

1 Effects of climate change and management policies on marine fisheries productivity in the
2 north-east coast of India

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22 **Keywords**

23 Climate change; West Bengal; Odisha; Primary production; Hilsa; Fisheries management;

24 Biogeochemical modelling.

25 **Abstract**

26 The Indian Bengal Delta and the Mahanadi delta are two important deltaic systems of the
27 north-east coast of India that support about 1.25 million people. In this study, the change in
28 potential marine fish production and socio-economic conditions were modelled for these
29 two deltas under long-term changes in environmental conditions (sea surface temperature
30 and primary production) to the end of the 21st century. Our results show that an increased
31 temperature has a negative impact on fisheries productivity, which was projected to
32 decrease by 5%. At the species level, Bombay duck, Indian mackerel and threadfin bream
33 showed an increasing trend in the biomass of potential catches under a sustainable fishing
34 scenario. However, under the business as usual and overfishing scenarios, our results
35 suggest reduced catch for both states. On the other hand, mackerel tuna, Indian oil sardine,
36 and hilsa fisheries showed a projected reduction in potential catch also for the sustainable
37 fishing scenario. The socio-economic models projected an increase of up to 0.67% (involving
38 0.8 billion USD) in consumption by 2050 even under the best management scenario. The
39 GDP per capita was projected to face a loss of 1.7 billion USD by 2050. The loss of low-cost
40 fisheries would negatively impact the poorer coastal population since they strongly depend
41 upon these fisheries as a source of protein. Nevertheless, adaptation strategies tend to have
42 a negative correlation with poverty and food insecurity which needs to be addressed
43 separately to make the sector-specific effort effective. This study highlights the need to have
44 improved management plans for fisheries resources that can help to mitigate and adapt to
45 future climate change impacts.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Climate change is now identified as a global issue impacting the Earth with variable
48 magnitude. According to the 5th assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on
49 Climate Change (IPCC, 2014a), human activity is continually affecting the Earth's energy
50 budget by changing the concentration of radiatively important gases, aerosols, and land
51 surface properties. The report suggests that the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse
52 gases (i.e. CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) along with land and sea surface temperature has increased
53 significantly during the last 200 years. Deltaic regions with prevalent household poverty are
54 particularly vulnerable to environmental changes, climate change and natural hazards
55 causing loss of life and property (Szabo et al. 2015; Tessler et al. 2015). With a densely
56 populated, low-lying coastline around 7500 km long, India is one of the most vulnerable
57 countries in the Asia-Pacific region, ranking 4th and 6th with respect to physical exposure to
58 storms and GDP loss (IPCC, 2014b). The Indian Bengal Delta (IBD), and the Mahanadi delta
59 (situated in the coastal states of West Bengal and Odisha respectively) are two important
60 deltaic systems of the north-east coast of the country. According to the Food and
61 Agriculture Organization (FAO), global human population is expected to reach more than 9
62 billion by the middle of the 21st century (FAO, 2018), of which India's relative share at
63 present is 17.5% (Census, 2011). In the face of climate change, food supply to this massive
64 population is going to be an enormous task (FAO, 2018).

65 Globally, fisheries and aquaculture have an important role as a source of animal
66 protein by providing about 3.2 billion people with 20% of their average per capita animal
67 protein intake (FAO, 2018, Hicks et al., 2019). Hence, the impact of climate change on
68 marine fishery resources has emerged as a major global concern (Barange et al., 2018). In
69 India over 14.5 million people depend on fisheries activities, making this sector a pillar for
70 the country's economy and livelihood security (FAO, 2015). The average fish consumption
71 between 2013 and 2015 in the country was 5-10 kg per year per capita (FAO, 2018).
72 Furthermore, the exports of seafood constitute more than 70% of the total food exports
73 from India, representing close to 3 billion USD (GoI, 2014; MPEDA, 2008). This notable
74 importance of fisheries in the whole of India is particularly marked in the two deltaic
75 regions: the Indian Bengal Delta (IBD) and the Mahanadi delta (situated in the coastal states
76 of West Bengal and Odisha respectively). According to the Department of Animal
77 Husbandry, Dairying, and Fisheries, West Bengal ranked 2nd of all Indian States with around

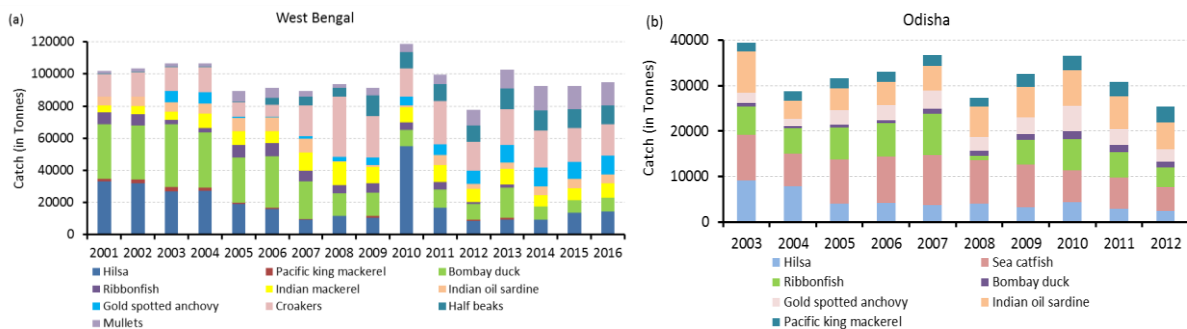
78 1.6 million tonnes of fish production in 2013-2014 (around 16.5% of all Indian fish
79 production) (Gol, 2014). On the other hand, Odisha ranked 10th with around 0.4 million
80 tonnes in 2013-2014 (around 4.3% of all fish production) (Gol, 2014). Furthermore, in West
81 Bengal fish products were consumed at a rate of about 0.8-1.1 kg per capita per month,
82 double the quantity of around 0.42-0.44 kg per capita per month in Odisha (Gol, 2014)
83 suggesting a significant regional variation. Rural areas are highly dependent on fisheries in
84 terms of catch (production) and income from high valued species while they depend on the
85 production of less valued species for food. By contrast, the demand for high valued species
86 is more in urban centers (Gol, 2014). Fisheries activities represent about 4.1% of the total
87 Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the IBD, West Bengal and 2.6% in Mahanadi delta (Odisha)
88 (Cazcarro et al., 2018), which accounts for about 220 million USD and 1556 million USD
89 respectively (PCA, 2011). According to the Census 2011 (PCA, 2011), fishing (hunting and
90 allied activities included) involved more than 80 thousand full-time workers in the Mahanadi
91 delta (89% of them male), and 124 thousand full-time workers in the IBD delta (78% of them
92 male), representing about 5% of total employment in each delta. West Bengal ranked as the
93 4th state (out of the 29 States and 7 Union territories) with the highest number of
94 households (879 per 1000 rural and 844 in urban environments) reporting consumption of
95 fish and prawn (Gol, 2014).

96 Considering the key importance of fisheries in the socio-economy of the two deltaic
97 regions, quantification of the future impact of climate change on the fishery resources is a
98 major concern for scientists. Climate change is projected to reduce marine productivity
99 (Bopp et al., 2001 and Perry et al., 2005), and also influence the distribution patterns of
100 species depending on the predator requirements and resource availability (Durant et al,
101 2007). While some studies have shown that increasing temperature and nutrients influence
102 the growth of marine algae favoring only some species (Jasper et al. 2009), the effect of
103 climate change can have negative impacts on fish species through bottom-up processes
104 (Stephen 2008).

