

Skippers' preferred adaptation and transformation responses to catch declines in a large-scale tuna fishery

Journal:	<i>ICES Journal of Marine Science</i>
Manuscript ID	ICESJMS-2020-652.R2
Manuscript Types:	Original Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Rubio, Iratxe; BC3 Basque Centre for Climate Change, ; Universidade de Vigo, Future Oceans Lab, CIM-UVIGO ojea, elena; Universidade de Vigo, Future Oceans Lab, CIM-UVIGO Hobday, Alistair; CSIRO Oceans and Atmosphere; University of Tasmania, Centre for Marine Socioecology
Keyword:	global warming, industrial fisheries, perception analysis, purse seiners, scenario, skippers

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7 **Iratxe Rubio^{1,2}, Alistair J Hobday^{3,4}, Elena Ojea¹**

8 ¹Future Oceans Lab, CIM-Universidade de Vigo, Vigo, Spain

9 ²Basque Centre for Climate Change (BC3), Leioa, Spain

10 ³CSIRO Oceans and Atmosphere, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia

11 ⁴Centre for Marine Socioecology, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia

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15 **Corresponding author:** Iratxe Rubio iratxe.rubio@bc3research.org. Phone: 0034 944014690

16 **Abstract**

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18 At first glance, large-scale fisheries may seem adaptable to climate change. Adaptation takes
19 place from the governance to the individual level of fishers. At the individual level, skippers make
20 day-to-day decisions on where to fish and are at the forefront of the response to changes at sea.
21 We seek to understand such individual adaptation in large-scale fisheries, using the case of the
22 Spanish tropical tuna fishery. We surveyed 22% of Spanish freezer purse seine skippers
23 operating in the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans. In the last 10 years, more than half of
24 skippers used new technology to search for tunas and expanded their fishing area as adaptation
25 actions. Using cluster analysis, we identified two skipper groups - based on stated behaviours to
26 confront different hypothetical scenarios of catch decline - that would follow adaptation or
27 transformation strategies. The majority of skippers would follow adaptation strategies until a
28 hypothetical 30% catch decrease, and then choices diverge. Skipper characteristics such as
29 importance given to intergenerational knowledge, perceptions of change in tropical tuna
30 abundance and years working in the current job, can explain the adaptation and transformation
31 choices by skippers. These findings help understand the potential for adaptation behaviour by
32 skippers involved in fisheries confronting catch declines.

33 **Keywords**

34 global warming, industrial fisheries, perception analysis, purse seiners, scenario, skippers.
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1. Introduction

The marine environment is currently and will continue to face profound transformations triggered by climate change (IPCC, 2019a). Adaptation is thus a reality for people who depend on marine ecosystems for a living, a food source or other uses connected to the oceans (Miller *et al.*, 2018). Adaptation in human systems is defined as ‘the process of adjustment to actual or expected climate and its effects, in order to moderate harm or exploit beneficial opportunities (IPCC, 2019b). Two recent reviews on how marine systems and fisheries adapt to climate impacts highlight the lack of examples of concrete adaptation actions and measures in the marine literature (Lindegren and Brander, 2018; Miller *et al.*, 2018). With regard to specific factors triggering human adaptation responses in recreational or commercial fisheries, only a few recent studies show key aspects explaining adaptation (e.g. Barnes *et al.*, 2020; Frawley *et al.*, 2019), or stated adaptation behaviour (van Putten *et al.*, 2017). Addressing these research gaps is timely, since identifying factors triggering adaptation responses is essential from a policy-making perspective. Findings on stated behaviour also help understand the potential for adaptation that can be incentivised through policy (van Putten *et al.*, 2017).

