Heterogeneous effects of weather shocks on firm economic performance

Romano Tarsia [†]

[†]London School of Economics

Latest Version

Abstract

This paper provides novel firm-level estimates of the economic damages caused by temperature shocks to European firms. I rely on a panel data analysis to show wide heterogeneities in the impact of temperature shocks, which depend on firm characteristics. This paper reveals the importance of micro-level data to quantify climate damages estimates, as the average relationship between temperature and economic outcomes masks firms' different susceptibilities to weather shocks. These create both winners and losers, harming less productive firms, particularly those in warmer regions, while benefiting more productive ones. I highlight the distributional effects of climate change, and offer insights for targeted adaptation policies.

JEL codes: *D24, O13, O44, O52, Q54, R11*
Keywords: *Climate Change, Firms, Climate Damages, Economic Performance.*

I am particularly grateful to Simon Dietz and Sefi Roth for their advice. I am also thankful to Clare Balboni, Tom Bearpark, Ghassame Benmir, Adrien Bilal, Andrea Caggese, Andrea Chiavari (Discussant), Tatyana Deryugina, Eugenie Dugoua, Ludovica Gazzè, Joshua Graff Zivin, Stephen Jarvis, Manuel Linsenmeier, Giovanni Marin, Mirabelle Muûls, Francesco Nava, Matthew Neidell, Filippo Palomba, Filippo Pavanello, Julien Picard, Lorenzo Sileci, Gregor Singer, Chiara Sotis, David Stainforth, Hendrik Wolff, Guglielmo Zappalà, participants to the AERE, EAERE, and IAERE conferences, the Econometric Society, CEPR and BSE Economics+Climate Science Conference, the Royal Economic Society Annual Conference, the European Economic Association Congress, the FINPRO4 - Conference on Finance and Productivity, the ifo Workshop on Adaptation to Climate Change, the GSSI ECCD workshop, the Grantham Research Institute empirical seminar, the TrEnCe seminar, and various LSE seminars for their insightful comments on the paper. All errors are my own. The author has no conflicts of interest or financial interests to disclose. The first draft of this paper was circulated in December 2023.
E-mail address: r.tarsia@lse.ac.uk

1 Introduction

Climate change, with its profound socioeconomic impacts (Carleton and Hsiang 2016), has been described as the greatest market failure in history (Stern 2006). Because climate damages are crucial to informing climate policies, their accurate quantification is essential for an effective policy intervention.[1] However, modelling climate damages has proven to be complex, widely debated (Weitzman 2009; Pindyck 2013; Dietz and Stern 2015; Stern and Stiglitz 2021), and subject to considerable uncertainty (National Academies of Sciences 2017).[2]

Existing estimates of climate damages focusing on aggregate output and growth—derived from historical weather and climate events (Hsiang 2016; Auffhammer 2018)—are typically derived from studies adopting top-down approaches that rely on aggregate data to quantify these impacts (Dell et al. 2012; Burke et al. 2015; Klenow et al. 2023; Bilal and Känzig 2024).[3] However, when weather effects vary substantially across regions or economic agents, aggregate analyses can obscure important heterogeneity. Identifying the areas and entities facing the greatest risks from climate change enables policymakers to design more targeted and effective adaptation strategies. Exploring heterogeneity in weather impacts is also essential for understanding the distributional effects of climate change. If damages disproportionately affect economic activity in economically disadvantaged and socially vulnerable areas, climate change will exacerbate existing social inequalities.[4]

This paper provides the first firm-level analysis of the effects of weather shocks on the performance of European firms. The European focus is relevant because macro-level studies often suggest that temperature fluctuations do not significantly affect the European economy (Burke et al. 2015; Acevedo et al. 2020),[5] with some even indicating positive impacts in certain areas (Groom et al. 2023). This firm-level analysis delves into the within-region distribution of economic activities, to determine whether aggregate null effects reflect a genuine absence of impacts of temperature on economic outputs, or if they instead mask heterogeneous underlying responses.[6] Furthermore, if heterogeneous responses are present, this paper identifies their economic drivers, thereby clarifying how climate effects diverge across firms. Finally, this paper provides the first estimates of weather-induced firm exit in Europe.

To address these questions, I first estimate baseline results at the pooled level, capturing the average effect of temperature across all firms—thereby allowing comparison with aggregate findings in previous studies. Consistent with previous research, these results reveal an inverted-U-shaped relationship between temperature and economic outcomes, although the marginal effects are statistically insignificant. I then introduce interactions between weather variables and firm characteristics,

---

[1] Climate damages are also a key input to the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC), which guides optimal carbon pricing (Stern 2006; Pizer et al. 2014; Nordhaus 2017; Rennert et al. 2022).

[2] Given the uncertainty in climate projections (Murphy et al. 2004; Calel et al. 2020), advancing our understanding of climate damages is essential to reducing the overall uncertainty surrounding future damages (Auffhammer 2018; Rising et al. 2022).

[3] Other analyses estimating climate damages have shown the importance of bottom-up approaches with respect to outcomes such as mortality (Carleton et al. 2022), agriculture (Schlenker and Roberts 2009; Hultgren et al. 2025), and energy consumption (Rode et al. 2021).

[4] Although between-country heterogeneity is well-documented, within-country evidence is limited.

[5] Europe's developed economies and temperate climates are associated with low climate damages.

[6] Additionally, as discussed in section 2.2, firm-level data enable a closer match between economic activity and relevant weather data.

revealing substantial heterogeneity in climate damages that potentially explains the insignificance of the pooled results. Low-productive firms consistently experience negative impacts from rising temperature, albeit with some exceptions. In contrast, high-productive firms generally appear to be better shielded from weather shocks. Importantly, accounting for TFP heterogeneity reduces the uncertainty around climate damages, as indicated by narrower confidence intervals, potentially lowering the overall uncertainty in climate damage projections. This paper highlights that firm's productivity is the main source of climate damages heterogeneity, in contrast with previous literature which has focused on firms' size and industry. Lastly, survival analysis highlights that the least-productive firms located in warmer areas exhibit a dramatic drop in survival probability due to higher temperatures.

This work builds on the recent climate econometrics literature, which leverages variation in weather realisations to identify the causal effect of climate on various economic variables (see Dell et al. (2014), Auffhammer (2018), Hogan and Schlenker (2024a), Lemoine et al. (2025) for a review), such as agricultural output (Deschênes and Greenstone 2007; Schlenker and Roberts 2009; Burke and Emerick 2016; Hogan and Schlenker 2024b), industrial output (Graff Zivin and Kahn 2016), labour productivity (Graff Zivin and Neidell 2014; Somanathan et al. 2021), natural capital (Benmir et al. 2024), and economic growth (Dell et al. 2012; Burke et al. 2015; Acevedo et al. 2020; Bilal and Känzig 2024).[7] This literature relies on reduced form models exploiting exogenous weather variables and fixed effects (Hsiang 2016) yielding plausibly exogenous variation of weather over time.[8] The relevant estimates are thus identified through idiosyncratic weather shocks.[9] Within this literature, Dell et al. (2012) identify negative linear effects of temperature on aggregate output for poor countries, while Burke et al. (2015) find that the global relationship between temperature and GDP growth is non-linear and concave, following an inverted-U shape.

However, averaging the economic effects of local temperature at the country level leads to information loss, as different productive units are likely exposed to opposing temperature shocks, particularly in large countries with multiple climatic zones. This introduces uncertainty and changes the true weather effect (Burke and Tanutama 2019). Recently, strides have been made by focusing on more granular units of analysis, such as counties or regions (Burke and Tanutama 2019; Kalkuhl and Wenz 2020). Nevertheless, regional analysis still lacks sufficient granularity to capture critical economic dynamics affecting climate damages. Moreover, identifying vulnerability heterogeneity at a more granular level provides policymakers with insights for tailoring more effective adaptation policies.

Since Melitz (2003) emphasised intra-industry heterogeneous firms' responses to economic shocks, firm-level analysis has become central in economic research. Climate econometrics has recently embraced this approach. Results consistent with the aggregate studies are found for medium and large firms in China (Zhang et al. 2018; Chen and Yang 2019), in a sample of manufacturing and service firms from various countries (Nath 2020), and in Italian firms (Caggese et al. 2023), whereas no significant effect appears on public firm sales in the US (Addoum et al. 2020). Finally, Ponticelli

---

[7] Other non-economic outcomes include mortality (Deschênes and Greenstone 2011; Barreca 2012; Burgess et al. 2017; Carleton et al. 2022), violence and mental health (Card and Dahl 2011; Carleton 2017; Burke et al. 2018; Obradovich et al. 2018; Cunsolo et al. 2020), conflicts (Miguel et al. 2004; Burke et al. 2009; Harari and La Ferrara 2018).

[8] Climate is the distribution of possible outcomes, weather is its realization (Hsiang 2016).

[9] Studies on economic growth initially relied on cross-sectional identifications (Mendelsohn et al. 1994; Nordhaus 2006; Dell et al. 2009). To avoid bias from spurious associations of temperature with national characteristics (Acemoglu et al. 2002; Rodrik et al. 2004), the literature evolved towards panel data approaches.

et al. (2023) highlight how temperature impacts vary across firm size categories in the US. Relatedly, Liu and Xu (2024) provide empirical estimates of the effects of firm-level extreme heat exposure on capital misallocation. This paper differs from these works by focusing on damages heterogeneity, and identifying a firm characteristic (i.e. productivity) which is highly correlated with sensitivity to weather shocks. The most closely related work is Zhang et al. (2018), which analyses a sample of half a million Chinese firms with revenues above USD 0.66 million. In this paper, I rely on a dataset that contains data for 60 million European firms[10] without revenues thresholds, and it is therefore more representative of the European economy. For this reason, these estimates have also a relatively higher external validity. Additionally, and more importantly, while Zhang et al. (2018) exploit heterogeneity between labour and capital intensive firms, detecting similar temperature effects across the two categories, I focus on productivity heterogeneity, showing that this is a key variable to identify sources of heterogeneity.

This paper contributes to multiple strands of literature. First, this work contributes to climate economics by showing considerable firm heterogeneity in climate damages, enhancing our understanding of micro-level impacts on macro-level outcomes. In doing so, it provides a complementary bottom-up perspective to the top-down literature, offering a framework through which firm-level responses can inform analysis of the macroeconomic effects of climate change. Second, this paper contributes to the environmental justice literature (Gamper-Rabindran and Timmins 2011; Currie et al. 2015; Banzhaf et al. 2019; Christensen et al. 2022; Currie et al. 2023), and to the literature on climate justice (Burgess et al. 2017; Hsiang et al. 2019; Park et al. 2021) more specifically, by identifying the economic winners and losers from climate change in the European context. Third, it contributes to the broader discussions on firm dynamism (Decker et al. 2016), firm inequality (De Loecker et al. 2022), and aggregate productivity (Foster et al. 2001). Importantly, higher temperature slows down convergence and exacerbates firm inequality for firms located in warmer areas. By examining climate impacts across productivity categories, this analysis sheds light on the possible drivers of the aggregate productivity slowdown in Europe. Fourth, this paper contributes to the literature on firm dynamics (Hopenhayn 1992; Melitz 2003; Clementi and Palazzo 2016) by showing how the effects of higher temperatures on firm exit vary across productivity categories. Fifth, this research informs the climate econometrics literature by addressing, in the firm-level context, methodological drawbacks raised in recent studies (Newell et al. 2021; Klenow et al. 2023).

The rest of this paper is structured as follows: section 2 presents the data, section 3 describes the identification strategy, section 4 reports and discusses results and section 5 concludes.

2 Data

2.1 Economic Data

I use firm-level data from 1995 to 2020 derived from the administrative micro-level dataset Orbis Historical, provided by Bureau Van Dijk Electronic Publishing (BvD). These data have been extensively used in the literature focusing on firm dynamics (Bloom et al. 2016; Gopinath et al. 2017; Acharya et al. 2019; Autor et al. 2020). This database provides data on firm balance sheets and income statements for over 400 million companies worldwide and over 60 million in Western Europe, covering firms in all sectors of the economy. Following the data-cleaning procedure detailed below, the

---

[10] This is the total number of firms in the raw data. For more details on the clean version of the data refer to section 2.

final sample includes approximately 8.7 million firms. The main variables of interest in this analysis encompass real gross output (GO), real value added (VA), capital stock (K), number of employees (L), and total factor productivity (TFP). I estimate TFP using the Wooldridge (2009) method.[11]

All financial variables, except for labour, are adjusted to 2010 prices using industry-level deflators from OECD STAN.[12] The most recent available deflators correspond to either 2019 or 2018. As the latest year in my sample is 2020, I adopt the most recent deflator for subsequent years.[13] Furthermore, I calculate the investment and capital stock using the Perpetual Inventory Method (PIM). Additionally, I adjust the financial variables by the OECD STAN PPP (LCU per US dollar) series to correct for price-level differences across countries. Finally, I winsorise the financial variables at the 1^{st} and the 99^{th} percentiles to mitigate the influence of outliers (Gopinath et al. 2017).

Kalemli- Özcan et al. (2024) highlight the main challenges related to using Orbis data for research purposes. To minimise such issues, I follow and extend[14] the Kalemli- Özcan et al. (2024) cleaning procedure.[15] Table 1 reports descriptive statistics for the final dataset. Table A.2 reports the total number of observations with at least one non-missing variable of interest (i.e. the union of observations with non-missing GO, VA and TFP) after the cleaning procedure (column 1) and the number of observations with non-missing GO (column 2), VA (column 3) and TFP (column 4).[16] It is worth specifying that the panel is unbalanced. This is primarily due to the well-known enhancement in data availability and representativeness over time, which is not uniform across countries. This factor should be considered when analysing Orbis data.

	Min	Median	Max	Mean	SD	N
Number of employees	1	4	599,305	26.794	526.592	37,897,527
Real GO (log)	-2.488	12.847	24.654	12.858	2.151	66,624,037
Real VA (log)	-0.053	12.195	25.442	12.288	1.700	45,214,411
Number of employees (log)	0.000	1.386	13.304	1.650	1.383	37,897,527
Fixed assets (log)	-1.579	11.563	23.300	11.612	2.336	54,045,361
TFP	-12.170	10.010	48.412	9.923	1.025	29,580,376
Yearly Average T (°C)	-4.337	12.587	20.419	12.431	3.291	65,728,710
Yearly Total P (metres)	0.000	0.759	4.050	0.787	0.397	65,728,710

Table 1: Summary Statistics for different relevant variables. Source: Orbis and ECMRWF.

Country-specific total numbers of observations are reported in table A.1. I excluded Ireland and Luxembourg from the initial sample due to their favorable fiscal policies, which could introduce biases in the results. To gain insights into the distribution of firms, I present maps depicting the spatial distribution of firm-level variables aggregated at the Nuts 3 level. Figures A.1 and A.2 reveal

---

[11] Wooldridge (2009) extends the two-step estimation procedures from Olley and Pakes (1996) and Levinsohn and Petrin (2003), leading to more efficient estimators.

[12] Industry-level deflators are available at different levels of aggregation for different industries. I define an algorithm to select the most granular available level of aggregation for each industry.

[13] I choose this approach for its likely conservatism compared to assuming a consistent growth rate as in previous years for imputed values.

[14] I extend the cleaning procedure by setting to missing implausible negative values for financial variables and unrealistic spikes in their growth rates.

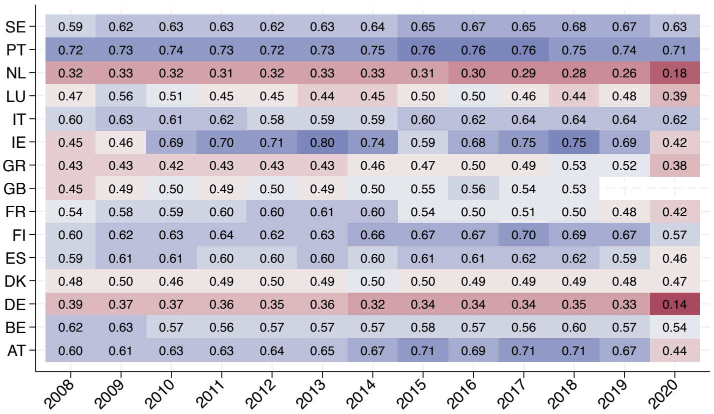
[15] After this procedure, the total number of observations falls from 212,377,647 to 70,346,838.

[16] The number of observations for TFP is lower than GO and VA because the Wooldridge (2009) TFP estimation requires non-missing VA, K, L and cost of materials contemporaneously.

significant heterogeneity between regions. While this visualization is informative for understanding firm characteristics within the sample, caution is needed when making inferences about the broader firm population due to potential non-random data availability, such as missing firms.[17] This should be considered when discussing the external validity of the estimates presented in this paper.

However, the total number of observations does not necessarily provide the full picture of how representative the sample is for the entire economy. Rather, it is good practice to assess representativeness in terms of coverage. Figure 1 shows that, although the coverage is relatively stable over time within each country, there are non-negligible differences across countries. Notwithstanding the low coverage for Germany and the Netherlands, the coverage for the remaining countries is generally good, with most country-year values above 0.5. European countries generally have better coverage, as firms of all sizes face the same regulatory requirements to file most of the balance sheet variables included in the database.

Since the focus of this work is on understanding the underlying heterogeneity, table A.3 breaks down observations across broadly defined sectors, aggregating the NACE revision 2 level 2 sectors into the broader NACE revision 2 level 1 for clarity. Notably, there are significant variations in data availability among industries. While these differences likely mirror the broader economic landscape, they should be considered when delving into industry-level heterogeneity, as they can impact standard errors and statistical significance. Given the modest number of observations for industries "O-Public administration and defence compulsory social security" and "U-Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies", the analysis excludes firms belonging to these sectors.



	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
SE	0.59	0.62	0.63	0.63	0.62	0.63	0.64	0.65	0.67	0.65	0.68	0.67	0.63
PT	0.72	0.73	0.74	0.73	0.72	0.73	0.75	0.76	0.76	0.76	0.75	0.74	0.71
NL	0.32	0.33	0.32	0.31	0.32	0.33	0.33	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.28	0.26	0.18
LU	0.47	0.56	0.51	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.45	0.50	0.50	0.46	0.44	0.48	0.39
IT	0.60	0.63	0.61	0.62	0.58	0.59	0.59	0.60	0.62	0.64	0.64	0.64	0.62
IE	0.45	0.46	0.69	0.70	0.71	0.80	0.74	0.59	0.68	0.75	0.75	0.69	0.42
GR	0.43	0.43	0.42	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.46	0.47	0.50	0.49	0.53	0.52	0.38
GB	0.45	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.55	0.56	0.54	0.53		
FR	0.54	0.58	0.59	0.60	0.60	0.61	0.60	0.54	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.48	0.42
FI	0.60	0.62	0.63	0.64	0.62	0.63	0.66	0.67	0.67	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.57
ES	0.59	0.61	0.61	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.61	0.61	0.62	0.62	0.59	0.46
DK	0.48	0.50	0.46	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.50	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.48	0.47
DE	0.39	0.37	0.37	0.36	0.35	0.36	0.32	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.35	0.33	0.14
BE	0.62	0.63	0.57	0.56	0.57	0.57	0.57	0.58	0.57	0.56	0.60	0.57	0.54
AT	0.60	0.61	0.63	0.63	0.64	0.65	0.67	0.71	0.69	0.71	0.71	0.67	0.44

Figure 1: Coverage of the aggregate economy from Orbis data in terms of gross output. The values report for each country-year the ratio (bounded between 0 and 1) between aggregate gross output for the firms included in the sample and the economy-wide gross output. The economy-wide gross output values are only available since 2008. Source: Orbis and EUROSTAT.

Another important aspect is firm size. Past research has highlighted a significant positive correlation between size and productivity, albeit with variations across countries (Bartelsman et al. 2013). Orbis holds a distinct advantage over other firm-level data sources due to its inclusive coverage of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). This is crucial because exclusively focusing on large firms would result in estimates with low external validity, leading to partial conclusions and misguided policy

---

[17] A notable example is Germany, where regions have a low number of firms, leading to relatively low aggregate gross output and employment. Average values reveals that Germany consistently features large firms, with an under-representation of small firms.

implications. The inclusion of SMEs is particularly relevant in this setting given their significant contributions to and substantial presence in the European economy. Table A.4 outlines the number of observations for three periods in our sample, categorized by firm size.[18] Not only does the presence of SMEs increases over time, but their relative share also grows. In this regard, it is worth highlighting that Orbis data suffer from underrepresentation of small firms, particularly before 2006 in countries like Germany, the Netherlands, and Ireland (Kalemli- Özcan et al. 2024).

An additional multi-step process ensures the accuracy of reported coordinates.[19] I devised a simple procedure to remove implausible values at the Nuts 3 and city levels. After matching firms with Nuts 3-level shapefiles, I marked coordinates as missing if falling outside their region. Subsequently, I generated city-level coordinates and replaced firm coordinates with their city averages if the difference between the two exceeded 0.25 degrees. An additional procedure imputes the city-street level mode coordinates when these are missing. If multiple modes were present, I use the average coordinates unless the difference between the minimum and maximum mode exceeded 0.25 in absolute value. Testing these values with OpenCage geocoding consistently showed a correlation above 99%. For a detailed description, refer to Appendix B.

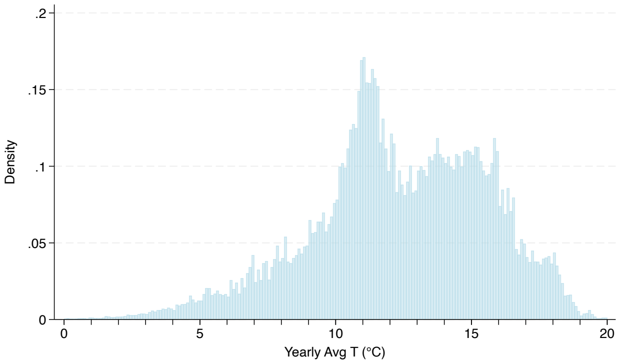
2.2 Weather Data

I retrieve weather data from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) within the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMRWF). I utilise hourly average temperature ($°C$) and total monthly precipitation (m) from the ERA5-Land product (Hersbach et al. 2020; Hersbach et al. 2019) which represents the fifth generation reanalysis of global climate and weather from 1950 onwards regridded to a regular latitude-longitude grid of 0.1 degrees ($\sim$ 9 km). Reanalysis combines model data with worldwide observations from weather stations, resulting in a globally complete and consistent dataset. Contrarily, meteorological measurements from station-based weather data are unevenly distributed. Such uneven distribution may introduce endogeneity in the estimation process, as the availability of meteorological stations is likely correlated with socioeconomic variables, which, in turn, are correlated with firms' performance. In contrast, reanalysis data are evenly available both over time and across space.

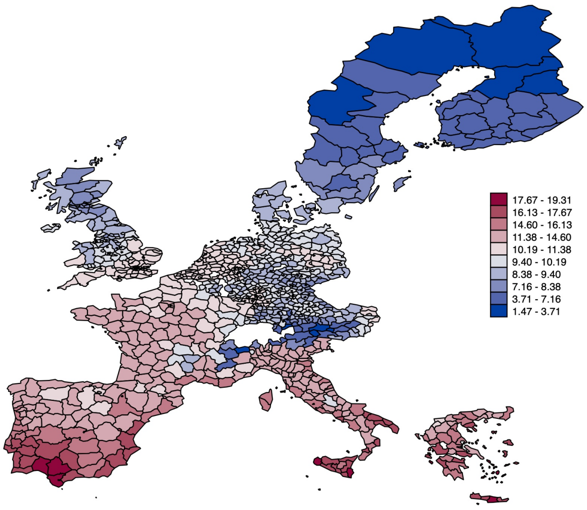
---

[18] Firm size is based on the number of employees according to the European Commission classification.

[19] Coordinates for AT, DE, FI, GR, and SE are unavailable in Orbis Historical, and are geocoded using OpenCage.



(a) Temperature Frequency



(b) Temperature Spatial Distribution

Figure 2: Distribution (a) and Spatial distribution (b) of yearly average temperature across firm-year observations in Europe. Source: ECMWF.

Figure 2a plots the distribution of yearly average temperature for the firm-year observations included in the dataset. The distribution reports large variation in yearly average temperatures, with the bulk of the observations between $(8°C)$ and $(19°C)$. Figure 2b reports the map of the the average temperature across the firm-year observations within each Nuts 3 region. I match weather and firm-level data using the coordinates available in the two datasets. I employ an inverse-distance weighted matching procedure to construct smoothed averages across space for the weather variables. Opting for inverse-distance weighting over matching based on the closest grid helps avoid potential inaccuracies in the assigned weather measures. Additionally, this matching approach defines longitude-latitude-specific measures, introducing more variability than grid-specific measures. Due to computational limitations, I restrict this matching process to grids within a 10 km radius of the firm location. The spatial match is conducted based on geodetic distances (Picard 2019).

A potential concern with this procedure is that firm locations may change over time, the physical and legal locations may differ, or the firm may have subsidiaries in different areas, potentially introducing bias to the estimates. The first concern is ruled out as BvD firm identifiers automatically change when a firm relocates to a different location. In addition, I rely on firm unconsolidated financial statements to exclude inflows from subsidiaries.[20] Moreover, the advantage of Orbis data lies in its extensive coverage of small and micro-firms, which are less likely to have different physical and legal locations (Fadic et al. 2019). While this assumption is reasonable for the scope of this work, further research should address and possibly rule out this concern.

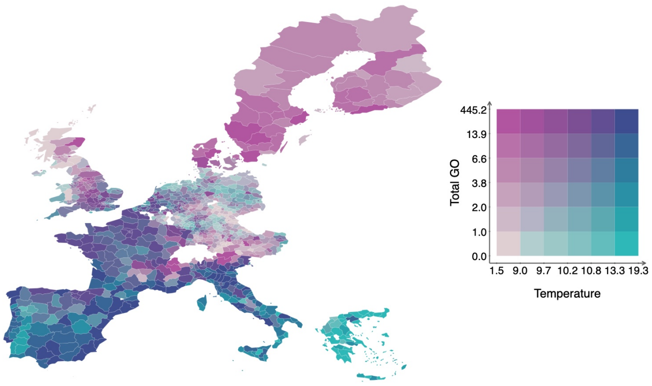


Figure 3: Bivariate Spatial distribution of yearly average temperature and total gross outpus across firm-year observations aggregated at the Nuts 3 level in Europe. The legend reports yearly average temperature on the X-axis and total GO on the Y-axis. Colours from bottom to top of the legend indicate higher total GO, whereas colours from left to right indicate higher yearly average temperatures. Source: Orbis and ECMWF.

Figure 3 reports the bivariate map of firm-level yearly average temperature and gross output aggregated at the Nuts 3 level. The figure reveals substantial heterogeneity in the joint spatial distribution of these two variables across space-[21] This is relevant because it allows alleviate selection bias. For example, southern Europe is warmer and usually considered as less economically developed. However, the figure shows that in warmer areas both less-developed (south of Italy and Greece) and more-developed (south of Spain) areas are present.

3 Identification and Model Selection

Understanding the economic responses to climate change through the study of annual weather fluctuations is complex, and it is important to use the terms 'weather' and 'climate' carefully. 'Climate' refers to the distribution of outcomes, such as the range of temperatures experienced in an area, whereas 'weather' represents the realization of this distribution (Hsiang 2016).[22] Throughout this paper, I rely on weather fluctuations to identify the marginal effect of increasing temperature. These findings contribute to the broader discussion on climate damages, to the extent that climate change contributes to the observed increases in temperature reflected in weather fluctuations.

In this paper I rely on variation in firm-specific yearly weather fluctuations to identify the effect of higher temperature on firm economic performance. Specifically, I estimate the marginal effect of an

---

[20] Unconsolidated financial statements are identified in Orbis as U1 and U2.

[21] The low values observed for total gross output and employment in German regions are driven by a low coverage and low number of firms as discussed in previous section.

[22] On this regard, Deryugina and Hsiang (2017) demonstrate that the marginal effect of long-run climate can be identified using only idiosyncratic weather variation, although under the strong assumption of efficient competitive markets.

additional $1°C$ in yearly average temperature using the following general model:

$$\Delta Y_{i,t} = g(T_{i,t}) + f(P_{i,t}) + \sum_{\ell \geq 1} \left(h(T_{i,t-\ell}) + m(P_{i,t-\ell})\right) + \delta_i + \boldsymbol{\delta_{-i}} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{1}$$

Where $\Delta Y_{i,t} = Y_{i,t} - Y_{i,t-1}$ represents the yearly growth rate of any of the economic variables for firm i in year t. The function $g(T_{i,t})$ is a J^{th} order polynomial in temperature $T_{i,t}$, capturing the impact of temperature on firm economic performance. It is defined as the dot-product between the $1 \times j$ row vector of marginal effects $\boldsymbol{\beta'}$ and the $j \times 1$ column vector of temperature $\boldsymbol{T_{i,t}}$

$$g(T_{i,t}) = \underset{(1\times j)}{\boldsymbol{\beta'}}\underset{(j\times 1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t}}} \qquad \forall \quad j = 1, \dots, J \tag{2}$$

$f(P_{i,t})$ represents a k^{th} order polynomial capturing the effect of precipitation on firm economic performance and it is defined similar to $g(T_{i,t})$. Additionally, $\sum_{\ell>1} h(T_{i,t-\ell})$ is a J^{th} order polynomial, defined as the sum over the ℓ lags of the dot product between the $1 \times j$ row vector of marginal effects $\boldsymbol{\gamma'}$ and the $j \times 1$ column vector of temperature for lag ℓ $\boldsymbol{T_\ell}$

$$\sum_{\ell \geq 1} h(T_{i,t-\ell}) = \sum_{\ell \geq 1} \underset{(1\times j)}{\boldsymbol{\gamma'_\ell}}\ \underset{(j\times 1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}} \tag{3}$$

$m(P_{i,t-\ell})$ is a k^{th} order polynomial capturing the effect of lagged precipitations on firm economic performance defined similarly to $h(T_{i,t-\ell})$, δ_i is a firm fixed effect that accounts for firm-specific unobserved constant components, $\boldsymbol{\delta_{-i}}$ is a set of fixed effects complementary to δ_i, which can be adapted to the specific research design.[23] In this paper, I adopt the restrictive country-industry-year fixed effect $\lambda_{c,n,t}$ that accounts for unobserved time-varying, and country-specific Nace 2 industry-specific trends or shocks (Wooldridge 2002). These could be common trends such as technological innovations or macroeconomic shocks, such as changes in energy prices or supply-chain shocks which are allowed to differ across countries. I do not include time-trends since these have no effects on the resulting estimates. Specifically, the results are robust to the inclusion of NUTS 1 quadratic time trends.[24] Finally, $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ is the idiosyncratic error component, assumed to be exogenous to the weather covariates after the inclusion of the fixed effects.

Section C discusses the derivation of the marginal effects and their interpretation. As emphasised by Newell et al. (2021) and further discussed by Klenow et al. (2023), if temperature has only a transitory effect on economic performance, the effects of lagged temperature should reverse the contemporaneous effect. This phenomenon would manifest in the contemporaneous $\boldsymbol{\beta'}$ and lagged $\sum_{\ell>1}^{L} \gamma_\ell$ effects having approximately equal magnitude but opposite sign (sign reversal).

The underlying identification assumption is that weather shocks, as identified by temperature fluctuations resulting after controlling for a polynomial of precipitation $f(P_{i,t})$ and the relevant fixed effects, are exogenous. If this assumption holds, then the estimates could be interpreted as the unbiased causal effect of an additional $1°C$ in yearly average temperature on firm economic performance. In terms of fixed effect models, this can be expressed as an adapted strict exogeneity assumption:

---

[23] As this analysis is based on singularly-located firm-level observations, spatial fixed effects are nested under the firm fixed effect and are omitted to avoid multicollinearity.

[24] For a discussion on time-trends in climate econometrics see Bearpark and Palomba (2024).

$$\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_{i,t} \mid g(T_{i,t}), f(P_{i,t}), \{h(T_{i,t-1}), m(P_{i,t-1}), \ldots, h(T_{i,t-L}), m(P_{i,t-L})\}, \delta_i, \boldsymbol{\delta_{-i}}] = 0 \qquad \forall \quad t = 1, \ldots, T \tag{4}$$

Previous works have relied on specific cases of the general model discussed in this section, with most analyses adopting the specification outlined in Burke et al. (2015). Building on Dell et al. (2012), the authors model economic output as a quadratic function of temperature, allowing the effect of temperature to vary across the temperature support. This specification yields plausibly causal estimates of unanticipated short-term weather fluctuations, which incorporate adaptation responses to longer-term climate (Burke et al. 2015; Auffhammer 2018).

Since the nonlinearity allows the units means to re-enter the estimation, the marginal effect of temperature is identified through both within-unit time series variation and between-units cross-sectional variation. The nonlinearity produced in quadratic models with fixed-effects can be disentangled between a within nonlinearity (WNL) and a global nonlinearity (GNL) (McIntosh and Schlenker 2006).[25] Nonlinear models with fixed-effects accounting for GNL that fail to account for WNL when these are present are biased. However, Mérel and Gammans (2021) show that such bias becomes negligible when cross-sectional variation in climate dominates within-units weather fluctuations. WNL are relevant in small-N long-T country-level contexts (Klenow et al. 2023), but are likely modest in a large-N, short-T firm-level context. As shown in table A.5, in this analysis cross-sectional variation dominates time-series variation. Therefore, the estimates are likely to be unbiased.

Furthermore, the resulting inverted-U relationship could potentially be driven by the constraints that the functional form imposes on the parameters. In this work, I aim to identify the functional form that most accurately captures the relationship between temperature and firm economic performance. I employ post-estimation tests to determine the most appropriate order of the polynomial $\boldsymbol{\beta' T_{i,t}}$ and the number of temperature lags to include in the model. I use two model selection criteria, i) in-sample Information Criteria (IC) and ii) Machine Learning out-of-sample Cross Validation (CV). Appendix D discusses these approaches and their results.[26]

The selected model includes a second order polynomial with two lags. A quadratic model provides adequate model flexibility minimising overfitting risks. Moreover, this model aligns with the established literature, facilitating comparisons with previous studies. Consequently, this study adopts a quadratic model to explore variation in the marginal effects of temperature across the temperature support, hence accounting for different adaptation levels. The model is defined as follows:

$$\Delta Y_{i,t} = \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\beta'}}\underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t}}} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{2} \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\gamma'_\ell}}\ \underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}} + \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\psi'}}\underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{P_{i,t}}} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{2} \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\zeta'_\ell}}\ \underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}} + \delta_i + \lambda_{c,n,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{5}$$

In this framework, the error term $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ is likely serially correlated within a firm over time and spatially correlated within a region. Such correlations may persist even after including the relevant fixed effects

---

[25] The WNL identifies weather deviations from the mean of the fixed-effect group, whereas the GNL identifies deviations from the mean of the sample as a whole. The GNL implies that the marginal effect of $T_{i,t}$ on $Y_{i,t}$ varies across the $T_{i,t}$ distribution, whereas the WNL implies that the marginal effect of $T_{i,t}$ depends only on how $T_{i,t}$ moves away from the within groups mean $\overline{T_i}$.

[26] Given the amount of computational resources required for these analysis, I limit this analysis to $\ell = \{1, \ldots, 5\}$ lags for each of the $j^{th} = \{1, \ldots, 4\}$ order polynomials.

