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MR. BRIAN DILLON GRIEVE (Orcid ID : 0000-0001-7278-8632)

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Title

Modeling the impacts of climate change on thorny skate (*Amblyraja radiata*) on the Northeast US shelf using trawl and longline surveys

Running Title

Climate change and thorny skate

Authors

Brian Dillon Grieve^{1,2*+}, Jonathan A Hare³, W. David McElroy^{1,3}

¹ Integrated Statistics
Woods Hole, Massachusetts, United States

² NOAA Northeast Fisheries Science Center
Narragansett, Rhode Island, United States

³ NOAA Northeast Fisheries Science Center
Woods Hole, Massachusetts United States

* Present Address

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26 The Nature Conservancy
27 Narragansett, Rhode Island, United States

28

29 + Corresponding author, grievebr@gmail.com

30

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46

47 **Conflicts of Interest**

48

49 The authors have no conflicts of interest in relation to the present work

50

51 **Data Availability Statement**

52

53 The code that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author's
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60 **Abstract**

61 Climate change has been shown to impact marine fish populations and communities. With small
62 population sizes, long reproduction times, and a rapidly warming habitat, thorny skate
63 (*Amblyraja radiata*) could be particularly vulnerable. To examine this possibility, we used a two-
64 stage generalized additive model to project future thorny skate abundances under two different
65 climate scenarios. This is the first study in the northeastern United States to compare projections
66 based on different survey methods (bottom trawl and longline) and results were heavily impacted
67 by survey methodology. Models trained with the NOAA Bottom Trawl Survey projected a
68 decrease in abundance of ~60-80% in the Gulf of Maine and Georges Bank under the RCP 8.5
69 climate scenario. With aggressive mitigation (RCP 4.5), these decreases could be reduced to
70 ~35-45%. Models trained with a recent NOAA longline survey indicated that thorny skate
71 abundance would be reduced 22% and 37% under business-as-usual and mitigation, respectively.
72 There are substantial methodological differences between the two datasets, including capture
73 technique and efficiency, total habitat coverage, and spatiotemporal coverage. This underscores
74 the importance of continued, methodologically-diverse surveys on the Northeast US continental
75 shelf. Our results indicate that climate change will continue to negatively impact thorny skate
76 populations by reducing the amount of thermally suitable habitat in the southern extent of their
77 range. This information should be considered in future management decisions.

78 **Introduction**

79 Global temperatures are expected to continue to rise as a direct effect of anthropogenic
80 greenhouse gases emissions (IPCC 2013). This has many potential effects on the global ocean,
81 including transforming marine communities by altering species abundances and distributions
82 (Hoegh-Guldberg and Bruno 2010; Poloczanska et al. 2013). Such shifts have already been
83 associated with climate change (Parmesan and Yohe 2003; Perry 2005), and many more are

84 expected in the future (Cheung et al. 2010; Kleisner et al. 2017; Morley et al. 2018). For
85 example, the Gulf of Maine (GOM) has warmed faster than 99.9% of the global ocean (Pershing
86 et al. 2015), and the northeastern US has seen changes in both species distributions and
87 community structure (Friedland and Hare 2007; Nye et al. 2009; Bell et al. 2015).

88 Thorny skate *Amblyraja radiata* (Donovan, 1808) are a slow-growing, broadly-
89 carnivorous demersal elasmobranch (Packer, Zetlin, and Vitaliano 2003; Sosebee 2005). It was
90 once the most abundant skate species in the GOM (McEachran and Musick 1975), and its
91 population in the Northwest Atlantic continues along the Scotian Shelf up to the Gulf of Saint
92 Lawrence and into boreal distributions across the Atlantic (Scott and Scott 1988). To the south,
93 thorny skate are occasionally but infrequently found on Georges Bank (GB) and southern New
94 England (Figure 1; Sosebee et al. 2016). They have been seen at a broad range of temperatures
95 and depth (McEachran and Musick 1975; Kneebone et al. 2020), and tagging studies have
96 indicated little movement from initial capture sites (Templeman 1984; Kneebone et al. 2020).
97 For a map of some of these and other locations, see Brilliant et al (2015).

98 According to the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Northeast
99 Fisheries Science Center (NEFSC) bottom trawl surveys, thorny skate populations in the GOM
100 have sharply declined in the last 50 years (Sosebee et al. 2016). Biomass has decreased from 5.6
101 kg/tow in the 1970s to 0.17 kg/tow from 2013-2015, less than 5% of its historical peak (Sosebee
102 et al. 2016). They continue to occupy less area, with small changes in distribution towards deeper
103 and slightly more southern waters (Nye et al. 2009). Much of this decline is thought to be related
104 to fishing, and the possession of the species in U.S. waters has been prohibited since 2003 (New
105 England Fishery Management Council 2003). Barndoor skate (*Dipturus laevis*) were also
106 prohibited after steep population declines, but unlike thorny skate, have since shown adequate
107 recovery to re-permit some commercial harvest (NMFS 2018). There are many potential reasons
108 the two species have not recovered equally, such as different demography and life history or
109 movement capabilities, reliance on different habitats and communities, differing levels of
110 incidental catch, or perhaps have been differently impacted by existing climate change.

111 Due to these population declines and the high vulnerability of thorny skate to climate
112 change (Hare et al. 2016; Kleisner et al. 2017; Shackell, Ricard, and Stortini 2014), the National
113 Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) was twice petitioned to list thorny skate as threatened or

114 endangered under the Endangered Species Act (Federal Register 2015, 2017; NMFS 2017).
115 Important considerations for threatened status relevant here include current fish populations in
116 relation to historical abundance, trends in abundance, and natural and human influenced factors
117 that cause variability in survival and abundance (ESA sec. 4(a)(1)). In 2017, NMFS determined
118 that thorny skate are not likely to become extinct in a large portion of its range in the foreseeable
119 future and concluded that an ESA listing was unwarranted at the time (NMFS 2017).

120 Thorny skate are infrequently encountered and generally prefer specific structured bottom
121 habitat (NMFS 2017; Sosebee et al. 2016). As such, trawling may be an inefficient method to
122 fully represent thorny skate abundance in an area. Trawling is both unable to sample complex
123 habitats and has a low capture efficiency of thorny skate (0.1 Edwards 1968) due to the skate
124 being able to avoid capture beneath the trawl. This can lead to a bias in biomass projections
125 (Davies and Jonsen 2011), however if capture efficiency has been standardized, the trawl survey
126 can still be useful to recognize a trend. To address the potential role of habitat in low capture
127 efficiency, the NEFSC Cooperative Research Branch has conducted a pilot longline survey in the
128 GOM since 2014 (McElroy et al. 2019). Due to the differences in their respective capture
129 methodologies and targeted habitats, the two surveys cannot be expected to project similar total
130 abundance. However, trends of abundance are comparable in the context of examining the effect
131 of climate change in the sampled habitats.

132 Previous studies have determined that thorny skate are vulnerable to climate change
133 (Hare et al. 2016) and prone to future thermal habitat shortage (Kleisner et al. 2017; Shackell et
134 al. 2014), yet do not offer the species-specific precision that future ESA decisions require. This
135 investigation aims to offer a more thorough analysis of climate threats to thorny skate on the
136 Northeast United States Continental Shelf. First, we utilize a two-step delta-generalized additive
137 model (GAM) and specific climate scenarios to project the likelihood and abundance of thorny
138 skate for the “foreseeable future”, which in this case is 40 years from the initial ESA petition
139 (NMFS 2017). Second, we extend this projection to the end of the century, when the impacts of
140 two different climate mitigation scenarios become more prominent. Third, we create a similar
141 GAM trained with samples from a pilot longline survey to examine how sampling methodology
142 impacts our abundance projections.

143

144 **Methods**

145 We used a statistical model trained with current physical conditions and observations to
146 predict thorny skate catch per unit effort (CPUE) with future physical conditions for two time
147 periods: the “foreseeable future” defined in the potential ESA listing (2046-2065, hereafter
148 “2055 period”) and a longer-term outlook in 2081-2100 (“2100 period”). This required four
149 different steps: 1) Gathering thorny skate observations and the physical conditions they were
150 sampled at, 2) acquiring static benthic habitat descriptors and dynamic climate model output, 3)
151 creating a statistical model to establish a relationship between thorny skate and predictor
152 variables, and 4) combining those data and models to create future projections.

153 1. Thorny Skate Observations

154 We used two types of thorny skate catch data to train three different varieties of models.
155 Trawl survey data was obtained from the NOAA NEFSC bottom trawl survey from 1963-2012.
156 The trawl survey covers an area from Cape Hatteras, NC (~35°N) up the continental shelf
157 through all US territorial waters in the GOM. The Scotian Shelf was sampled until 1986. The
158 trawl survey output was presented as CPUE, or the stratified mean number of skate per tow
159 (Sosebee et al. 2016). Depth and bottom-water temperature (BT) were recorded for every tow
160 over the length of the trawl series. Bottom salinity (BS) was added in the fall of 1996. Samples
161 were removed if BT or BS (if applicable) were unavailable. If depth was unavailable for a
162 sample, ETOPO2, a 2' bathymetric representation of satellite altimetry (National Geophysical
163 Data Center 2006), was used instead.

164 The NEFSC bottom trawl survey takes place in the spring (usually March-May) and fall
165 (usually September-November), however there have been summer and winter surveys at various
166 times throughout the period (Azarovitz 1981; Azarovitz et al. 1997). The spring and fall surveys
167 show similar capture rates (13.4%-16.6%, respectively), while winter and summer are lower. All
168 surveys were pooled in analysis, but season was included as a categorical variable in the
169 statistical model.

170 We trained the model with both the full timeseries and a shorter timeseries beginning in
171 the fall of 1996. The longer time series contains more observations and can better convey ideal
172 conditions for thorny skate before the decline in population. The shorter timeseries includes

173 bottom salinity and primarily contains data from years after the 2003 fishing moratorium, or
174 years where the total abundance is very similar. Although it is expected that this will shift the
175 mean projections of the model, we can compare the magnitude of projected changes from one
176 timeseries model to the other. For any stratum that contained multiple samples on the same day,
177 we averaged the samples into a single observation per strata per cruise, reducing the daily
178 variability of the capture data, which is less important for future abundance trends. Portions of
179 some strata may be smaller than the 0.1° climatology can resolve, but these cases are rare. Strata
180 are mapped in Sosebee et al. (2016).

181 We also trained a similar model with the three available years (2014-2016) of the NEFSC
182 Northeast Cooperative Research Program bottom longline survey (McElroy et al. 2019). The
183 survey covers an area from just north of Cape Cod stretching approximately 100x200 km north
184 and east through the GOM, specifically targeting complex benthic habitats that could not be
185 easily sampled by trawls (see Sosebee et al. 2016 figure 66). Each observation contained BT and
186 depth at each end of the line (McElroy et al. 2019). The end points of the longline sets were 1 nm
187 apart, so physical variables were matched to a single value at the midpoint of the two ends at set
188 time. Unlike the trawl survey data, longline samples were not aggregated by strata. Additional
189 details for each of these surveys can be found in the appendix.

190 2. Benthic and Climate Data

191 To describe skate benthic habitat, three indices of benthic terrain and one sediment
192 classifier were obtained from The Nature Conservancy Northwest Atlantic Marine Ecoregional
193 Assessment (NAMERA; Greene et al. 2010). Terrain variables included the bathymetric position
194 index (BPI), an indicator of elevation related to the surrounding landscape, vector ruggedness
195 measurement (VRM), an estimate of heterogeneity of the landscape, and rugosity, the ratio of
196 surface area to planar area (Hare et al. 2012; Lundblad et al. 2006; Sappington, Longshore, and
197 Thompson 2007). Soft sediment is an estimate of sediment grain size based on the United States
198 Geological Survey East-Coast texture sediment database (McMullen, Paskevich, and Poppe
199 2014). These variables were taken from a uniform grid and assumed static regardless of climate
200 change. These values were matched to observations at their original resolution ($\sim 0.003^\circ -$
201 $\sim 0.004^\circ$), but then averaged to 0.1° for future projections.

202 Future BT and BS were included from five separate climate models (GCMs) used in the
203 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fifth Assessment Report (Table 2) under two
204 climate change scenarios: Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 was designed as a
205 “business as usual” scenario considering trends in greenhouse gas emissions at the time while
206 RCP 4.5 represents a scenario of aggressive mitigation, but without assuming large-scale
207 negative emissions (Moss et al. 2010). RCP scenarios were implemented from 2006 onward,
208 with 1855-2005 considered the historical run. Therefore, 1986-2005 is used as the comparison
209 period for RCP scenarios. Time periods consist of 20-year averages to mitigate interannual
210 variability of ocean cycles. To help account for the coarse resolution of these models ($\sim 1.0^\circ$), we
211 statistically downscaled each climate model to 0.1° climatologies developed by the World Ocean
212 Atlas (WOA; (Locarnini et al. 2013; Zweng et al. 2013) by adding the difference between the
213 future and present time periods of each climate model to the present period WOA climatology
214 (Grieve, Curchitser, and Rykaczewski 2016; Stock et al. 2011). Statistically downscaled climate
215 models are a useful, however do not capture finer scale oceanographic dynamics that could be
216 differently impacted with climate change. To investigate this possibility, projections were also
217 made with the 0.10° GFDL CM 2.6 model using a transient climate response scenario. This is
218 not the same emissions experiment as RCP scenarios, so was not included in the ensemble, but is
219 included separately in the appendix.

220 3. Statistical Presence and Abundance Models

221 We utilized two separate GAMs to examine the relationship between thorny skate and its
222 environment in the bottom trawl surveys. GAMs are beneficial because they express
223 relationships as a smoother function instead of a linear family (Wood 2006) and are commonly
224 used to model species presence and abundances (e.g. Guisan, Edwards, and Hastie 2002; Morley
225 et al. 2018). The first model was a GAM utilizing presence-absence (P/A) data from all survey
226 strata to predict a continuous likelihood of occurrence. A binomial distribution was used based
227 on the two-factor response variable. The initial form for each P/A model was:

$$228 \text{ P/A} \sim s(\text{BT}) + s(\text{BS}) + s(\text{depth}) + s(\text{BPI}) + s(\text{VRM}) + s(\text{rugosity}) + s(\text{sediment size}) + \text{season}$$

229 where BT is bottom-water temperature; BS is bottom-water salinity (short timeseries only);
230 sediment size is the grain size of the sediment; BPI, VRM, and rugosity are estimates of benthic
231 complexity; and season is the categorical season the sample was taken in. s is the spline

232 smoother function. The maximum degrees of freedom for each smoother was set to four,
233 preventing the smoothers from overfitting the data and inferring relationships that may not be
234 biologically relevant.

235 The second model was a negative binomial GAM trained with the zero-truncated CPUE.
236 We used a negative binomial distribution because CPUE is overdispersed and represented in
237 non-integer values. The initial form for each CPUE model was:

238 $CPUE \sim s(BT) + s(BS) + s(depth) + s(BPI) + s(VRM) + s(rugosity) + s(sediment\ size) + season$

239 The two-step zero-truncated negative binomial model was not appropriate for the longline data
240 due to differences in catch numbers, capture success rate, and how effort is standardized.

