PU'UHONUA A PLACE OF SANCTUARY

The Cultural and Biological Significance of the proposed expansion for the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument

June 2016



"As reserves grow in size, the diversity of life surviving within them also grows. As reserves are reduced in area, the diversity within them declines to a mathematically predictable degree swiftly – often immediately and, for a large fraction, forever."

--E.O. Wilson

Contents

| Summary | 4 |
|---|----|
| Background | 5 |
| Proposed Expansion of the Monument | 8 |
| Unique People, Culture, and History | 11 |
| Role of NWHI in Hawaiian Renaissance | 13 |
| Papahānaumokuākea as a Cultural Seascape | 15 |
| Modern History | 18 |
| Ecosystems & Biodiversity of Proposed Expansion | 19 |
| Seabirds | 22 |
| Sharks | 25 |
| Tuna | 27 |
| Whales and Dolphins | 30 |
| SeaTurtles | 33 |
| Coral Reefs | 34 |
| Seamounts | 36 |
| Threats Facing the NWHI | 38 |
| Commercial Fishing | 40 |
| Deep Sea Mining | 44 |
| Plastics | 46 |
| ClimateChange | 49 |
| Economics of Marine Protected Areas | 52 |
| Benefits of Marine Protected Areas | 52 |
| Economic Impacts of Papahānaumokuākea Expansion | 54 |
| Conclusion | 56 |
| References | 58 |

[•] Summary

- The Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument was declared in 2006 and was at the time the largest marine protected area in the world.
- There is an opportunity for the Obama Administration to use the Antiquities Act to expand the area of
 protection nearly 5-fold, thus creating the world's largest marine protected area and leaving a cultural
 and environmental legacy for future generations.
- Protections would eliminate or reduce impacts of present and future extractive and anthropogenic activities such as commercial fishing as well as those posed by the imminent growth of seabed mining.
- The Northwestern Hawaiian Islands are considered sacred to Native Hawaiians and provides the best contemporary approach to help promote protection of the area.
- The waters around these islands must also be seen as cultural seascapes that have meaning and significance in the formation and perpetuation of Hawaiian and oceanic identity.
- Native Hawaiians genealogically link to all resources as biocultural resources and the region provides the best spiritual connection and experience for practitioners.
- The ocean waters in this region were part of a 400-500 year voyaging sphere in ancient times, and continue to be vital to the survival of the traditional practice of wayfinding and voyaging.
- The Office of Hawaiian Affairs, the formal institution representing the Native Hawaiian people, has requested to be elevated as a co-trustee, giving them an equal role in resource management of the monument.
- The remains of the Battle of Midway, and most notably the wreck of the aircraft carrier USS Yorktown, lie in the area of proposed expansion.
- Key ecosystems that would benefit from expansion include coral reefs, seamounts, pelagic areas, guyots, and abyssal seabed communities.
- Populations of seabirds, turtles, whales, predators such as sharks and tuna, and bottom life associated with seamounts and hydrothermal vents would benefit from the expansion.
- Marine protected areas are most effective when they are large, remote, strongly protected, protected for a long time, and enforced. Expanding the monument would make it even more effective at conserving wildlife, improving ecosystem health, and increasing climate change resiliency.
- The area being proposed for expansion is not a major fishing ground according to publicly available data from NOAA. In fact, log books show that the effort in the region has been dramatically decreasing over the last five years.
- Hawaii longline catch quotas are set by the negotiations that take place at the Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, not the placement of marine protected areas. An expanded monument simply displaces fishing effort and will not reduce the overall catch for the Hawaii longline fishery. In fact, the expansion of the monument would therefore have no or only minimal negative impacts on the Hawaiian and US economy.

Background

The Obama Administration is building towards a legacy of ocean protection unrivaled by any previous president in American history. One of the first acts of his administration was to begin the development of a National Ocean Policy, which began implementation in 2013. In 2014, the president used his authority under the Antiquities Act of 1906 to expand three of the five marine protected areas managed collectively as the Pacific Remote Islands Marine National Monument, enlarging the area under protection from 225,000 square kilometers to 1.2 million square kilometers. The president has the opportunity today to build upon these earlier decisions by expanding the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument, thus creating the world's largest contiguous protected area before he leaves office and protecting more of the Earth's surface than any man or woman in history.

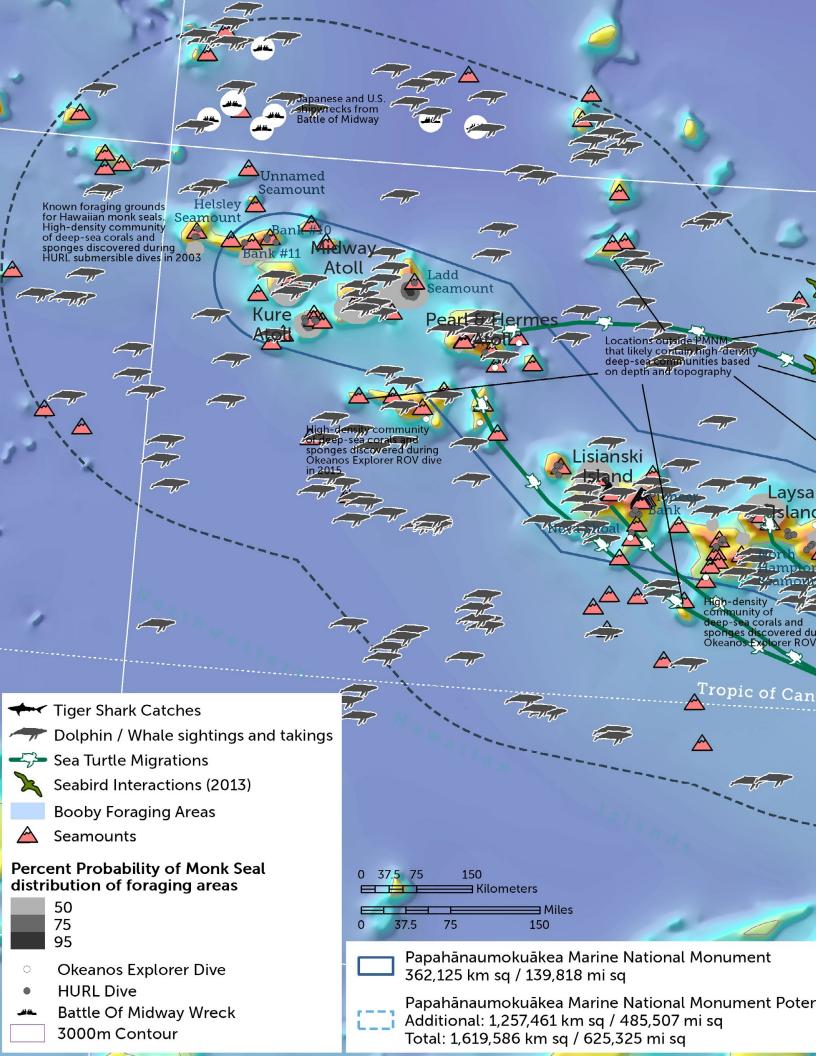
The Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument (PMNM) is a U.S. National Monument and UNESCO World Heritage site encompassing 363,000 square kilometers of ocean waters, an area about the size of Germany. The monument currently includes ten islands and atolls that are internationally recognized for their cultural and natural importance.

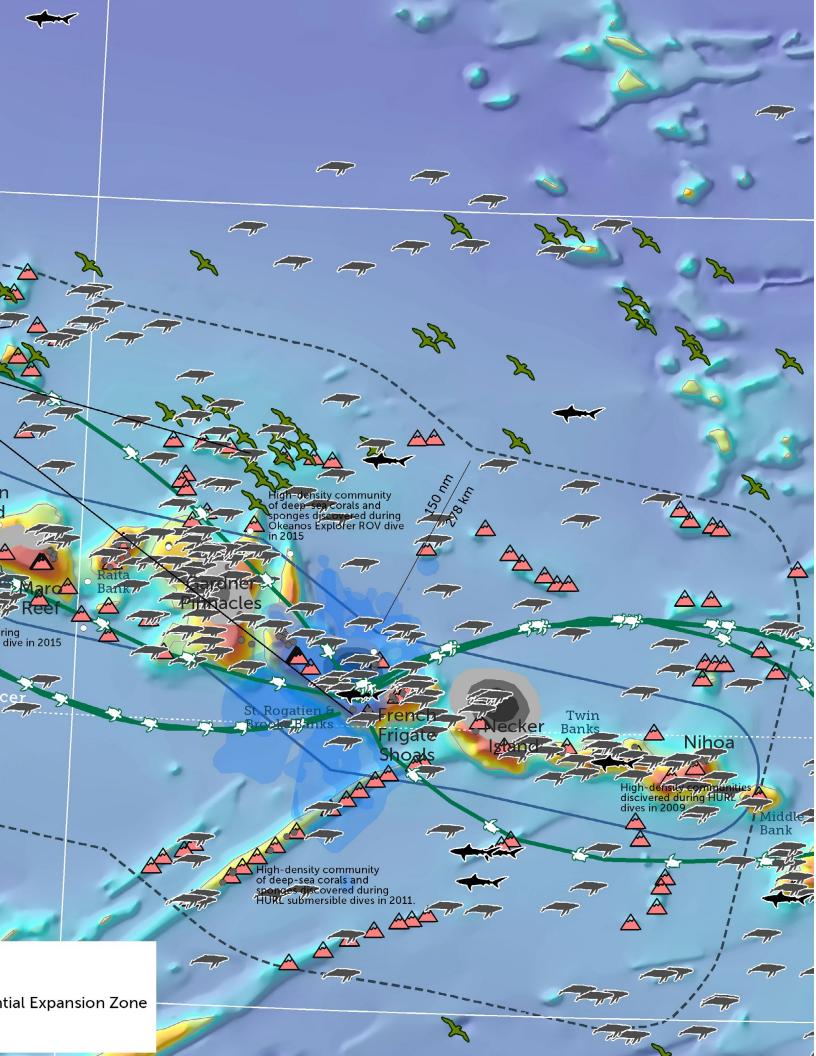
Established by Presidential Proclamation 8031 on June 15, 2006 under the authority of the Antiquities Act (16 U.S.C. 431-433), the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument commemorates the union of two Hawaiian ancestors – Papahānaumoku and Wākea – who gave rise to the Hawaiian Archipelago, the taro plant, and the Hawaiian people. Prior to Papahānaumokuākea, no other ocean territory had been set aside for protection at such a significant level. Upon its creation in 2006, Papahānaumokuākea became the largest strongly protected marine reserve in the world, wherein all commercial activity is prohibited and only light recreational and subsistence fishing is allowed¹.

The monument marked such a critical moment for ocean conservation that it instigated an international movement to create large, strongly-protected marine reserves around the world. As such, the original monument was followed by the establishment of nine marine reserves that are currently larger in size.

The monument area boasts a unique bipartisan conservation legacy. Six U.S. presidents have taken action to protect the unique ecosystems and wildlife of the Northwest Hawaiian Islands. Starting in 1909, President Theodore Roosevelt declared the Hawaiian Islands Bird Reservation to stop sea bird poachers. President Franklin D. Roosevelt broadened the protections to all species in 1940 and formed the Hawaiian Islands National Wildlife Refuge. President Lyndon B. Johnson provided additional protections in 1967. In 1988, President Ronald Reagan created the Midway Atoll National Wildlife Refuge. In 2000, President Bill Clinton established the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands Coral Reef Ecosystem Reserve, creating the largest single nature preserve in the United States. Most recently, President George W. Bush designated the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument in 2006.

When Papahānaumokuākea was established in 2006, it was a groundbreaking idea that management of a large scale protected area could recognize both natural resources and cultural resources as one and the same. The success of this approach has inspired other native peoples, most recently, the Rapa Nui of Easter Island and Austral Islanders of French Polynesia, that modern management of the ocean can be strengthened if it is informed by traditional approaches and values.





[•]Proposed Expansion of the Monument

The Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument is described as including the healthiest and least disturbed coral reefs in U.S. waters and is considered the largest tropical seabird rookery on the planet. UNESCO's review of the area identified it as one of the largest and most significant strongholds of tropical seabirds in the world and called the region a global biodiversity conservation priority².



This document lays out the cultural and scientific justification for President Barack Obama to use his authority under the Antiquities Act of 1906 to expand the monument from its current borders out to the full extent of the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) surrounding the Northwest Hawaiian Islands (NWHI). This document makes the argument that the existing borders do not allow for the proper care and management for populations of migratory birds, fish, mammals, and sea turtles, and newly discovered and little understood deep sea ecosystems.

The urgency to expand protection of the ocean stems from overwhelming scientific evidence that overfishing, climate change, ocean acidification, pollution, and development are pushing the ocean toward a point at which it will no longer provide the life-sustaining services upon which we have grown dependent.

Currently only about 2% of the ocean is strongly (all commercial activity prohibited, only light recreational and subsistence fishing allowed) or fully protected (no extractive activities allowed)³. The monument, located in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, currently strongly protects 363,000 square kilometers of ocean waters, which is about 14 percent of the US EEZ surrounding Hawaii⁴. A recent scientific re-evaluation of coverage targets for marine protected areas showed that protection of at least 30 percent of each marine habitat globally is necessary to achieve conservation goals and broader management targets⁵. One leading scientist recommends as much as 50 percent⁴. Expanding the monument to include the entire U.S. EEZ surrounding the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands would achieve or exceed this 30% goal for the United States, and increase the global strongly protected area up to about 2.3%.

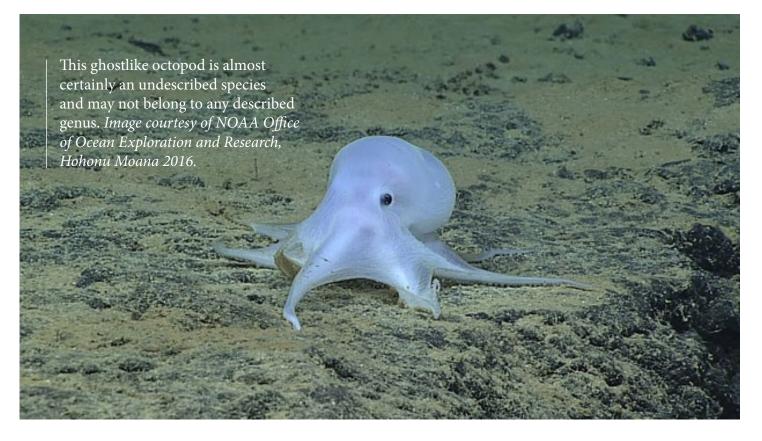
The monument and the current boundaries of the protected area have played a critical role in the protection of the important cultural sites, the integration of science and culture, and establishment of a framework for Native Hawaiian input on management⁷. The proposed expansion of the monument will increase protection to the larger sacred area, acknowledge the region for its important role as a cultural seascape, help protect navigation and voyaging traditions, and for the first time give an equal role in resource management to Native Hawaiians .

Additionally, an expansion of the monument would protect potentially dozens of wrecks from 19th Century whaling and several wars, most notably the wreck of the aircraft carrier *USS Yorktown*.

The expansion will result in a nearly five-fold increase in the area of protection that includes key ecosystems including coral reefs, seamounts, pelagic areas, guyots (flat seamounts), abyssal benthic communities, and organisms ranging from microscopic phytoplankton and zooplankton to large tuna and marine mammals.

In addition to protecting species and ecosystems that are known, expansion will also protect those which are yet to be discovered. It is estimated that ninety-one percent of all species in the ocean are unknown to science⁸. Globally, on both land and sea, scientists have identified 2 million species to date, but as many as 8.7 million are thought to exist, with as many as 2.2 million in the seas alone. Many of these discoveries are likely to be found in the proposed expansion.

New species are discovered nearly every time scientists conduct surveys in the NWHI. Scientific expeditions between 2013 and 2015 yielded several new species of fish, invertebrates, and algae¹⁰, including four algae species found at depths greater than those typically known for marine algae¹¹. And in 2016, scientists discovered a new species of octopus that has yet to be described and assigned a scientific name¹². Scientists have dubbed it the "Casper" octopus, after the popular American cartoon character.



The expansion will vastly increase the oceanographic habitats and populations of seabirds, fish, marine mammals, and sea turtles that are protected from commercial fishing, as well as decrease the distance from other protected areas. Enhancing the survival of migratory fish increases the marine resource capital from which fishermen can draw the interest in a sustainable manner.

The exanded monument will also build resilience against the effects of climate change, which the Obama Administration has identified as a major threat to National Security¹³. The expanded monument will serve as a refuge for species faced with warming and increasingly acidic seas^{14,15}. Furthermore, scientists have suggested that attempts to protect coral reefs from the impacts of climate change by solely reducing emissions have little impact unless protected areas are also established¹⁶.

A 2014 article published in Nature concluded that the effectiveness of marine protected areas (MPAs) yields the greatest conservation benefits when they are large, remote, strongly protected, protected for a long time, and enforced.¹⁷ The authors found that the conservation benefits of marine reserves "increase exponentially" with the accumulation of these features. The most effective reserves had twice as many large fish, five times as much fish biomass, and fourteen times more shark biomass than fished areas. By comparison, those with just one or two of the essential characteristics were ecologically indistinguishable from fished areas.

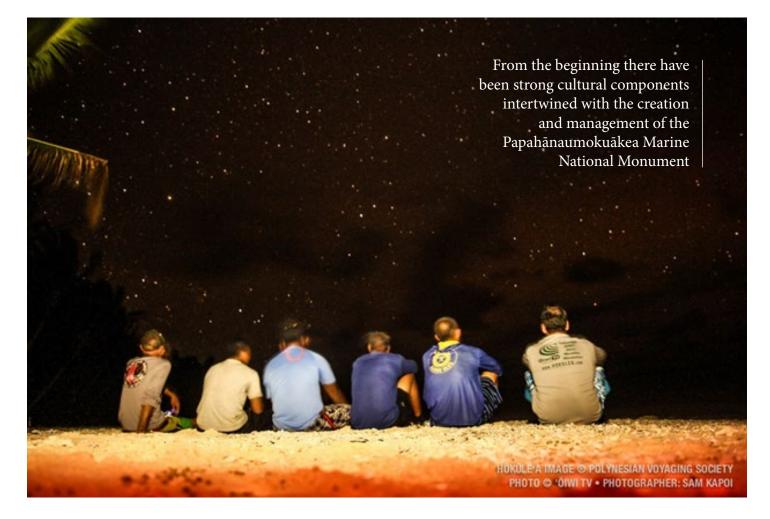
With the ten year anniversary of the monument declaration occurring in 2016, PMNM meets or exceeds most of these effectiveness criteria, but science shows that bigger is better. There is now an opportunity to expand the existing protection, which will benefit the cultural resources so important to the identity of Hawaiian people, and to ensure the long-term health of this vital ocean habitat and the extraordinary diversity of species that rely on it.

