~2050

14°F

12'

Alaska

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L6 L7 Over the past 50 years, Alaska has warmed at more than twice the rate of the rest of the United States. 1.8 19 Its annual average temperature has increased 3.4°F, L10 while winters have warmed even more, by 6.3°F¹. L11 As a result, climate change impacts are much more L12 pronounced than in other regions of the United L13 States. The higher temperatures are already causing L14 earlier spring snowmelt, reduced sea ice, wide-L15 spread glacier retreat, and permafrost warming^{1,2}. These observed changes are consistent with climate L16 L17 model projections of greater warming over Alaska, L18 especially in winter, as compared to the rest of the L19 country. L20

L21 Climate models also project increases in precipita-L22 tion over Alaska. Simultaneous increases in evapo-L23 ration due to higher air temperatures, however, are L24 expected to lead to drier conditions overall, with L25reduced soil moisture³. In the future, therefore, L26 model projections suggest a longer summer grow-L27 ing season combined with an increased likelihood of summer drought and wildfires. L28



Over the past 100 years, the length of the frost-free season in Fairbanks, Alaska, has increased by 50 percent. The trend toward a longer frost-free season is projected to produce benefits in some sectors and detriments in others.

Average annual temperatures in Alaska are projected to rise about 4 to 7°F by the middle of this century. How much temperatures rise later in the century depends strongly on global emissions choices, with increases of 5 to 8°F projected with lower emissions[†], and increases

of 8 to 13°F with higher emissions[†]. Higher temperatures are expected to continue to reduce Arctic sea ice coverage. Reduced sea ice provides opportunities for increased shipping and resource extraction. At the same time, however, it increases coastal erosion, raises the risk of accidents as offshore commercial activity increases, and is expected to drive major shifts of marine species such as pollock and other commercial fish stocks.

Observed and Projected Temperature Rise in Alaska

14'F

12'

~2020

2000

Higher

Emissions

Scenario[†]

14'F

12'



temperature of 1993 to 2007 to a 1960s and 1970s baseline, an increase of over 2°F. The brackets on the thermometers represent the likely range of model projections, though lower or higher outcomes are possible. By the end of this century, the average temperature is projected to rise by 5 to 13°F above the 1960s and 1970s baseline.

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Summers are becoming longer and drier.

Between 1970 and 2000, the snow-free season increased by approximately 10 days across Alaska, primarily due to earlier snowmelt in the spring^{6,7}. A longer growing season has potential economic benefits, providing a longer period of outdoor and commercial activity such as tourism. However, there are also downsides. For example, white spruce forests in Alaska's interior are experiencing declining growth due to drought stress⁸ and continued warming could lead to widespread death of trees⁹. The decreased soil moisture in Alaska also suggests that agriculture in Alaska might not benefit from the longer snow-free growing season.

Insect outbreaks and wildfires are increasing with warming.

Climate plays a key role in determining the extent and severity of insect outbreaks and wildfires^{9,10}. During the 1990s, for example, south-central Alaska experienced the largest outbreak of spruce bark beetles in the world^{9,11}. This outbreak occurred because rising temperatures allowed the spruce bark beetle to survive over the winter and to complete its life cycle in just 1 year instead of the normal 2 years. Healthy trees ordinarily defend themselves by pushing back against burrowing beetles with their pitch. From 1989 to 1997, however, the region experienced an extended drought, leaving the trees too stressed to fight off the infestation.



Alaska Spruce Beetle Infestation

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Regional Climate Impacts: Alaska

L1 Prior to 1990, the spruce budworm was not able to
L2 reproduce in interior Alaska⁹. Hotter, drier summers, however, now mean that the forests there are
L4 threatened by an outbreak of spruce budworms¹³.
L5 This trend is expected to increase in the future if
L6 summers in Alaska become hotter and drier⁹. Large
L7 areas of dead trees, such as those left behind by

- L8 pest infestations, are highly flammable and thus
- L9 much more vulnerable to wildfire than living trees.
- L10