241 Because the catch data did not have excessive zeros and the response was presented as counts,
242 we used a Poisson distribution in the GAM:

243 $CPUE \sim s(BT) + s(depth) + s(BPI) + s(VRM) + s(rugosity) + s(sediment\ size)$

244 where the response is the catch number of all samples in the longline. Because effort was
245 standardized before the survey (i.e. every line had the same length, number of hooks, and
246 average soak time), effort is 1 and CPUE equals the catch number. We did not include season as
247 a factor in the model because a two-tailed T Test indicated that catch numbers in the spring and
248 fall surveys were not significantly different between seasons ($p = 0.17$).

249 Each model was trained with every combination of predictor variables, and the model
250 with the minimum Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Akaike 1974) was selected as the final
251 model. If AIC between two models was close ($\Delta AIC < 2$), other factors such as adjusted R^2 and
252 deviance explained were considered. A 70% subset of each skate dataset was used for training,
253 with the remaining 30% withheld for testing. Test statistics include Pearson correlation tests
254 between the withheld observations and combined modeled abundance and area under the curve
255 (AUC) for P/A models.

256 4. Projected Future Abundances

257 Responses for all five GAMs were predicted utilizing the 0.1° static habitat variables and
258 dynamic bottom temperature and salinity from each downscaled GCM for every month from
259 1955-2100 for both RCP scenarios (Table 2). Corresponding zero-truncated abundance

260 predictions and P/A likelihoods were multiplied together to form one final abundance projection
261 (Lo, Jacobson, and Squire 1992). Although all months were projected by the GCM, results from
262 spring (March-May average) and fall (September-November average) are primarily discussed
263 here because they are more relevant to NEFSC protocols. In places where annual averages are
264 discussed, all months were included for the trawl survey models and spring/fall months for the
265 longline model.

266 All GAMs were created in R (version 3.4.1, R Core Team 2017) using the ‘mgcv’
267 package (Wood 2006). AUC was calculated using the package ‘pROC’ (Robin et al. 2011).
268 Figures were created in MATLAB (version 2019b; Mathworks Inc 2019) using the open-source
269 m_map software package (<https://www.eoas.ubc.ca/~rich/map.html>) for all mapping.

270

271 **Results**

272 Observations

273 The long timeseries showed greater abundances than the short series, with 1963-1996
274 averaging 3.19 skate per tow (CPUE) and 1997-2013 averaging 0.54 CPUE in the GOM (Figure
275 1). Over all mean-stratified samples, fall averaged 2.84 CPUE, while spring averaged 1.91
276 CPUE. For the longline survey, 58% of the samples had positive catches, averaging 5.88 skate
277 per station overall. These surveys showed a decrease in skate as stations moved eastward over
278 the longline survey area. Unlike the trawl series, there were slightly more skate captured in the
279 spring than the fall, but this result was statistically insignificant.

280 Climate Models

281 By the 2055 period, bottom temperatures in the GOM are projected to warm by
282 $2.39 \pm 0.81^\circ\text{C}$ (region mean \pm SD) from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5 and $1.87 \pm 0.90^\circ\text{C}$
283 under RCP 4.5 (Figure 2). By the 2100 period, this is expected to increase to $4.16 \pm 0.87^\circ\text{C}$ and
284 $2.43 \pm 0.95^\circ\text{C}$ from the 1986-2005 period under RCPs 8.5 and 4.5, respectively (Figure 3). In
285 both scenarios, the warming across the region was reasonably homogeneous. GCMs CanESM
286 and MIROC5 projected more warming across the entire region than the other three models (not
287 shown). Likewise, the same two GCMs projected a greater salinity increase than the ensemble

288 average. By 2100, salinity was projected to increase 0.50 ± 0.29 and 0.33 ± 0.21 under RCPs 8.5
289 and 4.5, respectively (Figure A1).

290 Statistical Models

291 Depth, BT, and sediment size were included in the best-fitting skate model for all five
292 modeling situations, while season and BS were included in all best-fitting modeling situations
293 which those variables were available for (Tables 1; A1-A5). The longline GAM had the most
294 complex model, including all available variables with a significance of $p < 0.001$. The short and
295 long bottom-trawl presence-absence models explained 53% and 56% of the deviance,
296 respectively, and had an AUC of 0.95 and 0.94. The CPUE bottom trawl models explained 21%
297 and 14% of the deviance for positive tows. After the models were combined, they had
298 Spearman's correlation coefficients of 0.56 and 0.64, respectively, with the test set. The longline
299 model, which modeled catch with a single Poisson GAM, explained 67% of the deviance, yet
300 only had a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.29.

301 The GAM response curves (Figure 4) for the trawl models generally showed similar
302 responses among concurrent variables between each P/A model and each CPUE model, relative
303 to the length of the timeseries. The primary exception is sediment size for the CPUE model,
304 which showed opposite impacts of larger (sediment $> 3\text{mm}$) grain size. All GAMs showed a
305 negative relationship with BT, especially at temperatures greater than $\sim 10^\circ\text{C}$. The longline model
306 showed a similar, albeit less-extreme pattern, but did not include temperatures greater than
307 12.2°C in the training data. The two short-timeseries models that had salinity available found
308 that likelihood of occurrence and projected abundance decrease as salinity rises, particularly over
309 34. Depth, despite its overall importance in every model, had different impacts on the P/A,
310 abundance, and longline predictions. Short P/A response was very positively influence by depth,
311 while the long series plateaued after a depth of $\sim 50\text{m}$. Longline depth was negatively influential,
312 and CPUE models were mostly neutral. The other three benthic habitat characteristics were not
313 significant in every model. Negative rugosity was detrimental in both P/A models. Four models
314 utilized BPI, although the effects are conflicting. Both P/A models included VRM, which had a
315 strong negative effect on skate likelihood. The longline model showed opposite effects of depth,
316 BPI, and sediment compared to the trawl models. Standard error of the predicted curves
317 increased in less common habitats (Figure 4).

318 Bottom Trawl Predictions

319 Both trawl models projected either decreases or no change in probability of occurrence
320 by the 2055 period regardless of season or climate scenario (Figure 5). Deep basins in the central
321 GOM were the most likely to have decreased probability of occurrence (30-50% decrease under
322 RCP 8.5), while plateaus and coastal areas in the western GOM had less change (0-20%
323 decrease). There was a seasonal shift with skate experiencing less of a decline in likelihood along
324 the northern shore of the GOM in the spring, and a more severe (40-70%) decrease in the fall.
325 RCP 4.5 followed similar geographic patterns, but projected decreases at a smaller degree of
326 magnitude (Figure A2). The shallower coastal areas projected a 0-20% decreased likelihood,
327 while the basins projected a decrease up to 40%. The short timeseries model projected fewer
328 decreases than the long timeseries model (Figures 5, A2). Both 2055 periods and the 2100 RCP
329 4.5 period project similar spatial patterns and magnitude of decrease. The decrease in thorny
330 skate likelihood becomes more pronounced by 2100 (Figures 6, A3). The plateaus in the western
331 GOM in the spring and Northeast Channel in the fall project a relatively small decrease in
332 likelihood (<30%), while the rest of the GOM projects 50-70% declines in likelihood. Likelihood
333 of occurrence is already small throughout GB, but is projected to decline even more by 2100
334 (>70%).

335 These geographic patterns held when the P/A model was combined with the zero-
336 truncated CPUE model (Figure 7). Under RCP 4.5, decreases in thorny skate abundance were
337 projected in the GOM in both spring and fall in both trawl timeseries models. Using the long
338 timeseries, skate abundance is projected to decrease 32% and 33% in the spring and fall,
339 respectively. The short timeseries model projected decreases of 23% and 32% (Figure A4). The
340 west side of the GOM was less impacted, projecting decreases of 0-20% in both long and short
341 timeseries models, while the east was up to 50%. The southwest corner of the GOM projects the
342 smallest decline in the short timeseries (0-10%). By 2100, all RCP 8.5 models projected large
343 decreases throughout the GOM, with 72% in the long timeseries. The short timeseries, which
344 showed fewer decreases (10-30%) in the coastal regions of the western GOM, just like the P/A
345 models totaling a 60% decrease in the spring. By fall, the short series projected a decrease of
346 81% (Figure 8).

347 The long and short trawl series models project different mean abundances through the
348 northeast US at all timeframes of the analysis. The short timeseries model showed a larger
349 seasonal variation than the long series as well, especially in the less severe climate and time
350 scenarios. However, despite the differing input data, they projected similar percentage decreases
351 overall for both RCP scenarios and time periods (Figure 9).

352 Longline Predictions

353 While overall results were similar in both trawl models, the same was not true when
354 comparing the trawl models to the longline model. Projections were only made for the spatial
355 extent of the longline survey, so not all locations can be compared, however the longline model
356 projected decreases up to 50% at the western shallow extent and increases up to 40% in the
357 eastern area surrounding the plateaus. Despite these increases, overall abundance was still
358 projected to decrease overall. By the 2055 period, skate are projected to decrease 44% in the
359 spring regardless of RCP scenario and 10% and 20% in the fall under RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5
360 (Figure 7). Decreases continue by 2100, reaching 65% by the fall (Figure 8).

361

362 **Discussion**

363 We used five different GAMs and two observational datasets to determine how thorny
364 skate off the northeastern US may be impacted by climate change. Models trained using the
365 bottom trawl survey projected large decreases in thorny skate in the 2055 period and by the end
366 of the century (Figure 9). Given the inertia of the climate system and how long it takes carbon to
367 be naturally removed from the atmosphere, climate effects for the 2055 period are similar
368 regardless of climate scenario. However, mitigation will have a large effect by the 2100 period.
369 Reducing emissions to achieve the RCP 4.5 scenario will decrease the projected impacts on
370 thorny skate abundance compared to RCP 8.5 by ~35% (Figures 8,9, A2-A5). This lagged effect
371 is not unique to thorny skate, but does provide another example of how present mitigation efforts
372 will have a long-term impact, even though some continued warming is inevitable due to
373 emissions that have already occurred.

374 These projected decreases by the end of the century quantitatively support the NMFS
375 fisheries climate vulnerability assessment, which elicited expert evaluation to determine that

376 thorny skate has both high chances of exposure to climate impacts and high sensitivity to those
377 impacts, leading to a designation that the species were highly vulnerable to climate change (Hare
378 et al. 2016). In a separate NMFS study, thorny skate were projected to lose ~25% of their habitat
379 area under a CO₂ doubling scenario (Kleisner et al. 2017), estimating a similar change as a
380 Canadian study modelling habitat with a 3°C SST increase (Shackell et al. 2014). In the latter
381 study (Shackell et al. 2014), neither their metric nor their climate scenario is directly comparable
382 to our abundance projections here, but our results would indicate that is a reasonable estimate. In
383 our model and these other studies, increased water temperature is the driving force behind a
384 continued decline in thorny skate abundance, particularly in the P/A models.

385 Thorny skate populations on the Scotian Shelf and Grand Banks have hyper-aggregated
386 and maintained a low but stable abundance over the last several decades (Kulka et al. 2004;
387 Simpson, Miri, and Collins 2016). However, migration to these historically suitable habitats is
388 unlikely because these regions are warming rapidly for the same reasons as the GOM and thorny
389 skate do not tend to move very far on their own accord (Templeman 1984; Kneebone et al.
390 2020). If thorny skate cannot easily move from the GOM or GB, our climate projections are even
391 more concerning. We did not explicitly model movement or aggregation, but this could be useful
392 for future thorny skate conservation concerns.

393 Despite the differing spatio-temporal coverage, available variables, and scale of CPUE
394 between the long and the short trawl timeseries models, they both projected similar proportions
395 of thorny skate decreases across the shelf as a whole. They also modelled the relationships
396 between the response and predictor variables similarly. The lone exception was sediment size in
397 the CPUE model of the long timeseries (Figure 4). Since the model is correlative, the variables
398 may not necessarily be included or modelled in the same way. The overall similarity in model
399 results of the two timeseries lengths is a useful finding for the efficiency of future studies that
400 want to utilize the full length of the trawl survey. The coarse resolution of climate models is also
401 unlikely to heavily impact results for this species. A supplemental investigation determined that,
402 similar to a previous study (Grieve et al. 2017), a statistically downscaled GCM ensemble
403 performed similarly to a 0.1° climate projection GFDL CM2.6, indicating that the lower
404 resolution GCMs are functional for this type of study (Figure A6).

405 The longline survey has very limited spatio-temporal coverage compared to the bottom
406 trawl survey, however the longline model is still useful to help consider the effects of the biases
407 of the trawl survey and the low catchability of the thorny skate (Runnebaum et al. 2017). Despite
408 the limited spatio-temporal coverage, the sampled thermal range of survey is unlikely to play a
409 role in the longline results. Trends from the bottom trawl survey models were similar when they
410 were trained with samples taken in the same thermal range as the longline (not shown). This
411 indicates other features of the longline survey, such as the ability to sample structured habitat,
412 were the primary drivers of the differences between the models. However, there may have been
413 other effects of the longline sampling methodology unaccounted for. For example, spiny dogfish
414 are more common in the fall, potentially saturating longline hooks and leading spring and fall
415 catch disparity being opposite of the trawl surveys. Work is ongoing at NEFSC to include
416 probabilistic hook saturation as an index for more detailed skate models, as has been conducted
417 previously for Atlantic halibut (*Hippoglossus hippoglossus*; Smith 2016). Another factor could
418 be the length of the longline placed over an area of different depths or where ETOPO was not an
419 adequate representation of where the skate were fished at. Since all longline catches were
420 presented as the middle of the longline, the high resolution of the added benthic variables may
421 have led to a misrepresentation of the actual habitat the fish was occupying. This necessary
422 spatial generalization may have had an impact on the initial model, but not on the 0.1° resolution
423 of the predictions. Downscaling climate variables to the same resolution as the highest resolution
424 benthic variable (0.003° BPI) was not computationally feasible.

425 Reconciling the longline and trawl surveys is difficult. The limited spatial area of the
426 survey does not allow us to compare regions throughout the GOM and northeast US. In
427 overlapping areas, the longline model shows increases in deeper waters. Decreases are still
428 expected as climate continues to warm (Figure 8), but still projects at a lower rate. The
429 projections from the longline model are less homogenous than the bottom trawl models,
430 potentially a result of the survey methodology. The longline survey specifically targets complex
431 habitats, leading to higher skate catches (Sosebee et al. 2016; McElroy et al. 2019). Bottom
432 trawls, on the other hand, work best on relatively smooth, noncomplex habitats. Runnebaum et al
433 (2017) developed a model standardizing catch between longline and trawl surveys for the data-
434 limited demersal fish, cusk (*Brosme brosme*). They did this by standardizing area swept in each
435 survey, modelling cusk density for each method, and using that modelled density as an input for

436 calculating a habitat suitability index. The resulting habitat suitability indices improved on
437 modelling each method separately, albeit with high uncertainty due to multiplication of errors,
438 simplification of survey details, and necessary assumptions (Runnebaum et al. 2017). This
439 approach may supply a roadmap for the next steps in better quantifying how thorny skate will be
440 affected by climate change, however combining this approach with climate models amplifies
441 uncertainty even further (Hawkins and Sutton 2009).