(Cameron and Miller 2015). To address these concerns, I cluster standard errors at the regional level. Since each firm in the sample is only located in one region, firm-level clusters are nested within regions. To select the optimal level for clustering standard errors, I follow the approach outlined by Cameron and Miller (2015) and cluster standard errors at the NUTS 3 level.

Another issue highlighted in the literature concerns the potential non-stationarity of the variables' time series included in the analysis. If such series are non-stationary, the models is spurious as they are affected by three major issues: first, the regression estimates are inefficient; second, the forecasts based on these regressions are sub-optimal and; third, the significance tests on the coefficients are invalid (Granger and Newbold 1974). When series are non-stationary, they should be first-differenced. This issue has been raised in climate econometrics by Burke et al. (2015).[27] Newell et al. (2021) argue that the Burke et al. (2015) specification is still spurious since it accounts for the non-stationarity in the GDP series but not in the temperature series.

However, there is a distinct difference between country-level and firm-level analysis. The former typically features longer time series (T) and fewer entities (N), whereas the latter is characterised by shorter T and longer N. In the short T case, the time-series properties of the data are usually negligible (Greene 2003).[28] Although this analysis falls into the short T, long N category, I conduct statistical tests to assess nonstationarity in the series for completeness. The tests strongly reject the hypothesis of nonstationarity. The results of the tests and a detailed discussion are in section E.

To identify the heterogeneous economic impacts of higher temperature I interact the variables in equation 5 with different variables identifying firms characteristics

$$\Delta Y_{i,t} = \underset{(1\times2)(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{\beta}' \ \boldsymbol{T_{i,t}}} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{2} \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\gamma}'_{\ell}} \ \underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}} + (\underset{(1\times2)(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{\beta}' \ \boldsymbol{T_{i,t}}}) \cdot C_{i,t} + (\sum_{\ell=1}^{2} \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\gamma}'_{\ell}} \ \underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}}) \cdot C_{i,t} + \underset{(1\times2)(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{\psi}' \ \boldsymbol{P_{i,t}}} + \sum_{\ell=1}^{2} \underset{(1\times2)}{\boldsymbol{\zeta}'_{\ell}} \ \underset{(2\times1)}{\boldsymbol{T_{i,t-l}}} + \delta_i + \lambda_{c,n,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{6}$$

where $C_{i,t}$ identifies firm i category in year t. The estimates quantify the effect of an additional $1°C$ in yearly average temperature across firms in different categories. In the next section I discuss results from the non-interacted pooled model to estimate the average effect of temperature fluctuations on firm economic performance, then I delve into heterogeneity analysis regarding different firm characteristics, such as productivity category, size and industry.

Finally, I assess the impact of higher temperature on firms exit using survival analysis. Survival analysis deals with censoring, thereby avoiding the bias that would otherwise arise in OLS and nonlinear models such as logit. In this analysis, both right-censoring and left-censoring are present. The former occurs when entities are not observed throughout their entire life span, and the event could still happen after the end of the analysis. In this case, firms that have not exited by the end of the study (2020), may still exit in the future. The latter occurs when the risk of failure (exit) starts before the study period. In this case, several firms' births date back to before 1995 and therefore start experiencing temperature-induced risk of exit before the observation period.

---

[27] They highlight that country-level GDP follows a random walk ($\rho_i = 0.999$).

[28] When T increases as the same rate as N these properties become a central focus of the analysis.

In this paper I estimate firms' survival using the semiparametric Cox proportional hazard model (Cox 1972). This model estimates the probability of firms' exit conditional on predictors $\mathbf{x}$ and the fact that the firm has not exited through a multivariate regression analysis as in equation 7

$$h(t \mid \mathbf{x}) = h_0(t)\, \exp\big(\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{x}\big), \tag{7}$$

$$H(t) = \int_0^t h(u)\, \mathrm{d}u, \tag{8}$$

$$S(t) = \exp\big(-H(t)\big) = \exp\Big(-\int_0^t h(u)\, \mathrm{d}u\Big). \tag{9}$$

where the hazard rate $h(t \mid \mathbf{x})$ is a function of the baseline hazard $h_0(t)$ and a non-negative function of covariates $\exp\big(\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{x}\big)$. The vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{x}$ includes current and lagged ($\ell = 1, 2$) yearly average temperature, their interaction with the firm's category, and yearly total precipitation. The cumulative hazard function $H(t)$ in equation 8 is the sum over time of the hazard rate, which allows us to estimate the survival function $S(t)$ as in equation 9. The results of this paper are based on the survival function.

4 Results

Empirical evidence has demonstrated that higher temperatures can impact firm economic performance through various channels. For example, they can diminish labour supply through higher absenteeism (Graff Zivin and Neidell 2014; Somanathan et al. 2021), potentially due to relocation towards leisure or inability to work. Higher temperatures also impair labour productivity (Graff Zivin et al. 2018; Somanathan et al. 2021), resulting from reduced cognitive or physical abilities. These impacts further extend to reduced capital productivity and stock. As highlighted by Zhang et al. (2018), higher temperatures adversely affect machine productivity through diminished lubrication capability (Mortier et al. 2010), higher failure rates (Collins 1963), and reduced processing speed (Lilja 2005). Unsustainable temperatures can also cause machinery breakdowns, reducing capital stock.

Damages to production may also arise from reduced material supply due to supply chain shocks.[29] Additionally, impacts from higher temperatures can be indirect, involving increased energy or transportation costs. Higher temperatures lead to more use of AC and refrigerators, resulting in higher energy and fuel consumption. On extremely hot days, local aggregate energy consumption may exceed the grid's capacity, potentially causing blackouts and disrupting production. Finally, extreme weather shocks can directly reduce the stock of materials. These results from previous research can be used to explain the empirical findings of this paper discussed in the following sections.

4.1 Temperature Average Damage, Timing, and Persistence

In this section I present empirical results for the model discussed in section 3 and the whole set of dependent variables: GO, VA, TFP, L, K and cost of materials (M). These estimates represent the average effect across the pooled sample. Table 2 reports the results from the quadratic model defined

---

[29] While international supply chains may not be affected, many European firms depend on local supply chains, shown by local economic agglomerates, hence likely impacted by local weather shocks.

in equation 5. According to these estimates, temperature does not seem to have a substantial effect on firms' economic performance. The marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of these variables are generally not statistically significant. Moreover, even statistically significant estimates – such as GO and K – are economically negligible. On the contrary, the estimates for precipitations are highly significant.

Although the contemporaneous effects of $T_{i,t}$ are economically negligible, the similar magnitude of the GO and K coefficients suggests that K may be the primary channel through which temperature shocks affect GO. The effect on K can be attributed to reductions in capital stock being more readily observable by firms, and accounted for in their balance sheets. In contrast, negative labour shocks, although likely to affect firm performance, are mitigated by rigid labour contracts that are less responsive to short-term weather fluctuations. However, this interpretation contradicts previous studies that identify L and TFP as the primary channels through which weather shocks influence GO. While economic mechanisms may explain these results, differences across estimates can also stem from the input-specific distributions of temperature impacts. Larger heterogeneity results in a wider distribution of climate damages, which is likely to reduce the statistical significance of the pooled estimates. In the case of K, statistical significance may result from a less dispersed distribution of the underlying estimates. This interpretation is examined further in the remainder of the paper.

As discussed in section 3, if temperature has only a transitory effect, the effects of lagged temperature would reverse the contemporaneous effect. This would be evident if the contemporaneous $\boldsymbol{\beta'}$ and lagged $\sum_{\ell\geq1}^{L}\boldsymbol{\gamma_\ell}$ estimates had approximately equal magnitudes but opposite signs. As shown in table 2, the linear estimates for $T_{i,t-1}$ are positive for GO and K and negative for VA, TFP, L, and M, while those for $T_{i,t-2}$ are positive for all variables except TFP. Although generally not statistically significant, these results seem to suggest persistent growth effects for GO and K, while VA, TFP,[30] L, and M exhibit more transitory effects due to the observed sign-reversal. However, this finding may be reversed for firms located in warmer areas by the positive quadratic terms. Hence, the remainder of this section presents the marginal effect across the temperature support.

---

[30] Although the marginal effect of $T_{i,t-2}$ is negative for TFP, its magnitude is approximately zero.

	(1) ΔGO	(2) ΔVA	(3) ΔTFP	(4) ΔL	(5) ΔK	(6) ΔM
T	0.011^{**}	0.0054	0.0023	0.0012	0.0096^{***}	0.0024
	(0.0042)	(0.0036)	(0.0028)	(0.0027)	(0.0027)	(0.0029)
T^2	-0.00046^{***}	-0.00031^{**}	-0.00018^{*}	-0.00012	-0.00037^{***}	-0.00017
	(0.00016)	(0.00014)	(0.00011)	(0.00011)	(0.00011)	(0.00011)
$(\ell 1)T$	0.0010	-0.0048	-0.0022	-0.0086^{***}	0.010^{***}	-0.0048
	(0.0050)	(0.0047)	(0.0045)	(0.0022)	(0.0032)	(0.0038)
$(\ell 1)T^2$	-0.00014	-0.000017	-0.000017	0.000096	-0.00035^{***}	0.00010
	(0.00020)	(0.00019)	(0.00017)	(0.000097)	(0.00012)	(0.00015)
$(\ell 2)T$	0.0058	0.0020	-0.0010	0.0017	0.011^{***}	0.0058^{*}
	(0.0043)	(0.0047)	(0.0046)	(0.0023)	(0.0032)	(0.0030)
$(\ell 2)T^2$	-0.00029	-0.00015	-0.0000094	-0.000066	-0.00038^{***}	-0.00021
	(0.00020)	(0.00021)	(0.00020)	(0.00010)	(0.00013)	(0.00014)
P	-0.024^{***}	-0.022^{***}	-0.018^{***}	-0.015^{***}	-0.00049	-0.022^{***}
	(0.0069)	(0.0079)	(0.0069)	(0.0048)	(0.0042)	(0.0067)
P^2	-0.0081^{***}	-0.0079^{***}	-0.0028	-0.0086^{***}	-0.0040^{**}	-0.0048^{*}
	(0.0031)	(0.0030)	(0.0031)	(0.0026)	(0.0016)	(0.0026)
$(\ell 1)P$	-0.019^{***}	-0.020^{***}	-0.019^{***}	-0.014^{**}	-0.0050	-0.013^{***}
	(0.0052)	(0.0054)	(0.0048)	(0.0053)	(0.0034)	(0.0048)
$(\ell 1)P^2$	0.014^{***}	0.015^{***}	0.011^{***}	0.012^{***}	0.0065^{**}	0.0091^{***}
	(0.0038)	(0.0038)	(0.0032)	(0.0036)	(0.0026)	(0.0035)
$(\ell 2)P$	-0.030^{***}	-0.028^{***}	-0.014^{**}	-0.026^{***}	-0.011^{***}	-0.025^{***}
	(0.0072)	(0.0067)	(0.0061)	(0.0039)	(0.0033)	(0.0058)
$(\ell 2)P^2$	0.021^{***}	0.018^{***}	0.0067^{*}	0.015^{***}	0.0075^{***}	0.017^{***}
	(0.0051)	(0.0045)	(0.0038)	(0.0025)	(0.0022)	(0.0041)
Constant	-0.061	0.090	0.075	0.12^{***}	-0.16^{***}	0.035
	(0.073)	(0.069)	(0.060)	(0.039)	(0.052)	(0.054)
Firm FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ind.-Year-FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R^2	0.16	0.14	0.12	0.14	0.15	0.15
N	43,010,224	32,189,101	18,442,532	25,570,937	38,146,624	31,095,285

Standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table 2: Point estimates and standard errors from the regressions of weather variables on the growth rates of GO, VA, TFP, L, K, and M. Results for the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

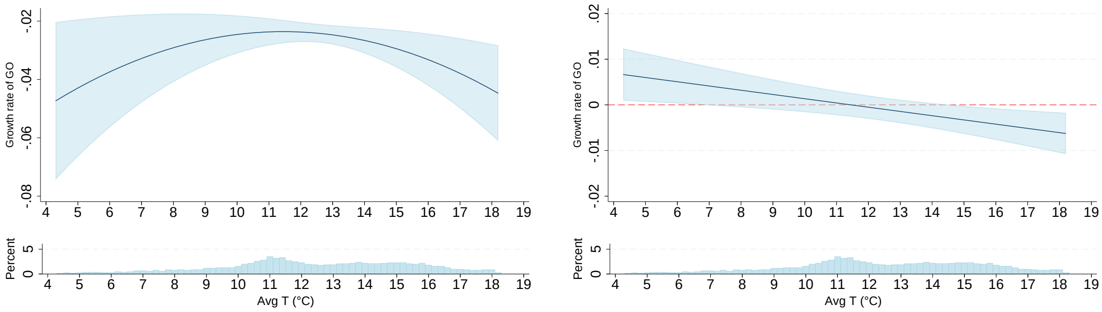
Figure 4 presents the contemporaneous prediction 4a and the marginal effect 4b of temperature on the growth rate of GO.[31] Figure 4a presents the predicted outcomes from equation 5, with temperature varying across its distribution while holding the other covariates constant at their average values. The figure shows an inverted-U-shaped (concave) relationship between the two variables, consistent with the existing literature. Firms throughout the temperature distribution are associated with negative growth rates, with more pronounced negative effects observed in areas with both lower and higher yearly average temperature.

Figure 4b reports the contemporaneous marginal effect of a $1°C$ increase in temperature across the

---

[31] For presentational purposes, I plot the results excluding the top and bottom percentiles of the temperature distribution, although these firms are present in the estimated sample.

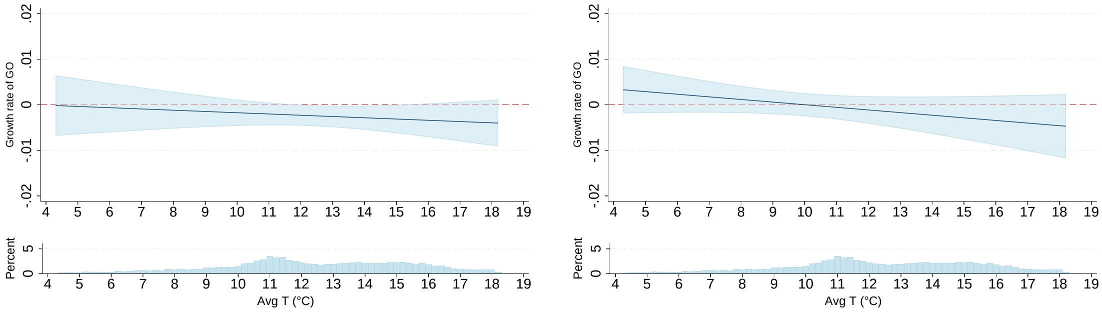
temperature distribution, which is downward-sloping but generally not statistically or economically significant. Figure F.1 reports the marginal effect functions for the remaining outcome variables. With the exception of K, the effects are close to zero in colder regions. In warmer regions, by contrast, the effects are negative across all variables. However, while none of the estimates is statistically significant at the 95% level, the confidence intervals for L and M exhibit greater overlap with zero. This suggests that a larger portion of the estimates distributions for K and TFP falls in the negative range, relative to L and M. I return to this point in the next sections, where I examine firm-level heterogeneity as a potential driver of this pattern.



(a) 2^{nd} order polynomial prediction (b) 2^{nd} order polynomial marginal effect

Figure 4: Contemporaneous prediction (a) and marginal effect (b) of temperature on the growth rate of GO. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

The marginal effects of $T_{i,t-1}$ and $T_{i,t-2}$, reported in figures 5a and 5b respectively, are downward-sloping and statistically insignificant across the entire temperature distribution, with $T_{i,t-2}$ generally larger in magnitude and exhibiting a steeper slope. Despite being statistically insignificant, these estimates are consistent in sign, providing suggestive evidence for the presence of persistent growth effects. Figure F.2b reports the cumulative marginal effect, which is downward sloping and statistically insignificant across the entire temperature distribution.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect (b) lag-2 marginal effect

Figure 5: Lag-1 (a) and lag-2 (b) marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of GO. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

The absence of significant results in the pooled sample can be interpreted in several ways. First, it may reflect a genuine absence of climate impacts: due to its developed economy and temperate climate, Europe may simply be less affected by rising temperatures. Second, European firms may have already undertaken, and in some cases completed, adaptation strategies. Adaptation can take various forms, including the adoption of air conditioning (Graff Zivin and Kahn 2016), a shift toward less-impacted sectors, or, in some cases, relocation to less-affected areas (Albert et al. 2021).[32] Third, the marginal effect of temperature may vary substantially across firms. Differences in exposure, vulnerability, or adaptive capacity can lead to a wide range of firm-level responses. When such heterogeneity is present, pooling firms can mask these underlying differences, producing an average effect that appears null but averages out positive and negative impacts. This last interpretation is supported by the large standard errors in the pooled estimates and motivates the firm-level analysis that follows.

Section F.3.1 focuses on cross-country heterogeneity, highlighting differences in the damage function across countries, while next sections delve into damages heterogeneity in terms of firms characteristics.

4.2 Heterogeneity Analysis

Several factors may contribute to temperature damages varying across firms characteristics. Firms operating in sectors more exposed to temperature fluctuations, such as agriculture or construction, are expected to be more sensitive to higher temperature than sectors with a higher likelihood of indoor activities and a greater penetration of thermal control systems. Within the same industry, more profitable firms are more likely to undertake the adaptation strategies mentioned above, since they have both higher opportunity costs of not adapting (in terms of lost profits) and more resources to invest. Firm size can also influence this dynamic. Larger firms are not only more profitable, but they also face relatively lower adaptation costs due to economies of scale (i.e. lower per-worker costs).

Productivity levels may also influence firm climate damages. More productive firms are, on average, more likely to rely on automated processes or cognitive skills-based tasks, which are often conducted in temperature-controlled environments. Moreover, even within the same sector, these firms possess greater resources for adaptation as they employ fewer inputs for the same level of output. Finally, they may have better managers, who are able to mitigate productivity declines (Adhvaryu et al. 2022), likely to be more attentive, and to undertake investments in adaptation (Norris-Keiller and Van Reenen 2024). In the following sections I discuss the effects of weather shocks on firms' performance across productivity levels, size, and industry estimated using equation 6.

4.2.1 Productivity Heterogeneity

This section highlights how productivity levels impact firms' responses to weather shocks. Figure 6 reports the point estimates for the regression of the growth rate of gross output on a second-order polynomial of temperature interacted with firm TFP category.[33] The TFP categories are defined according to the firm average TFP percentile, based on the first two years the firm is available in the sample. These are excluded from the estimation to avoid violating the strict exogeneity assumption (equation 4). The function of the marginal effect of an additional $1°C$ in $T_{i,t}$ is upward-sloping in temperature for the three most-productive categories, with positive values at high levels of the temperature distribution. On the contrary, firms belonging to the 1^{st} decile and the $[10^{th}; 25^{th})$

---

[32] While relocation may not constitute adaptation from a local perspective—since it entails GDP losses for the affected area—it can be a viable strategy from the firm's standpoint.

[33] Greece is excluded from the analysis because data on M are unavailable for this country, preventing the estimation of TFP.

and [25^{th}; 50^{th}) categories are characterised by downward-sloping marginal effect functions, with the least-productive firms (1^{st} decile) being remarkably negatively affected when located in warmer areas.

This result is particularly relevant to the discussions on the uncertainty surrounding climate damages. The narrower confidence intervals indicate that accounting for TFP heterogeneity leads to more precise estimates, substantially reducing uncertainty. Furthermore, these findings imply that policymakers can better tailor adaptation policies to specific needs—such as providing support to the least-productive firms or facilitating the reallocation of resources toward more productive firms—to ensure a smoother climate transition.

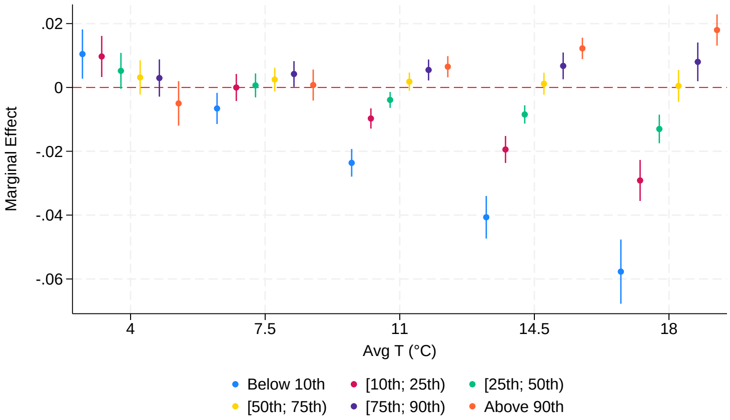
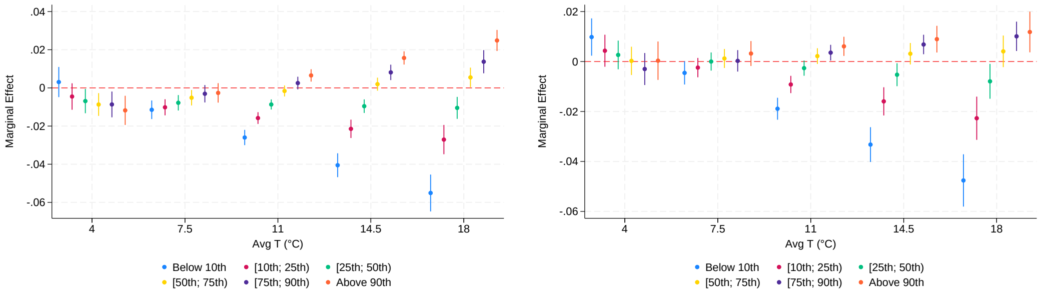


Figure 6: Marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE.

The dynamics between the least and most-productive firms differ substantially across the temperature distribution. In areas with an average yearly temperature of $4°C$, an additional $1°C$ in $T_{i,t}$ increases the growth rate of GO by 1 percentage points for firms in the bottom productivity decile, and reduces it by 0.5 percentage points for firms in the top productivity decile, although this result is not significant. In areas with an average yearly temperature of $18°C$, an additional $1°C$ in $T_{i,t}$ decreases the growth rate of GO by -5.8 percentage points for firms in the bottom decile and increases it by 1.8 percentage points for firms in the top decile. Although large climate damages estimates are not uncommon in the literature (Ricke et al. 2018; Bilal and Känzig 2024; Kotz et al. 2024), it is important to clarify that these estimates reflect the impact of a $1°C$ increase, whereas yearly average temperatures typically fluctuate by only a fraction of a degree.

The results for lagged temperatures $T_{i,t-1}$ and $T_{i,t-2}$ reported in figure 7 are largely consistent with those for contemporaneous temperature $T_{i,t}$. The marginal effects of $T_{i,t-1}$ are predominantly negative across the temperature distribution for all TFP categories, except for the most-productive firms located in warmer areas which are positively impacted. The effect of $T_{i,t-2}$ is similar to $T_{i,t-1}$, although the estimates are not significant or precisely zero for most firms located in colder areas. The cumulative effects over the periods $t = \{0, -1, -2\}$ highlight persistent, although economically negligible, negative marginal effects for the most-productive firms located in colder areas and for the least-productive firms across the whole temperature distribution, and positive persistent marginal effects for most-productive firms located in warmer areas. The difference between the marginal effects of the least and most-productive firms is substantial.

One concern is that these results could reflect industry composition rather than firms' relative TFP ranking. As TFP distributions vary by industry, TFP categories may correlate with industry-specific exposure to climate damages, potentially biasing the estimates. Section F.3.2 presents additional results in which TFP categories are defined within each industry, accounting for average TFP differences across industries. The estimates remain largely unchanged, confirming that the results presented in this section effectively capture climate damage heterogeneity across TFP categories.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect

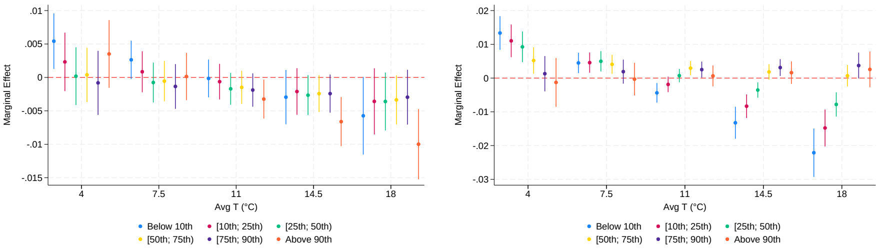
(b) lag-2 marginal effect

Figure 7: Lag-1 (a) and lag-2 (b) marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in the EU across different firm productivity categories. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

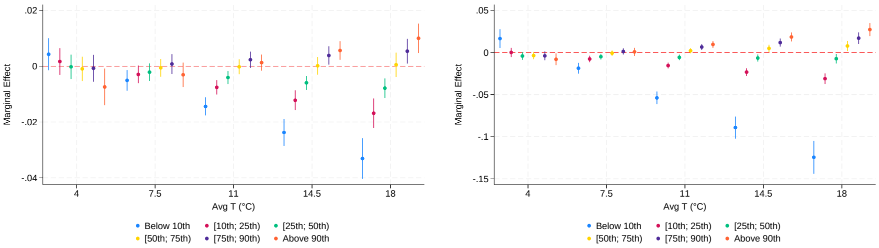
Although I am not able to test potential mechanisms due to data limitations, several factors may be at play. The negative impacts of higher temperatures on the least-productive firms are not surprising. These firms tend to be more vulnerable to temperature variations because are less likely to invest in adaptation and react to climate shocks more generally. Conversely, the most-productive firms generally have better managers who are more likely to undertake adaptation investments or reallocate production factors to respond effectively to weather shocks. While these arguments could explain why the most-productive firms do not exhibit negative effects, they do not explain the presence of positive effects. Positive effects are potentially driven by a temperature-induced reallocation of production factors and market shares. Consistent with market selection, the least-productive firms experience significant negative shocks that likely reduce their competitiveness, leading to a reallocation towards the most-productive firms. In line with the Schumpeterian notion of creative destruction, this effect may be considered economically efficient. Furthermore, lower factor misallocation leads to higher aggregate output (Hsieh and Klenow 2009). However, assessing the aggregate macroeconomic effects is nontrivial, as equity considerations must also be taken into account.

Having shown that the insignificant pooled marginal effect on GO reflects aggregation bias, I now investigate, based on the results reported in figure 8, whether the same holds for the other inputs in Table 2. I focus on firms in warm areas where temperature effects diverge most across productivity categories. The effect on labour is statistically different from zero only for the top decile, whose higher turnover may permit headcount adjustments. By contrast, K inputs exhibit clear heterogeneity. The bottom three categories suffer significant negative impacts, while one of the top three shows a positive and significant response, suggesting that the negative pooled estimate is driven by low-productive firms. The estimates distribution for M is evenly spread across categories. Although two-thirds of the estimates are positive, their dispersion around zero yields an insignificant pooled coefficient. Finally, TFP displays the greatest divergence in warm areas, with marginal effects ranging from −12.8

percentage points for the least-productive category to 3.0 for the most-productive. This implies that the adverse impacts on low-productive firms drive the negative pooled results, while the positive responses of high-productive firms offset these effects, resulting in statistically insignificant estimates.



(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure 8: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

Section F.3.4 delves into the heterogeneity of climate damages associated with firm-level productivity levels by analysing potential differences across countries. Unlike the other sources of heterogeneity analysed in this paper, the cross-country results focusing on firm-level productivity heterogeneity are consistent both with those estimated for the pooled sample and with each other. In almost all countries, the least-productive firms are negatively impacted by higher temperatures, whereas the impact on the most-productive firms is either positive or not statistically significant. The consistency of results across different samples suggests that differences in productivity levels are a credible source for identifying heterogeneity in firm-level climate damages. In addition to being a reasonable metric to pinpoint heterogeneous marginal effects from an econometric perspective, the identification of a single characteristic able to explain differences in economic responses to temperature offers new opportunities to design tailored climate policies.

4.2.2 Productivity Heterogeneity – Firms' Exit

This section explores a potential mechanism underpinning the previous results. While the larger negative marginal effects for low-productivity firms previously discussed align intuitively with expectations, the observed positive marginal effect for highly productive firms appears puzzling. A plausible explanation for this result is that the disproportionate adverse economic impacts on less productive firms cause them to lose market share and potentially exit the market, leading to a reallocation of production factors that ultimately benefits more productive firms. This section examines this hypothesis by estimating the impact of higher temperatures on firm exit.

Figure 9 reports the point estimates and confidence intervals from the Cox proportional hazard model. The base category represents the estimates for the least-productive firms. The estimates show large heterogeneity across both firms' productivity categories and temperature lags. The effect of temperature on firms' exit hazard rate is not statistically significant for the two categories identifying the least-productive firms, but it is positive and significant for the remaining categories. However, due to the large standard errors, the estimates are generally not statistically different from each other. The estimates from the first lag are generally not statistically significant and consistently not different from each other, suggesting that temperatures in $(t-1)$ have little impact on firm's exit rates. On the contrary, according to this analysis, temperatures in $(t-2)$ seem to be having the largest effect. The effect is 0.3 for the least-productive firms, while the most-productive firms experience an additional effect of -0.37 as captured by the interaction term.[34]

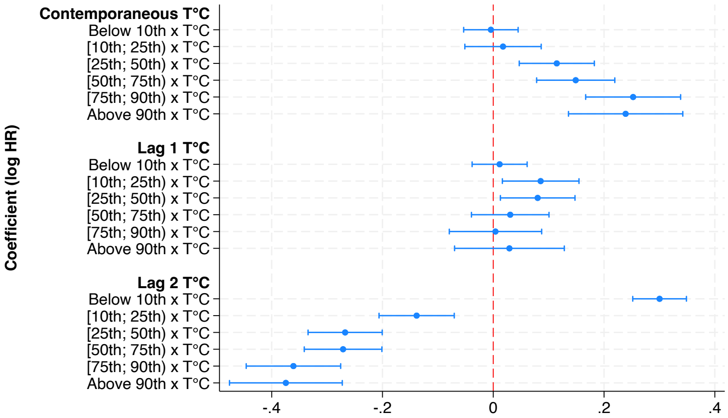


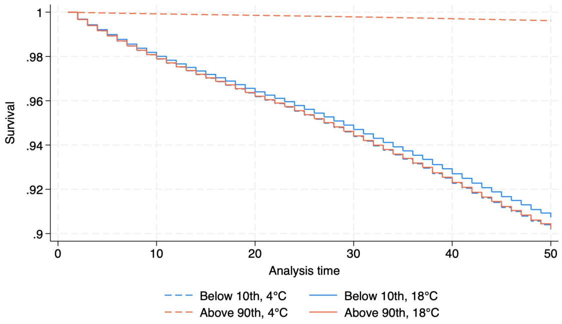
Figure 9: Point estimates from the Cox proportional hazard model (95% CIs.)

Figure 10 plots the survival function S(t) defined in equation 9 for the least-productive and the most-productive firms located in cold and warm areas. The functions can be interpreted as the share of firms that have not exited the market at different analysis times, which in this case corresponds to firm age. As the distribution of firms' age is right-skewed, with some firms being several centuries old, I restrict the analysis to firms that are at most 50 years old at the end of the analysis.

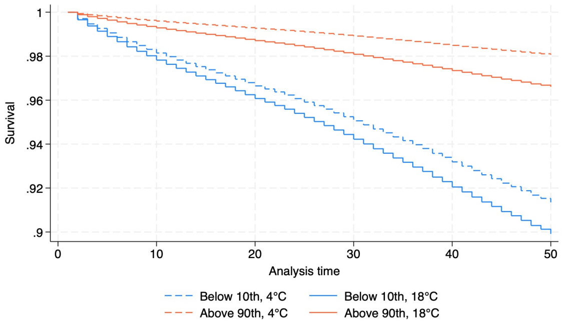
The results from figure 10 are striking. Although with some variation across firms, the contemporaneous and the 1-lag temperature do not seem to be largely affecting firms' exit. In both cases, the survival rate is always above 0.96 after 20 years and above 0.9 after 50 years. On the contrary, the lag-2 temperature has a substantial negative impact on the survival of the least-productive firms located in warm areas, with their survival rate being approximately 0.8 after 20 years and falling below 0.6 after 50 years, whereas the remaining firm categories face survival rates consistently above 0.95 throughout the analysis time-span.

---

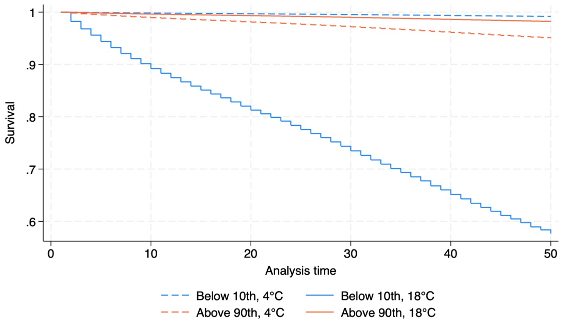
[34] A 1-unit increase in yearly average temperature increases the hazard rate of exit for the least-productive firms by 35% ($exp(0.3) = 1.35$)) and it decreases it for the most-productive firms by 7% ($exp(-0.374 + 0.3) = 0.93$.)



(a) Contemporaneous



(b) Lag 1



(c) Lag 2

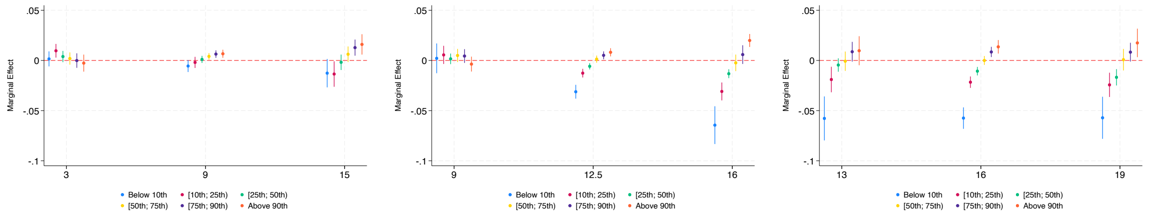
Figure 10: Estimated survival functions $S(T)$ for the least-productive (bottom productivity decile) and the most-productive (top productivity decile) firms located in cold ($4°C$) and warm ($18°C$) areas.

These findings are consistent with those presented in the previous section. The persistently large negative impact of higher temperatures on the least-productive firms located in warmer areas ultimately leads a non-negligible share of them to exit the market. This, in turn, partly explains the positive effect observed for the most-productive firms, insofar as the production factors and market shares of exiting firms are reallocated to more productive ones.

4.2.3 Productivity Heterogeneity – Adaptation

This section examines whether firms in the sample have implemented adaptation measures that reduce their exposure to higher temperatures. The approach leverages plausibly random weather variation while accounting for ex-ante adaptation. A common method estimates heterogeneous treatment effects of short-run weather shocks across locations with different long-run baseline climates. The rationale is that agents form expectations about local climate based on the observed weather distribution and, therefore, invest in ex-ante adaptation (Carleton et al. 2024).[35]

Econometrically, this is performed by interacting the short-run within-area weather shock from the main specification with a variable capturing long-run climate, which proxies for agents' expectations. This procedure follows Dell et al. (2012), Heutel et al. (2021), Carleton et al. (2022), and Roth Tran (2023), among others. I construct the long-run climate variable by averaging monthly mean temperatures from 1950–2020 (ERA5) at the yearly level, then spatially aggregating these gridded data to NUTS3 regions. Figure F.15 reports the spatial distribution of for this variable. This yields NUTS3-specific long-run climates, which are interacted with the main model in equation 6 to estimate the heterogeneous marginal effects of yearly average temperature on firm-level GO across different climatic zones. For simplicity and computational tractability, I define three climatic zones based on the long-term temperature distribution: zone 1 includes the first quartile ($-0.4^{\circ}C$–$10.1^{\circ}C$), zone 2 the second and third quartiles ($10.1^{\circ}C$–$13.6^{\circ}C$), and zone 3 the fourth quartile ($13.6^{\circ}C$–$18.6^{\circ}C$).