105 In addition, some species have shown changes in distribution patterns as a response
106 to the increase of water temperature, for example the Indian mackerel (*Rastrelliger*
107 *kanagurta*) was reported to extend its northern boundaries and to descend to deeper
108 waters in response to changes in climatic conditions (CMFRI, 2008; Vivekanandan et al.,
109 2010). The increased catches of oil sardine (*Sardinella longiceps*) since 1990 could also be

110 attributed to more suitable habitat conditions probably because of increased sea surface
111 temperature (Vivekanandan et al. 2009). However, these studies look only at historical
112 changes without considering potential future climate scenarios (Parry et al., 2007).
113 Therefore it is key for management policies to be informed of possible changes that could
114 occur at the ecosystem level. Five probable shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs) were
115 developed by IPCC to examine how global society, demographics, and economics might
116 change over the next century in various scenarios of climate policies or climate change
117 (O'Neill et al., 2014).

118 In this work, we model the changes in total marine productivity under climate
119 change scenarios and potential changes in catches of key commercially important species in
120 the two regions (West Bengal and Odisha), considering management scenarios as a climate
121 change adaptation measures. The major marine fish species considered for the present
122 study were mackerel tuna (*Euthynnus affinis*), Indian mackerel (*Rastrelliger kanagurta*),
123 Bombay duck (*Harpodon nehereus*), Indian oil sardine (*Sardinella longiceps*), hilsa
124 (*Tenualosa ilisha*), and threadfin bream (*Nemipterus japonicas*, *N. mesoprion*). Hilsa (487
125 USD/tonne) is the most important marine fish species in West Bengal as well as in Odisha,
126 owing to its high socio-economic value (Bladon et al., 2016). During the last decade, annual
127 catches of hilsa have shown a decreasing trend both for West Bengal and Odisha (Fig. 1a
128 and Fig. 1b) largely because of overfishing (Dutta et al., 2012; Das et al., 2018a). Mackerel
129 tuna (1,217 USD/tonne) is another commercially valuable fish species for these two states. A
130 major portion of the mackerel tuna catch is exported internationally as well as to other
131 states of India. Indian mackerel (~2.9% of the total average annual fish catch and 183 USD/
132 tonne in 2010), Indian oil sardine (~4.5% of the total average annual fish catch and 83 USD/
133 tonne) and threadfin bream (989 USD/ tonnes) are non-target species forming the by-catch
134 of the fishery. Bombay duck (179 USD/ tonne) is mostly used in the dry fish industry and is
135 also a favorite food item in eastern Bengal. During the last five years (from 2011 to 2015),
136 the quantity of dried items exported from West Bengal has increased by 53% (DoF, W.B.,
137 2016). These low-cost fish species have a significant impact on the socio-economy of the
138 poorest coastal population of the two states, as they are highly dependent on these species
139 (Beveridge et al., 2013; Belton and Thilsted, 2014; Thilsted et al., 2016).



140 **Fig. 1.** Annual catch of a few selected marine fish species for West Bengal (a) and Odisha (b).

141

142 Under the current scenario of climate change, the human population will rise along
 143 with a decline in marine ecosystem productivity, consequently it is likely that the demand
 144 for marine fish is going to be higher than ever before (Delgado et al. 2003). Despite
 145 aquaculture is developing faster fish production derived from it does not seem to be enough
 146 to meet the current and future demand of the coastal population (FAO, 2018). In addition
 147 the future impact of climate change on the aquaculture sector is still unknown (Belton et al.,
 148 2014). Because of the importance of fish production for the survival of populations that live
 149 in deltaic regions it is necessary to have long-lasting fisheries management plans that also
 150 account for possible impacts of climate change. In the present study, the cumulative effect
 151 of physical, biological and ecological changes due to climate change was quantified to
 152 explore its impact on marine fish production and related socio-economy of West Bengal and
 153 Odisha by 2050.

154

155 2. Materials and Methods

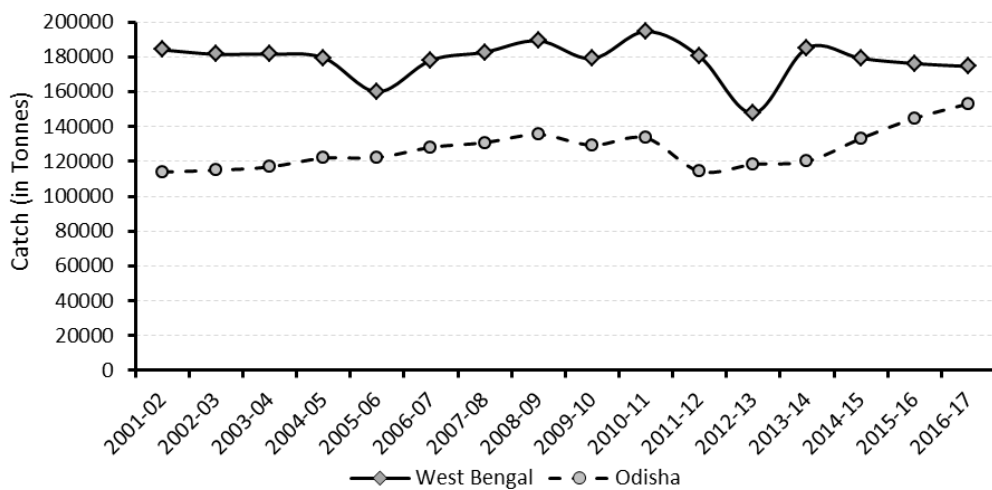
156 2.1 Study area

157 The Bengal delta is the Indian part of the Ganga-Brahmaputra-Meghna (GBM) delta
158 system which spans across five countries including India and Bangladesh. The Bengal Delta
159 (IBD) is comprised of two maritime districts of West Bengal, i.e. North 24 Parganas and
160 South 24 Parganas, encompassing an area of 14,054 km² with a population of 18.2 million
161 (Census, 2011). With a coastline of 158 km (1.9% of the total coastal length of India), West
162 Bengal has a continental shelf area of 17,049 km² (DoF, 2016). The West Bengal deltaic
163 coastal region (the Hugli estuary) is a well-mixed, meso-macrotidal region (tidal range 2.5-
164 6.5 m) with current velocities ranging between 117 to 108 cm s⁻¹ during low and high tide
165 respectively (De et al., 2011). This region is characterised by very shallow waters <24 m
166 depth even at distance of 60 km from the shoreline (Akhand et al., 2013) and is subjected to
167 intense rainfall events of around 2000 mm with the maximum rainfall occurring during the
168 south-west monsoon (70-80% of the total rainfall) (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2006).

169 The Mahanadi delta is comprised of five districts of Odisha, viz. Bhadrak, Kendrapara,
170 Jagatsinghpur, Puri, and Khordha, within 5 meters elevation from the sea level, covering an
171 area of 95,000 km². This area has a population of 8.03 million people (Census, 2011). The
172 coastline of the delta stretches for 200 km (2.5% of the total coastal length of India) with a
173 shelf area of 24000 km² (DoES, Odisha, 2016). It is a partially mixed coastal plain estuary
174 with a semidiurnal tide (Panda et al., 2013). The Mahanadi River basin is a rain-fed system
175 which undergoes large seasonal fluctuations in river runoff. Like the Hugli estuary, the
176 maximum rainfall in the Mahanadi delta occurs during the south-west monsoon. Average
177 annual rainfall in this region is 1572 mm, 70% of which occurs between June and October
178 (CSE, 2003).

