

1 Climate-influenced shifts in a highly migratory species recreational fishery

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3 Running Title: Shifts in HMS recreational fishery

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18
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21
22 **Data availability statement**

23 The Large Pelagics Survey data used in this study are publicly available. The sea surface temperature
24 dataset is publicly available from the sources identified in the manuscript as well as the other explanatory
25 variables. R statistical code from this study can be available upon request to the corresponding author.

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35 **Abstract**

36

37 The distribution of marine species is changing as a direct result of climate change. Large pelagic
38 highly migratory species (HMS), like tunas, billfishes, and sharks are particularly sensitive to
39 environmental change due to their migratory nature and use of large scale ocean features. These temporal
40 and spatial shifts are likely reflected in the Atlantic HMS recreational fishery and could have downstream
41 effects on coastal communities. We utilized dockside intercept data from the Large Pelagics Survey (LPS)
42 from 2002-2019, which conducts sampling from June to October and spans Maine to Virginia, U.S.A. We
43 assessed how species catch composition has changed and developed spatiotemporal models to understand
44 latitudinal and temporal shifts in the recreational catch of 12 HMS groups. Latitudinal shifts were
45 significantly affected by Northeast Shelf SST for 11 of the 12 HMS groups and ranged from $3 \pm 1 \text{ km } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$
46 ¹ for the large bluefin tuna to $40 \pm 1 \text{ km } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ for the blue shark. In addition, the estimated day of the year
47 when the first 25% of bigeye tuna intercepts occurred, happened over 50 days earlier in 2019 compared to
48 2002, suggesting the initial catch is happening earlier in recent years. These results suggest that changes
49 in species distribution and phenology are affecting where and when HMS recreational catch occurs.
50 Understanding these shifts would allow managers to be more responsive and promote flexibility in the
51 fishery, while helping communities prepare for changes, whether it be a switch to a new species or shifts
52 in the fishing season.

53

54 Key words: climate change, Large Pelagics Survey, spatiotemporal models, pelagic sharks, tunas,
55 billfishes, fisheries management

56

57 **Introduction**

58

59 Marine species distributions have been shifting due to the impacts of climate change on the ocean
60 (Rose 2005; Sunday et al. 2012; Kleisner et al. 2016). Marine species are primarily thermal-range
61 conformers, therefore their latitudinal range and depth distributions are driven by their thermal tolerance
62 and the tight connection between temperature and their underlying physiology (Pörtner and Knust 2007;
63 Sunday et al. 2012; Pinsky et al. 2020). This connection has led to the poleward edge of marine species'
64 range to expand an average of 72 km dec^{-1} poleward (Poloczanska et al. 2013). These shifts are expected
65 to continue and will likely be an important way species cope with climate change (Robinson et al. 2015;
66 Morley et al. 2018; McHenry et al. 2019; Hastings et al. 2020; Pinsky et al. 2020; Champion et al. 2021).
67 Such spatio-temporal shifts may have complex effects on marine ecosystems and fisheries that rely on
68 accessibility to these resources (Kerr et al. 2009; Townhill et al. 2019), including altered food web

69 dynamics (Du Pontavice et al. 2020) and the opportunities that fishermen have to target specific species
70 (Champion et al. 2022).

71 Large pelagic highly migratory species (HMS) of fishes such as tunas, billfishes, and sharks are
72 particularly reliant on ocean conditions due to their large scale movements and use of major ocean
73 features, which are often driven by temperature (e.g., Gulf Stream). In addition, marine species migrations
74 are often cued by environmental conditions like temperature (Kerr et al. 2009; Jansen and Gislason 2011;
75 Brown et al. 2016). This reliance makes HMS susceptible to changes in the ocean due to climate change.
76 For example, on average from 1958 to 2004, tuna habitat distributions in the northern hemisphere shifted
77 poleward 6.5 km dec^{-1} (Erauskin-Extramiana et al. 2019). These shifts are expected to continue
78 particularly for temperate tuna species as oceans continue to warm (Erauskin-Extramiana et al. 2019).
79 North Atlantic albacore and eastern Atlantic bluefin tuna have also experienced phenology shifts, where
80 feeding migrations into the Bay of Biscay have occurred 2 and 5.6 days earlier per decade, respectively
81 (Dufour et al. 2010). Poleward shifts are also predicted to occur in pelagic shark species, such as blue and
82 mako sharks along the eastern coast of Australia (Birkmanis et al. 2020) and thresher and blue sharks in
83 the northeast Pacific (Cheung et al. 2015).

84 Shifting HMS distributions and migratory phenology are likely directly influencing the Atlantic
85 HMS recreational fishery, which operates from Maine to Florida and throughout the Gulf of Mexico.
86 Particularly along the U.S. Northeast Shelf, climate change has and will continue to warm (Saba et al.
87 2016). For example, sea surface temperature over the U.S. Northeast Shelf has increased between 0.25-
88 $0.50^{\circ}\text{C dec}^{-1}$ since 1982 (Chen et al. 2020). The recreational fishery targeting Atlantic HMS has grown in
89 recent years from 23,614 private and for-hire permitted vessels in 2016 to 26,672 in 2021 (NMFS 2017;
90 NMFS 2021b). An economic assessment of the Atlantic HMS recreational fishery conducted in 2016
91 estimated it contributes \$510 million annually to the U.S. economy between fishing tournaments, private
92 and for-hire angling trips, and expenditures on durable items such as fishing vessels and gear (Hutt and
93 Silva 2019). Annual expenditures on private Atlantic HMS recreational fishing trips were found to be the
94 highest in the South Atlantic (\$20.5 million) followed by the Mid-Atlantic (\$10.7 million), Gulf of
95 Mexico (\$10.1 million), and New England (\$5.2 million) (Hutt and Silva 2019). However, as species shift
96 their distribution and phenology we would expect to see a shift in where and when HMS are caught by
97 recreational fishermen (Kerr et al. 2009; Townhill et al. 2019). This could lead to fishermen from a given
98 geographic location catching a different mix of species or catching the same species but earlier in the year
99 or at different locations over recent decades. Such long-term shifts could have variable socioeconomic
100 impacts (e.g., fishing effort and expenditures shifting to different coastal communities), depending on the
101 vulnerability of affected fishing communities (Jepson and Colburn 2013; Colburn et al. 2016).
102 Examination of recreational fishing and catch data may reveal how fishermen are adapting to changing

103 conditions and provide insight into how catch may change in the future (Kerr et al. 2009; Townhill et al.
104 2019). Although there have been many studies understanding the impacts of climate change on important
105 recreational marine species (Muhling et al. 2017; Crear et al. 2020b; Slesinger et al. 2021), very few have
106 directly examined how these changes trickle down and affect the recreational fishery itself, particularly,
107 the HMS recreational fishery.

108 To better understand the potential impacts of climate change on the HMS recreational fishery we
109 used data from the Large Pelagics Survey (LPS) to investigate whether the composition, location, and
110 timing of HMS catches have shifted over time and with sea surface temperature (SST). The examination
111 of this fishery-dependent dataset is expected to yield novel insights into climate change effects on HMS
112 distributions and phenology, as well as how these valuable fisheries are responding to such shifts.

113

114 **Methods**

115

116 *Large Pelagics Survey Data*

117

118 The current design of the LPS was implemented in 2002 to collect recreational catch and effort
119 data on tunas, swordfish, billfishes, sharks and other important pelagic species and represents one of the
120 only standardized recreational datasets on HMS in the United States (NMFS 2021a). The survey spans
121 from Maine (44.5° N lat) to Virginia (36.6° N lat), targets sites where boats are known to travel offshore
122 and target HMS, and runs from June to October. The LPS conducts three surveys to address its overall
123 goal, the Large Pelagics Intercept Survey (LPIS), the Large Pelagics Telephone Survey (LPTS), and the
124 Large Pelagics Biological Survey (LPBS). The LPIS interviews private and for-hire vessels at dockside
125 after completed trips that targeted large pelagic species. These intercept surveys collect catch-per-trip
126 information, such as catch for each species, target species, latitude and longitude of fishing effort, number
127 of lines in the water, other gear information, and length and weight data on landed fish. The LPTS
128 conducts telephone interviews from HMS Angling and Atlantic Tunas General permit holders to collect
129 fishing effort data, while effort data for HMS Charter/Headboat permit holders is collected by the general
130 For-hire Survey (FHS). The LPBS is another dockside sampling program which collects biological
131 samples on landed pelagic species for age and genetic analyses. The survey effort is allocated by the level
132 of fishing and the number of access sites by state. Sampling assignment allocation has increased for some
133 states across years and the amount of sampling assignments increased over the early years since the
134 inception of current LPIS design in 2002. The increase in sampling assignments in some states compared
135 to others was an attempt to obtain the consistent number of intercepts relative to the predetermined
136 intercept targets across years. In addition, the increases in sampling assignments across years occurred

137 similarly in each month. As a result of these efforts, the number of vessels intercepted from the sampling
138 assignments remained consistent for each state across years and for each month across years (see
139 Supplemental Material Figures 1-4). Because the trends in vessel intercepts occurred similarly for states
140 and months across years, it is unlikely the composition, location, and timing of HMS catch were impacted
141 by the changes in sampling assignments in LPIS. Typically, the data collected are used to generate
142 estimates of total catch and fishing effort and are published on a monthly basis (NMFS 2022b). These
143 estimates are then used for national and international stock assessments for various HMS and are
144 provided to managers who monitor landings and catch against quotas.