(a) Climatic zone 1 (b) Climatic zone 2 (c) Climatic zone 3

Figure 11: Marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of GO across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.

Figure 11 reports the estimates resulting from this analysis.[36] The estimates in zone 1 are generally not statistically different from zero, although the most productive firms experience positive marginal effects (1.6 percentage points) when located in areas experiencing higher yearly temperatures. The heterogeneity in climate damages highlighted earlier unfolds in zone 2: the estimates are insignificant in colder parts of the temperature distribution but diverge as temperatures rise. Least-productive firms experience a -6.5 percentage point decrease in GO growth following a $1^{\circ}C$ increase, while the most productive firms gain approximately 2 percentage points. In zone 3, results are stable across the temperature support: low-productive firms are consistently negatively affected, while high-productive firms benefit (about -5.7 pp and $+1.7$ pp at $19^{\circ}C$).

Figure F.16 in the appendix reports the lagged marginal effects. The results are also significant in colder zones, where productivity correlates with sensitivity to higher temperatures. The most productive firms benefit from warmer conditions in warm areas but face losses in colder ones. The results for the remaining climate areas are broadly consistent with the contemporaneous effects. Zone

---

[35] See Carleton et al. (2024) for a detailed discussion of this method and its limitations.

[36] Climatic zones are defined using long-run averages, whereas the temperature supports refer to within-area yearly averages. Overlaps in the supports across zones are therefore expected.

2 results are similar in magnitude to contemporaneous effects (slightly lower for lag 2), while effects in zone 3 differ more markedly: the most productive firms gain 3.2 pp (lag 1) and 2 pp (lag 2), whereas the least productive lose around -3.6 pp for both lags.

Given the number of estimates, comparing cumulative effects provides a clearer overview. Focusing on the warmer part of the temperature distribution, a $1°C$ increase in yearly average temperature cumulatively reduces the growth rate of GO by -5.5 pp in zone 1, by -17.1 pp in zone 2, and by -13 pp in zone 3 for the least-productive firms, while increasing it by 5.7, 4.9, and 7 pp for the most productive firms, respectively. Although the weaker effects observed in colder climates differ from previous findings, results for the other two zones suggest some degree of ex-ante adaptation. The marginal effect for the least productive firms in temperate climates is 31.5% higher in magnitude than in warmer zones, while for the most productive firms it is 42.8% higher in warm zones than in temperate ones. These findings indicate that firms in historically warmer areas may already have adopted adaptation strategies that mitigate the adverse effects of higher temperatures.

4.3 Robustness

This section presents robustness tests related to the main findings of this paper, discussed in Section 4.2.1. I report estimates from models that include quadratic trends, exclude the year 2020 due to the Covid-19 pandemic, exclude firms that exit the market, use the balanced panel, exclude firms listed as shareholders, apply a "leave-one-country-out" procedure and randomisation-based placebo tests.

Trends Figures 12 and G.2 report the relevant marginal effects after the inclusion of NUTS1-specific time trends for the growth rate of GO and the production factors, respectively. As is evident, these results are robust to the inclusion of such trends. The results for lagged temperatures are also robust for both GO (figure G.1) and the inputs (figures G.3 and G.4). This test confirms that the country–industry–year fixed effects used in the econometric specification effectively account for underlying trends.

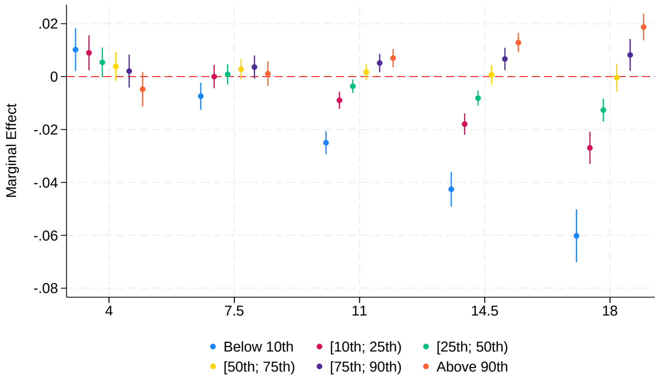


Figure 12: Marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE and quadratic NUTS-specific time trends.

Exclude Covid-19 Figures 13 and G.6 report the relevant marginal effects after excluding the Covid-19 period (year 2020) for the growth rate of GO and the production factors, respectively.

Although the outbreak of Covid-19 occurred at the end of 2019, it affected European countries and their economies primarily in 2020. As shown, these results are robust to the exclusion of 2020. The results for lagged temperatures are also robust for both GO (figure G.13) and the inputs (figures G.7 and G.8). This test indicates that the country–industry–year fixed effects used in the econometric specification adequately account for economic shocks such as the Covid-19 pandemic.

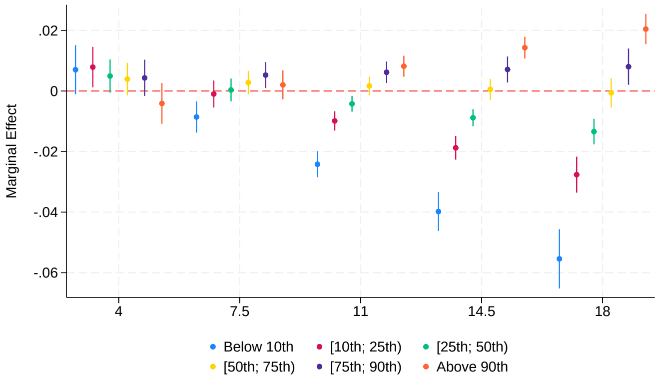


Figure 13: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE. The estimation sample excludes the year 2020 (Covid-19 pandemic).

Exclude Exiting Firm The negative estimates presented in the main specification, particularly for the least productive firms, may be driven by the disproportionate effects of weather shocks on the most severely affected firms, which consequently exit the market. This robustness test is important because it allows us to assess whether these effects are driven by exiting firms or are instead consistent across all firms within this category. Figures 14 and G.10 report the relevant marginal effects after excluding exiting firms[37] for the growth rate of GO and the production factors, respectively.

As shown, these results are robust to the exclusion of exiting firms. The results for lagged temperatures are also robust for both GO (G.9) and the inputs (G.11 and G.12). This test indicates that the results presented in Section 4.2.1 hold, on average, for all firms within the same category. This is not surprising, since exiting firms account for only 1.13% of the overall sample.

---

[37] Exiting firms are defined consistently with 4.2.2

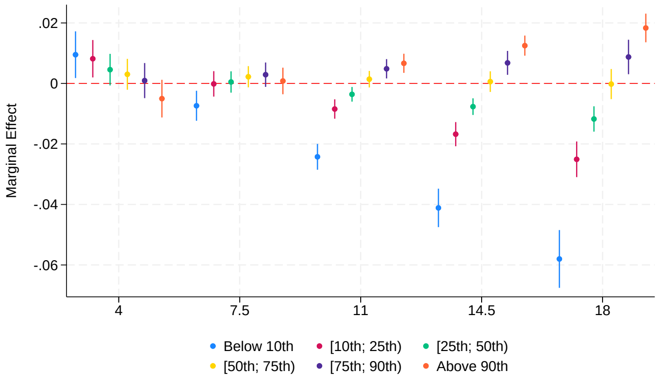


Figure 14: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE. The estimation sample excludes exiting firms.

Balanced Panel Figure 15 reports the estimates from the balanced panel for GO. The estimates are consistent, at least in terms of rank, with those from the baseline sample. As expected, the estimates are not statistically significant due to the reduction in sample size—the balanced panel includes approximately 2.9 million observations, compared to about 22 million in the unbalanced panel. The sharp increase in standard errors for low-productive firms can be attributed to their smaller relative share in the balanced sample. While the number of firms in the below-10th and above-90th categories is, by construction, the same in the unbalanced sample (approximately 3.1 million each), the number of low-productive firms in the balanced sample declines more markedly (around 274 thousand) than the number of high-productive firms (around 498 thousand). This is not surprising, as high-productive firms face a lower probability of exiting the market (Melitz 2003).

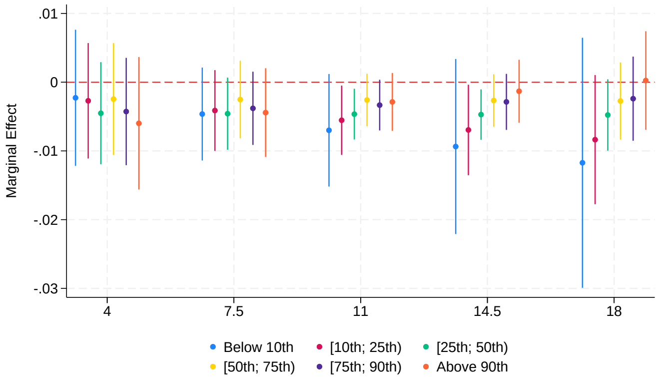


Figure 15: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE. The estimation sample refers to the balanced panel.

In this regard, the result is consistent with the findings discussed in Section 4.2.1. Because low-productive firms tend to be more affected by higher temperatures and are more likely to exit the market, restricting the sample to the balanced panel mechanically reduces the magnitude of the estimates by excluding the firms most exposed to such impacts. Conversely, the marginal effect for high-productive firms is also attenuated relative to the unbalanced sample. This pattern may indicate that the high-productive firms driving the positive marginal effects in warmer areas are, at least in part, new entrants that are better able to withstand higher temperatures. A similar pattern emerges for contemporaneous temperatures on the production factors (figure G.14), as well as for the effects of lagged temperatures on both GO and the production inputs (figures F.10 and F.11).

Exclude Shareholders A potential concern discussed in Section 2 relates to the availability of balance sheet data for firms' headquarters. Since the location of a headquarter does not necessarily identify where economic activity is carried out, the matched temperature may not be the most relevant measure for assessing the effects of weather shocks on firm performance. As explained in Section 2, this paper relies on unconsolidated balance sheets, which exclude all financial streams from subsidiaries. As an additional robustness check, in this section I exclude all firms that have subsidiaries, according to the Orbis ownership dataset. The number of firms decreases from 6,088,425 to 2,109,520, and the number of observations from 43,010,224 to 13,446,981.

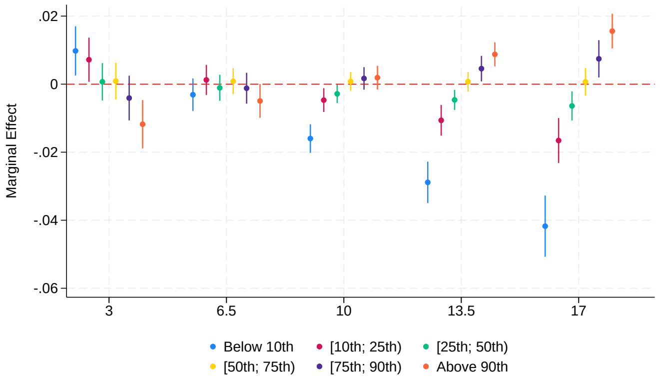
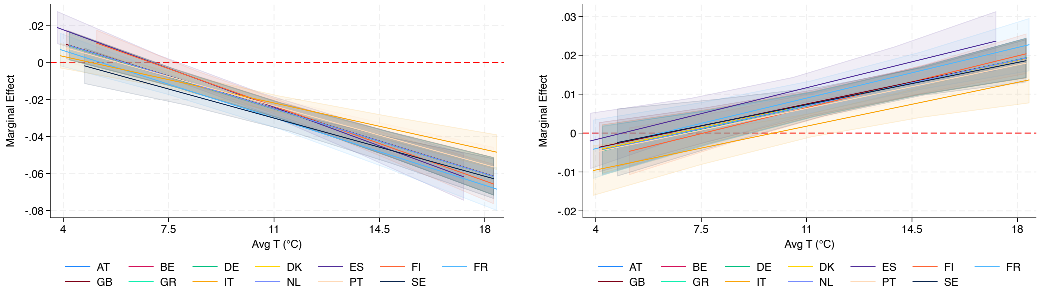


Figure 16: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE. The estimation sample excludes firms listed as shareholders in the Orbis Ownership database.

Figures 16 and G.18 report the relevant marginal effects after excluding firms listed with subsidiaries for the growth rate of GO and the production factors, respectively. As shown, these results are generally robust to the exclusion of such firms. However, the effect for the least productive firms is smaller in magnitude compared to the main specification for GO (i.e., 4.2 percentage points instead of 5.8 percentage points), while the effect for the most productive firms is larger in magnitude for L (i.e., 1.8 percentage points instead of 1 percentage point). The results for lagged temperatures display similar patterns for both GO (figure G.17) and the inputs (figures G.19 and G.20). This test indicates that relying on unconsolidated balance sheet information is effective in ruling out potential biases arising from using the temperature associated with the legal headquarter rather than that relevant to firms' subsidiaries.

Leave-one-Country-out Figure 17 reports the marginal effects from the leave-one-country-out (LOCO) procedure. For presentational purposes and to enhance clarity, I show the cumulative marginal effects of higher yearly average temperatures for low- and high-productive firms only. The goal of this exercise is not to compare the marginal effects of temperature over time or across productivity categories, but to assess whether firms in a specific country are driving the results. As shown, although there are minor differences in the point estimates across samples, the marginal effects remain consistent and statistically indistinguishable from one another. Importantly, the estimates obtained through this procedure are consistent with those presented and discussed in Section 4.2.1, confirming that the results are not driven by any particular country. This applies to both low- and high-productive firms, as shown in figures 17a and 17b, respectively.



(a) Cumulative Marginal Effect Cat. 1 (b) Cumulative Marginal Effect Cat. 6

Figure 17: Cumulative marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (firm grouped according to average TFP). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the LOCO procedure.

Similar arguments apply to the remaining variables reported in figures G.21 for the low-productive firms and G.22 for the high-productive firms. Two exceptions concern L for the low-productive firms and K for the high-productive firms, where the point estimates are more dispersed, although generally not statistically different from each other. However, this is not surprising and does not suggest the presence of bias, since the corresponding estimates reported in the main analysis (figure 8) are close to zero and not statistically significant.

4.3.1 Randomisation-Based Placebo Tests

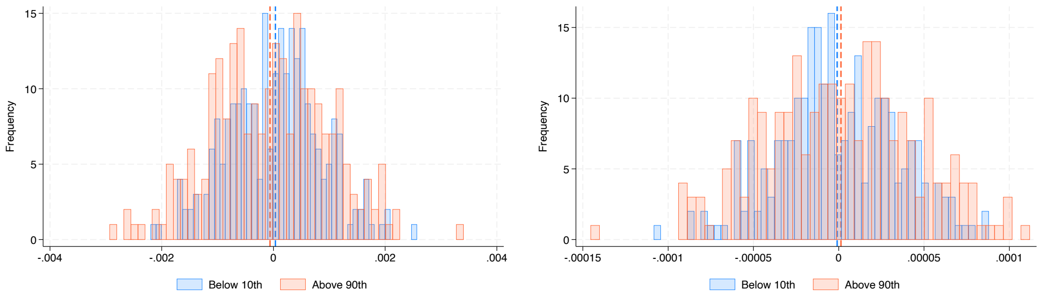
Section 3 has highlighted the plausible exogeneity of the weather shocks used in the main specification of this paper. Nevertheless, it remains important to verify whether this assumption is supported by the data. Specifically, I test whether the model specification defined in equation 6 produces spurious estimates rather than identifying the causal effect of higher temperatures on firms' economic performance. Following Young and Hsiang (2024), I rely on randomisation-based placebo tests to assess whether these estimates are unbiased when the underlying structure of the data is deliberately manipulated. The total number of randomisations is limited to 250 due to computational constraints.[38] In the remainder of this section, I present results for two different placebo tests: one based on total randomisation and another on within-NUTS1 randomisation. Each test addresses distinct potential sources of bias. Any non-zero correlation emerging from these tests, on average, would indicate the presence of biased estimates.

Total Randomisation Total randomisation shuffles temperature and precipitation across all firm-year observations, thereby breaking both the cross-sectional and time-series structures in the

---

[38] For example, the complete randomisation procedure requires 175 hours.

data. This analysis tests whether the results presented so far would also emerge in contexts where the model is estimated on pure noise. Figure 18 reports the resulting estimates for both the linear 18a and quadratic 18b contemporaneous specifications, based on 250 randomisations for the least productive (Below 10th) and most productive (Above 90th) firm categories. In addition, figures G.23a and G.24a present the corresponding estimates for the first and second lags, respectively. Each figure shows the category-specific average of the resulting distribution of estimates. Table G.2 reports the average coefficients for the least- and most-productive firms, both for contemporaneous and lagged temperatures, and compares them to the corresponding estimates from the non-randomised data.



(a) Linear point estimates

(b) Quadratic point estimates

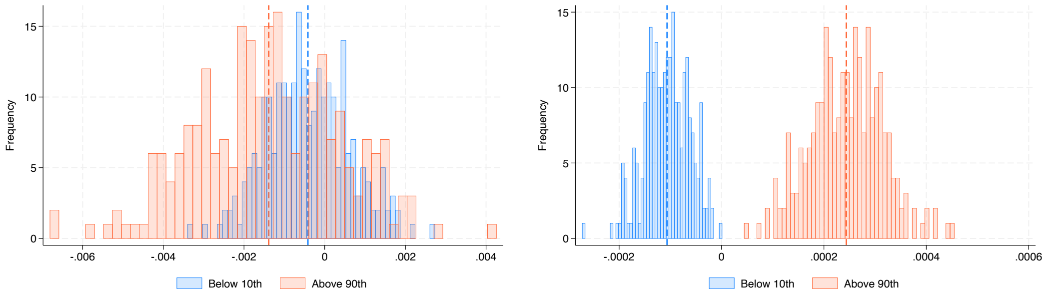
Figure 18: Distribution of point estimates for T (a) and T^2 (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the total randomisation procedure.

According to these results, this test does not yield any meaningful correlation between the randomly assigned temperature variables and firms' GO. All reported averages are approximately zero. Therefore, the main model in equation 6 is reasonably well specified, and the weather shocks used for identification are plausibly random.

Within-NUTS1 Randomisation Although the climate economics literature has traditionally focused on the socioeconomic effects of local temperatures, recent studies have shown that weather shocks can propagate through supply chains (Pankratz and Schiller 2024; Feng et al. 2025; Castro-Vincenzi et al. 2024; Balboni et al. 2023; Zappalà 2023) (see Lemoine et al. (2025) for a review), highlighting the need to account for spatial correlations in climate damages. Leaving these spillovers unaccounted for may violate the Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA) (Deschenes and Meng 2018). While I have partially addressed this issue by excluding firms that acquire inputs within their ownership structure, remaining firms may still source inputs from third parties exposed to different weather shocks.

Fully accounting for this issue would require detailed information on firms' supply chains, as in Pankratz and Schiller (2024). However, such information is not available in Orbis, and this analysis lies beyond the scope of the present paper. To partially account for spatial spillovers, the main model in equation 6 could, in principle, be extended to include spatial lags. Although a spatial lag regression would still overlook damages transmitted between firms across countries, it would capture spatial spillovers within the sample. This approach would be relevant in this context given that most firms in the sample belong to the European single market, and due to the large presence of SMEs, which tend to interact with local suppliers. Yet, due to the size of the dataset, constructing the weighting matrix required for a spatial lag model is computationally infeasible. To overcome this limitation, I employ an additional randomisation test to assess whether spatial spillovers bias the estimates.

This section presents the results of the within-NUTS1 randomisation placebo test. The procedure reshuffles weather data across firms within the same NUTS1-year, allowing me to test whether weather shocks transmit among firms operating in the same region. If such spillovers existed, the effects of the randomly assigned shocks would differ from zero.



(a) Linear point estimates

(b) Quadratic point estimates

Figure 19: Distribution of point estimates for T (a) and T^2 (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the NUTS1 randomisation procedure.

Figure 19 report the results of this placebo test. In addition, figures G.25a and G.26a present the corresponding estimates for the first and second lags, respectively. Table G.2 reports the average coefficients for the least- and most-productive firms, both for contemporaneous and lagged temperatures, and compares them to the corresponding estimates from the non-randomised data. The estimated coefficients are centred around zero for the linear term, whereas they are further away for the quadratic term. Nevertheless, the estimates resulting from this randomisation procedure are, on average, considerably smaller than those from the main specification in section 4.2.1. Specifically, the estimates range between an order of magnitude smaller for the quadratic term of the most-productive firms to two orders of magnitude for the linear term of the least-productive firms.

This finding is reassuring, as it indicates that, on average, the firms analysed in this study are affected only by their own local temperature and do not respond to randomly assigned temperatures from other firms within the same NUTS1 region. Although negligible, the presence of some estimates further from zero is expected in this randomisation, given the spatial correlation in temperatures, particularly within a NUTS1 region. Overall, these results further support the robustness of the identification strategy.

5 Conclusions

This paper has presented and discussed estimates of economic damages induced by weather fluctuations based on a novel sample of European firms. The analysis highlighted the heterogeneity of climate damages that is otherwise overlooked in aggregate analysis. The work explored the heterogeneity of climate impacts across various firm characteristics, such as average productivity, industry, and size. The paper highlights the importance of firms' productivity heterogeneity, in contrast with previous research which has focused on firms' size and industry. This is the main contribution of this paper.

Consistent with prevailing literature (Burke et al. 2015; Chen and Yang 2019; Acevedo et al. 2020), the empirical findings of this paper reveal an inverted-U-shaped relationship between temperature and economic outcomes for the pooled European sample. However, these estimates are statistically insignificant across the temperature distribution, suggesting that Europe, as a whole, is insulated from the negative impacts of rising temperature. The relationship unfolds divergently across countries, manifesting as either a U-shaped or an inverted-U-shaped relationship.

The analysis focusing on the heterogeneity across firm productivity levels highlights negative impacts on the least-productive firms, offering consistent findings across economic variables. Accounting for TFP heterogeneity produces more precise estimates, significantly reducing climate damages uncertainty. This result not only yields empirical insights pertinent to the formulation of targeted adaptation strategies, but also bridges the gap between climate economics and the broader literature on aggregate productivity and firm dynamics. Firm size seems to be relevant only for small firms located in warmer areas, which are negatively impacted by higher temperature. This study explores industry-specific effects, identifying certain sectors as particularly vulnerable to weather shocks, while others seem to benefit from higher temperature.

Since these results are particularly striking when examining the effects on TFP growth, making a connection to the firm convergence and inequality literature is natural. From a TFP convergence perspective, higher temperature fosters convergence and reduces firm inequality for firms located in colder areas, and at the same time, slows down convergence and exacerbates firm-level inequality for firms located in warmer areas. The result related to colder areas could initially suggest a positive, and potentially welfare-enhancing effect, to the extent that lower inequality is usually associated with higher aggregate productivity growth and, consequently, long-run economic growth (De Loecker et al. 2024).

However, in this case the reduction in firm inequality is not driven by a beneficial "catching-up" effect from lagging firms, but rather by a detrimental "slowing-down" effect determined by leading firms. Consequently, the net effect on aggregate productivity for firms located in colder areas is on average negative, and welfare-reducing. Determining whether the marginal effect of temperature at the high end of the temperature distribution is welfare-enhancing or reducing is more complex. Since the effect is positive for more-productive firms and negative for low-productive firms, the assessment of the overall effect on aggregate productivity hinges on the relative shares of these firms within the economy and across the temperature support. Nevertheless, potential efficiency gains must be balanced against equity considerations.

This study builds on the Burke et al. (2015) specification, discussing its identification strategy and addressing, in the firm-level context, the drawbacks highlighted in recent literature (Newell et al. 2021; Klenow et al. 2023). Model selection criteria allowed us to identify the optimal functional form in terms of both polynomial order and number of lags. The preferred model is a 2^{nd} order polynomial in temperature and precipitation with two lags, ensuring flexibility while avoiding overfitting.

This analysis is subject to certain limitations. While endogeneity concerns are limited, as weather shocks — identified via temperature fluctuations after accounting for fixed effects — are plausibly exogenous, the external validity is modest. European firms may not be representative of global firms, as they differ in resources and institutional frameworks for implementing adaptation policies. Considering the inertia in climate mitigation, climate adaptation becomes paramount for upholding adequate living standards. In this regard, the estimates presented in this paper pertain to the short- and medium-term economic damages arising from variations in temperature. As the impacts of rising temperatures become more pronounced, firms are likely to invest more substantially in adaptation, thereby attenuating their exposure to the effects of climate change. Moreover, while this paper studies the effect of average temperature, it does not account for temperature variability, a crucial factor for climate econometric analysis (Kotz et al. 2021; Linsenmeier 2023).

The policy implications of this study may be profound. This work challenges prior research suggesting a lack of impact of higher temperature in Europe, thereby questioning the prevailing idea that the European green transition is purely motivated by between-continent equity reasons. Additionally, the heterogeneity in climate impacts across firms emphasises the need for tailored climate policies. Taxation strategies, differentially applied to firms benefiting from or unaffected by higher temperature, could serve as a mean of redistributing funds to mitigate adverse effects on vulnerable firms. Furthermore, the paper highlights the importance of productivity-boosting policies. As higher productivity is associated with a reduction in the negative impacts of weather shocks, such policies have a dual benefit. Policymakers are urged to consider these findings when formulating strategies for a smooth and equitable transition, ensuring that climate policies align with the diverse vulnerabilities of firms in the European economic landscape.

References

Acemoglu, Daron, Johnson, Simon, and Robinson, James A (2002). "Reversal of fortune: Geography and institutions in the making of the modern world income distribution". *The Quarterly journal of economics* 117.4, pp. 1231–1294.

Acevedo, Sebastian, Mrkaic, Mico, Novta, Natalija, Pugacheva, Evgenia, and Topalova, Petia (2020). "The effects of weather shocks on economic activity: what are the channels of impact?" *Journal of Macroeconomics* 65, p. 103207.

Acharya, Viral V, Eisert, Tim, Eufinger, Christian, and Hirsch, Christian (2019). "Whatever it takes: The real effects of unconventional monetary policy". *The Review of Financial Studies* 32.9, pp. 3366–3411.

Addoum, Jawad M, Ng, David T, and Ortiz-Bobea, Ariel (2020). "Temperature shocks and establishment sales". *The Review of Financial Studies* 33.3, pp. 1331–1366.

Adhvaryu, Achyuta, Kala, Namrata, and Nyshadham, Anant (2022). "Management and shocks to worker productivity". *Journal of Political Economy* 130.1, pp. 1–47.

Akaike, Htrotugu (1973). "Maximum likelihood identification of Gaussian autoregressive moving average models". *Biometrika* 60.2, pp. 255–265.

Albert, Christoph, Bustos, Paula, and Ponticelli, Jacopo (2021). *The effects of climate change on labor and capital reallocation.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Athey, Susan and Imbens, Guido W (2019). "Machine learning methods that economists should know about". *Annual Review of Economics* 11, pp. 685–725.

Auffhammer, Maximilian (2018). "Quantifying Economic Damages from Climate Change". *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 32.4, pp. 33–52. DOI: 10.1257/jep.32.4.33. URL: https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/jep.32.4.33.

Autor, David, Dorn, David, Katz, Lawrence F, Patterson, Christina, and Van Reenen, John (2020). "The fall of the labor share and the rise of superstar firms". *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 135.2, pp. 645–709.

Balboni, Clare, Boehm, Johannes, and Waseem, Mazhar (2023). "Firm adaptation and production networks: Structural evidence from extreme weather events in Pakistan". *Unpublished manuscript.*

Baltagi, Badi H. (2008). *Econometric analysis of panel data.* Vol. 4. Springer.

Banzhaf, Spencer, Ma, Lala, and Timmins, Christopher (2019). "Environmental justice: The economics of race, place, and pollution". *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 33.1, pp. 185–208.

Barreca, Alan I (2012). "Climate change, humidity, and mortality in the United States". *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 63.1, pp. 19–34.

Bartelsman, Eric, Haltiwanger, John, and Scarpetta, Stefano (2013). “Cross-country differences in productivity: The role of allocation and selection”. *American economic review* 103.1, pp. 305–334.

Bearpark, Thomas and Palomba, Filippo (2024). “Time Trends in Climate Impact Studies”. *Forthcoming.*

Benmir, Ghassane, Mori, Aditya, Josselin, Roman, and Tarsia, Romano (2024). “Beneath the Trees: The Influence of Natural Capital on Shadow Price Dynamics in a Macroeconomic Model with Uncertainty”. *Working Paper.*

Bilal, Adrien and Känzig, Diego R (2024). *The Macroeconomic Impact of Climate Change: Global vs. Local Temperature.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Bloom, Nicholas, Draca, Mirko, and Van Reenen, John (2016). “Trade induced technical change? The impact of Chinese imports on innovation, IT and productivity”. *The review of economic studies* 83.1, pp. 87–117.

Burgess, Robin, Deschenes, Olivier, Donaldson, Dave, and Greenstone, Michael (2017). “Weather, climate change and death in India”. *University of Chicago*, pp. 577–617.

Burke, Marshall and Emerick, Kyle (2016). “Adaptation to climate change: Evidence from US agriculture”. *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy* 8.3, pp. 106–140.

Burke, Marshall, González, Felipe, Baylis, Patrick, Heft-Neal, Sam, Baysan, Ceren, Basu, Sanjay, and Hsiang, Solomon (2018). “Higher temperatures increase suicide rates in the United States and Mexico”. *Nature climate change* 8.8, pp. 723–729.

Burke, Marshall, Hsiang, Solomon M, and Miguel, Edward (2015). “Global non-linear effect of temperature on economic production”. *Nature* 527.7577, pp. 235–239.

Burke, Marshall and Tanutama, Vincent (2019). *Climatic constraints on aggregate economic output.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Burke, Marshall B, Miguel, Edward, Satyanath, Shanker, Dykema, John A, and Lobell, David B (2009). “Warming increases the risk of civil war in Africa”. *Proceedings of the national Academy of sciences* 106.49, pp. 20670–20674.

Caggese, Andrea, Chiavari, Andrea, Goraya, Sampreet, and Villegas-Sanchez, Carolina (2023). *Climate change, firms, and aggregate productivity.* Tech. rep. Working Paper.

Calel, Raphael, Chapman, Sandra C, Stainforth, David A, and Watkins, Nicholas W (2020). “Temperature variability implies greater economic damages from climate change”. *Nature communications* 11.1, p. 5028.

Cameron, A Colin and Miller, Douglas L (2015). “A practitioner’s guide to cluster-robust inference”. *Journal of human resources* 50.2, pp. 317–372.

Cameron, A Colin and Trivedi, Pravin K (2005). *Microeconometrics: methods and applications*. Cambridge university press.

Card, David and Dahl, Gordon B (2011). “Family violence and football: The effect of unexpected emotional cues on violent behavior”. *The quarterly journal of economics* 126.1, pp. 103–143.

Carleton, Tamma, Duflo, Esther, Jack, B Kelsey, and Zappalà, Guglielmo (2024). “Adaptation to climate change”. In: *Handbook of the Economics of Climate Change*. Vol. 1. 1. Elsevier, pp. 143–248.

Carleton, Tamma, Jina, Amir, Delgado, Michael, Greenstone, Michael, Houser, Trevor, Hsiang, Solomon, Hultgren, Andrew, Kopp, Robert E, McCusker, Kelly E, Nath, Ishan, et al. (2022). “Valuing the global mortality consequences of climate change accounting for adaptation costs and benefits”. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 137.4, pp. 2037–2105.

Carleton, Tamma A (2017). “Crop-damaging temperatures increase suicide rates in India”. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 114.33, pp. 8746–8751.

Carleton, Tamma A and Hsiang, Solomon M (2016). “Social and economic impacts of climate”. *Science* 353.6304, aad9837.

Castro-Vincenzi, Juanma, Khanna, Gaurav, Morales, Nicolas, and Pandalai-Nayar, Nitya (2024). *Weathering the storm: Supply chains and climate risk*. Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Chatfield, Chris (1996). “Model uncertainty and forecast accuracy”. *Journal of Forecasting* 15.7, pp. 495–508.

Chen, Xiaoguang and Yang, Lu (2019). “Temperature and industrial output: Firm-level evidence from China”. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 95, pp. 257–274.

Choi, In (2001). “Unit root tests for panel data”. *Journal of international money and Finance* 20.2, pp. 249–272.

Christensen, Peter, Sarmiento-Barbieri, Ignacio, and Timmins, Christopher (2022). “Housing discrimination and the toxics exposure gap in the United States: evidence from the rental market”. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 104.4, pp. 807–818.

Clementi, Gian Luca and Palazzo, Berardino (2016). “Entry, exit, firm dynamics, and aggregate fluctuations”. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics* 8.3, pp. 1–41.

Collins, JG (1963). “On the calculation of the temperature variation of the coefficient of thermal expansion for materials of cubic structure”. *Philosophical Magazine* 8.86, pp. 323–332.

Cox, David R (1972). “Regression models and life-tables”. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological)* 34.2, pp. 187–202.

Cunsolo, Ashlee, Harper, Sherilee L, Minor, Kelton, Hayes, Katie, Williams, Kimberly G, and Howard, Courtney (2020). “Ecological grief and anxiety: the start of a healthy response to climate change?” *The Lancet Planetary Health* 4.7, e261–e263.

Currie, Janet, Davis, Lucas, Greenstone, Michael, and Walker, Reed (2015). “Environmental health risks and housing values: evidence from 1,600 toxic plant openings and closings”. *American Economic Review* 105.2, pp. 678–709.

Currie, Janet, Voorheis, John, and Walker, Reed (Jan. 2023). “What Caused Racial Disparities in Particulate Exposure to Fall? New Evidence from the Clean Air Act and Satellite-Based Measures of Air Quality”. *American Economic Review* 113.1, pp. 71–97. DOI: 10.1257/aer.20191957. URL: https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/aer.20191957.

De Loecker, Jan, Obermeier, Tim, and Van Reenen, John (2022). “Firms and inequality”. *Centre for Economic Performance Discussion Paper, London School of Economics and Poiltical Science.*

— (July 2024). “Firms and inequality”. *Oxford Open Economics* 3.Supplement, pp. i962–i982. ISSN: 2752-5074. DOI: 10.1093/ooec/odad097.

Decker, Ryan A, Haltiwanger, John, Jarmin, Ron S, and Miranda, Javier (2016). “Declining business dynamism: What we know and the way forward”. *American Economic Review* 106.5, pp. 203–207.

Dell, Melissa, Jones, Benjamin F, and Olken, Benjamin A (2009). “Temperature and income: reconciling new cross-sectional and panel estimates”. *American Economic Review* 99.2, pp. 198–204.

— (2012). “Temperature shocks and economic growth: Evidence from the last half century”. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics* 4.3, pp. 66–95.