179 Though the fishing area of Odisha is larger than that of West Bengal, annual marine
180 catches of Odisha are consistently lower over the last decade (Fig. 2) (DoF, W.B., 2016, and
181 DoES, Odisha, 2016). In West Bengal, around 0.38 million people are dependent on the
182 marine fisheries sector for their livelihood (DoF, W.B., 2016). Mechanization of boats was
183 introduced in West Bengal during the 1950s but became popular only during 1970s (BOBP,
184 1990). With increased mechanization, the marine fish catch of West Bengal increased
185 significantly between 1981-1982 (0.028 million tonnes) and 2015-2016 (0.173 million
186 tonnes). However, through the last 15 years (from 2002-2003 to 2016-2017) the number of

187 licensed boats increased by a factor of 6.8 but the annual marine fish catch did not increase
 188 much (DoF, W.B., 2016). In Odisha, the number of people dependent on the marine fishery
 189 sector is 0.87 million (DoES, Odisha, 2016). Mechanization of fishing boats increased during
 190 the 1980s and its impact on the marine fish catch of Odisha was observed from 1984
 191 onwards. During the time span of 55 years (from 1950 to 2005), the marine catch of Odisha
 192 increased from 5080 tonnes to 104,000 tonnes, while the number of boats increased by a
 193 factor of 6.8 (Bhathal, 2014). Gillnets and set Bagnets are the major fishing gear used in
 194 Odisha and West Bengal. Along with that, trawl nets are also very popular especially for
 195 fishing in continental shelf areas. Drift gillnets and boat seines are used mainly for hilsa
 196 fishing. Mesh size ranges from 17-125 mm for hilsa. Set bagnet, purse seines, long liners, dol
 197 nets, etc. are also used targeting catfish, king mackerel, mackerel tuna, sardines, Indian
 198 mackerel (BOBP, 1990).



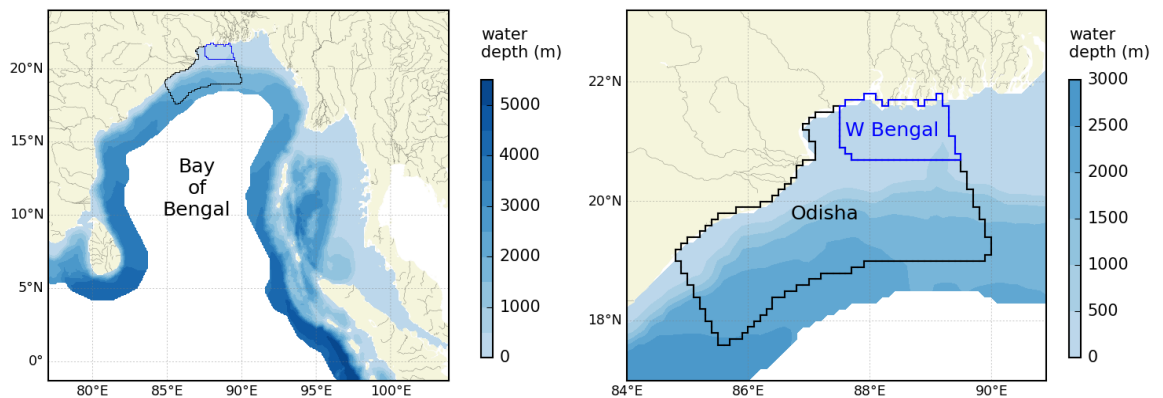
199
 200 **Fig. 2.** Total annual marine catch trend of the two states from 2001 to 2016 indicating lower
 201 annual catch of Odisha than West Bengal.

202

203 *2.2 Climate scenarios and biogeochemical models*

204 Future marine fish production for West Bengal and Odisha were simulated by
205 downscaling three of the Global Climate Models (GCMs) used in the Coupled Model Inter-
206 comparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor et al., 2012) of the Intergovernmental Panel on
207 Climate Change Fifth Assessment Report (IPCC, 2013). The CMIP5 GCMs were dynamically
208 downscaled to finer resolution using Regional Climate Model (RCM) simulations. The GCMs
209 chosen for the study were CNRM-CM5 (i.e. small increase in precipitation, relatively small
210 increase in temperature), GFDL-CM3 (i.e. moderate-large increase in precipitation, a
211 moderate increase in temperature) and HadGEM2-ES (i.e. large increase in precipitation, a
212 large increase in temperature). In all cases the high carbon concentration scenario
213 Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 was used, to provide a strong climate
214 signal.

215 Downscaling of the climate projections of the marine environment was carried out
216 using the hydrodynamic model POLCOMS coupled to the biogeochemical/ecosystem model
217 ERSEM. The Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory Coastal Ocean Model (POLCOMS, Holt
218 and James, 2001), is a three-dimensional baroclinic model suitable for simulating physical
219 processes in both shelf seas and deep water areas. It was run for the whole Bay of Bengal
220 from the coast to 200 km out from the shelf break (Fig. 3); the horizontal resolution was 0.1°
221 in latitude and longitude and the model had 40 vertical levels distributed on a hybrid z-
222 sigma scheme. ERSEM, the European Regional Seas Ecosystem Model (Butenschön et al,
223 2016), tracks the processes and biogeochemical transfers of the lower trophic level
224 ecosystem. It includes four functional types of phytoplankton, three of zooplankton and one
225 group of bacteria. Carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, silicate, and chlorophyll are tracked
226 separately, with no assumption about stoichiometric ratios. Temperature, salinity and
227 current speeds are provided by POLCOMS, and ERSEM runs within every cell of the
228 POLCOMS grid every 10 minutes.



229

230 **Fig. 3.** (a) The Bay of Bengal, showing the modelled area in blue. (b) Part of (a) enlarged to
 231 show the Odisha and West Bengal analysis regions. The colour shading shows the
 232 bathymetry.

233 External forcing at the sea surface, the open ocean boundary and river mouths were
 234 derived from the three climate models listed above. Physical conditions at the atmospheric
 235 boundary were taken from regionally downscaled versions of the global models (Janes et al.,
 236 2019); physical and biogeochemical conditions at the open ocean boundary came from the
 237 global models, and freshwater run-off, nitrate, and phosphate for the GBM and Mahanadi
 238 were taken from a hydrological model run using the same regionally-downscaled climate
 239 models (Jin et al., 2018; Whitehead et al., 2018).

240 The coupled model produced daily and monthly outputs of temperature, salinity,
 241 current speeds, primary production, phytoplankton and zooplankton biomass pH and
 242 oxygen at 0.1° resolution. These were aggregated to 0.5° cells to give inputs for the DBEM
 243 model described in the next section and to the regions shown in Fig. 3 to give inputs for the
 244 dynamic marine ecosystem model.

245

246 2.3 Fisheries Models

247 Firstly, a dynamic marine ecosystem model was run using the outputs of the
248 POLCOMS-ERSEM model. The dynamic marine ecosystem model includes the food web
249 interactions which link primary production to fish production through predation. The model
250 can project the climate-driven changes in potential fish production by size class, taking into
251 account the effect of temperature on the feeding and mortality rates (Blanchard et al.
252 2012). This size-based method does not include the effect of species' ecology and reflects
253 the food web properties including the energy flux and production for a particular size group
254 (Barange et al. 2014).

255 Secondly, a Dynamic Bioclimate Envelope Model (DBEM) was used to project the
256 distribution and abundance of the selected marine fish species. The DBEM includes species
257 interactions based on size-spectrum (SS) theory and habitat suitability (SS-DBEM, Fernandes
258 et al. 2013). The SS-DBEM, a mechanistic-statistical approach, has been applied to a large
259 number of marine fish species globally (Cheung et al., 2008; Fernandes et al., 2013; Mullon
260 et al., 2016) as well as at regional level (Jones et al. 2013; Fernandes et al., 2015; Fernandes
261 et al., 2017). The distributional range for the selected fish species was first mapped in the
262 Sea Around Us project (Close et al. 2006). Using the model-inferred environmental
263 preference profile, the suitability of each species was defined for the environmental
264 conditions (Cheung et al., 2008). The SS-DBEM projected the future distribution pattern,
265 biomass and potential catch for the selected fish species by combining the ocean dynamics
266 with mortality, growth and dispersal process (Cheung et al 2008, 2009, 2011, 2016a). Using
267 the SS-DBEM, climate change and fishing scenarios were used to explore the potential
268 change in total productivity of West Bengal and Odisha Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZ) for
269 the six targeted marine fish species.

