

Narratives Can Motivate Environmental Action: The Whiskey Creek Ocean Acidification Story

R. Kelly

Assistant Professor

School of Marine and Environmental Affairs

University of Washington

3707 Brooklyn Ave. NE

Seattle, WA 98105-6715

Phone: 206-616-0185

Fax: 206-543-1417

Email: rpkelly@uw.edu

and

Visiting Fellow

Center for Ocean Solutions

473 Via Ortega, Room 193

Stanford, CA 94305

S. Cooley

Research Associate III

Department of Marine Chemistry & Geochemistry

Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution

266 Woods Hole Road

Woods Hole, MA 02543

T. Klinger

Associate Professor

School of Marine and Environmental Affairs

3707 Brooklyn Ave. NE

University of Washington

Seattle, WA 98105-6715

KEYWORDS: Environmental Decisionmaking, Social-Ecological Systems, Human Dimensions,

Narratives, Marine Policy

1 **Abstract**

2 Even when environmental data quantify the risks and benefits of delayed responses to rapid
3 anthropogenic change, institutions rarely respond promptly. We propose that narratives
4 complementing environmental datasets can motivate responsive environmental policy. To explore
5 this idea, we relate a case study in which a narrative of economic loss due to regionally rapid ocean
6 acidification—an anthropogenic change—helped connect knowledge with action. We pose three
7 hypotheses to explain why narratives might be particularly effective in linking science to
8 environmental policy, drawing from the literature of economics, environmental policy, and
9 cognitive psychology. It seems that yet-untold narratives may hold similar potential for
10 strengthening the feedback between environmental data and policy and motivating regional
11 responses to other environmental problems.

12 **Introduction**

13

14 Human activities change natural systems and alter the ecosystem services those systems
15 provide to society (Vitousek et al. 1997; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005). As these
16 environmental changes multiply, the need to develop and implement appropriate and effective
17 institutional responses grows accordingly (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005). Despite
18 recognition of this need, only rarely do institutions respond in a timely way, even when
19 environmental data indicate the need for swift action. The result is an inefficient or dysfunctional
20 feedback loop between human societies and the larger ecological systems of which they are a part.
21 Knowledge alone has long been acknowledged as insufficient to motivate action, creating a
22 disconnect that is widely lamented but poorly understood, despite active research across a diverse
23 suite of fields ranging from sociology to human geography to cognitive psychology (e.g., Lorenzoni
24 et al. 2007; Poortinga et al. 2004; Stern 2002).

25 Often the source of the science-policy disconnect is a lack of credible assessment of the costs
26 and benefits of responsive action relative to inaction. But even when data are available to estimate
27 the probable economic impact of environmental change, they tend not to lead to consensus
28 regarding the economic costs or benefits of altering the current course of action (Johnson and Hope
29 2012). Consequently, strictly economic evaluations are of limited use in shaping environmental
30 policy (Laurans et al. 2013) and do not reduce the temporal mismatch between environmental data
31 sufficiency and policy action. For many longstanding and emerging environmental challenges—
32 climate change, ocean acidification, emissions of reactive sulfur and nitrogen compounds (SOx and

33 NOx), and point- and non-point source water pollution—knowing what changes societies must
34 make and the costs associated with making those changes still does not result in action to
35 implement change. In short, even fairly sophisticated knowledge does not result in action.

36 Here we relate a case study in which a narrative of economic loss due to environmental
37 change made a significant political and popular impact, helping to connect knowledge with action.
38 We propose that because narratives powerfully illustrate the tight coupling of human and natural
39 systems, they can motivate responsive environmental policy, effectively improving social feedback
40 to natural systems. Consequently, identifying and communicating narratives that are tightly
41 coupled to scientific assessments of environmental change could be an especially useful tool to help
42 overcome the barriers that hinder national- and subnational-scale responses to global-scale
43 environmental challenges.

44 We define “narrative” as “communication that describes specific experiences of characters
45 [i.e., individuals] over time,” (Dahlstrom and Ho 2012) consistent with existing literature on
46 narrative science communication. We contrast this with expository communication—such as peer-
47 reviewed scientific literature—that rarely focuses on the experiences of individuals, and generally
48 conveys distributional or abstracted information. The evidence suggests that narratives can
49 contribute more than just memorable anecdotes to environmental science. These real stories, in
50 which individuals experience some gain or loss of ecosystem services and personal well-being or
51 livelihoods as a result of an environmental change, help bring scientific and statistical projections to
52 life, especially for ecosystem services that are less easily valued.

