

Estimating the Economic Impacts of Climate Change on 16 Major U.S. Fisheries

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30 **Disclaimer**

31 The findings, conclusions, and views expressed here are those of the authors alone and do not
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34 **Conflicts of Interest**

35 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

36 **Abstract**

37 Observational evidence shows marine species are shifting their geographic distribution in response to
38 warming ocean temperatures. These shifts have implications for U.S. fisheries and seafood consumers.
39 The analysis presented here employs a two-stage inverse demand model to estimate the consumer
40 welfare impacts of projected increases or decreases in commercial landings for 16 U.S. fisheries from
41 2021 to 2100, based on predicted changes in thermally available habitat. The fisheries analyzed
42 together account for 56 percent of current U.S. commercial fishing revenues. The analysis compares
43 welfare impacts under two climate scenarios: a high-emissions case that assumes limited efforts to
44 reduce atmospheric greenhouse gas and a low-emissions case that assumes more stringent mitigation.
45 The present value of consumer surplus impacts when discounted at three percent is a net loss of \$2.1
46 billion (2018 \$US) in the low-emissions case and \$4.2 billion in the high-emissions scenario. Projected
47 annual losses reach \$278 million to \$901 million by 2100.

48 **KEY WORDS:** commercial fisheries, marine species distribution, welfare impacts, climate change,
49 warming ocean temperatures

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Climate change has resulted in significant impacts on biological communities in marine ecosystems.
52 These changes have included restructuring of species composition (Fodrie et al. 2010; Wernberg et al.
53 2016; Flanagan et al. 2019), unprecedented changes in species phenology (Edwards and Richardson
54 2004; Mills et al. 2013; Staudinger et al. 2019), and geographic shifts in species distributions (Pinsky et
55 al. 2013; Poloczanska et al. 2013). Evidence for the redistribution of marine species has also been
56 observed in global fisheries, with changes in catch composition consistent with poleward shifts in
57 species distributions (Cheung et al. 2013). Further, during the last century climate change, along with
58 other stressors, has reduced potential fisheries yields at a global scale (Free et al. 2019), suggesting
59 widespread and negative economic implications. Regional fisheries impacts have also occurred,
60 including declines in accessibility of target species to fisherman (Young et al. 2018; Pinsky and Fogarty
61 2012; Hughes et al. 2015), changes in stock productivity (Hare and Able 2007; Bell et al. 2014; Pershing
62 et al. 2015), and regional conflicts over quota allocations as species shift across jurisdictional lines (Dubik
63 et al. 2019; Spijkers and Boonstra 2017).

64 Future projections of climate change impacts in the coming century suggest a global loss of biomass in
65 the oceans, especially at middle and lower latitudes (Lotze et al. 2019). Potential landings are also
66 projected to decline during the 21st century on many of the most valuable fishing grounds (Cheung et al.
67 2010). Further, factors other than changes in landings, such as changes in catch composition towards
68 lower value species, might lead to dramatic losses of fisheries revenues (Lam et al. 2016). Major changes
69 in the geographic distribution of marine species are also projected during the coming century, as a result
70 of shifts in preferred temperatures (Cheung et al. 2009; Wisz et al. 2015; Morley et al. 2018). Such shifts
71 in distribution will challenge fisheries management as species move across jurisdictional boundaries
72 (Haynie and Pfeiffer 2012; Pinsky et al. 2018).

73 While global-scale economic analyses of the potential impacts of climate change on fisheries are
74 important (Lam et al. 2016), regional-scale assessments are critical to inform policy makers of expected
75 impacts (e.g., Jones et al. 2015). Indeed, in the U.S., projections of the economic impacts of climate
76 change on fisheries have been identified as a federal research priority (Busch et al. 2016). The U.S. is one
77 of the highest producers of wild-caught marine seafood globally (FAO 2018), and some of the most
78 rapidly increasing ocean temperatures in the world are off the U.S. coast (Burrows et al. 2011). Studies
79 of the Gulf of Maine have documented significant increases in ocean temperatures and evidence of
80 marine heat waves (Mills et al. 2013; Pershing et al. 2015), which satellite observations suggest are
81 becoming more frequent, intense, and extensive (IPCC 2019). Future projections of thermal habitat for
82 hundreds of species on the North American continental shelf predict major shifts in distribution for
83 many economically important species (Morley et al. 2018). These high-resolution projections (0.05°
84 latitude and longitude) can be used to estimate economic impacts on U.S. marine fisheries, mirroring an
85 approach that has been used at a global scale (Lam et al. 2016).

86 This study follows the analytic framework established by the Climate Change Impacts and Risk Analysis
87 (CIRA) project for quantifying and monetizing potential climate change impacts across various sectors in
88 the U.S. The CIRA project examines both the potential effects of climate change on the U.S. and the
89 potential economic impacts of mitigating global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. CIRA analyses
90 published to date have included only limited consideration of the projected effects of climate change on
91 commercial fishing and ecosystem services (EPA 2015; EPA 2017). Here we leverage ongoing research
92 (i.e., Morley et al. 2018) to address this gap and broaden understanding of approaches to estimating the
93 potential economic effects of climate change on the commercial fishing sector. The analysis first
94 characterizes the potential economic impact of projected changes in annual landings of 177
95 commercially harvested marine species from 2021 to 2100, based on the use of five general circulation
96 models (GCMs) to project changes in each target species' thermally available habitat within the U.S.

97 Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ). It then focuses on 16 U.S. fisheries that together account for 56 percent
98 of current U.S. commercial fishing revenues. Consistent with the recently completed fourth National
99 Climate Assessment of the U.S. Global Change Research Program, the analysis compares welfare impacts
100 for these fisheries under two atmospheric GHG concentration scenarios: Representative Concentration
101 Pathway (RCP) 8.5, a higher-emissions case that assumes limited efforts to reduce atmospheric GHG;
102 and RCP 4.5, a lower end case that assumes more stringent mitigation (NCA4 2018).

103 **2. Methods and Data Sources**

104 **2.1 Projected Changes in Thermal Habitat**

105 **2.1.1 Approach**

106 The analysis of projected changes in thermal habitat is based on methods described by Morley et al.
107 (2018) to examine the potential impacts of ocean warming on the geographic distribution of 686 marine
108 species on the North American continental shelf from 2021 to 2100. This study examined future habitat
109 shifts across a suite of 16 GCMs within the RCP 2.6 and 8.5 scenarios. To be consistent with the
110 framework of the multi-sectoral CIRA 2.0 project (EPA 2017), the present analysis uses five GCMs. The
111 models and their developers include:

- 112 • CanESM2, Canadian Centre for Climate Modeling and Analysis
- 113 • CCSM4, National Center for Atmospheric Research
- 114 • GISS-E2-R, NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies
- 115 • HadGEM2-ES, Met Office Hadley Centre
- 116 • MIROC5, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute, National Institute for Environmental
117 Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology.

118 A variety of factors were considered in selecting these five models for impacts analysis in the U.S.,
119 including their structural independence, quality, and ability to reasonably capture variability in
120 temperature and precipitation outcomes (EPA 2017). The first three GCMs listed were among the 16
121 employed in the original analysis of the impacts of ocean warming conducted by Morley et al. (2018);
122 HadGEM2-ES and MIROC5 were added to ensure consistency with CIRA's modeling framework. These
123 five GCMs were run within two carbon emissions scenarios: RCP 8.5 assumes limited efforts to reduce
124 greenhouse gas emissions and results in more ocean warming, while RCP 4.5 assumes more stringent
125 GHG mitigation and less warming.

126 Projected changes in annual species distribution during the 21st century under the ten potential future
127 climates (2 RCPs x 5 GCMs) were based on statistical thermal niche models for each species (Morley et
128 al. 2018). The niche models were based on 20 long-term bottom trawl surveys, which recorded data on
129 species' presence or absence, as well as biomass ($N = 136,044$ samples). These surveys are conducted
130 annually by the United States and Canada and encompass most of the continental shelf of these two
131 countries. The niche model predictor variables included mean seasonal sea surface temperature (SST)
132 and sea bottom temperature (SBT); annual maximum SST and SBT; annual minimum SBT; seafloor
133 rugosity (i.e., local variation in depth); and sediment grain size. Environmental data came from multiple
134 sources and were associated with survey catch data based on the date and location of each sample
135 (Morley et al. 2018).

136 Generalized additive models (GAMs) were used to quantify each species' thermal niche. GAMs provide
137 an effective way to quantify species' relationships with environmental variables because they allow
138 complex nonlinear associations and require no a priori assumption about the shape of these
139 relationships (Brodie et al. 2020). Previously, two GAMs were fitted for each species, one that modeled
140 probability of occurrence using presence and absence data and one that modeled log-biomass using

141 only samples where a species was present; the product of these two GAMs was used for predictions
142 (i.e., the delta-biomass approach). A more recent analysis on the influence of the niche modeling
143 approach on species habitat projections showed that probability of occurrence approaches, as
144 compared to methods that predict biomass, more often had better predictive performance when tested
145 with independent historic data (Morley et al, *in review*). Therefore, for this analysis we based our
146 projections of change in habitat distribution on modeled probability of occurrence, not biomass. For
147 each species, model skill of the GAMs was tested with independent trawl survey data using the area
148 under the receiver operator curve (AUC) statistic, which compares predicted versus observed species
149 occurrence. Only species with AUC scores greater than 0.75 were retained for analysis, which is a limit-
150 value that has been shown to indicate models that are effective at modeling species distribution (Elith et
151 al. 2006).

152 Future projections of species distributions were based on annual forecasts for mean summer (July –
153 September) ocean conditions and represent an expanded version of the data set used in Morley et al.
154 (2018). Climate projections that were added for this study (i.e., RCP 4.5 and two new GCMs) were
155 processed in an identical manner to Morley et al. (2018). Specifically, projected changes in ocean
156 temperatures from GCMs were downscaled to a ~0.25° latitude and longitude grid based on a mean
157 temperature climatology that was developed from the SODA3.3.1 ocean reanalysis product for 1995-
158 2014 (Carton et al. 2016). The modeled historic climate data that was used for downscaling temperature
159 projections was highly correlated to in situ historic observations of sea surface (slope(se) = 0.91(0.001),
160 $P < 0.001$, $DF = 102048$, $r^2 = 0.90$) and bottom (slope(se) = 1.00(0.001), $P < 0.001$, $DF = 120859$ $r^2 = 0.86$)
161 temperatures. The climate projection grid was further refined to 0.05° latitude and longitude based on
162 the spatial resolution of the seafloor data; depth was limited to 400m or shallower. The resulting
163 projection grid consisted of 65,826 individual cells on the Pacific coast, 69,209 on the Atlantic coast, and
164 13,383 in the Gulf of Mexico (Figure 1). This projection grid was then restricted to waters within the U.S.