270

271 2.4 Fishing scenarios

272 The fisheries scenarios considered in this study were based on the ecosystem
273 carrying capacity of the West Bengal and Odisha EEZs. The scenarios aimed to provide
274 trends of fish catch potential by size class at the species level. The fishing pressure in
275 relation to maximum sustainable yield (MSY) was considered while constructing the
276 scenarios. MSY is defined as the highest average theoretical equilibrium catch that can be
277 continuously taken from a stock under average environmental conditions (Hilborn &
278 Walters, 1992). Based on a simple logistic population growth function and under equilibrium
279 conditions, MSY can be defined as:

$$280 \text{MSY} = B_{\infty} * \text{intR} / 4$$

281 where intR is the intrinsic rate of population increase and B_{∞} is the biomass at carrying
282 capacity (Schaefer, 1954; Sparre and Venema, 1992). In our application, the intR values are
283 calculated based on natural mortality (Pauly 1980; Cheung et al., 2008). This is an
284 approximation and not as reliable as estimates of biomass using survey-based methods
285 (McAllister et al. 2001; Pauly et al., 2013). However, these estimates have proven to be
286 significantly correlated with those from aggregated stock assessments (Froese et al., 2012;
287 Fernandes et al., 2013).

288 Fishing mortality (F_m) scenarios were defined by comparing F_m estimates from the
289 literature with the modelled fishing mortality associated with MSY. Three fishing scenarios
290 were considered for this present study (Kebede et al., 2018);

- 291 i) Sustainable scenario (MSY): Fishing mortality consistent with the respective F_{MSY}
292 (sustainable fishing mortality rate) which would cause maximum production without
293 affecting the population dynamics and species recruitment.
- 294 ii) Business as usual scenario (2MSY): Fishing mortality was set considering the recent
295 mortality rates for the selected fish species.
- 296 iii) Overfishing scenario (3MSY): This scenario depicts a situation where regulatory
297 management is not constraining the fishing practice.

298

299 *2.5 Economic Model*

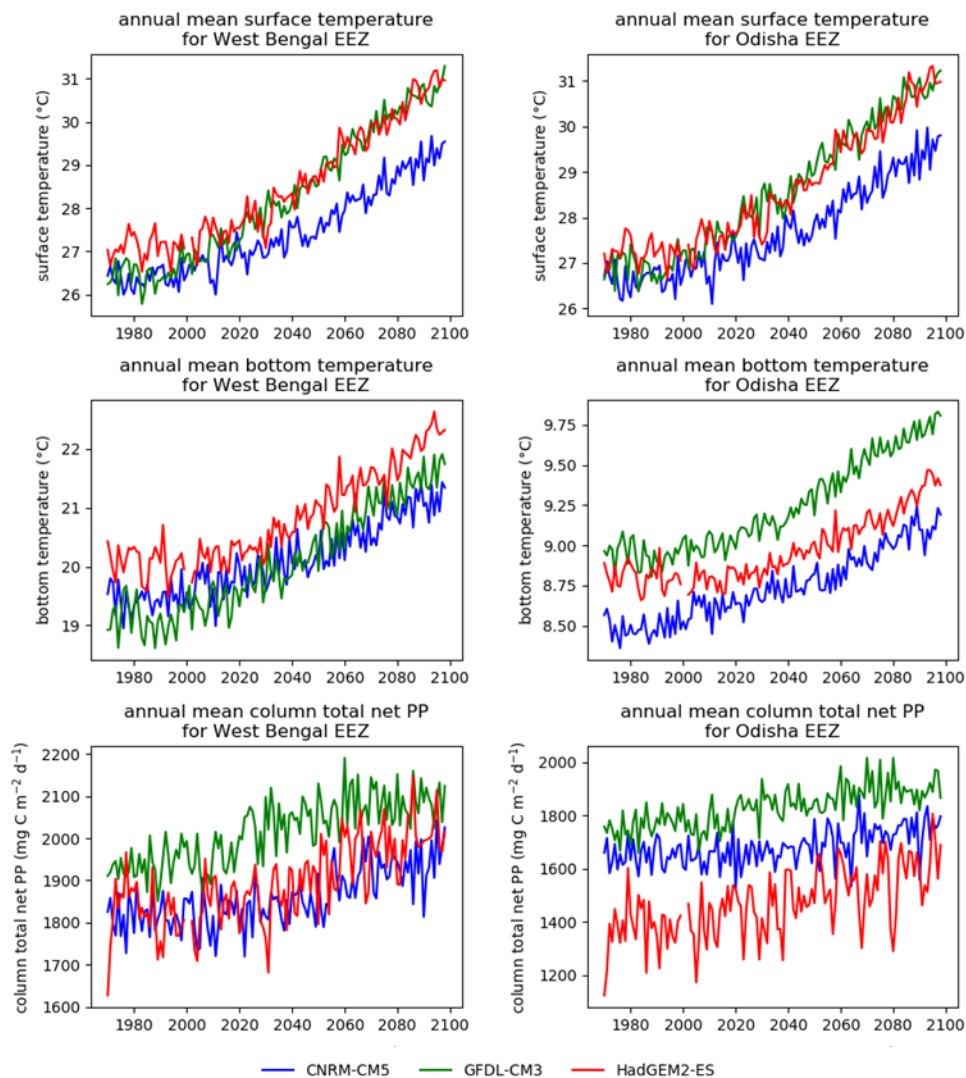
300 A dynamic Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) model was adapted to translate
301 physical outputs from the fisheries modelling into economic values. The economics of the
302 two study areas were presented using the Delta-CGE model of the IBD and the Delta-CGE of
303 the Mahanadi (Arto et al., 2019, Cazcarro et al., 2018). In the base year, the models
304 replicated the flows of money, goods, and services between the different agents in the
305 economies of the deltas and their relationship with the rest of the country; these were
306 obtained from a Social Accounting Matrix which constituted the core data of the model
307 (Arto et al., 2018, 2019). In this study, the Delta-CGE models were used to simulate how the
308 economy of the deltas might react to the impacts of climate change under different
309 scenarios. More specifically, the Delta-CGE models translated the outputs from the fisheries
310 models into some key socioeconomic indicators such as employment, prices, production,
311 income or consumption. In the present simulation, the changes in the aggregate private
312 consumption (i.e. the sum of the consumption of all goods and services by all households)
313 was used as a proxy of the changes in economic welfare.

314 A set of scenarios characterizing the future socio-economic conditions of the deltas
315 until 2050 were constructed as also done in the fisheries sector. The baseline scenario used
316 in the present study was based on the Shared Socioeconomic Pathway number 2 (SSP2) of
317 the IPCC scenario framework (O'Neill et al., 2014; Riahi et al., 2017) and adapted to the
318 particularities of the case study areas (Arto et al., 2018). This baseline scenario defined the
319 future trends of different variables such as population, labor force, Gross Domestic Product
320 (GDP), economic structure, etc. and assumed that there were no changes in fisheries yields.
321 The economic impact was simulated using the changes in potential productivity, the
322 baseline socio-economic scenario and the climatic scenarios already described in the
323 introduction.

