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Title: Changes to the structure and function of an albacore fishery reveal shifting social-ecological realities for Pacific Northwest fishermen

Running Title: Albacore sustains PNW fishers

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ABSTRACT

Marine fisheries around the globe are increasingly exposed to external drivers of social and ecological change. Though diversification and flexibility have historically helped marine resource users negotiate risk and adversity, much of modern fisheries management treats fishermen as specialists using specific gear types to target specific species. Here we describe the evolution of harvest portfolios among Pacific Northwest fishermen over 35+ years with explicit attention to changes in the structure and function of the albacore (*Thunnus alalunga*, Scombridae) troll and pole-and-line fishery. Our analysis indicates that recent social-ecological changes have had heterogeneous impacts upon the livelihood strategies favored by different segments of regional fishing fleets. As ecological change and regulatory reform have restricted access to a number of fisheries, many of the regional small (< 45 ft) and medium (45-60 ft) boat fishermen who continue to pursue diverse livelihood strategies have increasingly relied upon the ability to opportunistically target albacore in coastal waters while retaining more of the value generated by such catch. In contrast, large vessels (> 60 ft) targeting albacore are more specialized now than previously observed, even as participation in multiple fisheries has become increasingly common for this size-class. In describing divergent trajectories associated with the

albacore fishery, one of the US West Coast's last open access fisheries, we highlight the diverse strategies and mechanisms utilized to sustain fisheries livelihoods in the modern era while arguing that alternative approaches to management and licensing may be required to maintain the viability of small-scale fishing operations worldwide moving forward.

Keywords: albacore tuna, ecosystem-based fisheries management, fisheries diversification, harvest portfolios, small-scale fisheries, social-ecological systems,

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8 1.0 INTRODUCTION

9 Fisheries are increasingly recognized as complex and adaptive social-ecological systems
10 (SES) (Pikitch et al., 2004; Perry et al., 2011) in which the exploitation of marine resources is
11 driven by human interactions with dynamic environmental and socioeconomic conditions. Those
12 dependent on fisheries resources must continuously adapt to external drivers of change that
13 impact the structure and function of the SES in which they are embedded. Just as the ability of
14 fishing communities to adapt to change is a fundamental part of the culture and ethos that has
15 enabled their long-term persistence (Oestrich et al., 2019), the capacity of SES to reorganize
16 while maintaining their essential attributes (often referred to as ‘resilience’) is a core concept that
17 underlies much of modern sustainability science (Folke et al., 2010). Though researchers and
18 policy makers have recognized the need to move beyond single-species perspectives in pursuit of
19 holistic and adaptive fisheries management strategies (Fogarty, 2014; Marshall et al., 2018),
20 related discourse has focused predominantly on ecological food webs while ignoring the social-
21 ecological linkages and feedbacks informing how fishers participate and shift effort among
22 fisheries (Fuller et al., 2017; Kroetz et al., 2019).

23 Knowledge of how people operate in a fishery system can provide insight into how that
24 system works (Salas & Gartner, 2004). Yet most fisheries management plans, as mandated by
25 legislation, continue to be based upon consideration of a narrow suite of technical parameters
26 (Battista et al., 2018). Where acknowledgement of the human dimensions of marine resource
27 systems does exist, fishers are often treated as uniform elements with little consideration of
28 heterogeneity in goals, strategies, and scales of operation (Salas & Gaertner, 2004; Fulton et al.,
29 2011). Rather than existing as specialists, using specific gear types to target specific species,
30 many fishers participate in multiple fisheries within and between years (Addicott et al., 2017).
31 Decisions concerning how to allocate fishing effort are made in response to changes in species

32 abundance and distribution (Finkbeiner, 2015; Cline et al., 2017), shifting regulations (Holland
33 & Kasperski, 2016; Stoll et al., 2016; Kroetz et al., 2019), and market drivers (Kininmonth et al.,
34 2017). A failure to acknowledge the complex SES interactions driving the dynamic, multi-
35 species, multi-gear reality of most fisheries systems has resulted in a focus on discrete biological
36 and economic objectives rather than sustainable development (Pascoe et al., 2014) and has
37 limited the scope and effectiveness of many management approaches to-date (Gaertner et al.,
38 1999; Cunningham et al., 2016; Fuller et al., 2017).

39 With marine social-ecological systems increasingly exposed to external threat and pressures
40 (Kittinger et al., 2013), researchers have argued that diverse and flexible livelihood strategies are
41 needed to sustain natural resource dependent individuals and communities (Allison & Ellison,
42 2001; Cline et al., 2017). At sea, novel environmental conditions, driven by both long-term
43 trends and extreme events, have disrupted historical patterns and processes (Pershing et al.,
44 2019) while on land international institutions and seafood markets have exposed resource users
45 to the pressures and priorities of distant actors and political systems (Crona et al., 2016; Frawley
46 et al., 2019a). Across North American fisheries, diverse harvesting portfolios are recognized as
47 means of reducing exposure to such processes and for mitigating risk and uncertainty (Kasperski
48 & Holland, 2013; Finkbeiner, 2015; Cline et al., 2017; Frawley et al., 2019b). However, many
49 fishers are reliant on fewer species now than ever before (Holland & Kasperski, 2016; Stoll et
50 al., 2016). As markets offer economic incentives to focus on particular local stocks (Anderson et
51 al., 2017), modern management and licensing regimes have functioned to restrict resource access
52 and limit fishing effort (Mansfield et al., 2004).

53 Here we synthesize 35 + years of vessel-level landings data for Oregon and Washington in
54 order to assess longitudinal changes impacting the fishery system with particular attention to the
55 trajectory of the US North Pacific albacore troll and pole-and-line fishery. By grounding our
56 findings in parallel analyses of diverse quantitative (fisheries logbooks, landings, and vessel
57 registration databases) and qualitative (fishermen interviews and focus group discussions) data
58 sources, we 1) identify ecological and socioeconomic drivers of change relevant to the SES
59 system; 2) evaluate their impacts upon the livelihood strategies and harvest portfolios of diverse
60 user groups; and 3) describe the processes and feedbacks mediating heterogeneous adaptive
61 responses. This analysis is one of the most holistic and comprehensive investigations to date of
62 fisheries connectivity across the Pacific Northwest and emphasizes that over the past several

63 decades processes of social and ecological change impacting SES systems have been rapid,
64 intense, and intertwined.

65

66 **2.0 STUDY SYSTEM**

67 The US West Coast fishery system is characterized by its high levels of diversity,
68 productivity, and variability. The coastal currents and wind-driven upwelling that fuel
69 productivity in surface waters are mediated by seasonal cycles and are acutely impacted by
70 interannual climate oscillations like the El Niño-Southern Oscillation and the Pacific Decadal
71 Oscillation (Jacox et al., 2015). In order to adjust to the fluctuations of individual fisheries, many
72 fishers across California, Oregon, and Washington have historically targeted diverse species
73 assemblages (Kasperski & Holland, 2013; Aguilera et al., 2015; Holland & Kasperski, 2016).
74 However, in response to concerns surrounding declines in landings and revenue within the
75 historically productive salmon and groundfish sectors, management authorities first began to
76 restrict fisheries access in the 1970s and 80s by capping the absolute number of licenses and
77 establishing gear restrictions (Holland & Kasperski, 2016, Richerson et al., 2017; Warlick et al.,
78 2018). With the development of catch shares and other quota-based management systems (often
79 referred to as “fisheries rationalization”) across the US in the mid-to late 90s (Mansfield, 2004;
80 Oslon, 2011) efforts to privatize fisheries continued to gain traction and many inactive or part-
81 time fishermen were limited to small amounts of catch or gear of limited productivity (Kasperski
82 & Holland, 2013).

83 As other fisheries have become increasingly restricted, the US albacore troll and pole-and-
84 line fishery has remained open access. North Pacific albacore is a highly migratory species
85 whose range spans the entire North Pacific Basin. Like many other tuna stocks that utilize the
86 high seas and migrate between the jurisdictions of multiple states, North Pacific albacore are
87 managed by Regional Fisheries Management Organizations (RFMOs) which share data, monitor
88 effort, and establish compliance criteria (Nikolic et al., 2017; Seto et al., 2020). After spawning
89 and early development in the tropical and subtropical waters of the western and central Pacific
90 (Chen et al., 2010), juvenile fish undertake transpacific migrations with many entering the
91 productive coastal waters of the California Current to feed (Ichinokawa et al., 2008; Childers et
92 al., 2011). Albacore distribution and migratory movements are strongly influenced by regional
93 oceanographic processes (Laurs & Lynn, 1977; Xu et al., 2017, Nieto et al., 2017; Muhling et al.,

94 2019) and the availability of albacore to US West Coast fishing fleets may vary substantially
95 from year to year. On average, US vessels using surface gears account for ~17% of the total
96 annual catch of albacore in the Northern Pacific, with the adjacent Canadian surface fleet
97 reporting < 10 % and Japanese pole-and-line and longline vessels in the Western and Central
98 Pacific landing the vast majority (ISC, 2017). Though RFMO members have agreed not to
99 increase effort above levels observed in the early 2000s, there are currently no limits on the catch
100 of albacore in the North Pacific (Nikolic et al., 2017).

101 Throughout the 100+ years of the US albacore fishery's existence, water temperature has
102 influenced the latitude at which fish enter coastal waters and become accessible to West Coast
103 fishermen (Clemens, 1965; Phillips et al., 2014). The location and extent of fishing grounds for
104 albacore in this region, and other ocean basins in which it is found, are believed to be influenced
105 by the climate regimes and interannual oceanic oscillations mediating local surface features and
106 forage communities (Chavez et al., 2003; Phillips et al., 2014). During the fishery's initial
107 development and expansion, albacore helped support one of the world's largest tuna canning
108 industries in southern California as the most productive fishing grounds were located between
109 Baja California and the Columbia River (Clemens, 1965). In recent decades, fishery operations
110 have been concentrated off Oregon and Washington, with periodic expansions as far north as
111 British Columbia and Alaska (Christian & Holmes, 2016). Though US landings have declined
112 significantly following a post-World War II peak of 33,707 mt in 1950 (Clemens, 1965), the
113 North Pacific albacore stock was considered healthy as of 2017 (ISC, 2017). Troll and pole-and-
114 line fishers targeting the stock have been lauded for their use of sustainable and selective gear
115 types and the US West Coast albacore fishery has been Marine Stewardship Council certified
116 since 2007 (Blythe-Skyrme et al., 2012a).