⁴Unique People, Culture, and History

- The Northwestern Hawaiian Islands are considered a sacred region for Native Hawaiians.
- Large scale marine protected areas provide the best contemporary practice for allowing entire seascapes to be protected and managed through both traditional and conventional approaches.¹⁸
- The current successful management of Papahānaumokuākea is based on traditional Hawaiian values and management.
- Expansion will help to support Hawaiian cultural practices and belief systems for future generations through increasing protection of ocean resource on a larger regional scale.
- The expansion of the monument boundaries would acknowledge that seascapes can also carry a multitude of cultural meanings and values for indigenous peoples that are often neglected in conservation and resource management.

The vast expanse of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands is considered a sacred region from which Native Hawaiians believe all life springs, and to which ancestral spirits return to after death¹⁹. The cosmological chant, the *Kumulipo* (source of deep darkness), recounts how all life forms came and evolved out of the primordial darkness. It describes the Hawaiian universe as being comprised of two realms: $p\bar{o}$, a place of deep darkness reserved for the gods and spirits, and *ao* the realm of light where the living resides²⁰. Native Hawaiians believe that the latitudinal boundaries between which the sun travels annually, called today the Tropics, were known by the names *Ke Ala Polohiwa a Kāne* (the Tropic of Cancer) and *Ke Ala Polohiwa a Kanaloa* (the Tropic of Capricorn). *Ke Ala Polohiwa a Kāne* was the border between $p\bar{o}$ and $ao^{21,22,23}$ and it was this traditional understanding of 'āina akua (sacred area) versus '*āina kānaka* (area of the living) that were the foundational tenants of Native Hawaiian culture and tradition²⁴. This distinction showed that the Northwestern Hawaiians Islands were one of the most sacred areas of Hawai'i.

From the beginning there have been strong cultural components intertwined with the creation and management of the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument²⁵. The name itself drew upon the *Kai'aikawaha* genealogy of island names as inspiration. The union of the names *Papahānaumoku* and *[W]ākea* acknowledges the critical role these two ancestors played in the birthing of the entire archipelago, emphasizing the continuity between the past and the present. "*Papa*," means "foundational earth," representing the numerous low, flat islands that stretch into the northwest. *zcv* means "to birth" and moku means "island". "Akea" means "expanse of space," representing the surrounding ocean. The union of names as *Papahānaumokuākea*, reinforces Hawaii's cultural origins and the place of the islands as the foundation in the genealogy of the archipelago²⁶.



These series of islands and all of its surrounding ocean waters are considered '*āina akua*²⁷. The islands, ocean waters, and all the living things in this region are considered ancestral beings that are higher than man in the ecological hierarchy and order of the Hawaiian universe²⁸. Therefore, this interconnection tells Native Hawaiians of their responsibility as guardians of these resources and the importance of keeping this most sacred region and seascape in its natural state and unmarked by man. The expansion of the Monument out to 200 nautical miles allows for the broadest regional and holistic protection of everything that exists in this vast seascape and allows for it to be safeguarded from any extractive, commercial, or industrial activities that are deemed incompatible with their traditional beliefs

The current monument boundary at 50 nautical miles was thought to be sufficiently protective when the monument was established in 2006. In the past decade a growing body of new research has generated scientific and cultural knowledge that has shifted the understanding of management approaches. It is now more widely accepted recognized that effective management of large-scale, highly protected ecosystems has both scientific and cultural benefits. From a Native Hawaiian perspective, the proposed expansion is required because an *'āina akua* should be viewed in the largest region possible.

[•]Role of NWHI in Hawaiian Renaissance

- Papahānaumokuākea has helped in the continuation of the Hawaiian Renaissance and has increased understanding of Hawaiian identity in relation to the ocean.
- Papahānaumokuākea is one of the few places where nature and culture are being managed together in an integrated manner, helping to bridge the divide between contemporary science and culture, creating a model for broad scale collaborative approaches.
- The proposed elevation of the Office of Hawaiian Affairs to the co-trustee level of management within Papahānaumokuākea will be the first time Native Hawaiians have an equal role in resource management.

Papahānaumokuākea has played an important role in the Hawaiian community over the years and the push towards stronger ocean protection in this vast region was in part spurred on by the Hawaiian Renaissance movement – inspired by the traditional values of *mālama 'āina* (to care for the land, sky, sea) and *aloha 'āina* (love the land and resources)²⁹. Over the past 15 years the Hawaiian community has been one of the key stakeholders driving these protection efforts and has had unprecedented success. The rebirth of traditional voyaging and wayfinding has also played an essential role in this effort with the voyaging *wa'a* (canoes) acting as cultural icons for the Hawaiian people³⁰. Since the 1970's, the traditional Hawaiian Voyaging canoe $H\bar{o}k\bar{u}le'a$ travelled around the Pacific reconnecting the peoples of Oceania and inspiring pride within indigenous practices and knowledge. This rebirth of voyaging more recently has helped to make an introspective shift towards exploring and rediscovering the remote parts of Native Hawaiians' own homeland, the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands³¹. The initial voyages that took place in 2003-2005 under the banner of "Navigating Change" brought Native Hawaiians to the realization that ocean protection was essential for the ongoing survival of the people of Hawai'i as well as the planet.

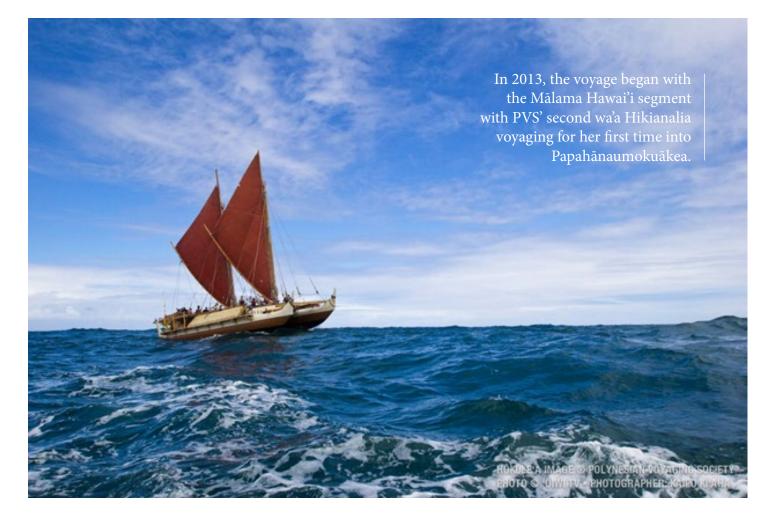
This rebirth is particularly exemplified with the Polynesian Voyaging Society's (PVS) *Mālama Honua* Worldwide Voyage, in which *Hōkūle'a* is currently circumnavigating the globe to spread awareness of the important responsibilities we have to ocean protection. The Hawaiian name for this voyage, *Mālama Honua*, translates "to care for our Earth." In 2013, the voyage began with the Mālama Hawai'i segment with PVS' second *wa'a Hikianalia* voyaging for her first time into Papahānaumokuākea.

QUOTE:

"No longer do we seek only the knowledge of how to voyage between islands. We seek lessons to carry home to our children – ways to inspire the present generation to love and preserve our Earth as a sanctuary for those who will inherit it."

--Nainoa Thompson

On board were pwo (master) and apprentice navigators who gained valuable experience in traditional wayfinding. *Hikianalia* then joined *Hōkūle'a* on the Pacific segments of the voyage. As *Hōkūle'a* has continued out of the Pacific Ocean for the first time, *Hikianalia* returned to Hawai'i and joined a scientific expedition to continue research activities in Papahānaumokuākea in July 2015. Both wa'a continue to spread the message of mālama honua and the need to have better resource stewardship for sustainability in future generations. As the voyaging canoes continue traveling around the world to get other countries to commit to global ocean protection under *mālama honua*, the proposed expansion of Papahānaumokuākea in Hawai'i as a *Pu'uhonua* (sanctuary) is a testament to the Hawaiians' own commitment towards large scale marine protection and ocean heritage.



When Papahānaumokuākea was established in 2006, it was a groundbreaking idea that management of a large scale protected area could recognize natural resources and cultural resources as one and the same³². Papahānaumokuākea's successful co-management structure serves as a model for other conservation areas being established around the world. A critical component of this co-management structure is Native Hawaiian input on all management actions through a Native Hawaiian Cultural Working Group³³. Composed of kūpuna (elders), researchers, educators and cultural practitioners, the group is in strong support of expanding the Monument. Recognition of nature and culture being one within Papahānaumokuākea has been achieved and there are already examples of the successful integration of traditional knowledge and contemporary science in management activities. Papahānaumokuākea is a place where federal archaeologists join Native Hawaiian researchers and practitioners on trips, traditional voyaging canoes join scientific expeditions, and endangered species researchers embrace cultural protocol³⁴. Management activities in Papahānaumokuākea are bridging

a historical divide between traditional and scientific resource management approaches and are proving that while techniques and terminology may differ, the core purpose of enhancing man's knowledge of the environment are the same. The strong cultural component of the management structure is an excellent foundation that can be improved by placing Native Hawaiian interests at the highest level of management. This will assure that the management structure is prepared for an expanded monument that further recognizes and integrates cultural dimensions into its management practice.

In addition, advocates for the proposed expansion of Papahānaumokuākea are asking for the Office of Hawaiian Affairs (OHA) to be elevated from co-manager to the level of co-trustee for the monument. The Office of Hawaiian Affairs, as a recognized institution that is responsible for improving the well-being of Native Hawaiians, is the most appropriate organization to take on this role because of: (1) its existing involvement at the co-manager level; (2) its track record and support for Native Hawaiian initiatives in the region; and (3) its ability to engage and connect the Hawaiian community into management decisions. This recognition will finally acknowledge that the indigenous peoples of Hawai'i are not stakeholders, but rather a people with unique social and political status in these islands. It will also

⁴Papahānaumokuākea as a Cultural Seascape

- In the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, the entire ocean, including the 110 seamounts, open waters, and all life in the proposed expansion are considered biocultural resources and linked to the Hawaiian people through environmental kinship.
- The ocean as a cultural seascape is vital to Native Hawaiians' identity and being; it is an essential dimension to their cognitive understanding of the world.

QUOTE:

A huge part of Papahānaumokuākea is underwater. When you go up there, you have to shift your mindset from one that is maybe land dominated, to one that is sea dominated. And it changes everything about how you're experiencing the world.

--Kekuewa Kikiloi

- The ocean waters in Papahānaumokuākea were an ancient pathway for a voyaging sphere that occurred between this region and the main Hawaiian islands for over 400-500 years (ca. AD 1300-1800).
- The practice of traditional wayfinding and voyaging—which is one of the most unique living traditions of the world—requires protection of the entire marine environment and open waters, not just the islands, because it relies on biological signs and natural phenomena, such as winds, waves, currents, and the presence of marine life and birds

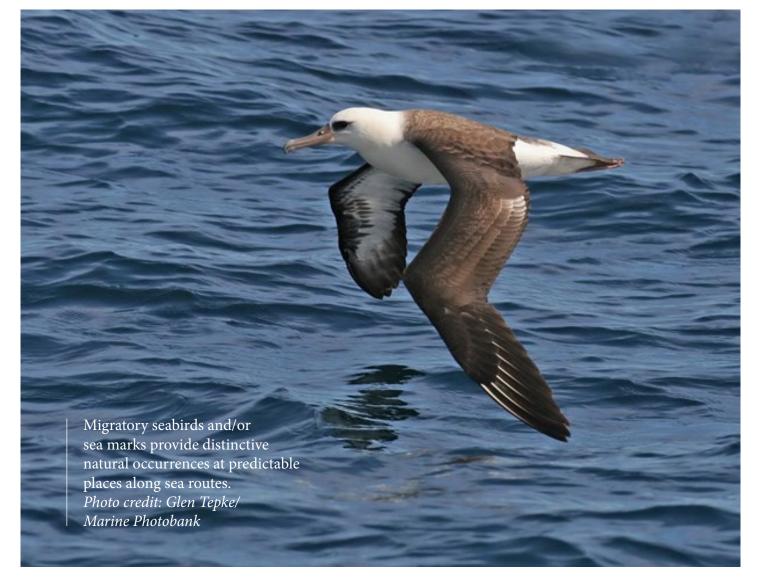
A traditional understanding of oceans as cultural seascapes is a key to understanding the need for the expansion of Papahānaumokuākea. Through cultural seascapes, people can recognize the important link between man and nature and that they cannot be seen as separate entities but rather related parts of a unified whole³⁵. In particular, the ocean and open waters are critical to the distinctive identity and heritage of Native Hawaiians and other indigenous peoples in Oceania³⁶. In their view, the ocean is not an unknown empty space, a meaningless void, or an obstacle on a map that keep island communities isolated and marginalized, but rather it is conceived as a viable pathway of movement, an access point of mobility, one that minimizes risk, and has allowed them to survive for millennium in the most uncertain of environments that exist on the planet³⁷.



The ocean as a cultural seascape is vital to Native Hawaiians' identity and being,; it is an essential dimension to their cognitive understanding of the world. It is indeed not an empty space, but a living entity, a godly deity, imbued with cultural meaning and a home for a host of marine and avian life that continue to be connected to them in a genealogical web of ecological kinship³⁸. This relationship highlights their duty therefore to protect these biocultural resources and all the places in their homeland including adjacent unprotected seamounts and open ocean areas. The ocean must be understood in the context of its boundless nature, one that must be understood, managed, and protected in its totality and not limited by the current narrow management boundaries and delineations.

Papahānaumokuākea is the only intact cultural voyaging seascape in the Hawaiian Islands³⁹. This expansive ocean environment was the setting for ancient Hawaiian chiefs to voyage back and forth between the main Hawaiian Islands and the northwestern islands over the course of a 400 to 500 year period in traditional times. In addition, smaller communities from Ni'ihau, Kaua'i, and O'ahu have been documented in the post contact period of continuing voyaging into this region well into the 20th century⁴⁰.

Today, with the increase of traditional Hawaiian voyaging canoes, this region is critical training ground for the ongoing survival of two major living traditions: Hawaiian voyaging and wayfinding. Hawaiian voyaging and wayfinding evolved from a system of non-instrument navigation used by Polynesian predecessors to make long distant voyages across thousands of miles of open-ocean⁴¹. This traditional practice and art of wayfinding relied upon observations of the natural environment such as the sun, moon and stars which rise and set in predictable star lines, cloud clusters and movement, wind direction and ocean swells or wave pilots.



In addition, biological indicators such as migratory seabirds and/or sea marks provide distinctive natural occurrences at predictable places along sea routes, including regions where certain fish species leap above the water's surface, or zones of innumerable marine or avian life, all of which help to guide voyagers and expand island targets⁴². There is no other place in Hawai'i where islands are remote enough to simulate these target conditions for young navigating apprentices. The practice of traditional wayfinding requires protection of the entire marine environment, not just the target islands, because it then allows for the full use of biological signs and natural phenomena that help to expand the target island, and training navigators to use the full range of signs needed for the wayfinding to truly survive in Hawai'i and the world.

Modern History

- The area of proposed expansion contains the wrecks of numerous whaling vessels from the 1800s and military vessels from several wars.
- The USS Yorktown was rediscovered in 1998 and lies outside the current monument boundary.

The NWHI are also home to a variety of modern historic resources, including wrecks from the Civil War, World War II, and 19th century American and British commercial whaling. Each wreck site is a time capsule, allowing us to glimpse a part of seafaring history⁴³.

Discovery of these resources often comes after protections are in place. For example, in 2008 the wreck of the Nantucket-based whaling vessel *Two Brothers* was discovered off French Frigate Shoals⁴⁴. The ship was captained by George Pollard, Jr, best known as the captain of the *Essex* and Herman Melville's inspiration for Captain Ahab in *Moby Dick*⁴⁶.

Additionally, in 2015 the USNS *Mission San Miguel*, a Type T2-SE-A2 tanker built for the United States Maritime Commission during World War II was rediscovered in the NWHI⁴⁶. She had been lost since she sank on October 8, 1957.

According to the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument Heritage Research, Education, and Management Plan⁴⁷ there are also a number of World War II shipwreck sites, particularly those associated with the Battle of Midway, outside the current monument boundary, both undiscovered and rediscovered.



The Battle of Midway was a decisive naval battle in World War II⁴⁸. Between 3 and 7 June 1942⁴⁹, only six months after Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States Navy decisively defeated an attacking fleet of the Imperial Japanese Navy near Midway Atoll, inflicting devastating damage on the Japanese fleet that proved irreparable.

During the battle, all four of Japan's large aircraft carriers—*Akagi, Kaga, Soryu* and *Hiryu*—and the heavy cruiser *Mikuma* were sunk, while the U.S. lost only the carrier Yorktown and the destroyer *Hammann*. 307 American and 3,057 Japanese sailors, marines, and airmen lost their lives during the battle.

In 1998, the wreck of the Yorktown was rediscovered at a depth of almost three miles by Dr. Robert Ballard⁵⁰. No one has visited the wreck since its discovery nearly two decades ago. A section of the *Kaga* was discovered in 1999 by Nauticos Corporation⁵¹. The other ships, as well as hundreds of planes, remain undiscovered. NOAA Ship *Okeanos Explorer* is currently searching for these wrecks⁵².

Efforts to interpret the Battle of Midway are ongoing. Beginning with archival research and oral histories, there is a wealth of relevant information for the monument for scholars and those curious about the monument to explore and develop. If the experience of the first 10 years of Papahānaumokuākea is any indication, expanded protections will lead to increased research and discovery, and ultimately greater connections between people living in Hawaii and around the world to this area.

President Ronald Reagan declared the Midway Atoll National Wildlife Refuge in 1988, which today lies within Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument. In 2000, Secretary of the Interior Bruce Babbitt designated Midway Atoll National Wildlife Refuge as the Battle of Midway National Memorial, so "that the heroic courage and sacrifice of those who fought against overwhelming odds to win an incredible victory will never be forgotten." The boundaries of the National Memorial include all lands and waters of the Midway Atoll National Wildlife Refuge to give tribute "to the aircraft and ships, such as the Yorktown and Hammann, that did not return from the Battle and lie beyond these boundaries⁵³."