165 Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), where the U.S. has sovereign fishing rights, and partitioned into four
166 regions for analysis: U.S East Coast; Gulf of Mexico; U.S. West Coast; and Alaska.

167 For each species, a set of ten (2 RCPs x 5 GCMs) annual-summer thermal habitat distributions from 2007
168 to 2100 were developed. Annual grid cell values were aggregated by averaging projections within five
169 multi-year bins, which included a baseline period of 2007-2020 and four future time periods: (T1) 2021-
170 2040; (T2) 2041-2060; (T3) 2061-2080; and (T4) 2081-2100. During each time period, total available
171 thermal habitat within U.S. regions was calculated as the sum of all grid cell values (i.e., modeled
172 probability of occurrence). The percentage change in future thermal habitat availability was calculated
173 based on differences between the baseline and future time periods. For each future time period, we
174 then calculated an ensemble mean value across GCMs for RCPs 4.5 and 8.5. This process produced a
175 total of 1,085 unique species-region projections for initial consideration in our economic analysis.

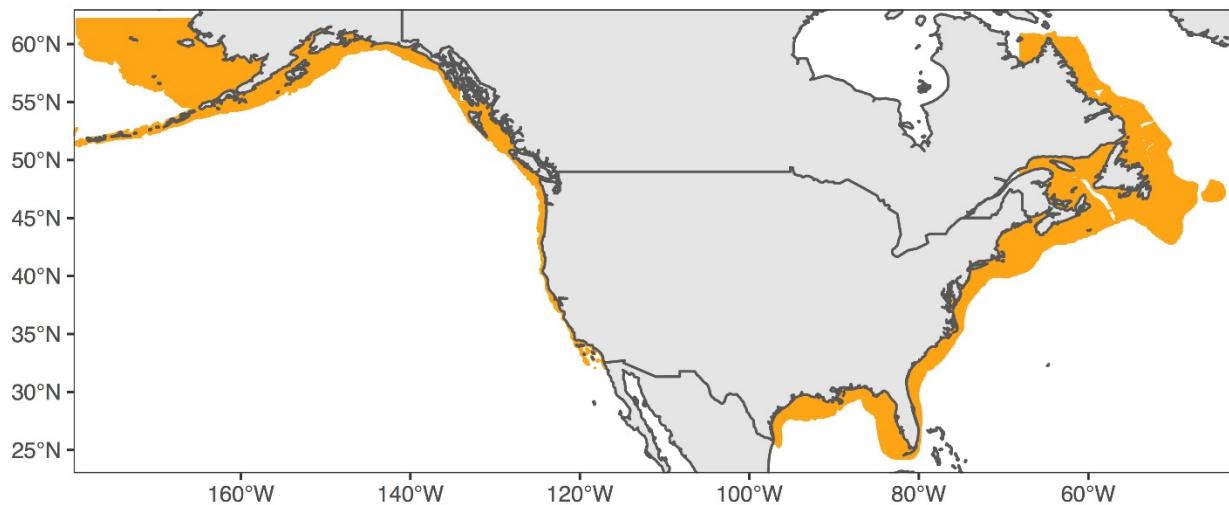


Figure 1. Projection Grid for Thermal Habitat Analysis

176 **2.1.2 Limitations of Species Distribution Projections**

177 The projected changes in species distribution suggested by this modeling exercise reflect only predicted
178 changes in the areal extent and quality of potentially suitable habitat. The analysis does not employ
179 predictions of changes in the absolute biomass of any stock and excludes many factors that may
180 influence species abundance, such as potential changes in primary productivity, species interactions,
181 population dynamics, or fisheries management. The boundaries of the projection grid are also a limiting
182 factor, particularly in northern Alaska, and may affect the results for species found primarily in that
183 region. In the Gulf of Mexico, the thermal niche models may not adequately characterize the upper
184 temperature limits for some species, which may be reached at temperatures above the maximums
185 observed in the underlying trawl surveys. In addition, the analysis does not account for a variety of
186 other factors that may influence marine habitat or species productivity. These include but are not
187 limited to potential changes in weather or ocean circulation patterns, changes in sea level, changes in
188 nutrient loads, or changes in ocean acidity. Models that consider such factors are under development
189 but have yet to be applied at a broad scale.

190 Despite these limitations, the modeling exercise provides useful insights to potential changes in suitable
191 habitat for hundreds of species across a geographic range that includes much of the U.S. EEZ and many
192 of the nation's most highly valued fisheries. The breadth of the analysis, coupled with the information it
193 provides on potential changes in habitat, offers a useful basis for a first-order analysis of the effects of
194 increased sea temperatures on commercial harvests of economically important species.

195 **2.2 Economic Screening Analysis**

196 **2.2.1 Overview of Data**

197 As a first step in assessing the potential economic impacts of changes in species distribution on the
198 commercial fishing sector, we obtained data from the National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) on
199 commercial landings in the United States from 2007 to 2016, disaggregated by species and region (East
200 Coast, Gulf Coast, West Coast, and Alaska). The NMFS dataset reports both the quantity (pounds) and
201 dollar value (i.e., ex-vessel revenue) of landings in these regions, which together accounted for 97.4
202 percent of the value of U.S. commercial landings in 2016 (NMFS 2017). Hawaii, the Great Lakes region,
203 and U.S. territories account for the balance of U.S. landings.

204 For each species-region, we calculated mean annual landings by weight and value for 2007-2016, using
205 the Consumer Price Index (CPI) to convert the annual data on ex-vessel revenues to 2018 dollars (BLS
206 2018). After collapsing the data to a single record for each species-region, the resulting dataset
207 consisted of 883 records. Table 1 summarizes the data on landings by region.

208 **Table 1. Commercial Fishing Landings by Region, 2007-2016**

Region	Average Annual Weight (Pounds, Billions)	Average Annual Value (2018 Dollars, Billions)
East Coast	1.4	\$1.9
Gulf Coast	1.4	\$0.9
West Coast	1.1	\$0.7
Alaska	5.2	\$1.8
Total	9.2	\$5.3

209 We employed an automated process to match the 883 species-region records on commercial landings to
210 the 1,085 species-region records for habitat projections, using taxonomic nomenclature. This resulted in
211 a match for 247 records. We then initiated a manual review of the remaining records to identify
212 potential matches the automated process might have missed.

213 We were unable to link 88 records from the NMFS dataset to a habitat projection because the records
214 represent commercial landings for more than one species (e.g., skates). NMFS frequently reports
215 landings at a higher taxonomic level, in some cases because taxonomic identification in port is difficult –
216 particularly when species that are physically similar are landed together – and in others to protect the
217 confidentiality of industry participants (i.e., when only one or two vessels account for all landings of an
218 individual species). The aggregated data provided by NMFS cannot be disaggregated by species. This
219 narrowed the scope of our analysis to individual species for which comparable commercial landings data
220 are available.

221 We sorted the remaining 548 unmatched species-region records from the NMFS dataset by economic
222 value. We set aside 414 of these records – all those with an average annual value of less than \$100,000,
223 which together represent approximately 0.1 percent of total revenues – as being of minimal economic
224 significance. We reviewed the remaining 134 records to attempt to match them to the available future
225 habitat projections. This manual review identified five cases in which the use of taxonomic synonyms by
226 the two datasets had prevented an automated match. We confirmed that projections of changes in
227 thermally available habitat were not available for the species represented by the remaining 129 records.
228 These included some commercially important species that are not effectively sampled in the biological
229 surveys upon which the niche modeling is based (e.g., eastern oyster, Atlantic surf clam, Caribbean spiny
230 lobster, and multiple species of salmon and tuna).

231 Table 2 shows the disposition of the 883 NMFS landings records from the matching process. The results
232 are shown for both the count of records and with respect to average annual ex-vessel value. As the
233 exhibit indicates, projections of changes in thermally available habitat are available for 252 species-
234 region records. These records represent a total of 177 species and account for 70.8 percent of average

235 annual commercial fishing revenues (2007-2016) in the four regions analyzed. Our screening assessment
236 of the potential impact of ocean warming on commercial landings focuses on these species.

237 **Table 2. Matching of NMFS Records to Available Habitat Projections**

Status	Disposition	Count	Percent of Average Annual Ex-Vessel Value, 2007-2016
Match	Automated Match	247	66.0%
	Manual Match	5	4.8%
	Subtotal	252	70.8%
No Match /Excluded	Multi-Species Records	88	7.8%
	No Habitat Projection	129	21.3%
	De Minimis Revenues	414	0.1%
	Subtotal	631	29.2%
Total		883	100.0%

238 The screening analysis provides good coverage of high value fisheries. As Table 3 shows, the species for
239 which projections of changes in habitat are available include nine of the nation's ten leading fisheries
240 from 2007 to 2016, as measured by average annual revenue: American lobster (*Homarus americanus*);
241 sea scallops (*Placopecten magellanicus*); walleye pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*); white shrimp
242 (*Litopenaeus setiferus*); Pacific cod (*Gadus macrocephalus*); brown shrimp (*Farfantepenaeus aztecus*);
243 Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*); Pacific halibut (*Hippoglossus stenolepis*); and blue crab
244 (*Callinectes sapidus*). The exception is sockeye salmon (*Oncorhynchus nerka*), which ranked fourth in
245 average annual revenue over the period of interest.