145 For this study, intercept data from the LPIS were used from 2002 to 2019. Data prior to 2002
146 were collected following different survey protocols and were therefore not included in this study. Each
147 row consisted of an intercept for a specific trip where a unique species was interacted with, either kept or
148 released. For example, if during a trip, five yellowfin tuna and one blue shark were interacted with, then
149 there would be two unique rows or intercepts for that trip, one for yellowfin tuna and the other for blue
150 shark. Latitude and longitude of fishing location were listed when known.

151 We only focused on HMS because they consist of the main species targeted and caught by
152 fishermen who are interviewed by the LPS. Eleven HMS species (12 total groups) were analyzed in this
153 study where 10 species were defined as each species group and one species was split into two sizes
154 classes. Atlantic bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) are managed differently based on individuals that are less
155 than or greater than 185.4 cm (73 in) curved fork length (CFL). Therefore two Atlantic bluefin tuna
156 categories were generated; large Atlantic bluefin tuna (either giant or large medium size class; 185.4 cm
157 or greater CFL) and small Atlantic bluefin tuna (all other classes <185.4 cm CFL, including small
158 medium, large school, school, and young school). The 10 remaining species that were not split into size
159 classes included albacore tuna (*Thunnus alalunga*), bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*), skipjack tuna
160 (*Katsuwonus pelamis*), yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*), blue shark (*Prionace glauca*), shortfin mako
161 shark (*Isurus oxyrinchus*), Atlantic common thresher shark (*Alopias vulpinus*), Atlantic blue marlin
162 (*Makaira nigricans*), swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*), and white marlin (*Kajikia albida*). Any intercepts
163 where the bluefin tuna size class or species was not clearly indicated were removed prior to any analyses.

164
165 *Explanatory Covariates*

166
167 Daily SST data were downloaded from NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information
168 Optimum Interpolation SST product over 2002-2019 at a 0.25° resolution using the package rerddap
169 (Chamberlain 2021) in R v.3.6.1. SST data were rasterized and data along the Northeast Shelf were
170 isolated. SST values were then averaged across the shelf each day to represent the daily Northeast Shelf

171 temperature. SST values were then matched to the intercept data based on the date of the intercept. SST at
172 the location and date of the intercept was considered, however, the wide range of temperature on a daily
173 basis across the spatial extent (i.e., as cold as $<10^{\circ}\text{C}$ in Maine compared to as warm as $>25^{\circ}\text{C}$ in Virginia)
174 was greater than the increase in SST that has occurred overtime due to climate change (i.e., $<2^{\circ}\text{C}$).
175 Therefore, to understand how increasing regional SST impacted where the HMS recreational fishery was
176 occurring we selected the average across the study region as a proxy for the warming trend occurring
177 along the Northeast Shelf.

178 Other covariates were also included because of their likelihood to affect the catch and intercept of
179 HMS. Annual Atlantic bluefin tuna quotas for the Angling and General categories were compiled from
180 2002-2019 because in the HMS recreational fishery bluefin tuna availability is a major driver of fishing
181 effort. The number of HMS permits were included in each state for each year for the three permit
182 categories; Atlantic Tuna General category, HMS Charter/Headboat category, and HMS Angling category
183 where each category was a separate level. We also included the number of HMS tournaments that
184 occurred in each state in each year, as well as whether the completed trips, intercepted by the survey,
185 were part of a tournament or not. Lastly, the annual LPS catch estimates were included for each species
186 group (<https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/data-tools/recreational-fisheries-statistics-queries>). All covariates
187 were added to the intercept data and matched based on the year, state where the intercept occurred, and
188 species caught for a given trip. All data analyses described below were conducted in R v.3.6.1 (R Core
189 Team 2021).

190

191 *Data Analysis*

192

193 Catch and Target Species Composition

194 To investigate whether species catch composition has changed over time and with SST, we
195 employed a multivariate approach. Region was assigned to each intercept based on the state where the
196 intercept occurred. Three regions were defined where the northern region consisted of the states Maine,
197 New Hampshire, and Massachusetts; the middle region consisted of the states Rhode Island, Connecticut,
198 New York, and New Jersey; and the southern region was made up of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia.
199 States were assigned to their respective regions based on their latitude and the geography of the east coast
200 of the United States. The number of intercepts was tabulated for each species across region and year, and
201 zeros assigned where no intercepts occurred. These tabulations were put in a matrix. Mean annual SST
202 along the Northeast Shelf was calculated from daily SST for the duration of the survey (June 1-Oct-31) to
203 provide a general idea of how the annual temperature trend influenced catch composition. Mean annual
204 SST was assigned to the corresponding year within the matrix regardless of region. Using the vegan

205 package in R v.3.6.1 (Oksanen et al. 2020) a Wisconsin double standardization was conducted on the
206 matrix, Bray-Curtis dissimilarities were calculated among all species compositions, and non-metric
207 multidimensional-scaling (nMDS) was used to understand relative similarity among species compositions
208 (Clarke and Warwick 2001; Kendall et al. 2021). nMDS plots were generated where circle size was scaled
209 to year and color was either scaled to region or annual mean SST to visualize if similar species catch
210 compositions trended with year, region, or SST. Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) was initially used to
211 determine if there was a significant difference in catch community among the region. If there was a
212 significant difference among region then the BIO-ENV procedure was done to determine if year and/or
213 SST correlated with the catch community structure within region using a Pearson correlation and
214 Euclidean distances (Clarke and Ainsworth 1993; Oksanen et al. 2020).

215 To identify whether target species composition has changed over time and with SST, we
216 employed a similar multivariate approach as described above. In addition to the 12 HMS groups focused
217 on in this study, other species or species groups could be indicated as being targeted during the LPS
218 intercept, therefore other species groups were developed for instances when other species were targeted.
219 The other target species groups were ‘bluefin any’ (any bluefin tuna was targeted), ‘tuna any’ (any tuna
220 species was targeted), ‘other teleost’ (another particular teleost species was targeted; e.g., dolphinfish,
221 *Coryphaena hippurus* & little tunny, *Euthynnus alletteratus*), ‘shark any’ (any shark was targeted), and
222 ‘other sharks’ (another particular shark species was targeted; e.g., porbeagle shark, *Lamna nasus* &
223 blacktip shark, *Carcharhinus limbatus*). The number of intercepts where a species or group was targeted
224 was tabulated for each of the 17 target species or species groups across region and year, and put in a
225 matrix. Wisconsin double standardization was done on the matrix, followed by Bray-Curtis
226 dissimilarities among all target species compositions. nMDS was conducted to determine relative
227 similarity among target species compositions. To visualize target species compositions trends nMDS plots
228 were created. ANOSIM was initially used to determine if there was a significant difference in target
229 species composition among the region. The BIO-ENV procedure was done if there was a significant
230 difference to determine if year and/or SST correlated with the target species composition structure within
231 region using a Pearson correlation and Euclidean distances.

232

233 Spatial Shifts

234 A series of linear models using generalized least squares were developed to understand whether
235 the latitude at which fishermen have been catching various HMS was related to year (as a temporal
236 variable) and shelf SST. Intercept data where latitude and longitude was unknown were removed from
237 this analyses. A separate data set was created for each HMS where only intercepts or trips where that
238 species was caught (kept or released) were isolated. Then a linear model using generalized least squares

239 from the nlme package in R (Pinheiro et al. 2013) was developed for each of the 12 species groups where
240 the latitude of catch was the response. Year and daily shelf SST were the two main covariates of concern.
241 However, to account for other factors that may impact the latitude of catch, we also included annual
242 quotas for the Atlantic bluefin tuna Angling and General categories, the number of HMS permits
243 purchased in each state per year for each of the three permit categories (Atlantic Tunas General category,
244 HMS Charter/Headboat category, and HMS Angling category), the number of HMS tournaments that
245 occurred in each state per year, whether the trip was part of a tournament or not, and the annual LPS catch
246 estimates of that species. The number of trips by intercept state for each year were assessed to ensure
247 there were not simply more intercepts in northern states in later years than in earlier years. Collinearity
248 was assessed for each species data set and when present, one of the collinear covariates were excluded
249 from the model. A continuous first-order autoregressive (CAR1) correlation structure was used to account
250 for the temporal autocorrelation present in the data where the time covariate was the date and time of
251 when the intercept occurred and the grouping factor was the state where the intercept took place.
252 Temporal autocorrelation was either completely removed or reduced based on the species using auto-
253 correlation function (acf) plots. Diagnostic plots of model residuals were used to check for homogeneity
254 and normality. When heterogeneity was present we used various variance structures to account for it in
255 the model. Once all assumptions were met, the final model was run and significance of year and daily
256 shelf SST on latitude of catch was determined at $\alpha = 0.05$.