— (2014). “What do we learn from the weather? The new climate-economy literature”. *Journal of Economic literature* 52.3, pp. 740–798.

Deryugina, Tatyana and Hsiang, Solomon (2017). *The marginal product of climate.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Deschenes, Olivier and Meng, Kyle C (2018). “Quasi-experimental methods in environmental economics: Opportunities and challenges”. *Handbook of environmental economics* 4, pp. 285–332.

Deschênes, Olivier and Greenstone, Michael (2007). “The economic impacts of climate change: evidence from agricultural output and random fluctuations in weather”. *American economic review* 97.1, pp. 354–385.

Deschênes, Olivier and Greenstone, Michael (2011). “Climate change, mortality, and adaptation: Evidence from annual fluctuations in weather in the US”. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics* 3.4, pp. 152–185.

Diebold, Francis X (1998). *Elements of forecasting.* Citeseer.

Dietz, Simon and Stern, Nicholas (2015). “Endogenous growth, convexity of damage and climate risk: how Nordhaus’ framework supports deep cuts in carbon emissions”. *The Economic Journal* 125.583, pp. 574–620.

Fadic, Milenko, Garda, Paula, and Pisu, Mauro (2019). “The effect of public sector efficiency on firm-level productivity growth: The Italian case”.

Feng, Alan, Li, Haishi, and Wang, Yulin (2025). “We are All in the Same Boat: Cross-Border Spillovers of Climate Shocks through International Trade and Supply Chains”. *The Economic Journal* 135.669, pp. 1433–1466.

Foster, Lucia, Haltiwanger, John C, and Krizan, Cornell John (2001). “Aggregate productivity growth: Lessons from microeconomic evidence”. In: *New developments in productivity analysis.* University of Chicago Press, pp. 303–372.

Gamper-Rabindran, Shanti and Timmins, Christopher (2011). “Hazardous waste cleanup, neighborhood gentrification, and environmental justice: Evidence from restricted access census block data”. *American Economic Review* 101.3, pp. 620–624.

Geisser, Seymour (1975). “The predictive sample reuse method with applications”. *Journal of the American statistical Association* 70.350, pp. 320–328.

Gopinath, Gita, Kalemli-Özcan, Şebnem, Karabarbounis, Loukas, and Villegas-Sanchez, Carolina (2017). “Capital allocation and productivity in South Europe”. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 132.4, pp. 1915–1967.

Graff Zivin, Joshua, Hsiang, Solomon M, and Neidell, Matthew (2018). “Temperature and human capital in the short and long run”. *Journal of the Association of Environmental and Resource Economists* 5.1, pp. 77–105.

Graff Zivin, Joshua and Kahn, Matthew E (2016). *Industrial productivity in a hotter world: the aggregate implications of heterogeneous firm investment in air conditioning.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Graff Zivin, Joshua and Neidell, Matthew (2014). “Temperature and the allocation of time: Implications for climate change”. *Journal of Labor Economics* 32.1, pp. 1–26.

Granger, Clive WJ and Newbold, Paul (1974). “Spurious regressions in econometrics”. *Journal of econometrics* 2.2, pp. 111–120.

Greene, William H (2003). *Econometric analysis.* Pearson Education India.

Groom, Ben, Linsenmeier, Manuel, and Roth, Sefi (Apr. 2023). *Some like it cold: Heterogeneity in the temperature-economy relationships of Europe.* DOI: `10.31235/osf.io/tcnad`. URL: `osf.io/preprints/socarxiv/tcnad`.

Harari, Mariaflavia and La Ferrara, Eliana (2018). “Conflict, climate, and cells: a disaggregated analysis”. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 100.4, pp. 594–608.

Hersbach, H, Bell, B, Berrisford, P, Biavati, G, Horányi, A, Muñoz Sabater, J, Nicolas, J, Peubey, C, Radu, R, Rozum, I, et al. (2019). “ERA5 monthly averaged data on single levels from 1979 to present”. *Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS)* 10, pp. 252–266.

Hersbach, Hans, Bell, Bill, Berrisford, Paul, Hirahara, Shoji, Horányi, András, Muñoz-Sabater, Joaquín, Nicolas, Julien, Peubey, Carole, Radu, Raluca, Schepers, Dinand, et al. (2020). “The ERA5 global reanalysis”. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society* 146.730, pp. 1999–2049.

Heutel, Garth, Miller, Nolan H, and Molitor, David (2021). “Adaptation and the mortality effects of temperature across US climate regions”. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 103.4, pp. 740–753.

Hogan, Dylan and Schlenker, Wolfram (2024a). “Chapter 2 - Empirical approaches to climate change impact quantification”. In: *Handbook of the Economics of Climate Change*. Ed. by Lint Barrage and Solomon Hsiang. Vol. 1. 1. North-Holland, pp. 53–111.

— (2024b). “Non-linear relationships between daily temperature extremes and US agricultural yields uncovered by global gridded meteorological datasets”. *Nature Communications* 15.1, p. 4638.

Hopenhayn, Hugo A (1992). “Entry, exit, and firm dynamics in long run equilibrium”. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, pp. 1127–1150.

Hsiang, Solomon (2016). “Climate econometrics”. *Annual Review of Resource Economics* 8, pp. 43–75.

Hsiang, Solomon, Oliva, Paulina, and Walker, Reed (2019). “The distribution of environmental damages”. *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy.*

Hsieh, Chang-Tai and Klenow, Peter J (2009). “Misallocation and manufacturing TFP in China and India”. *The Quarterly journal of economics* 124.4, pp. 1403–1448.

Hultgren, Andrew, Carleton, Tamma, Delgado, Michael, Gergel, Diana R, Greenstone, Michael, Houser, Trevor, Hsiang, Solomon, Jina, Amir, Kopp, Robert E, Malevich, Steven B, et al. (2025). “Impacts of climate change on global agriculture accounting for adaptation”. *Nature* 642.8068, pp. 644–652.

Im, Kyung So, Pesaran, M Hashem, and Shin, Yongcheol (2003). “Testing for unit roots in heterogeneous panels”. *Journal of econometrics* 115.1, pp. 53–74.

IPCC (2019). “Climate Change and Land: an IPCC special report on climate change, desertification, land degradation, sustainable land management, food security, and greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems”. *In press.*

James, Gareth, Witten, Daniela, Hastie, Trevor, Tibshirani, Robert, et al. (2013). *An introduction to statistical learning.* Vol. 112. Springer.

Kalemli- Özcan, Sebnem, Sørensen, Bent E., Villegas-Sanchez, Carolina, Volosovych, Vadym, and Yeşiltaş, Sevcan (Apr. 2024). "How to Construct Nationally Representative Firm-Level Data from the Orbis Global Database: New Facts on SMEs and Aggregate Implications for Industry Concentration". *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics* 16.2, pp. 353–74. DOI: 10.1257/mac.20220036. URL: https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/mac.20220036.

Kalkuhl, Matthias and Wenz, Leonie (2020). "The impact of climate conditions on economic production. Evidence from a global panel of regions". *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 103, p. 102360.

Klenow, Peter J, Nath, Ishan B, and Ramey, Valerie A (2023). *How Much Will Global Warming Cool Global Growth?* Tech. rep. Working paper.

Kotz, Maximilian, Levermann, Anders, and Wenz, Leonie (2024). "The economic commitment of climate change". *Nature* 628.8008, pp. 551–557.

Kotz, Maximilian, Wenz, Leonie, Stechemesser, Annika, Kalkuhl, Matthias, and Levermann, Anders (2021). "Day-to-day temperature variability reduces economic growth". *Nature Climate Change* 11.4, pp. 319–325.

Leeb, Hannes and Pötscher, Benedikt M (2005). "Model selection and inference: Facts and fiction". *Econometric Theory* 21.1, pp. 21–59.

Lemoine, Derek, Hausman, Catherine, and Shrader, Jeffrey G (2025). *A Guide to Climate Damages.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Levinsohn, James and Petrin, Amil (2003). "Estimating production functions using inputs to control for unobservables". *The review of economic studies* 70.2, pp. 317–341.

Lilja, David J (2005). *Measuring computer performance: a practitioner's guide.* Cambridge university press.

Linsenmeier, Manuel (2023). "Temperature variability and long-run economic development". *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 121, p. 102840.

Liu, Tianzi and Xu, Zebang (2024). "The (Mis) Allocation Channel of Climate Change". *Working Paper.*

McIntosh, Craig T and Schlenker, Wolfram (2006). "Identifying non-linearities in fixed effects models". *UC-San Diego Working Paper.*

Melitz, Marc J (2003). "The impact of trade on intra-industry reallocations and aggregate industry productivity". *econometrica* 71.6, pp. 1695–1725.

Mendelsohn, Robert, Nordhaus, William D, and Shaw, Daigee (1994). "The impact of global warming on agriculture: a Ricardian analysis". *The American economic review*, pp. 753–771.

Mérel, Pierre and Gammans, Matthew (2021). "Climate Econometrics: Can the Panel Approach Account for Long-Run Adaptation?" *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 103.4, pp. 1207–1238.

Miguel, Edward, Satyanath, Shanker, and Sergenti, Ernest (2004). "Economic shocks and civil conflict: An instrumental variables approach". *Journal of political Economy* 112.4, pp. 725–753.

Mortier, Roy M, Orszulik, Stefan T, and Fox, Malcolm F (2010). *Chemistry and technology of lubricants*. Vol. 107115. Springer.

Murphy, James M, Sexton, David MH, Barnett, David N, Jones, Gareth S, Webb, Mark J, Collins, Matthew, and Stainforth, David A (2004). "Quantification of modelling uncertainties in a large ensemble of climate change simulations". *Nature* 430.7001, pp. 768–772.

Nath, Ishan B (2020). *The food problem and the aggregate productivity consequences of climate change*. Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

National Academies of Sciences (2017). *Valuing climate damages: updating estimation of the social cost of carbon dioxide*. National Academies Press.

Newell, Richard G, Prest, Brian C, and Sexton, Steven E (2021). "The GDP-temperature relationship: implications for climate change damages". *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 108, p. 102445.

Nordhaus, William D (2006). "Geography and macroeconomics: New data and new findings". *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 103.10, pp. 3510–3517.

— (2017). "Revisiting the social cost of carbon". *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 114.7, pp. 1518–1523.

Norris-Keiller, Agnes and Van Reenen, John (2024). *Disaster management*. Tech. rep. Centre for Economic Performance, LSE.

Obradovich, Nick, Migliorini, Robyn, Paulus, Martin P, and Rahwan, Iyad (2018). "Empirical evidence of mental health risks posed by climate change". *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 115.43, pp. 10953–10958.

Olley, G. Steven and Pakes, Ariel (1996). "The Dynamics of Productivity in the Telecommunications Equipment Industry". *Econometrica* 64.6, pp. 1263–1297. ISSN: 00129682, 14680262. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/2171831 (visited on 12/20/2023).

Pankratz, Nora MC and Schiller, Christoph M (2024). “Climate change and adaptation in global supply-chain networks”. *The Review of Financial Studies* 37.6, pp. 1729–1777.

Park, Jisung, Pankratz, Nora, and Behrer, Arnold (2021). “Temperature, workplace safety, and labor market inequality”.

Picard, Robert (2019). “GEONEAR: Stata module to find nearest neighbors using geodetic distances”.

Pindyck, Robert S (2013). “Climate change policy: what do the models tell us?” *Journal of Economic Literature* 51.3, pp. 860–872.

Pizer, William, Adler, Matthew, Aldy, Joseph, Anthoff, David, Cropper, Maureen, Gillingham, Kenneth, Greenstone, Michael, Murray, Brian, Newell, Richard, Richels, Richard, et al. (2014). “Using and improving the social cost of carbon”. *Science* 346.6214, pp. 1189–1190.

Ponticelli, Jacopo, Xu, Qiping, and Zeume, Stefan (2023). *Temperature and local industry concentration.* Tech. rep. National Bureau of Economic Research.

Rennert, Kevin, Errickson, Frank, Prest, Brian C, Rennels, Lisa, Newell, Richard G, Pizer, William, Kingdon, Cora, Wingenroth, Jordan, Cooke, Roger, Parthum, Bryan, et al. (2022). “Comprehensive evidence implies a higher social cost of CO2”. *Nature* 610.7933, pp. 687–692.

Ricke, Katharine, Drouet, Laurent, Caldeira, Ken, and Tavoni, Massimo (2018). “Country-level social cost of carbon”. *Nature Climate Change* 8.10, pp. 895–900.

Rising, James, Tedesco, Marco, Piontek, Franziska, and Stainforth, David A (2022). “The missing risks of climate change”. *Nature* 610.7933, pp. 643–651.

Rode, Ashwin, Carleton, Tamma, Delgado, Michael, Greenstone, Michael, Houser, Trevor, Hsiang, Solomon, Hultgren, Andrew, Jina, Amir, Kopp, Robert E, McCusker, Kelly E, et al. (2021). “Estimating a social cost of carbon for global energy consumption”. *Nature* 598.7880, pp. 308–314.

Rodrik, Dani, Subramanian, Arvind, and Trebbi, Francesco (2004). “Institutions rule: the primacy of institutions over geography and integration in economic development”. *Journal of economic growth* 9, pp. 131–165.

Roth Tran, Brigitte (2023). “Sellin’in the rain: Weather, climate, and retail sales”. *Management Science* 69.12, pp. 7423–7447.

Schlenker, Wolfram and Roberts, Michael J (2009). “Nonlinear temperature effects indicate severe damages to US crop yields under climate change”. *Proceedings of the National Academy of sciences* 106.37, pp. 15594–15598.

Schwarz, Gideon (1978). “Estimating the dimension of a model”. *The annals of statistics*, pp. 461–464.

Somanathan, Eswaran, Somanathan, Rohini, Sudarshan, Anant, and Tewari, Meenu (2021). “The impact of temperature on productivity and labor supply: Evidence from Indian manufacturing”. *Journal of Political Economy* 129.6, pp. 1797–1827.

Stern, Nicholas (2006). “Stern Review: The economics of climate change”. *Cambrdige University Press.*

Stern, Nicholas and Stiglitz, Joseph E (2021). *The social cost of carbon, risk, distribution, market failures: An alternative approach.* Vol. 15. National Bureau of Economic Research Cambridge, MA, USA.

Weitzman, Martin L (2009). “On modeling and interpreting the economics of catastrophic climate change”. *The review of economics and statistics* 91.1, pp. 1–19.

Wooldridge, Jeffrey M (2002). “Econometric analysis of cross section and panel data”. *MIT press, Cambridge, MA* 108.2, pp. 245–254.

— (2009). “On estimating firm-level production functions using proxy variables to control for unobservables”. *Economics letters* 104.3, pp. 112–114.

Young, Rachel and Hsiang, Solomon (2024). “Mortality caused by tropical cyclones in the United States”. *Nature* 635.8037, pp. 121–128.

Zappalà, Guglielmo (2023). *Sectoral Impact and Propagation of Weather Shocks.* International Monetary Fund.

Zhang, Peng, Deschenes, Olivier, Meng, Kyle, and Zhang, Junjie (2018). “Temperature effects on productivity and factor reallocation: Evidence from a half million Chinese manufacturing plants”. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management* 88, pp. 1–17.

Appendix A Summary Statistics

ISO	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
AT	493	6,190	9,267	25,246	9,408
BE	72,783	23,138	40,275	35,342	25,896
DE	7,371	69,824	93,314	108,024	32,848
DK	17,583	31,672	26,845	22,393	16,120
ES	347,766	602,730	665,817	689,046	557,835
FI	49,816	76,884	129,014	139,635	107,334
FR	523,286	714,280	978,924	618,686	249,066
GB	235,576	279,813	213,585	167,831	111,439
GR	12,244	19,597	19,907	20,777	9,452
IT	119,876	504,692	791,868	827,547	715,271
NL	3,760	10,991	12,435	9,756	2,020
PT	27,157	223,522	257,219	273,756	284,717
SE	130,363	173,802	222,603	325,375	362,173

Table A.1: Total number of observations by Country (ISO geographical areas). The full table can be found in section A. Source: Orbis.

year	N	N Gross Output (log)	N Value Added (log)	N TFP (log)
1995	656,621	591,665	542,279	279,366
1996	883,005	823,365	722,371	366,875
1997	1,045,997	985,232	843,321	443,899
1998	1,296,358	1,232,357	994,963	559,348
1999	1,485,683	1,412,575	1,103,118	629,826
2000	1,646,362	1,548,074	1,249,236	727,215
2001	1,835,993	1,727,571	1,390,185	828,491
2002	2,081,454	1,937,880	1,519,259	888,050
2003	2,219,480	2,069,497	1,605,060	941,844
2004	2,576,967	2,415,462	1,948,151	1,042,245
2005	2,911,944	2,737,135	2,195,722	1,097,520
2006	3,091,646	2,905,526	2,314,636	1,378,497
2007	3,308,823	3,135,639	2,392,973	1,404,696
2008	3,464,151	3,280,756	2,495,579	1,505,656
2009	3,588,731	3,409,268	2,554,797	1,477,139
2010	3,643,531	3,461,073	2,581,186	1,407,666
2011	3,735,318	3,551,701	2,604,474	1,584,527
2012	3,788,124	3,604,949	2,608,281	1,522,490
2013	3,786,527	3,597,167	2,561,094	1,524,940
2014	3,702,227	3,511,815	2,355,801	1,543,117
2015	3,454,506	3,263,414	2,292,146	1,495,081
2016	3,368,576	3,224,585	2,118,766	1,451,505
2017	3,389,864	3,241,926	2,121,372	1,460,616
2018	3,425,572	3,274,297	2,121,650	1,457,707
2019	3,350,003	3,197,529	2,073,633	1,432,013
2020	2,609,375	2,483,579	1,627,159	1,130,047
Total	70,346,838	66,624,037	48,937,212	29,580,376

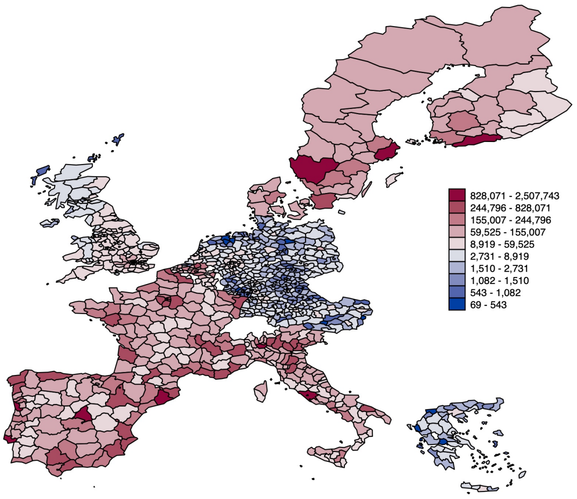
Table A.2: Total number of observations across all the European countries available in the sample after the cleaning procedure. Columns 2 to 4 refer to observations with available GO, VA or TFP expressed in logs. Whereas column 1 is the their union (observations with at least one of these variables available). Source: Orbis

NACE2 1-digit	2000	2010	2020
A-Agriculture forestry and fishing	25,129	58,787	54,194
B-Mining and quarrying	4,923	7,174	4,560
C-Manufacturing	233,167	383,233	265,411
D-Electricity gas steam and air conditioning supply	4,129	21,133	23,767
E-Water supply sewerage waste management	5,905	14,921	11,703
F-Construction	201,733	498,560	300,410
G-Wholesale and retail trade repair of motor vehicles	385,209	744,214	485,038
H-Transportation and storage	58,885	124,987	97,082
I-Accommodation and food service activities	75,343	208,508	148,328
J-Information and communication	75,570	146,280	119,609
K-Financial and insurance activities	44,500	104,811	85,355
L-Real estate activities	120,510	335,598	252,419
M-Professional scientific and technical activities	138,312	365,279	295,435
N-Administrative and support service activities	72,921	161,534	115,258
O-Public administration and defence	395	915	632
P-Education	12,856	45,652	39,987
Q-Human health and social work activities	20,826	89,015	85,058
R-Arts entertainment and recreation	20,474	54,947	48,940
S-Other service activities	34,817	79,179	47,122
T-Activities of households as employers	12,418	16,145	3,161
U-Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	52	201	110

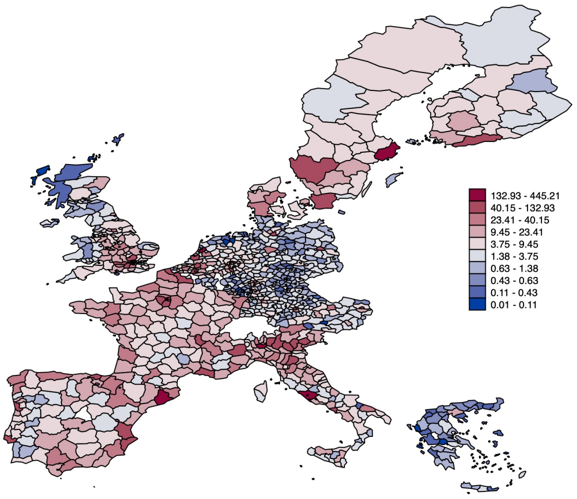
Table A.3: Total number of observations by industry, defined by the NACE 2 level 1 sectors. Source: Orbis.

Size	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
Below 10	527,852	888,874	1,293,442	1,477,137	1,231,760
10 to 19	131,003	166,521	201,246	236,791	198,870
20 to 49	105,164	126,856	135,134	158,540	134,658
50 to 99	35,286	44,491	52,030	58,905	48,642
100 to 249	22,826	30,383	35,841	42,126	33,831
Above 250	13,535	18,950	22,569	26,951	21,316

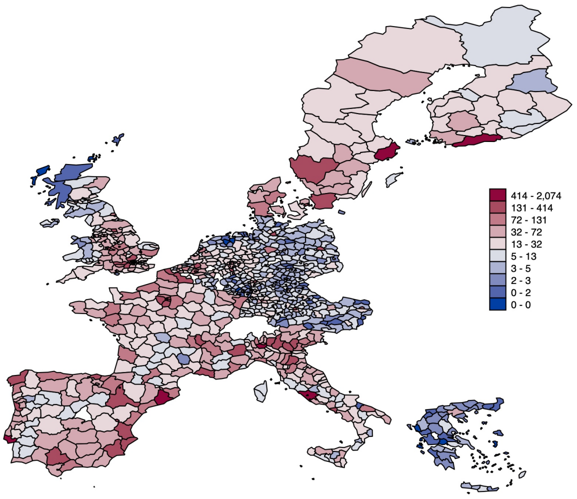
Table A.4: Total number of observations by firm size (European Commission classification). For presentational purpose, I report a subset of the available years. Source: Orbis.



(a) Number of firms

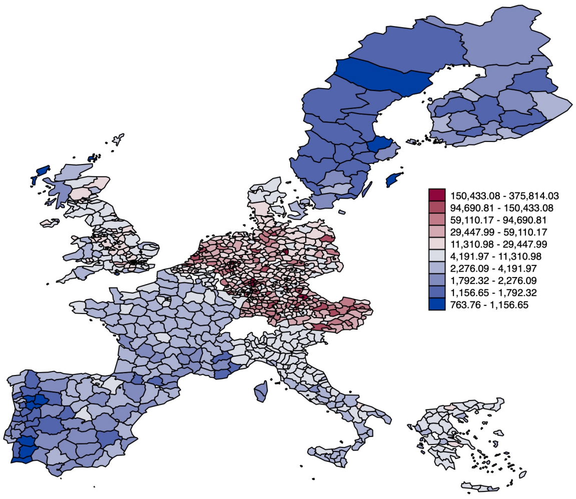


(b) Total gross output (billions of LCU)

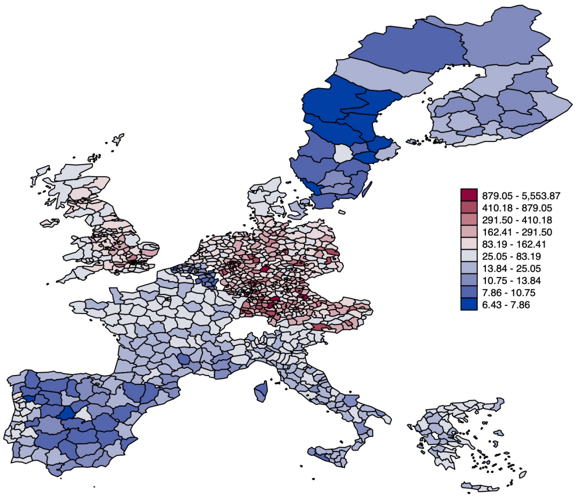


(c) Total number of employees (thousands)

Figure A.1: Descriptive statistics by Nuts 3 areas. Source: Orbis.

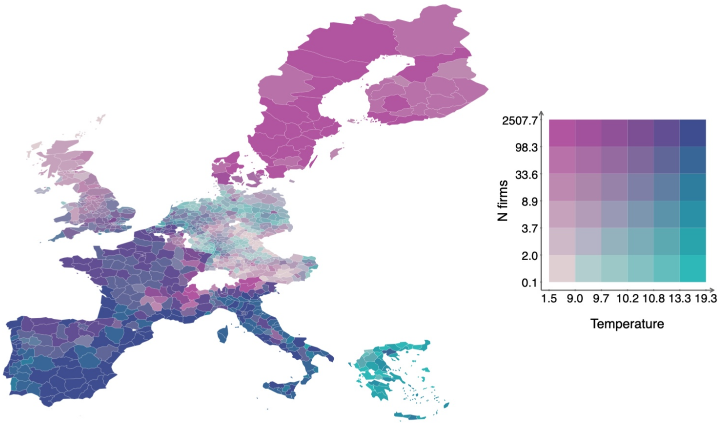


(a) Average gross output (thousands of LCU)

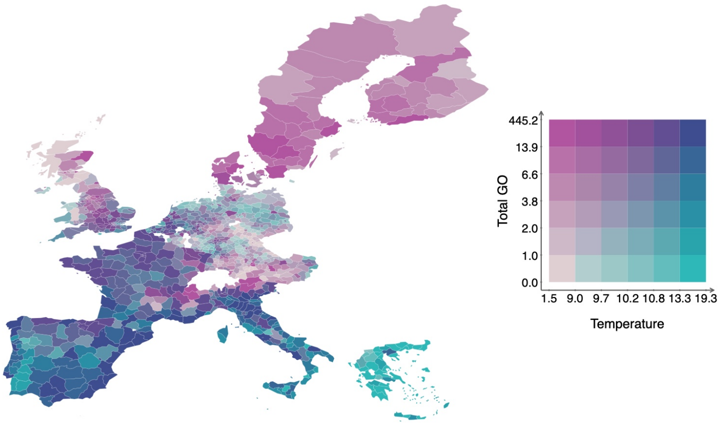


(b) Average number of employees

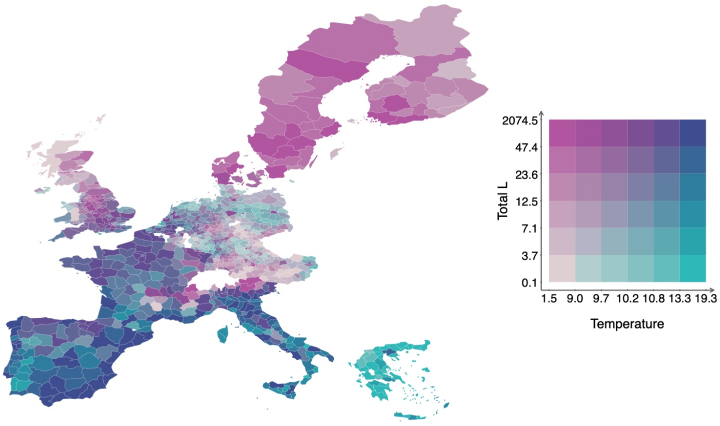
Figure A.2: Descriptive statistics by Nuts 3 areas. Source: Orbis.



(a) Number of firms (thousands of units

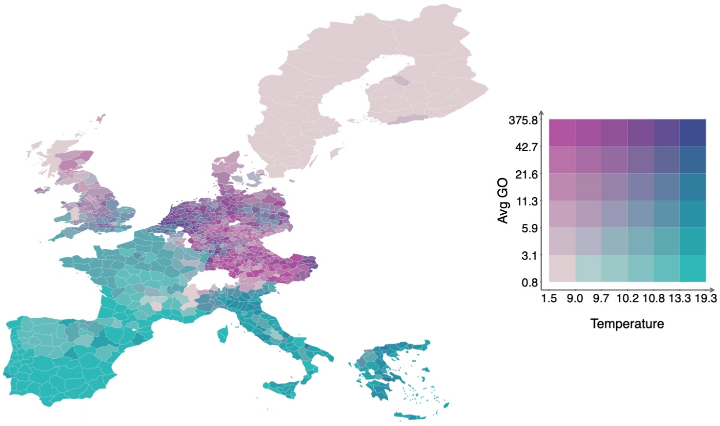


(b) Total gross output (billions of LCU)

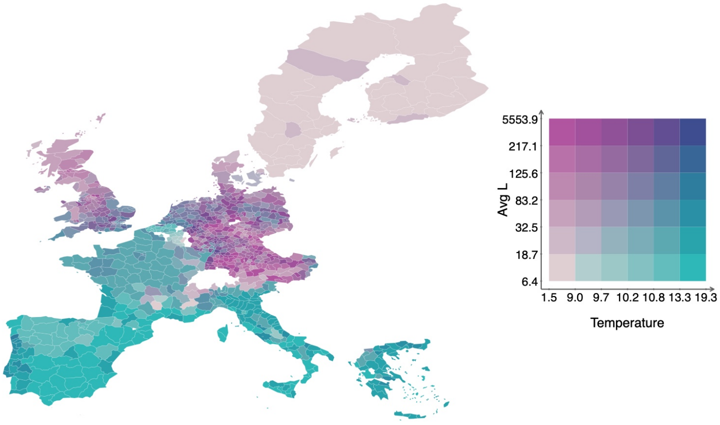


(c) Total number of employees (thousands)

Figure A.3: Descriptive statistics by Nuts 3 areas. Bivariate map of yearly average temperature on the X-axis and main variable on the Y-axis. Source: Orbis and ECMWF.

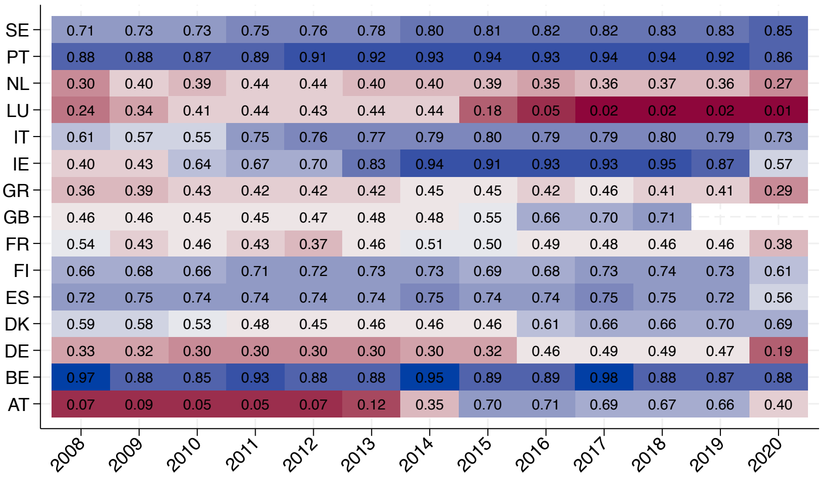


(a) Average gross output (millions of LCU)



(b) Average number of employees

Figure A.4: Descriptive statistics by Nuts 3 areas. Bivariate map of yearly average temperature on the X-axis and main variable on the Y-axis. Source: Orbis and ECMWF.



	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
SE	0.71	0.73	0.73	0.75	0.76	0.78	0.80	0.81	0.82	0.82	0.83	0.83	0.85
PT	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.89	0.91	0.92	0.93	0.94	0.93	0.94	0.94	0.92	0.86
NL	0.30	0.40	0.39	0.44	0.44	0.40	0.40	0.39	0.35	0.36	0.37	0.36	0.27
LU	0.24	0.34	0.41	0.44	0.43	0.44	0.44	0.18	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01
IT	0.61	0.57	0.55	0.75	0.76	0.77	0.79	0.80	0.79	0.79	0.80	0.79	0.73
IE	0.40	0.43	0.64	0.67	0.70	0.83	0.94	0.91	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.87	0.57
GR	0.36	0.39	0.43	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.45	0.45	0.42	0.46	0.41	0.41	0.29
GB	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.45	0.47	0.48	0.48	0.55	0.66	0.70	0.71		
FR	0.54	0.43	0.46	0.43	0.37	0.46	0.51	0.50	0.49	0.48	0.46	0.46	0.38
FI	0.66	0.68	0.66	0.71	0.72	0.73	0.73	0.69	0.68	0.73	0.74	0.73	0.61
ES	0.72	0.75	0.74	0.74	0.74	0.74	0.75	0.74	0.74	0.75	0.75	0.72	0.56
DK	0.59	0.58	0.53	0.48	0.45	0.46	0.46	0.46	0.61	0.66	0.66	0.70	0.69
DE	0.33	0.32	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.32	0.46	0.49	0.49	0.47	0.19
BE	0.97	0.88	0.85	0.93	0.88	0.88	0.95	0.89	0.89	0.98	0.88	0.87	0.88
AT	0.07	0.09	0.05	0.05	0.07	0.12	0.35	0.70	0.71	0.69	0.67	0.66	0.40

Figure A.5: Coverage of the aggregate economy from Orbis data in terms of number of employees. The values report for each country-year the ratio between the sum of the number of employees for the firms available in my sample and the economy-wide number of employees. By construction, values range between 0 (red) and 1 (blue). Source: EUROSTAT.

	Min	P1	P25	Median	P75	P99	Max	Mean	SD
Within Dev	0.000	0.000	0.148	0.318	0.552	1.575	3.171	0.398	0.341
Between Dev	-16.677	-8.541	-1.885	-0.005	2.493	6.050	8.078	0.000	3.252

Table A.5: Distribution of firm-year temperature deviations from the mean of the fixed-effect group (within) and from the mean of the sample as a whole (between). Source: ECMRWF ERA5-Land.

Appendix B Coordinates Imputation

In addition to coordinates, Nuts, city, zipcode and street are also available, which I use to impute the coordinate for the countries with available coordinates. The zipcode should not be used since the same zipcode sometimes refers to different cities.
Clean and homogenise firm' coordinate:

1. transform coordinates in degrees from the coordinates in degrees, minutes, seconds (consistent with the weather data coordinates);
2. homogenise streets addresses by removing numbers;
3. drop all firm with missing city and coordinates as we cannot impute them.

Remove implausible coordinates using a shapefile at the Nuts 3 granularity:

1. using the shapefile at the Nuts 3 level from EUROSTAT, I create min and max latitude and longitude for each Nuts 3 area;
2. merge the Orbis file with the shape file to obtain min and max coordinate for each Nuts 3 province;
3. for each firm, replace coordinate as missing if the coordinates lie outside of the min and max coordinates.