53 The particular narrative we explore here—commonly referred to as “the Whiskey Creek
54 story” (WC)—brought media and political attention to the problem of ocean acidification in
55 Washington and Oregon (USA). Ocean acidification is one example of a globally driven
56 anthropogenic change with regional consequences (Gattuso and Hansson 2011) that can be
57 exacerbated locally by natural or anthropogenic conditions (Doney 2010). Reducing both global CO₂
58 emissions and local confounding conditions requires political action at regional and national scales
59 (Kelly et al. 2011). But a barrier between knowledge and action exists: the political incentives for
60 action at national or subnational scales are absent, despite knowledge of the global problem and
61 awareness of possible solutions. Among scientists, ocean acidification had been recognized as a
62 consequence of rising atmospheric CO₂ as early as the 1970s (Zimen and Altenhein 1973; Fairhall
63 1973; Fairhall and Erickson 1975), but not until individuals in Washington and Oregon experienced
64 measurable economic losses did popular awareness and political will begin to grow on a sub-

65 national scale. The WC story was prominent in the political response from the Washington State
66 Governor's office, contributing to the creation of a Blue Ribbon Panel on Ocean Acidification and to
67 the Executive Order that followed.

68 After recounting this story, we identify key aspects of the narrative that seemed to accelerate
69 political response and that might be applicable to other environmental issues in other locations and
70 at different times. We suggest the narrative form of information disproportionately influenced the
71 policy response in this case, and we pose three hypotheses to explain why such narratives might be
72 particularly effective in linking science to environmental policy, drawing from the literature of
73 economics, environmental policy, and cognitive psychology, respectively. Our purpose in this brief
74 piece is not to present an exhaustive treatment of these ideas or fully test these hypotheses, but
75 instead to highlight opportunities for analysis that might clarify how this linkage between social
76 and ecological systems operates in environmental science. Our goal is to encourage future
77 substantive interaction between research in the natural and physical sciences and research in the
78 policy and social science spheres, with the goal of making environmental policy more responsive to
79 observed changes in the biophysical world.

80 **Case study: The Whiskey Creek Story in Three Parts**

81 **1) The narrative**

82 Sue Cudd and her husband Mark Weigardt own and run the Whiskey Creek shellfish hatchery (WC)
83 in Netarts Bay, Oregon providing about 75% of the juvenile oyster spat used in the commercial
84 aquaculture of Pacific oysters along the west coast of the U.S. (Dewey and Warren 2011). In
85 providing oyster spat to the shellfish aquaculture industry, WC occupies a position between the
86 marine environment (which influences conditions in the hatchery) and the socio-economic system
87 in which the shellfish industry is embedded. Hence, WC links ecological and social systems (*sensu*
88 Liu et al. 2007). Shellfish growers directly and indirectly employ about 3,200 people in the state of
89 Washington (Washington State Blue Ribbon Panel on Ocean Acidification 2012), and the industry
90 provides to the region an estimated total economic benefit of \$278M (Barton et al. 2012). In 2006,
91 the hatchery's cultured larvae experienced up to 80% mortality. Mortalities of around 75%
92 persisted beyond 2006 (Figure 1), and by 2008, it was clear that larval mortality events coincided
93 with periods of strong coastal upwelling that transported CO₂-rich water from depth to the surface.
94 WC staff collaborated with Oregon State University scientists and others to initiate a water

95 monitoring program in the hatchery. The hatchery since has installed sophisticated monitoring
96 equipment to avoid drawing acidified water into the hatchery during spawning events, thereby
97 reducing the vulnerability of the larvae. As a consequence, larval production has increased from
98 25% of historical levels in 2008 to 60% or 70% in 2012 (Tobias 2012). Throughout this process,
99 hatchery operators openly discussed the larval mortality problem, the research and monitoring
100 they had performed in response, and the practices they had devised to reduce their vulnerability to
101 upwelling events. Their story has been repeated numerous times in outlets ranging from the
102 popular media to professional and academic societies and now is widely known among those
103 working on problems of ocean acidification (Branch et al. 2013; Flato 2013; Satran 2012;
104 Grossman 2011; Leonard 2012; Bonfils 2010; Kaufman 2012)(Figure 1).