257 For species where year or daily shelf SST significantly affected the latitude of catch, the slope of
258 significant trends were converted to kilometers shifted per year and kilometers shifted per °C increase to
259 better understand these shifts. In addition, predicted latitudes of catch over the range of daily shelf SST
260 were estimated using marginal means (Searle et al. 1980).

261

262 Temporal Shifts

263 To identify if recreational fishermen were catching species earlier in the year over the time series
264 (2002-2019), a linear model using generalized least squares were developed using all available data (i.e.,
265 with or without latitude and longitude information). A separate data set was created for each HMS where
266 only intercepts or trips where that species was caught (kept or released) were isolated (i.e., positive trips
267 only). Preliminary analysis indicated that over the time series the mean day of year of catch across most
268 HMS did not shift. However, the impacts of climate change on species distributions and phenology may
269 differ among individuals within a species due to variation in physiological tolerances (Somero 2010). We
270 therefore also tested whether the day of year when the first 25% of the intercepts had occurred for a given
271 species was happening earlier over the time series. We found this metric useful because if true, it would
272 suggest that recreational fishermen are catching those individuals of a particular species that are migrating

273 earlier at an earlier time of year. The day of year when 25% of the intercepts had occurred for a given
274 species (herein referred to as ‘day-of-year’) was aggregated by year and the state where the intercept
275 occurred. For example, if a species was intercepted at least once in seven states each year across the 18
276 year time series then there would be 126 day of year calculations. A separate linear model using
277 generalized least squares was developed for each species. The response variable was day-of-year, while
278 an interaction between year and intercept state were the main covariates. However, to account for other
279 factors that may impact the timing of catch, we also incorporated other covariates including annual quotas
280 for the Atlantic bluefin tuna Angling and General categories, the number of HMS permits purchased in
281 each state per year for each of the three permit categories, the number of HMS tournaments that occurred
282 in each state per year, and the annual LPS catch estimate of that species. Lastly, to account for variability
283 in the number of intercepts across years and state, the total number of intercepts for all species for each
284 state within each year was also considered as a covariate for the models. To ensure model convergence,
285 intercepts of a particular species were required to occur in at least 14 years for a particular state. If this did
286 not occur then the day-of-year calculations for that state were removed. The value of 14 was selected
287 because when less than 14 years were used the models had a more difficult time converging. Collinearity
288 was assessed for each species data set as well as homogeneity and normality and when present, one of the
289 collinear covariates were excluded from the model. Temporal autocorrelation was not present in these
290 data. When heterogeneity was present we used various variance structures to account for it in the models.
291 Once all assumptions were met, the final model was run and significance of year and intercept state on
292 day of year was determined at $\alpha = 0.05$.

293 Further post-hoc analyses were conducted for species where the interaction between year and
294 intercept state or just year significantly affected the day of year. Species where just year was significant,
295 the shift in day-of-year with year was determined and predicted day-of-year values over the time series
296 were estimated using marginal means (Searle et al. 1980). For species where a significant interaction
297 occurred between year and intercept state, individual slopes of day-of-year for each state was tested to
298 determine significance from zero using the R package emmeans (Lenth 2021). For states where slopes
299 were significantly different from zero, predicted day-of-year over the time series were estimated using
300 marginal means.

301

302 HMS Tournament Trends

303 It was expected that the latitude and timing of recreational catch would be driven by where and
304 when HMS tournaments occurred. This is particularly important because over 20% of intercepts with
305 latitude and longitude occurred during tournaments. To ensure potential spatial and temporal shifts in
306 HMS recreational catch were not attributed to spatial and temporal shifts of HMS tournaments a

307 qualitative assessment was done. Specifically, to indicate the trends in HMS tournaments overtime the
308 mean latitude and day of year of the tournaments when each of the HMS species were targeted were
309 plotted over years. Tournaments targeting any of the pelagic sharks were grouped together and large and
310 small bluefin tuna were treated as one.

311

312 **Results**

313

314 After post processing the data, of the 96,606 recorded intercepts (total number of unique
315 combinations of trip and species), consisting of 53,698 unique trips from 2002 through 2019 (Fig. 1),
316 54% intercepted one of the 12 HMS focused on in this study. The number of intercepts for a given HMS
317 ranged from 615 for swordfish to 14,326 for yellowfin tuna (Table 1). The top five target species or
318 species group were yellowfin tuna (22% of intercepts), giant bluefin tuna (12%), any tuna species (12%),
319 white marlin (11%), and shortfin mako shark (9%). Latitude and longitude was recorded for 77% of the
320 HMS intercepts (Table 1).

321

322 *Catch and Target Species Composition*

323 The nMDS multivariate analysis was conducted to investigate species catch composition
324 differences across years (2002-2019) and annual shelf SST. Distances between points indicate relative
325 similarity in species catch composition, meaning points that are closer together have a greater similarity in
326 species catch compositions than those that are farther apart. Stress for the nMDS was 0.09. ANOSIM
327 results indicated that species catch composition was significantly different among regions ($R = 0.91$, $p <$
328 0.001), with the middle region showing the greatest within region similarity, followed by the southern
329 region, and the northern region (Fig. 2a). In the northern region, blue shark and large Atlantic bluefin tuna
330 often dominated the catch, while in the southern region, white marlin, yellowfin tuna, and small Atlantic
331 bluefin tuna dominated. The middle region largely consisted of a mix of those abundant species in the
332 other regions and shortfin mako shark. Within region, species catch composition did correlate with year,
333 where earlier years were closer together and later years were closer together (Table 2; Fig. 2a). Although
334 not as correlated as year, shelf SST correlated with species catch compositions in the southern region and
335 partially in the middle region, where species catch compositions had a greater similarity during warmer
336 years versus cooler years and vice versa (Table 2; Fig. 2b).

337 A separate nMDS analysis was done to understand target species composition differences across
338 years (2002-2019) and annual shelf SST. Stress for the nMDS was 0.15. Similar to species catch
339 composition, target species composition ANOSIM results indicated that composition was significantly
340 different among regions ($R = 0.58$, $p < 0.001$), with the most similarity occurring in middle region, then

341 the southern region, and then the northern region. Fishermen targeted primarily the other teleost group,
342 followed by large Atlantic bluefin tuna and blue sharks in the northern region, while the other teleost
343 group, yellowfin tuna, and white marlin were highest target species groups in the southern region. In
344 addition to the target species above, the fishermen in the middle region also often targeted shortfin mako
345 shark. Within the northern and southern regions in particular, target species composition correlated year
346 where earlier years were more similar, while later years were more similar (Table 2; Fig. 2c). Shelf SST
347 correlated with target species composition strongest in the southern region followed by the middle region
348 where target species composition were more similar during warmer years and more similar during cooler
349 years (Table 2; Fig. 2d).

350

351 *Spatial Shifts*

352 Of the 12 HMS groups, year significantly affected the latitude of catch of 10 species (Table 1).
353 Year did not significantly affect the latitude of catch for blue sharks and swordfish. Spatial shifts (all
354 northerly) with year ranged from 1 ± 1 km year⁻¹ (mean \pm standard error) for blue marlin to 10 ± 1 km
355 year⁻¹ for the small bluefin tuna. Other species with rates greater than 3 km year⁻¹ included large bluefin
356 tuna, shortfin mako, and thresher shark. Spatial shifts over years (2002-2019) are also clear in the raw
357 data (annual median of catch) for all HMS (Fig. 3). For example, substantial shifts were observed going
358 northeast over the time series for small bluefin tuna (Fig. 3d), shortfin mako shark (Fig. 3h), and thresher
359 shark (Fig. 3i).

360 Daily shelf SST significantly affected the latitude of catch of 11 of the 12 HMS (Table 1). The
361 only species where SST did not significantly affect the latitude of catch was white marlin. Significant
362 spatial shifts (all northerly) ranged from 3 ± 1 km °C⁻¹ for the large bluefin tuna to 40 ± 1 km °C⁻¹ for the
363 blue shark. Other species with rates greater than 10 km °C⁻¹ included bigeye tuna, shortfin mako, and
364 thresher shark. When examining the marginal means across the range of daily shelf SST, predicted mean
365 latitude of catch of blue and thresher sharks would occur off Delaware during the coldest temperature and
366 off Massachusetts during the warmest (Fig. 4). Predicted mean latitude of bigeye tuna catch would occur
367 in waters from Virginia to Delaware, when spanning from the coldest to the warmest SST, respectively.
368 Whereas although the trends were significant, based on predicted mean latitude of large bluefin tuna catch
369 across the range of SST, catch would primarily occur in waters off Massachusetts (Fig. 4).