Expanding Papahānaumokuākea to protect additional biological and cultural resources associated with the Battle of Midway not inside the current boundaries would honor the American and Japanese sailors, marines, and airmen who lost their lives and all veterans of World War II in time for the 75th anniversary of the Battle of Midway in 2017.

⁴ Ecosystems & Biodiversity of Proposed Expansion

- The existing monument protects 7,000 known species of marine and terrestrial life, 25% of which are endemic, found nowhere else on the planet.
- Habitats that will gain protections with an expansion include offshore pelagic (open water) areas, seamounts, submerged reefs, guyots (sunken islands), and banks. Nearly 110 seamounts have been identified in the area of proposed expansion.
- Each seamount is a magnet for biodiversity, both on the seafloor and in the water column above and around the undersea mountain
- Families of species that would benefit from an expansion of the monument include sea turtles, whales, dolphins, seabirds, sharks, billfish and tuna.
- An estimated 97% of the remaining 1,100 wild Hawaiian monk seals are found in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, as are 90% of Hawaiian green sea turtles and 98% of Laysan albatrosses.

The waters of PMNM are among the most diverse and productive in the subtropical Pacific. The Hawaiian Islands form one of the most isolated archipelagos in the world, resulting in a distinct and unique flora and fauna when considering both species and genotypic diversity^{54,55}. Compared to the coral reefs near the populated Hawaiian Islands, the monument's reefs are considered to be healthy, and contain high fish biomass, diverse species assemblages, and exceptional levels of endemism.⁵⁶ Recent scientific surveys reveal that almost 50 percent of monument reef fish are endemic to the Hawaiian archipelago, indicating that this area is a reservoir for unique biodiversity.⁵⁷ Moreover, this level of endemism varies across the monument. Researchers found that endemic fish abundance increased with latitude, and exceed 85 percent at the northern three atolls: Pearl and Hermes, Midway, and Kure Atoll. One reef at Kure Atoll was found to have 100% endemic fish species⁵⁸. By expanding the monument these exceptional biodiversity reservoirs to the north can be better protected. Additionally, as fish populations become increasingly impacted by the effects of overfishing: loss of genetic diversity, changes in population age structure, and reduced reproductive rates, it is important to preserve large areas that have maintained diverse and healthy populations.^{59,00}

There are significant resources outside of the current monument boundaries that would benefit from expanded protections. In particular, highly migratory or far-ranging species such sea turtles, whales, dolphins, seabirds, sharks, and tuna forage outside of the area of the existing monument and are threatened by longline fishing vessels when they range outside the area of protection.



The proposed expansion in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands is home to diverse range of top predators in high abundance compared the Main Hawaiian Islands , including oceanic whitetip sharks *(Carcharhinus longimanus)*, the giant trevally *(Caranx ignobilis)*, bluefin trevally *(Caranx melampygus)*, green jobfish *(Aprion virescens)*, and the endemic Hawaiian grouper *(Hyporthodus quernus)*. *H. quernus* is a species that has been locally depleted in areas around the Main Hawaiian islands and considered to be particularly prone to overfishing.^{62,63} Several of these species and others spend parts of their life histories both inside and outside the borders of the existing monument. Expanding the area of protection will increase survivability of these species.



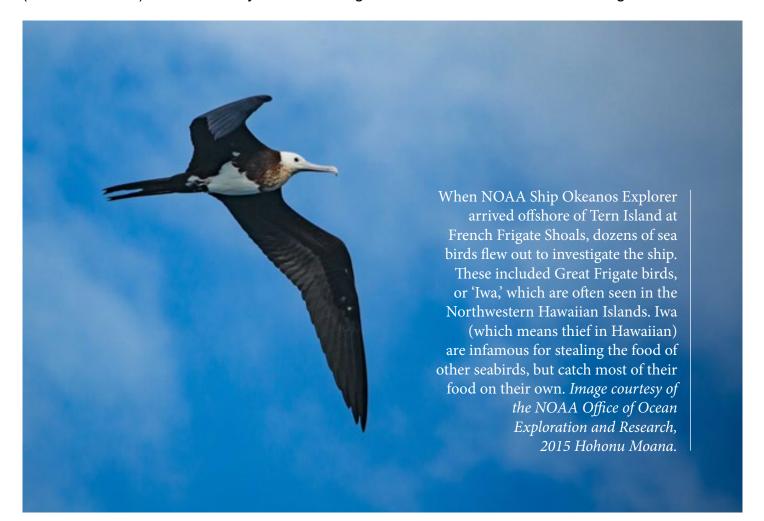
Papahānaumokuākea is also home to several threatened or endangered species such as the Hawaiian monk seal *(Monachus schauinslandi)*, the most endangered pinniped in US waters and one of the most endangered in the world, whose populations have declined since 1950⁶⁴, endangered blue whales *(Balaenoptera musculus)* and fin whales *(Balaenoptera physalus)*, and the green sea turtle *(Chelonia mydas)* or honu in Hawaiian⁶⁵. These and other cetacean species foraging ranges that extend beyond 50 miles⁶⁶, which is the current boundary of the existing monument. An expansion of PMNM can ensure that these major reservoirs of biodiversity and their populations within are secured.

Ecosystems that would benefit from the expansion include deep water coral reefs, seamounts, guyots, submerged reefs and banks, and abyssal benthic communities. Many of these habitats are understudied, and there are likely others out there that are yet to be discovered.

'Seabirds

- The EEZ around the NWHI is critical foraging range for numerous species of seabirds.
- In particular, birds nesting on the islands, including several species of albatross, boobies, shearwaters, and petrels, are known to forage in the NWHI EEZ beyond 50 nm.
- Several hundred seabirds each year are caught as bycatch from longline fishing vessels operating out of Hawaii⁶⁷.
- There are research opportunities to increase our understanding of the foraging behavior of seabirds breeding in the NWHI.

Large scale marine protected areas have been shown to protect important habitat for several species of pelagic birds in the central Pacific⁶⁸. The NWHI are home to one of the largest groupings of tropical seabirds in the world, consisting of 14 million birds from 22 different species, 5.5 million of which breed there annually.⁶⁹ The largest of these breeding populations are on Midway Atoll, Laysan Island, and Nihoa, however global climate change and invasive species have led to habitat loss and some changes in nesting areas over time.⁷⁰ Eleven of the species found in the NWHI are considered imperiled or of high conservation concern, and in particular, six species – the Laysan (near-threatened), black-footed (near-threatened), and short-tailed (endangered) albatrosses, Christmas shearwater, Tristram's storm-petrel (near-threatened) and blue noddy – are of the highest concern for the Pacific Island region as a whole.⁷¹



Seabirds are some of the most threatened species on the planet and taken as a whole have declined by ~70% since 1950⁷². The largest declines were observed in families containing wide-ranging pelagic species, such as albatross, suggesting that pan-global populations may be more at risk than shorter-ranging coastal populations⁷³.

Many of these species are truly unique; for example, Laysan albatrosses return to the same areas to nest year after year, where they form monogamous pairs through an intricate mating dance consisting of 25 different dance moves⁷⁴.

More than 98 percent of the world's Laysan albatrosses nest on the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands chain.⁷⁵ Foraging habitat includes most of the North Pacific, but that range is significantly reduced when birds are feeding chicks. The NWHI EEZ appears critical to the Laysan albatross during that period⁷⁶.

Scientists are working increase our understanding of the birds in the NWHI. In 2016, a Laysan albatross named Wisdom, first banded in 1956 by researchers, returned to Midway Atoll and hatched a chick. At least 65 years old, Wisdom is the oldest known bird in the world to successfully hatch a chick.

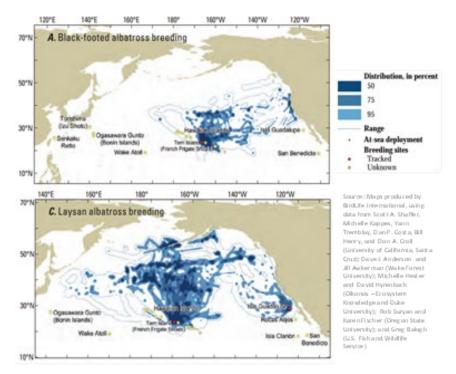


Figure 1: Black-footed albatross and Laysan breeding distribution.

In her visit to Midway Atoll in 2007, whose ancient Hawaiian name is *Pihemanu* and means "the loud din of birds," former First Lady Laura Bush remarked upon the many Laysan albatross chicks there during nesting season, and the stresses this species faces.⁷⁷ The principal current threats at sea are posed by commercial fisheries (through competition and mortality on fishing gear) and pollution, whereas on land, alien invasive predators, habitat degradation and human disturbance are the main threats⁷⁸. Although an expanded marine monument would do little to buffer seabirds from the impacts of marine debris, the reduction of other stressors would lessen the cumulative impact of these threats on populations. In fact, the most significant cause of population decline for albatross can be attributed to longline fisheries.⁷⁹

Seabirds forage over distances as far as several thousand kilometers, following schools of forage fish.⁸⁰ Studies of species' nesting and foraging habitats formed the initial rationale for the monument's current 50 nautical-mile boundary. Seabirds foraging on bait set on longlines for pelagic fisheries, leads to the recorded death of more than 100 birds every year, most of which are species of concern such as the Laysan and black-footed albatrosses.⁸¹ These numbers, for the deep-set fisheries in particular, have increased since 2004.⁸²

Many tropical seabird species are unable to dive to great depths. As a result, many species found in the NWHI monument such as noddies, terns, boobies, and frigatebirds are highly dependent on subsurface predators, particularly tunas and dolphins, to drive forage fish to the surface where they are then accessible to seabirds to take as food.^{83,84} In some parts of the Pacific, diet estimates from lethally sampled seabirds suggest that greater than 75% of prey consumed by some seabird species may be taken during facilitated foraging⁸⁵. Thus the maintenance of robust fish and dolphin populations is critical for the maintenance of many seabird populations.

Breeding seabirds are likely to forage near to colonies, though the distance they travel to feed varies depending on chick size and dependence. Some studies have shown that booby species range throughout most – though not all – of the NWHI⁸⁶. Furthermore, smaller seabird species have been shown to forage further from breeding colonies than larger birds (likely as a result of interspecies competition). Thus, many species are likely to be foraging well outside the current boundaries of the monument, including white-tailed tropicbirds, red-tailed tropic birds, masked boobies, great frigatebirds, sooty terns, and wedge-tailed shearwaters⁸⁷.

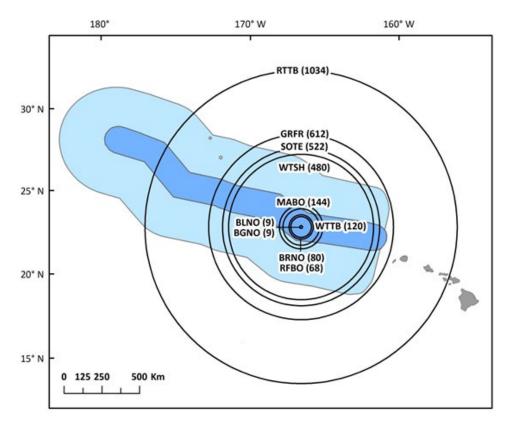


Figure 2: Foraging ranges of breeding tropical seabirds, centered around Tern Island in French Frigate Shoals. Maximum foraging ranges are shown in kilometers in brackets following species names. Species abbreviations are as follows: RTTB: red-tailed tropicbird; GRFR: great frigatebird; SOTE: sooty tern; WTSH: wedge-tailed shearwater; MABO: masked booby; WTTB: white-tailed tropicbird; BRNO: brown noddy; RFBO: red-footed booby; BLNO: black noddy; BGNO: blue-grey noddy. Adapted from Maxwell & Morgan 2013 *Marine Ecology Progress Series*.

'Sharks

- Sharks are slow growing, typically take many years to reach sexual maturity, and produce few young.
- Between 5,000 28,000 ⁸⁸ sharks are caught by longline vessels each year in the Northwest Hawaiian Islands, and nearly all are dumped overboard.

Ocean predators such as sharks are some of the most important species in the marine environment, and now, are among the most threatened. Globally, shark populations have declined, and half of all shark species assessed by scientists are now threatened or near threatened with extinction⁸⁹. Most sharks are unable to withstand pressures from commercial fishing because, like the great whales, they are grow slowly, take many years to reach sexual maturity, and produce few young⁹⁰.

Sharks influence the abundance and diversity of the species below them in the food web, and their removal can have severe ecological consequences.⁹¹ They are a keystone species in decline whose protection is required for a functioning reef system⁹². As an area of intrinsic high shark diversity⁹³, the expansion of the monument would safeguard important priority areas for sharks.



In the Pacific, oceanic whitetip sharks *(Carcharhinus longimanus)* and silky sharks *(Carcharhinus falciformis)*, highly migratory species that were once categorized as two of the most abundant species of large marine animals, have declined significantly. Populations of these species have dropped to such low levels that fishing vessels are now prohibited from retaining them.^{95,96} Despite this ban both species are still incidentally caught and killed on longlines⁹⁷. Since the monument is within the core habitat for both oceanic whitetip and silky shark,⁹⁸ an expanded protected area from fishing can ensure that populations of these vulnerable sharks are safeguarded.

Research shows that coral reef habitats within the monument support abundant Galapagos sharks *(Carcharhinus galapagensis)*, tiger sharks *(Galeocerdo cuvier)*, and grey reef sharks *(Carcharhinus amblyrhinchos)*. These species, and others, have been shown to travel outside the boundaries of the existing monument.⁹⁹ For example, a combination of fishing data and satellite and acoustic telemetry revealed tiger sharks swim thousands of kilometers along the Hawaiian chain and out into the open ocean¹⁰⁰, with individuals found more than 600 kilometers offshore¹⁰¹. In fact, the study showed that 25% of tiger shark mortality occurred between 50-200 nautical miles from shore¹⁰².



Publicly available longline data from NOAA shows that more than one quarter million sharks have been caught in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands in the last 25 years¹⁰³. The same data set also shows that the catch per unit effort of sharks in NWHI has dropped considerably from a high of 13.02 sharks/ million hooks in 1992 to 2.29 sharks/million hooks in 2014. This suggests an alarming decline in shark populations, and is of concern not only because of the declining numbers, but also because the limited fishery is targeting tuna, not sharks. Sharks are caught as bycatch.

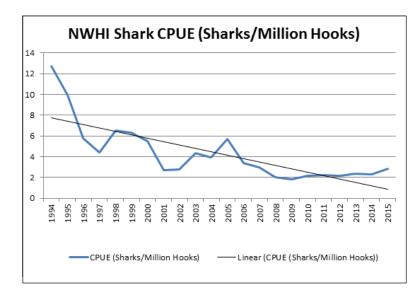


Figure 3: Catch Per Unit of Sharks 1994-2015 in sharks per million hooks.

By increasing the size of this protected area, these resident species and other highly migratory sharks that frequent these waters can be protected. The value of large protected areas to sharks has been demonstrated, and expanded protection in this area will be of benefit to multiple threatened shark species.

Tuna

- Commercially important tuna species are threatened with extinction¹⁰⁵ and fisheries managers are not following scientific advice¹⁰⁶ to improve stocks.
- There is evidence that areas where fishing is limited has resulted in increased size and numbers of tuna.

The most commercially important fish caught in the NWHI today is bigeye tuna *(Thunnus obesus)*, called *ahi* in Hawaiian. Fishermen also catch smaller amounts of the less valuable albacore *(Thunnus alalunga)*, yellowfin tuna *(Thunnus albacares)* also called ahi in Hawaiian, and skipjack tuna *(Katsuwonus pelamis)* called *aku* in Hawaiian. Publicly available data from NOAA show that nearly all of the effort is located in the eastern quadrant north of the islands¹⁰⁷.



American vessels target large, adult bigeye in the NWHI using longlines; Purse seiners fishing outside of the proposed expansion area are also a significant source of mortality for this species. The purse seiners target skipjack tuna, but juvenile bigeye end up being killed as bycatch. The United States has the largest purse seine fleet in the Western and Central Pacific.

Simultaneously killing the large, productive adult bigeye tuna on longlines and using purse seines to kill the small, juvenile bigeye that have yet to reproduce has caused the population of these fish to crash. Bigeye tuna in the Western and Central Pacific is overfished and overfishing has occurred for many years¹⁰⁸. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species has assessed Bigeye as Vulnerable to extinction, and albacore and yellowfin tuna have been assessed as Near Threatened. The 2014 assessment for bigeye tuna found that the stock had declined to 16 per cent of its unfished size¹⁰⁹. Despite this, fishing pressure for this species continues to increase¹¹⁰.

Efforts to rebuild the stock of this species by reducing the catch have not followed scientific advice¹¹¹. Hawaii exceeded its quota in 2014 and 2015, and purchased additional quota from Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, and American Samoa¹¹².

The benefits of marine protected areas to commercial fish species are well studied. A global analysis of marine reserves found that on average, marine reserves result in higher fish biomass, greater numbers of fish, more species in an ecosystem, and larger fish. Expanding Papahānaumokuākea will create a large sanctuary where the ecosystem can thrive and where these economically important species can be safe from overfishing with the opportunity to mature and reproduce.

Expanding Papahānaumokuākea will create a large sanctuary where the ecosystem can thrive and where these economically important species can be safe from overfishing with the opportunity to mature and reproduce.



While much of the research in this area to date has focused on coastal and bottom habitats, the principle that fish populations rebound when fishing pressure is removed appears to hold true for offshore species, too. For example, Filipino fishermen caught skipjack, yellowfin, and bigeye tuna inside High Seas Pocket 1, an area of high seas between the Philippines and Guam closed to most fishing countries. These fish were on average larger than fish of the same species caught inside the Philippines EEZ¹¹³.

Tagging studies of individual yellowfin tuna in the western and central Pacific have found that most have lifetime movements on the order of hundreds, not thousands of miles, although some individuals do make some very long distance movements¹¹⁴. Estimates of median lifetime displacements range from 411-471 nautical miles for skipjack *(Katsuwonus pelamis)* and 337-380 nautical miles for yellowfin *(Thunnus albacares)*¹¹⁵. Another study suggests that bigeye and yellowfin tuna are not 'highly migratory' and suggests a high degree of regional residency on the order of several months in the equatorial Pacific Ocean¹¹⁶.