105

106 ***2) The Scientific Data***

107

108 As WC operators were addressing larval mortality in the hatchery, the general scientific
109 understanding of ocean acidification was growing exponentially (e.g., Chapter 1 in Gattuso and
110 Hansson 2011). Oceanographers previously had determined that about 33%-50% of the CO₂ that
111 has been emitted from the burning of fossil fuels has been absorbed by the ocean (Sabine et al.
112 2004; Khatiwala et al. 2012; Gattuso and Hansson 2011)). The reaction of carbon dioxide with
113 water molecules to form carbonic acid already was known to cause seawater pH and carbonate ion
114 concentrations to decline. New analyses determined that the rate of decline in ocean pH since the
115 start of the Industrial Revolution has been faster than at any time in the past 300 million years or
116 more (Hönisch et al. 2012).

117 Furthermore, since about the year 2000, biologists repeatedly have demonstrated that this
118 fundamental alteration of seawater chemistry has negative consequences for calcification,
119 reproduction, survival, and growth of numerous marine organisms, particularly bivalve molluscs
120 and reef-building corals (reviewed in Kroeker et al. 2010; Kroeker et al. 2013). In 2008, a
121 landmark paper described in quantitative terms the advance of ocean acidification on the
122 continental shelf of the Pacific Northwest (Feely et al. 2008), exactly where the multi-million dollar
123 Pacific oyster industry is located. This paper provided vital new scientific information and has been
124 widely cited by scientists. However, a comprehensive search of newspaper articles shows that in
125 the Pacific Northwest, the Whiskey Creek story gained attention in the popular press more quickly
126 over a short time than did the work of Feely (Figure 2). The much more rapid spread of the Whiskey

127 Creek story coincided with with—and, we argue, contributed to—the adoption of new policy in
128 Washington State, while the spread of other regionally important data on the effects of ocean
129 acidification—such as work pertaining to pteropod dissolution—was comparatively slower (Figure
130 2). No other such story emerged with respect to the effects of ocean acidification on the west coast,
131 nor did any such stories emerge elsewhere in the U.S. The singularity and salience of the WC story is
132 indicated by its repetition throughout the country (Schleifstein 2013). Hence we view the Whiskey
133 Creek story as being more salient in influencing public opinion than much of the other important
134 scientific work that arose at the same time, work which is generally presented in a expository, non-
135 narrative format lacking the human focus of the WC narrative.

136

137 ***3) The Role of Narrative and Scientific Data in Shaping Political Action in Washington***

138 The recognition of ocean acidification as a major environmental concern coincided with
139 publicity of the larval failures at WC. The narrative developed around the WC story accorded well
140 with the new scientific data delivered by oceanographers. The WC narrative quickly became a
141 “sticky” story of the emerging phenomenon of OA, the effects of which are otherwise subtle and
142 mostly unobservable to those outside the field. We observed that additional factors, some
143 idiosyncratic, contributed to the success of the narrative in garnering attention: 1) the shellfish
144 aquaculture industry is well-established in Washington state, where shellfish have substantial
145 economic and cultural value; 2) larval mortalities in the hatchery were of concern to a multi-state
146 commercial shellfish industry because spat produced by the hatchery constitute the beginning of
147 the oyster aquaculture supply chain; 3) coastal native tribes were engaged via their interest in
148 protecting shellfish resources to which they retain reserved rights; 4) the economic recession
149 focused attention on saving jobs and local economies; and 5) Washington state’s Governor Gregoire
150 was willing to recognize and address the problem.

151 The WC narrative in combination with the supporting scientific data was essential in
152 motivating subsequent actions in Washington State. We base this assertion on our first-hand
153 observations of the process in Washington state, and on the fact that although comparable scientific
154 data are (and were) available for other regions in the U.S.—such as Maine (Salisbury et al. 2008;
155 Green et al. 2009), the Chesapeake Bay region (Waldbusser et al. 2011), and Alaska (Fabry et al.
156 2009)—in no other region has political action been taken commensurate with that in Washington.
157 Simply put, in other regions, the existence of scientific data was not sufficient to compel action. In
158 Washington, ocean acidification threatened to undermine Governor Gregoire’s larger goals with

159 respect to sustaining and improving shellfish aquaculture and restoration, water quality, and
160 recreational opportunities in Washington state as established in the Washington Shellfish Initiative
161 (2011; aligned with NOAA's National Shellfish Initiative established the same year), and the WC
162 story offered a compelling example of the threat. Among the pivotal responses that followed were
163 public presentations on causes and consequences of ocean acidification made by representatives of
164 industry, science, and government; formation, by the Governor, of a Blue Ribbon Panel on Ocean
165 Acidification, established under the Washington Shellfish Initiative and commended by NOAA
166 Administrator Lubchenco; strategic composition of the Panel to include representatives from
167 industry, NGOs, state and federal agencies, elected officials, and scientists; intensely collaborative
168 work by Panel members to establish the scientific basis for action in Washington state and
169 appropriate remedies that could be applied; and consensus recommendations made by the Panel to
170 the Governor that resulted in Executive Order 12-07 "Washington's Response to Ocean
171 Acidification", specifying several concrete actions to be taken by the state. Every one of the relevant
172 public documents—including the Blue Ribbon Panel's charter, the Panel's final Report, the scientific
173 and policy reports written in support of the Panel's work, and the Executive Order—referenced the
174 failure of the larval oyster supply from Whiskey Creek.