324 **3. Results**

325 *3.1 Climate scenarios and biogeochemical models*

326 Projections of change in bottom and surface temperature for the Bay of Bengal off
327 the West Bengal and Odisha coast showed a steady increasing trend from 1970 to 2098. The
328 sea surface temperatures were projected to increase by 3-4°C for both West Bengal and
329 Odisha at the end of the 21st century (Fig. 4). However, the predicted increase in bottom
330 temperatures was lower for Odisha (by 0.7°C) than West Bengal (by 2.2°C) (Fig. 4) because
331 the Odisha EEZ includes much deeper water which is less influenced by surface conditions
332 (Fig. 3). All three climatic scenarios predicted an increase in sea surface temperature (SST)
333 throughout the study period in these two regions (Table 1 and Fig. 5).



334
335 **Fig. 4.** Projected annual mean sea surface and bottom temperature, and mean column net
336 primary productivity for West Bengal and Odisha.

337

338 The projections of change in net primary productivity (PP) for West Bengal and
339 Odisha showed a positive trend (Fig. 4). The average annual net PP of Odisha was lower
340 (1657±75 mgC/m²/d) compared to West Bengal (1921±71 mgC/m²/d). Three different
341 climatic models showed a mixed impact on the change of river flow volume and nutrient
342 load. The CNRM-CM5 model (having a small increase in precipitation and a relatively small
343 increase in temperature) gave an increase in West Bengal river flow volume by 13% at the
344 end of the 21st century for West Bengal, though the nitrate (N) and phosphate (P) loads
345 showed a significant decrease (Fig. 5). The net PP projections from this model did not show
346 much change until mid-century (2045-2054) for both states, however, an increase of about
347 7% was obtained at the end of the century. The river flow volume for Odisha reduced by
348 10% (from 2005-2014 to 2065-2074), likewise, the N and P loads also reduced by 3% and 1%
349 respectively (as per CNRM-CM5 model outputs). The GFDL-CM3 model (moderate to a
350 larger increase in precipitation and a moderate increase in temperature) projected 10% and
351 32% increase in river flow of West Bengal and Odisha respectively. The N and P load
352 projections for West Bengal showed a reduction by 14% and 73% respectively, however, for
353 Odisha, it increased by 6% and 1% respectively. The HadGEM2-ES model (large increase in
354 precipitation and temperature), showed increased river flow and N-P loads for both regions,
355 though levels of nitrate in West Bengal decreased after mid-century .

356

357 *3.2 Fishing scenarios*

358 The size spectrum model outputs projected the impact of the chosen climatic models
359 on the fish productivity of the two states (Fig. 6). Both the CNRM-CM5 and GFDL-CM3
360 models projected a minor reduction of marine fish production potential for West Bengal
361 (5%) and Odisha (4%). The potential marine fish production for West Bengal did not change
362 much under the HadGEM2-ES model, though irregular inter-annual fluctuations were
363 observed. However, a larger increase in potential marine fish production (9.3%) was
364 projected for Odisha by this model at the end of the 21st century.

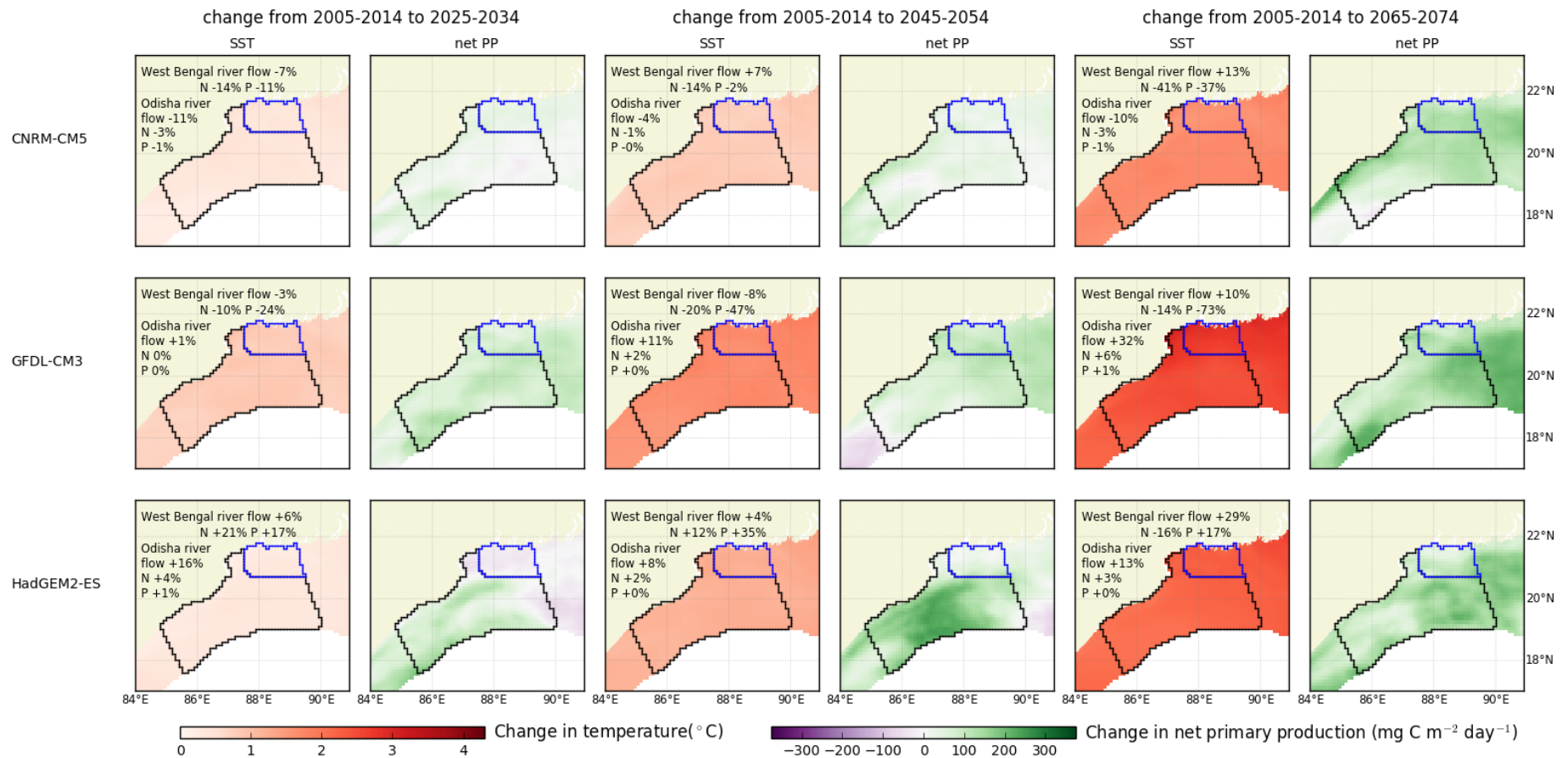
Table 1

Differences in the physico-chemical parameters of three climatic scenarios during different time spans of the 21st century used in the physico-biogeochemical models