117

118 **3.0 METHODS**

119 We relied on methodological triangulation (Olsen, 2004) to achieve our research objectives,
120 using mixed methods from the natural and social sciences in order to integrate quantitative
121 analyses of diverse fisheries dependent data sources with qualitative data from fishermen
122 interviews and focus group discussions. Triangulation approaches provide an opportunity to
123 deepen, widen, and contextualize scientific understanding of study systems (Angelstam et al.,
124 2013; Bennett et al., 2017) and can help ensure the validity of results when studying marine

125 fisheries and other complex systems with both social and ecological domains (Whitney et al.,
126 2017; Mason et al., 2019).

127

128 *3.1 Semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions*

129 Qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were
130 used to identify research questions, generate hypotheses, and validate research results. Semi-
131 structured interviews (Bernard, 2017), carried out over the phone (n=15) and in person (n=7)
132 between 2017 and 2019, were designed to explore social-ecological drivers of change impacting
133 the US West Coast albacore fishery. Informants included 19 active or recently active albacore
134 fishermen and 3 individuals representing industry organizations. Initial informants were
135 identified through contact information listed in the 2017 US-Canada Albacore Treaty Agreement
136 and subsequent respondents were identified through referrals (i.e. snowball sampling; Goodman,
137 1961). With permission, all phone interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim.
138 Data collected during in-person interviews was limited to field notes in order to establish rapport
139 and facilitate the exploration of sensitive topics (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). Field notes and
140 anonymized interview transcripts were imported into NVivo qualitative data analysis software
141 and inductively coded using a grounded theory approach to identify emergent themes (Glaser &
142 Strauss, 1967; Bernard, 2017) and generate hypotheses which could be tested using quantitative
143 data. Focus group discussions were held during a stakeholder workshop at the project's outset
144 (NOAA/National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) Future Seas Workshop, Focus Group 1,
145 06/2018) and following the presentation of preliminary research findings to management
146 authorities (Oregon Department of Fish and Wildlife, Focus Group 2, 11/2019 ; Pacific Fisheries
147 Management Council (PFMC) High Migratory Species Advisory Subpanel and Management
148 Team, Focus Group 3, 11/2019) and industry organizations (Oregon Albacore Commission,
149 Focus Group 4, 11/2019). These focus group discussions were used to guide the analysis and to
150 identify and resolve contradictory research findings (Rubin & Rubin, 2011; Nyumba et al.,
151 2016).

152

153 *3.2 Vessel landings, effort, and price data*

154 Fishery dependent data were used to describe historical changes in albacore fishery
155 landings and effort in addition to patterns and processes impacting the US West Coast fishery

156 system at large. Fishery landings and effort data were obtained from 3 distinct sources: 1) Catch
157 information reported at the level of individual vessels and fishing trips (1981-2018) via a
158 landings receipt (i.e. “trip ticket”) database maintained by the Pacific Fisheries Information
159 Network (PacFIN). These confidential data included the weight (in pounds) and price (in dollars
160 per pound) of all species landed during all fishing trips but, due to differences in protocols
161 related to data sharing and access, were limited to landings made in Oregon and Washington; 2)
162 US West Coast, non-confidential annual albacore landings (mt) and effort (# of boats) data
163 (1981-2018) aggregated annually at the state level, including California, by PacFIN; 3)
164 Confidential and spatially explicit albacore troll and pole-and-line logbook data recorded daily
165 (1974-2016) for US West Coast and Hawaii fishing vessels provided by NMFS. Though the
166 percentage of active fishing vessels participating in the logbook program has varied over time,
167 we do not believe that there is any systematic reporting bias that would have impacted the
168 relative patterns reported in our analyses (J. Childers, *personal communication*). To summarize
169 changes in Catch Per Unit Effort (CPUE) across space and time, catch (# of fish kept) and effort
170 (fishing hours) were aggregated annually by 1° x 1° grid cell using the “raster” v2.8 package in
171 R (Hijmans & van Etten, 2015) and averaged across each decade. For each decade, we calculated
172 the geographic centroid of CPUE and its dispersion (i.e. inertia) around the centroid, with
173 dispersion calculated as the mean square distance between individual CPUEs and the centroid
174 CPUE (Bez & Rivoirard, 2000; Woillez et al., 2007; Carroll et al., 2019).

175

176 3.3 Fleet characterization

177 Descriptive vessel information (e.g., length, registration zip code) used to characterize
178 different segments of the fishing fleet was assigned using multiple data sources. First, using the
179 United States Coast Guard (USCG) vessel identification number, we generated a list of unique
180 vessels from our database of landings receipts (n=14601 vessels). Then, we sequentially joined
181 this list to descriptive vessel information obtained from a current registry of Merchant Vessels of
182 the United States (USCG), the NMFS logbook database, and the PacFIN landings receipt
183 database. In instances where multiple lengths were reported, priority was given to 1) records
184 maintained by the USCG and 2) the most frequent self-reported values in the NMFS and PacFIN
185 databases. Vessel size classes were demarcated at 45 ft and 60 ft so that small vessels were those
186 < 45 ft, medium vessels were ≥ 45 ft and ≤ 60 ft, and large vessels were > 60 ft. These cutoff

187 values were informed by previous characterizations of the albacore troll fishery (Blythe-Skyrme
188 et al., 2012a) and other US West Coast Fisheries (PSMFC, 2000) that described heterogeneity in
189 operations by vessel size class, and were selected based upon approximately equal contributions
190 to total fisheries revenue over the study period (small=30.2%, medium=31.7%, large=37.9%).
191 Owner residence (by US State) was assigned based on the “vessel owner address” zip code
192 associated with each landings receipt. A residence state was assigned to each vessel in each year
193 in order to account for cases where vessel ownership changed hands. In the case where multiple
194 zip codes were associated with a given vessel in a given year, we choose the zip code most
195 frequently reported. Using this method, 92.5% of all vessels reporting landings in OR or WA
196 were associated with owners residing in one of those two states while 5.4% were associated with
197 CA residences and 1.9% were associated with AK residences. To minimize the confounding
198 effects of landings made by external vessels, only landings records associated with boats
199 registered in Oregon or Washington were included in our analysis.

200 To characterize the distribution of vessel size classes for vessels participating in the albacore
201 fishery across decades and hailing ports for the entire West Coast, we identified and
202 characterized the unique list of vessels reporting albacore troll and/or pole-and-line landings in
203 NMFS logbooks (our only vessel-level data source that was not geographically constrained)
204 during each time period. Hailing ports during the most recent decade (2010-2016) were
205 identified by joining our list of active vessels to current registries maintained by the USCG and
206 Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission (IATTC), enabling us to obtain descriptive
207 information for 84.8% of the active vessels. It is important to note that vessels are frequently
208 registered in ports distant from the town or state where the vessel owner resides. Differences in
209 vessel lengths among states (WA,OR,CA) and hailing ports were assessed for significance using
210 ANOVA and a Tukey Honest Significant Differences (HSD) *post-hoc* test in the R “stats”
211 package.

213 3.4 Fisheries diversification, participation, and connectivity

214 To evaluate changes in fisheries diversification, participation, and connectivity, we first
215 defined fisheries as harvest assemblages caught with specific gear types (Deporte et al., 2012).
216 We assigned a single fishery (sometimes referred to as a ‘fishing métier’) to each individual
217 landings receipt in our database (n=2,513,966) based on the dominant (as inferred by revenue)

218 combination of landed species assemblage and fishing gear utilized. In order to minimize the
219 number of unique combinations, species assemblages and gear types were aggregated at the
220 “Management Group” and “Gear Group” level (as determined by PacFIN). Prior to final métier
221 assignment, we modified our classification scheme and naming conventions to be consistent with
222 those US West Coast fisheries previously identified and described using a multivariate clustering
223 algorithm (Fuller et al., 2017). More information concerning the relative proportion of individual
224 species and gears comprising each identified fishing métier can be found in **Supplemental Table**
225 **1**. Given challenges associated with identifying owners with multiple vessels, vessels with
226 multiple owners, and/or changes in vessel ownership over time (Kasperski & Holland, 2013;
227 Fuller et al., 2017) our efforts to assess the metrics described below primarily concerned vessels
228 (rather than individuals) operating on annual (rather than interannual) timescales.

229

230 *3.4.1 Diversification indices*

231 Annual diversification was assessed for different segments of regional fishing fleets using
232 the Effective Shannon Index (ESI) as described by Holland and Kasperski (2016). To facilitate
233 comparison of our results with previous studies (Kasperski & Holland, 2013; Holland &
234 Kasperski, 2016) we limited diversification analyses to vessels that earned more than \$5000
235 (adjusted for inflation) during any given year. Albacore fishing fleet segments were comprised of
236 vessels with one or more landings dominated by albacore troll/pole-and-line gear each year. To
237 examine changes in diversification over time and to evaluate significance, ANOVA and Tukey
238 HSD tests were conducted with diversity values grouped by fleet segment and time period and
239 the Mann-Whitney U test was used to assess directionality between groups of interest.

240

241 *3.4.2 Fisheries participation networks*

242 Changes in fisheries participation and connectivity over time were evaluated by generating
243 annual “fisheries participation networks,” (Fuller et al., 2017) in which individual nodes (i.e.
244 fisheries) are connected by participating fishing vessels. In order to facilitate aggregation and
245 comparison using descriptive statistics and network theoretic metrics, network size was
246 standardized (Cinner and Bodin, 2010) with annual networks composed of the subset of fisheries
247 records including the 15 most productive fisheries (i.e. nodes) by revenue across the Pacific
248 Northwest (defined here as Oregon and Washington) each year. This cutoff point was selected to

249 constrain the analysis to landings records representing > 97% of total ex-vessel value for each
250 subset and to maintain confidentiality for fisheries in which fewer than three vessels participated.
251 A vessel was deemed to participate in a fishery if it earned more than 20% of its annual income
252 from that fishery (see Section 4.3 for sensitivity). The edge-weight of the linkages connecting
253 fisheries nodes in each participation network was calculated as the number of vessels
254 participating in both fisheries in a given year normalized by the total number of active fishing
255 vessels reporting commercial landings during that year.