175 What attributes of the WC narrative transformed it from a simple story of stress in a local,
176 family-owned business to a case that motivated action at the level of regional government? How did
177 the WC story avoid dismissal as an unfortunate alignment of biophysical and social factors? We
178 suggest that this story gained critical traction because it featured identifiable and sympathetic
179 characters—real people—with both the capacity and the willingness to share their story outside
180 the boundaries of their community, and because their story was consistent with the effects
181 predicted by a growing body of biophysical data. WC personified the economic impacts of one
182 specific form of environmental change—ocean acidification—and did so in a credible and accessible
183 way. The narrative arc thus constructed was perceived to clearly link a specific environmental
184 change to effects on real people, the small but important local industry that they support, and the
185 provision of food from the sea.

186

187 **Identifying General Lessons from the Whiskey Creek Story**

188 The WC story emerged as a powerful means of translating environmental science into action.
189 Below, we pose three hypotheses—adapted from the literature in disciplines outside of those

190 familiar to many environmental scientists—that could explain the story's effect, and that could help
191 identify aspects of the narrative form that may be more broadly useful in linking environmental
192 knowledge to action. The importance of discount rates and of salience and accessibility of data are
193 established in the literatures of economics, environmental policy, and cognitive psychology,
194 respectively. We use these ideas to develop three hypotheses that can be used to test mechanisms
195 that promote the effectiveness of narratives in environmental policy. This is not an exhaustive set of
196 hypotheses, but instead represents a sampling of plausible ideas derived from the literature that
197 can be used to promote deeper analysis of the interactions between scientific data and policy action,
198 particularly by the natural and physical scientists who often generate the primary data upon which
199 policy may turn.

200 ***1) Narratives lower the discount applied to harms avoided.***

201

202 In economic terms, we suggest that narratives lower the discount rate applied to the analysis of
203 costs and benefits of policy action to ameliorate the probable impacts of environmental change,
204 moving the policy discourse from the theoretical distant future to the here-and-now. Narratives
205 clarify the benefits of harm-alleviation and harm-avoidance by reducing uncertainty about whether
206 or when, or to whom, environmental harm will occur (Frederick et al. 2002; Perrings 1991).
207 Reducing uncertainty, in turn, reduces the discount rate applied, and raises the net present value of
208 the future benefits expected from remedial environmental action today (Pindyck 2007), making
209 present-day action more attractive in cases where longer-term benefit would result. In effect,
210 narratives may have the power to raise and personalize the perceived costs of inaction. Where
211 narratives accurately ground theoretical harms that communities will experience from
212 environmental change or degradation in a real-world scenario, they could improve the cost-benefit
213 analyses (explicit or implicit) that accompany any policy discussion.

214 ***2) Narratives increase the salience of aggregate, statistical data for policymakers, improving
215 the probability of translating knowledge into action.***

216

217 Narratives appear to improve the usefulness of scientific knowledge by increasing the legitimacy,
218 credibility, and salience of information for decision-making (Clark et al. 2006; McNie 2007). This
219 insight comes from investigation of the types of information most likely to lead to policy change by
220 focusing on the attributes of useful knowledge (Clark et al. 2011; Mitchell et al. 2006). When social,

221 economic, or scientific information is simultaneously credible, legitimate, and salient, that
222 information is most likely to inform policy (Mitchell et al. 2006). Furthermore, “localizing” such
223 information—i.e., by moving science from the realm of large-scale trends towards particularized,
224 on-the-ground impacts—is likely to increase all three attributes of useful knowledge
225 simultaneously (Clark et al. 2006; Mitchell et al. 2006). In the WC case, we suggest that the
226 narrative was effective because it localized information about the global phenomenon of ocean
227 acidification, effectively inserting the science of ocean acidification into the feedback loop between
228 human and natural influences on the marine environment. This localization effect is consistent with
229 the observation that those with personal experience of flooding are more likely to be concerned
230 about climate change (Spence et al. 2011), and with the related idea that decreased “psychological
231 distance” between an audience and the subject being communicated (in this example, climate
232 change) leads to greater audience concern (Spence et al. 2012).