Most tuna species are assumed to be panmictic, mating randomly across entire ocean basins, but recent studies have shown evidence of site-specific discrete populations¹¹⁷. Scientists have found genetically distinct subpopulations of yellowfin tuna in the Pacific Ocean. This result challenges the single stock paradigm for highly migratory species, and for fisheries management suggests that stocks should be assessed and managed at smaller scales.

These findings suggest that individual tuna from different species could spend their entire life history inside the borders of a marine reserve if the area is large enough. It has been shown that female fish that are older and of larger size produce a higher number and a higher quality of eggs¹¹⁸. These tuna would grow large and produce exponentially more eggs than smaller, unprotected individuals swimming outside the area of protection. Spillover effects of the fish that do swim outside of the area of protection would benefit fishermen.

Whales and Dolphins

- 24 species of marine mammal have been identified in Hawaiian waters, 22 of which occur in the proposed expansion.¹¹⁹
- Recent studies have found distinct sub-populations of several whale species, including false killer whales associated with the Main Hawaiian Islands, Northwestern Hawaiian Islands, and pelagic waters, respectively¹²⁰.

Hawaiian waters support populations of many marine mammals, including cetaceans such as whales, dolphins, and porpoises.¹²¹ In total, 24 species have been documented. The most abundant large whales are sperm whales (*Physeter microcephalus*) and Bryde's whales (*Balaenoptera edeni*). The most abundant small toothed whales are pilot whales (*Globicephala macrorhynchus*), rough-toothed dolphins (*Steno bredanensis*), Fraser's dolphins (*Lagenodelphis hosei*), spotted dolphins (*Stenella attenuata*), and striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*). Dwarf and pygmy sperm whales (Kogia sima and Kogia breviceps) and Cuvier's beaked whales (*Ziphius cavirostris*) are also estimated to be quite abundant¹²². Migratory baleen whales such as fin whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*), sei whales (*Balaenoptera borealis*), minke whales (*Balaenoptera physalus*), and humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) also spend part of their lives in the area¹²³.



There are significant data showing the area of the proposed monument expansion is important habitat for several species, including individuals that frequent the Hawaiian Islands Humpback Whale National Marine Sanctuary¹²⁴. Annual NOAA stock assessment reports show that there are 22 species of cetaceans in the proposed expansion¹²⁵. A soon to be published study of short-finned pilot whales *(Globicephala macrorhynchus)* shows there are linkages between the Main Hawaiian Islands, NWHI, and offshore waters of both regions¹²⁶. Melon headed whales *(Peponocephala electra)* have been shown to travel offshore to forage in convergence areas of both cyclonic and anticyclonic eddies.¹²⁷



Photo Credit: Peter G. Allinson, M.D. 2009/ Marine Photobank



Blainville'sbeakedwhales (*Mesoplodondensirostris*) range in Hawaiian waters from near-shore areas throughout the EEZ and into adjacent international waters¹²⁸. It is thought that there are two populations, one associated with islands and one that is open-ocean. One individual thought to be of the open-ocean subpopulation was shown to travel 900 kilometers in just 20 days¹²⁹. Scientists have also identified a subpopulation of false killer whales that lives largely, but not entirely within the borders of Papahānaumokuākea¹³⁰. Expanding the borders of the monument would enhance protections for all 22 species.

| Common Name | Scientific Name | IUCN Status |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|
| Rough toothed dolphin | Steno bredanensis | Least Concern |
| Risso's dolphin | Grampus griseus | Least Concern |
| Common bottlenose dolphin | Tursiops truncatus | Least Concern |
| Pantropical spotted dolphin | Stenella attenuate | Least Concern |
| Striped dolphin | Stenella coeruleoalba | Least Concern |
| Fraser's dolphin | Lagenodelphis hosei | Least Concern |
| Melon headed whale | Peponocephala electra | Least Concern |
| False killer whale | Pseudorca crassidens | Data Deficient |
| Killer whale | Orcinus orca | Data Deficient |
| Short finned pilot whale | Globicephala macrorhynchus | Data Deficient |
| Blainville's beaked whale | Mesoplodon densirostris | Data Deficient |
| Cuvier's beaked whale | Ziphius cavirostris | Least Concern |
| Longman's beaked whale | Indopacetus pacificus | Data Deficient |
| Pygmy sperm whale | Kogia breviceps | Data Deficient |
| Dwarf sperm whale | Kogia sima | Data Deficient |
| Sperm whale | Physeter microcephalus | Vulnerable |
| Blue whale | Balaenoptera musculus | Endangered |
| Fin whale | Balaenoptera physalus | Endangered |
| Bryde's whale | Balaenoptera edeni | Data Deficient |
| Sei whale | Balaenoptera borealis | Endangered |
| Minke whale | Balaenoptera acutorostrata | Least Concern |
| Humpback whale | Megaptera novaeangliae | Least Concern |

Figure 4: Species of marine mammals in Hawaiian waters

Sea Turtles

- 90% of green sea turtles in Hawaii nest in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands.¹³¹
- Fives species of sea turtle have been identified in Hawaii, and all are threatened with extinction.¹³²



More than 90% of green sea turtles *(Chelonia mydas)* or *Honu* in Hawaii nest in the NWHI¹³³. Individuals tagged at French Frigate Shoals have been identified near Kauai, Oahu, and Maui to the southwest and near Lisianski Island, and Pearl and Hermes Reef to the northwest¹³⁴. This is a flagship species for Hawaii's tourism industry, with numerous businesses catering to tourists who wish to observe these endangered animals. They are also an iconic Hawaiian species of great cultural importance¹³⁵.

Two other species of sea turtle, the loggerhead *(Caretta caretta)* and leatherback *(Dermochelys coriacea)*, have been identified as being at particular risk of population decline as a result of incidental take by longline pelagic fisheries.¹³⁶ In fact, fisheries are considered to be one of the main causes of anthropogenic mortality for sea turtles.¹³⁷ Nesting populations of Pacific leatherbacks have experienced a 95% decline in just two decades.¹³⁸ Loggerhead turtles showed an 80% population decline in the same period.¹³⁹

Because of high bycatch rates of sea turtles, particularly loggerheads, the Hawaiian swordfish fishery was closed by court order from 2000-2004¹⁴⁰. The Hawaiian tuna fishery was seasonally restricted by the same order due to high bycatch rates of olive ridley sea turtles. Both fisheries also caught substantial numbers of leatherback sea turtles. After longliners incorporated measures to reduce sea turtle bycatch, the Hawaiian swordfish fishery reopened in 2004. However, the fishery was closed in 2006 and again in 2011 due to fishermen exceeding the allowable limits on the number of loggerheads and leatherbacks caught as bycatch. Loggerhead and leatherback populations continue to decline in the Pacific¹⁴¹, despite measures to protect them. Without stronger protections, a 100 million year evolutionary legacy represented by these ancient creatures could be wiped out in the space of one human generation.

| Common Name | Scientific Name | IUCN Status |
|--------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Loggerhead | Caretta caretta | Vulnerable |
| Leatherback | Dermochelys coriacea | Vulnerable |
| Green | Chelonia mydas | Endangered |
| Hawksbill | Eretmochelys imbricata | Critically Endangered |
| Olive Ridley | Lepidochelys olivacea | Vulnerable |

Figure 5: Species of sea turtle in Hawaiian waters.

Coral Reefs

- The oldest living animals on Earth, black corals (Leiopathes sp.) as old as 4,000 years, live in deep sea habitat in the proposed expansion.
- Deep sea corals are enigmatic and understudied, but highly vulnerable to human impact.

The existing monument has extensive coral reefs that provide habitat for over 7,000 known marine species, a quarter of which occur only in the Hawaiian Archipelago.¹⁴² The proposed expansion of the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument would better ensure the resiliency for these reefs, reducing one stressor -- fishing -- facing reefs in this multi-stressor situation. The species assemblage that resides among the coral is still being studied. Coral reef assessments conducted between 2000 and 2006 through the Census of Coral Reefs and Northwestern Hawaiian Islands Reef Assessment and Monitoring Program discovered many previously unreported and undescribed species of corals and other invertebrates.¹⁴³ The extensive coral cover forms a network of essential fish nursery habitat that is critical for many endemic fish species. Additionally, this network of coral habitats supports a diverse range of marine mammals, sea turtles, invertebrates, and seabirds.



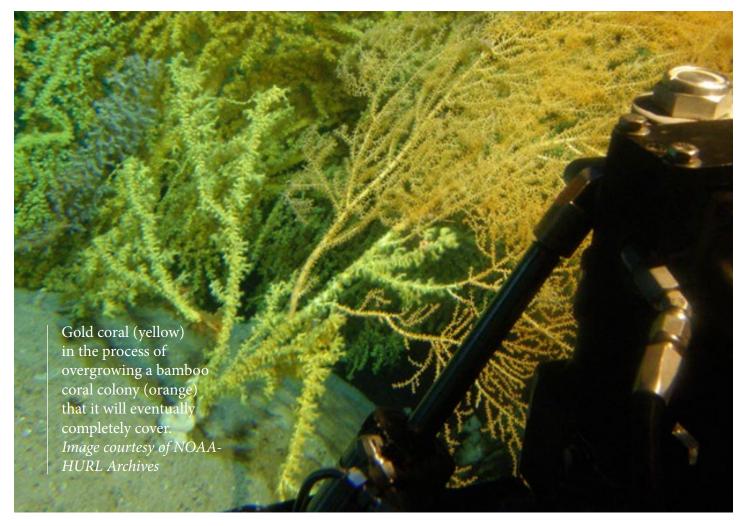
Image courtesy of the NOAA Office of Ocean Exploration and Research, 2015 Hohonu Moana



Image courtesy of NOAA Office of Ocean Exploration and Research, Hohonu Moana 2016.



Image courtesy of NOAA-HURL Archives



Deep coral reefs in PMNM may contain the highest percentage of fish species found nowhere else on Earth, according to a study by NOAA scientists published in the *Bulletin of Marine Science*¹⁴⁴. The islands, atolls and submerged habitats of the NWHI harbor unprecedented levels of biological diversity. While the existing monument contains 95 seamounts, an additional 110 seamounts have been identified inside the area of the proposed expansion. Since there are high levels of biodiversity and endemism on seamounts that have been studied to date, it is assumed that unexplored seamounts contain similar amounts of biodiversity and endemism and likely hold great opportunity for future scientific discoveries, including new species.

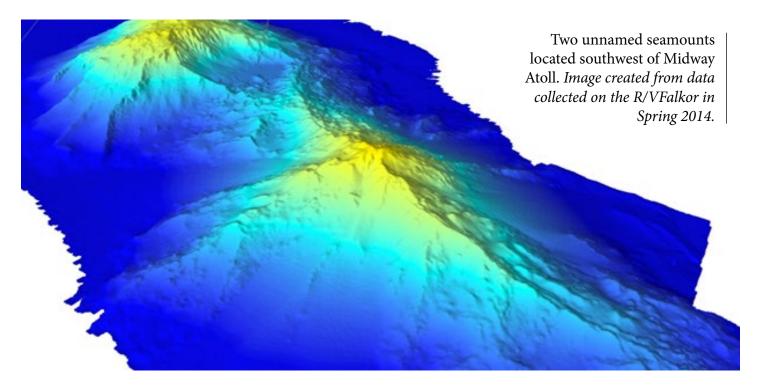
Hawaii is known for its high abundance of endemic species. Previous studies, based on scuba surveys in water less than 100 feet deep, determined that on average 21 percent of coral reef fish species in Hawaii are unique to the Hawaiian Archipelago¹⁴⁵. However, in waters 100 to 300 feet deep, nearly 50 percent of the fish that scientists observed over a two-year period in the monument were unique to Hawaii, a level higher than any other marine ecosystem in the world¹⁴⁶. The study also found that on some of PMNM's deeper reefs, more than 90 percent of fish were unique to the region¹⁴⁷. These habitats can only be accessed by highly trained divers using advanced technical diving methods.

The deep sea is also home to remarkably rich coral systems. While more is known about shallow coral ecosystems, it is now thought that there are more coral species living at great ocean depths than in tropical shallows¹⁴⁸. These ancient corals, black corals *(Leiopathes sp.)* and gold corals *(Gerardia sp.)*, found to be as old as 4,265 and 2,742 years¹⁴⁹, respectively, create ornate, forest-like structures that would take hundreds or thousands of years to recover if disturbed by destructive fishing activities such as bottom-trawling.¹⁵⁰ They are thought to be the oldest living organisms on the planet¹⁵¹.

[•]Seamounts

- The proposed expansion of the Monument would protect approximately 110 additional seamounts from the irreversible effects of deep water trawling and the immeasurable damage of deep water mining.
- The biodiversity on these seamounts is high and virtually unstudied, but every other seamount investigated has yielded astounding discoveries. The potential for new discovery is high.

Seamounts, underwater mountains, host some of the most ecologically interesting and unique species in the ocean¹⁵². Unique deep water corals and sponges are frequently found on seamounts and serve as habitat and nursery sources for a myriad of species. Within PMNM's waters there is a high diversity of gorgonian coral, and one species observed on Twin Banks, *Iridogorgia magnispiralis*, measured almost seven meters in height, the largest gorgonian ever seen.¹⁵³ The proposed expansion of the Monument would protect approximately 110 additional seamounts from the irreversible effects of deep water trawling and the immeasurable damage of deep water mining.

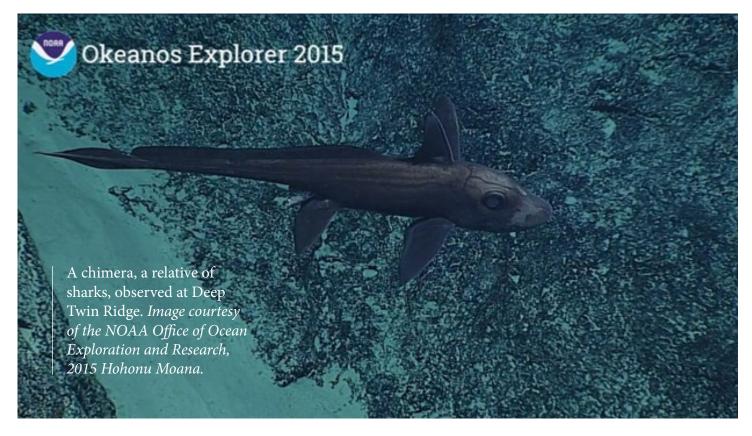


Monument seamounts host a rich benthic community and include polychaetes, echinoderms, crustaceans, sipunculids, nemertean worms, and molluscs. Many of the deepwater communities of PMNM remain unknown with recent expeditions in the nearby waters revealing several previously undiscovered species along the Necker Ridge¹⁵⁴.

The monument is laced with volcanic platforms terraced with drowned fossil coral reefs that provide a detailed record of the formation of the Hawaiian Archipelago and tracks the movement pattern of the Pacific plate over millions of years. Many of the roughly 52 volcanoes in the archipelago are capped by drowned reefs that have recorded the subsidence history of the volcanoes¹⁵⁵. In addition to Hawaiian age seamounts that are 20-30 million years old, the monument contains much older volcanoes of Cretaceous origins, dating back 82-92 million years.

A marine ecologist at the University of Hawaii noted that new species remain to be discovered in the waters of the NWHI and he currently houses a collection of new species from this region awaiting scientific description at his research lab.¹⁵⁶ The proposed expansion will include Necker Ridge, protecting the unexplored diversity of this area and connecting to the protected waters near Johnston Atoll and the Central Pacific.

The vast majority of the seamounts in the waters surrounding Hawaii are virtually unexplored, supporting biodiversity-rich communities that are some of the most poorly understood in the world.¹⁵⁷ Every research expedition in these waters discovers large numbers of new species,¹⁵⁸ such as previously unrecorded species of deep-water algae, coral, and fish.¹⁵⁹ During the summer of 2016, another scientific research expedition on NOAA's Okeanos Explorer research vessel is investigating the megafauna communities residing on seamounts within and around the monument¹⁶⁰.



Scientists estimate that there are upwards of two million species inhabiting the sea-- biodiversity comparable to the world's richest tropical rainforests^{161,162}. Much of this diversity is unknown at this time as science has only identified 240,172 known marine species¹⁶³. In fact, only about two million species have even been described by scientists globally, most of them terrestrial¹⁶⁴. There is much yet to be discovered. For example, on a recent research cruise found a new species of pigmentless octopus near Necker Ridge at depths of 4290 meters (2.5 miles). The ghostly animal was previously unknown and is thought to a new species, and might represent a new genus¹⁶⁵. Scientists have dubbed it the "Casper" octopus, after the popular American cartoon character.

Deep-sea species tend to be slow growing, late maturing and endemic, making them particularly vulnerable to extinction. Much of the biodiversity in the deep sea is concentrated around seamounts. They are home to cold-water coral reefs, sponge beds, and hydrothermal vents, as well as large marine mammals, such as dolphins and whales, and an extraordinary diversity of fish, creating one of the world's greatest unexplored marine-biological treasures.

These remote underwater "islands" provide an important source of food to species due to their associated nutrient-rich upwellings and strong localized currents, which promote growth of massive quantities of plankton¹⁶⁶. At the base of the food web, these plankton hotspots are prime deep-sea feeding and spawning grounds, providing a pit stop for various pelagic species as they migrate through the vast open ocean.¹⁶⁷

Hawaiian monk seals have been found to range away from barrier reefs along the Hawaiian Islands Archipelago submarine ridge to nearby seamounts and submerged reefs and banks¹⁶⁸. Core foraging areas of these endangered animals are generally centered over areas of high bathymetric relief such as submerged banks and seamounts¹⁶⁹.

Threats Facing the NWHI

- Immediate threats to the ecosystem and biodiversity include commercial fishing and plastic pollution.
- Potential future threats include deep sea mining and the effects of climate change, in particular acidification, deoxygenation, and sea level rise.

In simplistic terms, human threats to the ocean can be placed into two broad categories: extraction and pollution. We take out too many fish and other marine life, and dump too many pollutants into the water and too many greenhouse gases into the atmosphere. This is beginning to affect the health of the ocean. On the horizon is the threat of seabed mining.