370

371 *Temporal Shifts*

372 The day of year where the first 25% of intercepts occurred was significantly affected by year and
373 state for a handful of species. Because it is likely that the day of year would differ among states regardless
374 of climate change, we did not further examine models where only intercept state was significant. Species

375 where neither year nor the interaction between year and intercept state was significant included, albacore
376 tuna, swordfish, thresher shark, white marlin, and yellowfin tuna. Regardless of state, year significantly
377 impacted the day of year for both bigeye ($t_{(66)} = -4.97, p < 0.05$) and skipjack tuna ($t_{(87)} = -3.02, p <$
378 0.05), where for bigeye (Fig. 5a), for every one year increase, day of year would occur $4 (\pm 1)$ days earlier
379 and for skipjack (Fig. 5d), for every one year increase, day of year would occur $3 (\pm 1)$ days earlier.
380 Models for the remaining species, bigeye tuna, large and small bluefin tuna, blue shark, blue marlin,
381 shortfin mako, and skipjack tuna, indicated a significant interaction between year and intercept state. All
382 trends significantly different from zero decreased as year increased, except for small bluefin tuna
383 intercepted in Virginia (Fig. 5c). The steepest trend occurred for large bluefin tuna intercepted in
384 Massachusetts, where the predicted day of year where 25% of intercepts occurred took place 80 days
385 earlier in 2019 compared to 2002 (Fig. 5b). Other significant trends for other species included a decrease
386 in the day of year of 38 days for small bluefin tuna in New Jersey (Fig. 5c), 66 days for blue sharks in
387 Connecticut (Fig. 5e), 27 days for blue marlin in New York (Fig. 5g), and 21 days for shortfin mako in
388 New York (Fig. 5f) from 2002 to 2019.

389

390 *Tournament Trends*

391 The mean latitude of tournaments across the majority of HMS for this study started to decline
392 after 2015. Prior to 2015 the mean latitude fluctuated up and down slightly across HMS, but did not trend
393 in either direction (Fig. 6a). In general, pelagic shark tournaments occurred the furthest north, while white
394 and blue marlin tournaments occurred furthest south. The day of the year of HMS tournaments occurred
395 later in the year at the beginning of the time series until 2006, gradually occurred earlier until 2015,
396 sharply occurred later until 2018, and by 2019 tournaments began earlier relative to 2018 (Fig. 6b).
397 Pelagic shark and skipjack tuna tournaments often occurred earlier in the year compared to other HMS.

398

399 **Discussion**

400

401 Our analysis indicates that since 2002, there have been significant spatial, temporal, and species
402 composition shifts in HMS recreational fishery catches off the northeast and mid-Atlantic U.S.
403 Specifically, these include changes in catch and target species assemblages over time, poleward shifts in
404 catch locations, and catches occurring earlier in the year for numerous HMS. These shifts are concurrent
405 with regional trends in climate change, specifically increasing SST, which has been documented to be
406 affecting the distribution and phenology of numerous other marine species (Poloczanska et al. 2013;
407 Kleisner et al. 2016; Gervais et al. 2021; Langan et al. 2021; Champion et al. 2022).

408 Despite the interesting trends observed in the LPS catch data for HMS, some limitations and
409 caveats do exist. A major limitation of using the LPS data in this analysis is that the LPS is designed to
410 monitor the primary recreational fishery for Atlantic bluefin tuna and similar HMS with survey coverage
411 limited to June through October and Maine to Virginia. The lack of information from states south of
412 Virginia suggests the survey is likely missing trends in HMS catch associated with HMS that use habitat
413 in the South Atlantic. Because of this limitation, some of the trends observed in the data may be
414 underestimated, particularly for the more southern species. Expanding coverage of the LPS to include the
415 southeastern U.S. and Gulf of Mexico may help further refine interpretation of the currently available
416 data. An additional limitation is relying on recreational fishermen to correctly identify species that were
417 released, which may lead to small discrepancies in the results. However, we expect species
418 misidentifications to be rare in the LPIS. Participation in the offshore HMS fishery requires a significant
419 financial investment, which generally serves as a barrier to participation by inexperienced or novice
420 anglers that are more likely to misidentify their catch (Hutt and Silva 2019). Furthermore, many of the
421 fishers interviewed by the LPIS are for-hire charter boat captains with years of experience or their
422 crewmembers. Lastly, it is important to note that trends in fishing effort that have occurred since 2002
423 could influence HMS catch rates. Unfortunately, due to the LPS design, effort data were not collected at a
424 fine enough scale to understand fishing effort change in this study, a common limitation of working with
425 recreational fisheries data. For example, increases in fishing effort in more northern areas over time could
426 potentially lead to an overestimation of the effect of climate change on the fishery shifts. Fishing effort
427 could also change due to shifts in human population or other factors over the time series, which could
428 affect the number of HMS caught in each region. While there is annual variability in total fishing effort
429 estimates, as with all survey based statistical estimates, most states across our study region have seen
430 similar trends in ocean fishing effort over the last two decades, with total annual effort remaining fairly
431 consistent (Supplemental Material Figure 5). Such consistent trends in overall effort help minimize
432 potential biases in our results. To account for some of the annual variability in effort, our spatial models
433 only focused on the latitude of where at least one individual was caught for a particular species and not
434 the number of individuals caught. An additional analytical approach to address uneven effort is to
435 subsample the data to equalize sampling across time periods, however, for rarer species subsampling this
436 is likely not possible (Bates et al. 2015). Therefore, it would be helpful for sampling programs to increase
437 the spatial resolution of effort data when collecting catch and effort data and also consider designing the
438 surveys to have the ability to robustly detect future range shifts.

439 It is clear that although species catch composition was split primarily by region, there were still
440 trends in species catch composition across years (2002-2019) and shelf SST. The major grouping by
441 region was likely driven by HMS that are primarily caught in specific regions. For example, across all

442 years 96% of large bluefin tuna intercepts occurred in the northern region, while 74%, 67%, and 65% of
443 all white marlin, skipjack tuna, and blue marlin intercepts occurred in the southern region, respectively.
444 This indicates that although there are within group trends across years and shelf SST, HMS and
445 subsequent catch have not shifted enough latitudinally to mix the common community structure in catch
446 that occurred in the spatially broad regions. Nonetheless, the within region grouping by year (for all
447 regions) and SST (southern region) indicate that catch composition has been shifting and will likely
448 continue to shift through time and as the ocean warms. Whether strong enough shifts in catch composition
449 in the future will result in mixing among regions is an interesting follow-up question and will likely be
450 driven by more extreme shifts in species distribution and phenology, as well as a strong enough shift in
451 the species recreational fishermen are targeting. In addition, since anglers traditionally target or use
452 fishing methods and locations for a specific set of species it is possible that there could be a lag in
453 changes in recreational catch reflecting changes in species distributions if changes in fishing behaviors are
454 needed to fish for the new species. Shifts in community composition in response to changing
455 environmental conditions are not uncommon. For example, in coastal marine communities, such as in
456 Narragansett Bay, increase water temperatures led to changes in the nekton community, which likely
457 caused a shift from demersal species to more pelagic species and an increase in warm-water species from
458 1959 to 2005 (Collie et al. 2008). Along the Northeast Pacific shelf region, the pelagic species
459 assemblages are predicted to shift poleward by 2050, with higher rates of species invasion in more
460 northern areas such as the Bering Sea and higher rates of local extinction along California (Cheung et al.
461 2015).

462 Shifts in the latitude of recreational catch of HMS have occurred at significant levels since 2002
463 and were related to shelf SST. Species catch with large latitudinal shifts related to year or SST are likely
464 attributed to species distribution shifts over years and the direct and indirect reliance of HMS on SST.
465 This is consistent with climate vulnerability assessments and projection modeling suggesting that some
466 HMS have a high likelihood of distribution shifts under climate change (Hazen et al. 2013; Cheung et al.
467 2015; Hare et al. 2016). Stronger latitudinal shifts in species catch associated with shelf SST compared to
468 year suggests that species are more likely affected by SST than other factors that may trend with year.
469 Although some of the strong SST shifts may be related to when migrations occur, the June to October
470 timeframe (LPS time period) is when many HMS inhabit areas along the northeast shelf (Walli et al.
471 2009; Goodyear 2016; Kohler and Turner 2019).

472 The catch of some species displayed strong latitudinal shifts with shelf SST, particularly the
473 pelagic sharks such as shortfin mako, thresher, and blue sharks. It is known that shortfin mako
474 distribution in the northwest Atlantic is more concentrated during the summer and fall seasons, primarily
475 occurring north of the Gulf Stream from the Carolinas, USA to Newfoundland, Canada (Vaudo et al.

476 2016). Although shortfin mako sharks experience regional endothermy (Carey et al. 1981) and thus may
477 not be as directly impacted by SST, their distributions along with other HMS are likely also driven by
478 prey distribution that are impacted by SST and productivity, all of which are influenced by the Gulf
479 Stream and eddy formation. While no studies have yet examined the impacts of climate change on
480 shortfin mako distribution within the northwest Atlantic, it has been identified that in other regions a
481 significant poleward shift (Birkmanis et al. 2020) and suitable habitat reduction (Hazen et al. 2013) are
482 likely to occur for this species as a result of climate change. Thresher sharks, which like shortfin mako
483 sharks experience regional endothermy (Bone and Chubb 1983; Bernal and Sepulveda 2005) and are
484 distributed along the northeast shelf during summer and fall (Kneebone et al. 2020) are likely
485 experiencing similar impacts. The blue shark which is one of the most common sharks along the northeast
486 shelf particularly during summer and fall (Kohler et al. 2002; Kohler and Turner 2019), and as an
487 ectotherm, experienced a stronger shift in relation to SST. Similar to shortfin mako, blue sharks are
488 expected to shift poleward as a result of climate change (Birkmanis et al. 2020). These distribution shifts
489 observed in pelagic sharks either directly or indirectly related to climate change are likely having a strong
490 influence on the latitude of where recreational fishery catch of these species is occurring.