233 The analysis of narratives is a core tool in the social sciences, particularly for testing ideas
234 about the relationship between individuals and societies (Maynes et al. 2008). In political discourse
235 ranging from campaign speeches to presidential addresses, personal stories are featured as a means
236 of humanizing and personifying a theory or a challenge. These narratives are an attempt to catalyze
237 action by making the hypothetical real. Even in the context of environmental policy, narratives have
238 been shown to shape decisions about resource use, development, and conservation in powerful
239 ways—towards both productive and unproductive ends (Hoben 1995).

240

241 ***3) Narratives are the most directly digestible form of environmental data for policymakers and***
242 ***other relevant audiences.***

243

244 Narratives may be especially effective in linking knowledge to action for a third, more fundamental
245 reason. Information presented to an audience in narrative (rather than expository) format is
246 recalled approximately twice as well and absorbed about twice as quickly (Graesser et al. 2002,
247 discussing earlier work), and narrative information may ease the alteration of existing ideas (Oatley
248 et al. 2002). Psychologists differ regarding the mechanism governing this cognitive preference for
249 narrative learning, but it seems likely that narratives derive their power from their use of important
250 units of cognition (“schemas”) consisting of hierarchically-organized set pieces in the mind
251 (Mandler 1984). Complementary theories hold that narratives trigger existing knowledge in the
252 listener’s mind, reiterating consistent connections among events and objects (Schank and Berman

253 2002), or else that the listener more easily identifies with a narrated story and is thereby more
254 affected by it (Dal Cin et al. 2004; Green and Brock 2002).

255 Regardless of the precise mechanism, it seems “people are ‘wired’ to be especially sensitive
256 to information in narrative format” (Green and Brock 2002). This result applies broadly, from jury
257 decisionmaking in criminal cases (Pennington and Hastie 1993) to adult education (Clark and
258 Rossiter 2008). If learning is the process of assimilating new facts and existing experience into a
259 coherent whole, narratives are pre-processed bits of learning, already coherent and thereby quickly
260 digestible. Moreover, first-person narratives are more easily remembered than third person
261 narratives (Graesser et al. 2002); for the WC story, the first-person narratives told by hatchery
262 owners and operators were important to the power of the story. The role of narrative—such as the
263 WC story—may therefore be especially relevant to the research and practice of environmental
264 decisionmaking, being an effective means of simultaneously educating about and exemplifying an
265 ongoing problem.

266 Conclusion

267 The Whiskey Creek story—which came to prominence in 2009 and which is still consistently
268 cited in popular press reports on ocean acidification—served to “localize” the much more
269 comprehensive ocean acidification datasets then becoming available. In particular, the story
270 illustrated the real effects of increasingly corrosive coastal upwelling due to ocean acidification as
271 described for much of the west coast by Feely and colleagues (Feely et al. 2008). Our personal
272 observations suggest that this narrative of loss and economic vulnerability at least in part animated
273 and accelerated Washington State’s response to acidification and sparked discussion about local-
274 scale responses that can be pursued independently of international agreements on CO₂ emissions
275 reductions. Thus, the Whiskey Creek story provided the narrative for acidification in the Pacific
276 Northwest, while the work of scientists provided much of the data and scientific context, and the
277 Blue Ribbon Panel process provided the political outcome. We suggest that other, as yet untold,
278 narratives hold similar potential for strengthening the feedback between environmental data and
279 policy as they pertain to other environmental problems, and we hypothesize that such narratives
280 are a prerequisite for local or regional action to curb environmental degradation. At the same time,
281 we caution that, in the context of environmental problem-solving, narrative is powerful only when
282 thoroughly grounded in the necessary biophysical data; otherwise, it is simply storytelling.
283 Moreover, precisely because of the power of narrative, it is especially important that those claiming

284 to be honest brokers of scientific information consider the ethical implications of narrative vs.
285 expository communication (Dahlstrom and Ho 2012).

286 The specific combination of narrative plus credible scientific data forges a tool that can be
287 useful---even essential---in addressing the human impacts of environmental degradation through
288 policy intervention. We are optimistic that future research and collaboration that crosses
289 disciplinary lines will strengthen the feedback loop between environmental data and policy, in part
290 by clarifying the mechanisms by which narrative information influences political decisions.

291

292 **Figure 1:** Environmental and science events (above timeline) and policy events (below timeline)
293 associated with the WC story. “Corrosive” water observations documented in Feely et al. (2008); OA
294 linked to larval oyster failure in Barton et al. (2012). “BRP” refers to the Blue Ribbon Panel.