442 There are several caveats to consider with this paper. We assumed that the distribution of
443 thorny skate is driven by environmental factors including habitat, temperature, and salinity, but
444 laboratory experiments or mechanistic models are necessary to verify this causal relationship
445 (Jarnevich et al. 2015). Further, we did not account for non-environmental drivers such as
446 species interactions, dispersal limitation, and historical fishing pressure, which could have
447 influenced thorny skate population dynamics during the study period. Historical fishing pressure
448 has drastically reduced the overall abundance of the species, and the realized habitat area is
449 smaller than it would have been without that pressure. Abundance models attempt to differentiate
450 between potential and realized habitats, but there is still variation as to what may actually occur
451 (Wiens et al. 2009). Community interactions and species adaptation are not considered. It is
452 unlikely that, given the slow reproduction times of the thorny skate, they could evolve quickly
453 enough to make a substantial difference despite high genetic diversity and varying sizes of
454 maturity (Sosebee 2005; Sulikowski et al. 2006; Lynghammar et al. 2014; NMFS 2017).
455 Longline projections should be interpreted cautiously due to limited spatiotemporal data that
456 trained the model.

457 The purpose of this study was twofold. First, to better estimate the impacts of climate
458 change on thorny skate for an ESA petition and to expand these projections to 2100. To that end,
459 thorny skate abundance is projected to continue to decrease 30-40% by mid-century and continue
460 to ~70% by the end of the century if greenhouse gas emissions are not reduced to RCP4.5 levels.
461 Second, we wished to investigate the effects of different sampling techniques on species
462 abundance projections. Given the disparities between the bottom trawl and longline models, we
463 encourage the continuation of both bottom trawl and longline surveys with spatio-temporal
464 coverage along the entire Northeast US continental shelf. Future modeling efforts for other

465 demersal species in complex habitats may want to consider different survey methodologies if the
 466 bottom trawl is inefficient at capturing the target species.

467 **Author Contributions**

468 BG and JH developed the methodology, BG conducted the analysis and wrote and
 469 revised the manuscript, DM provided survey and species expertise, BG JH and DM edited the
 470 manuscript.

471

472 **Figures**

473 Table 1: Variables included in each model. Asterisks denote significance level. Gray regions
 474 indicate variables that were unavailable for the model, while dashes indicate the variable was
 475 not included in the model with the lowest AIC. P-values are approximate and were not used for
 476 model selection, but can show to what variables were included and their level of significance.

	Source	Average spatial resolution	Short P/A	Short CPUE	Long P/A	Long CPUE	Longline CPUE
Bottom Temperature	NOAA World Ocean Atlas	0.100° x 0.100°	**	**	***	***	***
Bottom Salinity	NOAA World Ocean Atlas	0.100° x 0.100°	***	*			
Depth	ETOPO2	0.033° x 0.033°	***	**	***	***	***
BPI	NAMERA	0.003° x 0.003°	—	**	***	***	***
VRM	NAMERA	0.003° x 0.003°		—	*	—	***
Rugosity	NAMERA	0.004° x 0.004°	**	*	***	—	***
Soft Sediment	NAMERA	0.004° x 0.004°	***	*	***	***	***
Season	—	—	***	***	***	***	
Deviance Explained			52.6	22	55.9	13.9	67.2
Correlation				0.564		0.645	0.287
N†			2465	428	7080	1556	123

AUC†		0.948		0.939	
	* p<0.10	** p<0.01		***p<0.001	
† Number of samples					
‡ Area under the curve					

477

478 Table 2: Climate models included in the ensemble

479

480

481 **Figure Legends**

482 Figure 1: Mean
483 per-unit-effort
484 and time periods
485 Bottom Trawl

Climate Model	Average Spatial Resolution
CCCma-CanESM2	0.90° x 1.40°
CMCC-CMS	1.20° x 2.0°
LASG-FGOALS-g2	0.90° x 1.0°
JAMSTEC-MIROC5	0.80° x 1.0°
MPI-ESM-MR	0.50° x 0.50°

486 thorny skate catch-
487 during two seasons
488 from the NOAA
489 Surveys. The

490 Scotian Shelf has not been sampled by NOAA since 1986 and is not represented in the short
491 timeseries. The ‘Fall, long’ subplot has some areas labeled that are referenced throughout the
492 manuscript

493 Figure 2: (A,C) Projected changes in bottom temperature by the 2046-2065 period from the
494 1986-2005 period. (B,D) Standard deviation of projected temperature change in five different
495 climate models.

496 Figure 3: (A,C) Projected changes in bottom temperature by the 2081-2100 period from the
497 1986-2005 period. (B,D) Standard deviation of projected temperature change in five different
498 climate models.

499 Figure 4: Generalized additive model response curves for all models and variables. Curves
500 represent the relative impact of each variable on the response. Shaded regions represent two
501 standard error. Gray squares indicate variables either not included in the model (bottom salinity)
502 or removed during selection (Rugosity, VRM). BT and BS indicate bottom temperature and
503 salinity, rugosity, BPI, and VRM are measures of benthic complexity. See text for details.

504 Figure 5: Projected change in likelihood of thorny skate being present in an area by the 2046-
505 2065 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and length
506 of training series.

507 Figure 6: Projected change in likelihood of thorny skate being present in an area by the 2081-
508 2100 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and length
509 of training series.

510 Figure 7: Projected change in catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in an area by the 2046-2065
511 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and capture
512 methodology of training dataset. Bottom trawl models (A,B,D,E), are split by length of the
513 training series

514 Figure 8: Projected change in catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in an area by the 2081-2100
515 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and capture
516 methodology of training dataset. Bottom trawl models (A,B,D,E), are split by length of the
517 training series

518 Figure 9: Projected mean catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in the Gulf Of Maine. Individual
519 climate model runs are indicated by thin colored lines while the ensemble average is bolded.
520 Note the change in scale on the Y-axis.

521

522

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- 689

Appendix 1

Trawl survey methodology

In 2009, the NOAA survey vessel R/V Albatross was retired and replaced with the FR/V H.B. Bigelow, which has a different capture efficiency for thorny skate (Brown et al. 2007; Miller et al. 2010). For years 2009-2012, catch from the Bigelow was converted to Albatross units using results from a calibration experiment (Miller et al. 2010). In both surveys, a stratified random design was used to select stations. In the Albatross era, a #36 or #41 Yankee bottom trawl was towed at 1.8 m/s for 30 minutes at each station, while the Bigelow towed a 4 seam, 3 bridle trawl at 1.5 m/s for 20 minutes (Reid, Almeida, and Zetlin 1999; Politis et al. 2014).

Longline survey methodology

The survey has a random stratified design based on the bottom trawl survey design and is further stratified by rough and smooth bottom type. In this survey, 1 nm lines containing 1000 #12 semi-circle easy-baiter hooks baited with squid were placed near the ocean bottom for two hours over the slack tide. Due to set and haul time, hooks at each end may have varied in soak time by up to 15 minutes.

Downscaled GFDL CM2.6 Comparison

Due to the low abundance and catchability of thorny skate, it is important to use high-resolution climate projections. Climate models (GCMs) are coarse representations of the future climate (Stock et al. 2011). These can be statistically downscaled to higher resolutions, however important fine-scale oceanographic processes are still not resolved in projecting future temperatures (Saba et al. 2016), potentially having an impact on species projections. Grieve et al (Grieve, Hare, and Saba 2017) compared *Calanus finmarchicus* density with climate change using both a statistically downscaled GCM ensemble and a 0.10° high resolution ocean model and found that results were similar, but projected abundance using the high-resolution ocean model were greater likely due to the degree of warming in the Northeast Channel and shelf break due to the northern shift of the Gulf Stream (Grieve et al. 2017).

To examine how the coarse resolution of the climate models could impact our projections, an ensemble of downscaled GCMs and a single high-resolution GCM were used on all three datasets described above.

Despite statistically downscaling our ensemble of climate models, it is likely that fine scale oceanographic features behave differently when included in a climate model, as opposed to adding the coarse change to a climatology. We ran the same statistical models with both the downscaled ensemble and GFDL CM 2.6, which uses an 80-year Transient Climate Response scenario. This scenario adds 1% CO₂ per year, eventually doubling by year 70. This resulting sea surface temperature increase is roughly equivalent to the sea surface temperatures during the 2060's of RCP 8.5. Due to different forcings, it is not expected that this scenario would have equivalent projections to the downscaled ensemble but does provide a useful idea where the ensemble may be geographically biased.

We compared the projections from the downscaled climate model ensemble to the high-resolution GFDL CM2.6. The CM2.6 projections are similar to the ensemble-mean projections of both trawl series in both the present and future time periods of the matched TCS experiment (Pearson's correlation between 0.802 and 0.932 for each survey methodology and time frame). However, in all survey methodologies, the high-resolution model projected greater decreases in thorny skate abundance in GB, the Northeast Channel, and the eastern GOM (Figure A6). Overall, GFDL CM2.6 projected a 15-20% greater decrease in thorny skate abundance in the region than the ensemble, a trend driven by GB. Southern GB and the shelf break were areas poorly resolved by the coarse climate models. This is obvious in projections such as CanESM, where the coarse resolution was unable to account for rapidly changing oceanographic features (not shown). GFDL also projected a smaller decrease in the western GOM in the shallow banks north of Cape Cod (Figure A6).

Statistical downscaling with the delta approach used here is a useful way to preserve ocean features present in the climatology, but not the coarse climate models (Stock et al. 2011; Roberts 2017). However, these features may be reacting differently when included in the climate simulations, as opposed to remaining static. GFDL CM2.6 improves on this because it was run at a 25x higher resolution (0.1°) than the highest resolution climate model in the ensemble (MPI-ESM-MR; 0.5°). Despite that, each time period in GFDL CM2.6 had at least a 0.803 correlation with the roughly equivalent RCP ensemble time period. This is encouraging, indicating that the resolution of the BT component is not limiting the model, but there are important geographic distinctions. Primarily, the ensemble may underestimate a northern shift in the Gulf Stream

which results in warm, salty water entering the GOM (Saba et al. 2016). This same pattern was found to impact *C. finmarchicus* projections in the region as well (Grieve et al. 2017). Another study modelling thorny skate using GFDL CM2.6 also projected large decreases in thermal habitat area (Kleisner et al. 2017).

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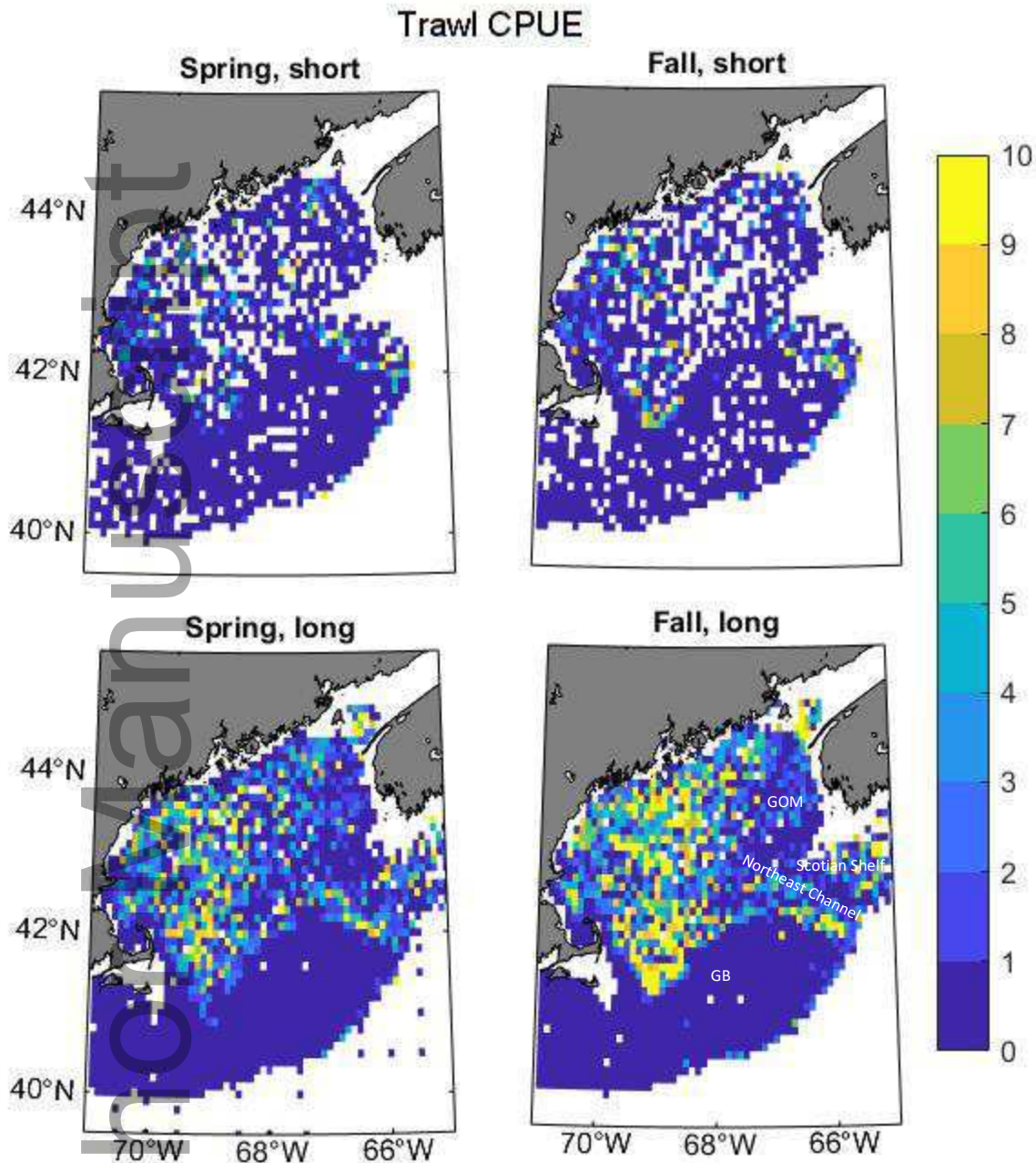


Figure 1: Mean thorny skate catch-per-unit-effort during two seasons and time periods from the NOAA Bottom Trawl Surveys. The Scotian Shelf has not been sampled by NOAA since 1986 and is not represented in the short timeseries. The 'Fall, long' subplot has some areas labeled that are referenced throughout the manuscript