L11 The area burned in North America's northern forest L12 that spans Alaska and Canada tripled from the 1960s to the 1990s. Two of the three most exten-L13 L14 sive wildfire seasons in Alaska's 56-year record occurred in 2004 and 2005, and half of the most L15 severe fire years on record have occurred since L16 L17 1990¹⁴. Under changing climate conditions, the average area burned per year in Alaska is projected to L18 double by the middle of this century¹⁰. By the end L19 of this century, area burned by fire is projected to L20 L21 triple under a moderate greenhouse gas emissions L22 scenario and to quadruple under a higher emissions L23 scenario[†]. Such increases in area burned would L24 result in numerous impacts, including hazardous L25 air quality conditions such as those suffered by L26 residents of Fairbanks during the summers of 2004 L27 and 2005, as well as increased risks to rural Native Alaskan communities because of reduced availabil-L28 1.29 ity of the fish and game that make up their diet¹⁵. L30 Such impacts on food security have the potential L31 for significant impacts on health; shifts from a traditional diet to a more "Western" diet are known L32 L33 to be associated with increased risk of cancers. diabetes, and cardiovascular disease¹⁶. L34 L35 L36

L37 Lakes are declining in area.

L38

L39 Across the southern two-thirds of Alaska, the area of closed-basin lakes (lakes without stream inputs L40 L41 and outputs) has decreased over the past 50 years. L42 This is likely due to the greater evaporation and I.43 thawing of permafrost that result from warming^{17,18}. L44 A continued decline in the area of surface water I.45 would present challenges for the management of L46 natural resources and ecosystems on National L47 Wildlife Refuges in Alaska. These refuges, which cover over 77 million acres (21 percent of Alaska) L48 and comprise 81 percent of the U.S. National Wild-I.49 L50 life Refuge System, provide a breeding habitat for

Ponds in Alaska are Shrinking (1951-2000) Yukon Flats National Wildlife Refuge, northeastern interior



Ponds across Alaska have shrunk as a result of increased evaporation and permafrost thawing. The pond in the top pair of images shrunk from 180 to 10 acres; the larger pond in the bottom pair of images shrunk from 90 to 4 acres.

millions of waterfowl and shorebirds that winter in the lower 48 states. Wetlands are also important to Native peoples who hunt and fish for their food in interior Alaska. Many villages are located adjacent to wetlands that support an abundance of wildlife resources. The sustainability of these traditional lifestyles is thus threatened by a loss of wetlands.

Thawing permafrost damages roads, runways, water and sewer systems, and other infrastructure.

Permafrost temperatures have increased throughout Alaska since the late 1970s¹⁹. The largest increases have been measured in the northern part of the state²⁰. While permafrost in interior Alaska so far has experienced less warming than permafrost in northern Alaska, it is more vulnerable to thawing during this century because it is generally just below the freezing point, while permafrost in northern Alaska is colder.

Land subsidence (sinking) associated with the thawing of permafrost presents substantial challenges to engineers attempting to preserve infrastructure in Alaska²¹. Public infrastructure at risk for damage includes roads, runways, and water

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Global Climate Change Impacts in the United States







The graph shows projected thawing on the Seward Peninsula by the end of this century under a moderate warming scenario (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change scenario A1B, which is approximately halfway between the low- and high-emissions scenarios[†] used elsewhere in this report). and sewer systems. It is estimated that thawing R1 permafrost would add between \$3.6 billion and R2 \$6.1 billion (10 to 20 percent) to future costs for R3 publicly owned infrastructure by 2030 and between R4 \$5.6 billion and \$7.6 billion (10 to 12 percent) by R5 2080²². Analyses of the additional costs of perma-R6 frost thawing to private property have not yet been R7 conducted. **R**8

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Thawing ground also has implications for oil and gas drilling. As one example, the number of days per year in which travel on the tundra is allowed under Alaska Department of Natural Resources standards has dropped from more than 200 to about 100 days in the past 30 years. This results in a 50 percent reduction in days that oil and gas exploration and extraction equipment can be used^{2,23}.

Coastal storms increase risks to villages and fishing fleets.

Alaska has more coastline than the other 49 states combined. Frequent storms in the Gulf of Alaska and the Bering, Chukchi, and Beaufort seas already affect the coasts during much of the year. Alaska's coastlines, many of which are low in elevation, are increasingly threatened by a combination of the loss of their protective sea ice buffer, increasing storm activity, and thawing coastal permafrost.

Adaptation: Keeping Soil Around the Pipeline Cool

When permafrost thaws, it can cause the soil to sink or settle, damaging structures built upon or within that soil. A warming climate and burial of supports for the Trans-Alaska Pipeline System both contribute to thawing of the permafrost around the pipeline. In locations on the pipeline route where soils were ice-rich, a unique above-ground system was developed to keep the ground cool. Thermal siphons were designed to disperse heat to the air that would otherwise be transferred to the soil, and these siphons were placed on the pilings that support



the pipeline. While this unique technology added significant expense to the pipeline construction, it helps to greatly increase the useful lifetime of this structure²⁶.

