NOAA MMHSRP Permit #932-1905



Ocean Acidification

About 30% of the carbon dioxide (CO₂) released into the atmosphere is absorbed by the ocean²¹ causing a chemical reaction that leads to ocean waters becoming more acidic. The ocean has become 30% more acidic since the beginning of the industrial revolution.^{22,23} Due to its chemistry, such as particularly low levels of dissolved minerals like calcium, the ocean water of Hawai‘i may be more vulnerable to acidification than other parts of the Pacific.²⁴ The chemical properties of the high-latitude waters where the HDPS feeds also make those waters vulnerable to acidification.^{25,26} Upwelling, which fuels blooms of prey in the Alaskan feeding grounds, also brings acidic deep water to the surface, further increasing the susceptibility of this area to acidification.²⁶

While ocean acidification is unlikely to directly impact whales, they are expected to be indirectly affected through their prey. Acidification in Alaskan waters is projected to negatively impact organisms at the base of the food chain such as phytoplankton with stony shells and pteropods, small sea snails which are highly vulnerable to ocean acidification.^{1,19,27}

Pteropods are an important component of the food web in Alaskan waters and a critical food source for the forage fish on which humpbacks depend.^{1,19} Acidification may also directly impact prey species. The reproduction of a sister species of sand lance, an important HDPS prey species, is highly susceptible to acidification.²⁸ Similarly, krill, a vital prey for the HDPS, display reduced reproductive success under acidic conditions.²⁹ If the populations of these or other important prey species are reduced due to ocean acidification, it could have large impacts on humpback whales. In fact, acidification has already been identified as a possible indirect cause of the nutritional stress and reduced reproduction observed in the HDPS from 2013-2018.¹⁰



In addition to humpback whales, many other species in the sanctuary are impacted by climate change. Species IDs (top to bottom): Hawaiian monk seal, spinner dolphins, green sea turtle. Photo: Ed Lyman/NOAA Permit #15240; Claire Fackler/NOAA; Ed Lyman/NOAA



Rising Ocean Waters

Numerous factors contribute to [rising global sea levels](#) including melting glaciers and [thermal expansion](#) of seawater. Differences in factors such as currents and the Earth's gravitational field cause sea levels to rise at different rates in different locations.^{1,30} In the next century, Hawai'i is expected to experience large changes in sea level with a potential rise of 3.2 ft by 2060 and 8 ft by 2100.^{1,31} While rising waters will not impact humpbacks, they pose a threat to cultural heritage sites within the sanctuary and throughout the Hawaiian Islands.

A historical fishpond, named [Kō'ie'ie Loko I'a](#),

fronts the sanctuary property on Maui. This and other fishponds ([loko i'a](#)) are often brackish water and were built and maintained by native Hawaiians to naturally raise and harvest fish. Many loko i'a were built over 500 years ago, providing an important physical and cultural tie to the past. It is estimated that at the establishment of sustained contact with Europeans in 1778, there were almost 500 loko i'a across the islands, with the potential to produce over 900 metric tons of fish per year.³²⁻³⁴ Now, only about 50 of these ponds remain,³²⁻³⁴ and they are threatened by sea level rise.³⁵⁻³⁷ Rising waters have the potential to overtop loko i'a, causing damage to the walls and salinizing the brackish waters. Even those loko i'a that are not directly overtopped could be impacted by salinization of freshwater springs which are vital to their proper functioning.

Kō'ie'ie Loko I'a (Maui) and other ancient Hawaiian fish ponds are threatened by sea level rise and other impacts of climate change. *Photo: NOAA*

Changing Weather and Storms

Weather patterns around the world are being altered by climate change. Changes to wind and evaporation impact rainfall while rising ocean temperatures fuel stronger storms.^{1,38} While the number of factors impacting weather in Hawai'i make changes difficult to predict, there is evidence that rainfall will decrease^{1,39,40} but that extreme rainfall events will occur more frequently.¹ Periods of drought could lead to the salinization of historic fishponds ([loko i'a](#)) while extreme rain events may cause coastal erosion, threatening their structural integrity.^{36,37} Hawai'i is also projected to experience an increased number of tropical storms and hurricanes, which are also expected to be stronger.^{41,42} While these storms generally have little effect on whales, storm surge, wind, and waves can damage loko i'a and coral reefs in the sanctuary.