256 In order to assess the changes to participation network structure and the role of individual
257 fisheries over time, we used several network metrics and node-level centrality measures. Node-
258 level centrality measures identify fisheries of high importance, meaning those that most vessels
259 participate in and obtain revenue from at some point during the year (Fuller et al., 2017). For
260 each network, node strength was calculated as the sum of all edge-weights connected to a given
261 node while betweenness centrality was calculated as the number of shortest paths running
262 through each node (Barthelemy, 2004). In fisheries participation networks, fisheries with larger
263 node strength have more connections to other fisheries in the network and/or are part of groups
264 of fisheries with strong shared participation; fisheries with larger betweenness centrality are most
265 important in the overall ability of fishers to redistribute their effort (Fuller et al., 2017). At the
266 network-level used to assess aggregate patterns of fisheries connectivity, network edge-density
267 measured the proportion of links in a network that are present in relation to the maximum
268 number of possible links. While edge-density is a useful metric for describing
269 interconnectedness, it does not account for the number of vessels driving these connections
270 (Addicott et al., 2017). To assess weighted network connectivity, we relied on average node
271 strength (sometimes referred to as average weighted degree centrality, see Kroetz et al., 2019 and
272 Yletyinen et al., 2018) and average edge-weights calculations.

273 Network maps used to synthesize quantitative information concerning harvest portfolio
274 diversity, composition, and structure (Cinner & Bodin, 2010) were created by averaging annual
275 networks across comparison periods (i.e. decades) of interest. To standardize the nodes included,
276 annual networks used to construct network maps were composed of the 15 most productive
277 fisheries across each time period rather than each year. To evaluate the significance and
278 directionality of changes in network properties between decades of interest, we used the Mann
279 Whitney U test.

280

281 4.0 RESULTS

282

283 4.1 Decadal shifts in albacore distribution and fleet dynamics

284 The distribution of West Coast albacore fishery landings and effort have been highly
285 variable across space and time (**Figure 1**). During the 1970s, the fishery was distributed in
286 coastal waters from British Columbia to Baja California, with the majority of the fleet based out
287 of Southern California (Focus Group 1). In the 1980s, the fishery began to shift offshore as its
288 latitudinal range contracted. By the 1990s the most productive fishing grounds were near 210°
289 longitude (> 1,500 km from shore) and substantial, additional fishing effort was reported as far
290 West as the international dateline. With fishery operations concentrated on the high seas, several
291 carrier and transport vessels were employed so that fishing vessels could maximize their time on
292 productive fishing grounds, periodically offloading catch and taking on fuel (Interview 16). In
293 the 2000s, as offshore catch declined, the longitudinal distribution of effort contracted and in
294 most recent years (2010-2016) fishery effort has once again been concentrated in coastal waters,
295 now in a localized area proximate to Oregon and Washington. The latitudinal range of CPUE
296 during this time period (2010-2016) was significantly smaller than the long-term average (1974-
297 2009; mean difference of 22°; $F_{(1,43)}=13$, $p<0.0001$; **Figure 1**). Though increasing fuel prices
298 have further incentivized range restricted fishing operations in recent years, fishermen interviews
299 (Interviews 3, 7, 13) support the notion that these trends were driven by a real though poorly
300 understood shift in resource abundance: “*For whatever reason, the fish in recent years seem to*
301 *be not distributed over as big an area,*” (Interview 3).

302 Spatial shifts in CPUE have had asymmetric impacts on the different components of the
303 albacore fishing fleet. In the late 1970s the fleet was dominated by small and medium sized
304 vessels, which collectively reported 85% of the total catch (**Figure 2**). Landings peaked at
305 ~23,000 mt in 1972 as over 2,000 fishing vessels were active (Focus Group 3). When the fishery
306 moved offshore, the relative proportion of large boats participating in the fishery increased
307 alongside their share of landings. The total number of active vessels dropped to a minimum of
308 179 in 1991 (landing a total of 1654 mt) before rebounding to 837 vessels in 1998 (12628 mt)
309 with the establishment of high seas operations (**Figure 3**). Between 1995 and 2015, West Coast
310 albacore landings were remarkably consistent with the fleet averaging 12,083 mt/year (\pm S.D

311 2091 mt) despite the onshore shift of the early 2000s and progressive declines in fishing effort
312 (**Figure 3**). In later years (2010-2016), the relative proportion of small and medium-sized vessels
313 comprising the albacore fleet (annual average = 644.71 ± 82.61 vessels), and their share of the
314 catch, again increased as albacore in coastal waters could once again be opportunistically
315 targeted (Interviews 2, 10). Though recent (2017-2019) logbook data are not yet available,
316 landings data indicates that catches have fallen by ~40% as compared to the 1995-2015 average
317 with 7,467 mt landed in 2017 (495 vessels), 6,950 mt landed in 2018 (434 vessels), and 7,200 mt
318 in 2019 (471 vessels).

319 Albacore catches in Pacific Northwest coastal waters increased substantially between 2000
320 and 2016, yet the harvest reliant upon nearshore waters off Southern California failed to re-
321 establish. Since the 1980s, both the annual landed weight of albacore (**Supplemental Figure 1A**)
322 and the number of vessels reporting albacore landings in California (**Supplemental Figure 1B**)
323 has declined precipitously while the opposite has been true in Oregon and Washington. Many
324 albacore fishermen previously based in Southern California have retired from the fishery or
325 established permanent residence in Oregon or Washington. Those continuing to target albacore
326 and port their vessels in Southern California now relocate seasonally to the northern fishing
327 grounds each summer and land their catch in Oregon and Washington ports (Interviews 3, 16).
328 Active Southern California-ported vessels are significantly larger than those found in either
329 Oregon or Washington ($p < 0.05$), primarily driven by large vessels ported in San Diego ($p < 0.01$;
330 **Figure 4; Supplemental Table 2**). While owner-operators remain ubiquitous across the PNW, a
331 number of the large albacore fishing vessels ported in Southern California are managed via
332 corporate ownership structures (Interviews 17, 20, 21).

333 334 *4.2 Changes in real value of landed albacore over time*

335 Available evidence suggests that the real value (adjusted for inflation using 2005 as a base)
336 of landed albacore has increased over the past decade as relative abundance has increased in
337 waters offshore Oregon and Washington. Throughout the early history of the fishery, fishermen
338 sold albacore almost exclusively to 3 major companies (Starkist, Chicken of the Sea, and
339 Bumblebee) operating canneries in Southern California in what was frequently referred to as a
340 monopolistic market (Interviews 4, 12, and 14). In the late 1990s, these companies began
341 sourcing tuna from foreign fleets at lower price points and US fishermen were forced to identify

342 and develop new markets (Morissey, 2008). Non-profit organizations funded by the industry
343 (e.g. the Western Fishboat Owners Association and the American Albacore Fishing Association)
344 have leveraged sustainable seafood certifications and promotional campaigns to reduce the
345 fleet's dependence on the market for canned tuna (Interview 16, Focus Group 2). Alternatives
346 now include local fresh fish markets and a market for sashimi-grade products that must be bled
347 and blast-frozen at sea. As one fisherman reports, "*now the market's totally changed and we*
348 *have like 25-30 separate buyers looking for different quantities and grades,*" (Interview 12).
349 Analysis of changes in the dock price paid to fishermen in Oregon and Washington since the
350 1990s (**Figure 5**) reflect this recent product differentiation. We found a significant increase in
351 the annual variability of price per pound paid to albacore fishing vessels over time (Mann-
352 Kendall trend test, $p < 0.01$), while significant increases in the price per pound (Mann-Whitney
353 U test, $p < 0.001$) were reported during the most recent decade (2010-2018) compared to
354 previous decades. Such trends were most pronounced amongst large-sized vessels (**Figure 5**),
355 who are more likely to be engaged in the lucrative, though volatile, blast-frozen markets
356 (Interview 17, Focus Group 2).

357

358 *4.3 Changes in regional fisheries participation and revenue diversification*

359 The dominant signal in fisheries participation in Oregon and Washington during our study
360 period was one of steady attrition. The number of total active fishing vessels (irrespective of
361 gear type or target species) declined significantly ($p < .00001$) from 4423 in 1981 to 1427 in
362 2018, at a rate of -83.1 vessels/year (\pm S.E. 5.6). When considering vessel size classes separately,
363 the largest decline was observed in the small vessel fleet (from 3342 vessels in 1981 to 927
364 vessels in 2018; -68.8 vessels/yr \pm S.E. -13.4; $p < .00001$) as compared to medium (from 734
365 vessels in 1981 to 342 vessels in 2018; -9.4 vessels/yr \pm S.E. -0.6; $p < .00001$) and large (from
366 347 vessels in 1981 to 158 vessels in 2018; -4.8 vessels/yr \pm S.E. -0.4; $p < .00001$) vessels.
367 During the same time period, the relative value of the albacore troll fishery increased
368 substantially. Between 1981 and 1989 the albacore troll fishery was the 10th most important
369 fishery by revenue accounting for an average of 2.6% (\pm S.D. 2.3%) of annual ex-vessel value in
370 Oregon and Washington. By 2010-2018 it was the 3rd most important fishery, accounting for an
371 average of 9.8% (\pm S.D. 2.1%) of ex-vessel value, trailing only the Dungeness crab
372 (*Metacarcinus magister*, Cancridae) pot fishery (42.7% \pm S.D. 8.9%) and the pink shrimp

373 (*Pandalus jordani*, Pandalidae) trawl fishery (14.6% \pm S.D. 7.5%). Increased accessibility of
374 albacore in coastal waters (**Figure 1**) combined with an increase in the real value of landed
375 albacore products (**Figure 5**) has resulted in an increase in the relative effort directed towards the
376 fishery. Even as the total amount of active Pacific Northwest fishing vessels declined, the
377 percentage of fishing vessels participating in the albacore fishery increased significantly (p
378 $<.0001$; **Figure 6**).