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Many of Alaska's coastlines are eroding rapidly; the disappearance of coastal land is forcing communities to relocate. The 2007 line on the image indicates where Newtok, Alaska's shoreline had eroded to by 2007. The other lines are projected assuming a conservative erosion rate of 36 to 83 feet per year; however, Newtok residents reported a July 2003 erosion rate of 110 feet per year.

Increasing storm activity in autumn in recent years²⁷ has delayed or prevented barge operations that supply coastal communities with fuel. Commercial fishing fleets and other marine traffic are also strongly affected by Bering Sea storms. High-wind events have become more frequent along the western and northern coasts. The same regions are experiencing increasingly long sea-ice-free seasons and hence longer periods during which coastal areas are especially vulnerable to wind and wave damage. Downtown streets in Nome, Alaska, have flooded in recent years. Coastal erosion is causing the shorelines of some areas to retreat at average rates of tens of feet per year. The ground beneath several native

communities is literally crumbling into the sea, forcing residents to confront difficult and expensive choices between relocation and engineering strategies that require continuing investments despite their uncertain effectiveness (see *Society* sector).

25 Over the coming century, an increase of sea surface temperatures and a reduction of ice cover are likely

- L26 to lead to northward shifts in the Pacific storm track and increased impacts on coastal Alaska^{29,30}. Climate
- L27 models project
- L28 the Bering Sea
- L29 to experience the
- L30 largest decreases in
- L31 atmospheric pres-
- L32 sure in the Northern
- L33 Hemisphere, suggest-
- L34 ing an increase in
- L35 storm activity in the
- L36 region³. In addition,
- L37 the longer ice-free L38 season is likely to
- L39 make more heat and
- L40 moisture available for
- L41 storms in the Arctic
- L42 Ocean, increasing
- L43 their frequency and/
- L44 or intensity.
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and blue lines indicate the number of open-water storms (storms occurring in ice-free water); green and purple lines indicate the number of freeze-up storms (storms occurring with sea ice present).

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Displacement of marine species will affect key fisheries.

IA Alaska leads the United States in the value of its L5 commercial fishing catch. Most of the nation's salmon, crab, halibut, and herring come from L6 L7 Alaska. In addition, many Native communities 1.8 depend on local harvests of fish, walruses, seals, 19 whales, seabirds, and other marine species for their L10 food supply. Climate change causes significant alterations in marine ecosystems with important L11 L12 implications for fisheries. Ocean acidification as-L13 sociated with a rising carbon dioxide concentration L14 represents an additional threat to cold-water marine ecosystems^{32,33} (see *Ecosystems* sector and *Coasts* L15 L16 region).

One of the most productive areas for Alaska
fisheries is the northern Bering Sea off Alaska's
west coast. The world's largest single fishery is the
Bering Sea pollock fishery, which has undergone
major declines in recent years. Over the past
decade, as air and water temperatures rose, sea ice
in this region declined sharply. Populations of fish,
seabirds, seals, walruses, and other species depend
on plankton blooms that are regulated by the extent

and location of the ice edge in spring. As the sea ice R1 retreats, the location, timing, and species composi-R2 tion of the blooms changes, reducing the amount of R3 food reaching the living things on the ocean floor. R4 This radically changes the species composition and R5 populations of fish and other marine life forms, R6 with significant repercussions for fisheries³⁴ (see R7 Ecosystems sector). **R**8

Over the course of this century, changes already R10 observed on the shallow shelf of the northern R11 Bering Sea are likely to affect a much broader por-R12 tion of the Pacific-influenced sector of the Arctic R13 Ocean. As such changes occur, the most productive R14 commercial fisheries are likely to become more R15 distant from existing fishing ports and processing R16 infrastructure, requiring either relocation or greater R17 investment in transportation time and fuel costs. R18 These changes also will affect the ability of native R19 peoples to successfully hunt and fish for the food R20 they need to survive. Coastal communities already R21 are noticing a displacement of walrus and seal R22 populations. Bottom-feeding walrus populations R23 are threatened when their sea ice platform retreats R24 from the shallow coastal feeding grounds on which R25 they depend³⁵. R26



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