The common assumption is that governments aim to identify effective ways and approaches to promote adaptation strategies to climate change (Ogier *et al.*, 2020; Pecl *et al.*, 2019), in a top-down approach. From this perspective, a research goal might be to help management and policy design and increase the likelihood of adaptation, ensuring sustainable marine resource use outcomes (van Putten *et al.*, 2017; Adger, 2016). However, individuals are also responding to climate change, and so to avoid antagonistic adaptation efforts between governments and individuals, one strategy is to investigate individual adaptation options. The identification of approaches and capacity for individual adaptation efforts (bottom-up approach), will have effects for broader social structures (Wilson *et al.*, 2020) and overall adaptation success.

In this study we seek to improve the understanding about individual adaptation responses to climate change impacts in large-scale fisheries. Large-scale fisheries are seen as adaptable to changing conditions (Belhabib *et al.*, 2016), which makes them of particular interest for elucidating specific characteristics that might make them adaptable. For example, vessels are highly mobile, they can follow shifting stocks in easier ways than small-scale fisheries (Salomon *et al.*, 2019; Belhabib *et al.*, 2016), some fleets use high levels of technology (Lopez *et al.*, 2014) and others are supported by a strong fishing industry (Mullon *et al.*, 2017). Unfortunately, under rapid climate change, even being adaptable might not be sufficient and adaptation planning is needed, since changes in species distributions and abundances happen rapidly (Pinsky *et al.*, 2020; Poloczanska *et al.*, 2016).

We use the case of the Spanish tropical tuna freezer purse seine fishery, which has historically experienced environmental and management changes, among others (Rubio *et al.*, 2020), and to this day remains with an intense fishing activity (Ugalde and Samano, 2019). In this fishery, organizations from the fishing industry and other institutions like governments, scientific bodies, and non-governmental organizations were found to promote several ongoing adaptation actions (Rubio *et al.*, 2021). However, decision making at the fleet operational level relies on the

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71 individual skippers, who decide where to fish, and can respond in different manners to ongoing
72 changes at sea. In fact, the literature predicts that adaptation takes place at different levels,
73 from the governance to the individual level of fishers (Ojea *et al.*, 2020; Fedele *et al.*, 2019;
74 Galappaththi *et al.*, 2019), and understanding adaptation at all levels is key to respond efficiently
75 to climatic impacts. In the Spanish tropical tuna freezer purse seine fishery, skippers make day-
76 to-day decisions on where to fish and are thus at the forefront of the fishery response to
77 changes. For this reason, we investigate the individual adaptation actions that have been
78 undertaken by skippers in the past within the Spanish large-scale fishery as the first objective of
79 this article.

80 Furthermore, adaptation to climate change in fisheries can be studied within the broader
81 perspective of resilience thinking, where responses to climatic impacts lie along an adaptation
82 continuum, i.e. remaining, adapting, transforming (Ojea *et al.*, 2020; Barnes *et al.*, 2017).
83 Individual responses to climate impacts in fisheries systems range between remaining in the
84 activity, without behavioural changes, to engaging in adaptation or transformation actions. The
85 combination of individual responses to climate impacts can drive the system to remain, adapt
86 or transform as a whole. For example, an adaptive response at the individual level (i.e. skipper)
87 can rely on improvement of fishing gear. This response allows the skipper to continue his or her
88 activity and avoids more systematic changes, like modifying livelihoods. When most individuals
89 in a fishery make adaptation responses, the fishery system as a whole is likely to be able to
90 absorb impacts and therefore have a collective adaptation response (Barnes *et al.*, 2020; Wilson
91 *et al.*, 2020). If the individual responses are transformational, there will be more fundamental
92 changes to the system, altering the fishery and even creating a new system (Barnes *et al.*, 2020).
93 At the individual level, changing livelihoods or exiting a fishery can be considered
94 transformational actions (Ojea *et al.*, 2020; Marshall *et al.*, 2012; Park *et al.*, 2012). Little is
95 known regarding individual responses of fishers to changes in resource availability due to
96 climate change (Barnes *et al.*, 2020), and to our knowledge this is the first study that applies the
97 adaptation continuum to an industrial fishery.