379 Analysis of changes in revenue diversification over time reveal trajectories of change unique
380 to PNW vessels participating in the albacore troll fishery (**Figure 7**). While revenue
381 diversification has decreased in aggregate following a peak in the late 1990s and early 2000s
382 (**Figure 7A**), there were no significant changes across decadal means amongst vessels
383 participating in the albacore fishery (one-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,34)} = 0.63$, $p = 0.59$). These dynamics
384 appear to be driven by the small vessels (**Figure 7B**) which comprise the vast majority of
385 regional fishing fleets. During all decades, small albacore fishing vessels were significantly more
386 diverse (Mann-Whitney U tests, $p < .00001$) than small vessels in aggregate and were able to
387 maintain consistent levels of diversity over time (one-way ANOVA, $F_{(3,34)} = 0.31$, $p = 0.82$). In
388 contrast, revenue diversity amongst the fleet segments composed of all medium (**Figure 7C**) and
389 large-size (**Figure 7D**) vessels increased during the initial portion of the study period prior to
390 stabilizing in more recent decades. Medium albacore fishing vessels were more diverse than their
391 size class as a whole during the initial (1980-89; $p < .05$) and final (2010-2018; $p < .01$) decades.
392 In contrast to small and medium sized albacore fishing vessels, large albacore fishing vessels
393 became less diverse and more specialized than their size-class overall as time progressed.

394 395 *4.4 Changes in social-ecological system structure and albacore fishery function*

396 Network metrics reveal substantial changes to the function of the albacore fishery in the
397 PNW and the structure of the broader social-ecological system that are not captured by revenue
398 diversification statistics alone. Though average annual revenue diversification was not
399 significantly different during 1990-1999 as compared to 2010-2018 (Tukey HSD test; $p = 0.74$),
400 an examination of aggregated (i.e. all vessels) fisheries participation networks indicates that
401 albacore has become an increasingly central component of regional harvest portfolios (**Figure 8**).

402 Network density metrics show that cross-fishery participation was higher but less uniform in
403 2010-2018 as compared to 1990-1999. Without incorporating edge-weights (i.e. the number of

404 vessels connecting two fisheries), annual networks were significantly less dense ($p < 0.05$) in
405 2010-2018 than they were in 1990-1999 ($0.26 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.19$ v. $0.38 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.05$). This describes a
406 decrease in the number of potential connections between fisheries realized in the most recent
407 decade. Yet average node strength, a metric that incorporates edge-weights, suggests that cross-
408 fishery participation increased significantly when comparing the same two time periods ($0.025 \pm$
409 $\text{S.D. } 0.004$ for 1990-1999 vs. 0.32 ± 0.002 for 2010-2018; $p < 0.05$). This increase was
410 accompanied by a significantly larger variance in edge-weights (Fligner-Killeen test, $p < 0.05$), as
411 the links connecting certain pairs of fisheries grew stronger. Qualitatively, edge-weights appear
412 less uniform in recent years with the links between the albacore troll, chinook troll, and
413 Dungeness crab pot fisheries becoming more dominant (**Figure 8**). The strength of the
414 connections between these 3 fisheries was referenced repeatedly by our informants (Interviews
415 14, 13, 10, 5). Though participation in more than one fishery may be increasingly common
416 amongst Pacific Northwest fishermen, our analysis suggests that the suite of different fisheries
417 which support diversification has been reduced.

418 At the node level, average annual albacore node strength increased significantly ($p < 0.001$)
419 between 1990-1999 ($0.038 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.021$) and 2010-2018 ($0.091 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.024$); during the latter
420 decade only the node strength of the Dungeness crab pot fishery was higher ($0.146 \pm \text{S.D.}$
421 0.013). This increase suggests that among vessels participating in multiple fisheries, the albacore
422 troll fishery has become one of most common sources of revenue and that those participating in
423 the albacore troll fishery participate in a diverse suite of additional fisheries. We also observed
424 substantial though non-significant increases ($p = 0.057$) in albacore troll betweenness centrality
425 over the same time period ($0.131 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.103$ for 1990-1999 vs $0.263 \pm \text{S.D. } 0.197$ for 2010-
426 2018), suggesting an increase in the importance of the albacore troll fishery in facilitating the
427 distribution of effort across fisheries. Assessing node strength and centrality by decade rather
428 than by year to explore interannual shifts in fisheries participation produced comparable results.
429 These node-level comparisons support the aggregated network analysis described above in
430 highlighting the emergence of albacore and a core group of linked fisheries that have enabled the
431 persistence of diverse livelihoods strategies in the region.

432

433 *4.5 Heterogenous changes in fisheries connectivity*

434 Recent changes in the fishery system have impacted different vessel size classes
435 asymmetrically (**Figure 9**). Participation networks derived from different fleet segments confirm
436 that participation in multiple fisheries increased for large and medium fishing vessels throughout
437 the study period while declines have been observed amongst small vessels since the late 1990s
438 (per average node strength, **Figure 9A**). Trends amongst large vessels appear to be driven by
439 vessels increasingly using trawl gear to target groundfish and/or pink shrimp during the summer
440 months (the same season during which the albacore fleet is active) before re-rigging to
441 participate in the Dungeness crab pot fishery in the winter (**Supplemental Figure 2**). The
442 albacore troll fishery plays a comparatively minor role in fisheries connectivity for this segment
443 of the fleet with its circumscribed node strength declining following a peak in the late 90s
444 (**Figure 9B**). In contrast, albacore node strength increased progressively for small and medium
445 vessels until 2012-2015 before declining substantially in 2016-2018. Amongst small vessels, this
446 long-term trend was accompanied by an increase in the relative node strength of the salmon troll
447 fishery, as the small vessel fishing fleet increasingly adopted troll gear to target both albacore
448 and salmon when faced with substantial declines and restrictions impacting salmon net fisheries
449 (**Figure 9C**). As one informant stated, “*Salmon used to be the gravy run, but not so much*
450 *anymore. I’ve had to move on,*” (Interview 12). For medium vessels, node strength and
451 participation has increased for both the albacore troll and Dungeness crab pot fisheries as
452 groundfish trawl has declined and salmon troll has become increasingly variable (**Figure 9D**).
453 Taken together, these trends confirm that as the albacore troll fishery has become an increasingly
454 important component of a diverse livelihood strategy for small and medium sized vessels even as
455 large albacore fishing vessels have trended towards specialization.

456

457 **5.0 DISCUSSION**

458 Over the past several decades, changes in the distribution and abundance of marine
459 resources have operated in tandem with catch shares and limited entry licensing regimes to
460 transform Pacific Northwest fisheries. Market-based reforms have been lauded for slowing the
461 race to fish and increasing economic efficiencies (Costello et al., 2008; Birkenbach et al., 2017),
462 but scholars have warned that they may incentivize capitalization, consolidation, and
463 specialization (Mansfield, 2004, Hentati-Sundberg et al., 2015; Stoll et al., 2016, Beaudreau et
464 al., 2019) and raised concerns regarding their deleterious impacts on small-scale fishers and the

465 coastal communities they inhabit (Pinkerton & Edwards, 2009; Olsen, 2011). Reductions in
466 portfolio diversity are of particular concern to those segments of regional fishing fleets that have
467 historically relied upon flexibility to negotiate system change (Cline et al., 2017) as novel
468 environmental conditions are increasingly observed across the northeast Pacific (Jacox et al.,
469 2017). In highlighting changes to the structure and function of albacore troll and pole-and-line
470 fishery, we demonstrate utility of maintaining open access for resources that are resilient to
471 harvesting pressure. Indeed, our analysis suggests that the ability to shift effort between fisheries
472 and opportunistically target certain species may be critical to the continued viability of range-
473 restricted small-scale fishing operations that were not favored by the initial allocation of fishing
474 rights. As access to many Pacific Northwest fisheries has been progressively restricted, the
475 albacore troll and pole-and-line fishery has functioned as a lifeline to keep many small-scale
476 operations afloat.

477

478 *5.1 Regulatory reforms impacting West Coast fisheries*

479 Previous research asserts that the average level of diversification of fishing vessels across
480 the US West Coast and Alaska has declined since the mid-1980s (Kasperski & Holland, 2013;
481 Holland & Kasperski, 2016; Holland et al., 2017) following the establishment of catch shares
482 and limited entry licensing. However, such findings are likely sensitive to the subset of vessels
483 analyzed and the metrics through which diversity is defined and assessed. More specifically,
484 decisions concerning whether to aggregate using species groupings or fishing métiers (of
485 particular importance when considering the collapse and rationalization of the multi-species
486 groundfish sector) or whether to integrate Alaska-based vessels and landings (where
487 specialization associated with the rise of lucrative salmon fisheries is the dominant signal; see
488 Anderson et. al., 2017) are likely to alter results. While our analysis corroborates the notion that
489 diversification has decreased in aggregate across the OR and WA fleet following a peak around
490 the year 2000 (Holland & Kasperski, 2016), analysis of changes in diversification by vessel-size
491 class indicates that this trend is largely driven by significant decreases within the small-vessel
492 fleet. Indeed, our results suggest that in recent years diversification across medium and large-
493 sized vessels has stabilized or may even be increasing. These differential responses, assessed
494 using both network-derived metrics and traditional diversification indices, highlight the
495 limitations of fleet-aggregated analyses. We hypothesize that such trends can be related to

496 increasing capitalization amongst those large and medium-sized vessels that remained active
497 following fisheries privatization and consolidation, many of which must now participate in
498 multiple fisheries and operate year-round in order to remain profitable. Indeed, we likely
499 underestimated diversification for this segment of the fleet as larger vessels are more likely to
500 land catch and/or participate in fisheries outside of the Pacific Northwest (Kasperski & Holland,
501 2013). Observed declines in diversification amongst smaller fishing vessels may help explain the
502 pronounced attrition observed in this segment of the fishing fleet. Without access to the capital
503 required to participate in multiple fisheries and leverage economies of scale, many small-scale
504 fishing operations are no longer viable.