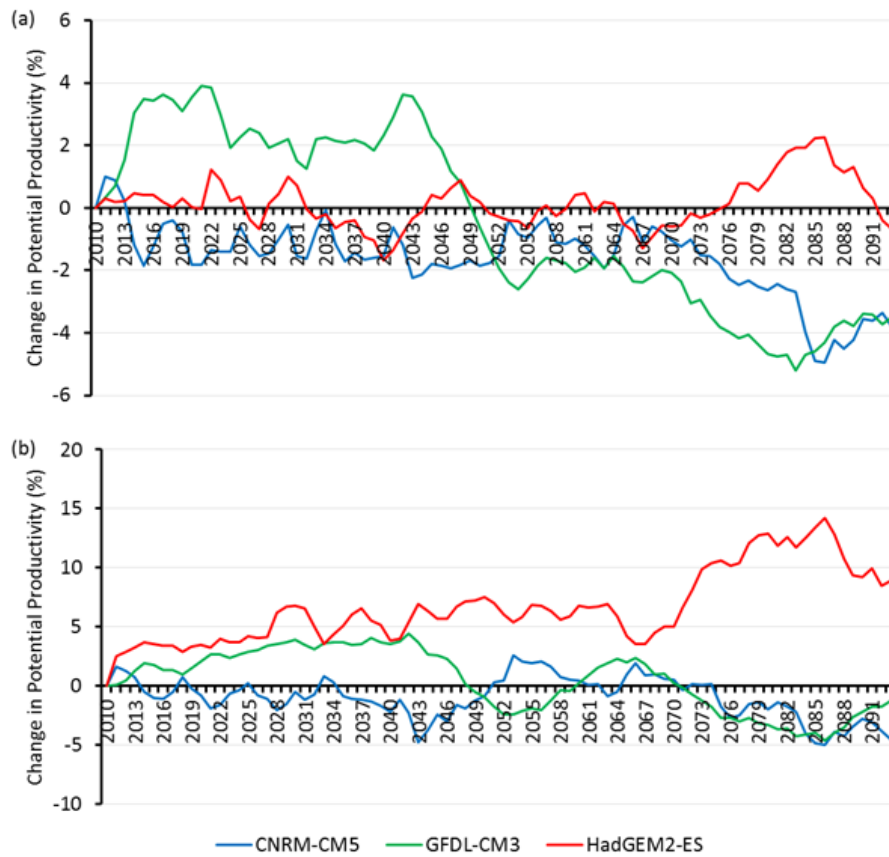
	Area	Climate Scenario	2005-2014	2025-2034	2045-2054	2065-2074	2025-2034 2045-2054 2065-2074 (change from 2005-2014)*		
SST (°C)	West Bengal	CNRM-CM5	26.7	27.1	27.5	28.3	0.4	0.8	1.6
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		CNRM-CM5	1806.1	1840.0	1836.0	1938.2	1.9	1.7	7.3
SST (°C)	Odisha	CNRM-CM5	26.9	27.3	27.7	28.6	0.4	0.9	1.7
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		CNRM-CM5	1641.7	1665.1	1682.9	1746.1	1.4	2.5	6.4
SST (°C)	West Bengal	GFDL-CM3	27.1	27.9	28.8	29.8	0.8	1.7	2.7
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		GFDL-CM3	1940.0	2024.2	2047.4	2087.9	4.3	5.5	7.6
SST (°C)	Odisha	GFDL-CM3	27.5	28.3	29.1	29.9	0.8	1.6	2.4
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		GFDL-CM3	1759.9	1843.9	1829.0	1895.4	4.8	3.9	7.7
SST (°C)	West Bengal	HadGEM2-ES	27.5	27.8	28.7	29.8	0.3	1.2	2.3
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		HadGEM2-ES	1857.5	1846.1	1919.2	1971.9	-0.6	3.3	6.2
SST (°C)	Odisha	HadGEM2-ES	27.6	28.0	28.8	29.7	0.3	1.2	2.1
Net PP (mgC/m ² /d)		HadGEM2-ES	1371.0	1432.8	1520.6	1497.6	4.5	10.9	9.2

SST= Sea surface temperature; Net PP= Net primary productivity.

Change in SST and Net PP in °C and % respectively.



367
 368 **Fig. 5.** Projected change in sea surface temperature (SST), net primary productivity (net PP), and river flow of the two delta regions for 2025-
 369 2034, 2045-2054 and 2065-2074 time spans compared with values for 2005-2014 as baseline data. The change in nitrate (N) and phosphate (P)
 370 river loads over the two studied regions are shown in the panels.



371

372 **Fig. 6.** Change in fisheries potential total productivity of the Bay of Bengal off West Bengal
 373 (a) and Odisha (b) under different climate scenarios during the 21st century.

374

375 Though the size-spectrum models produce good results with limited data demands,
 376 these models do not provide a projection of the potential catch for a specific fish species,
 377 because the model does not account for the specific interactions between an individual fish
 378 species and its surrounding environmental factors. Hence, to understand the impact of
 379 different fishing scenarios at species level the SS-DBEM model was run for mackerel tuna,
 380 Indian mackerel, Bombay duck, Indian oil sardine, hilsa, and threadfin bream (Table 2). The
 381 comparisons were performed with respect to the year 2010 since both the state fisheries
 382 started overexploiting the marine fish resources during that time in their respective EEZs.
 383 Indian mackerel, Bombay duck, and threadfin bream showed an increase in respective
 384 percent change in potential catches throughout the simulations when sustainable

Table 2

Decadal change in potential production of the selected fish species in the two states according to different fishing scenarios using the 2011-2020 BAU as the base scenario (present scenario)

Fishing Scenarios	West Bengal			Odisha		
	2020s-2010s Δ Catch (%)	2030s-2010s Δ Catch (%)	2040s-2010s Δ Catch (%)	2020s-2010s Δ Catch (%)	2030s-2010s Δ Catch (%)	2040s-2010s Δ Catch (%)
Mackerel Tuna						
Present BAUto MSY	-23.5±27.1	-47.1±16.7	-70.7±10.4	-25.7±11.6	-37±6.9	-53.1±8.4
Present BAUto BAU	-32±25.3	-49±15.6	-71.1±10.8	-17.4±13.2	-28.9±7.4	-46.4±10.1
Present BAUto OF	-47.2±19	-62±12.1	-76.4±9.3	-24.9±12.5	-35.2±7.1	-51.1±9.7
Indian Mackerel						
Present BAUto MSY	40.4±23.1	4.9±17.4	-31.2±13.2	151.3±71.6	111.4±38.5	43.9±24.7
Present BAUto BAU	-20±12.3	-37.3±7.2	-71.1±13.9	-14.5±27.2	-28.1±20.1	58±11.3
Present BAUto OF	-33.8±5.9	-66.3±5.1	-72.1±1.7	-95±4.4	-97.5±2.5	-98.9±1.3
Bombay Duck						
Present BAUto MSY	35.6±5.6	28.3±4.6	19.3±4.7	36.5±5.4	29±3.9	20.9±4.2
Present BAUto BAU	-0.8±4.1	-5.1±3	-10.6±3.5	-1.5±4.1	-6.8±2.9	-11.4±3.5
Present BAUto OF	-36.2±2.6	-39±2.1	-42.2±2.1	-40.2±3.1	-42.7±2.2	-47.7±1.6
Indian Oil Sardine						
Present BAUto MSY	-	-	-	-9.4±16	-24.3±11.6	-35.9±15.5
Present BAUto BAU	-	-	-	-1.9±18.4	-16.6±12.9	-27.3±16.6
Present BAUto OF	-	-	-	-12.1±16.4	-23.8±11.4	-33.7±13.6
Hilsa						
Present BAUto MSY	-24.0±25.4	-30.1±11.0	-51.4±18.6	-2.2±31.9	-3.6±15.8	-33.3±23.6
Present BAUto BAU	-26.9±22.6	-28.1±8.8	-50.3±20.5	-23.2±24.6	-21.6±12.7	-44.5±20.0
Present BAUto OF	-39.0±17.1	-35.5±8.1	-56.7±18.8	-58.0±14.2	-57.3±9.6	-65.6±10.4
Threadfin Bream						
Present BAUto MSY	9.1±9	7.3±8.1	-4.2±8.2	26.4±10.8	26.8±9.7	22.4±14.1
Present BAUto BAU	-7.6±8.4	-9±7.7	-18.5±7.4	-3.8±8.3	-3±7.4	-3.2±15.7
Present BAUto OF	-36.1±5.9	-37.1±5.3	-43.4±5.4	-36.4±5.1	-36.1±5.3	-32±17.6