98 To do this, we investigate how skippers would respond to different levels of hypothetical catch
99 declines and explore whether they would follow adaptation or a transformation strategies. We
100 also explore the reasons behind these responses. For that purpose, we collect skippers' stated
101 behaviours to different levels of hypothetical catch decrease along the adaptation continuum,
102 and associate them with factors related to adaptive capacity, since links remain unclear (Barnes
103 *et al.*, 2020; Cinner *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, our second goal is to investigate what drives the
104 individual stated behaviours of skippers in marine large-scale fisheries, through exploring the
105 association between factors from adaptive capacity and adaptation or transformation responses
106 to hypothetical scenarios. Understanding the potential for adaptation behaviour by skippers
107 involved in fisheries confronting catch declines is key for posteriorly incentivising adaptation.

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109 2. Materials and methods

110 2.1. Case study

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3 111 Tropical tuna fisheries are highly valuable worldwide economically and for food security (FAO,
4 112 2020; McCluney *et al.*, 2019). Among them, tropical tuna freezer purse seiners funded by
5 113 Spanish investment, are responsible for around 10% of the global tropical tuna catch (Ugalde
6 114 and Samano, 2019). As mentioned above, the fishery has been subjected to many changes over
7 115 time, with the added pressure of climate change (Rubio *et al.*, 2020). Climate change impacts
8 116 have been recently recorded and projected for tropical tunas and some of their fisheries in the
9 117 three oceans (e.g. Rubio *et al.*, 2020; Erauskin-Extramiana *et al.*, 2019; Monllor-Hurtado *et al.*,
10 118 2017; Senina *et al.*, 2018). At a global scale, tuna habitat distribution limits have shifted poleward
11 119 in both hemispheres (Erauskin-Extramiana *et al.*, 2019).

12 120 In addition, abundance decreases and increases are projected during the 21st century depending
13 121 on the species and ocean (Erauskin-Extramiana *et al.*, 2019), but patterns are mixed. For
14 122 example, models project an increase of Skipjack global biomass between 2010 and 2050 and a
15 123 decrease between 2050 and 2095 under a RCP 8.5 high emission scenario in the Atlantic Ocean
16 124 (Dueri *et al.*, 2016). However, Erauskin-Extramiana *et al.* (2019) project an abundance increase
17 125 through to 2100 for both Yellowfin and Skipjack. Bigeye tuna is projected to decrease in
18 126 abundance under the same scenario, time period in the Atlantic and Indian oceans (Erauskin-
19 127 Extramiana *et al.*, 2019). In the Pacific, an eastern shift in the biomass of Skipjack and Yellowfin
20 128 over time are projected, with a large and increasing uncertainty for the second half of the
21 129 century (Senina *et al.*, 2018).

22 130 The status of tropical tuna stocks also varies by species and ocean region. In 2020, Skipjack tuna
23 131 (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) stocks were found to be in a healthy status in all the oceans; Yellowfin
24 132 tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) stocks needed improvement in the Indian and the Eastern Pacific
25 133 oceans and were healthy in the Atlantic and Western and Central Pacific (ISSF, 2020). Finally,
26 134 Bigeye tuna (*Thunnus obesus*) stocks were in a healthy status in the Pacific and the Indian but
27 135 needed improvement in the Atlantic ocean (ISSF, 2020).

28 136 Spanish tropical tuna freezer purse seiners operate in the Indian, Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In
29 137 this article, when referring to 'Spanish vessels', we include both Spanish and associated flagged
30 138 vessels owned by fishing companies that are associated within the two existing fisheries
31 139 associations or producer organizations in Spain. Two skippers work on every vessel, rotating to
32 140 each lead four-month fishing campaigns. They are the ones who make the final day-to-day
33 141 decisions on where to fish at sea, being at the forefront of the fishery response to changes. This
34 142 characteristic makes them an ideal target to study their responses to changes in the sea. In total
35 143 (year 2020), there are 134 skippers from freezer purse seine vessels under Spanish capital
36 144 (calculated from data provided by the fisheries associations representing the fishing companies);
37 145 54 of them currently operating in the Atlantic, 52 in the Indian and 28 in the Pacific Ocean.