505

506 *5.2 Shifting albacore fishery participation and socioeconomics*

507 Acting in concert with regulatory reforms impacting the fishery system at-large, changes in
508 the distribution of albacore over the past several decades have contributed to increasing
509 heterogeneity across the different geographic segments of the troll and pole-and-line fleet. When
510 accessible in coastal waters, albacore represents an important component of diverse harvesting
511 portfolios amongst the smaller vessels in West Coast fishing fleets. While such trends are recent
512 across the Pacific Northwest, there is historical precedent in Southern California (Clemens,
513 1965). In contrast to large vessels participating in other regional fisheries, large vessels
514 participating in the albacore fishery may be comparatively specialized. But there is evidence to
515 suggest they are less geographically constrained and may be less susceptible to episodic shifts in
516 resource abundance. Large vessels based in Southern California have remained active despite
517 significant longitudinal and latitudinal shifts in fishery production over the past 35 years. Indeed,
518 many larger vessels target albacore year-round, traveling to distant fishing grounds in the South
519 Pacific each winter-spring before returning to the US West Coast during the summer months
520 (Childers and Miller, 2000; Blythe-Skyrme et al., 2012b).

521 Among tuna fisheries worldwide, the US albacore fishery now ranks among the highest
522 economic performers due to its ability to access high-value markets and its development of
523 infrastructure capable of preserving product quality (McCluney et al., 2019). When faced with
524 stricter regulations, rising operational costs, and competition from foreign imports, many fishers
525 began to pursue new methods for engaging with consumers, restaurants, and wholesale buyers
526 (Brinson et al., 2011; Stoll et al., 2015). Over time the albacore fishing fleet benefited from

527 reducing its reliance on canneries and commodity markets and by shifting its focus from volume
528 to value-added products (Morrissey, 2008). Research demonstrating the high nutritional value,
529 elevated fat content and low mercury levels of juvenile albacore (Wheeler & Morrissey, 2003)
530 has stimulated the development of new domestic and international markets. As US industry
531 organizations have leveraged sustainable seafood certifications to secure new markets in Spain
532 and Japan, small-scale producers increasingly rely upon local gourmet markets and micro-
533 canning operations across the Pacific Northwest (Morrissey, 2008). By engaging with place-
534 based initiatives that emphasize product quality and sustainability, many regional fishers have
535 been able to increase their profitability by capturing more of the value generated by their catch
536 (Brinson et al., 2011). In addition to economic incentives offered by alternative seafood
537 marketing programs, many have praised the social benefits derived from increased consumer
538 awareness and support of the commercial fishing industry (Witter & Stoll, 2017).

539

540 *5.3 Environmental and ecological drivers impacting the SES system*

541 West Coast fisheries are known for their intrinsic fluctuations, yet there are signs that this
542 variability may be increasing across the California Current (Sydeman et al., 2013; Black et al.,
543 2014). Alongside anomalous oceanographic conditions observed in 2004-2006 (Peterson et al.,
544 2006) and 2014-2016 (Bond et al., 2015; Jacox et al., 2016), numerous changes to ecosystem
545 structure and function have been reported (Lindley et al., 2009; Cavole et al., 2016; Sanford et
546 al., 2019, Walker et al., 2020). Despite landings trending positively in the early 2000s, West
547 Coast salmon fisheries were severely restricted during the 2008-2009 and 2016-2017 fishing
548 seasons amidst poor run strength and increasingly variable escapement associated with drought,
549 warm ocean temperatures and limited food availability (Richerson et al. 2017; Satterthwaite et
550 al., 2019). While salmon runs have been inconsistent, groundfish stocks have recently begun to
551 recover following several decades of depressed landings attributed to overcapacity and
552 overfishing (PFMC, 2018). The benefits of this recovery have largely been accrued by large
553 vessels following the substantial consolidation and attrition of fishing effort which accompanied
554 the rationalization of the sector (Russel et al., 2016; 2018). In contrast, the Dungeness crab
555 biomass appears stable (Richerson et al., 2020) and in recent years the fishery has occupied a
556 central position in regional fisheries participation networks (Fuller et al., 2017), drawing diverse
557 participants from US West Coast ports and generating the largest total ex-vessel revenue

558 (Rasmuson, 2013). However, there are mounting concerns regarding the anticipated impacts of
559 ocean acidification (Bednarsek et al., 2020) and hypoxia (Froehlich et al. 2014) on crab stocks
560 and in recent years fishing opportunities have been constrained by harmful algal blooms
561 (Ritzman et al., 2018; Moore et al., 2019) and whale entanglement issues (Santora et al., 2020)
562 associated with climate variability and change.

563 With juvenile albacore distribution strongly influenced by temperature (Philips et al., 2014;
564 Muhling et al., 2019), the northern limit of their distribution in the California Current can extend
565 in warm years (Christian & Holmes, 2016). Indeed, fishermen reported albacore “pushing north”
566 during recent warm-water oceanographic anomalies (Interviews 5, 20), with schools of fish
567 observed off Southeast Alaska (Cavole et al., 2016). A northward shift in fishing opportunities
568 could coincide with future projections of favorable thermal habitat (Christian & Holmes, 2016),
569 but studies conducted in other ocean basins have shown that albacore distributions are highly
570 variable and do not always correspond with shifts in oceanographic habitat (Chust et al., 2019).
571 Though more research is required to determine how interactions between climate, feeding,
572 migration, and spawning throughout the range of the species in the North Pacific are likely to
573 mediate fishable biomass, we would suggest asymmetric impacts are likely across the different
574 segments of North American fishing fleets.

575

576 *5.4 Value of diverse harvesting portfolios*

577 Researchers have argued that a reliance on a narrow suite of species is likely to undermine
578 the resilience of fishery SES following perturbation (Steneck et al., 2011; Fuller et al., 2017).
579 Acknowledging the importance of diversification in sustaining fisheries livelihoods, fishermen
580 repeatedly referenced the ability of the open access albacore fishery to absorb displaced fishing
581 effort and mitigate risk during interviews and focus groups discussions. As other fisheries have
582 become more volatile and/or less accessible over time, the importance of albacore as an
583 “insurance” fishery in the harvest portfolio of Pacific Northwest fishers has increased. This trend
584 appears particularly evident for small and medium-boat fishers who have been disproportionately
585 impacted by the transition to limited entry licensing and catch shares in many fisheries (Olson,
586 2011), and who may lack the capacity for geographic redistribution in response to large-scale
587 climatic drivers (Young et al., 2019). Management intervention designed to address declines in
588 albacore landings observed since 2015 should be cognizant of such context as it functions to

589 mediate the resulting impacts on different segments of the fishing fleet. Any change in stock
590 status is likely to be met with calls for increasing regulation, yet we would suggest that open
591 access and sustainable management need not be mutually exclusive when harvesting costs are
592 high (Anderson et. al. 2019) and fishing technology is limited to selective and/or time-intensive
593 extraction methods (i.e. troll and/or pole-and-line gear which target one fish at a time). Indeed,
594 maintaining the viability of this and other small-scale fisheries moving forward is likely to
595 require new approaches that value equity and community stewardship rather than the exclusive
596 mandate to maximize economic efficiency (Pinkerton & Edwards, 2015; Hanich et al., 2018;
597 Frawley et al., 2019b).

598

599 *5.5. Implications for transboundary marine resource allocation*

600 The RFMO system used to govern tunas and other transboundary marine resources has
601 helped to curb overfishing, yet more work remains to be done in order to ensure the equitable
602 distribution of related social and economic benefits (McCluney et al., 2019). Despite stated
603 desires to consider issues of equity alongside sustainability, in practice most RFMOs that have
604 implemented resource allocation schemes to manage stocks have relied heavily on historical
605 catch and effort levels, tending to favor nations with large-scale, industrial, and/or distant water
606 fishing fleets (Seto et al., 2020). While advocates of rights-based fishery management
607 approaches have argued that the industrial tuna sector may be more technically efficient (Allen,
608 2010), our work supports the assertion that small-scale, local boats may be better positioned to
609 harvest local resources (Pinkerton & Davis, 2015) and capture the quality-dependent premiums
610 offered by certain high-end markets (McCluney et al., 2019). Furthermore, there are serious
611 environmental justice concerns surrounding resource rights allocations that fail to deliver
612 opportunities for small-scale producers and developing nations already disproportionately
613 impacted by climate change (Hanich et al., 2018). Given that maintaining fisheries livelihoods
614 and food security for these vulnerable user groups is likely to require transferring fishing effort
615 from reef fish to tuna and other highly migratory species (Bell et al., 2018), equitable
616 management strategies may need to expand access to pelagic fisheries resources rather than
617 restrict it.

618

619 **6.0 CONCLUSION**

620 Diversity is a key property that confers resilience by providing options through which a
621 system can respond to disturbance (Holling, 1973). In recent years this fundamental ecological
622 theorem has increasingly been applied to the study of marine fisheries (Finkbeiner, 2015; Cline
623 et al, 2017) and other coupled human-natural systems (Folke et al., 2010; Biggs et al., 2012;
624 Barnes et al., 2019). Across the Pacific Northwest, the open access albacore fishery has helped
625 many fishers maintain diverse harvest portfolios even as access to other fisheries has been
626 restricted. With vessel ownership and permits increasingly consolidated amongst a limited
627 number of individuals, communities, and corporations (Russel et al., 2016), the ability to
628 opportunistically target albacore in coastal waters has been critical for the maintenance of
629 regional small-scale fishing operations and traditional livelihood approaches.