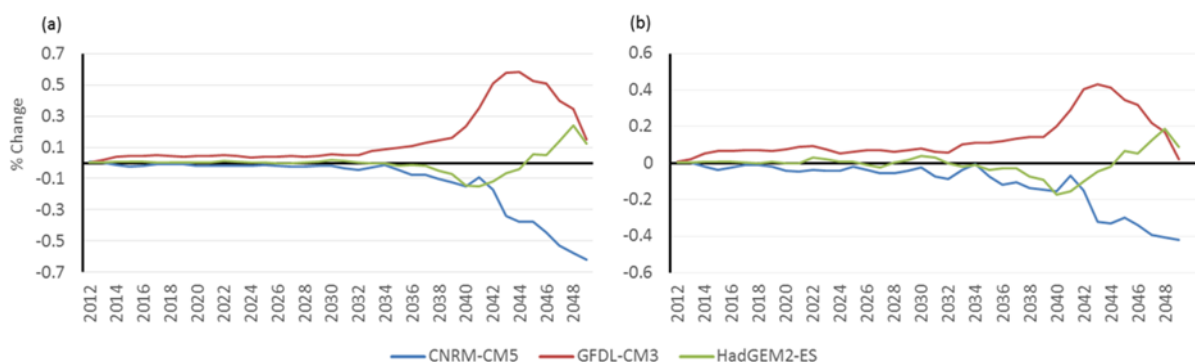
386 fishing measures were applied to the fishery (present BAU to future MSY). However, moving
 387 towards the overfishing scenario (present BAU to future BAU and future OF) where no such
 388 fishing regulations were applied, all these fisheries projected reduced catch for both the
 389 states. Mackerel tuna, Indian oil sardine, and hilsa showed reduced catch potential
 390 throughout all the fishing scenarios.

391

392 3.3 Economic Model

393 The change in households' aggregate consumption is commonly used as a proxy of the
 394 impact of different scenarios on welfare. For the West Bengal delta, following the results of
 395 the CNRM-CM5 model, the results of the simulations with the Delta-CGE model show a
 396 0.67% reduction in households' consumption by 2050 with respect to BAU (Fig. 7a). Though
 397 this might seem to be a small change, in 2011 the aggregate consumption was 26 billion
 398 USD and is projected to be 123 billion USD in 2050. Hence, for the CNRM-CM5 model, the
 399 0.67% would mean a reduction in consumption of 0.8 billion USD in 2050. Moreover,
 400 according to the model projections, this reduction in consumption would occur even with
 401 the best management scenario.

402 The change in the GDP is also a common approximation to the economic impacts of
 403 changes. In this case we observe that the effects in terms of GDP are lower than in terms of
 404 aggregate consumption (Fig. 7b), ranging from a reduction of 0.4% under the CNRM-CM5
 405 model in 2050 to a slight increase under HadGEM2-ES model (+0.1%). Despite these
 406 apparent low and erratic changes, the CNRM-CM5 modelling involves a loss of 1.7 billion
 407 USD in 2050, as indicated by the -0.4% change of the GDP.



408

409 **Fig. 7.** Changes in yearly households' aggregated consumption (a) and GDP (b) for the IBD in
 410 West Bengal according to the Delta-CGE model, under different climate scenarios.

411 4. Discussion

412 This study shows the potential impact of climate change and different forms of
413 management on fish and fisheries catches for West Bengal and Odisha up to the mid-21st
414 century, combining projections of regional climate models, associated river runoff statistics,
415 nutrient loading volumes, and ecological models. The impact of different fishing scenarios
416 and the global environmental change were modelled in this study producing some insight
417 into the sustainability of the fishery and food provision of the six selected marine fish
418 species up to 2050.

419 Our results show that sea surface temperature increases by 4°C towards the end of
420 the 21st century, which is consistent with both the global study by Bopp et al. (2013) and the
421 regional study by Fernandes et al. (2015) of the Bangladesh EEZ. Similarly our models
422 project an increase in the net PP for the two studied regions (West Bengal and Odisha) at
423 the end of the 21st century (from 2005-2014 to 2065-2074; Table 1). The net PP and SST
424 show a positive trend for both the states, however, they showed weak correlation with
425 nitrate and phosphate loads. Estuaries and nearshore coastal waters are transition regions
426 which experience high volume freshwater inflow, dissolved nutrients and organic matters
427 from the rivers of surrounding areas, resulting in high productivity (Laane et al., 2005).
428 However, Das et al. (2017) studied the nutrient dynamics of northern Bay of Bengal (nBoB)
429 of West Bengal and reported this region as phosphate-limited during post-monsoon and
430 light-limited for the rest of the year resulting in lower primary production. All the three
431 models used in the present work show an increase of net PP for West Bengal and Odisha
432 (Figure 4), indicating that the increase of primary production in the studied regions is more
433 influenced by temperature and other meteorological conditions rather than river nutrient
434 loading.

435 Although the net PP increases by about 7% at the end of the 21st century, the change
436 in potential fish production for West Bengal and Odisha is not marked. This may be
437 attributed to an increase in sea temperature and its indirect effect on fish size decreasing,
438 leading, as a consequence, to reduced overall fish biomass (Queiros et al., 2018). Studies
439 using simple size-spectrum models have shown that an increase of 2°C temperature can
440 reduce total fish biomass by 20% (Jennings et al., 2008; Fernandes et al., 2015).

441 According to fisheries statistics reports, catches for West Bengal decreased by 2%
442 between 2000 and 2016; while for Odisha, with a larger potential fishing area within the

443 EEZ, the catches increased by 26% (DoF, W.B., 2016; DoES, Odisha, 2016). During the same
444 period, the number of boats increased by 6.8 fold from 2002 to 2016, indicating high fishing
445 pressure on the marine fish stocks of both states. Among the six fish species selected for our
446 study, the catches of hilsa, Bombay duck and Indian oil sardine showed a decreasing trend
447 over this time period probably as an effect of overfishing. The BOBLME report (BOBLME,
448 2010) on the status of hilsa management in the Bay of Bengal suggests that the hilsa stock in
449 the Indian waters is overexploited and recommend the need for age structure study and
450 stock assessment to protect this species. In addition, a more recent study (Das et al. 2018a)
451 reported over-exploitation of the hilsa stock, with catches exceeding the maximum
452 sustainable yield (MSY) limits in the nBoB region of West Bengal. A similar observation for
453 the hilsa population was reported by Amin et al. (2008) off the Bangladesh coast. Both these
454 studies advocated the need for a reduction in the number of fishing fleets operating in the
455 respective regions to sustain the hilsa fishery. Ghosh et al. (2015) studied the stock status of
456 the exploited fishery resources of nBoB and reported that 56.1% of the stocks are fully-
457 exploited while 36.8% of the stocks are over-exploited. This alarming state of these stocks in
458 addition to our results highlight the need to implement long-lasting fishery management
459 plans in our study areas.

460 The results from the SS-DBEM model combined with environmental changes and
461 management scenarios indicated that the management plans taken up in the coming
462 decade are crucial for achieving sustainable fisheries. Projections indicated that the
463 potential catches of mackerel tuna, Indian oil sardine, and hilsa will be drastically reduced
464 for both states despite the application of management strategies (Table 2). Potential
465 production of hilsa was projected to decrease by around 50% at the end of the 2050s for
466 both West Bengal and Odisha. Mackerel tuna also showed a reduction by 72% and 50% for
467 West Bengal and Odisha respectively, irrespective of the level of exploitation. This marked
468 reduction in potential production would have a critical impact on the local economy
469 associated with these fisheries. Fishermen will be negatively impacted and will need to shift
470 into other livelihood options (Hossain et al., 2013; Nicholls et al., 2013). Being a highly
471 prized fish due to its extraordinary market demand and unique taste, reduced availability of
472 hilsa would impact the common people of the two states as well as the entire country
473 (Bladon et al., 2016). Most of the mackerel tuna catch is exported to foreign countries while
474 Indian oil sardine has significant market demand in the southern states of India. On the

475 other hand, Indian mackerel, Bombay duck, and threadfin bream population showed
476 increased production under the sustainable management scenario (MSY). Their production
477 reduced significantly under the business as usual (BAU) and overfishing (OF) scenarios as
478 shown in Table 2.