246 **Table 3. Coverage of High Value Fisheries**

Rank	Fishery	Region	Average Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Millions)	Habitat Projection Available
1	American Lobster	East Coast	\$502.5	Yes
2	Sea Scallop	East Coast	\$501.4	Yes
3	Walleye Pollock	West Coast & Alaska	\$390.4	Yes
4	Sockeye Salmon	West Coast & Alaska	\$272.9	No
5	White Shrimp	East Coast & Gulf Coast	\$246.3	Yes
6	Brown Shrimp	East Coast & Gulf Coast	\$216.2	Yes
6	Pacific Cod	West Coast & Alaska	\$212.1	Yes
7	Blue Crab	East Coast & Gulf Coast	\$209.4	Yes
8	Dungeness Crab	West Coast & Alaska	\$186.1	Yes
9	Pacific Halibut	West Coast & Alaska	\$182.9	Yes
10	Sablefish	West Coast & Alaska	\$140.0	Yes

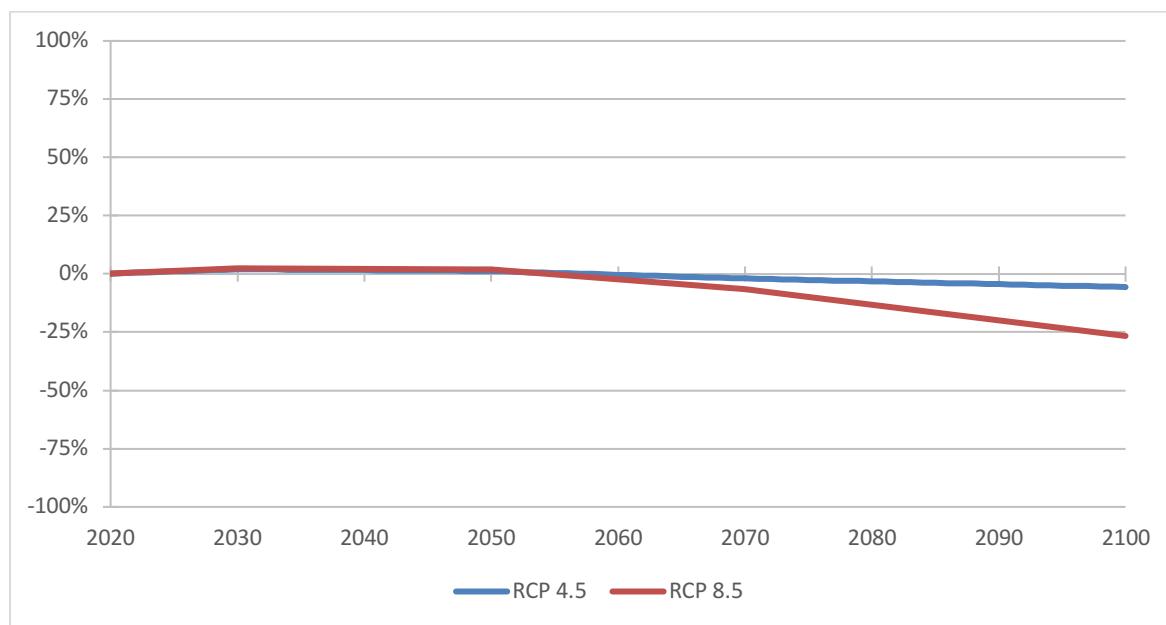
247 Table 4 provides an overview of the availability of data for the screening analysis by region. As the table
 248 indicates, the species for which habitat projections are available account for nearly 80 percent of
 249 average annual ex-vessel revenues on the East Coast. Coverage is somewhat lower in the other three
 250 regions, where the species for which habitat projections are available account for between 63 and 68
 251 percent of average annual revenue.

252 **Table 4. Coverage of Commercial Fishing Revenue by Region**

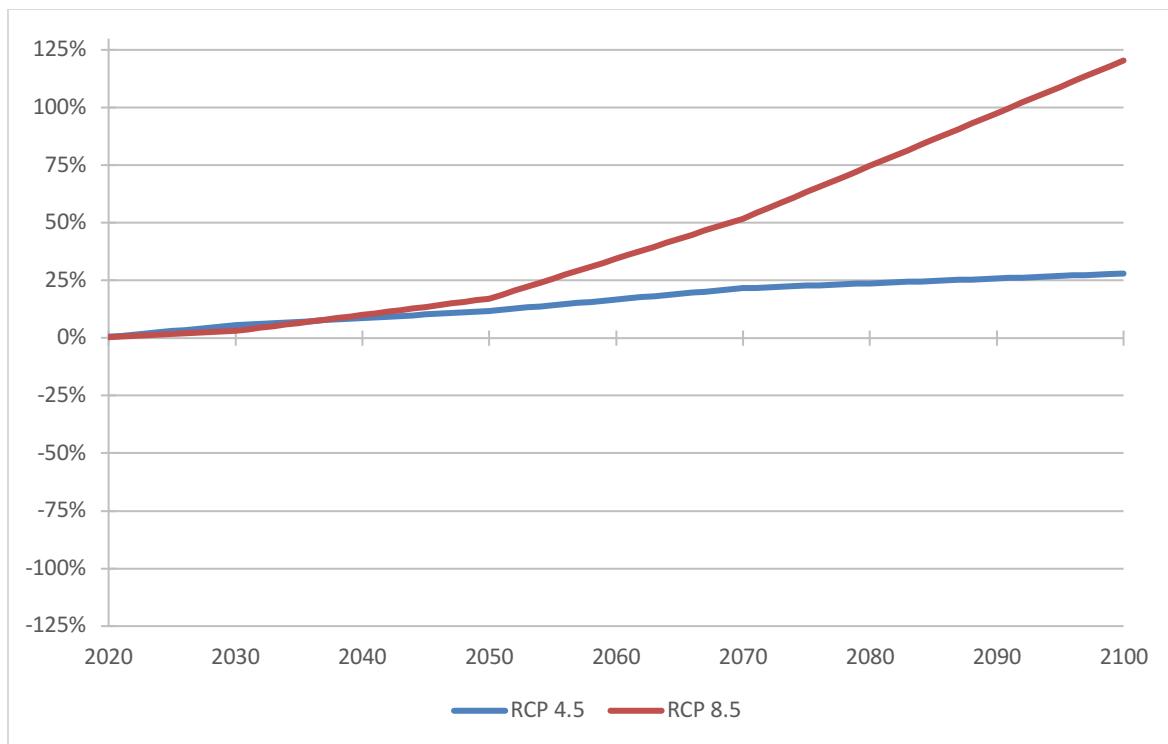
Region	Average Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Billions)		
	All Fisheries	Fisheries with Habitat Projections	Percent of Area's Total Revenue
East Coast	\$1.906	\$1.519	79.7%
Gulf Coast	\$0.885	\$0.567	64.1%
Subtotal: Atlantic	\$2.792	\$2.086	74.7%
West Coast	\$0.693	\$0.443	63.9%
Alaska	\$1.848	\$1.247	67.5%
Subtotal: Pacific	\$2.541	\$1.689	66.5%
Total	\$5.333	\$3.775	70.8%

253 **2.2.2 Projections of Potential Changes in Landings**

254 To conduct the screening assessment, we focused on the 252 species-region records from the NMFS
255 dataset for which projected changes in thermally available habitat are available. Figure 2 provides an
256 example of these projections, showing the predicted change in thermally available habitat for American
257 lobster within the Atlantic region of the U.S. EEZ, as represented by the five-GCM mean. The figure
258 illustrates the predicted change in habitat for both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 from 2021 to 2100. The
259 projections show relatively little net change under RCP 4.5 through the end of the century, but a decline
260 under RCP 8.5 beginning mid-century. Figure 3 provides a second example, illustrating the projected
261 change in available habitat for blue crab in the Gulf of Mexico. In this case, available habitat is projected
262 to increase under both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 from 2021 through the end of the century. Under the latter
263 scenario, thermally available habitat for blue crab is projected to more than double.



264 **Figure 2. Projected Change in Thermally Available Habitat, American Lobster, East Coast:**
265 **Five-GCM Mean**



266 **Figure 3. Projected Change in Thermally Available Habitat, Blue Crab, Gulf of Mexico: Five-GCM
267 Mean**

268 The implication of changes in thermally available habitat for commercial fishing landings is difficult to
269 predict. The availability of suitable habitat clearly influences species abundance, but the abundance of
270 any species is also a function of primary productivity, interactions with other species, population
271 dynamics, fisheries management measures, and other factors that are difficult to model at a broad
272 geographic scale. Similarly, commercial landings are dependent not only on species abundance but also
273 the intensity of fishing effort, which is in turn a function of market forces, changes in technology, and
274 fisheries management regimes at the state and national level. Our analysis does not attempt to predict
275 the complex interactions among these variables over the course of the next 80 years. Instead, it
276 considers the potential economic implications of predicted changes in sea temperature assuming a
277 direct relationship over time between changes in the thermally available habitat of a species and
278 commercial landings of that species. The analysis serves as an exploratory assessment rather than a
279 predictive one, for assessing the direction and approximate magnitude of potential changes in landings

280 given anticipated climate-related changes in thermally available habitat. Its findings should be
281 interpreted and applied with this intent in mind.

282 As the initial step in the screening analysis, we apply our projection of the percentage change in
283 thermally available habitat for each species in each region, as represented by the mean change in
284 thermally available habitat predicted by the five GCMs, to our baseline estimate of annual landings, as
285 represented by the 2007-2016 mean (2018 dollars). This generates a time series of annual landings in
286 each region from 2021 to 2100 for each species analyzed. At this stage of the analysis we ignore the
287 potential effect of changes in supply or changes in real income on ex-vessel prices. Our objective is to
288 develop a first-order estimate of potential economic impacts and to identify an analytically tractable
289 subset of species that drive the projected results. This subset will become the focus of a more rigorous
290 analysis of potential impacts, which accounts for the effect of changes in supply and income on market
291 prices.

292 To provide a general assessment of the direction and potential magnitude of impacts in each region, we
293 compare the discounted present value of projected landings under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 over the period
294 of interest (2021-2100) to the discounted present value of landings if maintained at recent historical
295 levels (i.e., the average annual ex-vessel value from 2007 through 2016). Consistent with other CIRA
296 analyses, the present value calculation employs a real annual discount rate of three percent (EPA 2017).
297 Selection of this rate is supported by the literature on valuing changes in private consumption and the
298 treatment of intergenerational equity when discounting impacts over long time horizons (OMB 2003;
299 Scarborough 2011).

300 Table 5 presents the projected change in present value of ex-vessel revenues under RCP 4.5, holding ex-
301 vessel prices constant and assuming the landings of each species analyzed change in direct proportion to
302 projected changes in thermally available habitat. The analysis indicates a loss of approximately \$1

303 billion, a 0.9 percent decline in the present value of landings relative to the baseline. As the table shows,
304 the projected impacts differ by region. On a present value basis, changes in thermally available habitat
305 off the East Coast and Gulf Coast are projected to have a positive impact on commercial landings. In
306 contrast, changes in thermally available habitat in the Pacific waters of the U.S. EEZ are projected to
307 have a negative impact, both in the Alaska region and off the West Coast.

308 **Table 5. Results of Screening Analysis: RCP 4.5**

Region	Average Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Billions)	Change in Present Value of Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2021-2100: RCP 4.5 vs. Baseline, r = 3%	
		Projected Change (2018 Dollars, Billions) ¹	Percentage Change
East Coast	\$1.519	\$0.415	0.9%
Gulf Coast	\$0.567	\$0.472	2.7%
Subtotal: Atlantic	\$2.086	\$0.887	1.4%
West Coast	\$0.443	(\$1.327)	-9.9%
Alaska	\$1.247	(\$0.598)	-1.6%
Subtotal: Pacific	\$1.689	(\$1.925)	-3.8%
Total	\$3.775	(\$1.037)	-0.9%

¹ For purposes of the screening analysis, ex-vessel prices are held constant. The projected change in the present value of ex-vessel revenues assumes that the catch of each species analyzed would increase or decrease over time in direct proportion to the projected change in the species' available habitat.