630 The impacts of climate change on the distribution, abundance and diversity of marine
631 species are predicted to be profound (Cheung et al., 2010), as are the implications for coastal
632 fishing communities (Rogers et al., 2019). It has been argued that modern management and
633 licensing regimes may be unable to respond to anticipated, large-scale ecological shifts (Reedy,
634 2008), and that high specialization with respect to target species is likely to result in higher
635 vulnerability to extreme events (Kluger et al., 2019). Likewise, recent trade disputes (Gephart et.
636 al., 2019) and emergent public health crises (Bennett et. al., 2020) have emphasized the
637 connection between the flexibility required to navigate political and economic instability and the
638 resilience of fisheries livelihoods. Alongside a desire to promote diverse and flexible harvesting
639 strategies, the need to move beyond traditional, single species management approaches has
640 grown increasingly urgent. Portfolio approaches to managing fisheries can reduce barriers to
641 diversification that may help maintain opportunity and choice for fishers faced with mounting
642 risk and uncertainty (Beaudreau et al., 2019). Applied research dedicated to such aims must
643 continue to work to transcend disciplinary boundaries, embrace complex systems thinking, and
644 address the social-ecological linkages that inform how fishers participate and shift effort among
645 fisheries (Marshall et al., 2018; Barnes et al., 2019). Climate variability and change represent
646 significant challenges for many marine SES worldwide, but they also present opportunities to
647 reform and recast existing management structures with explicit attention to restoring the
648 connections between people, places, and ecosystems while supporting sustainable and equitable
649 development.

650

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652

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660

661 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

662

663 Vessel-level landings and logbook data, collected by the Pacific Fisheries Information Network (PACFIN) and the
664 NOAA National Marine Fisheries Service, are confidential U.S. government data. The raw data cannot be made
665 public, under the Magnuson–Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Reauthorization Act of 2006, section
666 402 (b), 16 U.S.C. 1881a. To request access to US West Coast vessel-level landings data please contact Jenny Suter
667 (JSuter@psmfc.com). To request access to US Highly Migratory Species albacore logbook data please contact John
668 Childers (John.Childers@noaa.gov). Descriptive vessel information was obtained through the two data sources
669 referenced above and publicly available vessel registries (accessed online) maintained by the Inter-American
670 Tropical Tuna Commission (www.iattc.org) and the US Coast Guard (<https://www.dco.uscg.mil/>).

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1026 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

1027

1028 **Figure 1.** North Pacific albacore catch per unit effort (total fish/total hours aggregated by 1° x 1°
1029 degree grid cells) averaged across each decade, as reported in US troll and pole-and-line albacore
1030 fleet logbooks. Centre of gravity and inertia of small (blue; < 45 ft) and large (red; > 60 ft) vessel
1031 fishing effort are shown for each decade. Figure appears in colour in the online version only.

1032

1033 **Figure 2.** Contribution (by decade) of vessel size classes to **A)** the composition of the US
1034 albacore troll and pole-and-line fleet across the entire US West Coast and **B)** the capture of
1035 albacore (as inferred by # of fish landed) by this fleet. Due to a high attrition in effort across the
1036 study period, values have been normalized (reported by specified size class/reported by all size
1037 classes) prior to plotting. Data was sourced from NMFS logbooks. Figure appears in colour in
1038 the online version only.

1039

1040 **Figure 3.** Time series of total US West Coast North Pacific albacore troll and pole-and-line
1041 fishery landings (black) and effort (red). Data was sourced from non-confidential PACFIN
1042 records. Figure appears in colour in the online version only.

1043
1044 **Figure 4.** Density plots showing the distribution of vessels lengths of the troll and pole-and-line
1045 fishery (2010-2016, as inferred by NMFS logbook entries) by hailing port for the 4 ports with the
1046 most reported vessels in California (n=101) , Oregon (n=184) , and Washington (n=160) . The
1047 dashed line in each plot represents the mean vessel length ($44.95 \pm \text{S.D. } 13.69$) across states and
1048 ports for vessels active in the North Pacific albacore fishery (n=839). A two-way ANOVA
1049 indicates California has significantly larger vessels ($p < 0.05$), with post-hoc analyses showing
1050 that vessel lengths in San Diego are significantly larger than all other ports shown ($p < 0.01$).
1051 Figure appears in colour in the online version only.

1052
1053 **Figure 5.** Boxplot displaying the median values and distribution of data points for both small (<
1054 45 ft) and large (> 60 ft vessels) of the price per pound (adjusted for inflation) for which
1055 albacore was sold to buyers in Oregon and Washington each year. Data was sourced from
1056 individual, confidential PACFIN landings receipts. Figure appears in colour in the online version
1057 only.

1058
1059 **Figure 6.** Time series depicting changes in the proportion of active PNW fishing vessels
1060 participating in the North Pacific albacore troll and pole-and-line fishery over time. Figure
1061 appears in colour in the online version only.

1062
1063 **Figure 7.** Changes in annual revenue diversification over time (as grouped by decade) for
1064 different vessel size classes. In each panel, revenue diversification is assessed for the all vessels
1065 in the specified size class and only vessels of the specified size class reporting landings
1066 dominated by troll or pole-and-line caught albacore tuna. Figure appears in colour in the online
1067 version only.

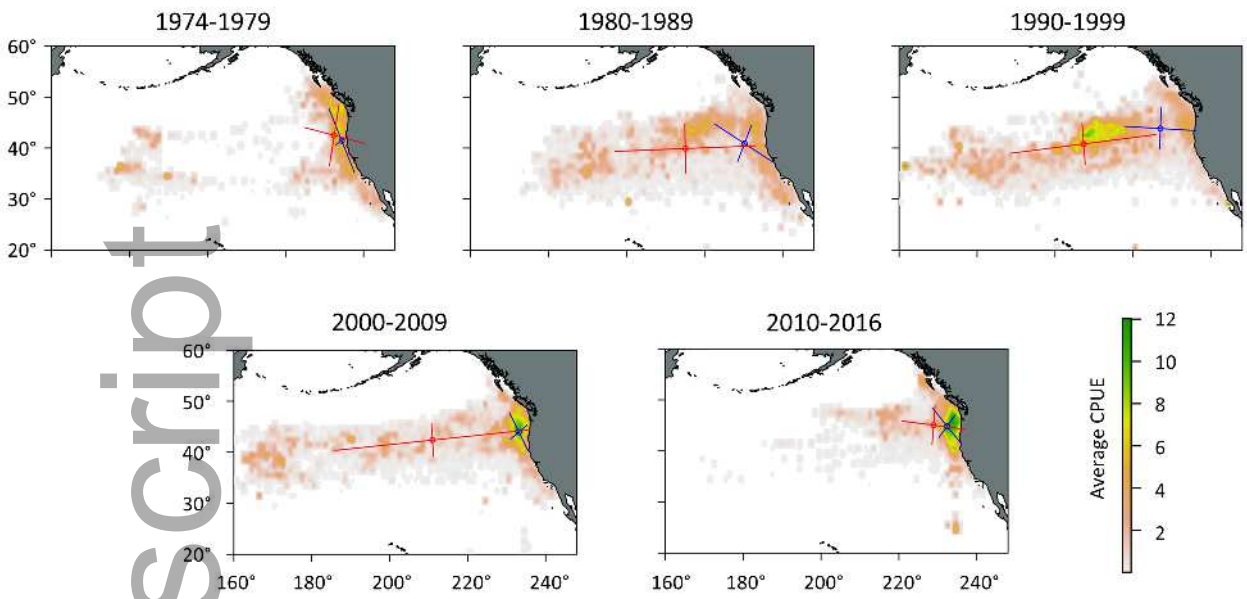
1068
1069 **Figure 8.** Summary networks for comparison decades of interest. Node size and edge-weight
1070 thickness in each summary network represent averages across all annual networks in the

1071 timespans specified. For each annual network, edge-weight thickness was determined as the
1072 number of active vessels participating (earning > 20% of total fisheries revenue) in each pair of
1073 fisheries normalized by the total number of active vessels across all fisheries while node size was
1074 determined by node strength. Figure appears in colour in the online version only.

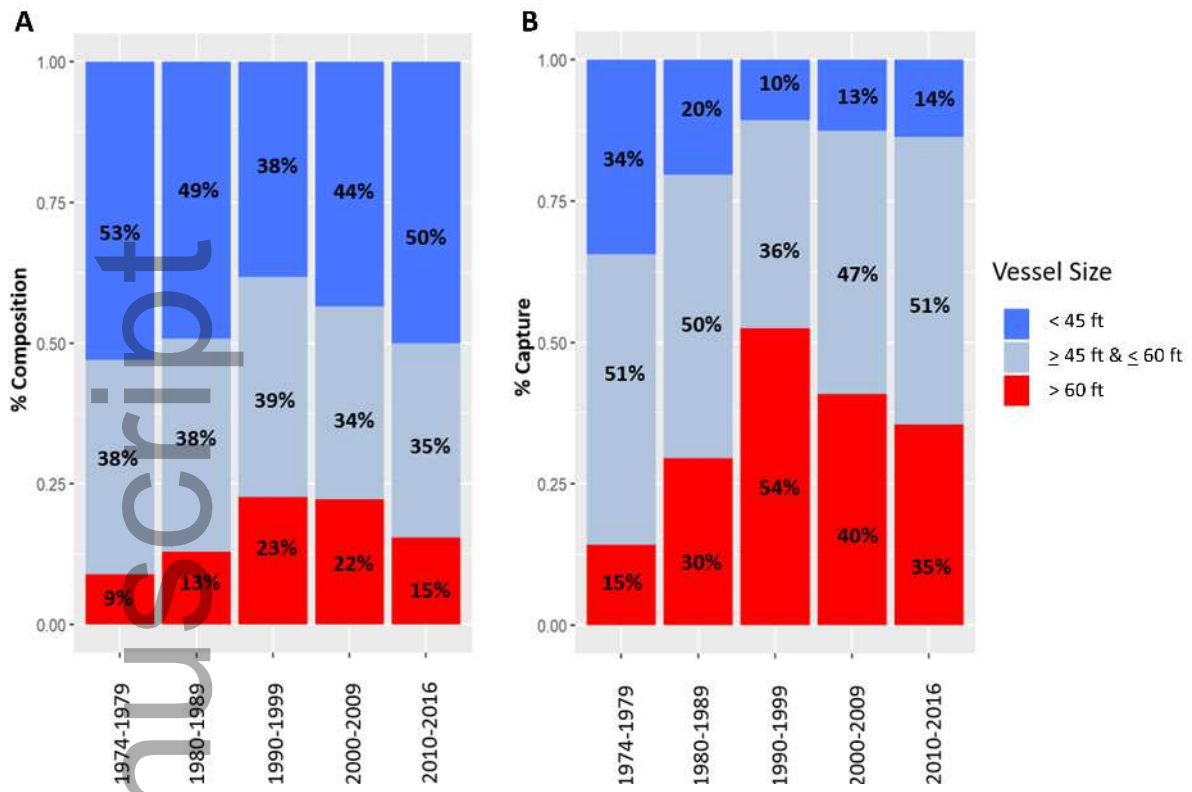
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1076 **Figure 9.** Time series depicting changes in fisheries participation network structure and the
1077 strength of component nodes as related to vessel size class. **A)** Changes in average annual node
1078 strength (n=15) for networks composed exclusively of all, small, medium, and large sized
1079 vessels. **B)** Changes in the node strength of the albacore troll fishery over time for networks
1080 composed exclusively of all, small, medium, and large-sized vessels. **C)** Changes in node
1081 strength for the 4 most variable fisheries (throughout the entire time series) across networks
1082 composed exclusively of small vessels. **D)** Changes in node strength for the 4 most variable
1083 fisheries across networks composed exclusively of medium vessels. The corresponding time
1084 series for large vessels can be found in **Supplemental Figure 2**. Figure appears in colour in the
1085 online version only.