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2.2. Surveys

40 148 Short surveys of about 10 minutes were designed, pre-tested and implemented from October
41 149 2019 to March 2020. We targeted all skippers from the Spanish fishery operating in the three
42 150 oceans, i.e. a sample size of 134 skippers. All are male between 35 and 64 years old. In order to

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3 151 reach the maximum number of skippers, a mixed approach was taken. We first contacted fishing
4 152 companies to ask for skippers' contact details, however, this was unsuccessful due to data
5 153 protection protocols. Contact with skippers was only possible when companies were willing to
6 154 act as intermediaries. Some face to face surveys were conducted when skippers attended
7 155 company events such as training courses (n = 5). In addition, surveys were sent by email or
8 156 administered in person by company workers willing to collaborate with the research (n = 26, of
9 157 which 9 were face to face and the rest online). We collected 31 survey responses (23% of the
10 158 total sample size of skippers) (see SI 2. *Representativeness of data*). Almost half of the companies
11 159 (46%) rejected participation, and two survey responses were not included in data analysis due
12 160 to quality concerns, resulting in survey reach of 22% of the total possible sample.

13 161 In the surveys, we covered three topics: (1) past adaptation actions; (2) hypothetical responses
14 162 to catch decreases and (3) adaptive capacity variables (SI 1. *Survey questions*). Past adaptation
15 163 actions (1) were recorded based on a semi-closed question ([Schuman and Presser, 1979](#)), where
16 164 skippers specified from a list what adaptation actions they had performed in the last 10 years,
17 165 as a response to changes they observed, which included climatic and non-climatic changes (SI
18 166 1. *Question 5*). These actions were based on the knowledge gathered from previous interviews
19 167 performed with the fishing industry ([Rubio et al., 2021](#)).

20 168 For the responses to hypothetical catch declines (2) we used a multiple-response question with
21 169 five scenarios of decreasing catches (SI 1. *Question 6*). We used catch decrease scenarios of 15%,
22 170 30%, 50%, 70% and 90% with respect to current annual catches to capture the full adaptation
23 171 response continuum for the negative expectations derived from climate change impacts,
24 172 combined with other potential issues such as overexploitation. This is independent from the
25 173 most likely abundance changes from climate change, which, as previously shown, are different
26 174 or uncertain depending on the ocean, time period and species. We acknowledge abundance
27 175 increases are also expected, but for assessing the potential for adaptation behaviour when catch
28 176 declines occur, we decided to focus on negative impacts. Skippers had to specify 'actions' (i.e.
29 177 state their behaviour) in response to each scenario. While recognizing stated behaviour can be
30 178 biased if compared to actual behaviour, we also note that intentions are the most important
31 179 precursors to perform (or not perform) a behaviour ([Fujitani et al., 2017](#); [Webb and Sheeran,](#)
32 180 [2006](#)). Responses were grouped to match the adaptation continuum – which we slightly
33 181 modified as we split 'exit the fishery' behaviour from other transformations. However, we still
34 182 interpreted 'exit the fishery' as a transformation strategy; we split it with the purpose of having
35 183 a more detailed view on the results. We therefore used four response categories: 'remain',
36 184 'adapt', 'transform' and 'exit' (SI 3. *Adaptation continuum*). 'Remain' corresponds to skippers
37 185 stating they would not change their usual fishing behaviour when facing a particular scenario of
38 186 catch decrease; 'adapt' corresponds to skippers who would change their fishing behaviour (e.g.
39 187 technology use or fishing location) but keeping their activity in the current ocean; 'transform'
40 188 matches skippers who would change ocean, gear or job within the fishing sector; and 'exit'
41 189 matches skippers who would exit the fishing sector.