309 Table 6 shows a similar set of estimates for RCP 8.5. In this case the projected decline in the present
310 value of ex-vessel revenues is \$1.6 billion, a 1.4 percent loss relative to the baseline. The impact in
311 Pacific waters remains negative, particularly in the West Coast region, but the projected impact on
312 landings elsewhere is mixed. The analysis shows a decidedly positive impact in the Gulf region, largely
313 due to projected increases in available habitat for blue crab and white shrimp; we note that these
314 projections may be overstated, because the thermal niche models for these species may not effectively
315 capture their upper temperature limits. In contrast, the impact on the East Coast is slightly negative,

316 due primarily to projected reductions in available habitat for high value species like sea scallops and
317 American lobster.

318 **Table 6. Results of Screening Analysis: RCP 8.5**

Change in Present Value of Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2021-2100: RCP 8.5 vs. Baseline, r = 3%			
Region	Average Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Billions)	Projected Change (2018 Dollars, Billions) ¹	Percentage Change
East Coast	\$1.519	(\$0.116)	-0.3%
Gulf of Mexico	\$0.567	\$1.130	6.6%
Subtotal: Atlantic	\$2.086	\$1.014	1.6%
West Coast	\$0.443	(\$1.988)	-14.8%
Alaska	\$1.247	(\$0.649)	-1.7%
Subtotal: Pacific	\$1.689	(\$2.636)	-5.2%
Total	\$3.775	(\$1.623)	-1.4%

¹ For purposes of the screening analysis, ex-vessel prices are held constant. The projected change in the present value of ex-vessel revenues assumes that the catch of each species analyzed would increase or decrease over time in direct proportion to the projected change in the species' available habitat.

319 Tables 7 and 8 illustrate the results of the screening analysis for the 20 highest value fisheries for which
320 habitat projections are available. Table 7 shows that under the RCP 4.5 scenario, the present value of
321 ex-vessel revenues is projected to increase for 11 of the 20 fisheries and to decrease for the others. The
322 greatest absolute impact is projected for the snow crab fishery, where the present value of landings
323 from 2021 to 2100 is projected to decline by more than \$1 billion (30.6 percent) compared to the
324 present value of landings if maintained at recent historical levels (i.e., the average annual ex-vessel value
325 from 2007 through 2016). In contrast, the analysis suggests that the present value of landings of white
326 shrimp could increase by more than \$670 million (9.0 percent).

327 **Table 7. Results of Screening Analysis for 20 Highest Value Fisheries: RCP 4.5**

Fishery	Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Millions)		Change in Present Value of Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2021-2100: RCP 4.5 vs. Baseline, r = 3%	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Projected Change (2018 Dollars, Millions) ¹	Percentage Change
American Lobster	\$502.5	\$111.5	\$54.1	0.4%
Sea Scallop	\$501.4	\$72.8	\$410.4	2.7%
Walleye Pollock	\$390.4	\$49.9	\$79.9	0.7%
White Shrimp	\$246.3	\$30.1	\$670.2	9.0%
Brown Shrimp	\$216.2	\$51.6	(\$133.3)	-2.0%
Pacific Cod	\$212.1	\$56.9	\$13.0	0.2%
Blue Crab	\$209.4	\$19.6	\$407.8	6.4%
Dungeness Crab	\$186.1	\$48.0	(\$800.4)	-14.2%
Pacific Halibut	\$182.9	\$60.3	\$52.0	0.9%
Sablefish	\$140.0	\$27.3	\$227.6	5.4%
Snow Crab	\$113.0	\$38.4	(\$1,048.4)	-30.6%
Chum Salmon	\$73.3	\$20.1	(\$210.9)	-9.5%
California Market Squid	\$58.0	\$22.0	\$132.3	7.5%
Chinook Salmon	\$51.8	\$15.1	(\$36.3)	-2.3%
Yellowfin Sole	\$49.2	\$10.5	(\$180.4)	-12.1%
Pacific Hake	\$46.6	\$17.9	(\$51.6)	-3.7%
Ocean Shrimp	\$34.2	\$20.6	(\$185.0)	-17.9%
Summer Flounder	\$31.3	\$3.6	\$80.7	8.5%
Longfin Squid	\$29.7	\$9.2	\$79.3	8.8%
Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	\$28.7	\$5.0	(\$164.9)	-19.0%

¹ For purposes of the screening analysis, ex-vessel prices are held constant. The projected change in the present value of ex-vessel revenues assumes that the catch of each species analyzed would increase or decrease over time in direct proportion to the projected change in the species' available habitat.

328 Table 8 provides a comparable set of estimates for RCP 8.5. For 17 of the 20 fisheries, the direction of
 329 the projected impact on the present value of landings remains the same. Moreover, as might be
 330 anticipated for most of these fisheries, the magnitude of projected impacts under RCP 8.5 is greater
 331 than under RCP 4.5. For three fisheries, however, the direction of the projected impact changes. In the
 332 case of the American lobster and sea scallop fisheries, the projected impact switches from positive to
 333 negative, as small gains in habitat in the East Coast region early in the century are offset by greater

334 losses in habitat toward the century's end. In contrast, the projected impact for Chinook salmon
 335 landings switches from negative to positive. In this case, more rapid warming in the RCP 8.5 scenario
 336 leads to an earlier and more substantial increase in thermally available ocean habitat in the Alaska
 337 region, offsetting a loss of ocean habitat along the West Coast. Note that the analysis does not consider
 338 the availability or condition of the freshwater habitat on which anadromous species like Chinook salmon
 339 depend, an important consideration in projecting changes in the future landings of such species.

340 **Table 8. Results of Screening Analysis for 20 Highest Value Fisheries: RCP 8.5**

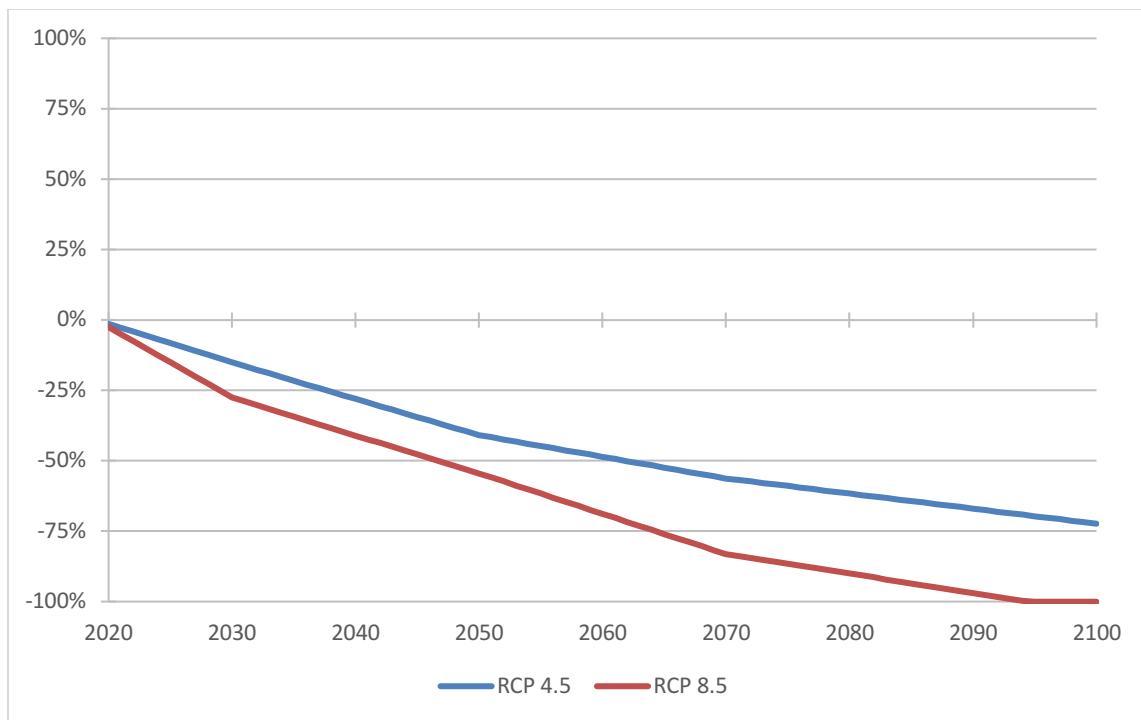
Fishery	Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Millions)		Change in Present Value of Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2021-2100: RCP 8.5 vs. Baseline, r = 3%	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Projected Change (2018 Dollars, Millions) ¹	Percentage Change
American Lobster	\$502.5	\$111.5	(\$219.9)	-1.4%
Sea Scallop	\$501.4	\$72.8	(\$114.3)	-0.8%
Walleye Pollock	\$390.4	\$49.9	\$189.9	1.6%
White Shrimp	\$246.3	\$30.1	\$1,269.8	17.0%
Brown Shrimp	\$216.2	\$51.6	(\$176.5)	-2.7%
Pacific Cod	\$212.1	\$56.9	\$26.8	0.4%
Blue Crab	\$209.4	\$19.6	\$649.2	10.2%
Dungeness Crab	\$186.1	\$48.0	(\$1,160.5)	-20.6%
Pacific Halibut	\$182.9	\$60.3	\$28.9	0.5%
Sablefish	\$140.0	\$27.3	\$403.6	9.5%
Snow Crab	\$113.0	\$38.4	(\$1,549.8)	-45.3%
Chum Salmon	\$73.3	\$20.1	(\$425.6)	-19.2%
California Market Squid	\$58.0	\$22.0	\$205.7	11.7%
Chinook Salmon	\$51.8	\$15.1	\$24.3	1.5%
Yellowfin Sole	\$49.2	\$10.5	(\$349.0)	-23.4%
Pacific Hake	\$46.6	\$17.9	(\$78.5)	-5.6%
Ocean Shrimp	\$34.2	\$20.6	(\$258.2)	-24.9%
Summer Flounder	\$31.3	\$3.6	\$82.4	8.7%
Longfin Squid	\$29.7	\$9.2	\$76.0	8.4%
Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	\$28.7	\$5.0	(\$204.3)	-23.5%

¹ For purposes of the screening analysis, ex-vessel prices are held constant. The projected change in the present value of ex-vessel revenues assumes that the catch of each species analyzed would increase or decrease over time in direct proportion to the projected change in the species' available habitat.