491 The wide range of latitudinal shifts in teleost species catch related to year and SST suggests
492 multiple drivers, such as shifts in species distributions and differences in species spatial extent.
493 Significant latitudinal shifts with shelf SST for bigeye tuna and small bluefin tuna, like the pelagic sharks,
494 are related to species distribution shifts. Bigeye tuna are projected to shift poleward (Erauskin-Extramiana
495 et al. 2019), while bluefin tuna in the northwest Atlantic are expected to see a decrease in suitable habitat
496 below 40°N but an increase in the Gulf of Maine (Muhling et al. 2017). These shifts in smaller bluefin
497 tuna may be exacerbated relative to large bluefin tuna due their lesser ability to thermoregulate and their
498 use of more southerly habitat. Smaller latitudinal shifts in large bluefin tuna may be driven by their ability
499 to thermoregulate (Carey and Teal 1969) and that they are primarily available to the recreational fishery
500 in the Gulf of Maine during the LPS. On the other hand, smaller or non-significant latitudinal shifts with
501 shelf SST occurred in more southerly species such as skipjack tuna, yellowfin tuna, blue marlin, and
502 white marlin. These smaller shifts may be an artifact of the LPS southern boundary occurring at Virginia.
503 If the survey extended further south we may have observed a greater shift in catch of these more southern
504 HMS. Meaning some of the estimated shifts in catch with year and SST for some of these species may be
505 underestimated.

506 The majority of HMS have been caught earlier in the HMS recreational fishery over the last
507 couple decades. Although these trends occur for only the first 25% of the catch, this still indicates the
508 fishery may be starting earlier in the year. This shift in catch is likely attributed to shifts in species
509 migratory phenology. Feeding migrations of albacore and bluefin tuna into coastal habitats in the

510 northeast Atlantic have occurred days earlier per decade (Dufour et al. 2010). Although studies of
511 changing phenology of HMS focused on in this study are limited, migration shifts have been observed or
512 estimated for marine fish species. For example, cobia (*Rachycentron canadum*), a coastal pelagic fish that
513 makes an inshore and northern migration into Chesapeake Bay where they spawn, feed, and are targeted
514 by recreational fishermen, was estimated to migrate into the bay earlier and leave the bay later due to
515 climate change. This shift would increase the duration cobia would spend in Chesapeake Bay by an
516 additional 30 days by 2050 compared to today (Crear et al. 2020a). Phenology shifts of large HMS, in
517 addition to being driven by their physiology, is also likely influenced by prey shifts. A meta-analysis
518 study indicated earlier phenology shifts that were driven by climate change occurred in phytoplankton
519 (6.3 ± 1.6 days dec^{-1}), zooplankton (11.6 ± 2.9 days dec^{-1}), larval bony fish (11.2 ± 1.7 days dec^{-1}), and
520 bony fish (~ 7 days dec^{-1}) (Poloczanska et al. 2013), demonstrating that multiple trophic levels are
521 impacted by climate change.

522 HMS recreational catch is often influenced by the timing and location of HMS tournaments.
523 HMS tournaments in recent years indicate the mean latitude of tournament locations have actually
524 occurred further south and that the mean day of the year of tournaments have occurred later in the year.
525 This suggests that some of the estimated latitudinal and temporal shifts of catch may have occurred even
526 further north and earlier in the year had HMS tournaments in recent years followed the average trends. In
527 addition, many of the tuna and billfish tournaments occur later in the LPS time period, further indicating
528 the estimated temporal shifts may be conservative for some HMS.

529 Results in the present study demonstrate that the HMS recreational fishery is adapting to shifts in
530 species distribution and phenology. It is widely known that fishermen use a handful of environmental
531 conditions to determine where to fish, how to fish, and what species they will be targeting on a day to day
532 basis (Haynie and Pfeiffer 2012; Klemas 2013). Shifts in the composition of target species over years and
533 across SSTs indicate that this behavioral trend can be observed on a broader annual or mean annual SST
534 scale. For example, in the southern region during warmer years and more recent years, small bluefin tuna
535 were targeted less, while more southerly species like white marlin were targeted more. For the northern
536 region, during warmer and more recent years, large bluefin tuna, shortfin mako, the other teleost group,
537 and the other shark group were generally targeted more often. These observations imply that the U.S.
538 Atlantic HMS recreational fishery has some inherent resiliency to the effects of climate change, and can
539 adapt certain elements of fishing behavior to remain sustainable. However, such resiliency likely varies
540 port-to-port, requiring higher resolution exploration of these factors in the future.

541 The economic implications of spatial shifts in HMS distributions on the recreational fishery are
542 hard to predict. It is possible these shifts will have minimal impact on the overall economic value of the
543 fishery, but they may have severe impacts on the economies of specific coastal communities, both

544 positive and negative. As HMS stocks shift northward, or arrive earlier, coastal communities that
545 currently feature busy HMS for-hire fleets, or popular HMS tournaments, may find the fishery shifting
546 away from them during key times of the year, or bypassing them altogether. Large HMS tournaments can
547 bring hundreds of thousands of dollars to an individual community's economy (Hutt and Silva 2019).
548 However, the losses of some communities have the potential to be the gain of other communities that will
549 have access to new or improved fishing for species that had previously been rare event catches off their
550 coasts.

551 These shifts in catch are likely occurring in other recreational and commercial fisheries.
552 Countless species, including many that have important recreational and commercial importance, are
553 experiencing changes in their distribution and phenology as a result of climate change (Morley et al.
554 2018; Pinsky et al. 2020; Champion et al. 2021; Zhou et al. 2021). In the U.S., commercial fishery-
555 dependent data are generally collected through mandatory logbook or census-style programs providing
556 more and more detailed data compared to recreational data, and questions and analyses described in this
557 study could be applied to those data. For example, Pinsky and Fogarty (2012) focused on four
558 commercial fisheries and identified that over the last four decades, although the fisheries are
559 corresponding to northward shifts in species distributions, they shifted just 10-30% as much as their target
560 species. This lag may have been attributed to economic and regulatory constraints.

561 The Marine Recreational Information Program (MRIP) conducts recreational fishery surveys,
562 similar to the LPS, which produce publicly accessible data, but run for the entire year, span the U.S. east
563 coast and Gulf of Mexico, and capture detailed information on many recreationally important coastal
564 species (NMFS 2022a). HMS are typically rare event species in MRIP, and that survey does not record
565 detailed location data, therefore those data were not included in this HMS focused study. Those data offer
566 an opportunity to capture changes in coastal species catch over time and across other climate related
567 variables.

568

569 **Conclusions**

570

571 This study demonstrated latitudinal and temporal shifts in the catch of Atlantic HMS in the
572 recreational fishery. These changes reflect shifts in species distribution and phenology driven by climate
573 change. Although similar trends between species and catch may appear obvious, this connection is often
574 overlooked and has a downstream effect on coastal communities that rely on marine resources.
575 Understanding these shifts can help communities prepare for changes, whether it be a switch from one
576 species to a new species or shifts in the fishing season. These kind of analyses could also help
577 management be more responsive and adaptive, reduce uncertainty, and increase sustainability all of which

578 would promote more flexibility in the fishery. Lastly, this study highlights the importance of publicly
 579 accessible data and the power of time series when it comes to understanding climate impacts.

580

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582

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 585 with the HMS quota data, and Nic Alvarado for his assistance with tournament data. Logistical support for
 586 this study was also provided by the Atlantic HMS Management Division, including Brad McHale and
 587 Randy Blankinship. We appreciate preliminary reviews from John Foster and Ben Galuardi, as well as the
 588 reviews of anonymous reviewers who improved the final manuscript.

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592 Tables

593

594 Table 1. The number of intercepts in total and with latitude and longitude (LL) for each HMS. The model
 595 output for each HMS latitude model, including the t statistic for the covariates of concern (year and NES
 596 SST) and the significant trends converted to kilometers per year (\pm SE) or kilometers per $^{\circ}$ C (\pm SE).
 597 When year or NES SST did not significantly affect latitude of catch a “-” was put in place of the trend.
 598 All significant latitudinal trends occurred in the northern direction.