Generate average coordinate by city and replace firm's coordinates with city averages if the former is farther than 0.25 degrees from the latter. This procedure is quite conservative since it would drop only observation outside of a radius of approximately 25 km from the average coordinate in the city. Note that the average coordinate does not refer to the geographical centre of the city, but this step is intended to remove largely implausible values. At this stage, I impute firm' coordinates based on the coordinates of firm located in the same street in the same city. Given the resolution of the weather data (0.1°), the imputation based on a city-street level seems to be relatively reasonable:

1. Impute firm coordinates using the mode of the city-street coordinate;
    - If multiple modes are present, I create min, max and average mode;
    - If the difference $\mid \text{minmode} - \text{maxmode} \mid < 0.25$, substitute the mode with the average mode, otherwise. If the difference $\mid \text{minmode} - \text{maxmode} \mid > 0.25$ firm in the city-street cluster are not imputed;
2. Substitute the coordinate with the mode if the coordinate is missing.

Finally, I run again the Nuts 3 level cleaning based on the shapefile to drop potential mismatch.

Appendix C Marginal Effects Derivation

Given the temperature damage function identified in equation 1, the marginal effect of temperature on firm variables is defined as

$$\frac{\partial \Delta Y_{i,t}}{\partial T_{i,t}} = \frac{\partial g(T_{i,t})}{\partial T_{i,t}} \tag{10}$$

for the contemporaneous effect and

$$\frac{\partial \Delta Y_{i,t}}{\partial T_{i,t-\ell}} = \frac{\partial h(T_{i,t-\ell})}{\partial T_{i,t-\ell}} \tag{11}$$

for the effect of the ℓ^{th} lag. Therefore, the total cumulative effect, which identifies whether the effect of temperature variation is persistent (Dell et al. 2012) is defined as

$$\frac{\partial \Delta Y_{i,t}}{\partial T_{i,t}} + \sum_{\ell \geq 1} \frac{\partial \Delta Y_{i,t}}{\partial T_{i,t-\ell}} = \frac{\partial g(T_{i,t})}{\partial T_{i,t}} + \sum_{\ell \geq 1} \frac{\partial h(T_{i,t-\ell})}{\partial T_{i,t-\ell}} \tag{12}$$

In the case of a 2^{nd} order polynomial with 2 lags, the contemporaneous marginal effect is given by:

$$\frac{\partial Y_{i,t}}{\partial T_{i,t}} = \beta_1 + 2\beta_2 T_{i,t} \tag{13}$$

where the linear coefficient β_1 represents the marginal effect of an additional $1°C$ in terms of yearly average temperature, on the growth rate of firms' economic variables (in percentage points), for firms located in areas with an average yearly temperature of $0°C$. The coefficient of the quadratic term β_2 represents half of the additional marginal effect for firms located in areas with temperature different from 0°. That is, half of the slope of the marginal effect function with respect to $T_{i,t}$. The persistence of the effect of increasing temperature is quantified by adding up the contemporaneous and lagged coefficients of the quadratic model.

Appendix D Model Selection

D.1 In-sample Information Criteria

Athey and Imbens (2019) point out that ”In most discussions of linear regression in econometric textbook, there is little emphasis on model validation”. In econometric model identifications, there may sometimes be a tendency to overfit the model, assuming that this would better explain the variation in the underlying data. However, the researcher has to trade off the improved fit to the current data with the increase in the variance of the forecast error (Greene 2003). That is, the ability of the model to fit the in-sample data and produce a good out-of-sample fit. Although this issue is not of primary importance when estimating the effects of temperature on historical data to identify past damages, identifying the right model becomes of crucial importance when relying on the coefficients from such reduced-form models to produce climate damage projections. Additionally, relying on more parsimonious models is beneficial for its interpretation.

A preliminary guidance in this regard comes from the adjusted R^2, which differently from the R^2, penalises the model for the loss of degrees of freedom resulting from the inclusion of the new variables. However, it is not conclusive whether this penalty is sufficiently large to identify the correct model as the sample size increases (Greene 2003). To potentially rule out this issue, Information Criteria (IC) have been introduced. These are log-likelihood criteria incorporating degrees of freedom adjustments, essentially balancing model fit measured by the maximised log-likelihood value and model parsimony incorporated into the degrees of freedom adjustments. The most notable and used IC are the Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike 1973) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (Schwarz 1978). Both measures reward an increase in the R^2 but, everything else constant, penalise more complex models (James et al. 2013). Hence, they favour models that achieve a certain fit with a lower number of variables.

Neither criterion has obvious advantages over the other. However, the Bayesian Information Criterion includes a larger penalty for the loss in degrees of freedom. Hence, would favour a more simple model.[39] This characteristic of the BIC makes it consistent. That is, as the sample size gets large, the model selection criterion would select the ”true” model (or more likely its best approximation) with a probability approaching one. Consistency is achieved through penalising the loss of degrees of freedom. However, although it penalises such a loss, the AIC is not consistent even when the sample size gets large as the AIC tends to select ”overparametrized” models. On the contrary, the BIC penalises the loss of degrees of freedom more heavily, and it is consistent. Nevertheless, this is not a conclusive argument. In fact, the AIC is asymptotically efficient whereas the BIC is not.

Moreover, a model selection method is consistent if it asymptotically selects the correct model from a set of possible models. On the other hand, a model selection method is conservative if it asymptotically always selects a model that nests the correct model. The minimum-BIC-based model selection procedure is a consistent model selection procedure, whereas a minimum-AIC-based model selection procedure is a conservative model selection procedure (Leeb and Pötscher 2005). In practical work, both criteria are reported and usually identify the same model. When this is not the case, Diebold (1998) recommends using the more parsimonious model selected by the BIC.

However, in the climate econometrics discussion Newell et al. (2021) highlight that in-sample fit

---

[39] For an extensive discussion on information criteria see Greene (2003), Cameron and Trivedi (2005)

information criteria tend to select over-fitted models, especially when higher-order polynomials are included (Chatfield 1996). Therefore, similar with Newell et al. (2021), I discuss and rely on model Cross-Validation (CV) as well to assess the accuracy of different models in fitting out-of-sample data.

D.2 Machine Learning out-of-sample Cross-Validation

Cross-Validation (CV) techniques estimate different models on a sub-sample of the data, defined as the training set. Their accuracy is then assessed by fitting the same model out-of-sample. That is, in a different subset of the data excluded from the training set, defined as the test set. This procedure has advantages compared to in-sample validation methods. It provides a direct estimate of the test error, and at the same time makes fewer assumptions about the true underlying model (James et al. 2013). Information Criterion methods were preferred in the past due to the high computational power needed by CV methods. However, nowadays CV have become more widely accessible and therefore more attractive in econometric and statistical analysis. In my specific case, although the number of predictors and/or models is relatively limited compared to other Machine Learning tasks, the relatively large sample size requires a sufficiently performative machine and long computational time. Specifically, I used a cloud-based high-performance computer set with 10 cores of CPU and 100 GB of RAM, which ran for 3 days, 3 hours and 38 minutes.

One of the main methods used for CV is the K-fold CV method, introduced by Geisser (1975). The original sample is randomly split into K equally-sized sub-samples (usually 5 or 10) and the model is assessed through K iterations. In each iteration $i = 1, \ldots, K$, the i^{th} sub-sample is used as the test set, whereas the complementary $(K - i)$ sub-samples are used as the training set. There is no replacement in the sub-samples, therefore each observation is used (K-1) times in the training sets and only 1 time in the test set. Every model is estimated on each of the K sets and each iteration provides a measure of predictive ability (i.e. the predictor quality), usually the Mean Squared Error (MSE). The lower the MSE, the more precisely the model fits the out-of-sample data. Therefore, the model with the lowest MSE should be chosen. For each model, the resulting CV measure is the average of the K MSE:

$$\mathrm{CV}_K = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=1}^{K} \mathrm{MSE}_{(j)} \,, \tag{14}$$

with

$$\mathrm{MSE}_{(j)} = \frac{1}{N - k_j} \sum_{i=1}^{N-k_j} \left(y_i - \widehat{y}_i\right)^2 . \tag{15}$$

Where $MSE_{(j)}$ is the MSE for fold j, based on estimates excluding observations belonging to fold j. Once the researcher identifies the preferred model through CV, the model is estimated on the full sample.

The K-fold CV method is applied by Newell et al. (2021), among forecats and backcats, in their CV exercise. They find that model performance assessed through this method is largely invariant to how temperature is modelled or whether it is excluded, with a RMSE varying by less than 1% across temperature functions. Noticeably, the RMSE is insensitive to whether temperature lags are included or not and to the inclusion of GDP growth or level effects. Moreover, the RMSE in their work is minimised for models including region-year fixed effects and excluding parametric trends. However, they point out that ”K-fold ignores the time-series nature of the data and yields an optimistic estimate of the model fit if data are serially correlated. This is a relevant concern considering that both economic measures and temperature are likely to be serially correlated.

D.3 Model selection criteria results

	Information Criteria		Cross Validation	
	Akaike IC	Bayesian IC	Mean	SD
poly 1 lag 0	96,246,866	96,246,929	0.69358186	0.00074038
poly 1 lag 1	96,246,868	96,246,947	0.69357927	0.00074092
poly 1 lag 2	71,755,475	71,755,569	0.61942618	0.00058512
poly 1 lag 3	58,126,088	58,126,196	0.59742817	0.00040273
poly 1 lag 4	47,867,591	47,867,713	0.58367275	0.00049614
poly 1 lag 5	39,709,263	39,709,399	0.57427776	0.00036762
poly 2 lag 0	96,246,596	96,246,675	0.69363934	0.00074288
poly 2 lag 1	96,246,457	96,246,568	0.69376047	0.00074541
poly 2 lag 2	71,755,388	71,755,528	0.61936773	0.00058616
poly 2 lag 3	58,125,968	58,126,138	0.59734969	0.00040642
poly 2 lag 4	47,867,460	47,867,658	0.58355948	0.00050144
poly 2 lag 5	39,709,128	39,709,354	0.57423643	0.00037318
poly 3 lag 0	96,246,506	96,246,601	0.69363498	0.00074250
poly 3 lag 1	96,246,366	96,246,508	0.69373925	0.00074524
poly 3 lag 2	71,755,382	71,755,569	0.61936904	0.00058617
poly 3 lag 3	58,125,947	58,126,178	0.59731763	0.00040354
poly 3 lag 4	47,867,443	47,867,717	0.58345314	0.00050233
poly 3 lag 5	39,709,092	39,709,409	0.57393991	0.00036960
poly 4 lag 0	96,246,500	96,246,610	0.69364369	0.00074306
poly 4 lag 1	96,246,343	96,246,517	0.69378355	0.00074678
poly 4 lag 2	71,755,265	71,755,499	0.61936615	0.00058748
poly 4 lag 3	58,125,798	58,126,091	0.59735727	0.00040871
poly 4 lag 4	47,867,263	47,867,614	0.58356162	0.00050331
poly 4 lag 5	39,708,932	39,709,340	0.57405486	0.00037542

Table D.1: Results from the Model Selection Criteria analysis. The first two columns refer to the Akaike and Bayesian in-sample IC, the remaining two refer to out-of-sample CV, where the 10-fold MSE mean and standard deviation are reported for each model.

The results from the model selection criteria reported in table D.1 are straightforward. Model performance is only marginally affected by the inclusion of higher-order polynomials, suggesting that they do not play a decisive role in improving model performance. In contrast, a more pronounced impact is observed with the inclusion of lagged temperature. However, selecting an appropriate order and number of lags presents a challenge, as both the IC and the CV values tend to continuously decrease without offering a definitive choice, likely influenced by the extensive sample size. Since direct comparisons based on absolute figures remains inconclusive, examining relative changes provides more insightful and rational selection criteria, suggesting a preference for models with two lags.This approach is similar to the elbow rule used in Machine Learning (e.g. clustering), where models are assessed according to their marginal benefit (James et al. 2013).

Within each polynomial order, including a second lag leads to a reduction of AIC and BIC values by approximately 25%, and CV means by approximately 10%. Further additions of lags result in diminishing returns, with IC reductions ranging from roughly 19% to 17% and CV averages from roughly 3.5% to 1.9%. When only models with two lags are considered, all the selection criteria tend to favour a second-order polynomial, due to the most significant relative mean decrease by 0.00012%, 0.000057%, and 0.00944% for the AIC, BIC, and CV respectively.

Appendix E Non-stationarity

Although testing for unit-roots in time-series setting is common practice, its application to panel data is relatively more recent. These tests are analogs of the Augmented Dickey Fueller unit-root test and, the resulting statistics are averages of the bias-adjusted t statistics for each panel. An extensive discussion of the different models and their specific issues can be found in Baltagi (2008). In this paper, I focus on two different tests which are more appropriate for the characteristics of my data. The Im et al. (2003) test relaxes some requirements of previous tests by allowing ρ_i to be heterogeneous across panels and propose a testing procedure that averages the individual test statistics. The null hypothesis is that the panel contains a unit root for all i (i.e. $H_0 : \rho_i = 1 \; \forall \; i$), whereas the alternative hypothesis is that at least one of the individual series is stationary (i.e. $H_1 : \exists \; i \; s.t. \; \rho_i < 1$).

One limitation of the Im et al. (2003) test in this context relates to the definition of the alternative hypothesis. The presence of one stationary panel would lead the test to reject the null hypothesis, which is limiting with high N. Choi (2001) propose a Fisher-type test that extends previous tests and relaxes this assumption among others. When N is finite, this test is consistent against the alternative that at least one panel does not have a unit root. When N is infinite, the number of panel which do not have a unit root should grow at the same rate as N for the tests to be consistent. It is evident how this test is more appropriate for the panel of this study. In the remaining of this section I will present and discuss results from both the Im et al. (2003) and Choi (2001) tests.

The main criticism of the Burke et al. (2015) model raised by Newell et al. (2021) refers to overlooking the nonstationarity of the temperature variables. Since, consistent with Burke et al. (2015), I include the dependent economic variables in first differences (growth rates), these variables do not need to be tested. Therefore, I only test the potential nonstationarity of temperature. On this regard, although the panels of my analysis are at the firm-level, testing all these panels would not be feasible in terms of computational power. Hence, I conduct the tests at the weather variable grid level. This is a reasonable approximation to the extent that the firm-specific temperature values are a weighted average of the neighbouring grids.

	Statistic	p-value
Z-ttilde-bar	-456.806	0.000
W-t-bar	-334.724	0.000
Inverse chi-squared	242315.259	0.000
Inverse normal	-247.420	0.000
Inverse logit	-256.954	0.000
Modified inv. chi-squared	257.904	0.000

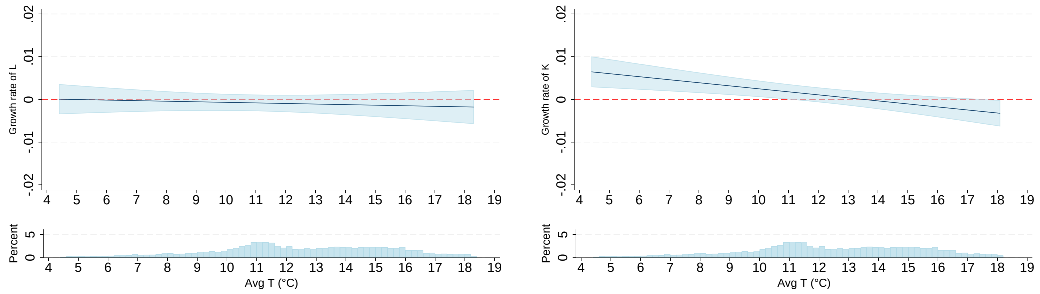
Table E.1: Panel unit-root Augmented Dickey Fueller tests results. Test statistics and p-values reported. Source: Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) ERA5-Land.

Table E.1 reports the statistics and p-values of the various tests. The first row refers to the Im et al. (2003) test, where multiple tests are run to identify the number of lags to include in order to account for serial correlation, such that the Akaike (1973) information criteria is minimised. The average number of lags that should be included across the panels is 0.54. The resulting p-value of this test is 0.0000, hence the test strongly rejects the null hypothesis of nonstationarity. The remaining three rows refer to the Choi (2001) test, where, consistent with the previous test, I include one lag to account for serial correlation. The inverse χ^2 is the most relevant statistics in this case, since it is a transformation that is suitable for when N tends to infinity. Also in this case, all tests have a p-value of 0.0000, hence rejecting the null hypothesis on nonstationarity.

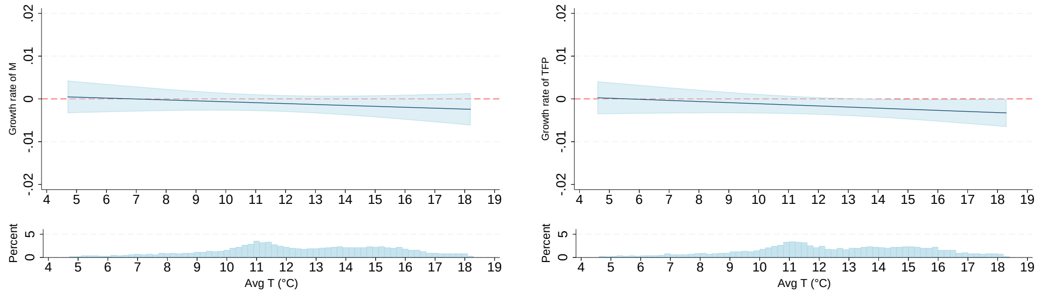
This section has discussed whether the nonstationarity issue relevant in long T and short N country-level panels highlighted in Burke et al. (2015) and (Newell et al. 2021) is relevant in long T and short N firm-level panels. I argued that in this panel nonstationarity should not be a concern given the limited length of the time series (Greene 2003). Nevertheless, I formally tested the validity of this argument using the the Im et al. (2003) and Choi (2001) tests that extend the Augmented Dickey Fueller unit root test to panel data. All these tests consistently have p-values of 0.0000, strongly rejecting the null hypothesis of nonstationarity. Therefore, the temperature variables could be included in the analysis in levels and not necessarily firs differenced, unless the specific research setting requires that.

Appendix F Additional Results

F.1 Contemporaneous Effects, Additional Variables



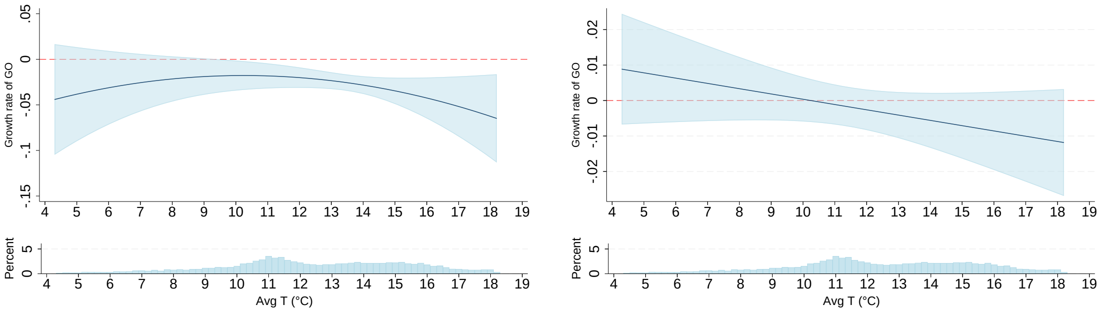
(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure F.1: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

F.2 Cumulative Effect



(a) Cumulative response (b) Cumulative marginal effect

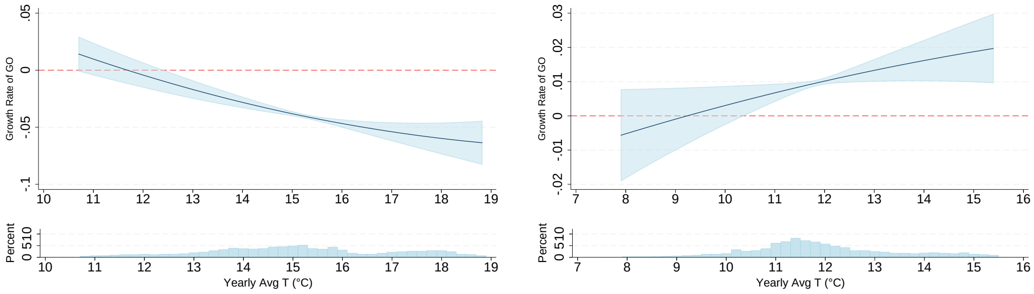
Figure F.2: Cumulative marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of GO. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

F.3 Additional Results Heterogeneity

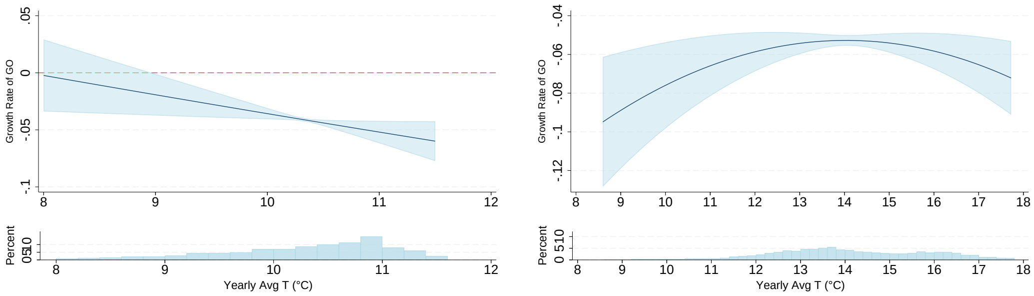
F.3.1 Cross-Country Heterogeneity

This setion focuses on cross-country heterogeneity. While results for all countries in the sample are presented, the discussion focuses on France, Italy, Spain and the UK as they constitute the major and most relevant countries in my sample. I exclude Germany from the main discussion due to the previously discussed issues related to the poor coverage in Orbis Historical. This applies to all sections focusing on cross-country heterogeneity in the paper.

Consistent with Burke et al. (2015), the results from the quadratic model (equation 5) for Italy and France in figure F.4 show an inverted-U relationship. The predicted effect of temperature on the growth rate of gross output is a smooth function which is negative at all levels of the temperature distribution for Italy and positive for France, with a larger effect in magnitude at the two tails of the temperature distribution. Firms located in the coldest and warmest areas have on average a lower growth rate of output than firms located in areas with milder temperature. On the contrary, the response function for Spain reports a U-shaped and convex relationship, characterised by positive predicted growth rates at lower temperature and negative rates at temperate and higher temperature. Also in this case, possible explanations could be related to a higher presence of firms with specific characteristics or to a higher level of adaptation. Interestingly, the UK is characterised by a downward-sloping and linear relationship. In this case, the temperature support is particularly narrow, therefore the UK-specific estimator is negatively impacted by the low variability in the variable of interest. Nevertheless, to understand how much economic production is affected by increasing temperature, the marginal effects reported in figure F.4 below are more informative.



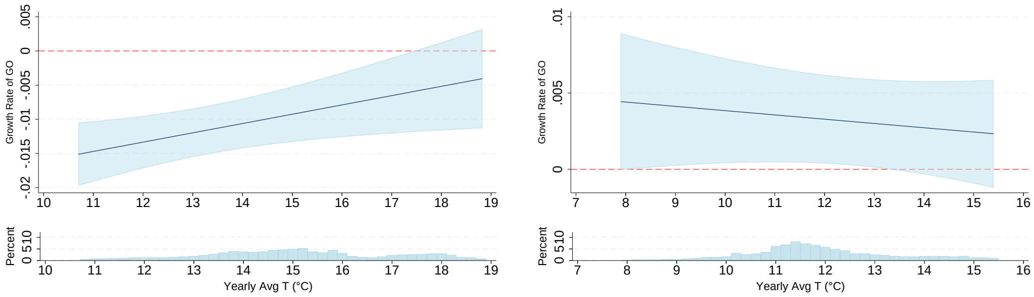
(a) Prediction ES (b) Prediction FR



(c) Prediction GB (d) Prediction IT

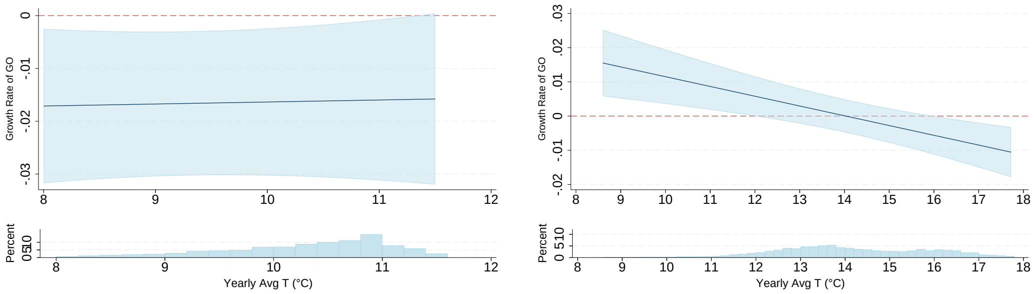
Figure F.3: Predicted effect of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in Spain, France, Italy and Great Britain. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

Figure F.4 reports the marginal effect of an extra 1°C against the temperature support. As is evident, the marginal effect varies largely across Countries, being upward sloping for Italy (figure F.4d) and France (figures F.4b), slightly downward sloping for Great Britain (figure F.4c) and upward sloping for Spain (figure F.4a). An extra 1°C in yearly average temperature in Italy increases the growth rate of gross output by approximately 0.067 log-points (6.9%) for firms located in areas with a yearly average temperature of 6°C and decreases the growth rate of gross output by 0.051 log-points (5.2%) for firms located in areas with a yearly average temperature of 18°C. These effects may initially seem excessively large. However, it is unlikely that yearly average temperature will increase by 1°C in a year. Rather, they will increase by a fraction of 1°C, and the marginal impact will also be a fraction of the reported values. The results for France are generally consistent with, although lower in magnitude than those for Italy. According to figure F.4b the marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature is generally not statistically significant. Nevertheless, it is still important to consider the point estimates as they can provide insights on general trends. An extra 1°C in yearly average temperature has a positive impact of 0.004 log-points (0.4%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 6°C and -0.0065 log-points (-0.65%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 15.5°C.



(a) Marginal Effect ES

(b) Marginal Effect FR



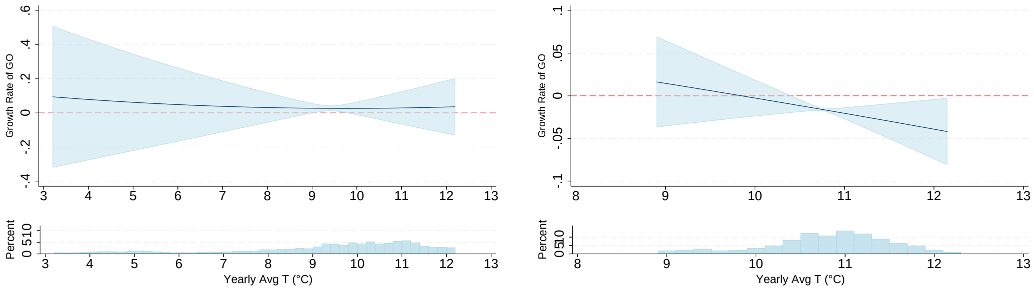
(c) Marginal Effect GB

(d) Marginal Effect IT

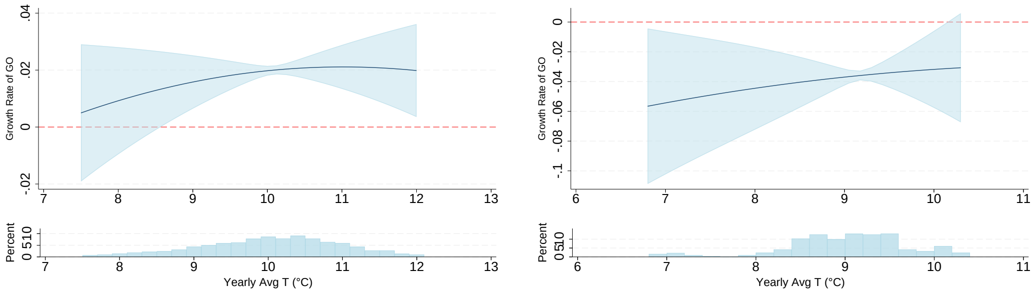
Figure F.4: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in Spain, France, Italy and Great Britain. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

The results for Spain reported in figure F.4a differ substantially from those for Italy and France, although they are consistent with the pooled-EU marginal effects. The estimated marginal effect of temperature on the growth rate of gross output panel is increasing over the temperature distribution, although not statistically significant above 15°C. The marginal effect of temperature is negative for firms located at lower temperature and positive for firms located at higher temperature. Specifically, an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature has a positive impact of -0.042 log-points (-4.3%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 10°C and -0.013 log-points (-1.38%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 19°C. Moreover, the UK is a peculiar case as the marginal effect is consistently negative and statistically significant over the whole temperature distribution. An extra 1°C in yearly average temperature has a negative impact of -0.051 log-points (-5.2%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 8°C and -0.057 log-points (-5.8%) for firms located in areas with average yearly temperature of 11.5°C.

The figure below report the marginal effects for the remaining countries. Results for these countries are characterised by large confidence intervals, likely due to a lower number of observations, making these results not statistically significant for most countries over a large part of the temperature distribution. The marginal effect function is downward sloping for Belgium, Denmark, Finland, and the Netherlands. Apart from the Netherlands, the marginal effect is negative over the whole temperature support. On the contrary, the marginal effect function is upward-sloping for Austria, Germany, Greece, Portugal, and Sweden. The function is characterised by positive point estimates for all countries, with the exception of Austria and the colder areas in Sweden.

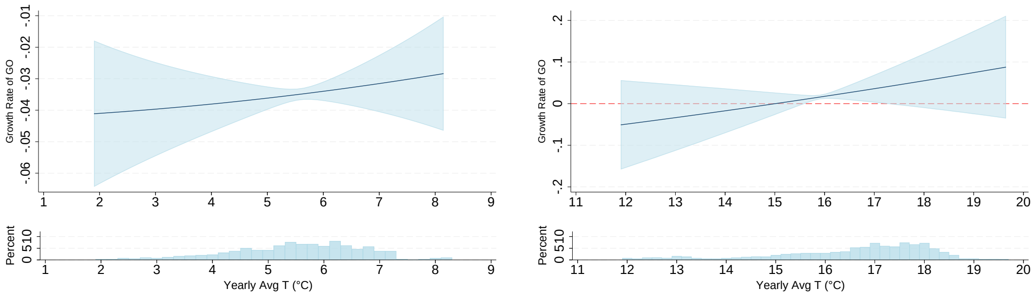


(a) Prediction AT (b) Prediction BE



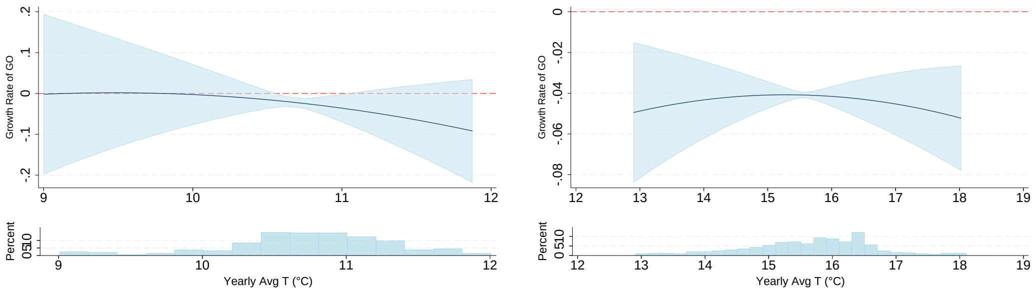
(c) Prediction DE (d) Prediction DK

Figure F.5: Predicted effect of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



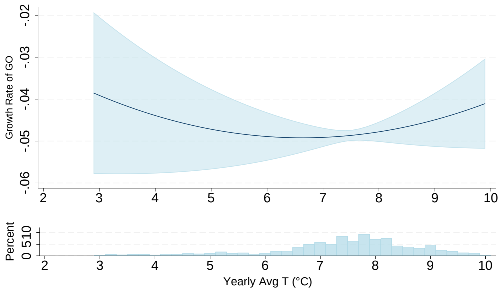
(a) Prediction FI

(b) Prediction GR



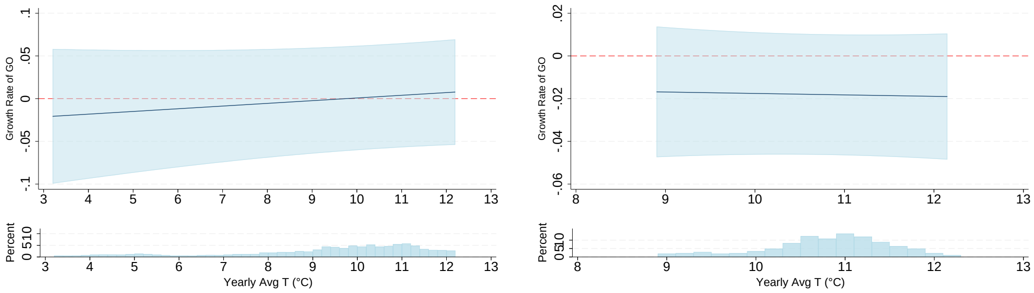
(c) Prediction NL

(d) Prediction PT



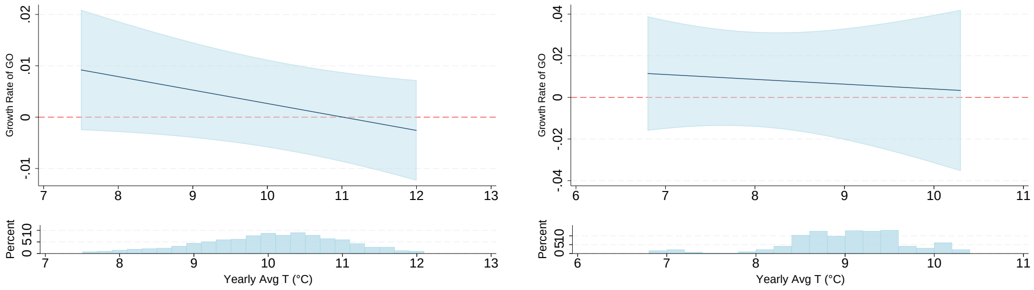
(e) Prediction SE

Figure F.6: Predicted effect of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