The coastline, beaches, and cultural resources of the sanctuary are threatened by sea level rise and coastal erosion. *Photo: Matt McIntosh/NOAA*

In the Alaskan feeding grounds, models project increases in rainfall and glacial runoff.^{1,42} These impacts have been linked to declines in [herring](#), an important prey species for humpback whales.^{4,43} Further declines due to projected rainfall and runoff could have indirect impacts on the nutrition of the HDPS. In addition, increased runoff can bring nutrients from land, potentially fueling [HABs](#) and other algae blooms.^{44,45}



A Hope for the Future

The yearly and seasonal migrations of humpback whales suggests an ability to respond to environmental variation and that they may possess some potential for an adaptive response to climate change, such as migrations to areas that contain more prey if traditional feeding areas become less productive.¹⁶ Thus, while increasing temperatures, ocean acidification, and other climate change impacts threaten humpback whales through changes to their prey, it is possible that if we sustain areas with minimal climate and non-climate stressors, these animals may be able to successfully respond and adapt to life under future climate conditions.

Reducing these non-climate stressors is one of the many ways that NOAA is working to address the impacts of climate change on humpback whales and other resources. Sanctuary managers work with researchers around the globe to track and understand changes in the humpback whale population. This work increases our understanding of how whales are impacted by climate change and may reveal ways in which we can help them adapt to these challenges. NOAA is also active in investigating the ways climate change impacts other resources including cultural resources, such as historic fishponds ([loko i'a](#)), and the natural resources that make up the ecosystem of the sanctuary. Further, sanctuary staff, managers, and volunteers actively participate in climate change outreach and education throughout the Hawaiian Islands.



While humpback whales face many challenges from climate change, their ecology suggests they may be resilient to climate impacts *Photo: NOAA Permit #14097*