Today, the main extractive threat to the area of the proposed expansion of PMNM is longline fishing, especially for the thousands of individual sharks, turtles, seabirds, and marine mammals caught as bycatch. In 2014, 2.5 million hooks were set inside the proposed expansion, catching 11,000 tuna, 5,000 sharks, 4,000 billfish, as well as large numbers of seabirds, sea turtles, and marine mammals¹⁷⁰.

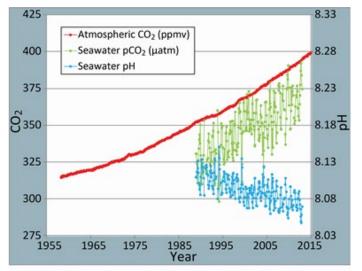
Plastic pollution and marine debris entangles and chokes wildlife. Derelict fishing gear is the main type of submerged marine debris¹⁷¹, and it can continue killing animals long after it has been lost. Fishing gear also becomes entangled on and damages coral reefs and it plastic components have toxic properties¹⁷² that can disrupt the hormone systems of animals and people. Reducing the fishing vessels in the region will help reduce pollution and ghost fishing by lost gear.

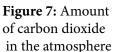
Deep sea mining will not become a threat to marine ecosystems for a few years, but the threat is imminent, and an opportunity exists to protect the fragile area from any future mining. The deep sea ecosystems that are threatened by mining are some of the least studied and understood on Earth. It should also be noted that a tailings from any mining operations will likely also affect the pelagic realm as well.

The amount of carbon in the atmosphere is higher today than at any time in the last 400,000 years ¹⁷³. The global concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere surpassed 400 parts per million in 2013¹⁷⁴. Monthly average data from Mauna Loa over the past five years show the steadily increasing concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide (figure fr. Mauna Loa, NOAA)¹⁷⁵. Further, the atmospheric partial pressure of carbon dioxide, or pCO2 correlates with a decrease in pH, or increase in acidity of the ocean¹⁷⁶. Estimates vary, but the ocean absorbs between twenty six percent¹⁷⁷ to half¹⁷⁸ of all carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere.

The chemistry of carbon dioxide dissolving into the ocean is affected by local conditions of temperature, nutrients, ocean circulation and the surrounding biogeochemical community^{179,180}. Determining exactly what happens in a particular area is complicated and of course depends on species composition and resilience¹¹⁵, however, both field and laboratory experiments point to acidification as responsible for reducing the availability of carbonate to organisms that produce calcium carbonate structures including corals, molluscs, coccolithophores, and calcareous seaweeds¹⁸¹.

Ocean acidification is the insidious side effect of excess atmospheric carbon dioxide. It promises to disrupt formation of coral reefs and stability of food webs, resulting ecosystem damage and food security issues¹⁸². Immediately taking steps to decrease the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide is practically the only way to slow the effects of ocean acidification, however, protecting large expanses of reefs from fishing and other extraction activities would also help maintain the biodiversity needed to buffer or ameliorate the effects of ocean acidification¹⁸³.





This graph shows the correlation between rising levels of carbon dioxide (CO_2) in the atmosphere at Mauna Loa with rising CO_2 levels in the nearby ocean at Station Aloha. As more CO_2 accumulates in the ocean, the pH of the ocean decreases. (modified after R. A. Feely, Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, July 2008).

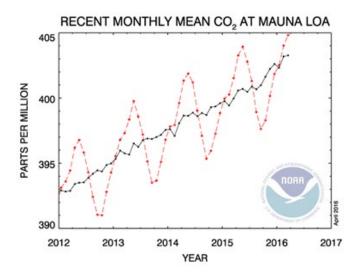


Figure 8: Amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.

Commercial Fishing

"Given the huge scale of fishing impacts, the rate of fish extinctions is likely to increase greatly through this century unless a refugial network of effective MPAs exists to allow persistence of large-bodied species and associated predator-dominated food webs, and broad-scale fisheries management practices significantly improve"¹⁸⁴ Professor Graham Edgar, University of Tasmania Institute of Marine and Antarctic Studies.

- Historically, commercial fishing has had a dramatic effect on the NWHI. Abundant populations of black-lipped pearl oysters were virtually wiped out by commercial fishing between 1929 and 1931 and remain rare today¹⁸⁵.
- An aggressive lobster fishery in the 1980s and 1990s drove down lobster numbers to a fraction of their original population and years after a court-ordered ban on lobster fishing little recovery is evident¹⁸⁶.
- Juvenile endangered Hawaiian monk seals are believed to have relied heavily on lobsters for food. Starvation among juvenile seals is now common and populations of this animal continue to slip toward extinction¹⁸⁷.
- The area proposed for expansion is not a major fishing ground according to publicly available data from NOAA¹⁸⁸. In fact, log books show that the effort in the region has been dramatically decreasing over the last five years.
- Hawaii longline catch quotas are set by the negotiations that take place at the Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, not the placement of marine protected areas. An expanded monument simply displaces fishing effort but will not reduce the overall catch for the Hawaii longline fishery and therefore it will have no, or only minimal, negative impacts on the Hawaiian and US economy.
- Removing the threats from fishing will protect important populations of monk seals, sea turtles, whales, dolphins, seabirds, sharks, and tuna.



While some Pacific areas and species have seen an increase in longline fishing, the NWHI has seen a decrease.¹⁸⁹ Only 5 % of the fleet's hooks were deployed in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands' EEZ in 2014.¹⁹⁰

In 2014, the longline fishery within the NWHI included 89 active vessels, taking 144 trips with 1044 sets. This shows a steady decline – in 2013, there were 95 active vessels, taking 204 trips with 1427 sets. In 2012, there were 113 active vessels, taking 281 trips with 1771 sets.¹⁹¹

The NWHI fleet caught 11,727 bigeye tuna in 2014, down from 14,247 in 2013. The albacore catch was 1898 in 2013 and decreased to 1052 in 2014. The catch of yellowfin tuna also decreased in 2014 to 1723 from 2394 in 2013.¹⁹²

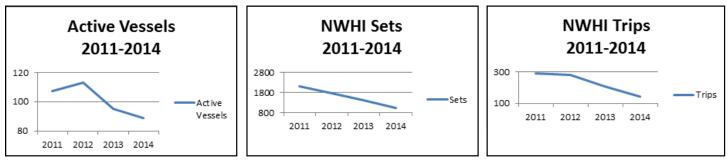


Figure 9:

Fishing effort in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands 2011-2014.

A growing number of hooks are being set outside the U.S. EEZ with this area comprising 75% of the total hooks set in 2014.¹⁹³ Data shows that the catch per unit effort (CPUE) outside the EEZ is higher than in the Main Hawaiian Islands. A fishing ground with higher CPUE provides more return on investment for fishermen, so these areas are more attractive to them, which is why we see so much of the fishery moving into the high seas.

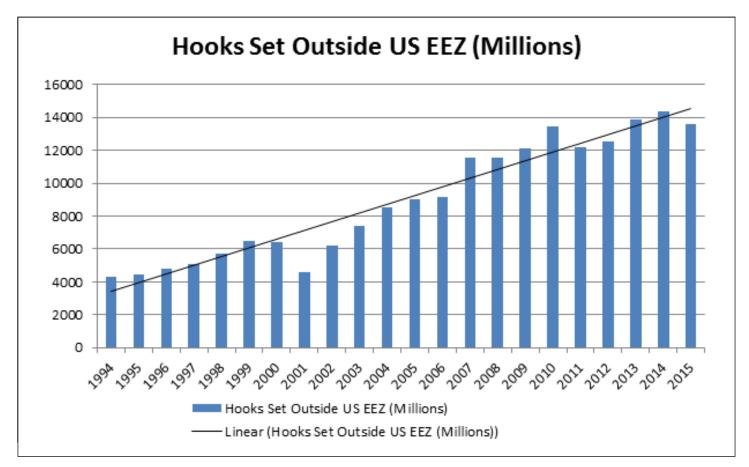


Figure 10: Number of hooks (in millions) set by Hawaiian based longliners 1994-2015.

Also of note, the catch per unit effort for bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*) inside the EEZ around the Main Hawaiian Islands has been declining for decades. This brings into question claims that the Hawaiian longline fishery is sustainable. As stated previously in this report, bigeye tuna is overfished and overfishing has been occurring for years. This report has also shown that tropical tuna, including bigeye, are not highly migratory and most individuals spend much of their life in one area of the Pacific. The data plainly shows that as the longline industry has fished out the tuna resources inside the EEZ, it has increasingly gone outside the EEZ where there are more fish and the CPUE is higher.

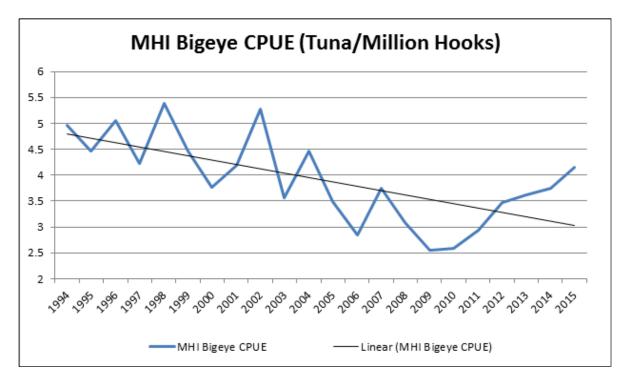


Figure 11: Catch Per Unit of bigeye tuna (Thunnus obesus) 1994-2015 in tuna per million hooks.

Despite the limited fishing taking place in the area, the amount of bycatch is of concern. Reports have shown that the hooking and entanglement of 20 false killer whales *(Pseudorca crassidens)* is an unsustainable level of take^{194,195}. The total annual estimated mortality and serious injury of the Hawaiian stock of false killer has exceeded the level allowable under the Marine Mammal Protection Act (MMPA), and this stock has been considered strategic under the MMPA since 2000¹⁹⁶.



In 2015, the Hawaii longline fleet caught nearly 6,600 sharks in the NWHI alone, nearly all of which were discarded. Since 1991, more than one quarter million sharks have been caught in the area proposed for monument expansion. The catch included oceanic whitetip sharks, thresher, and silky sharks. Thresher sharks and silky sharks are both up for listing on Appendix I of the Convention on the International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) in 2016 because of their reduced numbers.¹⁹⁷; Oceanic whitetip sharks were listed on CITES in 2013. According to publicly available NOAA data, longline fishermen in the area targeting bigeye tuna but then catch one shark for every two of the target species¹⁹⁸.

Marine reserves like an expanded PMNM hold even greater benefits for top predators, such as sharks and tunas. Studies have shown biomass continuing to increase exponentially in predatory fish populations in coastal reserves for up to 18 years after protection was established.¹⁹⁹ Emerging science also highlights the critical role that healthy populations of large predators play in maintaining ecosystem balance^{200,201} and how rebuilding their numbers leads to healthy and more complex food webs.²⁰² There is evidence that healthy ecosystems, often demonstrating healthy populations of predators, are better able to cope with, and recover from, unexpected environmental changes, including those from climate change.

Deep Sea Mining

- We know very little about the deep ocean that could be open to mining. It is critical to learn more about these ocean areas before potentially harmful activities could have a detrimental impact on their ecosystems, habitat, and species.
- The deep seafloor and water column are unique landscapes, similar to mountain ranges and canyons on land that are just as vital to biodiversity and are in need of conservation.

Areas within the proposed expansion have been identified as potential sites for deep sea mining²⁰³. Cobalt rich manganese crusts have been discovered along Necker Ridge, an area in the proposed expansion²⁰⁴. There are likely other minerals associated with benthic habitats in the area of proposed expansion due to the large number of seamounts and vents. Past extraction of resources in the NWHI, from mining guano on the islands to different types of fishing, has harmed this fragile ecosystem, so the possibility of future deep sea mining must be of concern.

Seafloor massive sulfides (SMS) are found around volcanic hot spring hydrothermal vent communities, and are formed when metal-rich minerals are deposited as a result of natural mixing of super-heated mineral-rich water with cold seawater at the bottom of the ocean²⁰⁵. Hydrothermal vents support tremendous productivity, endemism, and unique biological communities. Mining SMS minerals has yet to be tested at full capacity.

The environmental effects of deep-sea mining could be significant and have been classified into five general categories: 1) direct physical disturbance; 2) sediment plumes; 3) acoustic impacts; 4) waste water disposal; and 5) machinery leaks or malfunctions. SMS extraction is anticipated to have considerable impacts on ecosystems, including habitat destruction and species mortality around the impacted hydrothermal vent area.²⁰⁶

There is currently no deep sea mining taking place in the NWHI or in any area under American jurisdiction; however, mineral extraction is planned for other areas in the Pacific. Nautilus Minerals was granted a mining lease in Papua New Guinea in 2011 and preparations are nearing completion for seafloor mining to commence shortly. In the United States, development of environmental regulations and awarding of mineral claims rests with the Office of Ocean Minerals and Energy, a part of NOAA.

Mining of areas we know little about could cause irreversible damage, and therefore we need to be particularly careful about where mining is allowed to occur. Direct and indirect impacts on benthic life are likely to be significant and poorly understood, as we know so little about these ecosystems to begin with. According to one estimate, one fifth of all known hydrothermal vents are threatened by deep sea mining and only 8% of known hydrothermal vent fields fall within a marine protected area.

Plastics

- Albatross mistake floating plastic debris for potential food, ingest it as food, or regurgitate it for their chicks to eat. This can cause mortality.²⁰⁷
- 57 tons of fishing nets and plastic litter were removed from the monument in 2014.

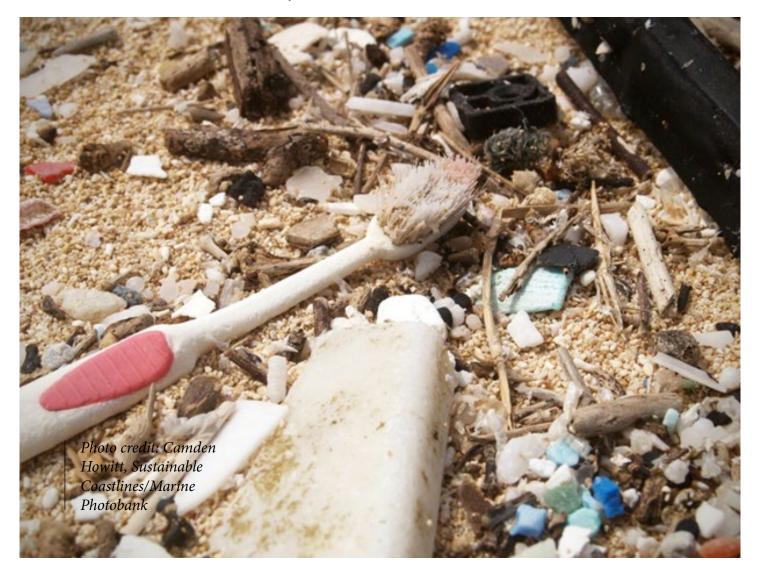


Marine debris is a severe and chronic threat to the NWHI wildlife and marine habitats. Ocean currents carry a wide array of marine debris, including derelict fishing nets and other gear, household plastics, hazardous materials, and shore-based debris²⁰⁸. Most plastic pollution originates from outside the monument, however, commercial fishing boats, recreational fishing boats, and military, merchant, and research vessels in the area of the proposed expansion likely contribute. 88% of marine debris is thought to originate from such ocean-based sources²⁰⁹. A study published in 2014 estimated 298,940 tons of plastic floating in the ocean²¹⁰.

Animals can become entangled in marine debris, such as derelict fishing gear, while other animals can ingest small bits of plastic. For example, monk seals have the highest entanglement rate of any seal in the world. Between 1982 and 2003 there were 238 documented seal entanglements, though many more likely occurred.

Up to 60% of the content in seabirds stomachs' is plastic, depending on the species²¹¹. Eleven of the twenty two species found here are considered imperiled or of high conservation concern. 267 unique species worldwide are known to have suffered from entanglement or ingestion of plastic²¹².

Plastics are considered to be biochemically inert, however many chemical additives in plastics are thought to be toxic including lead and chromium. Several additives have been shown to include endocrine disruptors that affect the function of the hormone system.



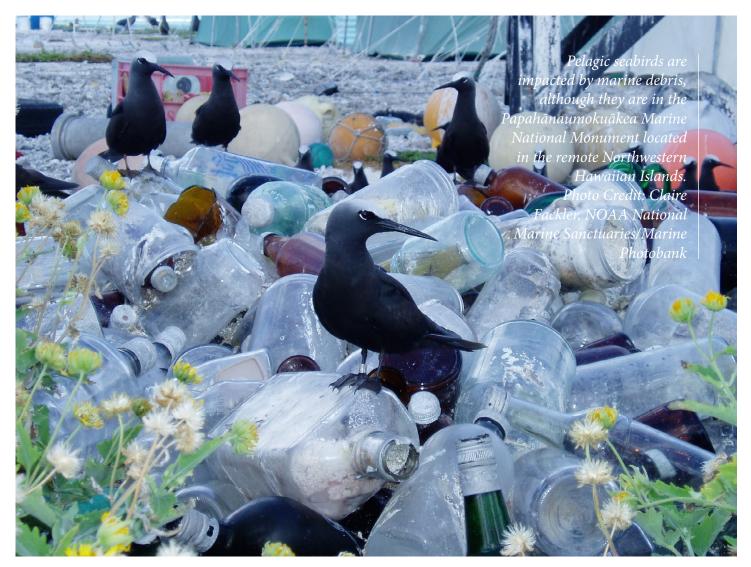
Plastic marine debris can act as magnets for persistent organic pollutants in the ocean such as PCBs (polychlorinated biphenyls) and PAHs (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons). Both of these chemicals have been linked to adverse human health impacts including cancer and endocrine disruption and are likely to damage the health of marine life as well. The hydrophobic nature of these molecules allows them to adhere to the surface of some plastics at levels up to one million times the concentration of surrounding seawater²¹³. The longer plastics persist in the marine environment, the higher the toxin accumulation²¹⁴. These toxins can potentially enter the food chain when consumed by fish and seabirds.



Fishing gear that is lost, discarded, or abandoned can cause damage to coral reefs when it becomes entangled on coral heads. Subsequent wave action can cause the coral to break off at points where the debris was attached, and the process is repeated until it is removed or becomes weighted down and sinks. Eventually, derelict fishing gear may become a part of the reef structure²¹⁵. Derelict fishing gear can also continue to catch fish and entangle other wildlife for many years after it is lost, especially in the deep sea.