341 **2.2.3 Implications for Economic Welfare Analysis**

342 In addition to providing general insight to the potential effects of climate change on future landings of
343 commercially harvested species, the screening analysis helped to guide the selection of fisheries
344 considered in our assessment of consumer welfare impacts. To ensure that the welfare assessment
345 would be analytically tractable, we limited its scope to 16 species that could be equally divided into four
346 categories, each of which would contain commodities that consumers might consider close substitutes.
347 Given the limited number of species the analysis could consider, we also chose to focus, to the extent
348 possible, on fisheries that account for the greatest share of current ex-vessel landings. One exception to
349 this selection process was snow crab, a species for which our analysis of RCP 8.5 projects a complete loss
350 of thermally available habitat within the areas modeled by the end of the century (see Figure 4). The
351 implication of this finding – that landings of snow crab would fall to zero by the end of the century – is
352 analytically intractable. More importantly, the thermally available habitat for snow crab in the Bering
353 Sea shows a strong potential to shift northward, beyond the northern boundary of our projection grid.
354 This raises concern that the geographic limits of the habitat analysis may lead us to overstate the impact
355 of rising temperatures on future landings. These factors led us to exclude snow crab from the welfare
356 analysis, resulting in selection of the following species, by fishery category:

357 • Lobster/crab – American lobster, blue crab, Dungeness crab, and Florida stone crab (claws);
358 • Shrimp/mollusk – sea scallop, white shrimp, brown shrimp, and California market squid;
359 • High-value fish (mean ex-vessel price greater than \$0.75 per pound, 2018 dollars) – Pacific
360 halibut, sablefish, Chinook salmon, and summer flounder;
361 • Low-value fish (mean ex-vessel price less than \$0.75 per pound, 2018 dollars) – walleye pollock,
362 Pacific cod, yellowfin sole, and chum salmon.



363 **Figure 4. Projected Change in Thermally Available Habitat, Snow Crab, Alaska: Five-GCM Mean**

364

365 Table 9 lists these species, noting the baseline rank of each fishery by ex-vessel value. As it indicates,
 366 the scope of the analysis includes 16 of the 20 fisheries in the screening analysis dataset with the
 367 greatest average annual ex-vessel revenues. In aggregate, the revenue associated with these 16
 368 fisheries accounts for 82 percent of the dataset's baseline total and 56 percent of commercial landings
 369 in the four regions analyzed. Moreover, the 16 fisheries include those the screening analysis suggests
 370 might experience an increase in the present value of landings in response to warming temperatures, as
 371 well as those that might experience a decrease. Thus, the welfare analysis not only captures impacts on
 372 fisheries that are currently economically important, but also reflects expected variation in the
 373 implications of rising sea temperatures for different species.

374 **Table 9. Species Selected for Welfare Analysis**

Fishery	Annual Ex-Vessel Revenues, 2007-2016 (2018 Dollars, Millions)			Baseline Rank by Value	Fishery Group
	Mean	Standard Deviation			
American Lobster	\$502.5	\$111.5	1	Lobster/Crab	
Sea Scallop	\$501.4	\$72.8	2	Shrimp/Mollusk	
Walleye Pollock	\$390.4	\$49.9	3	Low Value Fish	
White Shrimp	\$246.3	\$30.1	4	Shrimp/Mollusk	
Brown Shrimp	\$216.2	\$51.6	5	Shrimp/Mollusk	
Pacific Cod	\$212.1	\$56.9	6	Low Value Fish	
Blue Crab	\$209.4	\$19.6	7	Lobster/Crab	
Dungeness Crab	\$186.1	\$48.0	8	Lobster/Crab	
Pacific Halibut	\$182.9	\$60.3	9	High Value Fish	
Sablefish	\$140.0	\$27.3	10	High Value Fish	
Chum Salmon	\$73.3	\$20.1	12	Low Value Fish	
California Market Squid	\$58.0	\$22.0	13	Shrimp/Mollusk	
Chinook Salmon	\$51.8	\$15.1	14	High Value Fish	
Yellowfin Sole	\$49.2	\$10.5	15	Low Value Fish	
Summer Flounder	\$31.3	\$3.6	18	High Value Fish	
Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	\$28.7	\$5.0	20	Lobster/Crab	
Total	\$3,079.6				

375 Figures 5 through 8 present the mean projected changes in annual harvests (in percentage terms) for
 376 the 16 modeled species, with separate figures for each fishery group. There are two panels in each
 377 figure, one for RCP 4.5 and one for RCP 8.5. Tables 10 and 11 present the baseline harvests (in millions
 378 of pounds) for these 16 species and the projected harvests in 2050 and 2090 for the two climate
 379 scenarios. The tables also report the 95 percent confidence intervals around the projected change in
 380 harvest, based on a Monte Carlo simulation that considered two factors: (1) variation in annual landings
 381 from 2007 through 2016; and (2) variation in the predicted change in thermally available habitat across
 382 the five GCMs. As these tables and figures show, the projected changes in landings under RCP 8.5 are
 383 generally more rapid and pronounced than those under RCP 4.5, particularly toward the end of the
 384 century. In the high-end case, the projected increase or decrease in landings by 2090 for several species

385 approaches or exceeds 50 percent. Changes of this magnitude suggest substantial shifts in the
 386 distribution of seafood products available to consumers. In the discussion that follows, we examine the
 387 implications of these changes for consumer welfare.

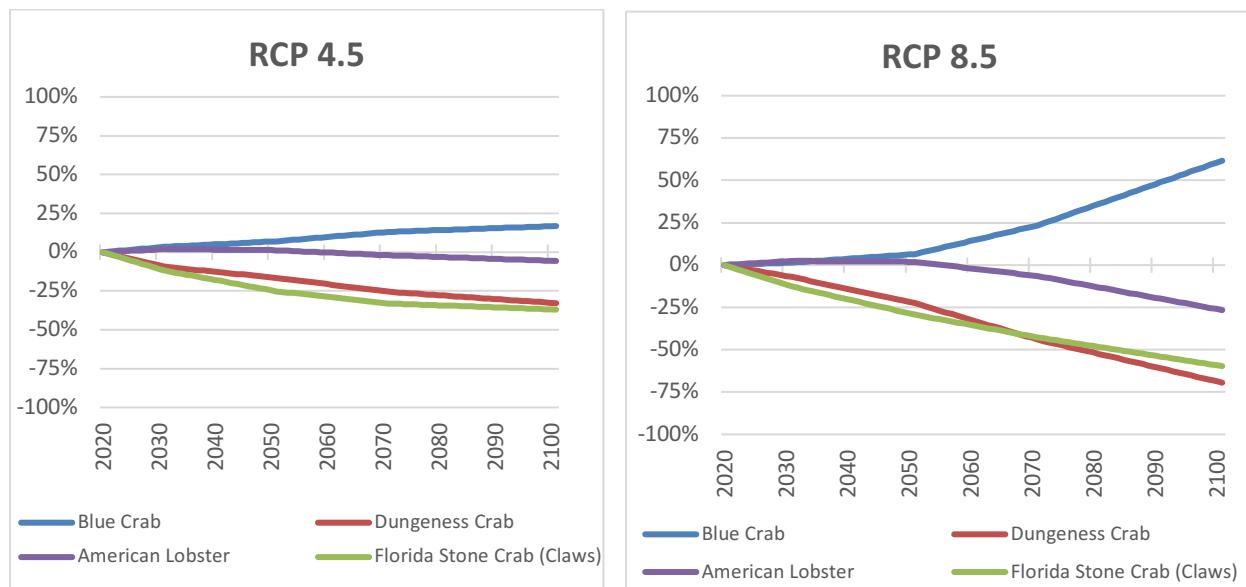
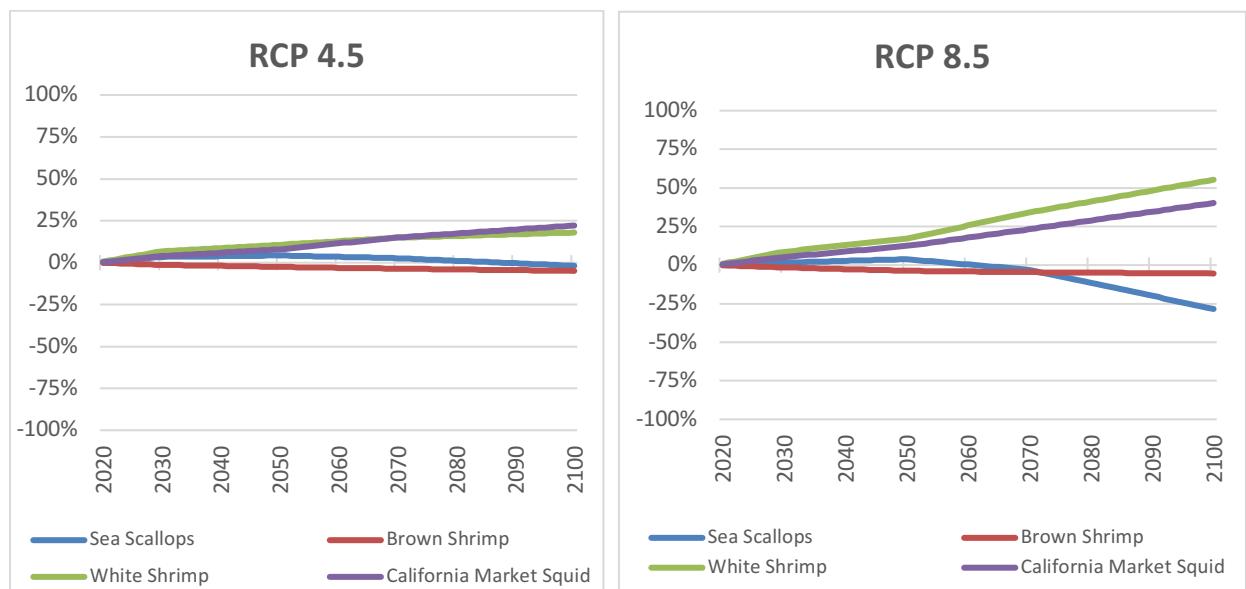


Figure 5. Projected Changes in Commercial Harvests of Key Lobster/Crab Species: Five-GCM Mean



388 **Figure 6. Projected Changes in Commercial Harvests of Key Shrimp/Mollusk Species: Five GCM**
 389 **Mean**