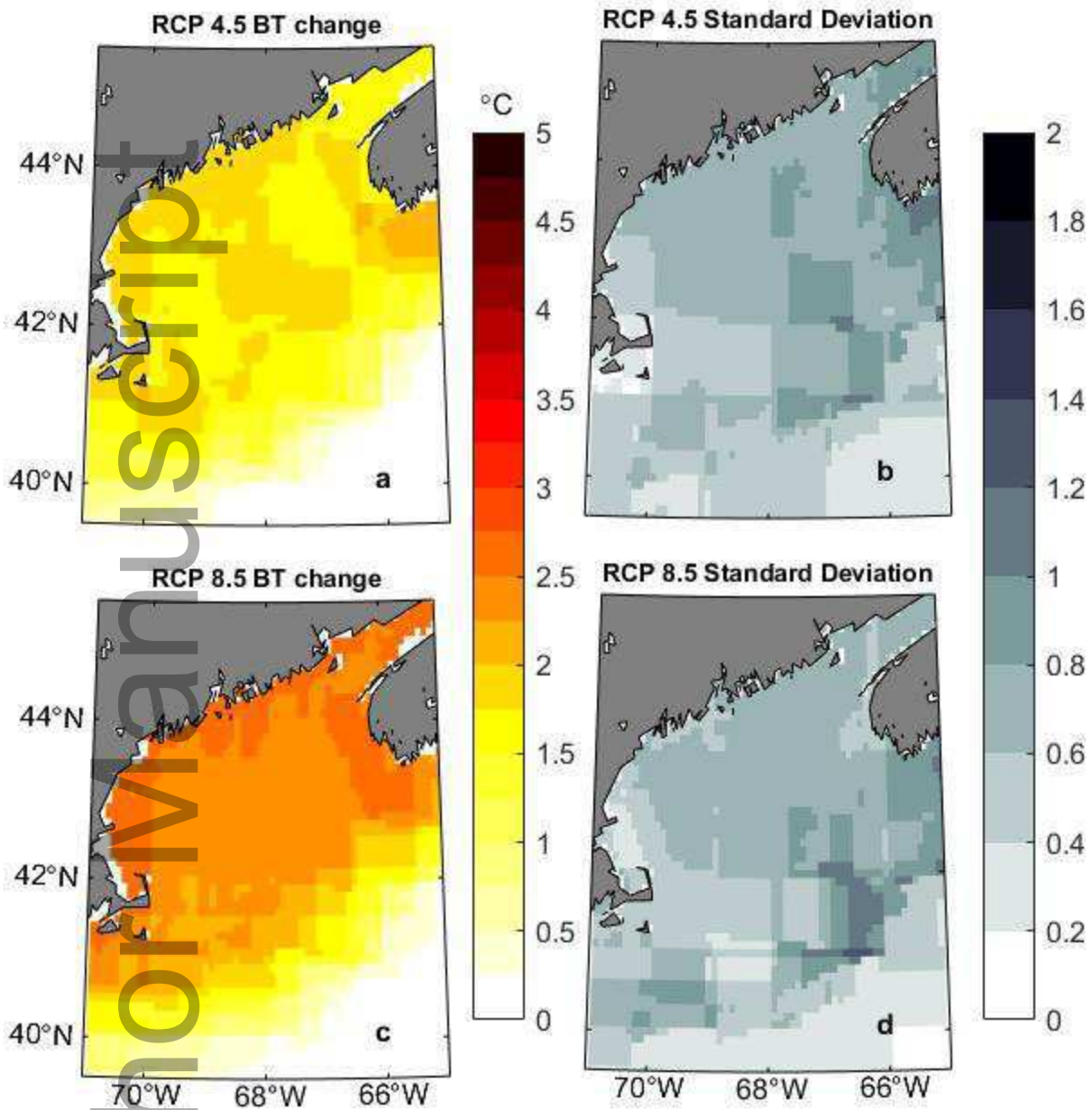


Figure 2: (A,C) Projected changes in bottom temperature by the 2046-2065 period from the 1986-2005 period. (B,D) Standard deviation of projected temperature change in five different climate models.

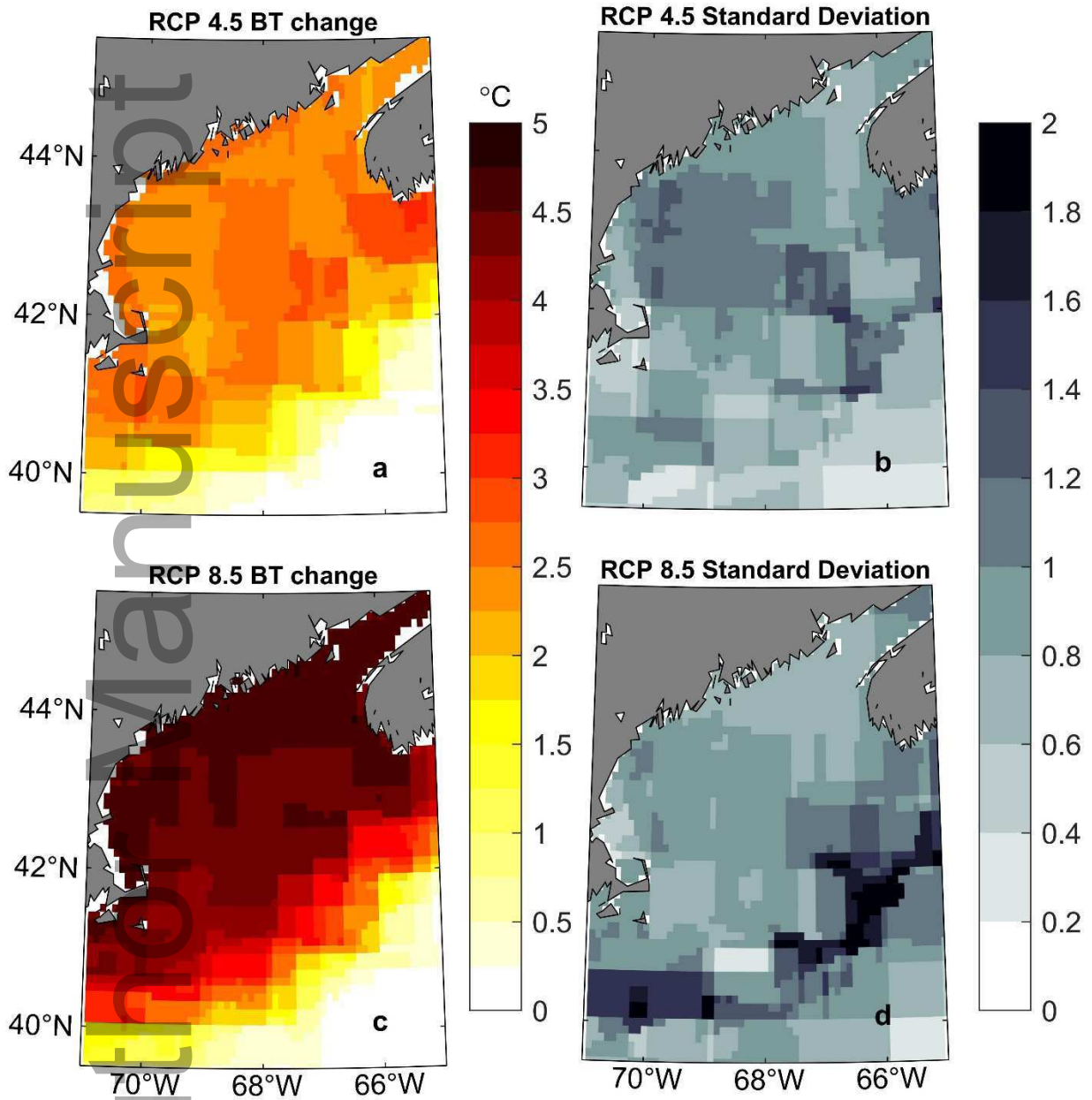


Figure 3: (A,C) Projected changes in bottom temperature by the 2081-2100 period from the 1986-2005 period. (B,D) Standard deviation of projected temperature change in five different climate models.

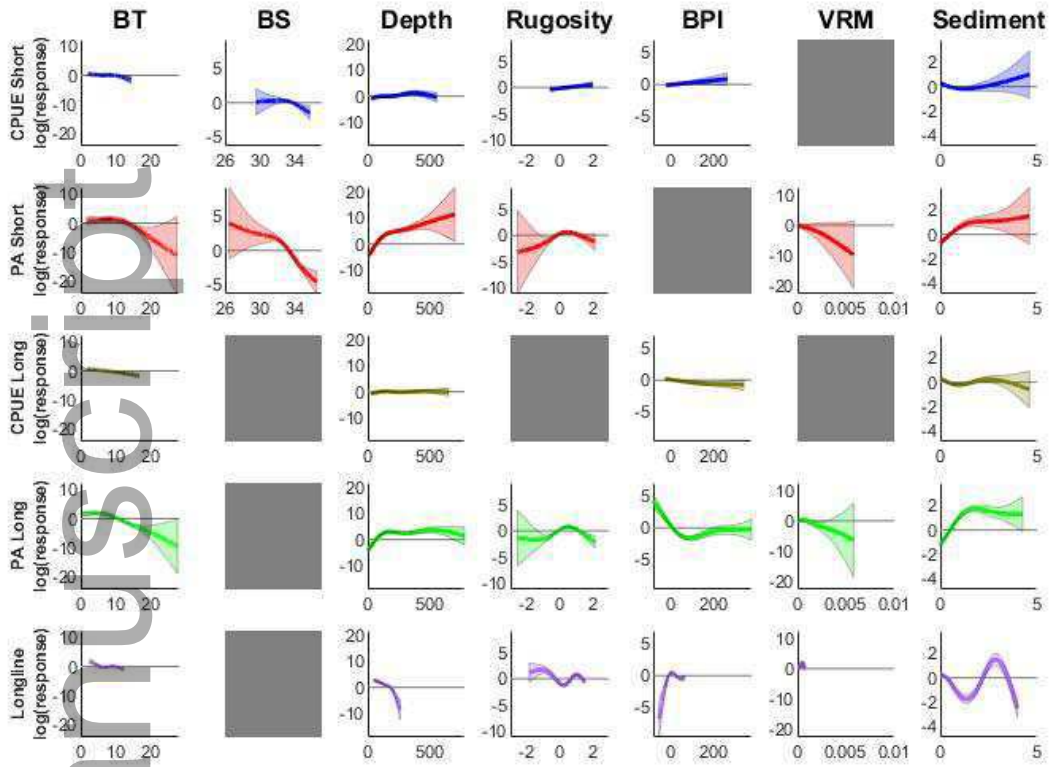


Figure 4: Generalized additive model response curves for all models and variables. Curves represent the relative impact of each variable on the response. Shaded regions represent two standard error. Gray squares indicate variables either not included in the model (bottom salinity) or removed during selection (Rugosity, VRM). BT and BS indicate bottom temperature and salinity, rugosity, BPI, and VRM are measures of benthic complexity. See text for details.

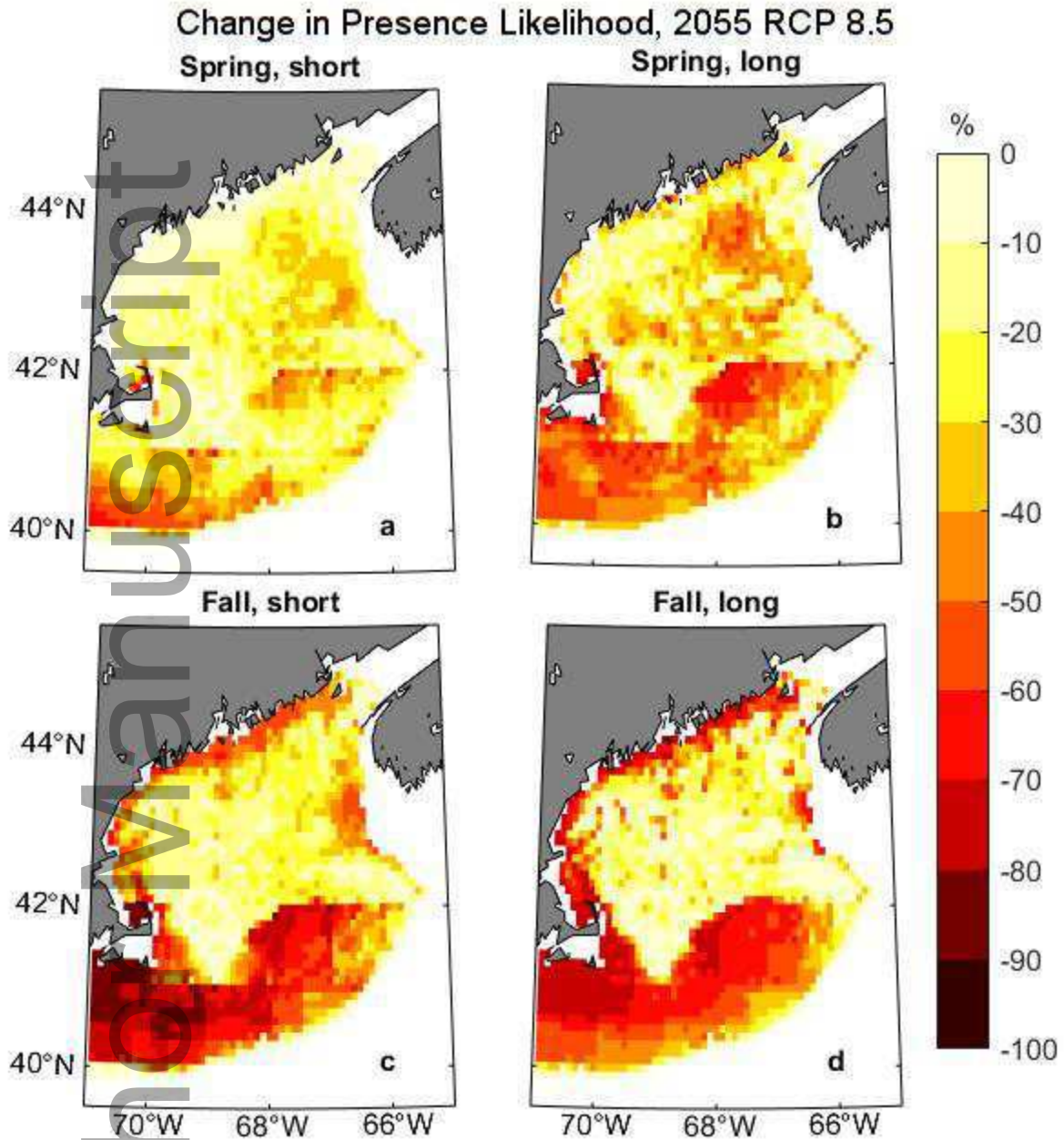


Figure 5: Projected change in likelihood of thorny skate being present in an area by the 2046-2065 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and length of training series.