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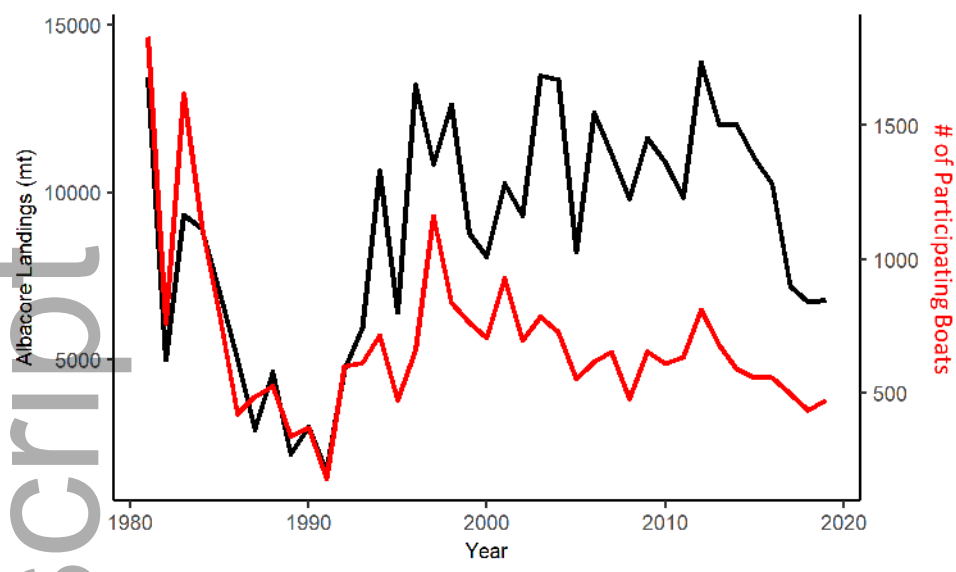


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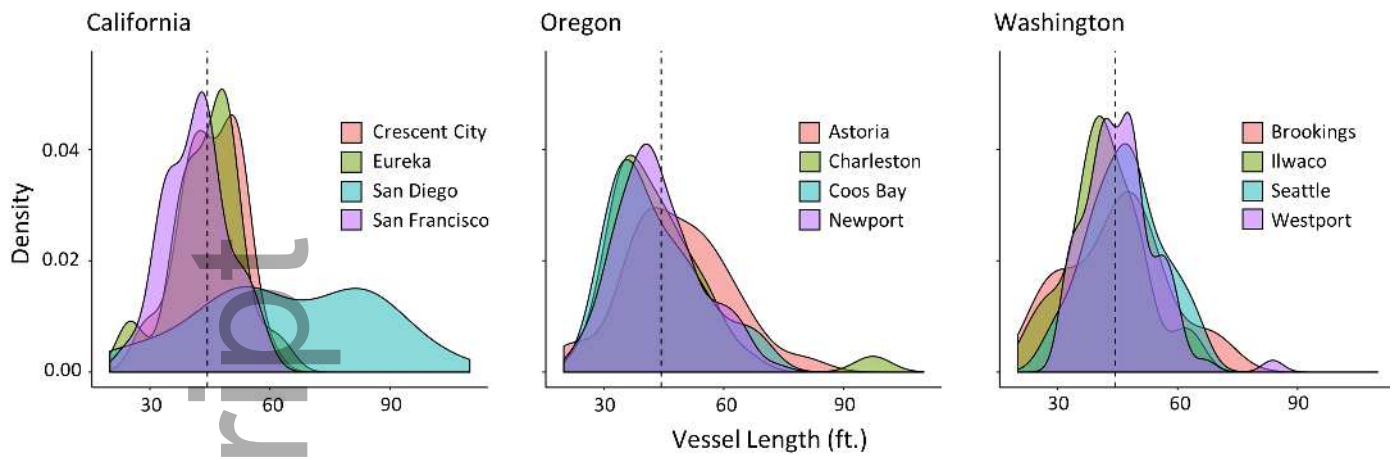


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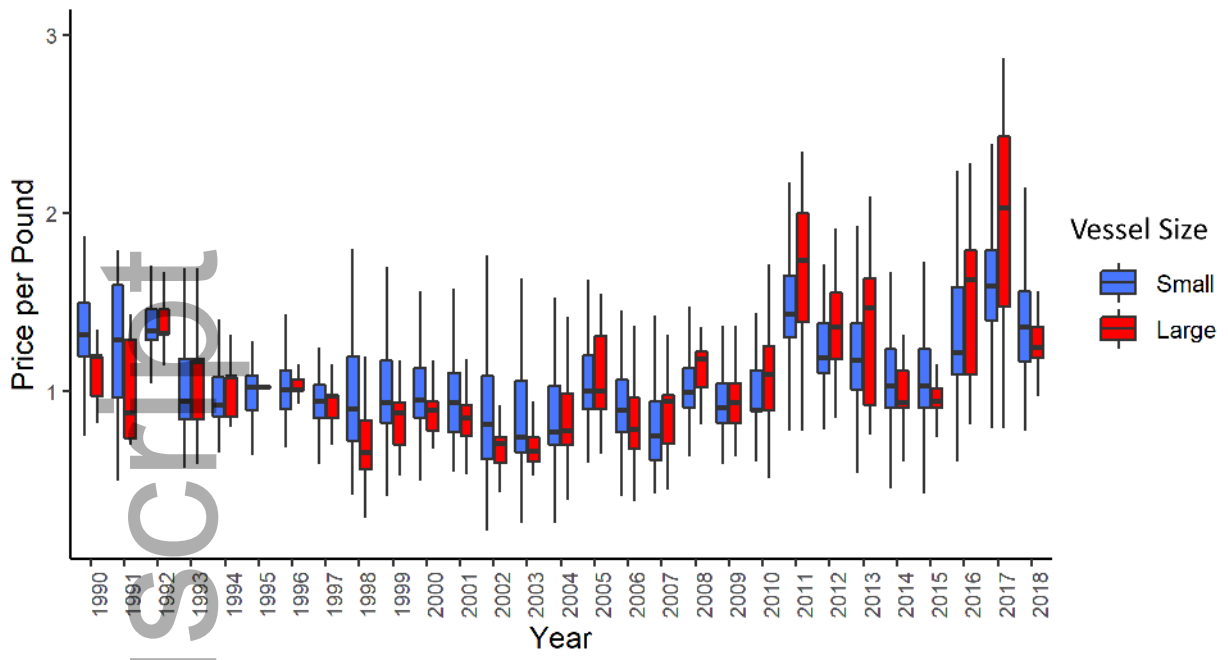


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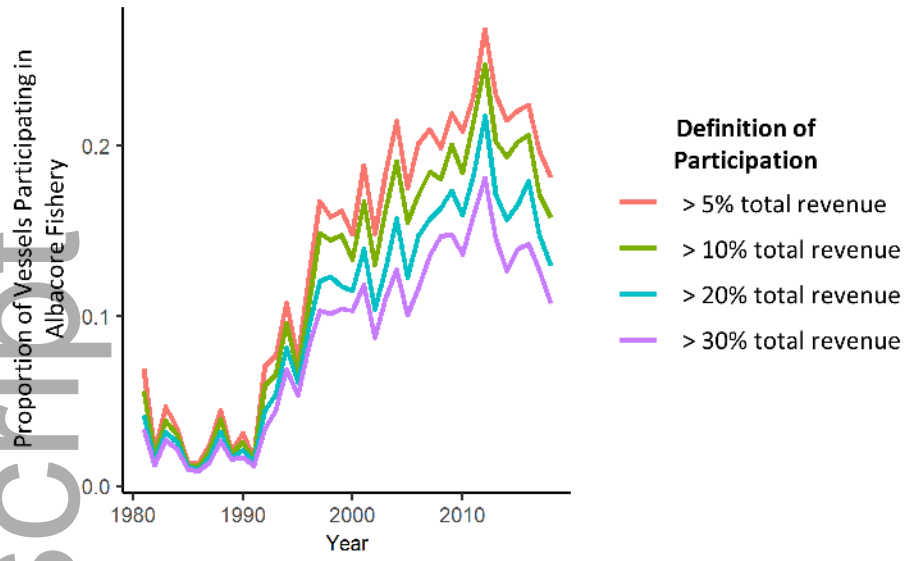