[•]Climate Change

- The Obama Administration has identified climate change as a major threat to national security.²¹⁶
- Protected areas act as an ocean refuge for fish, including those displaced by climate change. As ocean temperatures rise, migratory fish populations will move toward cooler waters affecting fisheries and food security.
- There are a multitude of threats to the oceans that work in combination with and as a result of climate change, including acidification, deoxygenation and sea level rise.
- The most up-to-date science shows that marine reserves are an essential means to bolster climate resilience; strongly protected areas that safeguard species and ecosystem functions have proven to be six times more resilient to the impacts of climate change than unprotected areas.²¹⁷



Large, strongly protected marine reserves have emerged as important policy solutions which carry the dual benefit of being both marine climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies. By increasing ocean health, marine reserves are one of the most efficient means to protect Earth and its climate. Fully-intact marine ecosystems, such as those protected by marine reserves, are healthy and resilient,

better able to withstand the impacts of climate change. On the other hand, damaged ecosystems are weak and susceptible to further destruction and disease.

Scientists have suggested that attempts to spare coral reefs from the impacts of climate change by solely reducing emissions have little impact unless protected areas are also established in lockstep with policies that guard essential fish communities, and thus protect healthy reef functioning²¹⁸. For example, in the large, fully-protected reserve in the Indian Ocean around the Chagos Islands, healthy lagoon habitat was critical to coral reef resilience to a large-scale warming event, enabling these ecosystems to recover from this unanticipated environmental shock.²¹⁹

While the NWHI's coral habitats are isolated and still healthy, they are threatened by the effects of climate change. The tropical Pacific has warmed substantially over the past 50 years and the intensified hydrological cycle has reduced the salinity of an area in the Central Pacific Ocean called the Pacific Warming Pool,²²⁰ posing a considerable threat to the corals of the monument.²²¹

Additionally, as surface water temperatures and environmental conditions change, we tend to see the ranges of fish and fisheries shift toward cooler waters^{222,223,224,225,226} affecting fishery health²²⁷, food security, and the economics of fishing²²⁸. In a study conducted in 2012, scientists observed a northward range shift in various species of fish in the northeastern U.S. with increases in surface water temperature.²²⁹ In the Pacific, the expansion of the Pacific Warming Pool due to climate change is expected to push fish north and east²³⁰. Given this observed relationship, climate change can pose a huge threat to species that need very specific environmental conditions (e.g. temperature, prey availability, mates) in order to survive, therefore shifting their ranges could prove disastrous if they are being heavily fished.²³¹ With these temperature and environmental perturbations expected to intensify in the Pacific,²³² an expansion of the PMNM could provide a sanctuary for these marine species.

It is also important to note that it will take between 25-50 years for ocean chemistry to reach equilibrium with atmospheric carbon emissions, and that there will be a "stopping distance" between when we curb our carbon emissions and when coral reefs start getting healthier²³³. If we wait until the problems in PMNM are visible and acute, they may become irreversible. We should protect the ecosystem now to the greatest extent possible.

Temperature anomalies present another significant threat to the marine environment. Elevated sea surface temperatures may be linked to coral bleaching events reported in the NWHI in recent years. These bleaching events place stress on corals, making them more susceptible to disease.

An additional concern is that the species that inhabit the NWHI are particularly vulnerable to sea level rise. In a 2012 USGS report, models predicted a rise of approximately one meter in global sea level by 2100, which would result in a loss of 4% of the total land area in the NWHI. In an even more severe scenario, the NWHI would lose up to 26% of land with a two meter increase in global sea level, land which various species of albatrosses depend on as breeding colonies.²³⁴ Additionally, the NWHI have on record experienced two episodes of coral bleaching.²³⁵ Threats such as these are a major source of concern in maintaining biodiversity in this area.

Seventy one percent of the Earth's surface is covered by ocean. It is the planet's largest ecosystem and plays a crucial role as a climate regulator. The ocean's role in the global carbon cycle is critical - it is by far the biggest carbon sink in the world; over the past 200 years the ocean has accumulated twenty six percent²³⁶ to half²³⁷ of atmospheric carbon emissions. While it has suffered some damage as a result, the ocean has significantly reduced, and mitigated, the impacts of increasing concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide.

To an extent, the impacts of climate change have been set in motion, and will continue to affect the ocean and its ability to withstand environmental stress for years to come. However, scientists are discovering that marine life acts as the "biological pump" of the ocean – converting carbon dioxide into living matter – and could serve just as important of a role as a carbon sink as the physical and chemical marine processes that drive the solubility of atmospheric carbon dioxide.²³⁸ In fact, this biological pump accounts for about two-thirds of the flux of carbon within the ocean.²³⁹

A new study focuses specifically on the role of marine life in the carbon cycle. The study identifies eight key ways that life ranging from photosynthetic primary producers – that convert sunlight into essential building blocks – to the top predators of marine ecosystems act as carbon sinks. Most notably, this work highlights the role of food web dynamics and marine life biomass in carbon storage.²⁴⁰ In addition, this study and others have demonstrated that the ability of bony fish to metabolize carbon into calcium carbonate provides a much needed buffer against ocean acidification, accounting for as much as 45 percent of surface ocean carbonate.²⁴¹ There is also evidence to suggest that intact predator populations are critical to maintaining or growing reserves of carbon stored in coastal or marine ecosystems, and policy and management need to be improved to reflect these realities²⁴². Therefore, using marine reserves as a tool to protect marine life appears to better support the ocean's ability to combat, and recover from, climate change. By keeping marine life in the water, marine reserves also support the ocean's continued role as a biological pump in the carbon cycle.

⁴Economics of Marine Protected Areas

- The social and economic benefits of marine protected areas have been shown to exceed their costs.
- Marine protected areas offer many benefits beyond improving fish stocks, including contributing to climate change adaptation, coastal protection, ecosystem services, cultural preservation, and benefiting ecotourism.

Benefits of Marine Protected Areas

Marine protected areas (MPA) deliver substantial benefits to people and the global economy. It is widely established through numerous studies and peer-reviewed publications that the social and economic benefits of establishing and operating MPAs exceed their costs, from 3:1 for 10% protection, up to 20:1 for 30% protection²⁴³.



For example, in Hawaii, a review of six marine protected areas showed that they generated benefit-cost ratios ranging from 3.8 to 41.5²⁴⁴. Another example from Vanuatu showed a mean return on investment of 1.8 was achieved for five MPAs only five years after the initial investment²⁴⁵. Another study demonstrated that economic benefits from establishing new MPAs can offset costs in as few as five years²⁴⁶.

MPAs contribute to climate change adaptation and to some extent mitigation. Investing in MPAs can reduce community, national, and global vulnerability by increasing resilience and reducing risk²⁴⁷. It can support adaptation efforts against climate-related impacts at various scales, and contribute somewhat to climate change mitigation via the maintenance of healthy oceans²⁴⁸.

Investments in MPAs can provide direct benefits such as coastal protection, including the protection or restoration of mangroves and coral reefs. These investments will enhance resilience by protecting ecosystems, and thus improving food security and securing livelihoods options²⁴⁹. This will be increasingly important in helping communities adapt to climate change and in minimizing damages and losses.

MPAs can strengthen the provision of marine ecosystem services. As marine biodiversity loss disproportionately affects vulnerable populations, investments in MPAs, by helping to protect biodiversity, will help secure the long-term provisioning of key services and access to essential marine resources that support food security, economic opportunities, and human well-being of the world's poor populations²⁵⁰.

MPAs provide insurance and protection from risk. MPAs as the 'conservative' part of our ocean portfolio serve as insurance against our mistakes in management²⁵¹. Investments in MPAs can provide insurance against uncertain and accelerating future marine ecosystem change, and maintain and enhance future development options. Investments made now will reduce future costs and preserve opportunities for current and future generations.

MPAs are also a way to share ocean values with future generations. Effective MPAs are a powerful mechanism for delivering sustainable fisheries objectives for coastal marine ecosystems at varying scales, including sustainable food security, livelihoods, climate change, and disaster risk reduction, far into the future. The sections of this report on the *Role of the NWHI in the Hawaiian Renaissance and Papahānaumokuākea as a Cultural Landscape* discuss these issues as they relate to Native Hawaiian culture in great depth.

⁴Economic Impacts of Papahānaumokuākea Expansion

- There are very high economic and social benefits to expanding Papahānaumokuākea, and very limited costs.
- The expansion of the monument does not affect the fishing quota of the Hawaiian longline fishery. Effort will shift to the 98% of the ocean that is open to fishing.



A key obstacle to establishing MPAs is the fact that in most cases the fisheries costs of MPA establishment are realized in the short term while the fisheries benefits come later. Thus, the short term fisheries costs prevent the realization of the expected much larger benefits. The challenge therefore is to find ways to mitigate the short term costs to fishers of MPA establishment.

The good news in the situation of the expansion of Papahānaumokuākea is that it is unlikely that the Hawaiian longline fishery would be significantly affected by the larger marine protected area. The most likely response to the expansion of the PMNM is for fishing effort to shift beyond the newly closed area. This is possible because the Hawaii longline catch quotas are set by the negotiations that take place at the Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, so an expanded monument will not reduce catch.

Assuming effort shifts to outside the area, the industry is unlikely to be affected by the expansion of the monument. With 90% of the fleet based in Honolulu Harbor and almost all landings are offloaded there, the

wider Hawaii fishing industry, including wholesalers, retailers, fish cutters, equipment operators, provisioners, etc., would be unaffected by the proposed expansion.

It is worth noting that NOAA data show that both the landings and landed values of the longline fleet active in these waters remained the same after the expansion of the Pacific Remote Islands Marine National Monument (PRIMNM) in 2014²⁵². The effort was displaced out of the newly created marine protected area on April 25, 2015 after regulations were published in the Federal Register²⁵³, but fishermen were still able to reach their annual quota on August 5, 2015²⁵⁴ by fishing elsewhere, fully five months before the end of the year. Furthermore, fishermen were able to keep fishing through the end of the year by fishing in the East Pacific, an area not subject to the quota, or by purchasing quota from the U.S. territories of American Samoa, Guam, and the Northern Mariana Islands²⁵⁵.

The area in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands under consideration for expansion is not a major fishing ground according to publicly available data from NOAA²⁵⁶. Historically, less than 10% of the fleet's landings have been caught in this area, dipping down to 5% of total landings in 2014 and 2015. Meanwhile, approximately 70% of the catch (79% in 2014) has historically been caught entirely outside of the EEZ²⁵⁷. The implications of the points made here is that the catch and revenues currently being generated by the fishery are not likely to be affected with the expansion, similar to the situation with PRIMNM. Hence, the added value and contribution of the fisheries sector to the GDP of Hawaii and the fish supply would remain at or close to current levels.

On the other hand, the cost of fishing is likely to increase slightly with the expansion of the PMNM mostly due to an increase in fuel costs as vessels would need to travel farther to fish. The current low oil prices combined with the fleet's preference for these distant fishing grounds (as indicated by NOAA effort data²⁵⁸) indicate that these costs would likely be negligible. It is also possible that higher fuel costs would be offset by the higher catch per unit effort for target species found outside the U.S. EEZ.

[•]Conclusion

"As a Native Hawaiian, we have a concept called Malama 'aina, which teaches us that we must care for the land and nature, so it can continue to care for and sustain us – and our future generations. It means that the relationship between man and environment is a reciprocal one."

U.S. Sen. Daniel K. Akaka, Native Hawaiian



President Barack Obama has a unique opportunity to set a new global standard of marine protection by using his authority under the Antiquities Act to expand the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument to include habitats and ecosystems outside the monument's current borders. This document has shown that the smallest area compatible with proper care and management of this unique cultural and scientific treasure is the full U.S. EEZ of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands.

The proposed expansion contains assets of considerable cultural and scientific value, from native Hawaiian biocultural resources to the unprotected remains of the Battle of Midway. The area is also critical foraging habitat for 22 species of seabirds, 22 species of whales, at least a dozen species of sharks, four commercially important species of tuna, five species of threatened sea turtles, and endangered monk seals. The bottom of the sea holds staggering amounts of unstudied benthic life. 110 seamounts are unexplored and awaiting discovery in this area.

These protections can be put in place with minimal disruptions to the commercial fishing industry. There is no evidence that an expanded marine protected area will reduce fish catches of longline vessels because they can fish throughout most of the Pacific. These boats typically travel thousands of miles in a single trip. They are targeting migratory fish, not fish associated with benthic habitats like seamounts. NOAA data supports this claim; there was no change in the catch of bigeye tuna when the Pacific Remote Islands Marine National Monument was expanded in 2014. Effort shifted to the 98% of the ocean that is open to fishing.

It is important to note that the fishery in Hawaii is carefully regulated and the amount of fish caught by Hawaii-based longline vessels is determined by international negotiations and scientific recommendations at the Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, not the placement of marine protected areas. If there is no change in quota when the monument is expanded, then there is going to be no change in the number of fish caught or the amount of money fishermen make, and therefore, no negative effect on the economy. There is, however, a positive effect on a fragile and culturally important ecosystem. The economic and social benefits of the expansion far outweigh any potential costs.

The science behind the need to enlarge the protections is sound and solid; the arguments against expanded protection are not based on science, but the politics and financial gain of a few who benefit now at the expense of many including future generations of Hawaiians and other stakeholders.

Lubchenco, J. and Grorud-Colvert, K. (2015) Making waves: The science and politics of ocean protection. Sciencexpress

²The United States of America's Nomination of Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument for inspeription on the World Heritage List, 2009

³Lubchenco, *et al.* 2015

⁴http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/education/physical pmnm size.html

^oO'Leary, B.C., Winther-Janson, M., Bainbridge, J.M., Aitken, J., Hawkins, J.P., Roberts, C.M. (2016), Effective coverage targets for ocean protection. Conservation Letters.

⁶Wilson, E.O. (2016) Half Earth: Our Planet's Fight for Life.

⁷The United States of America's Nomination of Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument for inspeription on the World Heritage List, 2009

⁸Camilo Mora, Derek P. Tittensor, Sina Adl, Alastair G. B. Simpson, Boris Worm. How Many Species Are There on Earth and in the Ocean? PLoS Biology, 2011; 9 (8): e1001127 DOI: 10.1371/journal.pbio.1001127

⁷Mora, *et al* 2011

¹⁰http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/news/okeanos_2015_return.html

¹¹Spalding, H.L., Conklin, K.Y., Smith, C.M., O'Kelly, C.J., and Sherwood, A.R. (2015) New Ulvaceae (Ulvophyceae, Chlorophyta) from mesophotic ecosystems across the Hawaii Archipelago. Journal of Phycology. 52(1): 40-53.

¹²http://www.npr.org/sections/thetwo-way/2016/03/05/469317639/scientists-discover-remarkable-little-octopod-possibly-new-species ¹³http://www.wsj.com/articles/obama-to-cast-climate-change-as-a-national-security-threat-1432126767

¹⁴Hazen, E. L., S. Jorgensen, R. R. Rykaczewski, S. J. Bograd, D. G. Foley, I. D. Jonsen, S. A. Shaffer, J. P. Dunne, D. P. Costa, L. B.

Crowder, and B. A. Block. 2012. Predicted habitat shifts of Pacific top predators in a changing climate. Nature Climate Change 3:234-238.

¹⁵Perry, A. L., P. J. Low, J. R. Ellis, and J. D. Reynolds. 2005. Climate change and distribution shifts in marine fishes. Science 308:1912-1915.

¹⁶PJ Mumby et al. (2013). Operationalizing the Resilience of Coral Reefs in an Era of Climate Change. Conservation Letters 7(3): 176 – 187.

¹⁷Edgar, G. et al. Global conservation outcomes depend on marine protected areas with five key features. Nature 506, 216–220 (2014 ¹⁸*Papahānaumokuākea*. UNESCO, http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1326

¹⁹NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/about/name.html

²⁰Pukui, M.K., Haertig, E.W., and Lee, C.A. 1972. Nana I ke Kumu. Honolulu: Queen Lili'uokalani Children's Center Publication.

²¹Ho'oulumahiehie 2006. Ka Moolelo o Hiiakaikapoliopele. Translated by Puakea Nogelmeir. Awaiaulu Press, Honolulu Publishing, Honolulu.

²²Pukui, M.K. and Elbert, S.H. 1986. Hawaiian Dictionary: Hawaiian-English and English-Hawaiian. University of Hawaii Press, Honolulu. ²³Johnson, R.W. and Mahelona, J.K. 1975. *Na Inoa Hoku: A Catalogue of Hawaiian and Pacific Star Names*. Honolulu: Topgallant Publishing Company.

²⁴Kikiloi, Kekuewa. 2010a Rebirth of an Archipelago: Sustaining a Hawaiian Cultural Identity for People and Homeland

²⁵NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/heritage/

²⁶Kikiloi, 2010a

²⁷Kikiloi, K. 2010b Kukulu Manamana: Ritual Power and Religious Expansion in Hawaii The Ethnohistorical and archaeological study of mokumanamana and nihoa islands

²⁸ibid

²⁹Kanahele, George. 1979. The Hawaiian Renaissance

³⁰Sharp, Andrew. (1957) Ancient Voyagers in the Pacific

³¹*ibid*

³²The United States of America's Nomination of Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument for inspeription on the World Heritage List, 2009

³³ibid

³⁴ibid

³⁵Maly, K. and Maly, O. (2004) Summary of Detailed Findings from Research on the History of Fishing Practices and Marine Fisheries of the Hawaiian Islands.

³⁶Kikiloi 2010b

³⁷*Ibid* ³⁸Keliipio (1901) Hawaiian Annual and Almanac ³⁹Kikiloi, Kekuewa. 2016. Pu'uhonua no Hawaii: Expanded monument would provide a sanctuary for our ocean heritage. Honolulu Star Advertiser. 8 May 2016.