Photo: NOAA Permit #15240

Citations

1. USGCRP (2018) Impacts, Risks, and Adaptation in the United States: Fourth National Climate Assessment, Volume II. *U.S. Global Change Research Program*
2. Wagner & Polhemus (2016) Climate change vulnerability assessment for the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument. *Marine Sanctuaries Conservation Series*
3. IPCC (2014) Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and sectoral aspects. Contribution of working group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. *Cambridge University Press*
4. Cartwright et al. (2019) Fluctuating reproductive rates in Hawaii's humpback whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*, reflect recent climate anomalies in the North Pacific. *R. Soc. Open sci*
5. Richter-Menge et al. (2017) Arctic report card 2017. <https://www.arctic.noaa.gov/Report-Card>
6. Fergusson et al. (2017) Long-term zooplankton and temperature trends in Icy Strait, Southeast Alaska. In: *Ecosystem considerations 2017, status of the Gulf of Alaska marine ecosystem, stock assessment and fishery evaluation report*
7. Walsh et al. (2018) The high latitude marine heat wave of 2016 and its impacts on Alaska. In: *Explaining Extreme Events of 2016 from a Climate Perspective*
8. Kintisch (2015) 'The Blob' invades Pacific, flummoxing climate experts. *Science*
9. Peterson et al. (2016) The blob is gone but has morphed into a strongly positive PDO/SST pattern. *PICES press*
10. NOAA (2019) Trends in humpback whale (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) abundance, distribution, and health in Hawaii and Alaska: Report from a meeting held on November 27–28, 2019. Prepared by NOAA National Ocean Service
11. Alther et al. (2010) Forecasting the consequences of climate-driven shifts in human behavior on cetaceans. *Mar. Pol.*
12. Geraci et al. (1989) Humpback whales fatally poisoned by dinoflagellate toxin. *Can. J. Fish. Aquat. Sci.*
13. Geraci et al. (1999) Marine mammal die-offs. In: *Conservation and management of marine mammals*
14. Domingo et al. (2002) Marine mammal mass mortalities. In: *Marine mammals: Biology and conservation*
15. Hoodonk et al. (2016) Local-scale projections of coral reef futures and implications of the Paris Agreement. *Sci. Rep.*
16. Cai et al. (2014) Increasing frequency of extreme El Niño events due to greenhouse warming. *Nat. Clim.*
17. Zhang & Delworth (2016) Simulated response of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation to climate change. *J. Clim.*
18. Stephenson et al. (2013) Projected 21st-century changes to Arctic marine access. *Clim. Change*
19. Thomas et al. (2016) Status of the world's baleen whales. *Mar. Mammal Sci*
20. Santora et al. (2020) Habitat compression and ecosystem shifts as potential links between marine heatwave and record whale entanglements. *PLoS One*
21. DeVries et al. (2017) Recent increase in oceanic carbon uptake driven by weaker upper-ocean overturning. *Nature*
22. Doney et al. (2012) Climate change on marine ecosystems. *Annu. Rev. Mar. Sci.*
23. Haugan & Drange (1996) Effects of CO₂ on the ocean environment. *Energy Conv. Manag.*
24. NOAA (2018) US coral reef monitoring data summary 2018. *NOAA Coral Reef Conservation Program. NOAA Technical Memorandum CRCP*,
25. Fabry et al. (2009) Ocean acidification at high latitudes: The bellwether. *Oceanography*
26. Mathis et al. (2015) Ocean acidification in the surface waters of the Pacific-Arctic boundary regions. *Oceanography*
27. Bednaršek et al. (2016) Vulnerability of pteropod (*Limacina helicina*) to ocean acidification: Shell dissolution occurs despite an intact organic layer. *Deep Sea Res. PT II*
28. Murray et al. (2019) High sensitivity of a keystone forage fish to elevated CO₂ and temperature. *Conserv. Physiol.*
29. McLaskey et al. (2016) Development of *Euphasia pacifica* (krill) larvae is impaired under pCO₂ levels currently observed in the Northeast Pacific. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.*
30. Slagen et al. (2014) Projecting twenty-first century regional sea-level changes. *Clim. Change*
31. Sweet et al. (2017) Global and regional sea level rise scenarios for the United States. *Tech. Rep. NOS CO-OPS 083*
32. McCoy et al. (2017) Large-scale climatic effects on traditional Hawaiian fishpond aquaculture. *PLoS One*
33. Cobb (1902) The Commercial Fisheries of the Hawaiian Islands. U.S. Fish Commission Report for 1901. *Government Printing Office*
34. Keala et al. (2007) Loko I'a. *College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawai'i*
35. Hawai'i Climate Change Mitigation and Adaptation Commission (2017) Hawai'i sea level rise vulnerability and adaptation report. Prepared by Tetra Tech, Inc. and the State of Hawai'i Department of Land and Natural Resources, Office of Conservation and Coastal Lands
36. Kane et al. (2012) Vulnerability Assessment of Hawai'i's Cultural Assets Attributable to Erosion Using Shoreline Trend Analysis Techniques. *J. Coast. Res.*
37. Marrack & O'Grady (2014) Predicting impacts of sea level rise for cultural and natural resources in five National Park units on the Island of Hawai'i. *Technical Report No. 188. Pacific Cooperative Studies Unit, University of Hawai'i.*
38. Knutson et al. (2019) Tropical cyclones and climate change assessment: Part II. Projected response to anthropogenic warming. *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*
39. Timm et al. (2015) Statistical downscaling of rainfall changes in Hawai'i based on CMIP5 global model projections. *J. Geophys. Res.*
40. Zhang et al. (2016) Dynamical downscaling of the climate for the Hawaiian Islands part II: Projections for the late twenty-first century. *J. Clim.*
41. Sugi et al. (2017) Projections of future changes in the frequency of intense tropical cyclones. *Clim. Dyn.*
42. Sun et al. (2015) Regional Surface Climate Conditions in CMIP3 and CMIP5 for the United States: Differences, Similarities, and Implications for the U.S. National Climate Assessment. *NOAA Technical Report NESDIS 144*
43. Ward et al. (2017) Evaluating signals of oil spill impacts, climate, and species interactions in Pacific herring and Pacific salmon populations in Prince William Sound and Copper River, Alaska. *PLoS One*
44. Heisler et al. (2008) Eutrophication and harmful algal blooms: A scientific consensus. *Harmful Algae*
45. Paerl & Scott (2010) Throwing fuel in the fire: Synergistic effects of excessive nitrogen inputs and global warming on harmful algal blooms. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*

To view the full report online visit: <https://sanctuaries.noaa.gov/management/climate/impact-profiles.html>