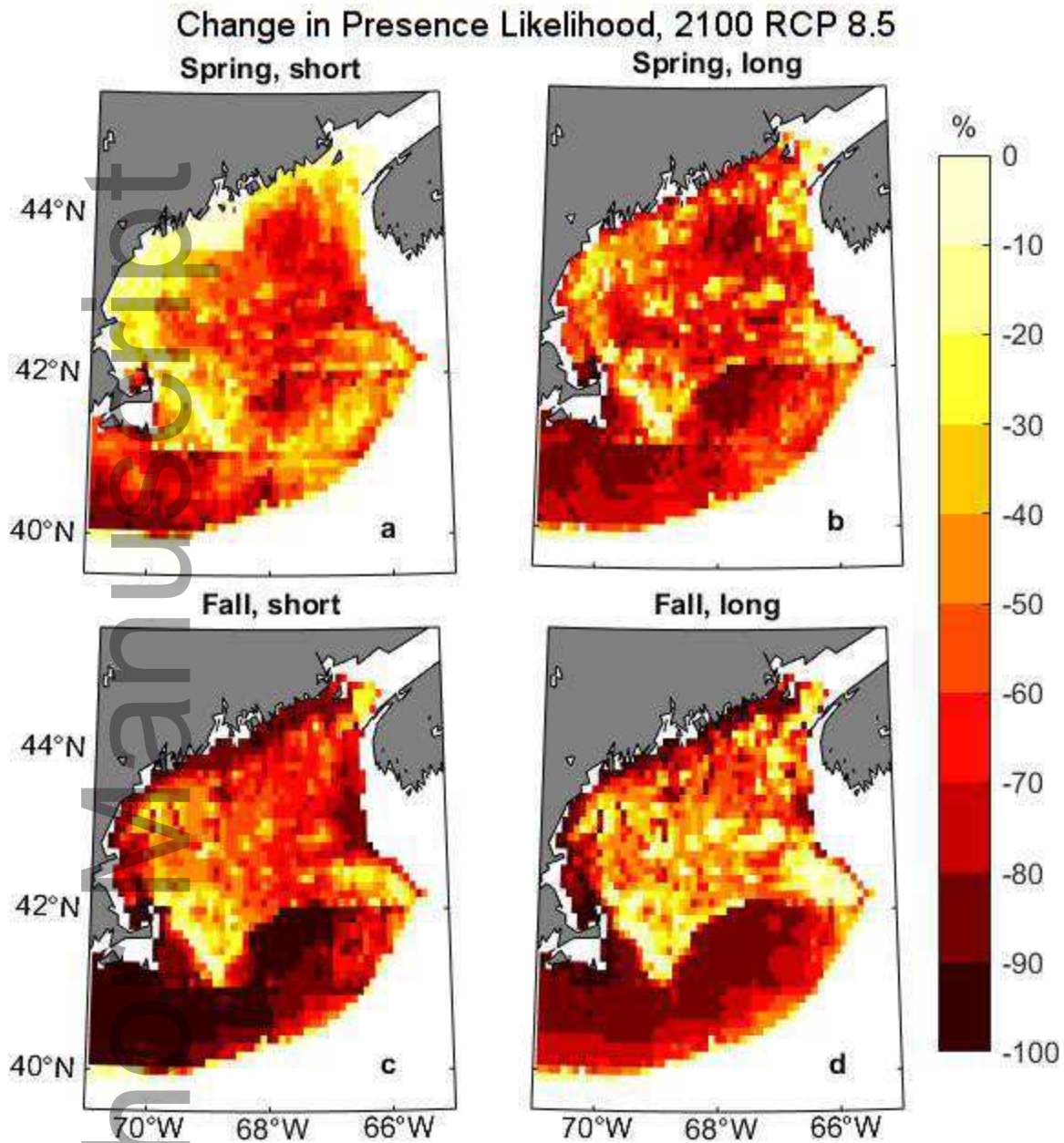


Figure 6: Projected change in likelihood of thorny skate being present in an area by the 2081-2100 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and length of training series.

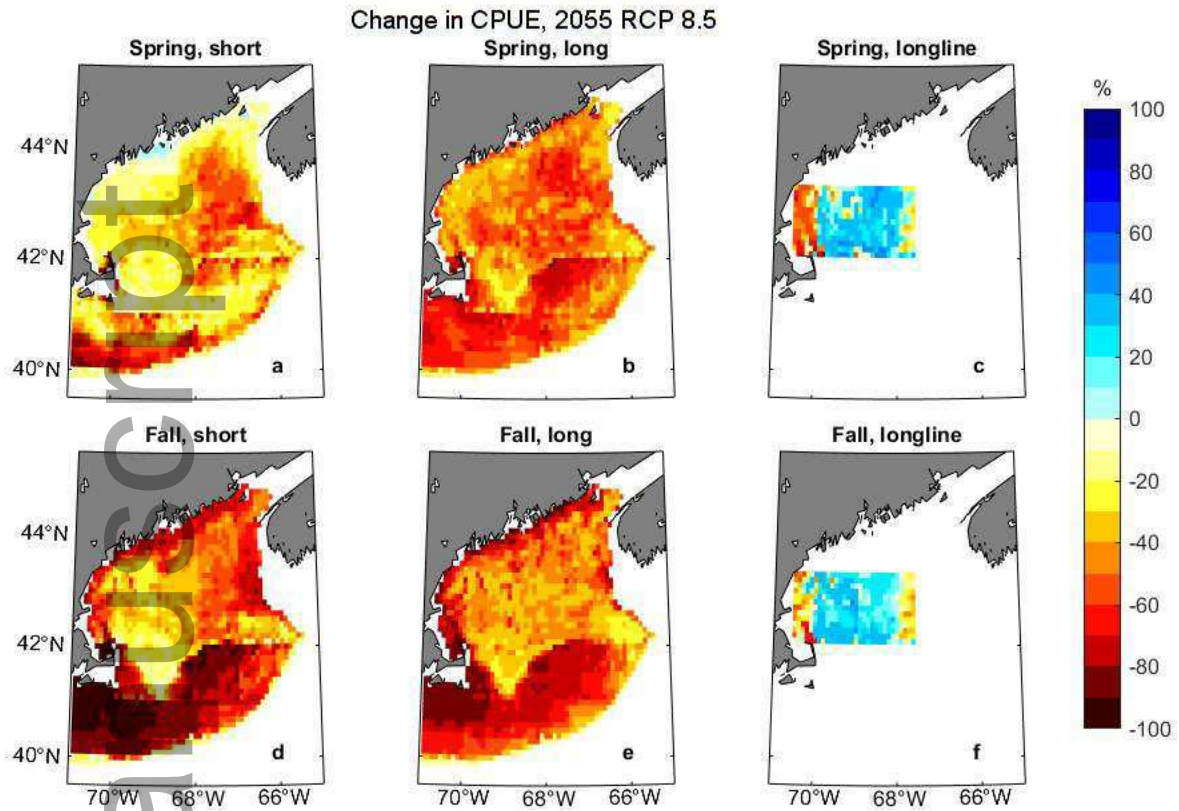


Figure 7: Projected change in catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in an area by the 2046-2065 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and capture methodology of training dataset. Bottom trawl models (A,B,D,E), are split by length of the training series

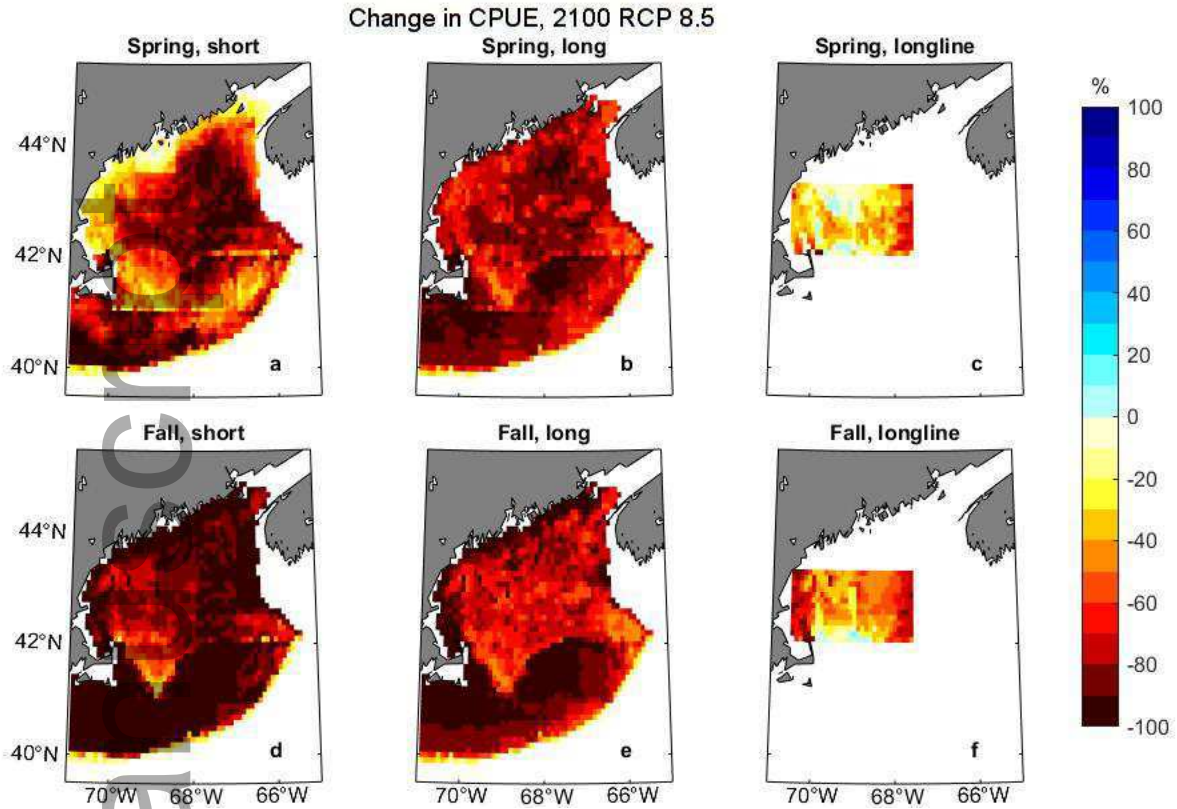


Figure 8: Projected change in catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in an area by the 2081-2100 period from the 1986-2005 period under RCP 8.5. Subplots are split by season and capture methodology of training dataset. Bottom trawl models (A,B,D,E), are split by length of the training series

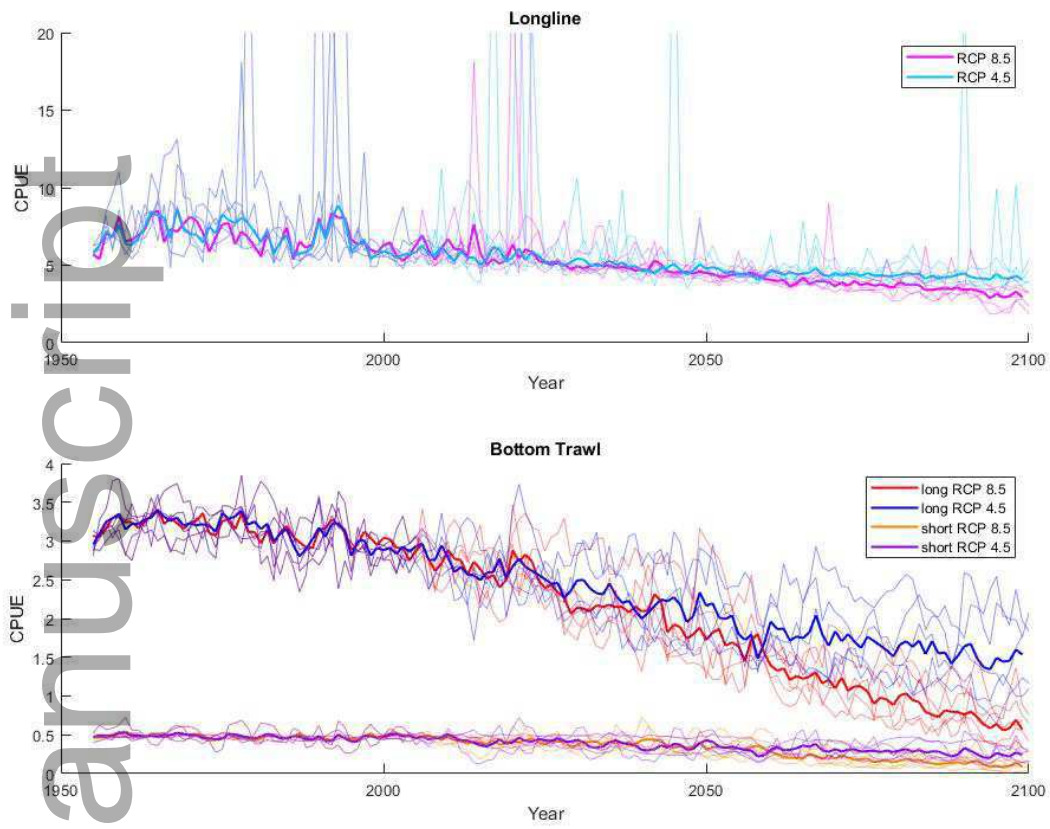
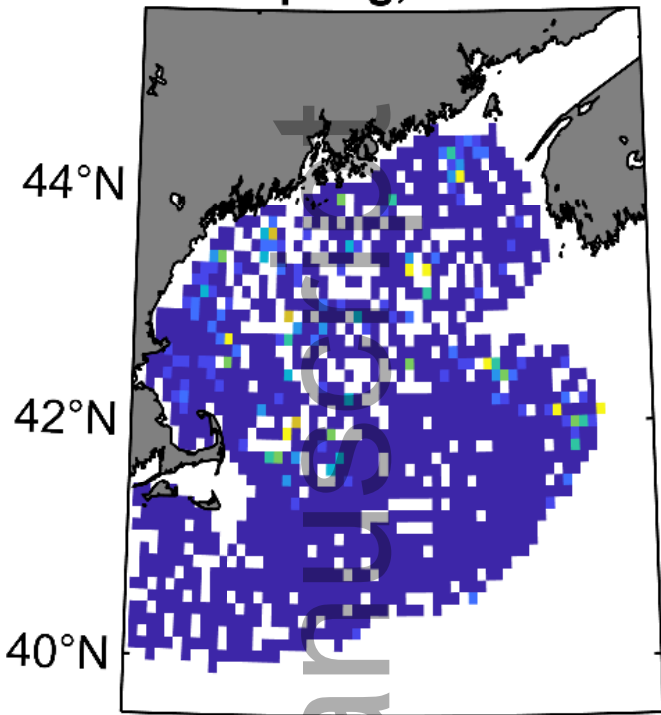


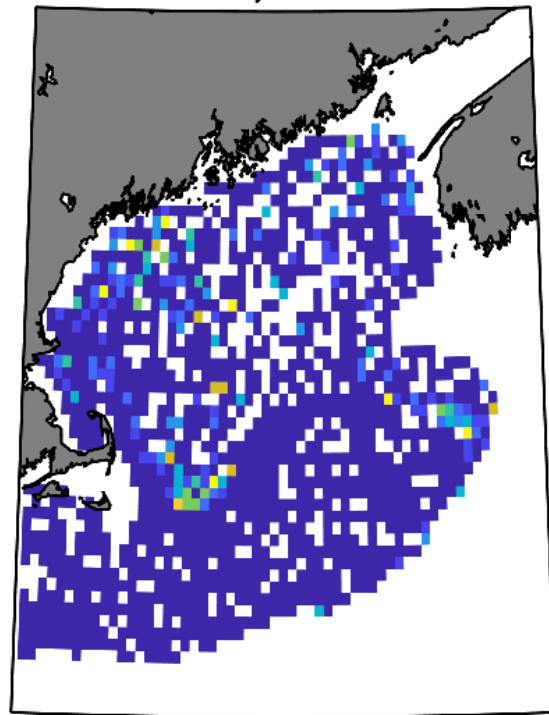
Figure 9: Projected mean catch-per-unit-effort of thorny skate in the Gulf of Maine and Georges Bank. Individual climate model runs are indicated by thin colored lines while the ensemble average is bolded. Note the change in scale on the Y-axis.