295

296 **Figure 2:** Cumulative number of stories in Washington and Oregon publications with the terms
297 “ocean acidification” and “pteropods,” “oysters,” “Richard Feely.” Mentions of the Whiskey Creek
298 story have sharply increased since mid-2009 to approximately equal the number of mentions of
299 Feely or pteropods, two keywords that have increased in frequency more slowly over a longer
300 period of time. Data from Westlaw comprehensive database of Oregon and Washington
301 newspapers.

302

303

304 **Acknowledgements**

305 The authors would like to thank COMPASS for the opportunity to participate in the ocean
306 acidification communications training in September 2012, from which the idea for this manuscript
307 derived. Two anonymous reviewers substantially improved the product, and the authors are
308 especially grateful for the thoughtful reviews that pointed out additional timely and relevant
309 literature that provided further context for the piece.

310

311

312 **Literature Cited**

313
314 Barton, A., B. Hales, G. G. Waldbusser, C. Langdon, and R. A. Feely. 2012. The Pacific oyster,
315 *Crassostrea gigas*, shows negative correlation to naturally elevated carbon dioxide levels:
316 Implications for near-term ocean acidification effects. *Limnology & Oceanography*, 57: 698-
317 710.

- 318 Bonfils, D., Year. Ocean acidification hits northwest oyster farms. *Good Morning America*, ABC News,
319 New York. (April 22, 2010).
- 320 Branch, T. A., B. M. DeJoseph, L. J. Ray, and C. A. Wagner. 2013. Impacts of ocean acidification on
321 marine seafood. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 28: 178-186.
- 322 Clark, M. C., and M. Rossiter. 2008. Narrative learning in adulthood. *New directions for adult and*
323 *continuing education*, 119: 61-70.
- 324 Clark, W. C., R. B. Mitchell, and D. W. Cash. 2006. Evaluating the influence of global environmental
325 assessments. In *Global Environmental Assessments: Information and Influence*, eds. R. B.
326 Mitchell, W. C. Clark, D. W. Cash, and N. M. Dickson. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 327 Clark, W. C., T. P. Tomich, M. van Noordwijk, D. Guston, D. Catacutan, N. M. Dickson, and E. McNie.
328 2011. Boundary work for sustainable development: Natural resource management at the
329 Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR). *Proceedings of the*
330 *National Academy of Sciences*.
- 331 Dahlstrom, M. F., and S. S. Ho. 2012. Ethical considerations of using narrative to communicate
332 science. *Science Communication*, 34: 592-617.
- 333 Dal Cin, S., M. P. Zanna, and G. T. Fong. 2004. Narrative persuasion and overcoming resistance. In
334 *Resistance and Persuasion*, eds. E. S. Knowles, and J. A. Linn, 175-191 pp. Mahwah, NJ:
335 Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- 336 Dewey, B., and B. Warren, 2011. A report from the front lines: the oyster seed crisis, (Conference
337 Paper: Seafood Summit, Vancouver).
- 338 Doney, S. C. 2010. The growing human footprint on coastal and open-ocean biogeochemistry.
339 *Science*, 328: 1512-1516.
- 340 Fabry, V. J., J. B. McClintock, J. T. Mathis, and J. M. Grebmeier. 2009. Ocean acidification at high
341 latitudes: the bellweather. *Oceanography*, 22: 160.
- 342 Fairhall, A. 1973. Accumulation of fossil CO₂ in the atmosphere and the sea. *Nature*, 245: 273-274.
- 343 Fairhall, A. W., and J. L. Erickson. 1975. Future impact of fossil CO₂ on the sea. *Nature*, 254: 273-274.
- 344 Feely, R. A., C. L. Sabine, J. M. Hernandez-Ayon, D. Ianson, and B. Hales. 2008. Evidence for upwelling
345 of corrosive "acidified" water onto the continental shelf. *Science*, 320: 1490-1492.
- 346 Flato, I., 2013. With climate change, no happy clams. *Talk of the Nation*, NPR, Washington, D.C. (June
347 14, 2013).
- 348 Frederick, S., G. Loewenstein, and T. O'Donoghue. 2002. Time discounting and time preference: A
349 critical review. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 40: 351-401.
- 350 Gattuso, J.-P., and L. Hansson. 2011. *Ocean acidification*. Oxford ; New York: Oxford University Press.
- 351 Graesser, A. C., B. Olde, B. Klettke, M. Green, J. Strange, and T. Brock. 2002. How does the mind
352 construct and represent stories? In *Narrative impact: Social and cognitive foundations*, eds. M.
353 Green, J. Strange, and T. Brock, 229-262 pp.: Taylor & Francis.
- 354 Green, M. A., G. G. Waldbusser, S. L. Reilly, and K. Emerson. 2009. Death by dissolution: sediment
355 saturation state as a mortality factor for juvenile bivalves. *Limnology & Oceanography*, 54:
356 1037-1047.
- 357 Green, M. C., and T. C. Brock. 2002. In the mind's eye: Transportation-imagery model of narrative
358 persuasion. In *Narrative Impact: Social and Cognitive Foundations*, eds. M. C. Green, Jeffrey J.
359 Strange, and T. C. Brock. Taylor & Francis.
- 360 Grossman, E. 2011. Northwest oyster die-offs show ocean acidification has arrived. Yale
361 Environment 360. (November 21, 2010).
362 [http://e360.yale.edu/feature/northwest_oyster_die-](http://e360.yale.edu/feature/northwest_oyster_die-offs_show_ocean_acidification_has_arrived/2466/)
363 [offshow_ocean_acidification_has_arrived/2466/](http://e360.yale.edu/feature/northwest_oyster_die-offs_show_ocean_acidification_has_arrived/2466/).
- 364 Hoben, A. 1995. Paradigms and politics: the cultural construction of environmental policy in
365 Ethiopia. *World Development*, 23: 1007-1021.