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3 190 Finally, adaptive capacity variables (3) were recorded from SI 1. Questions 1 to 5 and 8 to 10,
4 191 which account for 41 different variables (e.g. sociodemographic as age or perceptions of
5 192 changes) that were classified based on Cinner and Barnes (2019) adaptive capacity domains (SI
6 193 4. Variables for association measures). These domains include the resources individuals can
7 194 access in times of need (assets); the flexibility of individuals to change strategies (flexibility);
8 195 learning capacities to recognize and respond to change (learning); the ability to organize the
9 196 system and act collectively (social organization); the socio-cognitive constructs that determine
10 197 human behaviour and the capacity to undergo change (agency) (Cinner and Barnes, 2019).

14 198 15 199 **2.3. Data analysis**

17 200 To first explore differences in skipper responses based on the ocean region currently fished, we
18 201 used the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Hollander and Wolfe, 1973). This was performed
19 202 for both questions on past adaptation actions and hypothetical responses – and based on the
20 203 outcome we would pool responses or treat them by ocean basin. The Kruskal-Wallis test
21 204 indicated no differences between ocean basins (p-value > 0.05) for both; we therefore pooled
22 205 the data. We also verified that the sampling strategy and company belonging did not affect
23 206 responses (see details in SI section 4).

24 207 Then, we performed cluster analysis to group skippers based on their hypothetical responses to
25 208 the decreasing catch scenarios. This method of analysis is suitable for small sample sizes, i.e.
26 209 typically less than 250 observations (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 2005). Clusters were determined
27 210 through Ward's linkage method (Ward, 1963) with Gower distances (Gower, 1971), implying a
28 211 minimum increase in the total within-cluster variance (Murtagh and Legendre, 2014). Two
29 212 clusters were set since they maximise the average silhouette width and are appropriate for
30 213 interpretation (SI Figure 3 and 4). Each cluster corresponded to a different skipper typology,
31 214 depending on his stated behaviour when facing catch decrease scenarios. A heatmap was used
32 215 to visualise clusters. The relationships between stated behavioural clusters (dependent variable)
33 216 and the adaptive capacity variables (independent variables) were then investigated. All
34 217 associations were tested separately, i.e. one adaptive capacity variable versus the behavioural
35 218 cluster (binomial) at a time. When the association was between a binomial variable (dependent)
36 219 and a categorical one (independent) we used the Fisher's Exact Test (Fisher, 1935) and when the
37 220 association was between a binomial variable and a numeric or ordinal variable we used binomial
38 221 general linear models (GLM) (Hastie and Pregibon, 1992). All analyses were performed using the
39 222 R Environment for Statistical Computing (R Core Team, 2020), and the scripts with their
40 223 workflow are available on GitHub/[irrubio/tropituna_skipper_adapt_transform](https://github.com/irrubio/tropituna_skipper_adapt_transform).

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42 225 **3. Results**

43 226 A range of adaptation actions were performed by skippers as a response to perceived changes
44 227 during the last 10 years (Figure 1). Skippers could report more than one action, and the mean
45 228 number of actions per skipper was 2 (SD ±1). The two most commonly reported adaptation
46 229 actions were *Using new technology to search for tunas* and *Fishing area expansion*, which were

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3 230 nominated by 59% of skippers. The next most commonly selected actions were a *fishing period*
4 231 *change* (14%), *fishing more frequently* (14%) and *other adaptation actions* (i.e. adapting to new
5 232 regulations, changing their effort, adjusting to costs and carrying out sustainable and selective
6 233 fishing) (14%). About 10% of skippers did not state any change in their behaviour, while 7% of
7 234 skippers had searched for new ports. None of them stated having fished 'unusual species' (other
8 235 than tunas).

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12 236 Responses of skippers to hypothetical scenarios of decreasing catches from 15% to 90% showed
13 237 a progressive decrease of 'remain' and 'adapt' responses along the scenarios of impact
14 238 intensification, both options were selected less often when catch decreases are higher (Figure
15 239 2). Among all skippers, 21 and 23 would exit the fishery if their catches decreased by 70% and
16 240 90% respectively. However, only 12 skippers would exit the fishery if their catches decreased by
17 241 50%. At 15% and 30% scenarios, 19 skippers would adapt. Very few skippers would transform
18 242 once a 30% catch decrease is reached, until the worst scenario. Only one skipper indicated he
19 243 would not change his behaviour (i.e. 'Remain' category) for the 50% decline scenario. Finally, at
20 244 30% scenario, 3 skippers stated they would not change their behaviour, compared to 9 skippers
21 245 at 15% scenario.