599

Species	# Intercepts (Total)	# Intercepts (w/LL)	t Statistic (Year)	Year Rate (km/year)	t Statistic (SST)	SST Rate (km/ $^{\circ}$ C)
Albacore Tuna	2564	1774	3.79	2 (\pm 1)	6.4	9 (\pm 1)
Bigeye Tuna	1091	903	3.04	3 (\pm 1)	7.81	14 (\pm 2)
Bluefin Tuna (Large)	1870	1515	14.2	4 (\pm <1)	2.9	3 (\pm 1)
Bluefin Tuna (Small)	8177	6588	18.15	10 (\pm 1)	6.61	8 (\pm 1)
Skipjack Tuna	2071	1679	6.25	3 (\pm 1)	4.12	4 (\pm 1)
Yellowfin Tuna	14326	12020	8.31	2 (\pm <1)	19.36	7 (\pm <1)
Blue Shark	6979	4103	1.53	-	32.04	40 (\pm 1)
Shortfin Mako	4382	2651	4.96	4 (\pm 1)	19.31	22 (\pm 1)
Thresher Shark	1106	585	4.18	5 (\pm 1)	16.59	33 (\pm 2)
Blue Marlin	1526	1249	2.08	1 (\pm 1)	4.49	7 (\pm 2)
Swordfish	615	508	-0.13	-	2.01	4 (\pm 2)
White Marlin	7486	6462	11.06	2 (\pm <1)	-0.47	-

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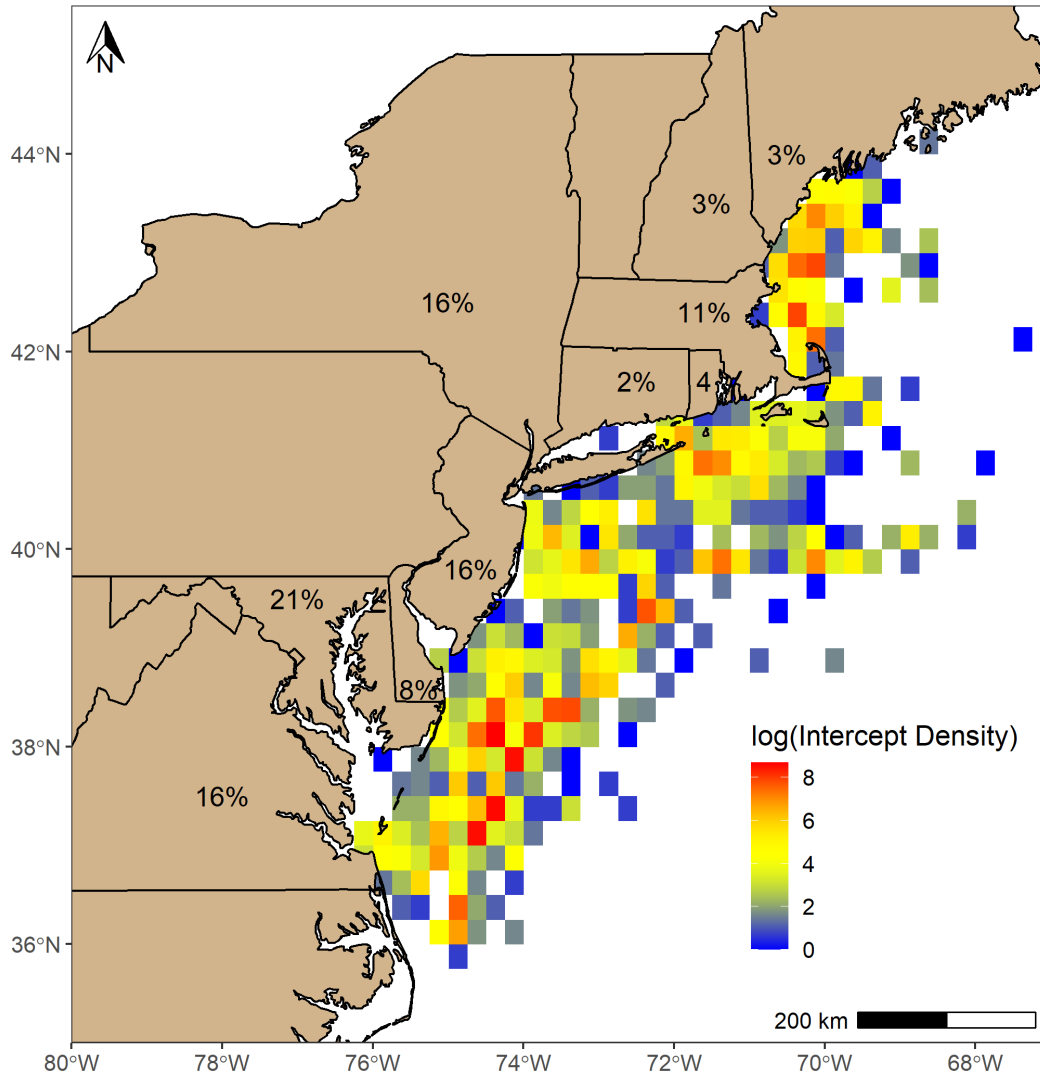
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606 Table 2. Pearson correlations for both catch composition and target species composition in relation to and
607 year and shelf SST for each region based on the BIO-ENV analyses.
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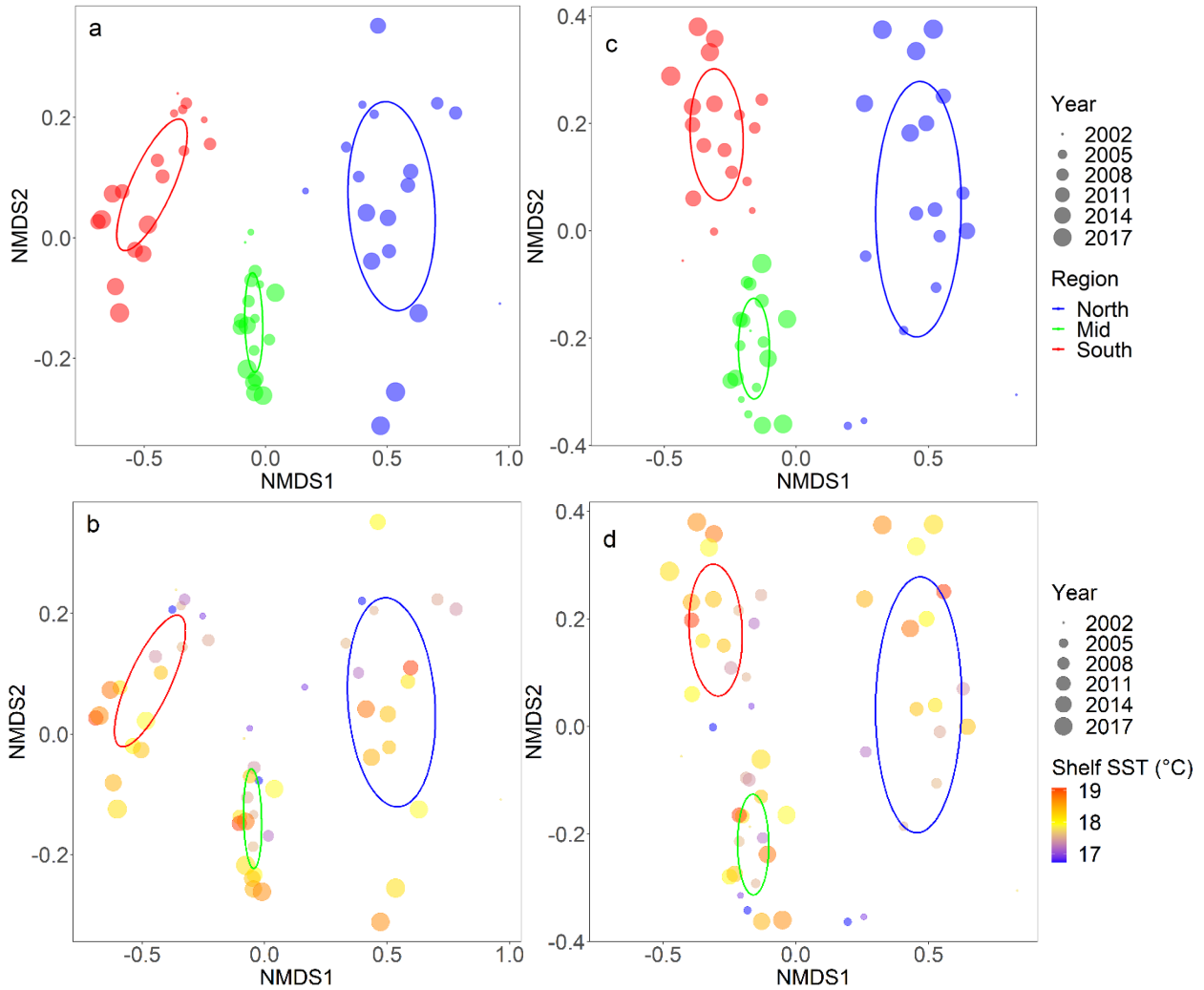
Region	Catch Composition		Target Species Composition	
	Year	SST	Year	SST
North	0.46	0.05	0.86	0.16
Mid	0.62	0.25	0.39	0.31
South	0.51	0.42	0.56	0.58

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651 **Figures**
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653
654 Figure 1. Density of the 75,558 intercepts of the Large Pelagic Survey from 2002-2019 in which latitude
655 and longitude were available (total intercepts: 96,606). Densities were generated for 0.25° grid cells.
656 Densities were log transformed because of the large range. The percentage values over each state
657 represents the percentage of total trips that were intercepted across all years.