Trawl CPUE

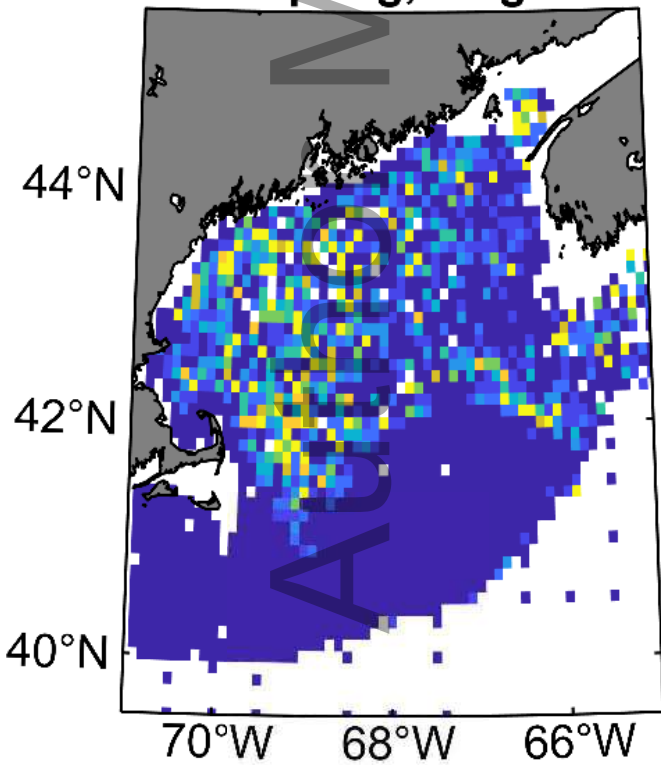
Spring, short



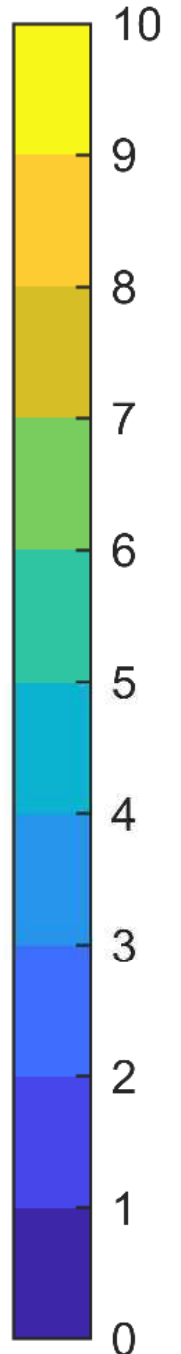
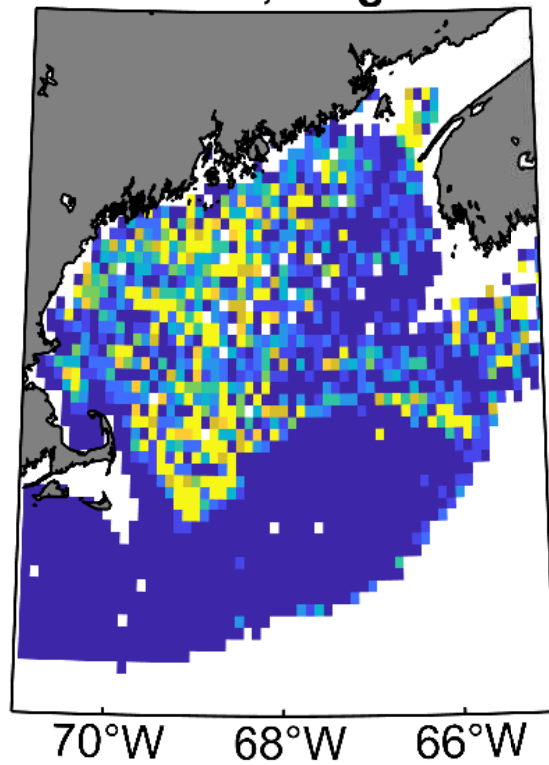
Fall, short



Spring, long

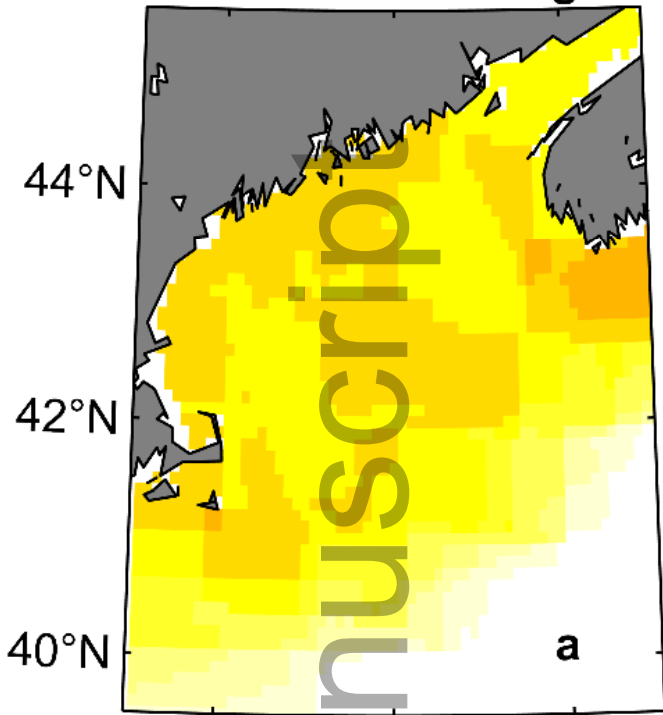


Fall, long

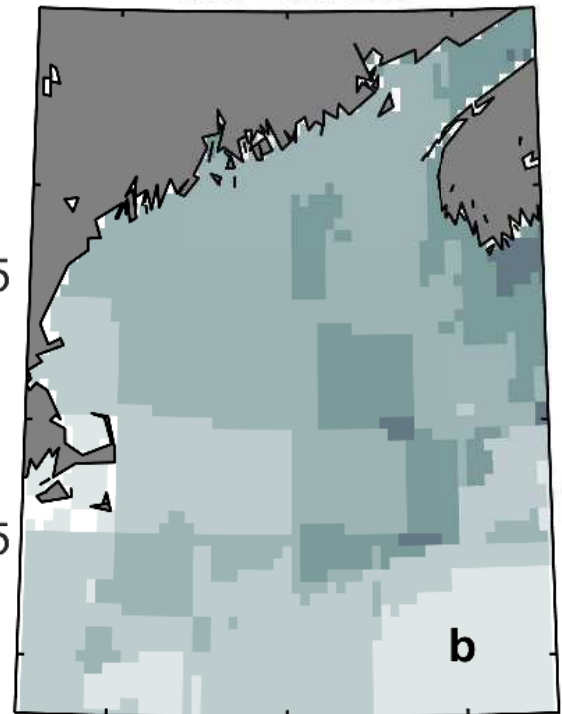


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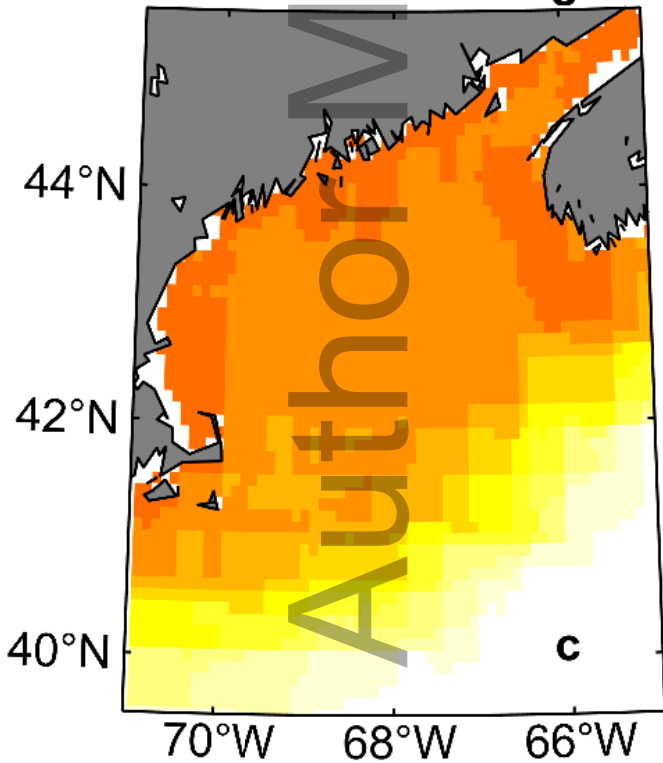
RCP 4.5 BT change



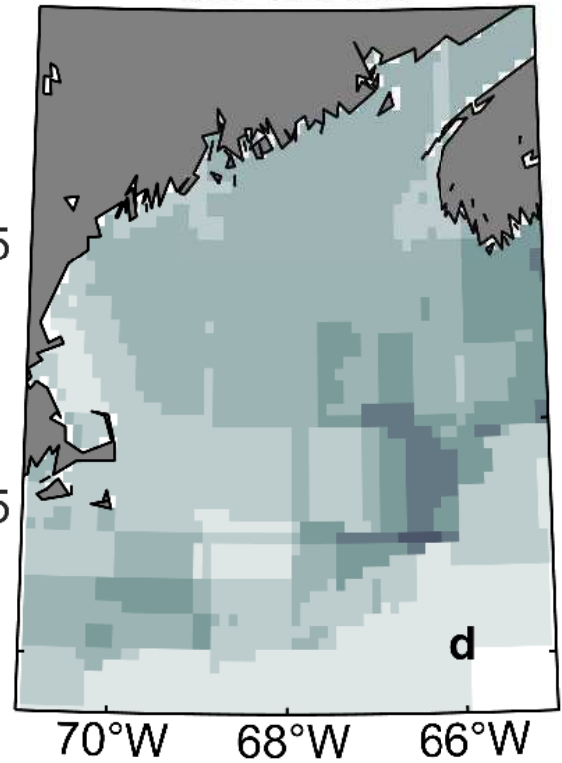
RCP 4.5 SD



RCP 8.5 BT change

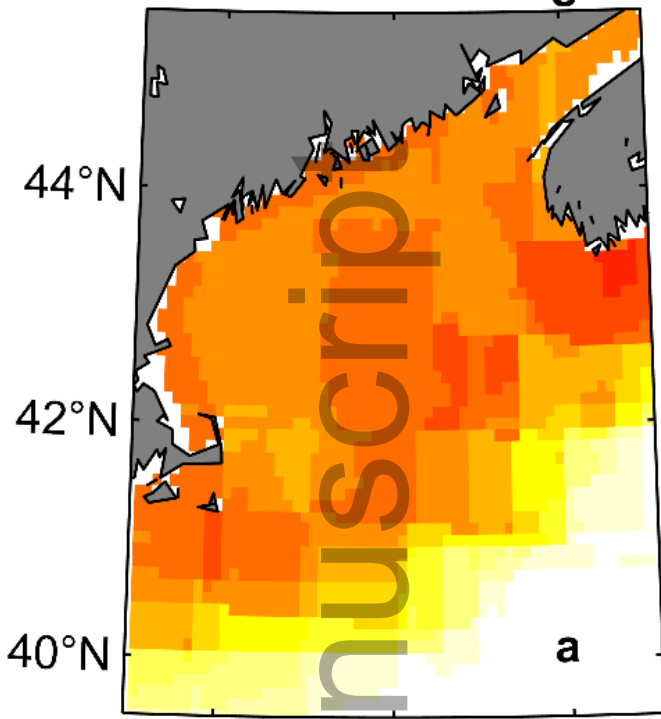


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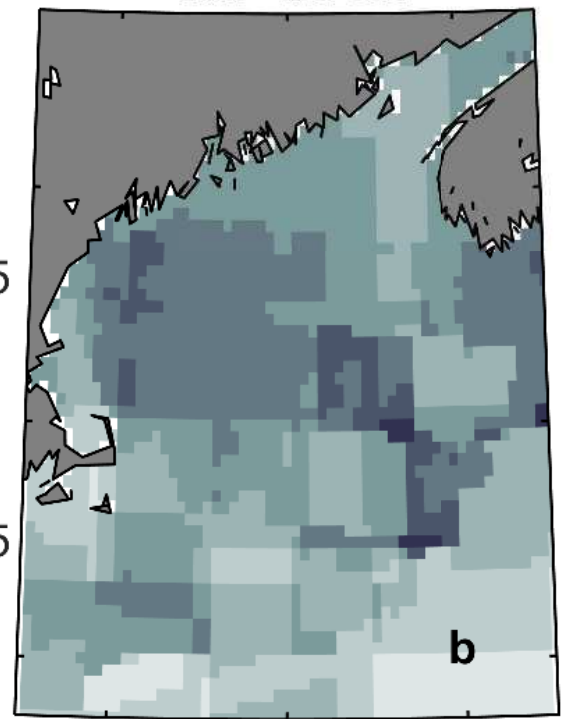