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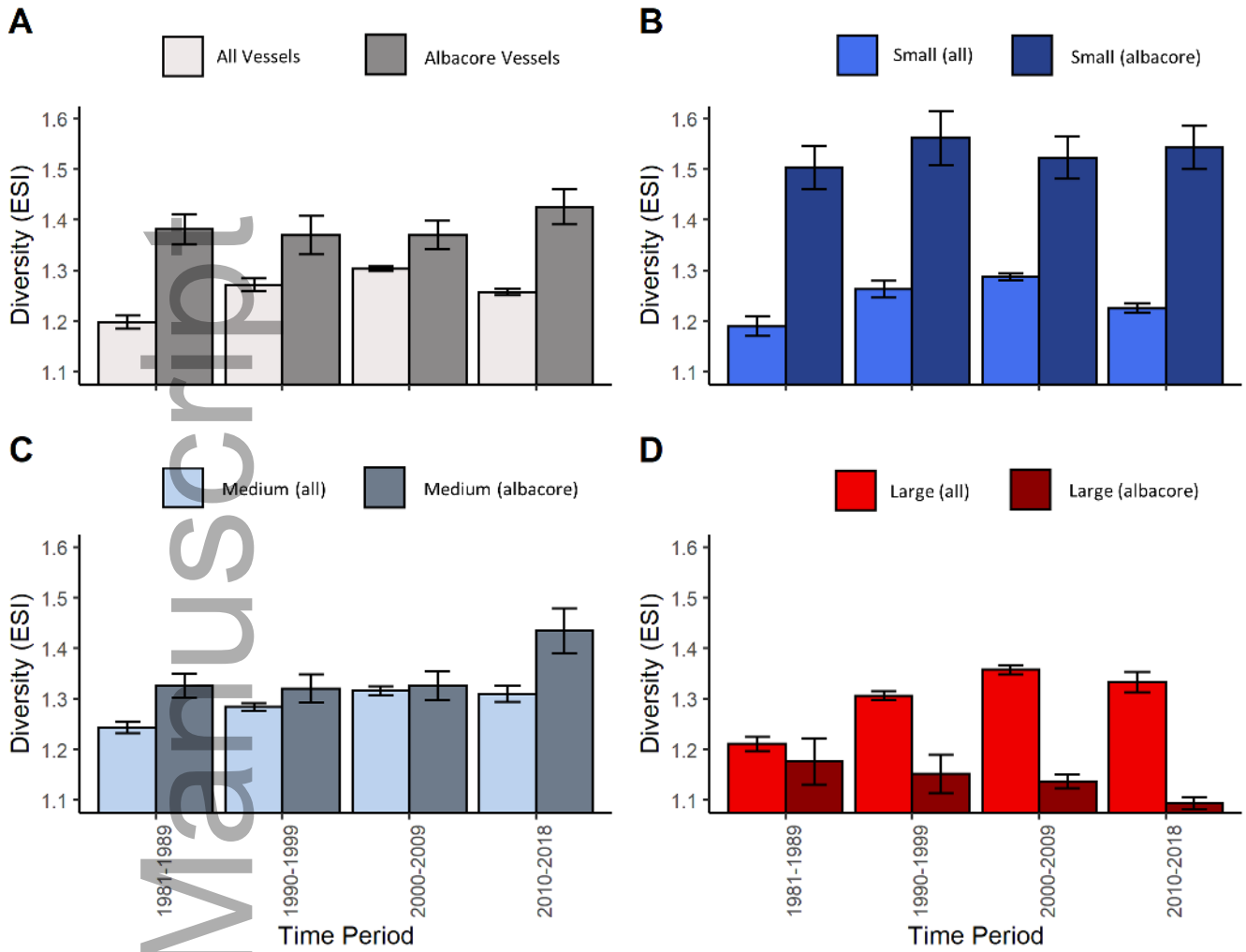
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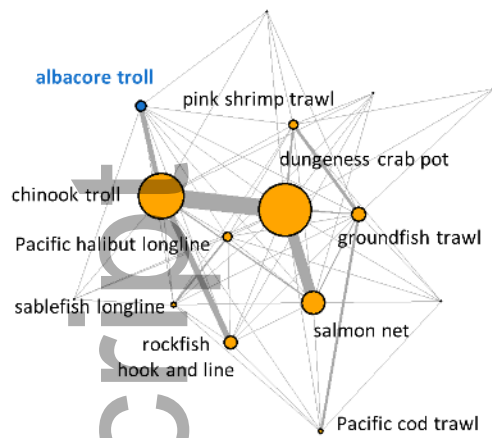


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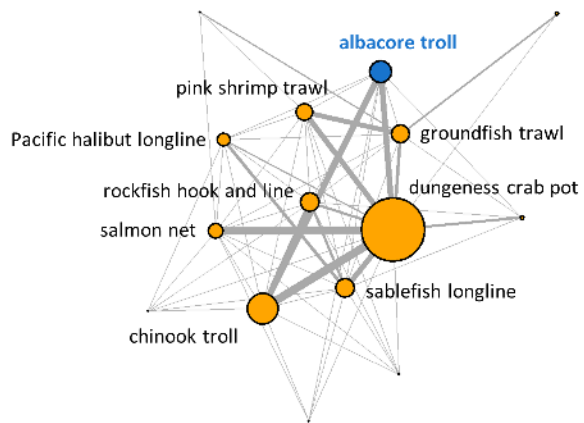


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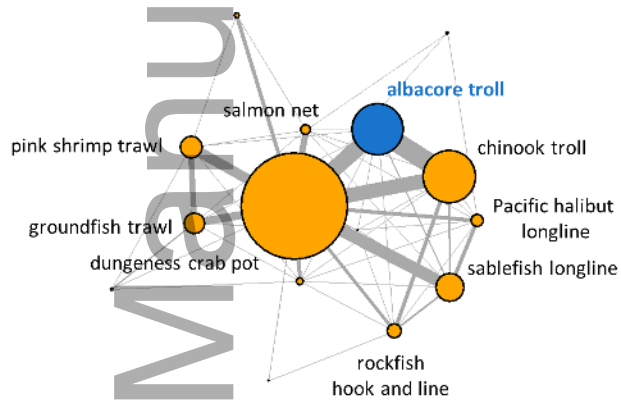
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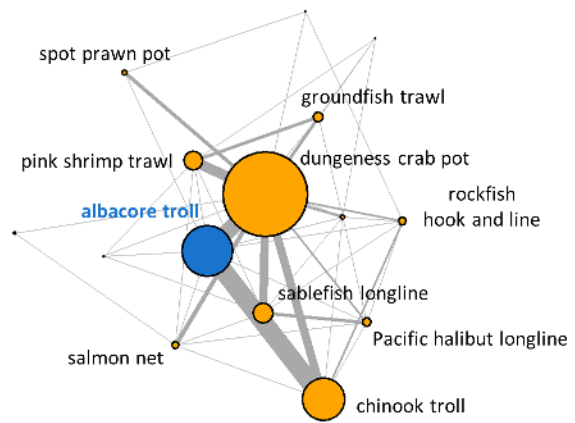
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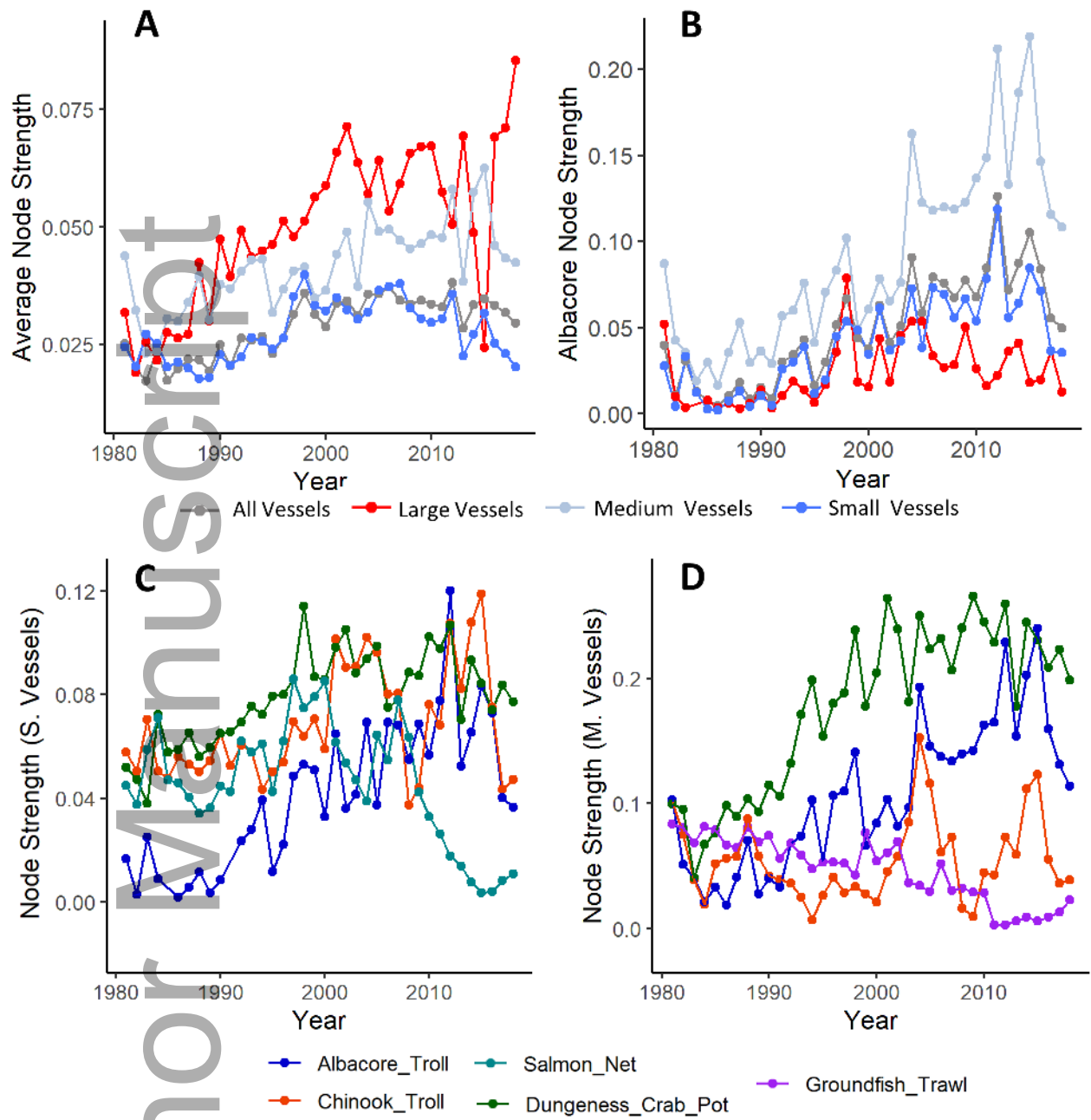
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