479 As well as the direct effect of changes in environmental conditions, changes in the
480 structure of the food web due to fishing activity, as also observed by Anh et al. (2015), are
481 consistent with our findings. Hilsa and Indian oil sardine are primarily herbivorous species
482 which feed on plankton, crustaceans, detritus, and algae (Dutta et al., 2014; Ahirwal et al.,
483 2018). Hilsa is a preferred food for a range of predators such as Bombay duck (*Harpodon*
484 *nehereus*), ribbon fish (*Trichiurus lepturus*), wolf herring (*Chirocentrus dorab*), sharks, tuna,
485 seer fish (*Scomberomorus guttatus*), catfish (*Arius arius*), lizard fish (*Saurida tumbil*), and
486 cephalopods. Bombay duck is ranked among the top predators of the nBoB ecosystem off
487 West Bengal (Das et al., 2018b). With a trophic level (TL) of 3.71, Bombay duck has diverse
488 prey options in the nBoB ecosystem, such as ribbon fish, croakers (*Otolithescuvieri*), hilsa
489 (*Tenualosailisha*), anchovy (*Coiliadussumieri*), sardines (*Sardinella fimbriata*), penaeid
490 prawns and cephalopods (Das et al., 2018b). Likewise, threadfin bream (TL 3.35) also has a
491 diverse range of prey, and having a range of alternative food options might make the
492 Bombay duck and threadfin bream populations more resilient to changes in trophic
493 interaction patterns. Whereas, being a preferred food for many of the upper TL fish species
494 in the Bay of Bengal, hilsa production is more sensitive to the fluctuations of predator
495 abundance and changes in the marine food chain. Fernandes et al. (2015) reported similar
496 findings from the Bangladesh EEZ. According to that study, the potential catch of hilsa was
497 projected to reduce by around 25% and 95% by the end of 2060 under MSY and overfishing
498 scenarios respectively.

499 Both the states, West Bengal and Odisha, are dependent on fisheries not only in
500 terms of catches and exports, but also for nutrition: a significant amount of fish is consumed
501 within the states. Having some species already at the level of overexploitation (e.g. hilsa),
502 the challenge for these areas is enormous, since even under the best management, the total
503 productivity of the system could decrease. The decreasing catch, in particular for low-cost
504 species such as Indian mackerel and Indian oil sardine would adversely affect the coastal
505 communities, because these species make up most of the consumption and catch in these
506 regions. In the whole Indian mainland EEZ, the highest catch is recorded for Indian oil

507 sardine (more than 300 thousand tonnes) followed by Bombay duck (more than 100
508 thousand tonnes) and Indian mackerel (more than 60 thousand tonnes) (Hornby et al.,
509 2015; Zeller and Pauly, 2015; Meara et al., 2011; Zeller and Pauly, 2014). Loss of low-cost
510 fisheries tends to affect the low-income coastal population more strongly since they are
511 more dependent on these species for protein intake (Beveridge et al., 2013; Belton and
512 Thilsted, 2014; Thilsted et al., 2016). Hence, a decrease in the catch potential of the
513 relatively low-priced species may notably affect the consumption and livelihoods of the
514 studied regions.

515 According to Harrod et al. (2018), small-scale fishers and aquaculture farmers are
516 particularly vulnerable to climate change. Globally, the price of indigenous small fish species
517 from capture fisheries systems which are nutrient-rich and mostly consumed by the poor
518 has shown a sharply rising trend (Belton et al., 2014; Toufique and Belton, 2014). Since 90%
519 of the coastal fishermen are engaged in small-scale fishing, fish processing, and marketing,
520 they form the proportion of the population with most prevalent poverty (Béné, Macfadyen,
521 and Allison, 2007) and are most vulnerable to climate change. Formulating policies to
522 achieve the SDGs for these populations is a complex task for the policymakers as greater
523 obstacles are often faced while building adaptive capacity in poorer communities and in
524 poor countries (IPCC, 2014c). In our study regions population growth, irrigation needs,
525 heavy metal and waste pollution, habitat modification and destruction, illegal fishing, lack of
526 adequate infrastructure and skills further impede the ability of poorer people to adapt
527 (Fernandes, 2018). Reducing the capacity of the boats would probably help to recover the
528 over-exploited marine fish stocks to a sustainable state, but that would need further
529 attention based not only on capacity but also on projected future trends from climate and
530 biogeochemical models (Fernandes, 2018). Furthermore, climate change adaptation in the
531 fisheries and aquaculture sector is a governance challenge, where different level and sectors
532 of government, civil society, community organization, and academia need to interact to
533 formulate and implement different pathways and policies (Bavinck et al., 2011; Kooiman et
534 al., 2005; Kalikoski et al. 2018). Several adaptive strategies are available to improve small-
535 scale fisheries and fish farmers (Miller et al., 2018). Risk-informed and shock-responsive
536 social protection schemes are key to reducing the impacts of climate change on poor
537 communities (Winder et al., 2017). The national framework for emergency response and
538 disaster risk reduction can act as a key instrument to uplift the economic condition of the

539 fishers and fish farmers when implemented properly at each level of the institutional
540 hierarchy. Insurance schemes can provide social safety for those in extreme poverty by
541 increasing their resilience and robustness. The coastal communities need to be empowered
542 organizationally and with knowledge (Kalikoski et al. 2018). Cooperation and coordination of
543 all climate-related policies and actions are required to build a collective resilience in the
544 coastal population.

545

546 **5. Conclusions**

547 Impacts of climate change and management options on the potential marine fish
548 production was studied for West Bengal and Odisha for the 21st century. Coastal population
549 of both the states are dependent on fisheries as a source of livelihood and nutrition.
550 Combined study of the regional climate models, river runoff statistics, nutrient loading, and
551 ecological models provided an insight into the sustainability of the regional marine fishery
552 and food provision of six selected fish species. The study showed that the net primary
553 productivity in the Indian Bengal delta and Mahanadi delta was more influenced by
554 temperature rather than nutrient load. Projections indicated, increased sea surface
555 temperature in this deltaic region masked the positive impact of net primary productivity on
556 the future fish productions. Reduced potential production would have critical impact on the
557 local economy. Owing the extraordinary market demand and unique taste of hilsa, its
558 reduced availability would impact the local fishermen and common people of the two states
559 as well as the entire country. Overall, the adverse impact of climate change on marine
560 fisheries would mostly affect the low-income coastal population of both the states since
561 fishery products are one of the major livelihood options for these population.

562 Non-inclusion of several specific adaptive measures and other regulatory factors (as
563 mentioned earlier) which might have a key role for sustaining the fishery in the future even
564 in the face of climate change is the major limitation of the model we used. Despite this
565 limitation, the results presented this work can be considered as an initial step towards
566 achieving the information needed to manage a sustainable fishery in West Bengal and
567 Odisha. It is evident from the present study that climate change is working as an additional
568 pressure on the already overexploited fisheries resources of the present study area. In order
569 to mitigate and adapt to the changing climatic conditions, the fishery resources should be
570 managed and regulated appropriately to achieve sustainability. Along with that, the

571 generation of alternative livelihood options for the coastal population is also required.
572 Hence, integrated models as used in the present work should be further studied with
573 innovative management options formulated for the practical field use.

574

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