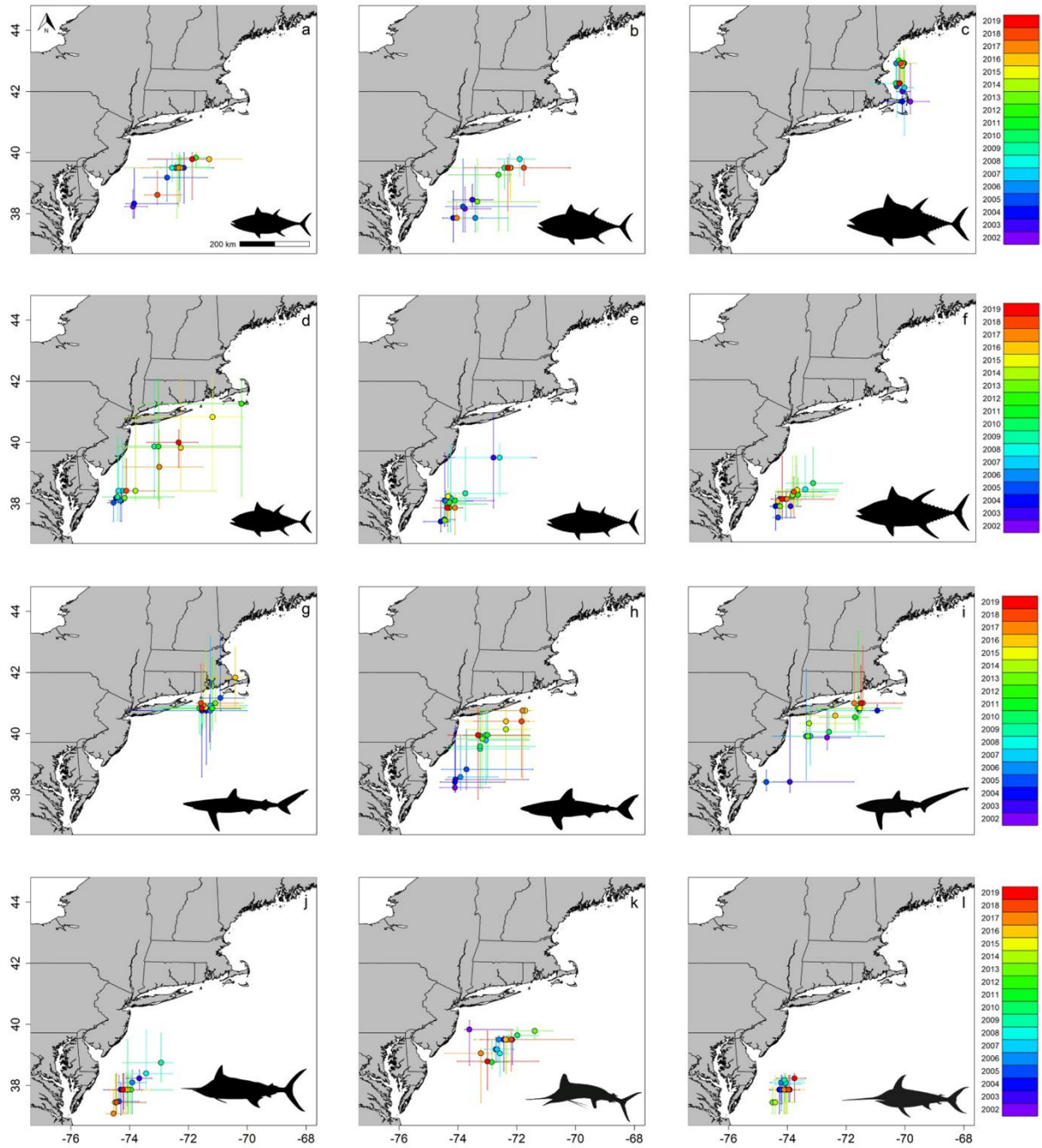


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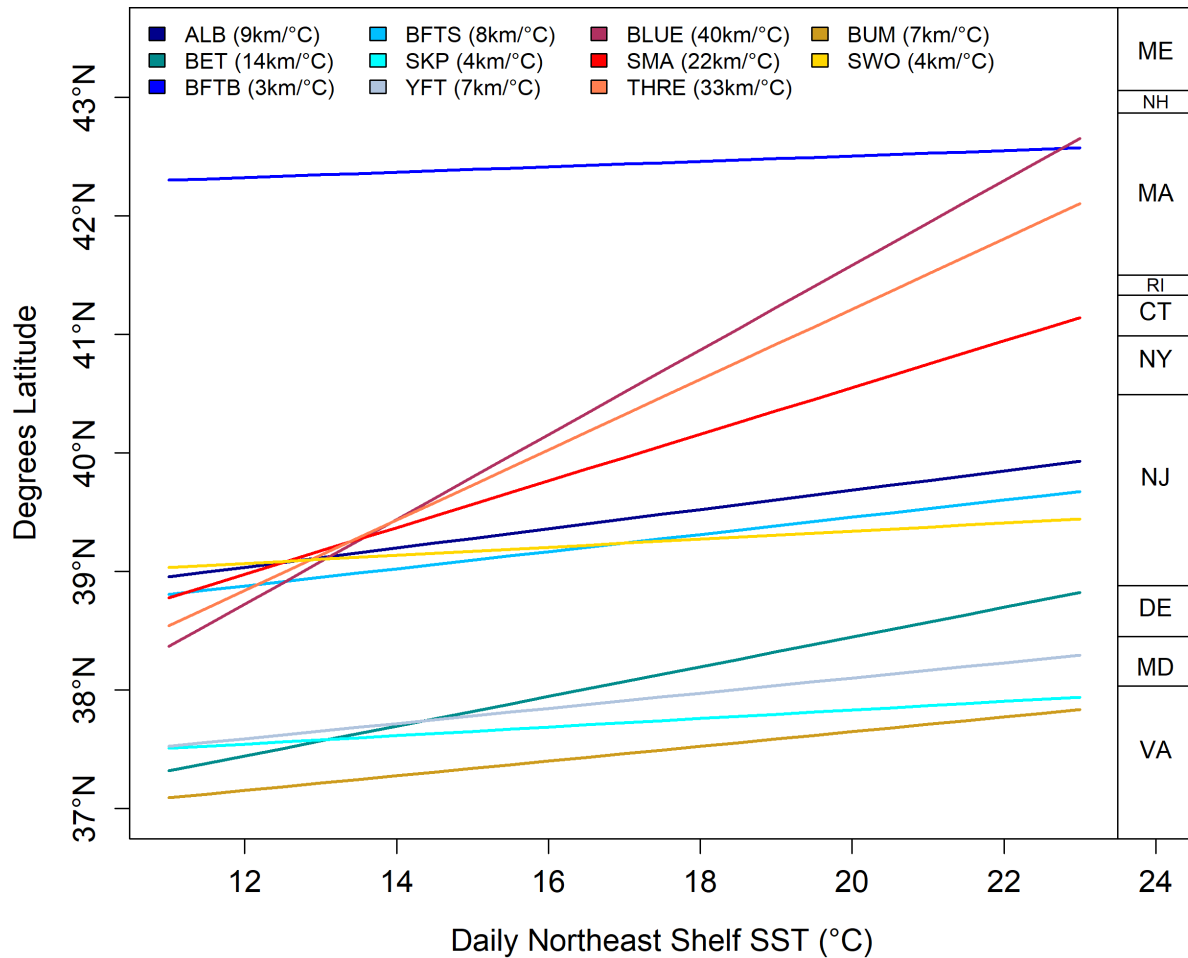
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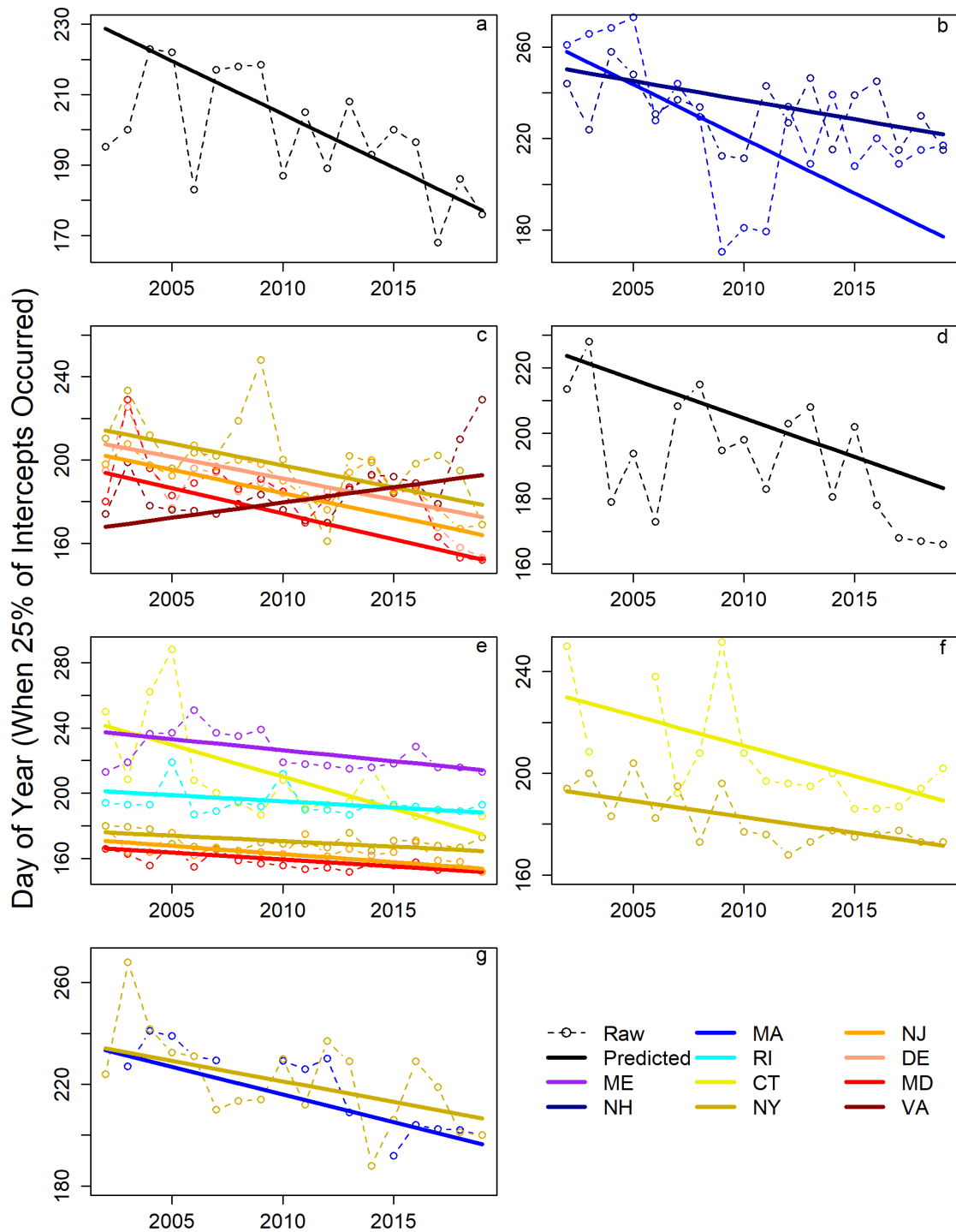
661 Figure 2. Non multi-dimensional scaling plots of species catch composition (a, b) and target species
 662 composition (c, d). Size of the circles is scaled by year. Location of the circles are the same between the
 663 two plots per given analysis. (a, c) The color of the circles is based on the region (northern, middle or
 664 southern). (b, d) The color of the circles is based on the mean annual NES SST (June-October). Ellipses
 665 represent the standard deviation of each region centroid.
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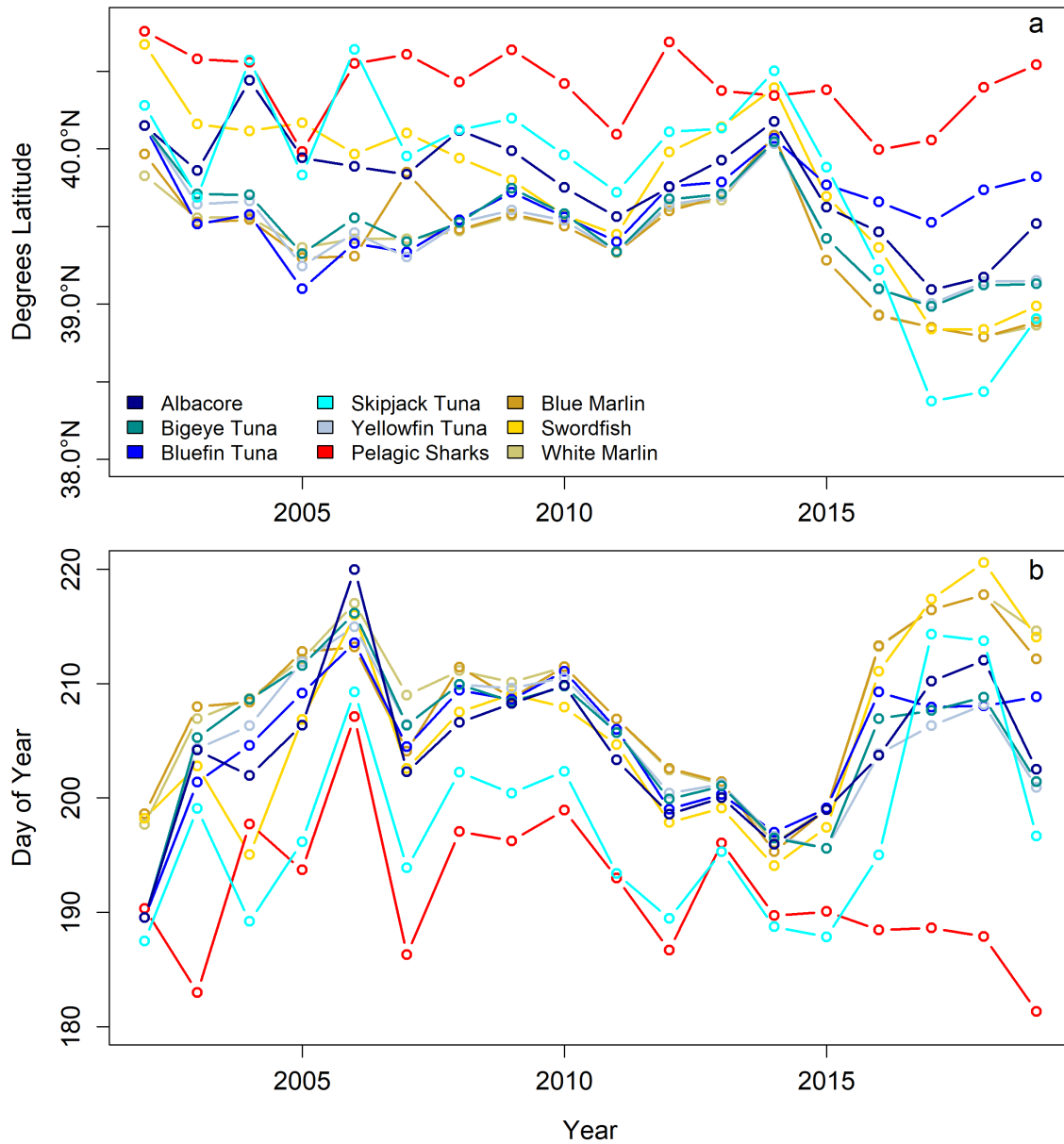
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 668 Figure 3. The median location of catch each year for albacore tuna (a), bigeye tuna (b), large bluefin tuna
 669 (c), small bluefin tuna (d), skipjack tuna (e), yellowfin tuna (f), blue shark (g), shortfin mako shark (h),
 670 thresher shark (i), blue marlin (j), swordfish (k), and white marlin (l). The color of the dot indicates the
 671 year and the error bars represent the upper and lower quartiles for a given year. To reduce overlap among
 672 median catch locations, a small jitter was added to the median latitude and longitude when appropriate.



673
 674 Figure 4. Marginal mean predictions of degrees latitude of catch for the 11 HMS where daily Northeast
 675 Shelf SST significantly affected latitude of catch. Corresponding boundaries (matches degrees latitude on
 676 the primary y-axis) for the east coast states where the Large Pelagics Survey takes place for reference.