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26 246 Responses to catch decrease scenarios fell into two clusters. Cluster (or group) 1 corresponds to
27 247 skippers who could be early adaptors and either would not exit, or only exit the fishery for
28 248 extreme catch decrease scenarios (Figure 3). These skippers would keep their adaptation
29 249 behaviour at least until 30% of catch decrease, maintaining an adaptation or transformation
30 250 response until 70% decrease, and would exit the fishery at a 90% decrease. We refer to them as
31 251 skippers who would follow an adaptation strategy; and they represent 28% of surveyed skippers.
32 252 In contrast, cluster 2 represents skippers who would exit the fishery earlier. They would start
33 253 exiting the fishery if their catches decreased by 30%. They tend to expand the 'remain' responses
34 254 and would transform earlier than skippers from group 1. We refer to this group as skippers who
35 255 would follow a transformation strategy; they represent 72% of surveyed skippers.

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41 256 Table 1 shows the significant associations between belonging to cluster 1 or 2 and adaptive
42 257 capacity variables. Among the 41 variables measured for adaptive capacity (SI Table 3), we only
43 258 found 3 that are significantly related to adaptation (cluster 1) or transformation (cluster 2) stated
44 259 behaviour. These variables are the number of years a skipper has spent in his current job
45 260 (flexibility), the importance a skipper gives to intergenerational knowledge (learning) and
46 261 whether he perceives changes in abundance of tropical tunas (socio-cognitive). There is a
47 262 negative relationship (estimate value -0.3146, Table 1) between the probability of willing to
48 263 follow an adaptation strategy and the number of years spent in the skipper's current job. This
49 264 means that skippers that have been less years at their current job are more prone to be in cluster
50 265 1. The opposite happens with the rest of variables that have a positive relationship with the
51 266 dependent variable, i.e. intergenerational knowledge importance and perception of abundance
52 267 change (estimate values 2.0658 and 2.8620 respectively, Table 1). Skippers giving more
53 268 importance to intergenerational knowledge and perceiving changes in tropical tuna abundance
54 269 are more prone to be in cluster 1 or are willing to follow an adaptation strategy. Skippers having
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3 270 worked for longer periods in their job, giving less importance to intergenerational knowledge
4 271 and not perceiving changes in tropical tuna abundance are the ones who would adopt a
5 272 transformation strategy and also exit the fishery in early stages of catch decrease.
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9 274 **4. Discussion**

10 275 The analysis conducted in this article represents investigation of bottom-up approaches, where
11 276 we seek to understand the individual responses of skippers to catch declines in a large-scale
12 277 fishery. Knowledge derived from this kind of study can be used to take informed decisions when
13 278 developing policies to facilitate or promote adaptation responses (van Putten *et al.*, 2017). This
14 279 is in line with efforts using participatory approaches (Ogier *et al.*, 2020), with the aim of avoiding
15 280 antagonistic top-down measures, that could be less effective when seeking collective adaptation
16 281 for a community (Piggott-McKellar *et al.*, 2019; Bennett *et al.*, 2016). In the Spanish large-scale
17 282 fishery, skippers are not the only actors adapting; the fishing companies can have their own
18 283 adaptation strategies (Rubio *et al.*, 2021), which can be synergistic or antagonistic with other
19 284 actors' such as governments (Pecl *et al.*, 2019), or even with the skippers themselves. Thus,
20 285 another future aspect to elucidate could be to what extent skippers' adaptive responses could
21 286 be influenced by the fishing companies' strategies or vice-versa. From this study, there were no
22 287 differences among stated behaviours depending on the company, suggesting skippers could
23 288 freely choose what they would do to confront hypothetical catch declines.