⁴⁰Kikiloi 2010b

⁴¹Polynesian Voyaging Society. http://pvs.kcc.hawaii.edu/ike/hookele/on_wayfinding.html

42ibid

⁴³NOAA, Northwestern Hawaiian Islands Marine National Monument: A Citizen's Guide

⁴⁴NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/maritime/twobrothers.html

⁴⁵http://news.nationalgeographic.com/news//2011/02/110211-two-brothers-whaling-ship-pollard-science-nantucket-noaa/

⁴⁶NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/maritime/mission.html

⁴⁷NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/pdf/mh_plan.pdf

⁴⁸http://www.history.navy.mil/browse-by-topic/commemorations-toolkits/battle-of-midway.html

⁴⁹Naval History and Heritage Command, http://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/b/battleof-midway-4-7-june-1942.html

⁵⁰http://www.cnn.com/TECH/science/9806/04/yorktown.found/

⁵¹http://nauticos.com/wreckage-of-kaga-2/

⁵²http://oceanexplorer.noaa.gov/okeanos/explorations/ex1603/background/midway/welcome.html

⁵³http://www.fws.gov/nwrs/threecolumn.aspx?id=2147560557

⁵⁴Eldredge LG, Evenhuis NL. 2003. Hawaii's biodiversity: a detailed assessment of the numbers of species in the Hawaiian Islands. Bishop Mus Occ Pap. 76:1–28.

⁵⁵Carson HL. In: The Origin and Evolution of Pacific Island Biotas, New Guinea to Eastern Polynesia: Patterns and Processes. Keast A, Miller SE, editors. Amsterdam: SPB Academic Publishing; 1996. pp. 7–17.

⁵⁶Selkoe, K. A., Halpern, B. S., Ebert, C. M., Franklin, E. C., Selig, E. R., Casey, K. S., et al.(2009), A map of human impacts to a "pristine" coral reef ecosystem, the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument. Coral Reefs: Journal of the International Society for Reef Studies, 28(3): 635-650. doi: 10.1007/s00338-009-0490-z

⁵⁷Kane, C., Kosaki, R. K. and Wagner, D. (2014), High levels of mesophotic reef fish endemism in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Bulletin of Marine Science, 90(2). http://dx.doi.org/10.5343/bms.2013.1053

⁵⁸http://greenmagazinehawaii.com/pmnm-deep-reef-expedition-2015/

⁵⁹Hooker, S.K. and Gerber, L.R. (2004), Marine reserves as a tool for ecosystem-based management: the potential importance of megafauna. BioScience, 54 (1): 27-39.

⁶⁰Roberts, C. M., Andelman, S., Branch, G., Bustamante, R. H., Carlos Castilla, J., Dugan, J., Halpern, B. S., Lafferty, K. D., Leslie, H., Lubchenco, J., McArdle, D., Possingham, H. P., Ruckelshaus, M. and Warner, R. R. (2003), Ecological criteria for evaluating candidate sites for marine reserves. Ecological Applications, 13: 199–214. doi:10.1890/1051-0761(2003)013[0199:ECFECS]2.0.CO;2

⁶¹Friedlander, A. M., & DeMartini, E. E. (2002). Contrasts in density, size, and biomass of reef fishes between the northwestern and the main Hawaiian islands: the effects of fishing down apex predators. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 230(253), e264.

⁶²Morris, A.V., Roberts, C.M. and Hawkins, J.P. (2000), The threatened status of groupers (*Epinephelinae*). Biodiversity & Conservation, 9(7): 919-942.

⁶³Cornish, A. (Grouper & Wrasse Specialist Group). (2004), *Hyporthodus quernus*. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2004: e.T44675A10935184. http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2004.RLTS.T44675A10935184.en. Downloaded on 01 February 2016.

⁶⁴Antonelis, G. A., Baker, J. D., Johanos, T. C., Braun, R. C., & Harting, A. L. (2006). Hawaiian monk seal (Monachus schauinslandi): status and conservation issues. *Atoll Research Bulletin*, *543*, 75-101.

⁶⁵Balazs GH (1994) Homeward bound: satellite tracking of Hawaiian green turtles from nesting beaches to foraging pastures. In: Schroeder BA, Witherington B (compilers) Proc 13th Annu Symp on Sea Turtle Biology and Conservation. NOAA Tech Memo NMFS-SEFSC-341, National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA, p 205–208

⁶⁵Croll, D. A., Tershy, B. R., Hewitt, R. P., Demer, D. A., Fiedler, P. C., Smith, S. E., ... & Urban, J. (1998). An integrated approch to the foraging ecology of marine birds and mammals. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, *45*(7), 1353-1371.

⁶⁷http://www.fpir.noaa.gov/SFD/pdfs/seabird/2014_PIR_Seabird_Report_Feb_2016.pdf

⁶⁸Young, H.S., Maxwell, S.M., Conners, M.G., and Shaffer, S.S. (2015) Pelagic marine protected areas protect foraging habitat for multiple breeding seabirds in the central Pacific. Biological Conservation 181:226-235.

⁶⁹Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument Management Plan 2008; KE Keller, AD Anders, SA Shaffer, MA Kappes, B Flint, and A Friedlander, 2009. Seabirds: A Marine Biogeographic Assessment of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands.

⁷⁰Keller et al. 2009; for example, DC Duffy, 2010, Changing Seabird Management in Hawai'i: From Exploitation through Management to Restoration, Waterbirds 33(2): 193-207.

⁷¹Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument Management Plan 2008.

⁷²Paleczny M, Hammill E, Karpouzi V, Pauly D (2015) Population Trend of the World's

Monitored Seabirds, 1950-2010. PLoS ONE 10(6): e0129342. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.

0129342

⁷³Population Trend of the world's monitored seabirds, 1950-2010. Paleczny 2015.

http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0129342

⁷⁴Meseth, E.H. 1975. The Dance of the Laysan Albatross, *Diomedia immutabilis*. Behavior. 54:217-257

⁷⁵Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument Management Plan 2008; Keller et al. 2009.

⁷⁶Kappes, M.A., Shaffer, S.A., Tremblay, Y., Foley, D.G., Palacios, D.M., Bograd, S.J., and Costa, D.P. 2015. Reproductive constraints influence habitat accessibility, segregation, and preference of sympatric albatross species. Movement Ecology 3:34.

⁷⁷PR Newswire-US Newswire, March 2, 2007.

⁷⁸Croxall, J.P., Butchart, S.H.M., Lascelles, B., Statterfield, A.J., Sullivan, B., Symes, A., and Taylor, P. 2012. Seabird conservation status, threats and priority actions: a global assessment. Bird Conservation International. 22:1-34

⁷⁹AE Edwards, SM Fitzgerald, JK Parrish, JL Klavitter and MD Romano, 2015. Foraging Strategies of Laysan Albatross Inferred from Stable Isotopes: Implications for Association with Fisheries, PLoS ONE 10(7): e0133471.

⁸⁰Keller et al. 2009; Edwards et al. 2015.

⁸¹NOAA, National Marine Fisheries Service, Pacific Islands Regional Office, 2014. 2013 Annual Report: Seabird Interactions and Mitigation Efforts in Hawaii Longline Fisheries.

⁸²ibid

⁸³Maxwell, S. M., and L. E. Morgan. 2013. Facilitated foraging of seabirds on pelagic fishes: implications for management of pelagic marine protected areas. Marine Ecology Progress Series 481:289-303.

⁸⁴Hebshi, A. J., D. C. Duffy, and K. D. Hyrenbach. 2008. Associations between seabirds and subsurface predators around Oahu, Hawaii.

Aquatic Biology 4:89-98.

⁸⁵Spear, L. B., D. G. Ainley, and W. Walker. 2007. Foraging dynamics of seabirds in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean. Studies in Avain Biology 35:1-99.

⁸⁶Young *et al* 2015.

⁸⁷Maxwell, S.M. and Morgan, L.E. (2013) Foraging of seabirds on pelagic fishes: implications for managemet of pelagic marine protected areas. Marine Ecology Progress Series. 481:289-303.

⁸⁸NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 1991-2015

⁸⁹IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, http://www.iucnredlist.org/

⁹⁰Herndon A, Gallucci VF, DeMaster D, Burke W. The case for an international commission for the conservation and management of sharks (ICCMS). Mar Policy 2010;34:1239–1248.

⁹¹Ferretti, F., Worm, B., Britten, G. L., Heithaus, M. R. and Lotze, H. K. (2010), Patterns and ecosystem consequences of shark declines in the ocean. Ecology Letters, 13: 1055–1071. doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2010.01489.x

⁹²Robbins, William D., Mizue Hisano, Sean R. Connolly, and J. Howard Choat. 2006. Ongoing

collapse of coral-reef shark populations. Current Biology 16, pp 2314-2319

⁹³Holzwarth, S.R., Demartini, E.E., Schroeder, R.E., Zgliczynski, B.J., and Laughlin, J.L. 2006 Sharks and Jacks in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands from Towed-Diver Surveys 2000-2003. Atoll Research Bulletin. 543: 257-279.

⁹⁴Baum, J., Medina, E., Musick, J.A. and Smale, M. (2015), *Carcharhinus longimanus*. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2015: e.T39374A85699641. http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2015.RLTS.T39374A85699641.en. Downloaded on 01 February 2016.

⁹⁵Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC). (2013), Conservation and Management Measure for Silky Sharks. CMM 2013-08.

⁹⁶Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC). (2011), Conservation and Management Measure for Oceanic Whitetip. CMM 2011-04.

⁹⁷WCPFC Tuna Fishery Yearbook 2014

⁹⁸Clarke, S. C., Harley, S. J., Hoyle, S.D. and Rice J. S. (2013), Population trends in Pacific oceanic sharks and the utility of regulations on shark finning. Conservation Biology, 27: 197–209. doi: 10.1111/j.1523-1739.2012.01943.x

⁹⁹Dale, J. J., Meyer, C. G. and Clark, C. E. (2011), The ecology of coral reef top predators in the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument. Journal of Marine Biology, vol. 2011, Article ID 725602, 14 pages. doi:10.1155/2011/725602

¹⁰⁰Meyers, C.G., Papastamatiou, Y.P., Holland, K.N. (2010) A multiple instrument approach to quantifying the movement patterns and habitat use of tiger (*Galeocerdo cuvier*) and Galapagos sharks (*Carcharhinus galapagensis*) at French Frigate Shoals, Hawaii. Marine Biology, Volume 157, Issue 8: 1857-1868.

¹⁰¹Polovina, J.J., and Lau, B.B. (1993) Temporal and Spatial Distribution of Catches of Tiger Sharks, *Galeocerdo cuvier*, in the Pelagic Longline Fishery Around the Hawaiian Islands.

¹⁰²Polovina *et al* 1993.

¹⁰³NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 1991-2015

¹⁰⁴Graham, F., Rynne, P., Estevanez, M., Luo, J., Ault, J. S. and Hammerschlag, N. (2016), Use of marine protected areas and exclusive economic zones in the subtropical western North Atlantic Ocean by large highly mobile sharks. Diversity Distrib.. doi:10.1111/ddi.12425 ¹⁰⁵IUCN Red List of Threatened Species

¹⁰⁶Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, Summary Report: Twelfth Regular Session of the Commission

¹⁰⁷NOAA, 2014 Annual Report: Seabird Interactions and Mitigation Efforts in Hawaii Longline Fisheries

¹⁰⁸Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, Summary Report: Twelfth Regular Session of the Commission

¹⁰⁹Secretariat of the Pacific Community. Stock Assessment of Bigeye Tuna in the Western and Central Pacific Ocean.

¹¹⁰Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission, Summary Report: Twelfth Regular Session of the Commission

http://www.pewtrusts.org/en/research-and-analysis/analysis/2014/12/15/wcpfc-resorts-to-status-quo-for-overfished-bigeye-tuna

¹¹²http://www.usnews.com/news/science/news/articles/2015/09/25/environmentalists-ask-court-to-stop-hawaii-tuna-quota-shift

¹¹³Ramiscal, R.V., Dickson, A.C., Tanangonan, I., Demo-os, M., and Jara, J. 2015. Group Seine Operations of Philippine Flagged Vessels in High Seas Pocket 1. Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources.

¹¹⁴Hilborn R, Sibert J. Is international management of tuna necessary. Marine Policy 1988;12(1):31–9.

¹¹⁵Sibert, J., & Hampton, J. (2003). Mobility of tropical tunas and the implications for fisheries management. *Marine Policy*, 27(1), 87–95.

¹¹⁶Graham, B. S., Koch, P. L., Newsome, S. D., McMahon, K. W., & Aurioles, D. (2010). Using Isoscapes to Trace the Movements and Foraging Behavior of Top Predators in Oceanic Ecosystems. In J. B. West, G. J. Bowen, T. E. Dawson, & K. P. Tu (Eds.), *Isoscapes* (pp. 299–318). Springer Netherlands

¹¹⁷Grewe, P.M. *et al.* Evidence of discrete yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) populations demands rethink of management for this globally important resource. *Sci. Rep.* 5, 16916; doi: 10.1038/srep16916 (2015).

¹¹⁸Lutcavage M., Brill R.W., Skomal G.B., Chase B.C. & P.W. Howey (1999). Results of pop-up

satellite tagging of spawning size class in the Gulf of Maine: do North Atlantic blue fin tuna

spawn in the mid-Atlantic? Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sci- ence 56, pp 173-177

¹¹⁹NOAA, U.S. Pacific Marine Mammal Stock Assessments: 2014

¹²⁰Baird, R.W., Oleson, E.M., Barlow, J., Ligon, A.D., Gorgone, A.M., and Mahaffy, S.D. (2011) Photo-identification and satellite tagging of false killer whales during HICEAS II: evidence of an island-associated population in the Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument. Document PSRG-2011-16 presented to the Pacific Scientific Review Group, Seattle, November 2011

¹²¹http://www.pifsc.noaa.gov/qrb/2010_06/article_12.php

¹²²Barlow, J. 2006. Cetacean Abundance in Hawaiian Waters Estimated From a Summer/Fall Survey in 2002. Marine Mammal Science, 22(2):446-464

¹²³*ibid*

¹²⁴NOAA, U.S. Pacific Marine Mammal Stock Assessments: 2014

125http://www.nmfs.noaa.gov/pr/sars/region.htm

¹²⁶Personal correspondence with R. Baird.

¹²⁷Woodworth, P. A., Schorr, G. S., Baird, R. W., Webster, D. L., McSweeney, D. J., Hanson, M. B., Andrews, R. D. and Polovina, J. J. (2012), Eddies as offshore foraging grounds for melon-headed whales (*Peponocephala electra*). Marine Mammal Science, 28: 638–647. doi: 10.1111/j.1748-7692.2011.00509.x

¹²⁸Carretta, J. V., Forney, K. A., Oleson, E., Martien, K., Muto, M. M., Lowry, M. S., Hill, M. C. (2011). U.S. Pacific marine mammal stock assessments: 2010 (NOAATM-NMFS-SWFSC-476). Washington, DC: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration.

¹²⁹Baird *et al* 2011.

¹³⁰Baird, R.W., Oleson, E.M., Barlow, J., Ligon, A.D., Gorgone, A.M., and Mahaffy, S.D. (2011) Photo-identification and satellite tagging of false killer whales during HICEAS II: evidence of an island-associated population in the Papahanaumokuakea Marine National Monument. Document PSRG-2011-16 presented to the Pacific Scientific Review Group, Seattle, November 2011

¹³¹NOAA, http://www.fpir.noaa.gov/PRD/prd_green_sea_turtle.html

¹³²IUCN Red List of Threatened Species

¹³³NOAA

¹³⁴Balaza (1976) Green turtle migrations in the Hawaiian archipelago.

¹³⁵Western Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Council. http://www.wpcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/FINAL_Green-Sea-Turtle.pdf

¹³⁶Lewison, R.L., Freeman, S.A., and Crowder, L.B. 2004. Quantifying the effects of Fisheries on threatened species: the impact of pelagic longlines on loggerhead and leatherback sea turtles. Ecology Letters 7:221-231.

¹³⁷DeFlorio, M., Aprea, A., Corriero, A., Santamaria, N. and DeMetrio, G. 2005. Incidental capture of sea turtles by swordÞsh and albacore longlines in the Ionian Sea. Fisheries Science 71:1010-1018.

¹³⁸Lewison, et al. 2004.

¹³⁹Ibid

140 NOAA Fisheries Observer Program http://www.fpir.noaa.gov/OBS/obs_hawaii.html

¹⁴¹Lewison et al 2004

¹⁴²National Marine Sanctuaries (2016), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Accessed on 01 February 2016: http:// sanctuaries.noaa.gov/#PM

¹⁴³National Marine Sanctuaries (2016), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Accessed on 01 February 2016: http:// sanctuaries.noaa.gov/science/condition/pmnm/history.html

¹⁴⁴C Kane, R K Kosaki and D Wagner, High levels of mesophotic reef fish endemism in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. *Bulletin of Marine Science* (2014) 90(2); http://dx.doi.org/10.5343/bms.2013.1053

145NOAA, http://oceanservice.noaa.gov/news/mar14/nwhi-fish-species.html

¹⁴⁶ibid

¹⁴⁷*ibid*

¹⁴⁸Lumsden, SE, Hourigan TF, Bruckner AW, Dorr G (eds.) 2007. The State of Deep Coral Ecosystems of the United States. NOAA Technical Memorandum CRCP-3. Silver Spring, MD

¹⁴⁹E. Brendan Roark, Thomas P. Guilderson, Robert B. Dunbar, Stewart J. Fallon, and David A. Mucciarone. Extreme longevity in proteinaceous deep-sea corals. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2009; DOI: 10.1073/pnas.0810875106

¹⁵⁰http://www.pewenvironment.org/campaigns/protecting-the-deep-sea/id/8589940401

¹⁵¹Extreme longevity in proteinaceous deep-seal corals. Roark, 2009. http://www.pnas.org/content/early/2009/03/20/0810875106.abstract

¹⁵²Pitcher, T.J., Morato, T., Hart, P.J.B., Clark, M.R., Haggan, N., and Santos, R.S. 2008. Seamounts: Ecology, Fisheries, & Conservation. John Wiley & Sons.

¹⁵³Watling, L. (2015), Seamounts: underwater islands of the Pacific, Okeanos Explorer. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Accessed on 01 February 2016: http://oceanexplorer.noaa.gov/okeanos/explorations/ex1504/background/seamounts/welcome.html

¹⁵⁴NOAA, http://oceanexplorer.noaa.gov/okeanos/explorations/ex1603/logs/mar2/mar2.html

¹⁵⁵Kelley, C. (2014). Volcanic platforms, ancient reefs, ridges, and seamounts: mapping the Papahānaumokuākea Marine National Monument. Final Project Report for Falkor Cruises FK140307 and FK140502.

¹⁵⁶Watling, L. (2015). Personal Communication. University of Hawaii. 02 February 2016.