- 366 Hönisch, B., A. Ridgwell, D. N. Schmidt, E. Thomas, S. J. Gibbs, A. Sluijs, R. Zeebe, L. Kump, et al. 2012.
367 The geological record of ocean acidification. *Science*, 335: 1058-1063.
- 368 Johnson, L. T., and C. Hope. 2012. The social cost of carbon in US regulatory impact analyses: an
369 introduction and critique. *Journal of Environmental Studies and Sciences*, 2: 1-17.
- 370 Kaufman, L. 2012. Study Links Raised Carbon Dioxide Levels to Oyster Die-Offs. Green: A Blog About
371 Energy and the Environment. (April 12, 2012).
372 <http://green.blogs.nytimes.com/2012/04/12/study-links-raised-carbon-dioxide-levels-to-oyster-die-offs/>.
- 373 Kelly, R. P., M. M. Foley, W. S. Fisher, R. A. Feely, B. S. Halpern, G. G. Waldbusser, and M. R. Caldwell.
374 2011. Mitigating local causes of ocean acidification with existing laws. *Science*, 332: 1036-
375 1037.
- 376 Khatiwala, S., T. Tanhua, S. Mikaloff Fletcher, M. Gerber, S. Doney, H. Graven, N. Gruber, G. McKinley,
377 et al. 2012. Global ocean storage of anthropogenic carbon. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 9:
378 8931-8988.
- 379 Kroeker, K. J., R. L. Kordas, R. Crim, I. E. Hendriks, L. Ramajo, G. S. Singh, C. M. Duarte, and J.-P.
380 Gattuso. 2013. Impacts of ocean acidification on marine organisms: quantifying sensitivities
381 and interaction with warming. *Global Change Biology*, 19: 1884-1896.
- 382 Kroeker, K. J., R. L. Kordas, R. N. Crim, and G. G. Singh. 2010. Meta-analysis reveals negative yet
383 variable effects of ocean acidification on marine organisms. *Ecology Letters*, 13: 1419-1434.
- 384 Laurans, Y., N. Pascal, T. Binet, L. Brander, E. Clua, G. David, D. Rojat, and A. Seidl. 2013. Economic
385 valuation of ecosystem services from coral reefs in the South Pacific: Taking stock of recent
386 experience. *Journal of environmental management*, 116: 135-144.
- 387 Leonard, G. 2012. Ocean Acidification: It's Time to Act. National Geographic Newswatch. (November
388 28, 2012). <http://newswatch.nationalgeographic.com/2012/11/28/ocean-acidification-its-time-to-act/>.
- 389 Liu, J., T. Dietz, S. R. Carpenter, M. Alberti, C. Folke, E. Moran, A. N. Pell, P. Deadman, et al. 2007.
390 Complexity of coupled human and natural systems. *Science*, 317: 1513-1516.
- 391 Lorenzoni, I., S. Nicholson-Cole, and L. Whitmarsh. 2007. Barriers perceived to engaging with
392 climate change among the UK public and their policy implications. *Global Environmental
393 Change*, 17: 445-459.
- 394 Mandler, J. M. 1984. *Stories, Scripts, and Scenes: Aspects of Schema Theory*. ERIC.
- 395 Maynes, M. J., J. L. Pierce, and B. Laslett. 2008. *Telling Stories: The Use of Personal Narratives in the
396 Social Sciences and History*. Cornell University Press.
- 397 McNie, E. C. 2007. Reconciling the supply of scientific information with user demands: an analysis of
398 the problem and review of the literature. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 10: 17-38.
- 399 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. 2005. *Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: Synthesis*. Island Press.
- 400 Mitchell, R. B., W. C. Clark, D. W. Cash, and N. M. Dickson. 2006. *Global Environmental Assessments:
401 Information and Influence*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 402 Oatley, K., M. Green, J. Strange, and T. Brock. 2002. Emotions and the story worlds of fiction. In
403 *Narrative impact: Social and cognitive foundations*, eds. M. Green, J. Strange, and T. Brock, 39-
404 69 pp.: Taylor & Francis.
- 405 Pennington, N., and R. Hastie. 1993. *The Story Model for Juror Decision Making*. Cambridge
406 University Press.
- 407 Perrings, C. 1991. Reserved rationality and the precautionary principle: Technological change, time
408 and uncertainty in environmental decision making. *Ecological Economics: The Science and
409 Management of Sustainability*, New York: 153-166.
- 410 Pindyck, R. S. 2007. Uncertainty in environmental economics. *Review of Environmental Economics
411 and Policy*, 1: 45-65.