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31 289 Most skippers (90%) reported adaptation actions to perceived changes in the last 10 years,
32 290 which is what we would expect in an adaptable fishery. This is in line with commonly reported
33 291 adaptation actions, i.e. using technology and fishing area expansion (Belhabib *et al.*, 2016; Daw
34 292 *et al.*, 2009; Young *et al.*, 2012) that most skippers were able to accomplish. However, nowadays
35 293 the problem is probably more focused on adapting to the spatiotemporal shifts of the fish and
36 294 complying with international rules - such as the decrease in the use of fishing aggregative devices
37 295 (e.g. ICCAT, 2019) - rather than expanding the fishery. When confronting hypothetical catch
38 296 decrease scenarios, around two thirds of skippers were willing to follow transformation
39 297 strategies when a certain impact is reached instead of following adaption strategies (~30% catch
40 298 decline). This threshold is the point after which transformational adaptation would emerge,
41 299 which could affect the fishery at a collective level (Wilson *et al.*, 2020). Below that threshold,
42 300 incremental adaptation would be common among skippers. In addition, we venture to say that
43 301 catch decline could be interpreted as a proxy for revenue decline, since skippers earn their salary
44 302 depending on the fished quantity. Thus, skippers who would follow transformation strategies
45 303 earlier have a lower threshold, which is the majority of skippers.

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52 304 One of the limitations of this study is that we did not confront positive impacts (i.e. abundance
53 305 increase), which could turn out to be the most likely scenario for this fishery depending on the
54 306 area and time period. We acknowledge this and recommend future analysis to test the
55 307 adaptation continuum in such impact settings. Adaptation can be planned in response to the
56 308 positive impacts and further investigation should also include potential catch increases. We
57 309 focus on catch declines that are not specifically located and we do not address distribution
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3 310 impacts per se, in part because uncertainty and mixed patterns around these remain (e.g.
4 311 Erauskin-Extramiana et al., 2019; Dueri et al., 2016; Senina et al., 2018). However, respondents
5 312 were able to select adaptation and transformation actions that are applicable to confront
6 313 distribution shifts (e.g. 'search for different fishing areas in the ocean where I fish', or 'change
7 314 the ocean'). It is certain that, if the fish 'disappear or move', skippers change their fishing areas
8 315 (Young et al., 2019).

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12 316 Another limitation of the study is the difficulty in reaching the skippers (22% response rate). Our
13 317 sample size could be driven by the most participative companies, particularly open towards
14 318 science and seeking to improve current knowledge about the sector. Distrust towards science
15 319 when contacting a few fishing companies, and the work overload in other companies, both
16 320 diffculted reaching more skippers. Thus, additional efforts are needed to build trust and
17 321 communication spaces in the Spanish fishery when fostering adaptation from a top-down
18 322 approach, and to gain insight into bottom-up responses. Bidirectional knowledge transfer is also
19 323 necessary; researchers need to better understand mentalities and conceptualizations of the
20 324 marine environment and social-ecological relations, which can differ between researchers and
21 325 skippers or other kind of actors (Rassweiler *et al.*, 2020). An examination of the ways in which
22 326 fishers experience and respond to change is essential to better understand adaptations to
23 327 climate change (Galappaththi *et al.*, 2019).

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29 328 When looking at adaptive capacity domains related to adaptation responses, flexibility,
30 329 represented by the years a skipper has worked in his current position, is playing a role in stated
31 330 behaviours. More experienced skippers would exit the fishery earlier, which could be linked to
32 331 a conservative behaviour in order to avoid income losses (Marshall *et al.*, 2013) or to retirement
33 332 expectations as stated by a few skippers (Option I in SI Table 1). Job and place attachment were
34 333 not significant when explaining the willingness to follow adaptation strategies, but learning was
35 334 measured as being significant. According to van Valkengoed and Steg (2019) factors such as
36 335 experience, knowledge, place attachment and trust play only a marginal role in adaptation.
37 336 Regarding technology, Gardezi and Arbuckle (2020) found that greater techno-optimism can
38 337 increase the intention to delay adaptation-related actions. However, this techno-faith was not
39 338 significant when explaining the willingness to follow adaptation strategies among skippers from
40 339 the Spanish tuna fishery.