¹⁵⁷Mundy et al, 2010, http://www.pifsc.noaa.gov/library/pubs/Mundy_etal_ARB_585_2010.pdf

¹⁵⁸Parrish and Baco, 2006, http://www.coris.noaa.gov/activities/deepcoral_rpt/Chapter4_HawaiiPacific.pdf

¹⁵⁹http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/research/biogeographic_cruise2013.html

¹⁶⁰NOAA, http://oceanexplorer.noaa.gov/okeanos/explorations/2016-overview/welcome.html

¹⁶¹Camilo *et al* 2011

¹⁶²Snelgrove, P.V.R. and Grassle, J.F. 1995. The Deep Sea: Desert and Rainforest. Debunking the Desert Analogy. Oceanus. 25-29

¹⁶³WoRMS Editorial Board (2016). World Register of Marine Species. Available from http://www.marinespecies.org

¹⁶⁴Pimm, S.L., C.N. Jenkins, R. Abell, T.M. Brooks, J.L. Gittleman, L.N. Joppa, P.H. Raven, C.M. Roberts, J.O. Sexton (2014) The biodiversity of species and their rates of extinction, distribution, and protection. Science 344, DOI: 10.1126/science.1246752

165 http://news.discovery.com/animals/casper-octopus-may-be-new-species.htm

¹⁶⁶Boehlert, G. 1987. A Review of the Effects of Seamounts on Biological Processes. Southwest Fisheries Center Honolulu Laboratory

¹⁶⁷http://www.fws.gov/pacificremoteislandsmarinemonument/PRIMNM%20brief.pdf

¹⁶⁸Foraging biogeography of Hawaiian monk seals in the northwestern Hawaiian Islands. Stewart 2006. http://www.pifsc.noaa.gov/library/pubs/StewartARB543_Final.pdf

¹⁶⁹ibid

¹⁷⁰NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 2014

171 https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/sites/default/files/publications-files/Ghostfishing_DFG.pdf

¹⁷²Teuten, E. L., Saquing, J. M., Knappe, D. R., Barlaz, M. A., Jonsson, S., Björn, A., ... & Ochi, D. (2009). Transport and release of chemicals from plastics to the environment and to wildlife. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences*, *364*(1526), 2027-2045. ¹⁷³http://climate.nasa.gov/climate_resources/24/

174http://climate.nasa.gov/news/916/

¹⁷⁵http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/

¹⁷⁶http://www.pmel.noaa.gov/co2/file/Hawaii+Carbon+Dioxide+Time-Series

¹⁷⁷Le Quéré, C., Andres, R. J., Boden, T., Conway, T., Houghton, R. A., House, J. I., Marland, G., Peters, G. P., van der Werf, G. R., Ahlström, A., Andrew, R. M., Bopp, L., Canadell, J. G., Ciais, P., Doney, S. C., Enright, C., Friedlingstein, P., Huntingford, C., Jain, A. K., Jourdain, C., Kato, E., Keeling, R. F., Klein Goldewijk, K., Levis, S., Levy, P., Lomas, M., Poulter, B., Raupach, M. R., Schwinger, J., Sitch, S., Stocker, B. D., Viovy, N., Zaehle, S., and Zeng, N.: The global carbon budget 1959–2011, Earth Syst. Sci. Data, 5, 165-185, doi:10.5194/ essd-5-165-2013, 2013.

¹⁷⁸C. L. Sabine, R. A. Feely, N. Gruber, R.M. Key, K. Lee, J. L. Bullister, R.Wanninkhof, C. S.Wong, D.W. R. Wallace, B.Tilbrook, F. J. Millero, T.-H. Peng, A. Kozyr, T. Ono, A. F. Rios. The Oceanic Sink for Anthropogenic CO₂ (2004) *Science*, *305*(5682), 367–371

¹⁷⁹Klypas, J. & Langdon, C., *Overview of CO₂-induced changes in seawater chemistry*. Accessed 23 Apr 2016, http://cals.arizona.edu/ azaqua/Biosphere/Papers/CO2%20induced%20Changes%20in%20Seawater%20Chemistry%20Full%20Paper%20III.pdf ¹⁸⁰Marinov, I. Follows, M., Gnanadesikan, A., Sarmiento, J.L., and Slater, R.D.. 2008. *How does ocean biology affect atmospheric p*CO₂? *Theory and models*. Journal of Geophysical Research, 113:C7, doi:10.1029/2007JC004598. Accessed 23 Apr 2016, http://ocean.mit. edu/~mick/Papers/Marinov-etal-JGR2008.pdf

¹⁸¹Hoegh-Guldberg O., Mumby, P.J., Hooten, A.J., Steneck, R.S., Greenfield, P., Gomez, E., Harvell, C.D., Sale, P.F., Edwards, A.J., Caldeira, K., Knowlton, N., Eakin, C.M., Iglesias-Prieto, R., Muthiga, N., Bradbury, R.H., Dubi, A., Hatziolos, M.E., *Coral reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification*. 2007. *Science*, 319:1737. DOI: 10.1126/science.1152509. Accessed 23 Apr 2016, http://208.180.30.233/lib/reefs_endangered.071214.pdf

¹⁸²IGBP, IOC, SCOR. 2013. Ocean acidification summary for policymakers- third symposium on the ocean in a high CO₂ world. International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme, Stockholm, Sweden. Accessed 23 Apr 2016. http://www.igbp.net/download/18.30566fc6142425d6c91140a/1385975160621/OA_spm2-FULL-lorez.pdf

¹⁸³Mumby *et al* 2013

¹⁸⁴Mora, C. & Sale, P. F. Ongoing global biodiversity loss and the need to move beyond protected areas: a review of the technical and practical shortcomings of protected areas on land and sea. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 434, 251–266 (2011).

185NOAA, http://www.papahanaumokuakea.gov/education/creature_black_pearl_oyster.html

¹⁸⁶Heinemann, D., Gillelan, H., and Morgan, L. 2005. Bottom Fishing in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands: Is it Ecologically Sustianable?

¹⁸⁷ibid

¹⁸⁸NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 2014

¹⁸⁹The Hawaii-based Longline Logbook Summary Reports, January – December 2014, 2013 and 2012. Pacific Island Fisheries Science Center Data Reports, PIFSC Data Reports DR-15-007, DR-14-016, and DR-13-004.

¹⁹⁰ibid.

¹⁹¹ibid.

¹⁹²ibid.

¹⁹³NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 2014

¹⁹⁴Forney, K. A. 2004. Estimates of cetacean mortality and injury in two U. S. Pacific longline fisheries, 1994–2002. Administrative Report LJ-04–07.

¹⁹⁵Barlow, J. 2006

¹⁹⁶Forney, K. A., J. Barlow, M. M. Muto, M. Lowry, J. Baker, G. Cameron, J. Mobley, C. Stinchcomb, and J. Carretta. 2000. U.S. Pacific Marine Mammal Stock Assessments: 2000. U.S. Department of Commerce, NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-SWFSC- 300. 276p.

¹⁹⁷The Hawaii-based Longline Logbook Summary Reports, January – December 2014, 2013 and 2012. Pacific Island Fisheries Science Center Data Reports, PIFSC Data Reports DR-15-007, DR-14-016, and DR-13-004.

¹⁹⁸NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 2014

¹⁹⁹G. Russ and A. Alcala (2004). Marine Reserves: Long-Term Protection is Required for Full Recovery of Predatory Fish Populations. Oecologia 138(4).

²⁰⁰Sergio, F., Newton, I., Marchesi, L., and Pedrini, P. (2006). Ecological justified charisma: preservation of top predators delivers biodiversity conservation. Journal of Applied Ecology 43: 1049-1055.

²⁰¹G. Britten et al. (2014). Predator decline leads to decreased stability in a coastal fish community. Ecology Letters 17(12): 1518-25.

²⁰²Bascompte, J., C. Melian and E. Sala (2005). Interaction strength combinations and the overfishing of a marine food web. Proceedings of the National Academy of Science 102: 5443 – 5447.

²⁰³Christopher Kelley and Diva Amon. Deep-sea Mining Interests and Activities in the Western

Pacific. NOAA http://oceanexplorer.noaa.gov/okeanos/explorations/ex1605/background/mining/

welcome.html

²⁰⁴Morgan, N.B., Cairns, S., Reiswig, H., and Baco, A.R. (2015) Benthic megafaunal community structure of cobalt-rich manganese crusts of Necker Ridge. Deep Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers. 104: 92-105.

²⁰⁵Jochen Halfar & Rodney Fujita, Danger of Deep-Sea Mining, Vol. 316, No. 5827 Science 987 (2007).

²⁰⁶Thaler, A. (2013) http://www.southernfriedscience.com/one-fifth-of-all-known-hydrothermal-vents-are-threatened-by-deep-sea-mining/

207 http://www.farallones.org/e_newsletter/2007-12/Albatross.htm

²⁰⁸Noone, K.J., Sumaila, U.R., and Diaz, R.J. (eds.) (2013). Managing Ocean Environments in a Changing Climate: Sustainability and Economic Perspectives. Elsevier, London, UK, p. 359.

²⁰⁹UNEP (2009) Abandoned, lost or otherwise discarded fi shing gear. United Nations Environment Programme, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome

²¹⁰M. Eriksen, L.C.M. Lebreton, H.S. Carson, M. Thiel, C.J. Moore, J.C. Borerro, F. Galgani, P.G. Ryan, and J. Reisse. (2014) Plastic Pollution in the World's Oceans: More than 5 Trillion Plastic Pieces Weighing over 250,000 Tons Afloat at Sea. Algalita.

²¹¹Wilcox, C., Van Sebille, E., and Hardesty, B.D. (2015) Threat of plastic pollution to seabirds is global, pervasive, and increasing.PNAS. 112(38)

²¹²Moore, CJ. (2008) Synthetic polymers in the marine environment: a rapidly increasing, long-term threat. Environ Res. 108(2):131-9.

²¹³Mato, Yukie, Tomokiko Isobe, Hideshige Takada, Haruyuki Kanehiro, Chiyoko Ohtake, and Tsuguchika Kaminuma. Plastic resin pellets as transport medium for toxic chemicals in the marine environment. Environmental Science & Technology. 2001, 35, 318-324
 ²¹⁴Rochman, Chelsea M, Eunha Hoh, Brian T Henschel, and Shawn Kaye. 2013. Long-Term Field Measurement of Sorption of Organic Contaminants to Five Types of Plastic Pellets: Implications for Plastic Marine Debris. Environmental Science & Technology 47, pp 1646-1654

²¹⁵NOAA (2005), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association, US Department of Commerce. Coral reef restoration through marine debris mitigation. Background. http://www.pifsc.noaa.gov/cred/program_review/marine_debris_PICS.pdf

²¹⁶http://www.wsj.com/articles/obama-to-cast-climate-change-as-a-national-security-threat-1432126767

²¹⁷Mumby *et al* 2013

²¹⁸ibid

²¹⁹BM Riegl et al. (2010). Pristine reefs recover better: examples from Chagos and the Red Sea. Eos Trans. AGU, 91(26), Meet. Am. Suppl., Abstract B11A-02.

²²⁰Bell, J. D., Alexandre, G., Gehrke, P. C., Griffiths, S. P., Hobday, A. J., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Johnson, J. E., Borgne, R. L., Lehodey, P., Lough, J. M., et al. 2013. Mixed responses of tropical Pacific fisheries and aquaculture to climate change. *Nature Climate Change*. <<u>http://</u>www.nature.com/nclimate/journal/v3/n6/full/nclimate1838.html>

²²¹Cravatte, S., Delcroix, T., Zhang, D., McPhaden, M. and Leloup, J. (2009), Observed freshening and warming of the western Pacific Warm Pool. Climate Dynamics, 33 (4): 565-589.

²²²Booth, D. J., N. Bond, and P. Macreadie. 2011. Detecting range shifts among Australian fishes in response to climate change. *Marine and Freshwater Research* 62:1027–1042.

²²³Molinos, J. G., B. S. Halpern, D. S. Schoeman, C. J. Brown, W. Kiessling, P. J. Moore, J. M. Pandolfi, E. S. Poloczanska, A. J. Richardson, and M. T. Burrows. 2015. Climate velocity and the future global redistribution of marine biodiversity. *Nature Climate Change* 6:83-88.

²²⁴Sunday, J. M., G. T. Pecl, S. Frusher, A. J. Hobday, N. Hill, N. J. Holbrook, G. J. Edgar, R. Stuart-Smith, N. Barrett, T. Wernberg, R. A. Watson, D. A. Smale, E. A. Fulton, D. Slawinski, M. Feng, B. T. Radford, P. A. Thompson, and A. E. Bates. 2015. Species traits and climate velocity explain geographic range shifts in an ocean-warming hotspot. *Ecology Letters* 18:944-953.
 ²²⁵Perry *et al.* 2005.

²²⁶Hazen *et al.* 2012.

²²⁷Cheung, W. W., Watson, R., & Pauly, D. (2013). Signature of ocean warming in global fisheries catch. Nature, 497(7449), 365-368.

²²⁸Sumaila, U. R., Cheung, W. W., Lam, V. W., Pauly, D., & Herrick, S. (2011). Climate change impacts on the biophysics and economics of world fisheries. Nature climate change, 1(9), 449-456

²²⁹Pinsky, M. L., Fogarty, M. 2012. Lagged social ecological responses to climate and range shifts in fisheries. *Nature Climate Change*.
<<u>http://www.princeton.edu/~pinsky/Publications_files/Pinsky%20%26%20Fogarty%202012%20lagged%20responses%20of%20</u>
fisheries%20-%20Clim%20Change.pdf>

²³⁰Bell, J.D., et al. (2012) Mixed Responses of tropical Pacific fisheries and aquaculture to climate change. *Nature Climate Change*. 3: 591–599 doi:10.1038/nclimate1838

²³¹Pershing, A. J., Alexander, M. A., Hernandez, C. M., Kerr, L. A., Le Bris, A., Mills, K. E., Nye, J. A., Record, N. R., Scannell, H. A., Scott, J. D., et al. 2015. Slow adaptation in the face of rapid warming leads to collapse of the Gulf of Maine cod fishery. *Science*. <<u>http://</u>science.sciencemag.org/content/sci/350/6262/809.full.pdf>

²³²Bell, J. D., Alexandre, G., Gehrke, P. C., Griffiths, S. P., Hobday, A. J., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Johnson, J. E., Borgne, R. L., Lehodey, P., Lough, J. M., et al. 2013. Mixed responses of tropical Pacific fisheries and aquaculture to climate change. Nature Climate Change. http:// www.nature.com/nclimate/journal/v3/n6/full/nclimate1838.html>

²³³Hansen, J., Nazarenko, L., Ruedy, R., Sato, M., Willis, J., Del Genio, A., Kock, D., Lacis, A., Lo, K., Menon, S., Novakov, T., Perlwitz, J., Russell, G., Schmidt, G.A., and Tausnev, N. (2004) Earth's Energy Imbalance: Confirmation and Implications. Sciencexpress

²³⁴U.S. Geological Survey. 2012. Predicting Sea-Level Rise Vulnerability of Terrestrial Habitat and Wildlife of the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. <http://pubs.usgs.gov/of/2012/1182/of2012-1182.pdf>

²³⁵Kenyon, J.C., Brainard, R. E. 2006. Second recorded episode of mass coral bleaching in the Northwestern Hawaiian Islands. *Atoll* Research Bulletin. < http://www.pelagicos.net/BIOL3010/readings/KenyonARB543 Final.pdf>

²³⁶Le Quéré *et al* 2013.

²³⁷Sabine et al 2004

²³⁸D Laffoley et al. (2014). The Significance and Management of Natural Carbon Stores in the Open Ocean. IUCN.

²³⁹D Laffoley et al. (2014). The Significance and Management of Natural Carbon Stores in the Open Ocean. IUCN.

²⁴⁰SJ Lutz and AH Martin (2014). Fish Carbon: Exploring Marine Vertebrate Carbon Services. GRID-Arendal and Blue Climate Solutions.

²⁴¹D Laffoley et al. (2014). The Significance and Management of Natural Carbon Stores in the Open Ocean. IUCN; SJ Lutz and AH Martin (2014). Fish Carbon: Exploring Marine Vertebrate Carbon Services. GRID-Arendal and Blue Climate Solutions.

²⁴²Atwood, T.B., Connolly, R.M., Ritchie, E.G., Lovelock, C.E., Heithaus, M.R., Hays, G.C., Fourqurean, J.W., and Macreadie, P.I. 2015. Predators help protect carbon stocks in blue carbon ecosystems. Nature Climate Change. 5:1038-1045.

²⁴³Brander, L., Baulcomb, C., van der Lelij, J. A. C., Eppink, F., McVittie, A., Nijsten, L., van Beukering, P. (2015) The benefits to people of expanding Marine Protected Areas. VU University, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

²⁴⁴Van Beukering, P., & Cesar, H. (2004). Economic analysis of marine managed areas in the main Hawaiian Islands. paper submitted to HCRI as part of study "Assessment of, 12.

²⁴⁵Pascal, N. (2011). Cost Benefit analysis of community based marine protected areas: 5 case studies in Vanuatu, South Pacific, 107 pp. Component 3A. Socio economic and coral reef ecosystems. CRISP Research Reports. CRIOBE (EPHE/C.

²⁴⁶Sala E, Costello C, Dougherty D, Heal G, Kelleher K, Murray JH, et al. (2013) A General Business Model for Marine Reserves. PLoS ONE 8(4): e58799. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0058799.

²⁴⁷http://www.italyun.esteri.it/rappresentanza onu/resource/resource/2016/03/scientists consensus statement on marine protected areas. pdf ²⁴⁸ibid

²⁴⁹http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2010.01523.x/abstract

²⁵⁰*ibid*

²⁵¹Lauck, T., C. Clark, M. Mangel, and G. Munro. Implementing the precautionary principle in fisheries management through marine protected areas. Ecological Applications 8 N. 1(1998): s72-s78.

²⁵²NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 1991-2015

²⁵³Federal Register, https://www.federalregister.gov/articles/2015/03/25/2015-06402/pacific-island-fisheries-pacific-remote-islands-marinenational-monument-expansion

²⁵⁴Western Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Council, http://www.wpcouncil.org/2015/10/13/press-release-hawaiis-100-millionfishery-reopens-in-the-western-and-central-pacific-ocean/

²⁵⁵*ibid*

²⁵⁶NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 1991-2015

²⁵⁷http://www.pifsc.noaa.gov/fmb/reports.php

²⁵⁸NOAA, PIFSC Reports on the Hawaii-based Longline Fishery 1991-2015