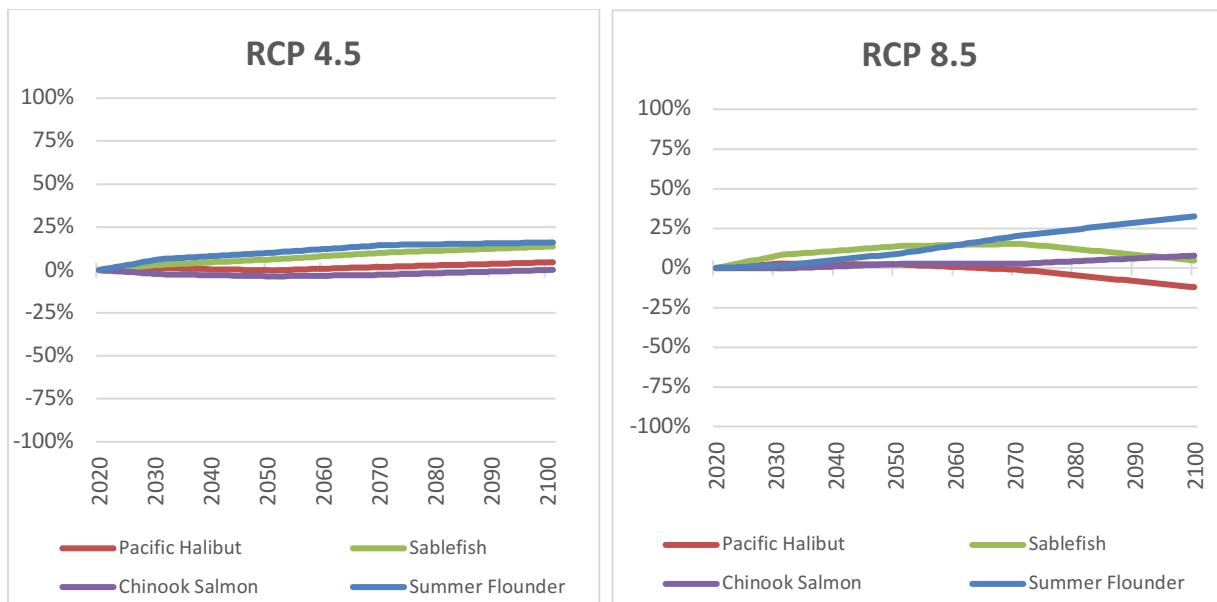


Figure 7. Projected Changes in Commercial Harvests of Key High Value Fish Species: Five-GCM Mean

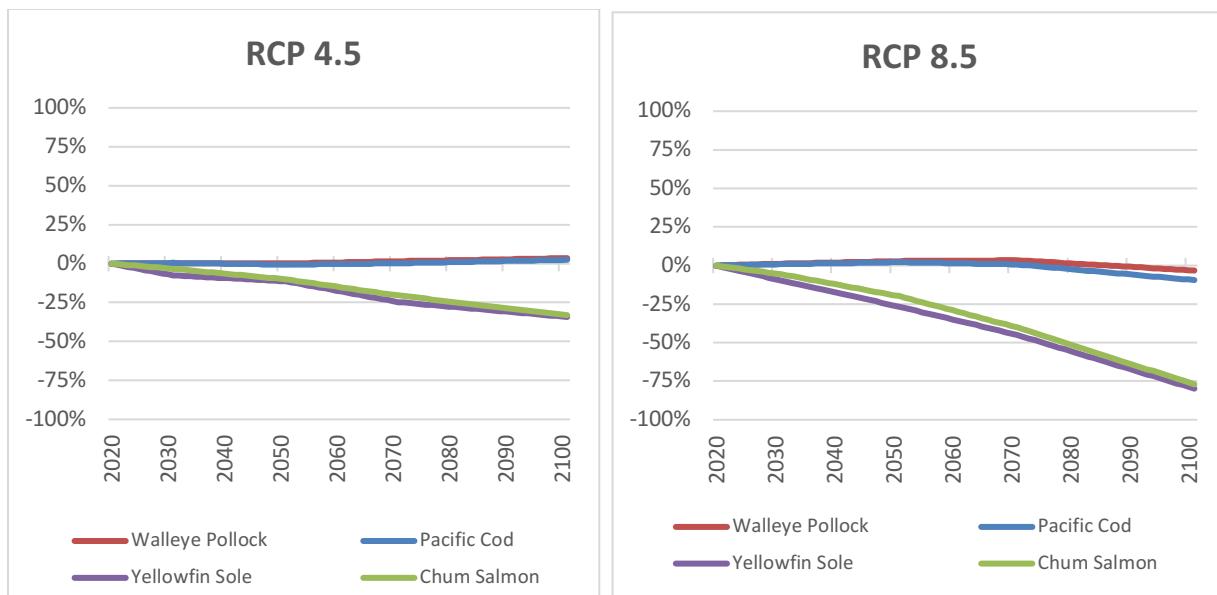


Figure 8. Projected Changes in Commercial Harvests of Key Low Value Fish Species: Five GCM Mean

390 **Table 10. Projected Change in Commercial Harvests for the 16 Modeled Species, RCP 4.5**

Fishery Group	Fishery	Annual	2050 Projection ¹			2090 Projection ¹		
		Average 2007-	2016	Landings	Percent	95% Confidence	Landings	Percent
		(MM lbs.)	(MM lbs.)		Change	Interval	(MM lbs.)	Change
Lobster/Crab	Blue Crab	168.3	180.1	7.1%	2.4% - 12.7%		194.5	15.6%
	Dungeness Crab	58.9	49.2	(16.5%)	(25.2%) - (7.1%)		41.0	(30.4%)
	American Lobster	126.7	128.3	1.3%	(3.1%) - 5.1%		121.1	(4.4%)
	Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	4.6	3.5	(25.1%)	(34.6%) - (13.3%)		3.0	(35.6%)
								(48.7%) - (20.1%)
Shrimp/Mollusk	Sea Scallop	49.3	51.5	4.3%	0.4% - 9.2%		49.2	(0.3%)
	Brown Shrimp	107.4	104.8	(2.5%)	(5.6%) - 0.2%		102.7	(4.4%)
	White Shrimp	109.1	120.8	10.7%	5.8% - 15.2%		127.7	17.0%
	California Market Squid	179.4	193.9	8.0%	6.1% - 10.4%		215.0	19.8%
								15.6% - 26.1%
High Value Fish	Pacific Halibut	43.2	43.1	(0.2%)	(1.8%) - 1.7%		44.8	3.6%
	Sablefish	39.6	42.1	6.2%	(1.9%) - 15.0%		44.6	12.5%
	Chinook Salmon	14.5	13.9	(3.7%)	(8.6%) - 1.3%		14.3	(0.8%)
	Summer Flounder	11.2	12.4	10.2%	2.1% - 19.4%		13.0	15.6%
								3.3% - 29.4%
Low Value Fish	Walleye Pollock	2,760.6	2,765.1	0.2%	(1.4%) - 1.1%		2,840.3	2.9%
	Pacific Cod	620.2	616.4	(0.6%)	(1.8%) - 0.6%		631.2	1.8%
	Yellowfin Sole	290.6	257.7	(11.3%)	(21.9%) - 0.0%		200.4	(31.0%)
	Chum Salmon	118.7	106.8	(10.1%)	(18.0%) - 0.6%		84.5	(28.8%)
								(38.0%) - (20.1%)

¹The projected change in commercial harvests assumes that the catch of each species would increase or decrease in direct proportion to the projected change in the species' thermally available habitat.

Table 11. Projected Change in Commercial Harvests for the 16 Modeled Species, RCP 8.5

Fishery Group	Fishery	Annual		2050 Projection ¹			2090 Projection ¹		
		Average 2007-2016		Landings (MM lbs.)		Percent Change	95% Confidence Interval	Landings (MM lbs.)	Percent Change
		2016 (MM lbs.)	(MM lbs.)						
Lobster/Crab	Blue Crab	168.3	179.1	6.4%	3.1% - 9.7%	250.5	48.9%	28.3% - 69.9%	
	Dungeness Crab	58.9	45.6	(22.5%)	(35.2%) - (11.3%)	23.0	(60.9%)	(74.4%) - (44.9%)	
	American Lobster	126.7	129.2	1.9%	(3.2%) - 6.1%	101.5	(19.9%)	(30.5%) - (12.2%)	
	Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	4.6	3.3	(29.3%)	(39.7%) - (16.2%)	2.1	(54.0%)	(68.9%) - (34.7%)	
Shrimp/Mollusk	Sea Scallop	49.3	51.2	3.8%	(6.1%) - 12.8%	39.5	(20.0%)	(32.5%) - (6.9%)	
	Brown Shrimp	107.4	103.4	(3.7%)	(7.7%) - 0.3%	101.9	(5.2%)	(12.7%) - 2.4%	
	White Shrimp	109.1	127.8	17.1%	13.2% - 20.6%	161.8	48.2%	35.6% - 60.7%	
	California Market Squid	179.4	201.6	12.3%	10.1% - 15.3%	241.4	34.6%	27.2% - 46.2%	
High Value Fish	Pacific Halibut	43.2	44.1	2.1%	(1.3%) - 5.2%	39.4	(8.7%)	(23.1%) - 3.0%	
	Sablefish	39.6	45.1	13.8%	7.9% - 20.1%	42.8	8.1%	(10.4%) - 23.7%	
	Chinook Salmon	14.5	14.8	2.5%	(6.7%) - 13.8%	15.4	6.2%	(14.6%) - 35.0%	
	Summer Flounder	11.2	12.3	9.2%	2.2% - 16.9%	14.5	28.8%	12.2% - 44.2%	
Low Value Fish	Walleye Pollock	2,760.6	2,840.4	2.9%	1.0% - 4.7%	2,733.3	(1.0%)	(10.1%) - 7.9%	
	Pacific Cod	620.2	633.9	2.2%	(0.4%) - 4.6%	582.8	(6.0%)	(18.5%) - 6.5%	
	Yellowfin Sole	290.6	213.3	(26.6%)	(37.2%) - (18.0%)	92.5	(68.2%)	(84.4%) - (52.7%)	
	Chum Salmon	118.7	95.1	(19.8%)	(30.7%) - (9.9%)	41.9	(64.7%)	(68.3%) - (61.1%)	

392 **2.2.4 Limitations of the Economic Models**

393 As previously noted, this analysis excludes many factors that may influence species abundance and
394 commercial landings, such as potential changes in primary productivity, species interactions, population
395 dynamics, or fisheries management. In addition, because the approach focuses on potential changes in
396 landings of species that are already commercially harvested, it does not account for the possibility that
397 an increase in the abundance of other species could lead to the development of new fisheries. This type
398 of development would help to offset potential losses in economic welfare attributable to a decline in the
399 productivity of established fisheries.

400 An additional limitation of the analysis concerns our ability to characterize the uncertainty around the
401 projected changes in landings. The confidence intervals presented in Tables 10 and 11 are based on a
402 Monte Carlo simulation that considered two factors: (1) variation in annual landings from 2007 through
403 2016; and (2) variation in the predicted change in thermally available habitat across the five GCMs.
404 These confidence intervals do not reflect other sources of uncertainty in the GCMs' projections of
405 changes in thermally available habitat, nor do they account for the impact of the considerations noted in
406 the previous paragraph.