(a) Marginal Effect AT

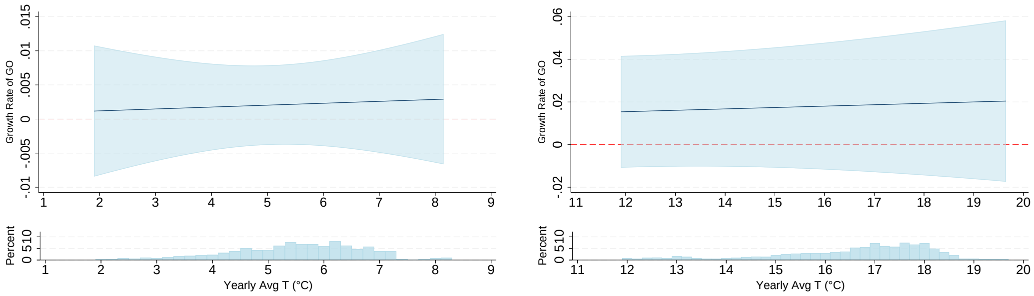
(b) Marginal Effect BE



(c) Marginal Effect DE

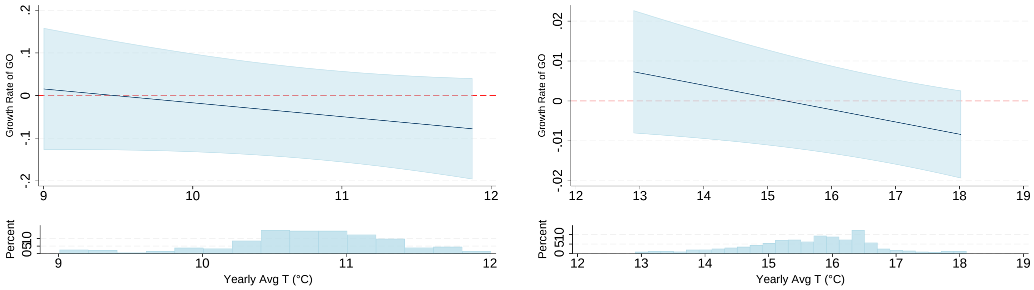
(d) Marginal Effect DK

Figure F.7: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



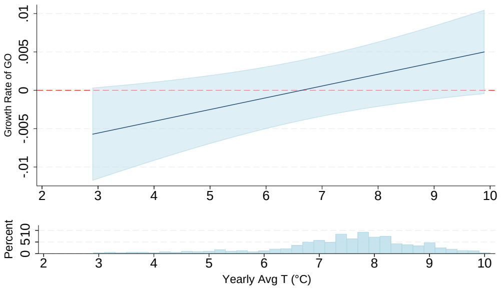
(a) Marginal Effect FI

(b) Marginal Effect GR



(c) Marginal Effect NL

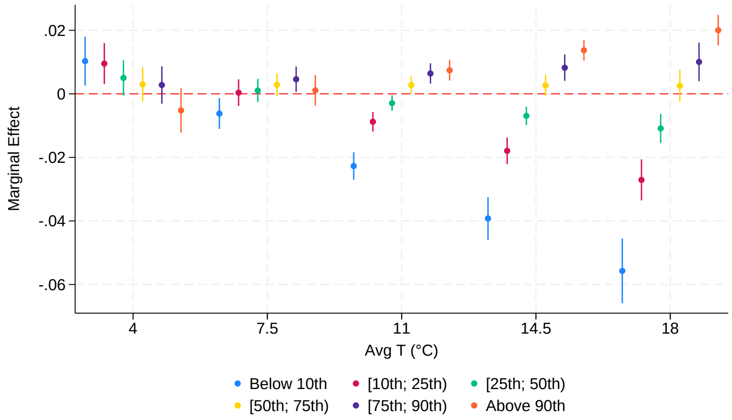
(d) Marginal Effect PT



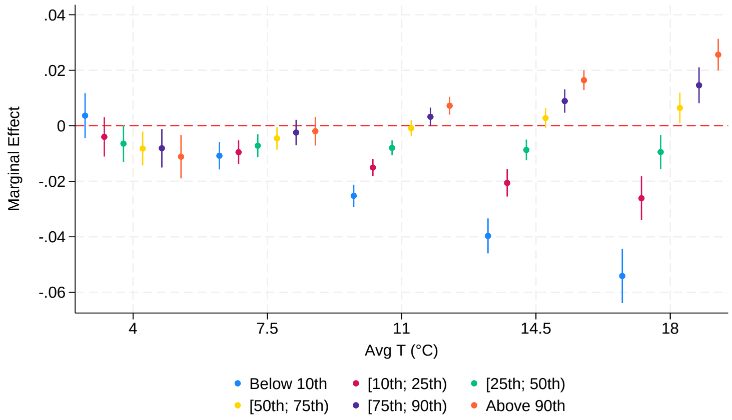
(e) Marginal Effect SE

Figure F.8: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

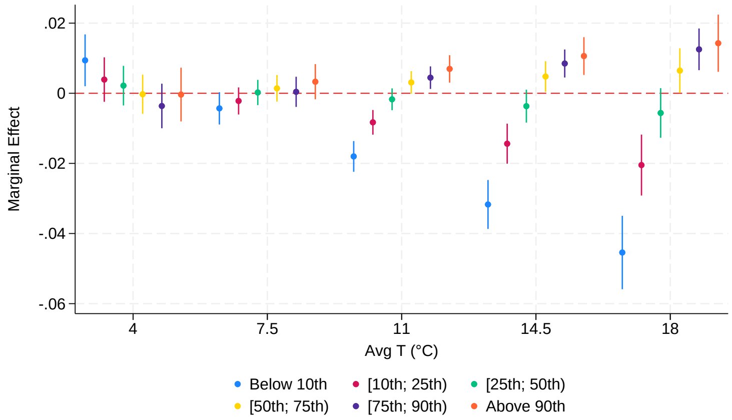
F.3.2 Productivity heterogeneity by within-industry productivity category



(a) Marginal effect



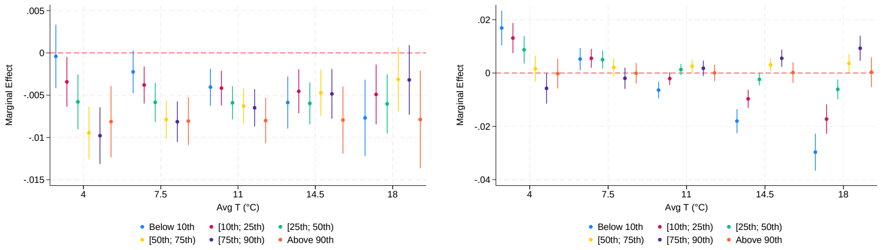
(b) Lag-1 marginal effect



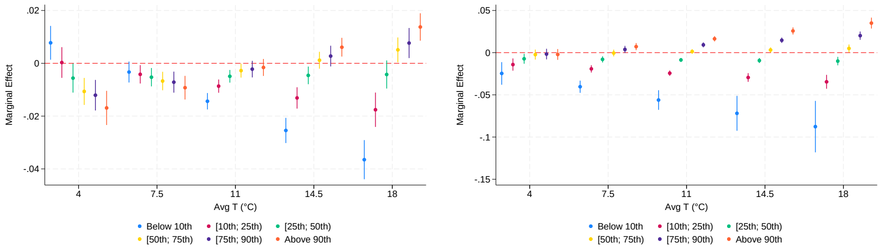
(c) Lag-2 marginal effect

Figure F.9: Contemporaneous (a), lag-1 (b), and lag-2 (c) marginal effects of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for productivity heterogeneity (within each industry). Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE.

F.3.3 Productivity heterogeneity, inputs lagged effects

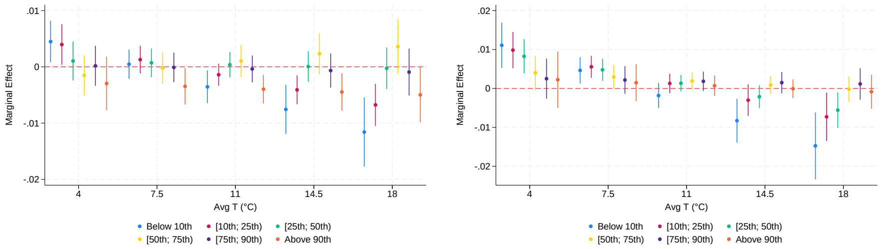


(a) lag-1 marginal effect L (b) lag-1 marginal effect K

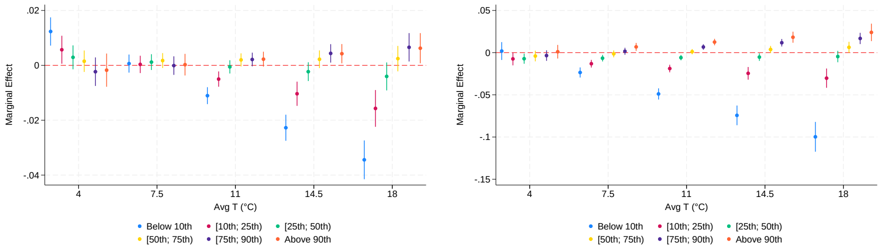


(c) lag-1 marginal effect M (d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure F.10: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



(a) lag-2 marginal effect L (b) lag-2 marginal effect K

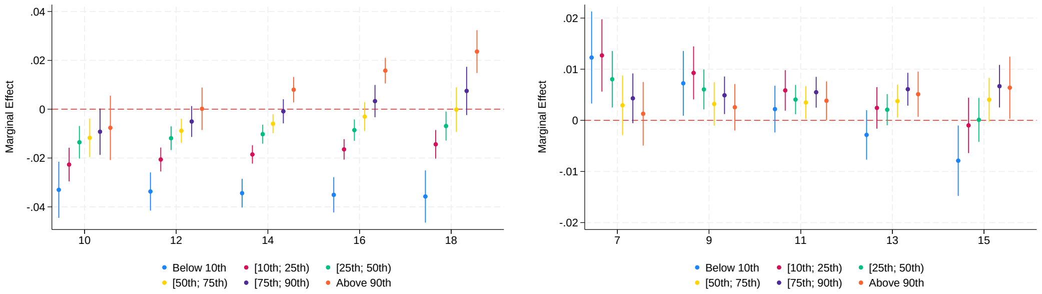


(c) lag-2 marginal effect M (d) lag-2 marginal effect TFP

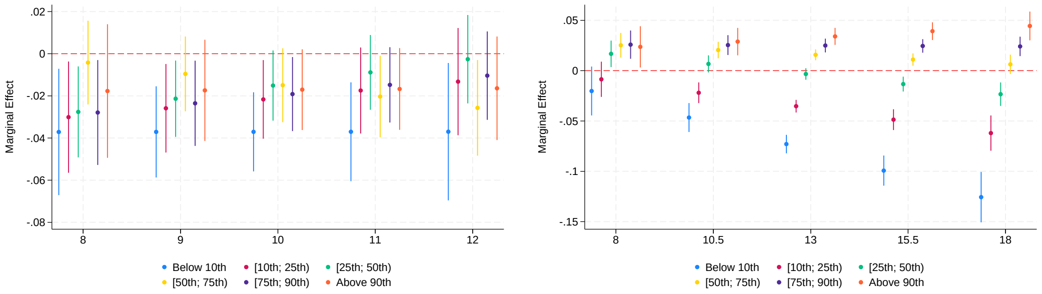
Figure F.11: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

F.3.4 Country-level additional results, TFP heterogeneity

The country-specific damages heterogeneity related to the TFP categories reported in figure F.12 are generally consistent with both the country-level pooled analysis and the other sources of damages heterogeneity highlighted so far, with relevant differences between the analysed countries. Similar to the pooled results presented in the previous section, the disaggregated country-level estimates related to TFP categories are unequivocal. On the one hand, most-productive firms seem to be generally shielded by, or even benefit from, higher temperature across the whole temperature support, characterised by either positive or non-significant effects. On the other hand, least-productive firms are consistently negatively impacted across most countries and over a large part of the temperature support.



(a) Marginal Effect ES (b) Marginal Effect FR

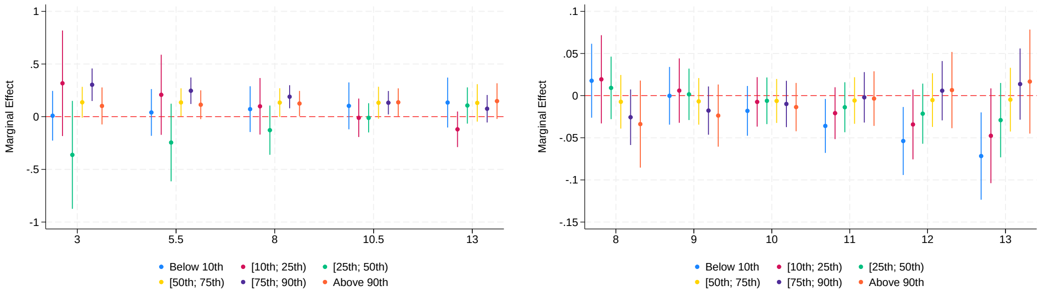


(c) Marginal Effect GB (d) Marginal Effect IT

Figure F.12: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for firm size heterogeneity. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, FE plotted over country-specific temperature supports.

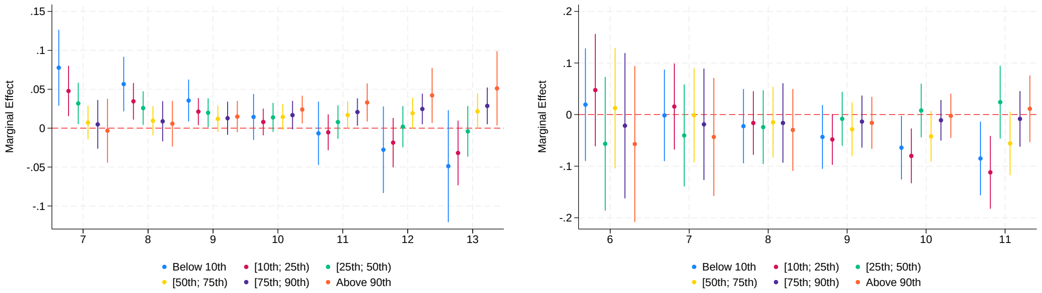
Specifically, in terms of the four countries discussed in the main body, least-productive firms are significantly negatively impacted by higher temperature across the whole temperature support in Italy (figure F.12d), Spain (figure F.12a), and the UK (figure F.12c). In France (figure F.12b) this effect is negative only at higher temperature and positive at lower temperature. most-productive firms instead, seem to be positively affected by higher temperature over the whole distribution in Italy, and at high temperature in France and Spain. These ”leaders” firms are not significantly affected by higher temperature in the colder areas of Spain and in generally in the UK. It is worth highlighting that, although the results in the UK are clear for least-productive firms, they are more uncertain for the other TFP categories. The results for the remaining countries reported in figures F.13 and F.14 are also consistent with both the pooled results and the previous country-level analysis.

In general, the marginal effect of an additional 1°C in yearly average temperature is positive or not statistically significant for most-productive firms and negative, and usually statistically significant for least-productive firms.



(a) Marginal Effect AT

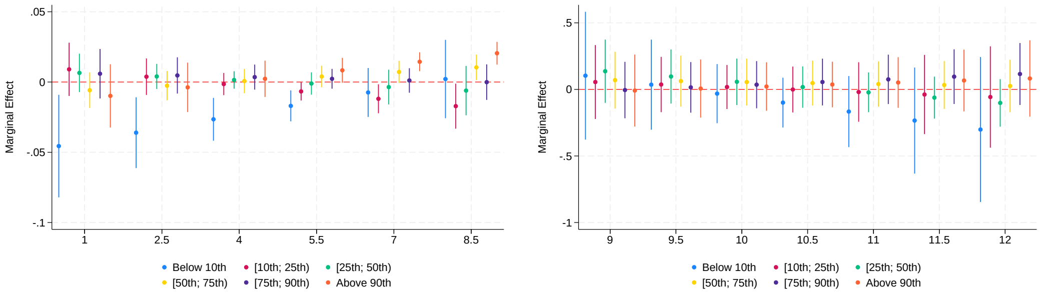
(b) Marginal Effect BE



(c) Marginal Effect DE

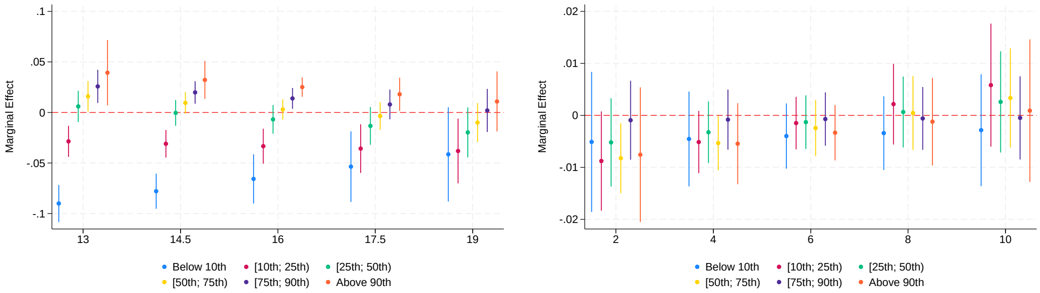
(d) Marginal Effect DK

Figure F.13: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



(a) Marginal Effect FI

(b) Marginal Effect NL



(c) Marginal Effect PT

(d) Marginal Effect SE

Figure F.14: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

F.3.5 Productivity Heterogeneity – Adaptation

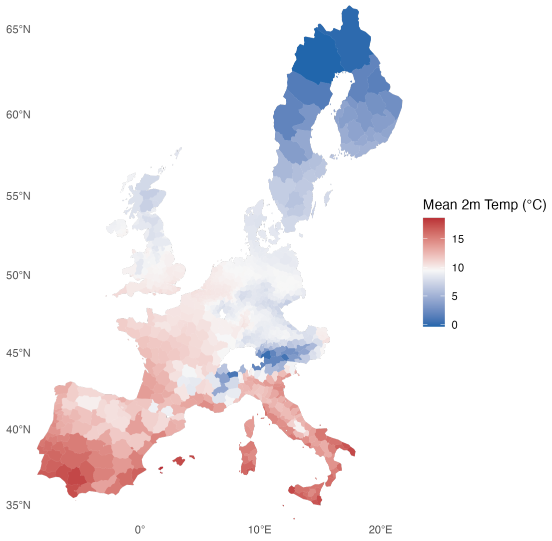
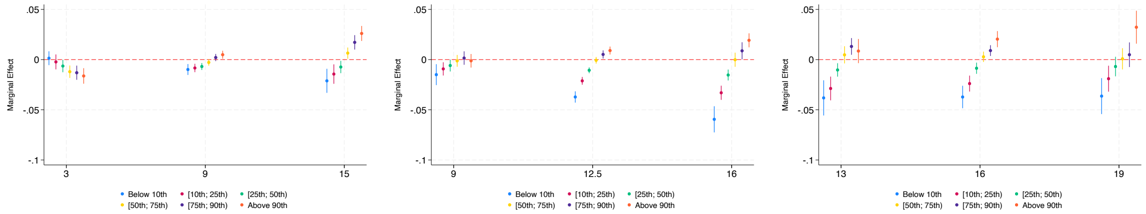
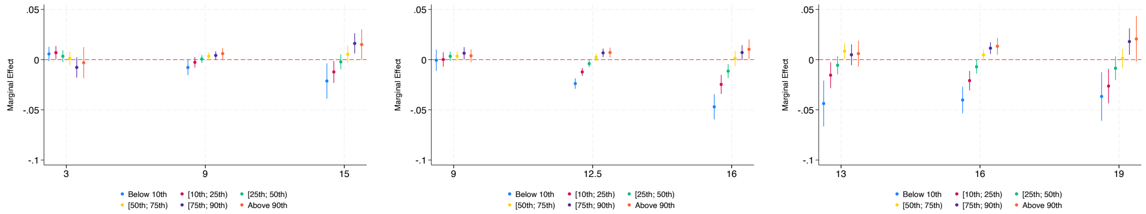


Figure F.15: Spatial distribution of mean temperatures from 1950–2020 (ERA5) across NUTS3-specific long-run climates.

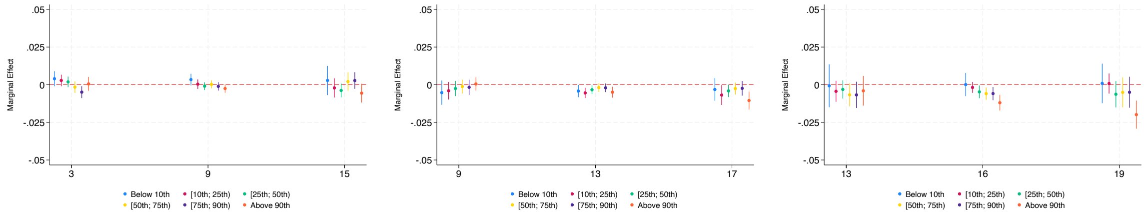


(a) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 1$) (b) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 1$) (c) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 1$)

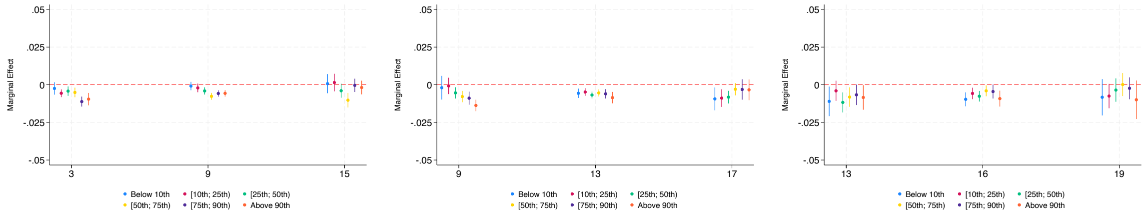


(d) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 2$) (e) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 2$) (f) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 2$)

Figure F.16: Lagged marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of GO across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.



(a) Climatic zone 1 (b) Climatic zone 2 (c) Climatic zone 3



(d) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell1$) (e) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell1$) (f) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell1$)

(g) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell2$) (h) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell2$) (i) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell2$)

Figure F.17: Marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of L across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.

(a) Climatic zone 1 (b) Climatic zone 2 (c) Climatic zone 3

(d) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 1$) (e) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 1$) (f) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 1$)

(g) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 2$) (h) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 2$) (i) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 2$)

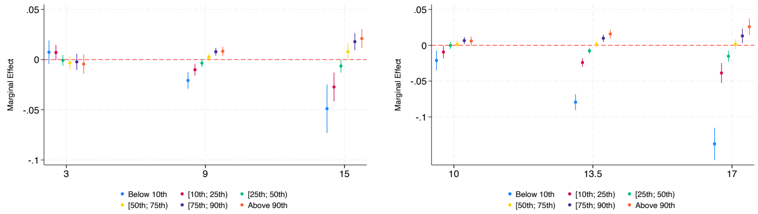
Figure F.18: Marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of K across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.

(a) Climatic zone 1 (b) Climatic zone 2 (c) Climatic zone 3

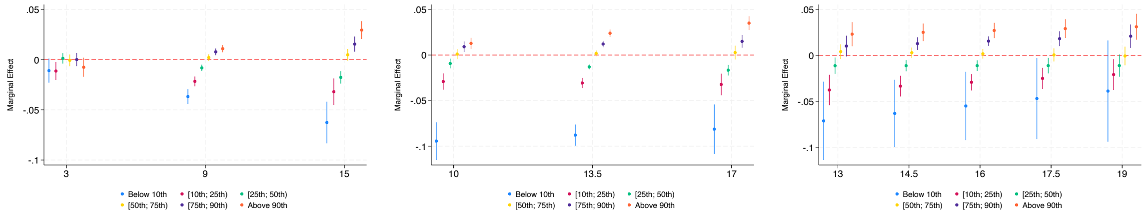
(d) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 1$) (e) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 1$) (f) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 1$)

(g) Climatic zone 1 ($\ell 2$) (h) Climatic zone 2 ($\ell 2$) (i) Climatic zone 3 ($\ell 2$)

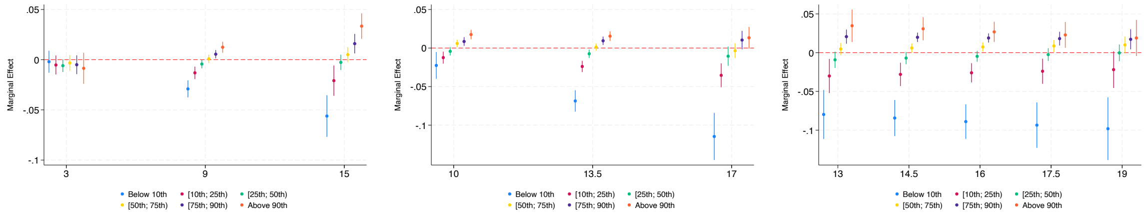
Figure F.19: Marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of M across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.



(a) Climatic zone 1 (b) Climatic zone 2 (c) Climatic zone 3



(d) Climatic zone 1 (ℓ1) (e) Climatic zone 2 (ℓ1) (f) Climatic zone 3 (ℓ1)



(g) Climatic zone 1 (ℓ2) (h) Climatic zone 2 (ℓ2) (i) Climatic zone 3 (ℓ2)

Figure F.20: Marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of TFP across climatic zones and productivity categories in the EU. Results from the 2^{nd}-order polynomial model interacted with a categorical variable for long-run baseline climates. Firm and country-industry-year FE; standard errors clustered at the NUTS3 level. Estimates are plotted over the 1^{st}, 50^{th}, and 99^{th} percentiles of the yearly temperature distribution.

F.3.6 Size Heterogeneity

This section extends the discussion on the heterogeneity of the economic effects of temperature fluctuations to firm size. Size is defined with respect to the number of employees in accordance with the European Commission classification. Figure F.21 shows the marginal effect of an extra 1°C in contemporaneous temperature on the growth rate of GO for each of the size categories, at different levels of the temperature support. These results are generally consistent with the aggregate marginal effect reported in figure 4, with the exception of the estimates for the small firms located in warm areas which are negative and statistically significant. However, even when they are significant, the point estimates are economically small and characterised by relatively large confidence intervals.

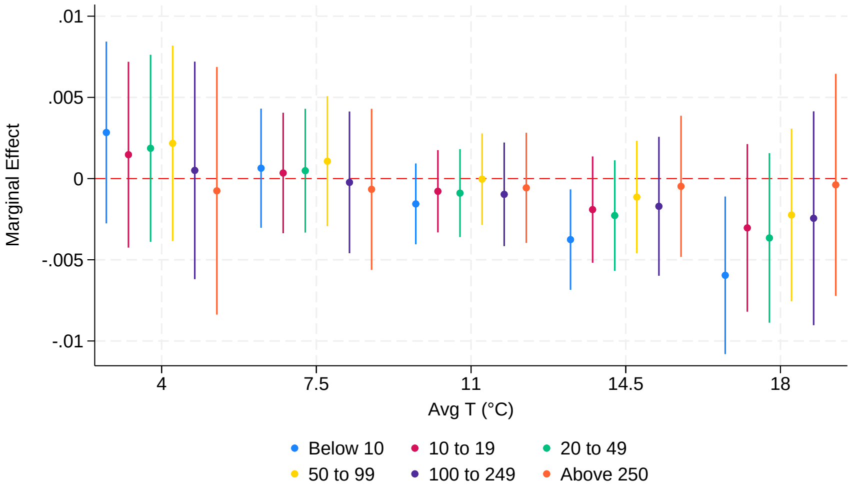
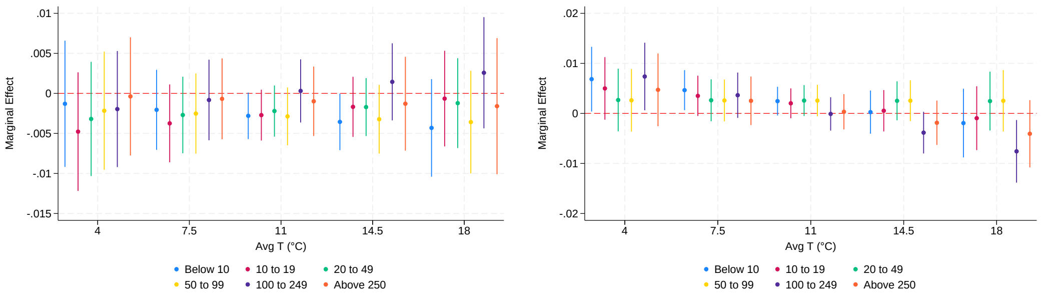


Figure F.21: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for size categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

The results for the marginal effects of lagged temperature align with the average marginal effect reported in figure 5. The marginal effect function for $T_{i,t-1}$ shown in figure F.22a is generally flat for all categories throughout the temperature support. Notably, several point estimates tend to have large confidence intervals that span both positive and negative values, indicating that even within a specific size category, there are considerable differences in impacts among firms. The marginal effect function for $T_{i,t-2}$ presented in figure F.22b is downward-sloping and mostly not statistically different from zero. Thus, these findings suggest the existence of persistent negative effects for small firms in warmer areas and insignificant effects for the remaining firms.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect

(b) lag-2 marginal effect

Figure F.22: Lag-1 (a) and lag-2 (b) marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in the EU across different firm size categories. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

The size-specific estimates based on the pooled sample of European firms are noticeably similar to each other, suggesting a potentially consistent impact of weather fluctuations across different firm types. Thus, the firm size category does not appear to disentangle the heterogeneous and potentially opposite effects that higher temperatures may have on firm performance. However, as emphasized in previous sections, the estimates based on the pooled sample are likely influenced by other dynamics that tend to vary across countries, thereby attenuating, or potentially counteracting, the real effect of higher temperatures. This highlights the importance of conducting a more detailed cross-country analysis to isolate potential heterogeneity driven by country-specific factors. Section F.3.9 reports country-specific estimates analysing potential size heterogeneity in climate damages.

F.3.7 Industry Heterogeneity

This section extends the discussion on the heterogeneity of the economic effects of temperature fluctuations, with a focus on industry sectors. It is commonly believed that sectors like agriculture, mining, and, to a lesser degree, manufacturing are more vulnerable to rising temperatures, while the service sector is generally considered to be largely insulated from these effects. This is particularly relevant for developed countries, such as those in my sample, where firms typically have greater resources to insulate their economic activities against climate shocks. In this section, I present empirical evidence of industry-specific heterogeneous effects by estimating the marginal effect of higher temperatures within each industry.[40] To enhance the clarity and informativeness of the analysis, I aggregate the Nace Revision 2 level 1 industry into six broader industries.

These broadly defined sectors are likely characterized by significant heterogeneity in underlying climate damages, affecting both statistical power and significance. Thus, in this section I only report the statistically significant (at the 10%) point estimates. Figure F.23 illustrates the resulting marginal effects of contemporaneous temperature $T_{i,t}$, where the colours reflect the sign and magnitude of the point estimates. Figures F.25 and F.26 provide the whole set of coefficients and the relevant p-values, respectively. These estimates are generally positive (negative) in cold (warm) areas, and mostly characterised by downward-sloping industry-specific marginal effect functions over the temperature support. However, these estimates are only statistically significant for the G-J (Wholesale,

---

[40] This procedure requires substantial computational power, as the estimation requires 200 Gb of RAM and runs for 167.5 hours.

Retail, Transport, Accommodation & Food, Information & Communication) group, the B-E (Industry – excluding Construction) group in cold areas and the O-U (Non-market Services) group in warm areas, and generally economically negligible.

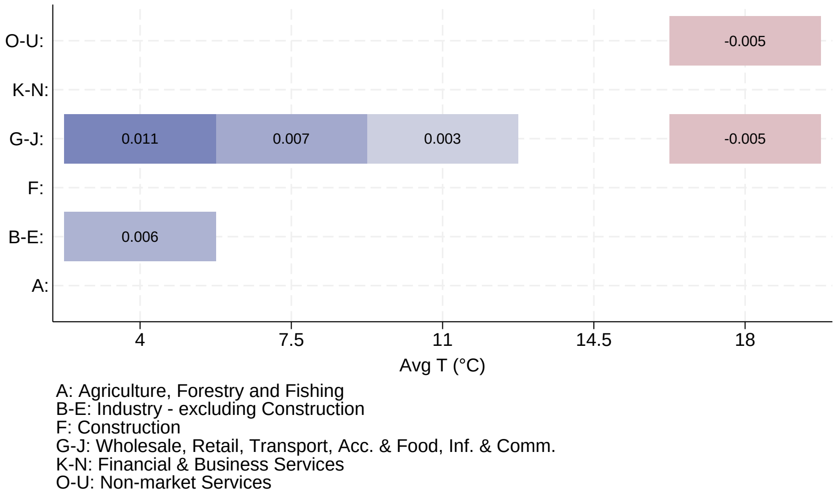
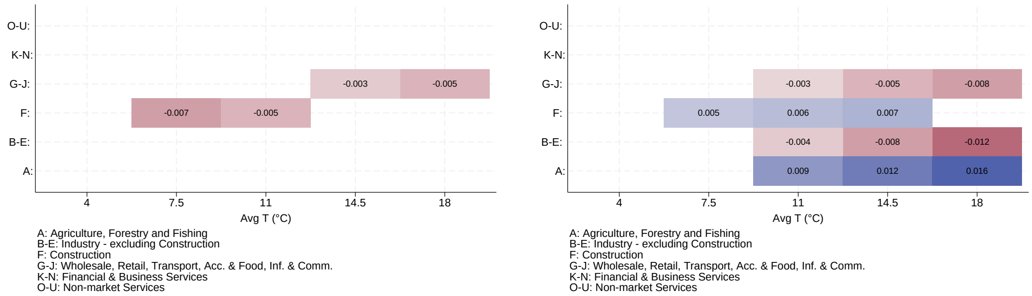


Figure F.23: Marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in contemporaneous yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output (log) accounting for industry heterogeneity (Nace 2 level 1). Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE.

The industry-specific estimates highlight a delayed negative effect of higher temperature on firm GO (figure F.24), particularly with respect to $T_{i,t-2}$ in the warmer part of the temperature distribution. The marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in temperature is negative and statistically significant for the sectors B-E and G-J, while it is positive for F (Construction) and A (Agriculture Forestry and Fishing). The lack of significant effects for the service sectors is unsurprising, as these activities are typically conducted indoors in temperature-controlled environments. The negative estimates for sectors B-E and G-J are intuitive and align with expectations. These sectors are characterised, on average, by a lower penetration of adaptation technologies, such as AC, and are often more dependent on local supply-chain, which are also vulnerable to the same local weather shocks.

It is worth highlighting, especially for the wholesale and retail sectors within the G-J group, that temperature shocks can affect firm performance not only through supply-side impacts but also through a reduction in demand. For example, customers may reduce outdoor shopping during periods of extreme heat. Moreover, a significant portion of the G-J sectors is comprised of industries related to tourism. The tourism sector is particularly vulnerable to higher temperatures because it predominantly involves outdoor activities, limiting adaptation possibilities. As a result, individuals may respond to rising temperatures by opting for cooler destinations, further dampening demand.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect

(b) lag-2 marginal effect

Figure F.24: Lag-1 (a) and lag-2 (b) marginal effects of temperature on the growth rate of gross output in the EU across different firm industry categories. Results from the 2^{nd} order polynomial model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

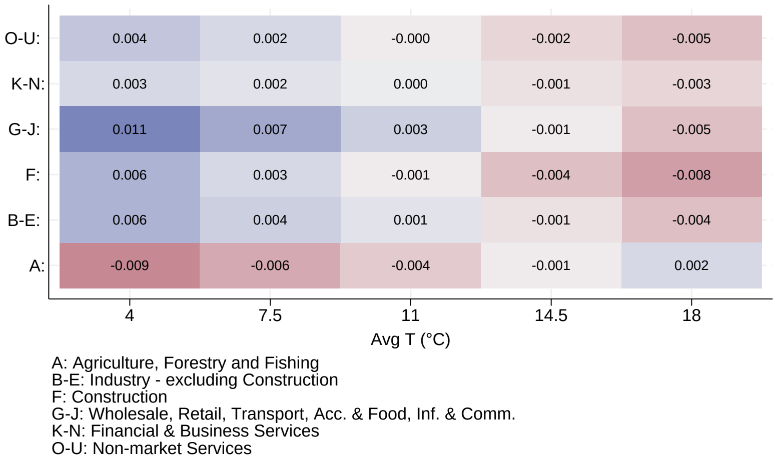
On the contrary, the Agriculture forestry and fishing (A) and the Construction (F) sectors are unexpectedly characterised by positive marginal effects. Given their outdoor nature and their limited adaptation options, these sectors would typically be expected to suffer from higher temperatures. However, since these firms are located in warmer regions, it is likely they have already implemented adaptation strategies. Additionally, the positive marginal effects may be driven by increased productivity during milder winter temperatures, which could offset the productivity loss during hotter summer months. This assumption is particularly relevant for agriculture, provided the number of growing degree days increases more than the the number of killing degree days, or the negative effects of extreme summer heat can be mitigated, at least partially, through irrigation. This finding is supported by satellite observations showing vegetation greening in Europe (IPCC 2019).[41] It is important to note that these results are specific to Europe and may not align with global estimates, as irrigation capabilities vary significantly between regions.