 677 The color represents 11 HMS and the rate in the legend indicates the significant trend for each species.
 678 Abbreviated HMS are ALB = albacore tuna, BET = bigeye tuna, BFTB = large bluefin tuna, BFTS =
 679 small bluefin tuna, SKP = skipjack tuna, YFT = yellowfin tuna, BLUE = blue shark, SMA = shortfin
 680 mako shark, THRE = thresher shark, BUM = blue marlin, SWO = swordfish. Abbreviated states are ME
 681 = Maine, NH = New Hampshire, MA = Massachusetts, RI = Rhode Island, CT = Connecticut, NY = New
 682 York, NJ = New Jersey, DE = Delaware, MD = Maryland, VA = Virginia.
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684
 685 Figure 5. Raw and predicted values for day of year when 25% of intercepts occurred for each year for
 686 HMS where year was significant: bigeye tuna (a), large bluefin tuna (b), small bluefin tuna (c), skipjack
 687 tuna (d), blue shark (e), shortfin mako (f), and blue marlin (g). Dashed lines indicate raw day of year
 688 values each year, whereas solid lines indicate the predicted day of year values. Plots where only black
 689 lines exist indicates there was no significant interaction between year and state intercept (a & d). For all
 690 other plots, colors represent the raw and predicted day of year values for each state for that species.
 691 Abbreviated states are ME = Maine, NH = New Hampshire, MA = Massachusetts, RI = Rhode Island, CT =
 692 Connecticut, NY = New York, NJ = New Jersey, DE = Delaware, MD = Maryland, VA = Virginia.



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Figure 6. Mean latitude (a) and mean day of year (b) of HMS tournaments targeting HMS that were focused on in this study.

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