407 Finally, it is important to note that while we are examining consumer surplus, the quantity and value
408 data we use to estimate our model are taken from domestic dockside transactions. The supply chain
409 from the fishing vessel to the consumer's table is complex. The US imports the majority of its seafood
410 and an increasing fraction is produced in aquaculture. Given some imported seafood and aquaculture
411 are close substitutes for domestic wild harvest, omitting them from our analysis could affect our
412 elasticity and welfare estimates. To the extent that the data we use in our analysis is generated in
413 markets that include imports and aquaculture, our demand responses to changes in domestic wild
414 harvest are consistent so long as we assume those other supplies are held constant. The effects of

415 climate change on imported seafood and the emergence of aquaculture are not addressed in this paper;
416 we simply recognize them as limitations to a more holistic analysis.

417 **3. Analysis of Welfare Impacts**

418 **3.1 Modeling Approach**

419 Given expected changes in annual harvests for the 16 modeled species, the welfare analysis proceeds in
420 several steps. The first is to estimate parameters of a utility function that describes how consumers will
421 be affected by changes in supply. We begin by assuming consumers are maximizing their utility based
422 on current supply and that, as harvests change, they will reoptimize. We specify a form for the utility
423 function and use historical data to estimate its parameters. Projected changes in supply and real
424 income are then plugged into the utility function to predict how consumers will respond. The estimated
425 utility function tells us if consumers are better or worse off after the change and allows us to express the
426 utility change in monetary terms.

427 Our model must be able to capture interactions between the demands for different species. If supply in
428 one fishery falls over time, causing price to increase, species with a stable or increasing supply become
429 relatively cheaper and consumers are likely to substitute toward them. In this way, price effects and
430 welfare impacts ripple through the system of demands. Modeling such interactions with a simultaneous
431 system of demand equations becomes intractable as the number of species increases. To address the
432 high dimensionality of the problem, we model demand in the 16 fisheries as a two-stage process in
433 which consumers first allocate expenditures among groups of related species, then further allocate
434 expenditures among species within those groups (Table 9).

435 Moore and Griffiths (2018) demonstrate how to estimate price changes and consumer welfare impacts
436 in a multi-stage inverse demand system; we apply their approach to our projected changes in harvest.

437 In a two-stage model, prices are determined by consumers first allocating expenditures to fishery groups
438 based on aggregated supply in each, then among the individual species modeled in the second stage. A
439 supply change in one fishery can affect the price of a species in a different group through the first stage
440 expenditure allocation. Consumer welfare impacts are found by measuring the distance between
441 optimized consumption bundles in utility-space before and after the change in supply. The distance is
442 then monetized using forecasted expenditures on each fishery group. Real incomes are expected to
443 grow through the end of the century; as their wealth increases consumers will allocate some of that
444 wealth to purchase the 16 modeled species, which will put upward pressure on prices. Our model
445 captures this demand shift using an income elasticity for seafood from Cheng and Capps' (1988) analysis
446 of demand for seafood in the U.S. and forecasts of changes in real income.

447 The scope of our analysis prevents us from collecting the data and developing the models required to
448 forecast the change in harvest effort in response to stock changes and estimate producer surplus. While
449 there are examples in the literature of studies that perform such analyses, they tend to focus on single
450 fisheries. Edwards' 2005 study of the Atlantic sea scallop fishery and Tan and Jardine's 2019 analysis of
451 the horseshoe crab fishery in the Delaware Bay are two examples. Performing that type of analysis on
452 16 different species for the entire US harvest is far beyond the scope of this paper. Markowski et al.
453 (1999) limit their welfare analysis to consumer surplus when estimating the impact of climate change on
454 the US commercial fishing industry for the same reason, as do Speers et al. (2016) in their analysis of
455 coral reef dependent fisheries under climate change and ocean acidification.

456 The assumption of an exogenous supply is not uncommon and has a long tradition in the agricultural
457 and fisheries economics literatures (Moschini and Vissa 1992; Eales and Unnevehr 1994). Lacking
458 production and cost functions to predict responses of harvesters, we make the simplifying assumption
459 that harvest changes in proportion to thermally available habitat. This implies that in each fishery the

460 fishery management authority imposes management measures, based on stock assessments, which aim
461 to constrain the annual catch to a sustainable level, either directly through means of binding quotas or
462 indirectly through limits on fishing effort. The fishery stocks we examine here are managed by various
463 regional councils, and the restrictions governing harvest are complex. Nonetheless, based on a review
464 of the management measures currently in effect for all 16 species, we find strong empirical support for
465 constraints on catch or effort set according to biological criteria. The fishery management plans for 15
466 out of the 16 species we model are designed with the goal of maintaining either maximum sustainable
467 yield, optimum sustainable yield, or some other biological benchmark. This empirical support for our
468 assumption of constraints on catch that will adjust with stock assessments allows us to estimate the
469 change in harvest level independent of the economic details of each fishery.

470 **3.2 Estimation**

471 The specific functional form we choose for the demand system is the inverse almost ideal demand
472 system (Moschini and Vissa 1992, see appendix for estimating equations). It is derived in a utility
473 theoretic framework and estimated to satisfy adding-up and homogeneity restrictions. Seemingly
474 unrelated regressions (SUR) are used to estimate the demand systems because there are no cross-
475 equation restrictions on the estimated parameters but the error terms within a demand system are
476 likely correlated. Data to estimate the model is the same as that which was used to perform the
477 screening analysis, 2007-2016 NMFS Commercial Fishing Statistics; however, the original monthly
478 observational units were maintained to capture seasonal variation in harvest and dockside price.

479 In the first stage estimation of demand equations for the fishery groups there are 12 estimated
480 parameters; an additional 12 are identified by the utility theoretic restrictions and found using the
481 estimated parameters. These parameters do not have a straightforward or intuitive interpretation;
482 instead, we present the own-price elasticities for each fishery group (Table 12; cross-price elasticities are

483 shown in the appendix). An own-price elasticity tells us how much, in proportional terms, demand for a
484 good is expected to change given a change in its price, assuming all other prices are held constant.
485 Given downward sloping demand curves, we expect these elasticities to be negative, providing a useful
486 check on our model. The elasticities are non-linear functions of the estimated utility parameters; given
487 a sufficiently large sample to assume normality of the means, we employ the delta method to find the
488 inner 95th percentiles as an indication of statistical significance. The first stage price elasticities are all
489 negative, of reasonable magnitude, and precisely estimated. All cross-price elasticities and the formula
490 we use to find them are reported in the appendix.

491 **Table 12. First Stage Own-Price Elasticities**

Fishery Group	Price Elasticity	Inner 95 th Percentile
Lobster/Crab	-.554	-.615
Shrimp/Mollusk	-.754	-.793
High Value Fish	-.302	-.344
Low Value Fish	-.921	-.939

492 Estimation of the second stage demand systems proceeds exactly like the first stage. In the second
493 stage we estimate four separate demand systems via SUR using total expenditures and harvest data for
494 the constituent species of each fishery group (Table 13). As with the first stage, all own-price elasticity
495 estimates are negative and, with the lone exception of Pacific Halibut in the high value fishery group, all
496 95-percent confidence intervals lie entirely below zero.

497

498 **Table 13. Second Stage Price Elasticities**

Fishery Group	Species	Price Elasticity	Inner 95th Percentile
Lobster/Crab	Blue Crab	-.290	-.357
	Dungeness Crab	-.263	-.324
	American Lobster	-.630	-.664
	Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	-.717	-.733
Shrimp/Mollusk	Sea Scallop	-.461	-.532
	Brown Shrimp	-.418	-.495
	White Shrimp	-.418	-.476
	California Market Squid	-.995	-1.008
High Value Fish	Pacific Halibut	-.081	-.217
	Sablefish	-.363	-.457
	Chinook Salmon	-.290	-.356
	Summer Flounder	-.878	-.886
Low Value Fish	Walleye Pollock	-.590	-.646
	Pacific Cod	-.699	-.725
	Yellowfin Sole	-.335	-.489
	Chum Salmon	-.760	-.791

499 **3.3 Forecast of Total Expenditures**

500 Real income is expected to grow through the end of the century (Chen et al., 2015). As consumers
 501 become wealthier their demand, and thus willingness to pay, for normal goods increases. This has the
 502 effect of magnifying welfare impacts of changes in supply, whether positive or negative. To capture the
 503 effect of growing real income in our model we take an estimated income elasticity of demand for
 504 seafood from the literature and forecast the change in total expenditures on the modeled fisheries to
 505 the end of our time horizon. Cheng and Capps (1988) estimate an income elasticity of demand for
 506 seafood of 0.11. Using the CIRA 2.0 gross domestic product (GDP) forecast produced by the MIT EPPA6
 507 model (Chen et al. 2015), we project real expenditures on the modeled species to grow by 16.5 percent
 508 by the end of the century (Table 14).

509

510 **Table 14. Forecast of Total Expenditures on Modeled Species**

Year	Gross Domestic Product (2018 Dollars, Billions)	Expenditures on Modeled Species (2018 Dollars, Millions)
2007-2016 average	\$16,674	\$3,080
2020	\$19,090	\$3,088
2030	\$23,859	\$3,165
2040	\$29,253	\$3,237
2050	\$35,051	\$3,302
2060	\$41,589	\$3,364
2070	\$48,864	\$3,424
2080	\$56,849	\$3,482
2090	\$65,477	\$3,536
2100	\$74,688	\$3,588

511 **3.4 Forecast of Price Changes and Consumer Welfare Impacts**

512 Prices for each of the modeled species are forecasted by simulating the two-stage budget allocation
 513 process represented by our economic model. The first stage demand system provides forecasts of
 514 expenditure shares among the fishery groups, which are multiplied by the total expenditures in Table 14
 515 to simulate budget allocation among those groups. The estimated second stage demand systems then
 516 provide the means to further allocate group expenditures among species which, when divided by
 517 forecasted harvests, provide prices for each species. Table 15 shows the expected percent change in
 518 prices under the two modeled climate scenarios. Tables 10 and 11 show that projections for species
 519 harvest changes are mixed and one might expect the impact on prices to be similarly mixed given supply
 520 and price tend to be inversely related. The expectation that real expenditures will grow over time,
 521 however, puts upward pressure on all prices; as a result, prices are expected to increase under the RCP
 522 4.5 scenario, and all but one price is expected to increase under the RCP 8.5 scenario. Additionally,
 523 because we explicitly model substitution, when an increase in the supply of one species makes it
 524 relatively cheaper, consumers will substitute toward that species, increasing demand and dampening
 525 the downward pressure on price in economic equilibrium. For example, in the shrimp and shellfish

526 group, white shrimp harvests are expected to increase by nearly 50 percent in the high emissions
 527 scenario, while their price is expected to stay about the same. This can be explained by observing that
 528 the share of shrimp and shellfish expenditures allocated to white shrimp grows from 27 percent to 37
 529 percent, squeezing out some expenditures on scallops as their harvest falls by 20 percent. This one
 530 example shows how important demand interactions can be when modeling consumer welfare impacts.