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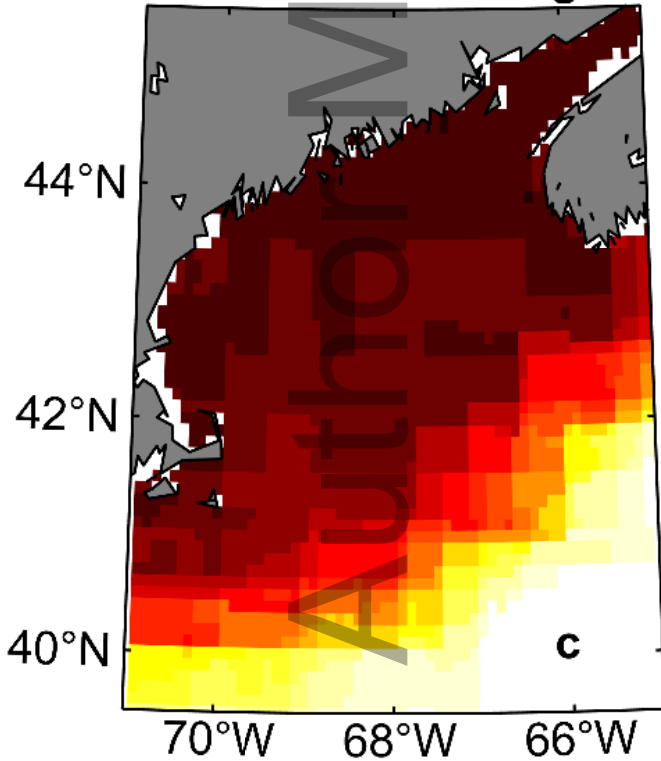
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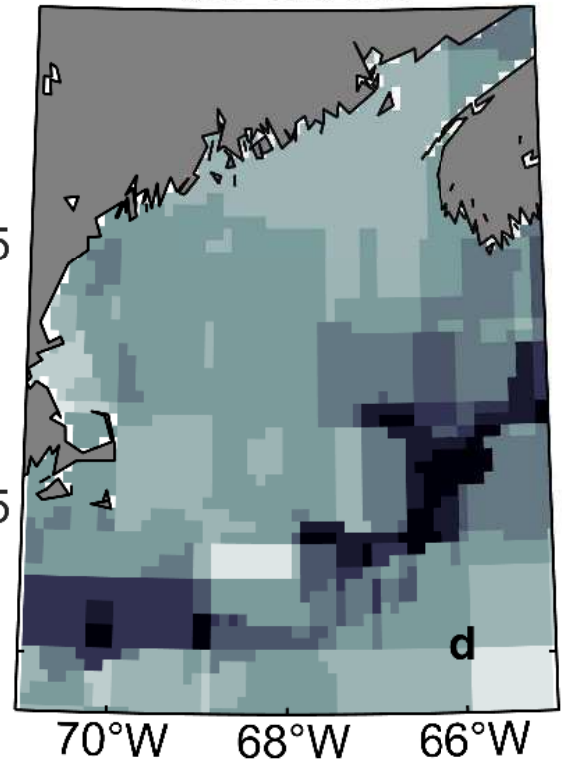
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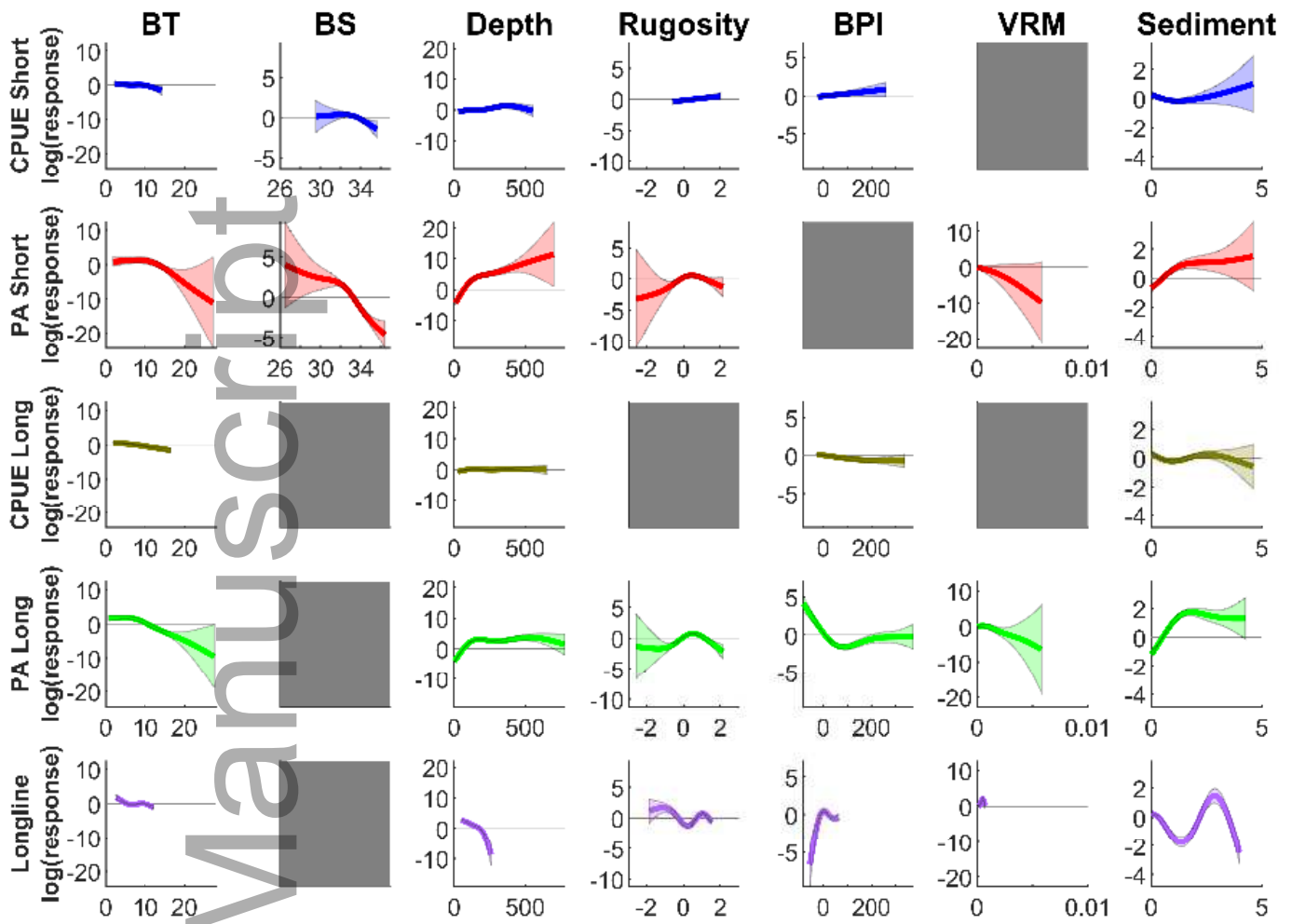
RCP 8.5 BT change



RCP 8.5 SD



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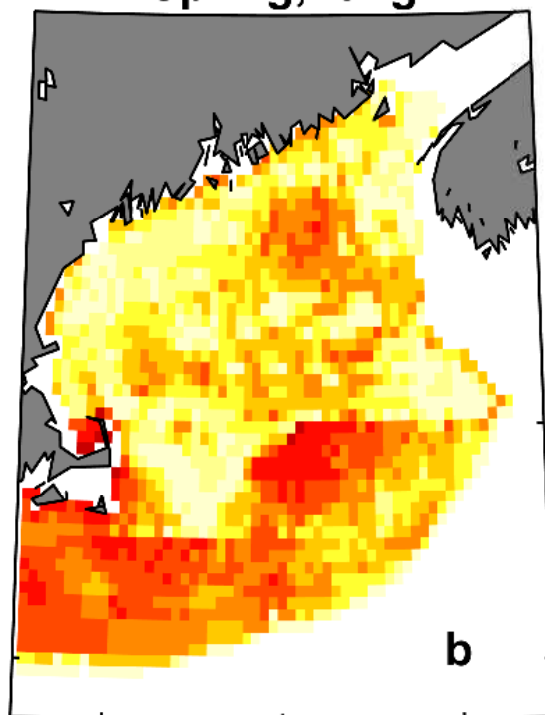
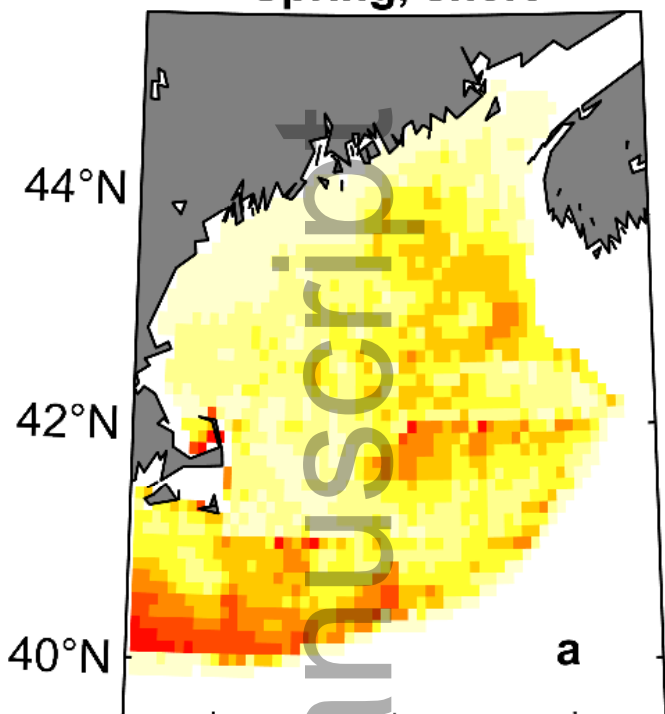


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Change in Presence Likelihood, 2055 RCP 8.5

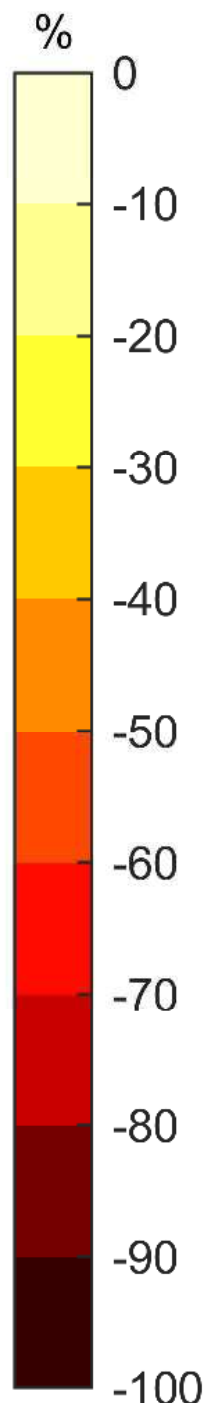
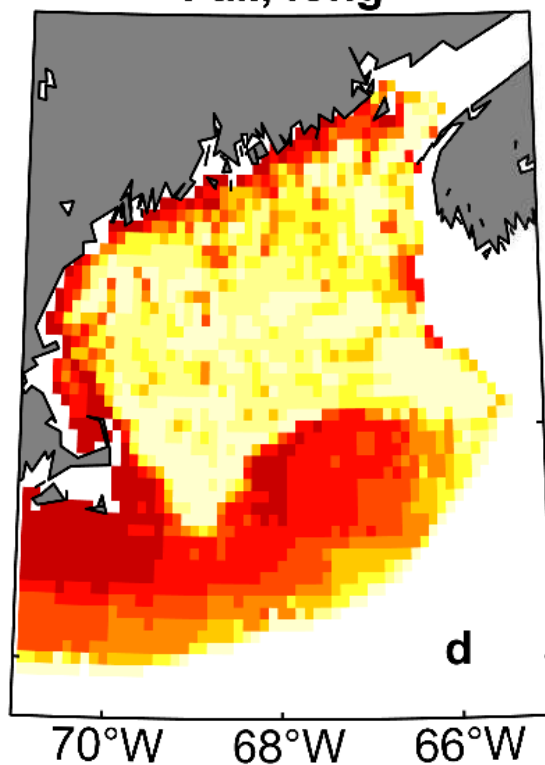
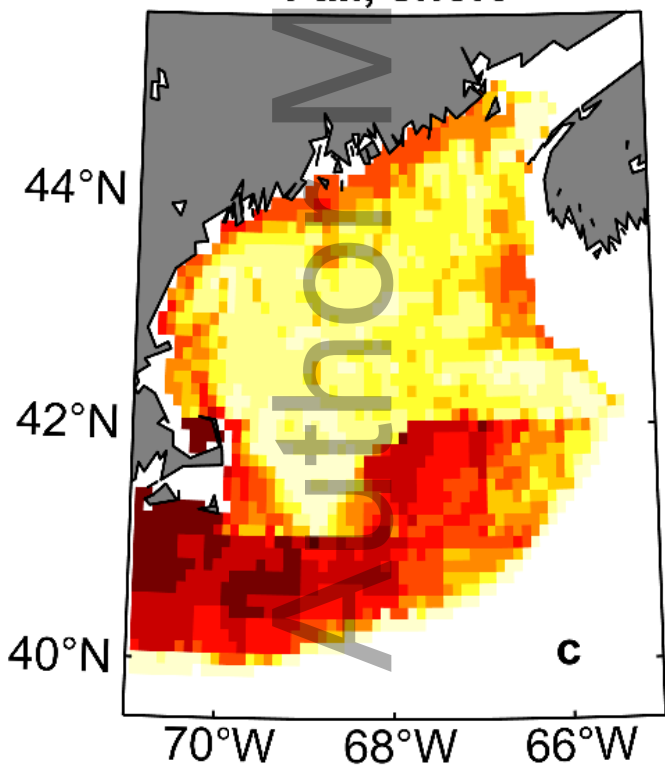
Spring, short

Spring, long



Fall, short

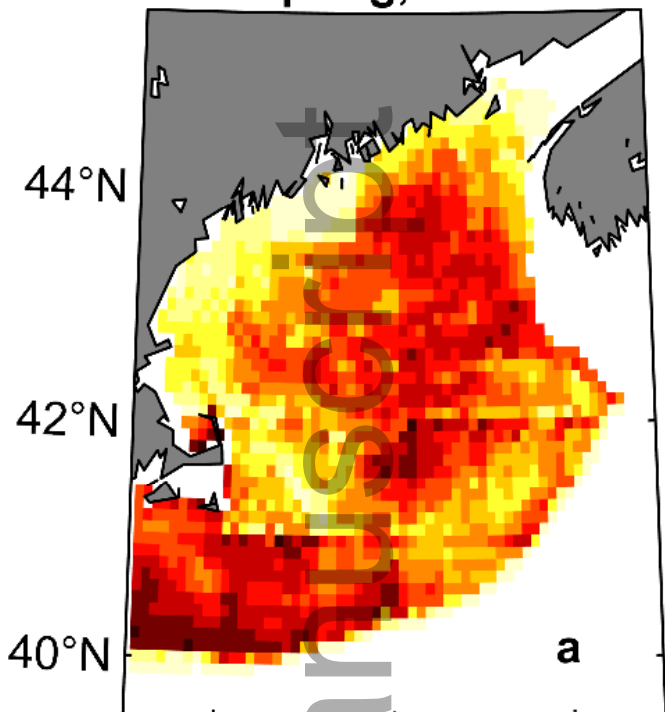
Fall, long



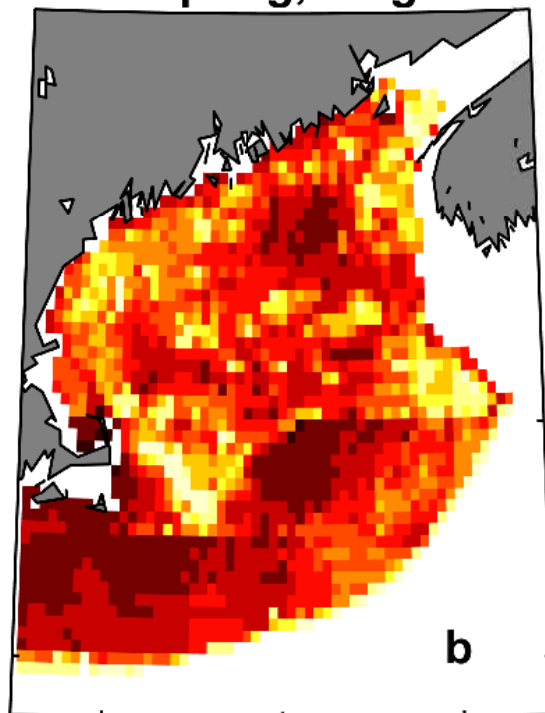
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Change in Presence Likelihood, 2100 RCP 8.5