It is important to notice that many estimates reported in this section are not statistically different from zero. This is likely due to substantial within-industry variability in the relationship between temperature and economic performance. Such variability may stem from either the genuine absence of a significant effect or the limitation that the industry-specific focus may not be the optimal lens to identify the relevant heterogeneity in climate damages. Thus, further investigations within countries and industry dynamics, such as those previously presented, become necessary to fully understand the relationship between temperature and firms' economic performance. Section F.3.10 delves into unravelling potential underlying cross-country heterogeneity in industry-specific marginal effects.

---

[41] Causes of greening include combinations of an extended growing season, nitrogen deposition, Carbon Dioxide (CO2) fertilisation, and land management.

F.3.8 Industry additional results

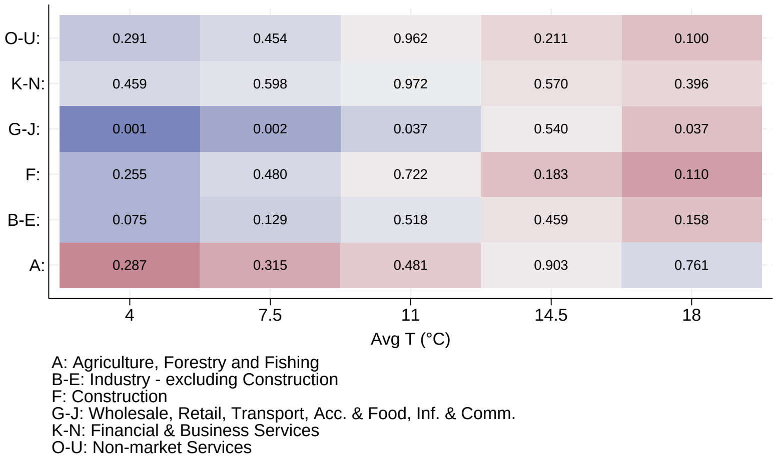


	4	7.5	11	14.5	18
O-U:	0.004	0.002	-0.000	-0.002	-0.005
K-N:	0.003	0.002	0.000	-0.001	-0.003
G-J:	0.011	0.007	0.003	-0.001	-0.005
F:	0.006	0.003	-0.001	-0.004	-0.008
B-E:	0.006	0.004	0.001	-0.001	-0.004
A:	-0.009	-0.006	-0.004	-0.001	0.002

Avg T (°C)

A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

Figure F.25: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output (log) accounting for industry heterogeneity (Nace 2 level 2). Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE.



	4	7.5	11	14.5	18
O-U:	0.291	0.454	0.962	0.211	0.100
K-N:	0.459	0.598	0.972	0.570	0.396
G-J:	0.001	0.002	0.037	0.540	0.037
F:	0.255	0.480	0.722	0.183	0.110
B-E:	0.075	0.129	0.518	0.459	0.158
A:	0.287	0.315	0.481	0.903	0.761

Avg T (°C)

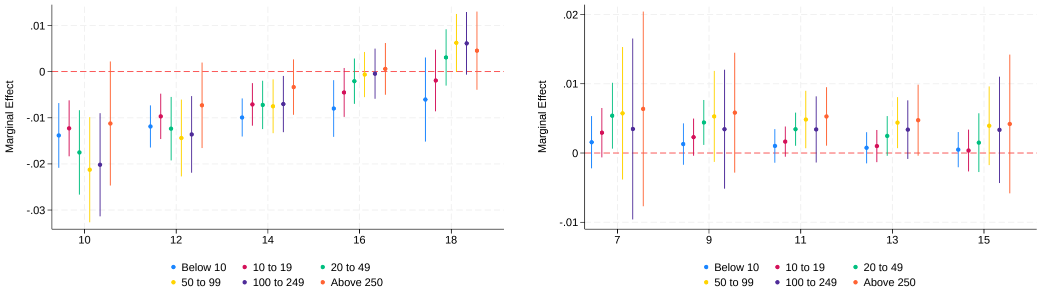
A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

Figure F.26: P-values for coefficients of figure F.25 for the marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output (log) accounting for industry heterogeneity (Nace 2 level 2). The heat map colours refer to the values of the point estimates. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE.

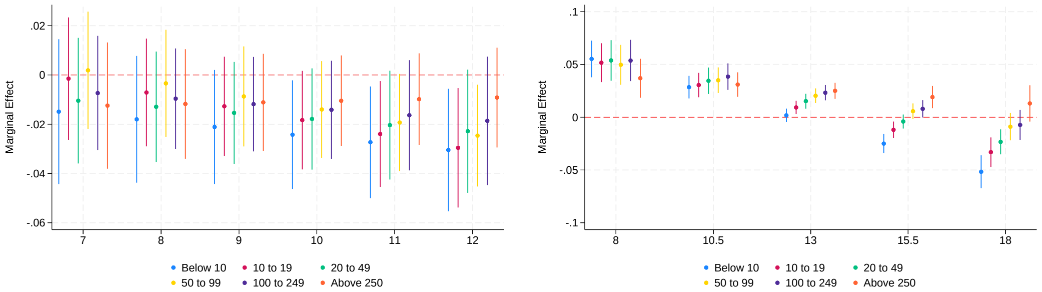
F.3.9 Country-level additional results, size heterogeneity

Figure F.27 reports the marginal effect of an additional 1°C on the growth rate of gross output for the quadratic model in equation 5 for different firm size in selected Countries. Consistent with the country-level average estimates, there are notable differences across countries. It is worth starting the discussion with the results for Italy as they are more evident than for other countries and help to provide the underlying intuition.

The size-specific results for Italy are generally in line with the average marginal effect reported in figure F.4d. The point estimates reported in figure F.27d are not significantly different from each other at lower temperature. Nevertheless, the coefficients become statistically different from each other at medium and higher temperature. These differences are particularly evident in the two warmest sections of the temperature support. Moreover, when focusing on the highest part of the temperature support an important result emerges. Although small and medium firms are negatively impacted by increasing temperature, we fail to reject the null hypothesis of a marginal effect equal to 0 for larger firms (more than 50 employees). That is, the marginal effect of higher yearly average temperature is not statistically different from 0 at the 5% significance level. Specifically, the impact of an additional $1°C$ on firm gross output growth rate is -5.3% for the first category (below 10), -3.4% for the second category (10 to 19) and -2.4% for the third category (20 to 49). The estimates for the three largest categories are neither economically, nor statistically significant (at the 5% level).



(a) Marginal Effect ES (b) Marginal Effect FR



(c) Marginal Effect GB (d) Marginal Effect IT

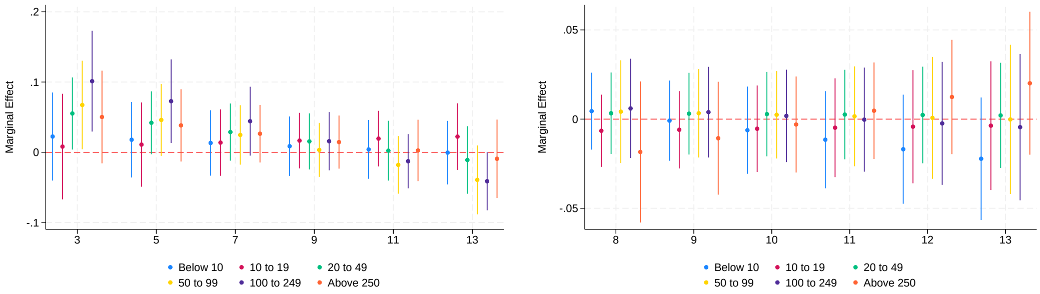
Figure F.27: Marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for firm size heterogeneity. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, plotted over country-specific temperature supports.

There are several reasons why larger firms may not be affected, on average, by higher temperature. First of all, larger firms usually tend to have higher revenues and profits, which determine a lower relative cost of implementing, and a larger opportunity cost of refraining from adaptation strategies. Examples of these adaptation strategies are adopting or expanding air conditioning (Graff Zivin and Kahn 2016), and improving thermal insulation for the plants where production is carried out. Moreover, given their larger resources, these firms can undertake more radical adaptation strategies, such as changing their economic activity towards less impacted sectors or relocate to areas with milder temperature.

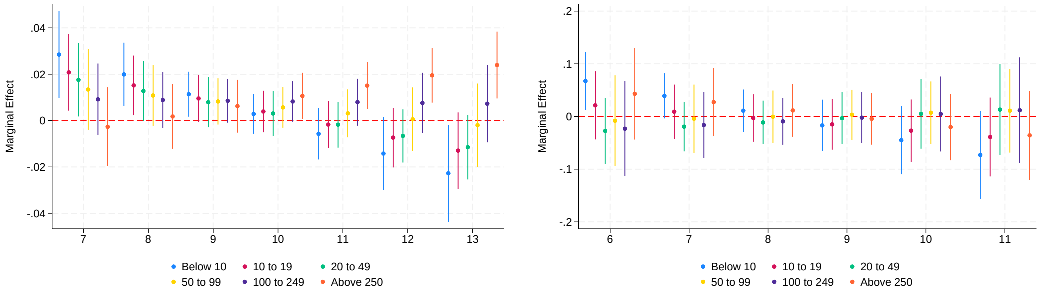
The results for the remaining countries in figure F.27 are less clear than, and somehow contrasting with those for Italy. Consistent with the aggregate results from figure F.4a, the size-specific results for Spain reported in figure F.27a show an upward-sloping marginal effect function over the temperature support across all firm size groups. The point estimates are negative for all groups over the first half of the support. At higher temperature, they remain negative for smaller firms and become positive for larger firms. The estimates are generally statistically significant in the lower part of the temperature distribution and become insignificant at higher temperatures, apart from the largest size group which seems to be not significantly affected by higher temperature over the whole support. Although with substantial differences, the results for Spain seem to be coherent with those for Italy to the extent that smaller firms seem to be negatively impacted by higher temperature, whereas larger firms seem not to be impacted by, or even benefit from higher temperature.

The results for France and the UK reported in figures F.27b and F.27c respectively, are characterised by larger confidence intervals and, therefore, larger uncertainty than those just discussed. Although the results for France are consistently not significant over the whole temperature support and across all size categories, the estimates for the UK provide insightful information nonetheless. The negative estimates, which are not significant for the larger size groups at all levels of the support, become significant at the 95% level for the smaller groups. Suggesting that, differently from larger firms which seem not to be affected by higher temperature, the evidence indicates that smaller firms are negatively affected by higher temperature. Specifically, an additional $1°C$ in yearly average temperature reduces the growth rate of gross output for firms in the first (below 10) and second (10 to 19) categories by -3% and -2.9% respectively.

The results for the remaining countries reported in figures F.28 and F.29 are generally consistent with the finding that smaller firms tend to be more negatively (positively) impacted by higher temperatures when located in warmer (colder) areas. Although with different level of statistical significance, these results are particularly relevant because they show that even when located in areas with different absolute temperatures across countries, smaller firms tend to be more vulnerable to higher temperature when located in relatively warmer areas compared to the specific country-level distribution. This has again implications for the pooled results since it shows that the average effects estimated when pooling all firms together, average out different and often opposing effects within the same level of the temperature distribution. Therefore, relying on the European-level results without acknowledging the underlying country-level heterogeneity, might lead to incorrectly infer that size heterogeneity does not play a role in explaining climate damages.

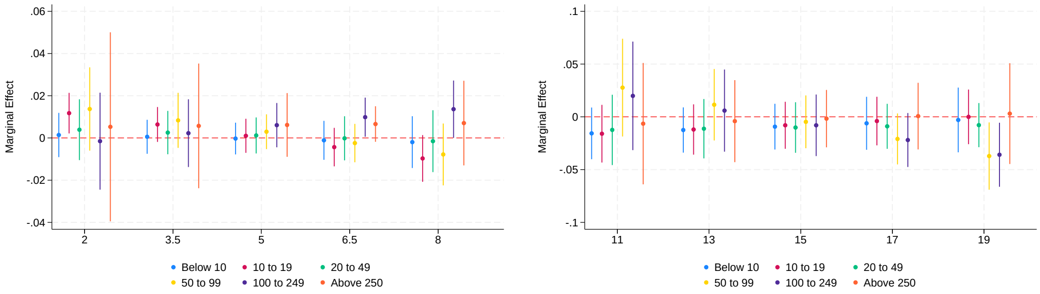


(a) Marginal Effect AT (b) Marginal Effect BE

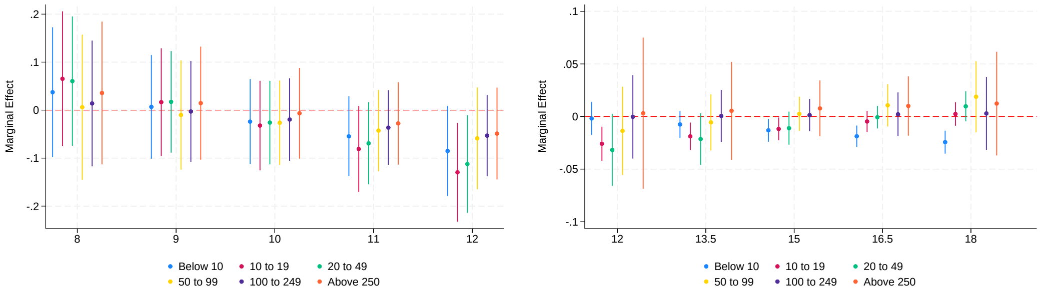


(c) Marginal Effect DE (d) Marginal Effect DK

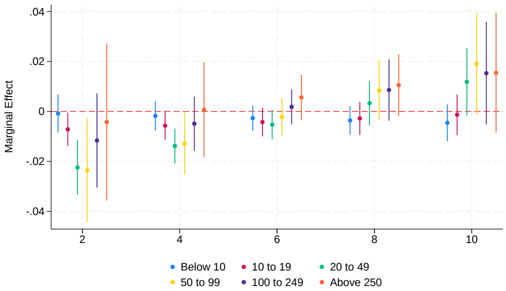
Figure F.28: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



(a) Marginal Effect FI (b) Marginal Effect GR



(c) Marginal Effect NL (d) Marginal Effect PT

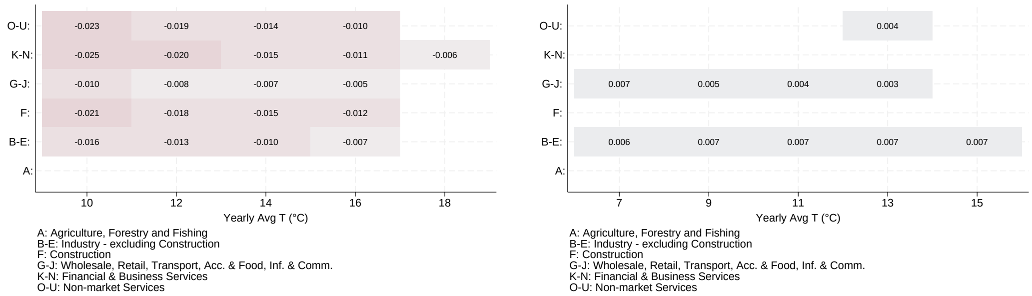


(e) Marginal Effect SE

Figure F.29: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

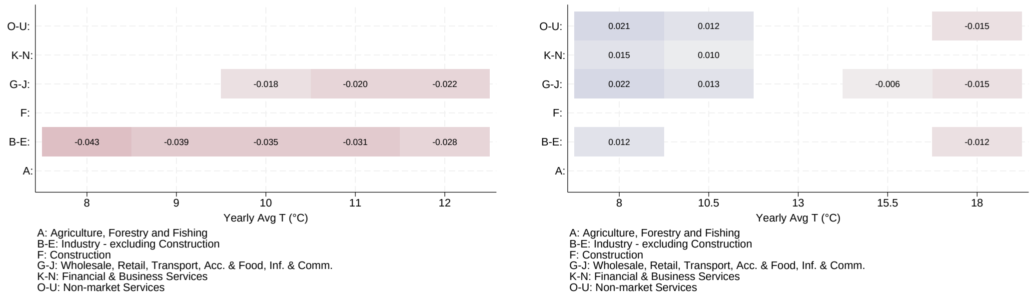
F.3.10 Cross-country heterogeneity, industry-level

The marginal effect for Spain reported in F.30a is a negative and upward-sloping function of temperature. The results for France reported in figure F.30b are generally not statistically significant and, within the set of industries where the effects are positive. The United Kingdom is an interesting case because, as reported in figure F.30c, although only a limited amount of industries are significantly affected by higher temperature, those reporting statistically significant estimates are considerably impacted. Finally, the results for Italy reported in figure F.30d are consistent with the results from the pooled analysis, as they show the expected downward-sloping marginal effect across all industries. In addition, in the Italian case, a significant share of the point estimates is statistically significant. T



(a) Marginal Effect ES

(b) Marginal Effect FR

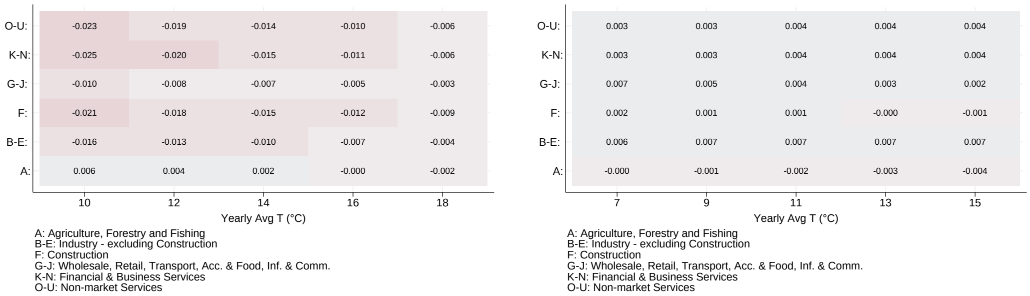


(c) Marginal Effect GB

(d) Marginal Effect IT

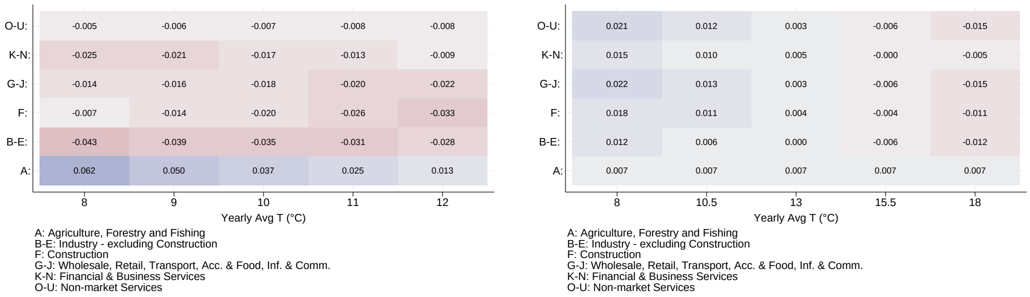
Figure F.30: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for industry heterogeneity. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, plotted over country-specific temperature supports.

The industry-specific estimates for the remaining reported countries are not easy to interpret given the considerable amount of country-industry-specific point estimates to take into account. The heat map colours are particularly convenient in this case because they provide a broad overview of the different signs and magnitudes. The main result arising from the plots in this section is that industry-specific marginal effects are generally consistently negative across countries, although with significant differences in magnitude as highlighted by the different colour intensities.



(a) Marginal Effect ES

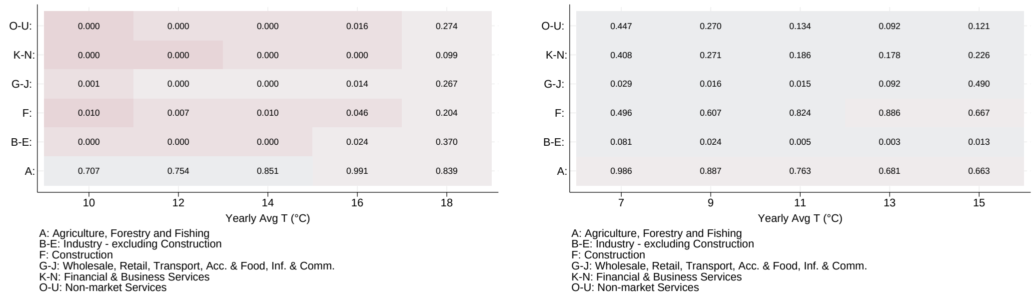
(b) Marginal Effect FR



(c) Marginal Effect GB

(d) Marginal Effect IT

Figure F.31: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for firm industry heterogeneity – estimates with a statistical significance of at least 90%. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE plotted over country-specific temperature supports.



	10	12	14	16	18
O-U:	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.016	0.274
K-N:	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.099
G-J:	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.014	0.267
F:	0.010	0.007	0.010	0.046	0.204
B-E:	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.024	0.370
A:	0.707	0.754	0.851	0.991	0.839

Yearly Avg T (°C)

A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

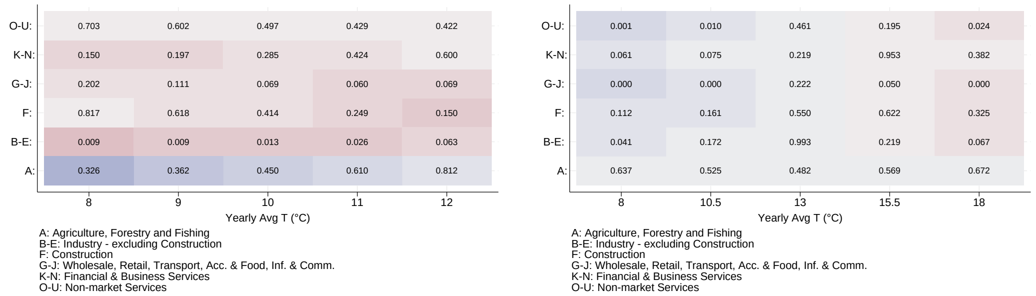
	7	9	11	13	15
O-U:	0.447	0.270	0.134	0.092	0.121
K-N:	0.408	0.271	0.186	0.178	0.226
G-J:	0.029	0.016	0.015	0.092	0.490
F:	0.496	0.607	0.824	0.886	0.667
B-E:	0.081	0.024	0.005	0.003	0.013
A:	0.986	0.887	0.763	0.681	0.663

Yearly Avg T (°C)

A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

(a) P-values ES

(b) P-values FR



	8	9	10	11	12
O-U:	0.703	0.602	0.497	0.429	0.422
K-N:	0.150	0.197	0.285	0.424	0.600
G-J:	0.202	0.111	0.069	0.060	0.069
F:	0.817	0.618	0.414	0.249	0.150
B-E:	0.009	0.009	0.013	0.026	0.063
A:	0.326	0.362	0.450	0.610	0.812

Yearly Avg T (°C)

A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

	8	10.5	13	15.5	18
O-U:	0.001	0.010	0.461	0.195	0.024
K-N:	0.061	0.075	0.219	0.953	0.382
G-J:	0.000	0.000	0.222	0.050	0.000
F:	0.112	0.161	0.550	0.622	0.325
B-E:	0.041	0.172	0.993	0.219	0.067
A:	0.637	0.525	0.482	0.569	0.672

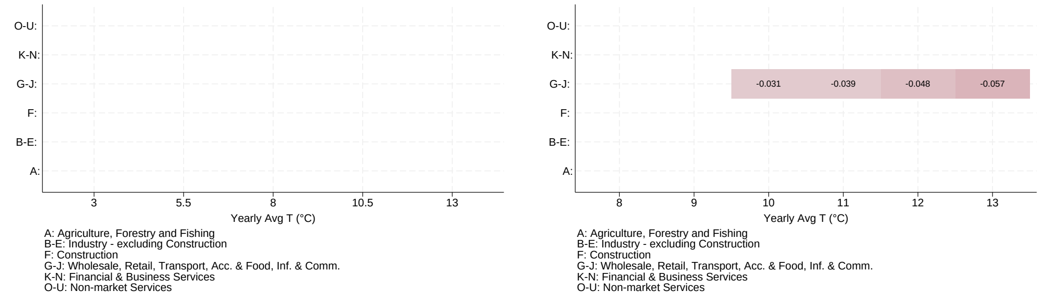
Yearly Avg T (°C)

A: Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing
B-E: Industry - excluding Construction
F: Construction
G-J: Wholesale, Retail, Transport, Acc. & Food, Inf. & Comm.
K-N: Financial & Business Services
O-U: Non-market Services

(c) P-values GB

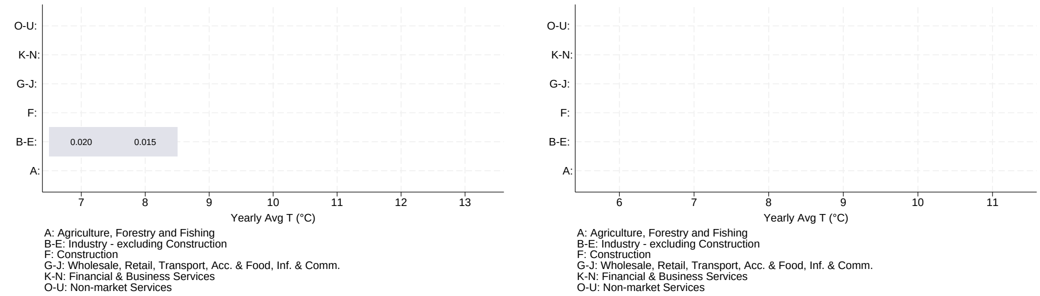
(d) P-values IT

Figure F.32: Relevant p-values for the marginal effect of an extra $1°C$ in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output accounting for firm industry heterogeneity. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE plotted over country-specific temperature supports.



(a) Marginal Effect AT

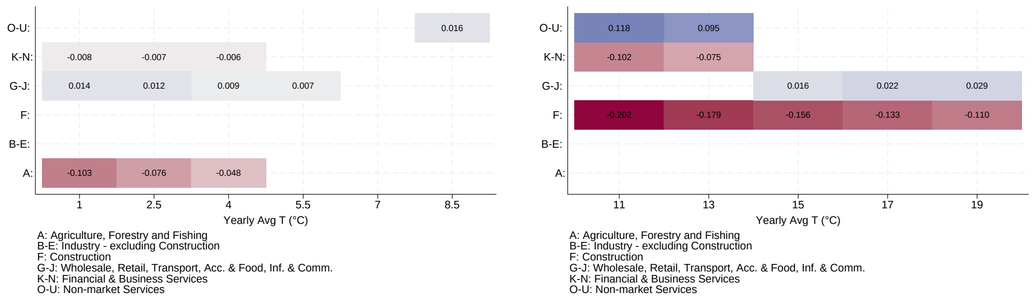
(b) Marginal Effect BE



(c) Marginal Effect DE

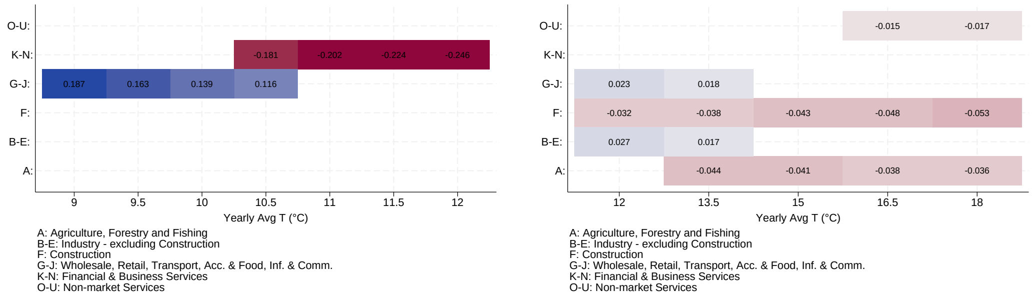
(d) Marginal Effect DK

Figure F.33: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



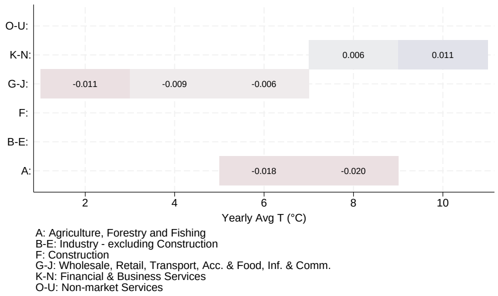
(a) Marginal Effect FI

(b) Marginal Effect GR



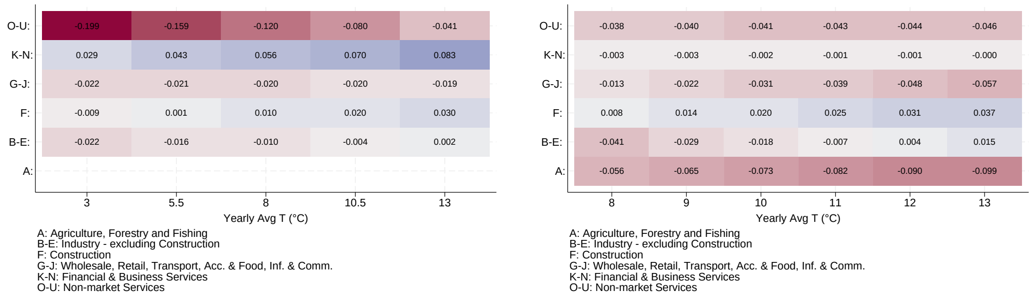
(c) Marginal Effect NL

(d) Marginal Effect PT



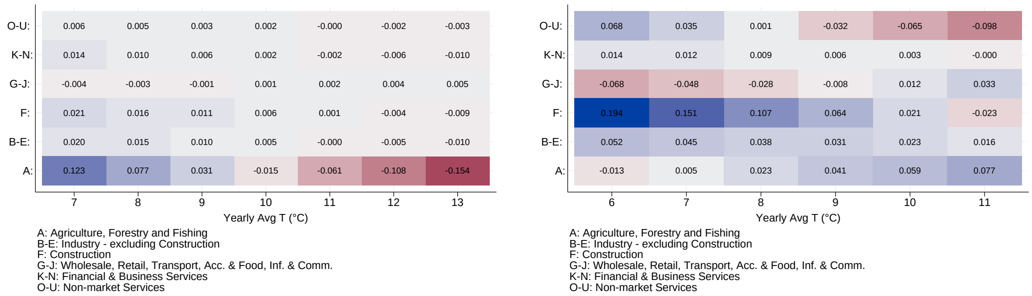
(e) Marginal Effect SE

Figure F.34: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



(a) Marginal Effect AT

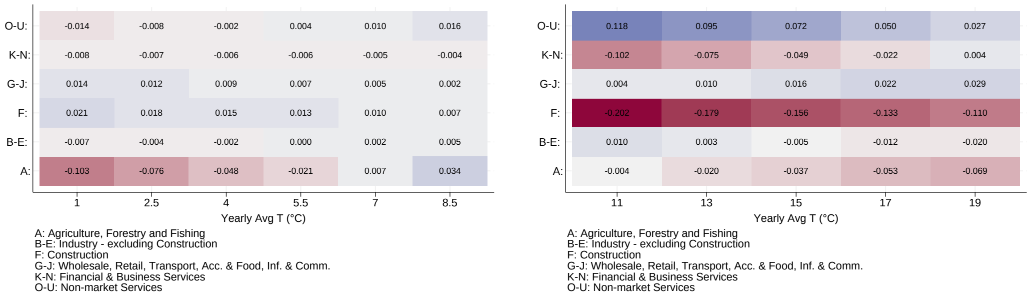
(b) Marginal Effect BE



(c) Marginal Effect DE

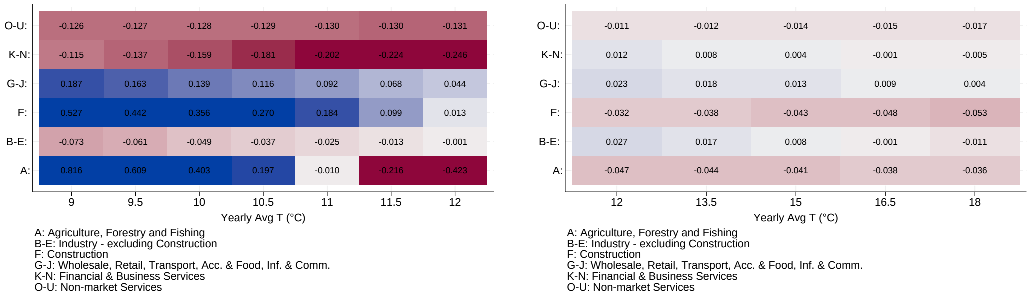
(d) Marginal Effect DK

Figure F.35: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.



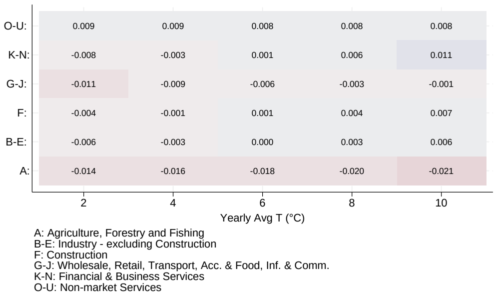
(a) Marginal Effect FI

(b) Marginal Effect GR



(c) Marginal Effect NL

(d) Marginal Effect PT

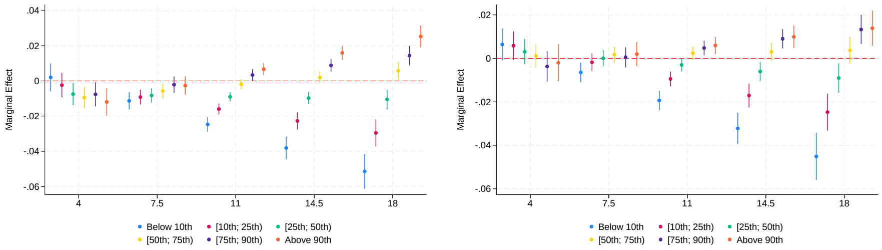


(e) Marginal Effect SE

Figure F.36: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of gross output in other European countries. Results from the quadratic model with firm and industry-year FE and standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level, estimated excluding the bottom and top 1% of the temperature distribution.