531 **Table 15. Projected Changes in Prices**

Fishery Group	Species	Baseline Price (2018 dollars)*	Percent change in price by 2100	
			RCP 4.5	RCP 8.5
Lobster/Crab	Blue Crab	\$1.17	33.35%	35.57%
	Dungeness Crab	\$3.32	31.65%	21.47%
	Lobster	\$5.49	31.42%	62.07%
	Florida Stone Crab (Claws)	\$5.59	55.83%	69.18%
Shrimp/Mollusk	Sea Scallop	\$9.35	19.4%	14.08%
	Brown Shrimp	\$2.95	22.5%	21.46%
	White Shrimp	\$2.87	14.72%	0.59%
	Market Squid	\$0.30	5.75%	-5.30%
High Value Fish	Pacific Halibut	\$2.96	26.61%	18.99%
	Sablefish	\$2.79	16.64%	2.24%
	Chinook Salmon	\$3.18	25.01%	5.98%
	Summer Flounder	\$2.93	17.21%	5.09%
Low Value Fish	Walleye Pollock	\$0.14	5.06%	56.72%
	Pacific Cod	\$0.32	4.69%	58.32%
	Yellowfin Sole	\$0.08	32.21%	204.18%
	Chum Salmon	\$0.51	19.35%	57.38%

532 *Baseline prices represent the average monthly price (2018 dollars) for each species from 1996-2016.

533 We estimate consumer welfare impacts using a distance function approach (Moore and Griffiths 2018;
 534 Kim 1997, see appendix). The distance function is dual to the expenditure function and measures how
 535 the consumption bundle must be scaled to reach a reference level of utility. If we benchmark utility
 536 using current harvest levels, we can find the change in consumer utility when harvest levels change over
 537 time and monetize those changes using expenditure forecasts. Forecasted prices are not used in the
 538 welfare calculation directly, but they embody much of the same information. Since our model explicitly
 539 accounts for substitution possibilities among the 16 modeled species, the net price elasticity reflects

540 how changes in relative prices among goods affect consumers' willingness to pay for a given year's
541 harvest. Likewise, welfare impacts of a decline in harvest of one species can be mitigated if a substitute
542 for that species experiences an increase in harvest. As such, there are some cases in which the change
543 in harvest and the change in price have the same sign, despite all own-price elasticities being negative.
544 Table 16 shows the net present value of consumer welfare impacts through the end of the century for
545 each of the fishery groups. Total welfare impacts are found by summing across groups and amount to a
546 loss of \$2.1 billion or \$4.2 billion, depending on the climate scenario, when discounted at 3 percent.
547 Table 17 and Figure 9 show total annual consumer welfare impacts at ten-year intervals through the end
548 of the century. In the year 2050, predicted annual consumer welfare losses reach \$76 million in the low
549 emissions scenario and \$110 million in the high emissions scenario. By 2100 those losses reach \$278
550 million in the lower emissions scenario and \$901 million in the high emissions scenario.

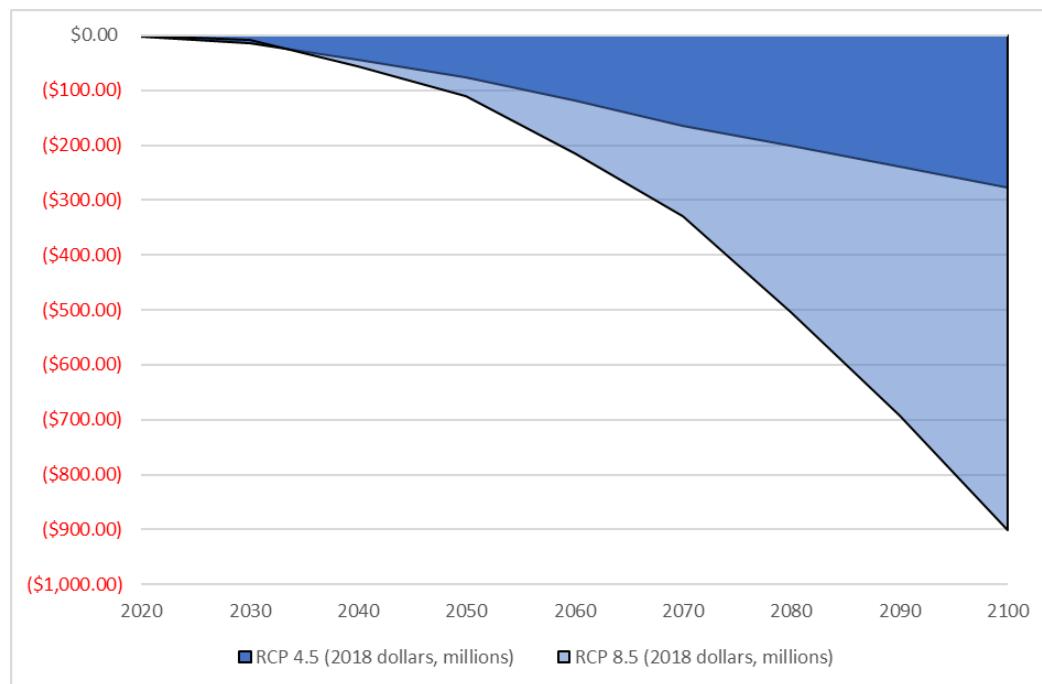
551 **Table 16. Present Value of Consumer Welfare Impacts (r = 3%)**

Fishery Group	RCP 4.5 (2018 dollars, millions)	RCP 8.5 (2018 dollars, millions)
Lobster/Crab	-\$2,126.0	-\$2,848.2
Shrimp/Mollusk	\$265.7	\$1,469.7
High Value Fish	-\$585.1	\$441.2
Low Value Fish	\$355.8	-\$3,292.0
Total	-\$2,089.7	-\$4,229.2

552

553 **Table 17. Annual Consumer Welfare Impacts, RCP 4.5 vs. RCP 8.5**

Year	RCP 4.5 (2018 dollars, millions)	RCP 8.5 (2018 dollars, millions)
2020	-\$1.18	-\$0.55
2030	-\$14.21	-\$7.29
2040	-\$44.21	-\$56.45
2050	-\$75.82	-\$109.59
2060	-\$118.90	-\$215.36
2070	-\$164.22	-\$329.27
2080	-\$200.60	-\$504.22
2090	-\$238.51	-\$693.10
2100	-\$277.94	-\$901.25



554 **Figure 9. Annual Consumer Welfare Impacts, RCP 4.5 vs. RCP 8.5**

555 **4. Summary and Conclusions**

556 Projections of changes in thermal habitat for marine species on the North American continental shelf
 557 predict major shifts in distribution by the end of the 21st century (Morley et al. 2018). Changes in the
 558 extent of thermally available habitat are not necessarily predictive of changes in the absolute biomass of

559 any stock; a variety of other factors – such as changes in ocean circulation patterns, ocean acidity, or
560 nutrient loads – may affect population productivity. Nonetheless, changes in thermally available habitat
561 for commercially harvested species are an important indicator of potential changes in abundance and,
562 by extension, potential changes in commercial harvest and landings.

563 The analysis presented here relies on projected changes in thermally available habitat for marine species
564 within the U.S. EEZ to examine the implications of climate change for landings in 16 fisheries that
565 together account for 56 percent of U.S. commercial fishing revenues. It suggests that for some species
566 (e.g., blue crab, white shrimp, California market squid, summer flounder) rising sea temperatures are
567 likely to have a positive effect on landings, while for others (e.g., Dungeness crab, Florida stone crab,
568 yellowfin sole, chum salmon) the effect will be negative. The projected changes in landings under RCP
569 8.5 are generally more pronounced than those under RCP 4.5, particularly toward the end of the
570 century; for some species, the projected increase or decrease in landings by 2100 exceeds 50 percent.
571 Shifts of this magnitude suggest substantial changes by the end of the century in the distribution of
572 species the U.S. commercial fishing industry will harvest.

573 To estimate the consumer welfare impacts of projected changes in commercial landings, we employ a
574 two-stage inverse demand model, building on work previously conducted by Moore and Griffiths (2018).
575 This approach captures interactions between the demand for different species, recognizing consumers'
576 ability to adapt to changes in market conditions and optimize their utility by reallocating their
577 expenditures. The analysis suggests a positive impact on consumer welfare in the shrimp/mollusk sector
578 but negative effects overall, particularly in the market for lobster and crab. The present value of the loss
579 in consumer surplus from 2021 to 2100 is estimated at approximately \$2.1 billion (2018 \$US) under RCP
580 4.5 and \$4.2 billion under RCP 8.5. The projection of annual losses grows with time and ranges from
581 \$278 million to \$901 million by the end of the century.

582 This analysis extends the CIRA project's body of work on the economic impacts of climate change and
583 enhances our understanding of the effects of projected shifts in species distribution on substantial
584 segments of the commercial fishing industry. Additional research is needed, however, to develop a
585 more comprehensive assessment. Areas of potential focus include consideration of additional species;
586 expansion of the geographic scope of the analysis to include higher latitudes, particularly off the coast of
587 Alaska; development of improved thermal niche models for species like white shrimp and blue crab,
588 which at present may not effectively capture the species' upper temperature limits; analysis of the
589 potential impact of changes in ocean conditions (e.g., ocean acidification) on species productivity; and
590 evaluation of the potential effects of changes in fisheries management (Kennedy 2016; Gaines et al.
591 2018). Other dynamics, such as growth in aquaculture or in international trade, may also have an
592 important effect on the supply of seafood available to U.S. consumers and are factors worth considering
593 in subsequent assessments.

594 Beyond these considerations, it may be important to examine the cost to the commercial fishing
595 industry of adapting to shifts in the distribution and abundance of target species. Changes of the
596 magnitude projected in this analysis suggest that future generations of commercial fishermen may find
597 themselves in waters very different from those fished by their predecessors. Adapting to these changes
598 will challenge their knowledge and skills and may affect their capital and operating costs in ways that are
599 difficult to predict, potentially affecting the vessels they operate, the gear they use, the fuel they
600 consume, and the amount of time they spend at sea (Rogers et al. 2019;). It may also require additional
601 investments in the infrastructure that supports the industry and processes its catch. This could prove to
602 be particularly important if the shift in species distribution prompts demand for development or
603 expansion of ports and processing facilities in more northern areas of Alaska. It also suggests that the
604 importance of the industry to regional economies could change substantially over the next 80 years, and

605 that the distribution of landings within and across regions could look quite different when the next
606 century begins.

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