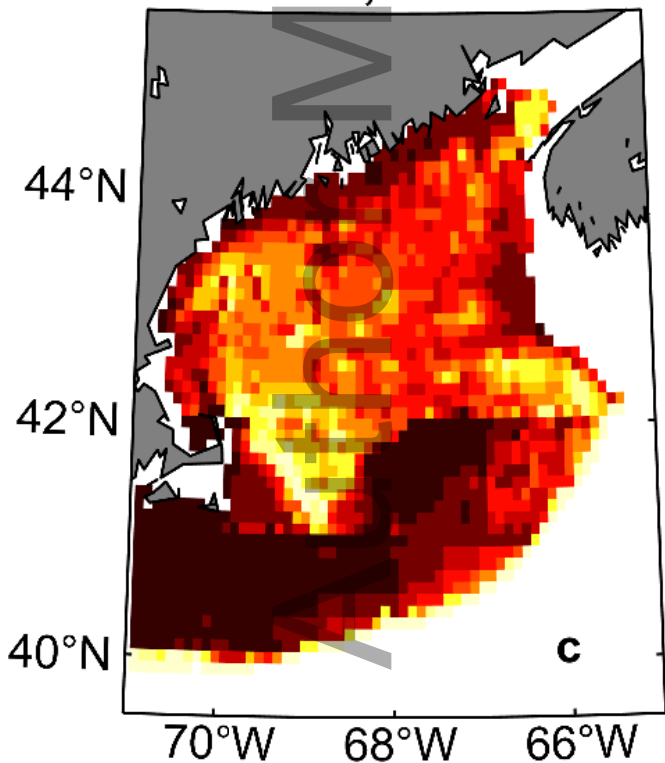
Spring, short



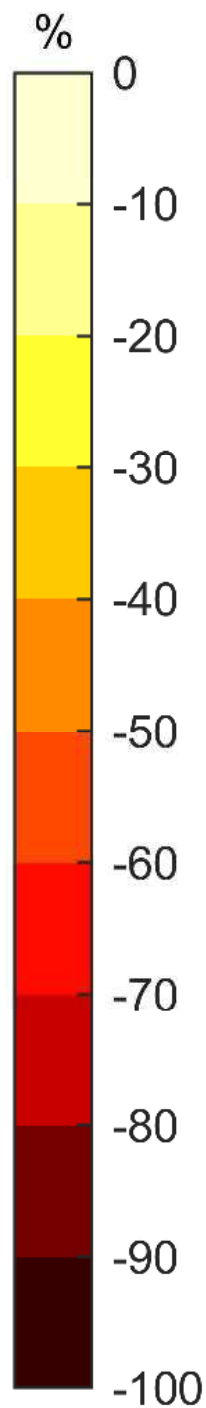
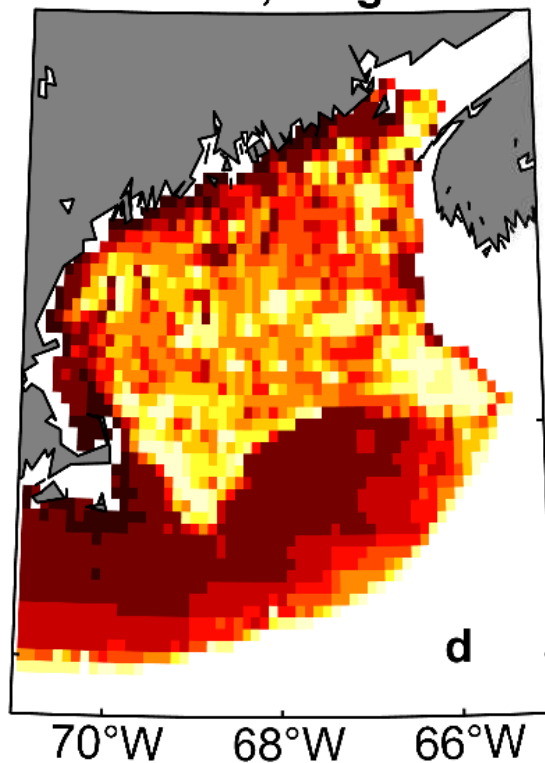
Spring, long



Fall, short

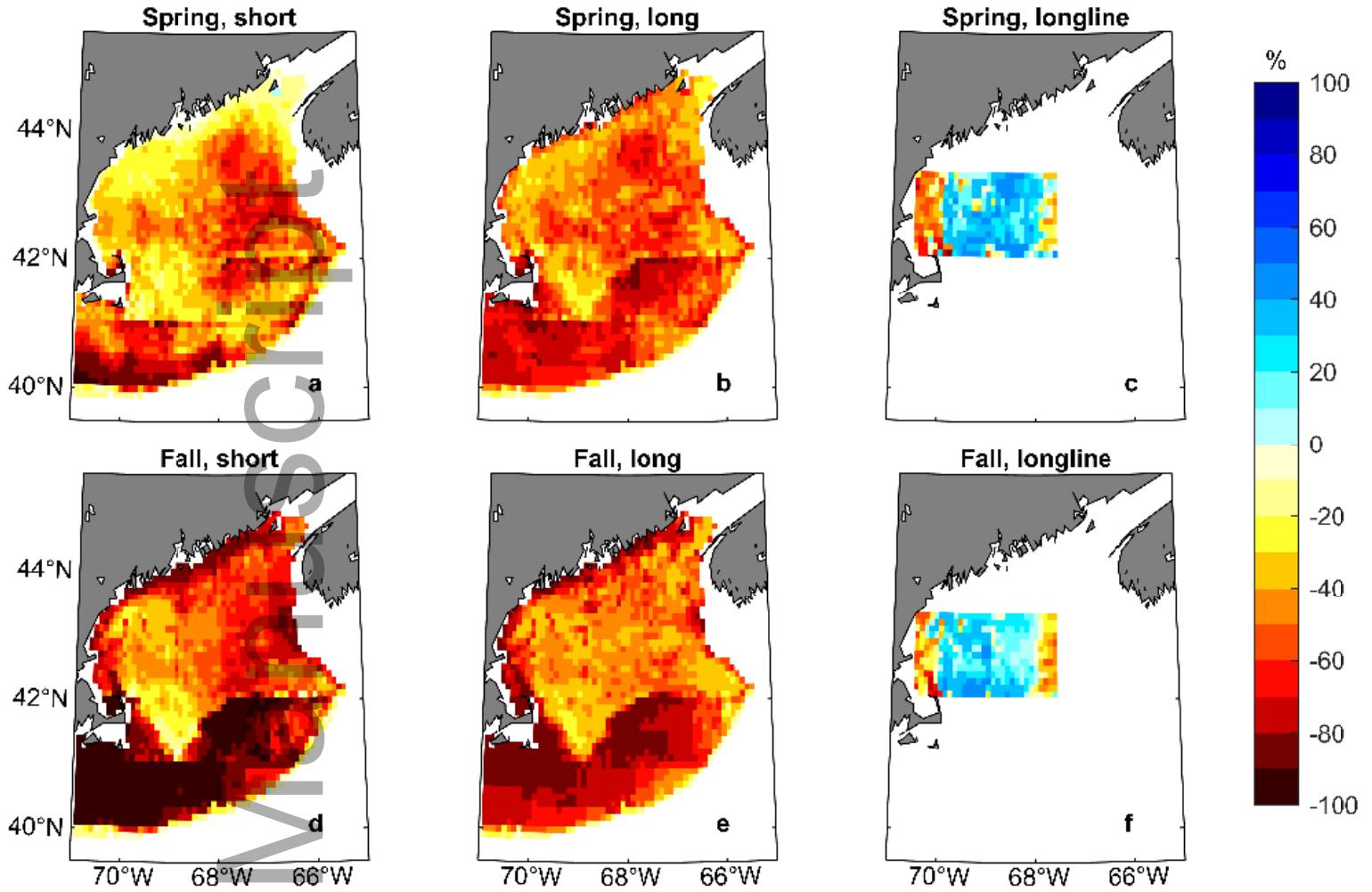


Fall, long



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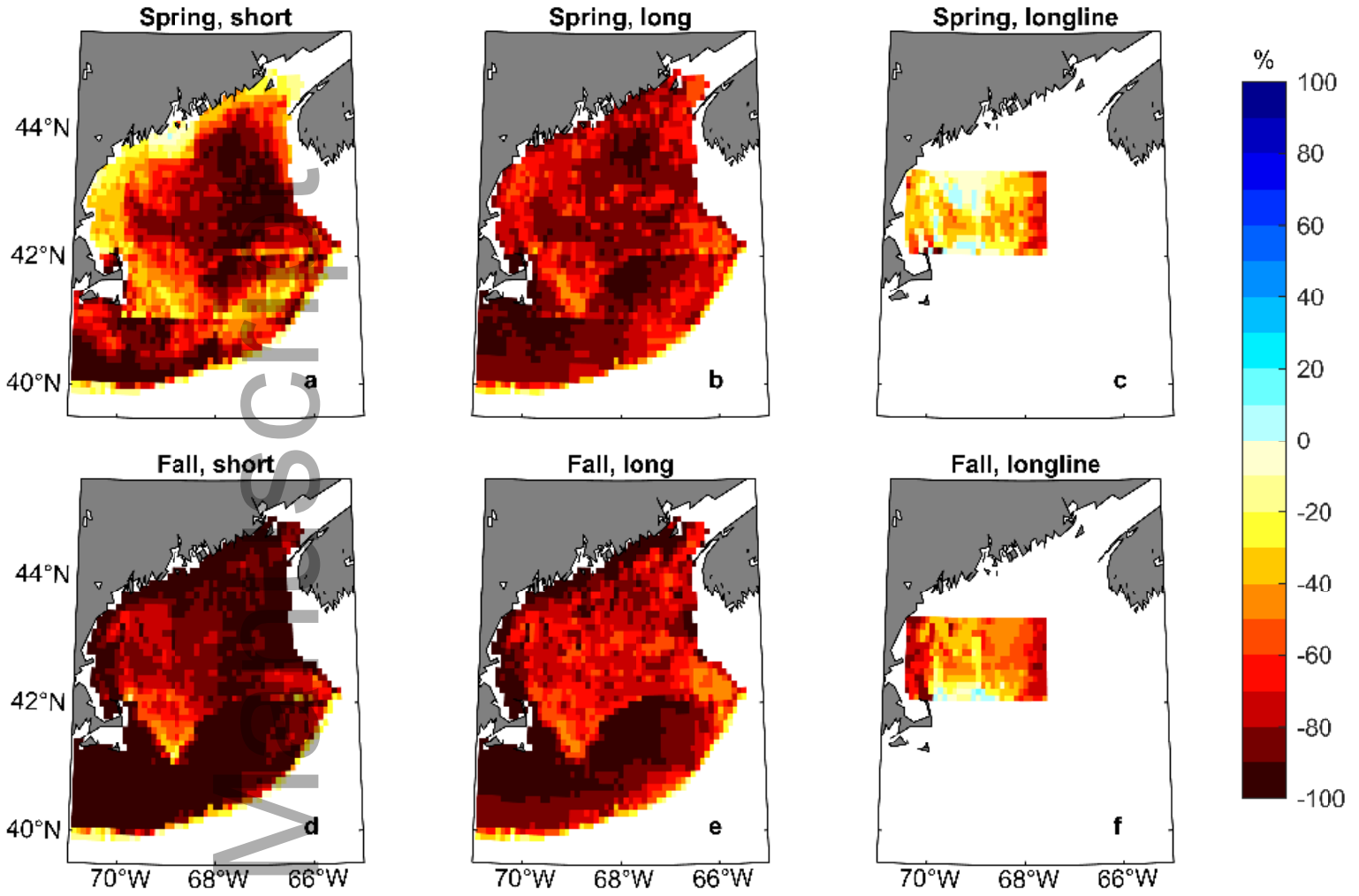
Change in CPUE, 2100 RCP 4.5



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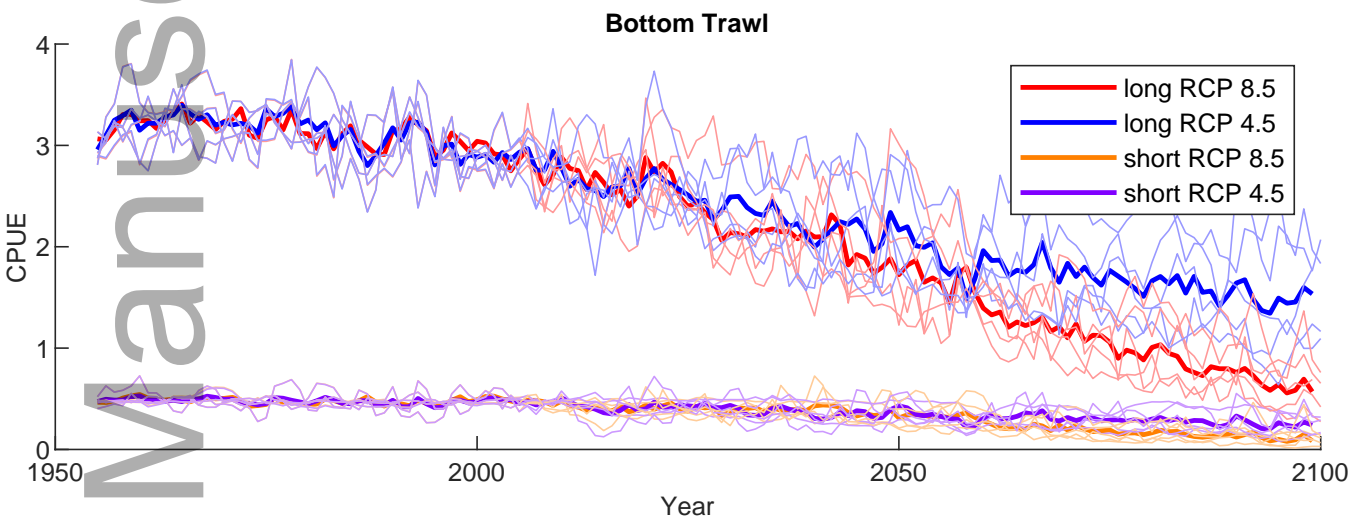
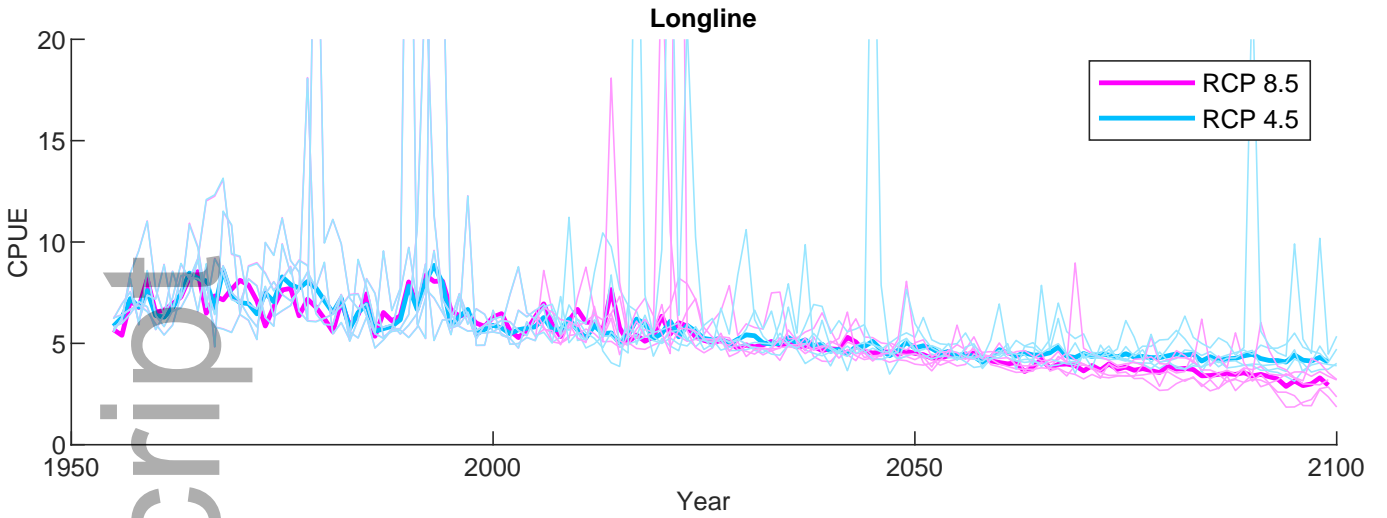
Author

Change in CPUE, 2100 RCP 8.5



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Author



fog_12520_f9.eps