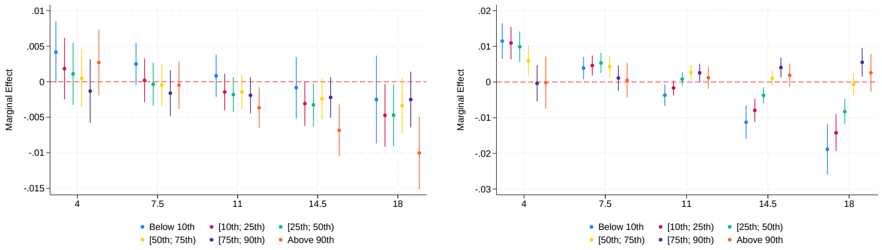
Appendix G Robustness tests, additional results

G.1 Productivity heterogeneity (Quadratic Trends)

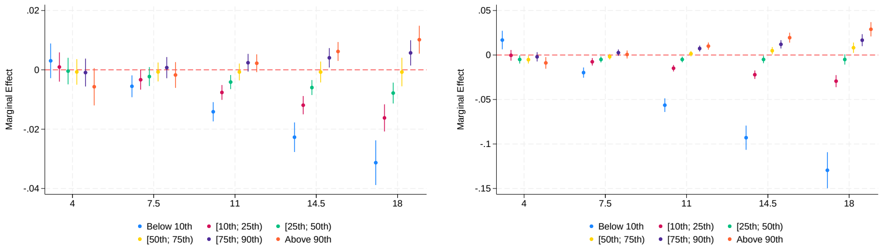


(a) lag-1 marginal effect GO (b) lag-2 marginal effect GO

Figure G.1: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

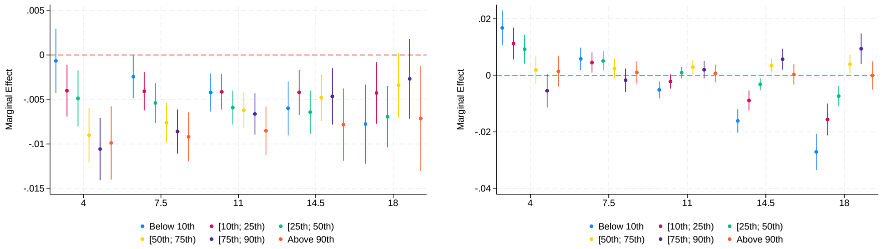


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K

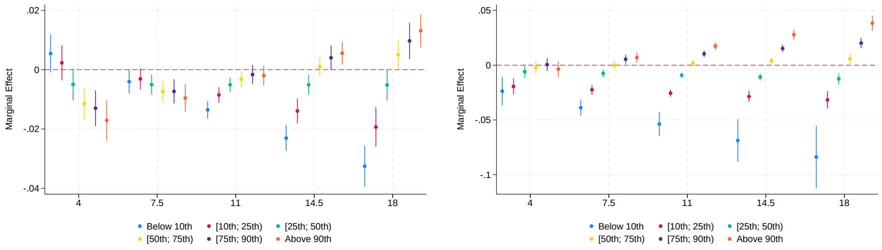


(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.2: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

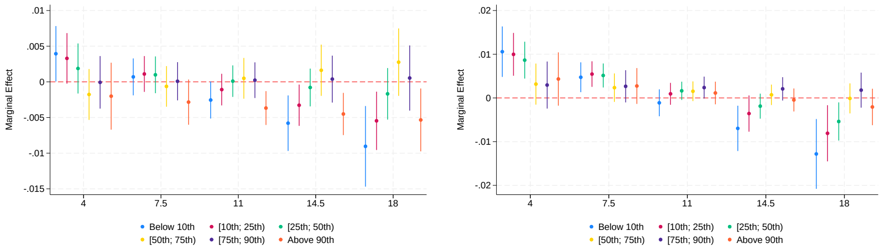


(a) lag-1 marginal effect L (b) lag-1 marginal effect K

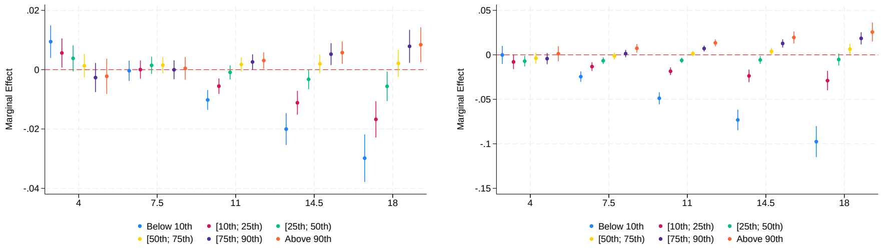


(c) lag-1 marginal effect M (d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.3: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



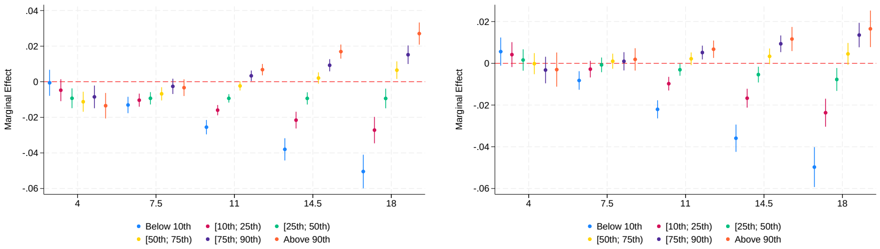
(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

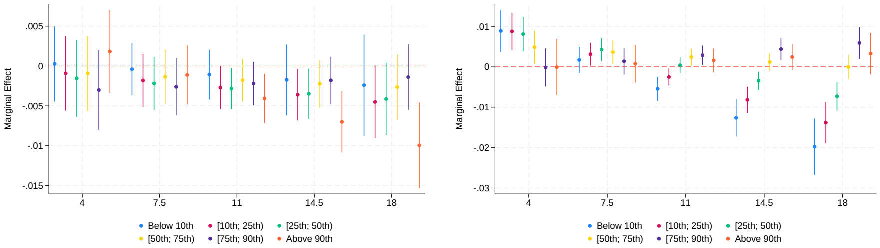
Figure G.4: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

G.2 Productivity heterogeneity (Exclude Covid-19)

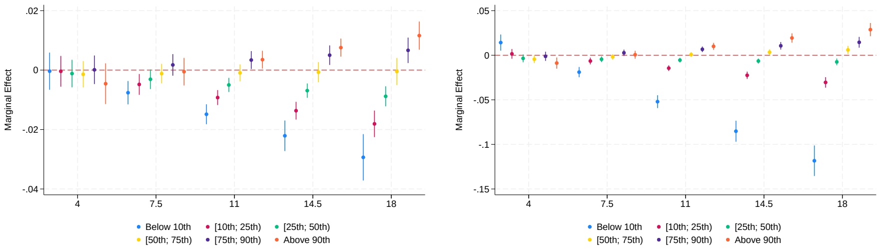


(a) lag-1 marginal effect GO (b) lag-2 marginal effect GO

Figure G.5: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

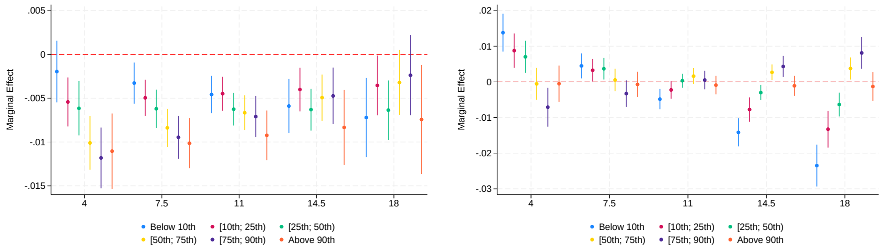


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



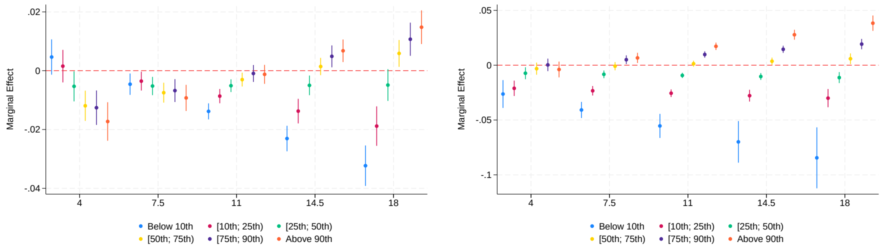
(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.6: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect L

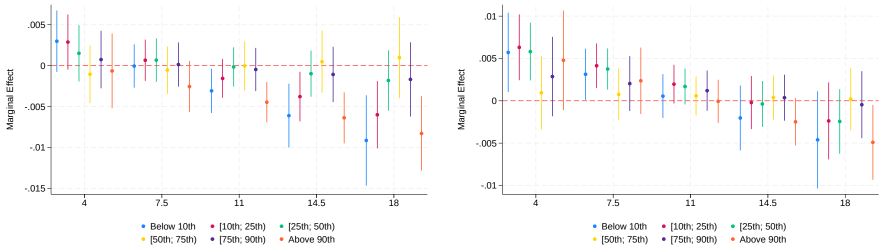
(b) lag-1 marginal effect K



(c) lag-1 marginal effect M

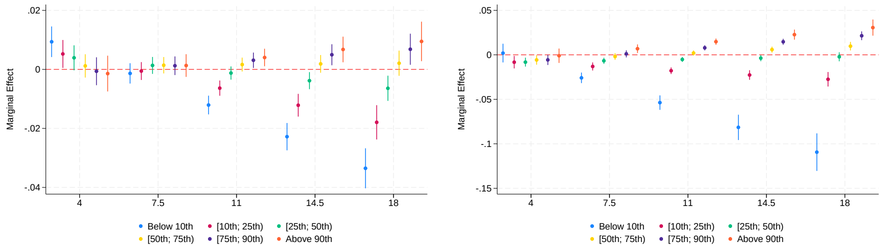
(d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.7: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



(a) lag-2 marginal effect L

(b) lag-2 marginal effect K

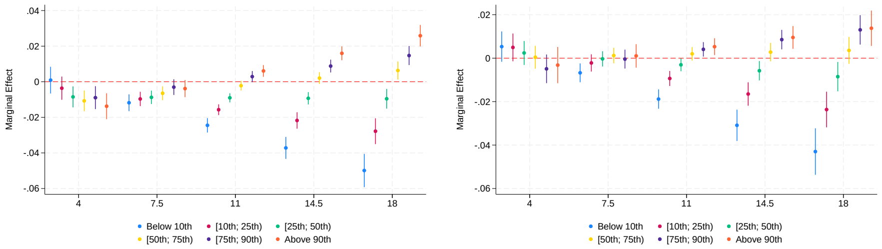


(c) lag-2 marginal effect M

(d) lag-2 marginal effect TFP

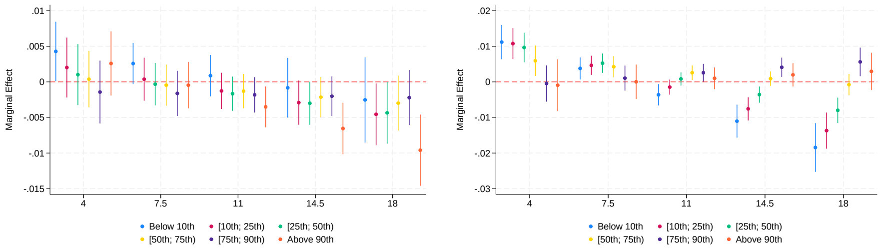
Figure G.8: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

G.3 Productivity heterogeneity (Exclude Exiting Firms)

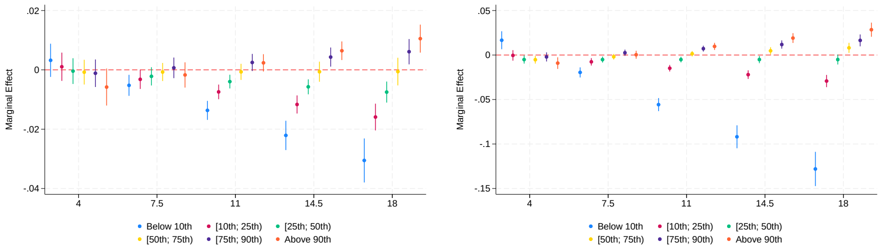


(a) lag-1 marginal effect GO (b) lag-2 marginal effect GO

Figure G.9: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

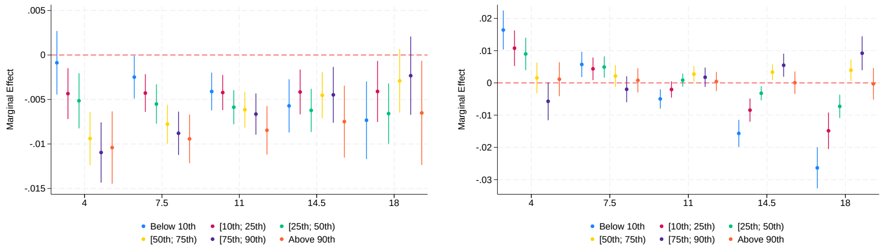


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



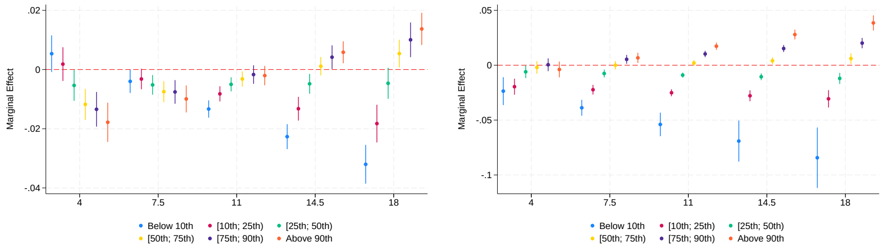
(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.10: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



(a) lag-1 marginal effect L

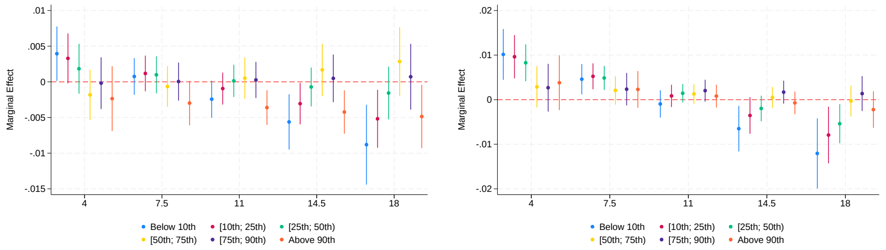
(b) lag-1 marginal effect K



(c) lag-1 marginal effect M

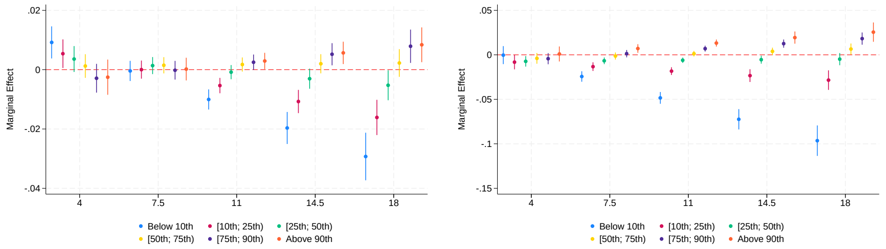
(d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.11: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



(a) lag-2 marginal effect L

(b) lag-2 marginal effect K

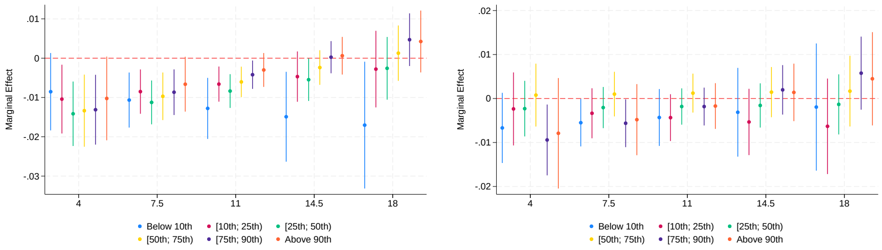


(c) lag-2 marginal effect M

(d) lag-2 marginal effect TFP

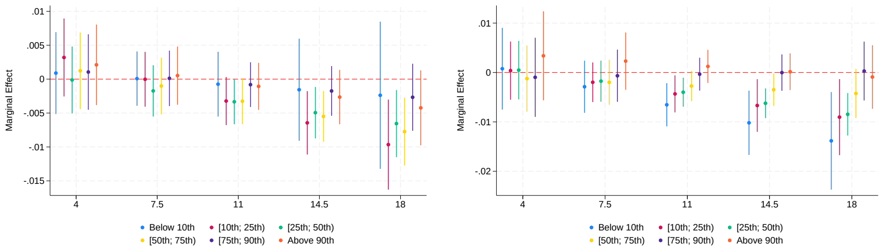
Figure G.12: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

G.4 Productivity heterogeneity (Balanced Panel)

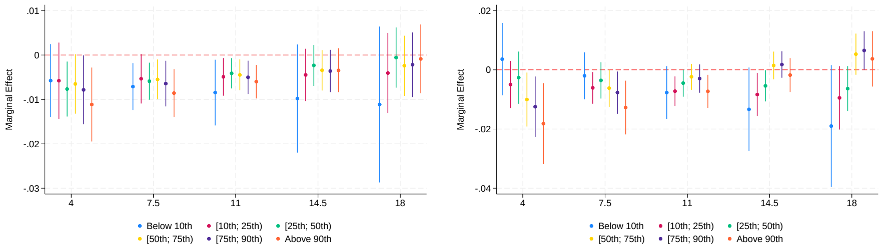


(a) lag-1 marginal effect GO (b) lag-2 marginal effect GO

Figure G.13: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

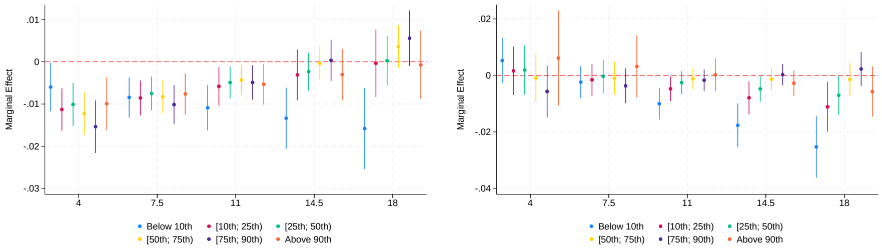


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K

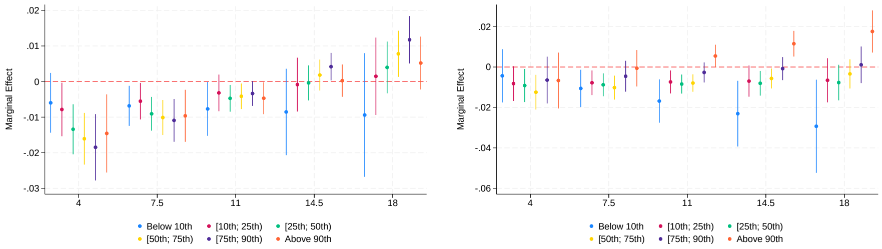


(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.14: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

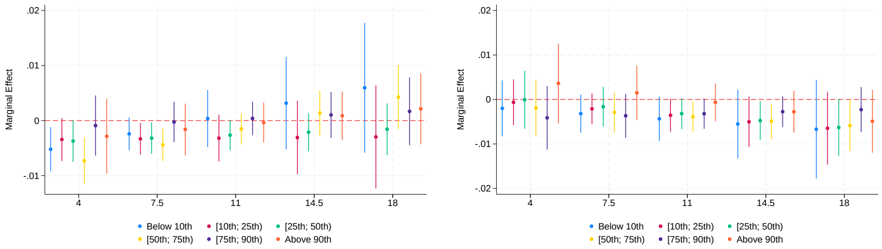


(a) lag-1 marginal effect L (b) lag-1 marginal effect K

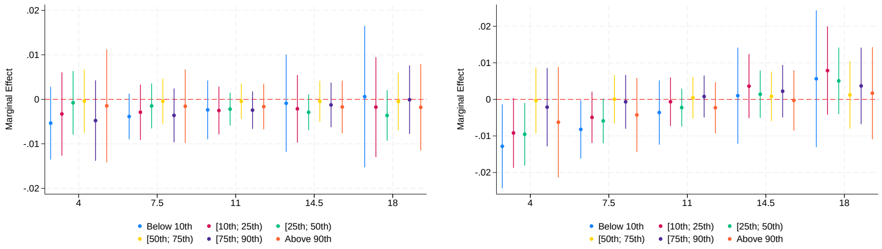


(c) lag-1 marginal effect M (d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.15: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



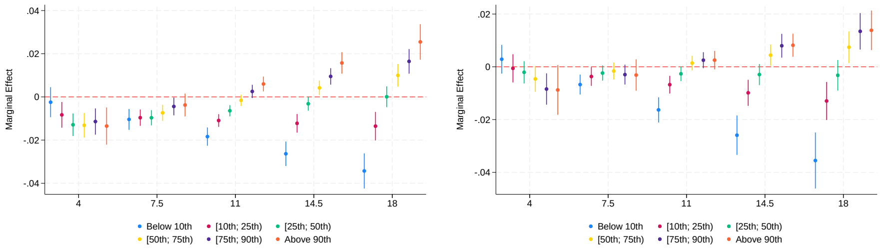
(a) lag-2 marginal effect L (b) lag-2 marginal effect K



(c) lag-2 marginal effect M (d) lag-2 marginal effect TFP

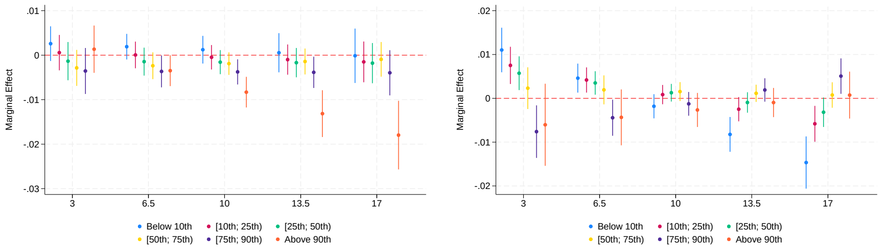
Figure G.16: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

G.5 Productivity heterogeneity (Exclude Shareholders)

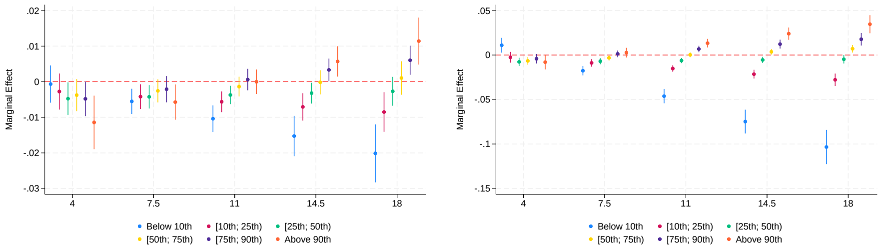


(a) lag-1 marginal effect GO (b) lag-2 marginal effect GO

Figure G.17: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

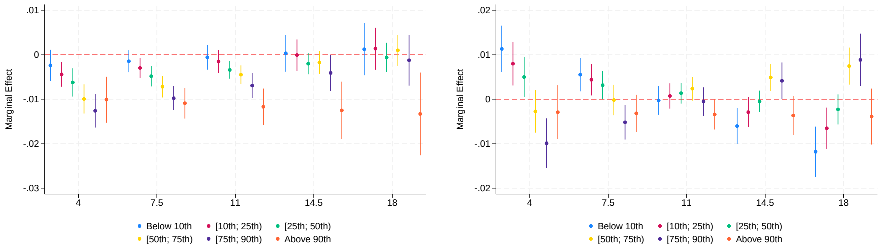


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K

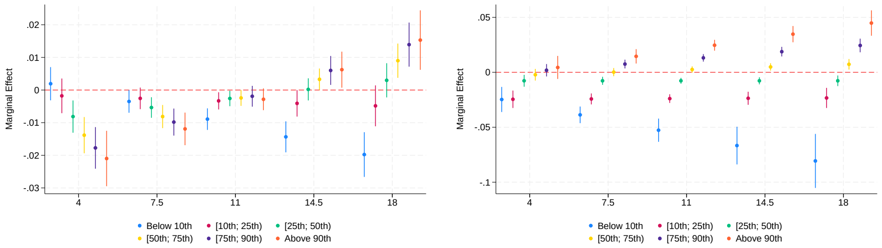


(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.18: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

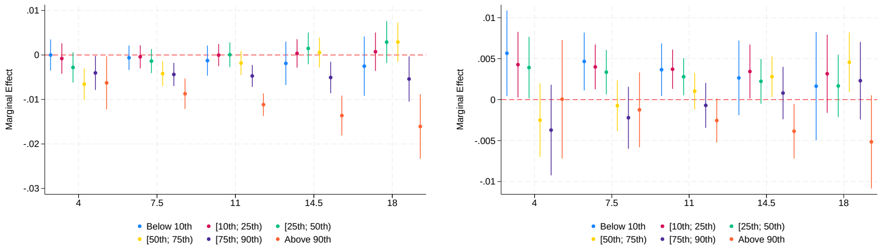


(a) lag-1 marginal effect L (b) lag-1 marginal effect K

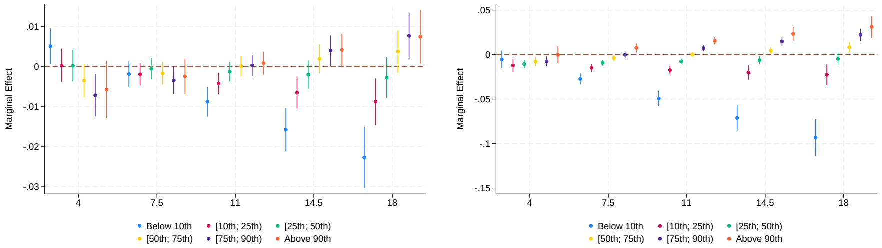


(c) lag-1 marginal effect M (d) lag-1 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.19: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



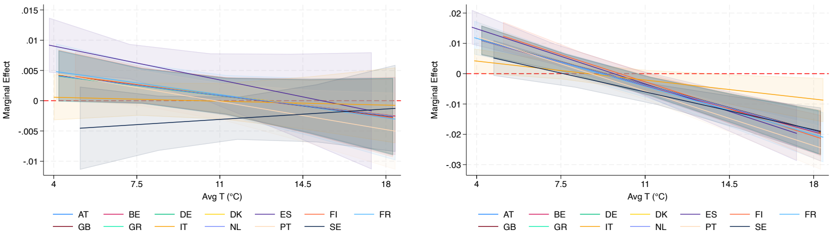
(a) lag-2 marginal effect L (b) lag-2 marginal effect K



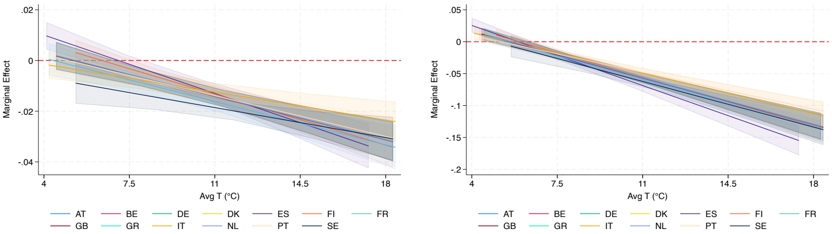
(c) lag-2 marginal effect M (d) lag-2 marginal effect TFP

Figure G.20: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

G.6 Productivity heterogeneity (Leave-one-Country-out)

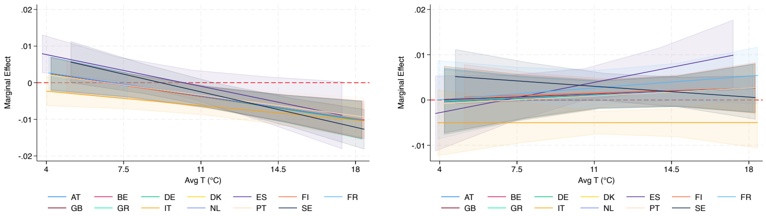


(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K

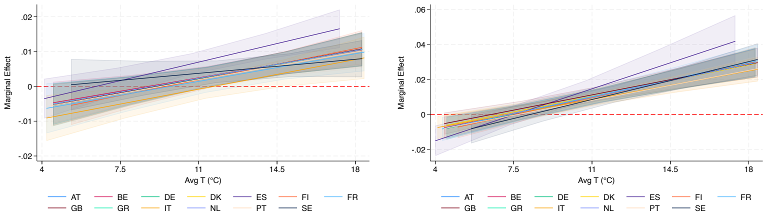


(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.21: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.



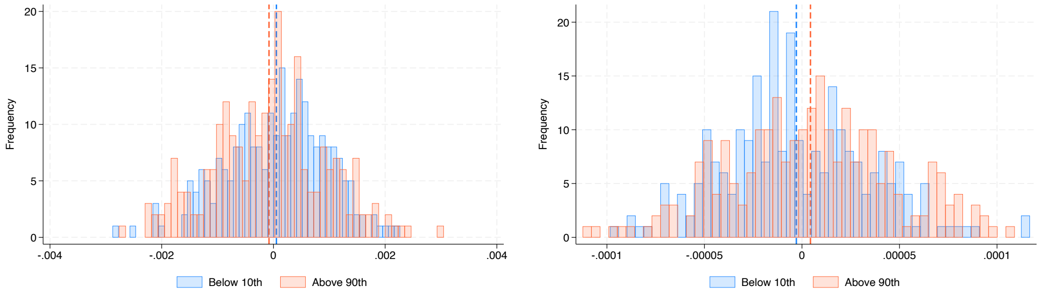
(a) Marginal Effect L (b) Marginal Effect K



(c) Marginal Effect M (d) Marginal Effect TFP

Figure G.22: Marginal effect of an extra 1°C in yearly average temperature on the growth rate of L, K, M, TFP across different productivity categories. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE, standard errors clustered at the Nuts 3 level.

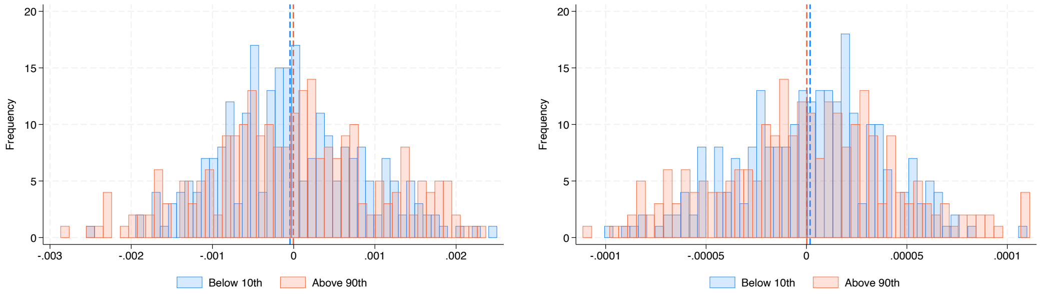
G.7 Productivity heterogeneity (Total Randomisation)



(a) lag-1 linear point estimates

(b) lag-1 quadratic point estimates

Figure G.23: Distribution of point estimates for $(\ell 1)T$ (a) and $(\ell 1)T^2$ (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the total randomisation procedure.



(a) lag-2 linear point estimates

(b) lag-2 quadratic point estimates

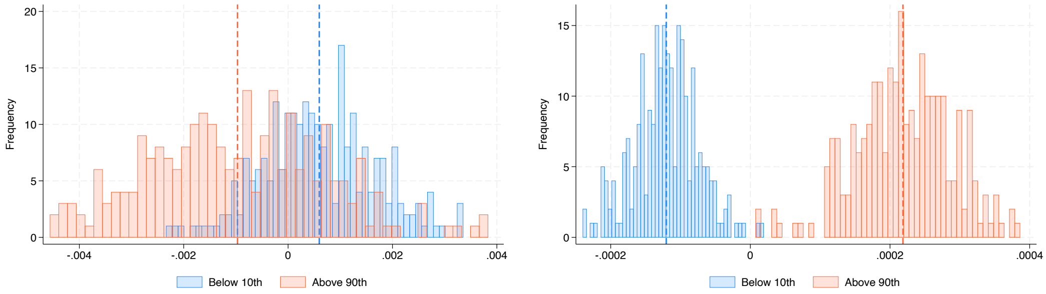
Figure G.24: Distribution of point estimates for $(\ell 2)T$ (a) and $(\ell 2)T^2$ (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the total randomisation procedure.

Table G.1: Comparison of real and randomised (mean) coefficients

	Below 10th	Above 90th
Temperature		
T	0.0299278	-0.0414936
T^2	-0.002434	0.003255
$(\ell 1)\,T$	0.0196747	-0.0419205
$(\ell 1)\,T^2$	-0.0020762	0.0033846
$(\ell 2)\,T$	0.0262055	-0.029158
$(\ell 2)\,T^2$	-0.0020502	0.0024607
Randomised Temperature (mean)		
T	-0.0004166	-0.0013877
T^2	-0.0001064	0.0002437
$(\ell 1)\,T$	0.0000534	-0.0000793
$(\ell 1)\,T^2$	-2.89e-06	4.34e-06
$(\ell 2)\,T$	-0.0000449	-3.83e-06
$(\ell 2)\,T^2$	1.80e-06	1.68e-07

Table G.2: Point estimates across the original sample and the randomised sample between the least and most-productive firms. The randomised sample refers to the randomly allocated temperature in the total randomisation.

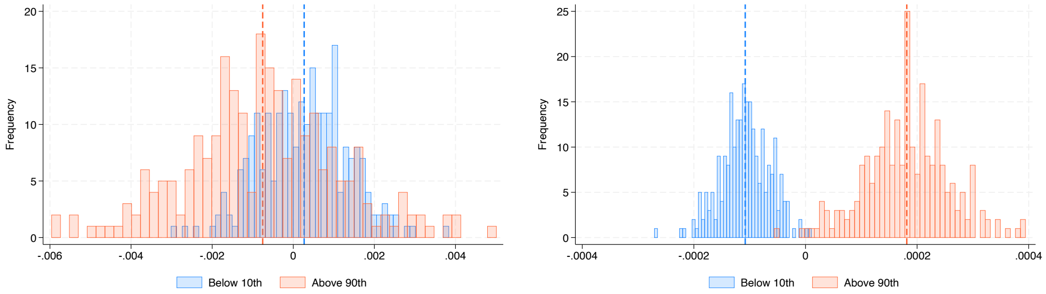
G.8 Productivity heterogeneity (NUTS1 Randomisation)



(a) lag-1 linear point estimates

(b) lag-1 quadratic point estimates

Figure G.25: Distribution of point estimates for $(\ell 1)T$ (a) and $(\ell 1)T^2$ (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the NUTS1 randomisation procedure.



(a) lag-2 linear point estimates

(b) lag-2 quadratic point estimates

Figure G.26: Distribution of point estimates for $(\ell 2)T$ (a) and $(\ell 2)T^2$ (b) on the growth rate of GO across the least- and most-productive firms. Results from the quadratic model with firm and country-industry-year FE for the NUTS1 randomisation procedure.

	Below 10th	Above 90th
Temperature		
T	0.0299278	-0.0414936
T^2	-0.002434	0.003255
$(\ell 1)\, T$	0.0196747	-0.0419205
$(\ell 1)\, T^2$	-0.0020762	0.0033846
$(\ell 2)\, T$	0.0262055	-0.029158
$(\ell 2)\, T^2$	-0.0020502	0.0024607
Randomised Temperature (mean)		
T	-0.0004166	-0.0013877
T^2	-0.0001064	0.0002437
$(\ell 1)\, T$	0.000597	-0.0009693
$(\ell 1)\, T^2$	-0.0001204	0.0002185
$(\ell 2)\, T$	0.0002687	-0.0007539
$(\ell 2)\, T^2$	-0.000108	0.0001815

Table G.3: Point estimates across the original sample and the randomised sample between the least and most-productive firms. The randomised sample refers to the randomly allocated temperature within NUTS1-year combinations.