- 414 Poortinga, W., L. Steg, and C. Vlek. 2004. Values, environmental concern, and environmental
415 behavior a study into household energy use. *Environment and Behavior*, 36: 70-93.
- 416 Sabine, C. L., R. A. Feely, N. Gruber, R. M. Key, K. Lee, J. L. Bullister, R. Wanninkhof, C. Wong, et al.
417 2004. The oceanic sink for anthropogenic CO₂. *Science*, 305: 367-371.
- 418 Salisbury, J., M. Green, C. Hunt, and J. Campbell. 2008. Coastal acidification by rivers: a threat to
419 shellfish? *Eos, Transactions American Geophysical Union*, 89: 513.
- 420 Satran, J. 2012. Ocean acidification hurts oyster larvae development at Ore. hatchery, study
421 confirms. *Huffington Post*. April 13, 2012.
- 422 Schank, R. C., and T. R. Berman. 2002. The pervasive role of stories in knowledge and action. In
423 *Narrative impact: Social and cognitive foundations*, eds. M. Green, J. Strange, and T. Brock,
424 287-313 pp.: Taylor & Francis.
- 425 Schleifstein, M. 2013. Ocean Week conference addresses various issues. *New Orleans Times-*
426 *Picayune*. June 9, 2013.
- 427 Spence, A., W. Poortinga, C. Butler, and N. F. Pidgeon. 2011. Perceptions of climate change and
428 willingness to save energy related to flood experience. *Nature Climate Change*, 1: 46-49.
- 429 Spence, A., W. Poortinga, and N. Pidgeon. 2012. The psychological distance of climate change. *Risk*
430 *Analysis*, 32: 957-972.
- 431 Stern, P. C. 2002. New environmental theories: toward a coherent theory of environmentally
432 significant behavior. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56: 407-424.
- 433 Tobias, L. 2012. Oregon State research traces oyster larvae die-off to increasing ocean acidity. *The*
434 *Oregonian Thursday*, April 12.
- 435 Vitousek, P. M., H. A. Mooney, J. Lubchenco, and J. M. Melillo. 1997. Human domination of Earth's
436 ecosystems. *Science*, 277: 494-499.
- 437 Waldbusser, G. G., E. P. Voigt, H. Bergschneider, M. A. Green, and R. I. Newell. 2011. Biocalcification
438 in the eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) in relation to long-term trends in Chesapeake
439 Bay pH. *Estuaries and Coasts*, 34: 221-231.
- 440 Washington State Blue Ribbon Panel on Ocean Acidification, 2012. Ocean Acidification: From
441 Knowledge to Action, Washington State's Strategic Response., Washington State Department
442 of Ecology Report, Olympia, Washington, Publication No. 12-01-015.
- 443 Zimen, K. E., and F. K. Altenhein. 1973. The future burden of industrial CO₂ on the Atmosphere and
444 the oceans. *Naturwissenschaften*, 60: 198-199.
- 445
- 446

Figure 1

[Click here to download FEDERAL WC FAILURE BRIEFER SURVIVAL](#)