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46 340 Barnes *et al.* (2020) found that perceptions of past experience with more severe impacts were
47 341 significantly related to adaptive action, but the socio-cognitive domain was not linked to
48 342 transformative action. In our case, past experience of environmental changes was not
49 343 significantly associated with the willingness to follow adaptation strategies (*sensu* van Putten
50 344 *et al.*, 2017), neither was the fact that skippers may have already adapted. From a socio-
51 345 cognitive perspective, only perception of abundance changes was related to the stated
52 346 behaviour towards adaptation. In addition, agency and aspects of social organization encourage
53 347 adaptive actions (Barnes *et al.*, 2020), however, we did not find these associations. This might
54 348 be because of differences in variables used to represent each adaptive capacity domain. Besides,
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349 assets have been usually associated with adaptation (Barnes *et al.*, 2020), but we could not
350 include variables such as catch or income due to privacy and sensible data concerns.

351 Finally, are the results we obtained more general beyond the Spanish fishery used as a case
352 study? Frawley *et al.* (2019) state that strategies to facilitate adaptation and overcome its
353 associated barriers will likely be context dependent. Skippers from the Spanish fishery have
354 performed many adaptation actions in the past, which are probably similar in other adaptable
355 large-scale fisheries. However, this is different from identifying what human characteristics are
356 prone to drive in adaptation behaviour. Studying adaptation behaviour through adaptive
357 capacity domains could be complemented with approaches from other disciplines such as the
358 theory of planned behaviour (Miller, 2017) or protection motivation theory (Feng *et al.*, 2017).
359 As Wilson *et al.* (2020) point out, behavioural adaptation research is at its infancy and we think
360 that more robust theory must be developed to understand adaptation and stated behaviour in
361 fisheries, including small and large-scale fisheries. From this study, three variables can be
362 considered as important for distinguishing skippers and their potential adaptation and
363 transformation behaviour when confronting catch declines (i.e. importance given to
364 intergenerational knowledge, perceptions of change in target species abundance and years
365 working in the current position). These should be further tested in other case studies to ascertain
366 they are not context dependent.

367

368 **5. Concluding Remarks**

369 In this study, the individual adaptation and transformation responses of skippers in an industrial
370 fishery were explored. The Spanish tuna freezer purse seine fishery is a highly technological
371 industry operating in the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans. As opposed to other contexts, the
372 adaptive capacity of such an industrial fishery has a high level of assets and flexibility. We
373 explored to what extent these and other adaptive capacity domains play a role in the stated
374 behaviour of vessel skippers when confronting hypothetical scenarios of catch declines.

375 A survey was designed for skippers, since they are one of the main decision-makers in the
376 Spanish tropical tuna fishery when choosing where to fish at sea. We found that skippers carried
377 out adaptation actions in the past and are willing to engage in adaptation options until a 30%
378 catch decline. However, when facing larger declines, strategies changediverge, and some
379 skippers are whiling to keep adapting while others transform or exit the fishery. Importance
380 given to intergenerational knowledge, perceptions of change in tropical tuna abundance and the
381 years spent in the current job explained these adaptation and transformation choices. Finally,
382 understanding adaptation and transformation responses at all levels (i.e. from skipper to
383 company) and fishery contexts is crucial to manage the risk of climate change impacting the
384 oceans.

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521 7. CAPTIONS

522 **Figure 1.** Adaptation actions performed by skippers (n = 29) in the last 10 years. The percentage of skippers
523 undertaking each adaptation action (y-axis) is shown on the x-axis. 'Other adaptations' refers to an open
524 option where skippers could add adaptation actions not listed in the provided options.

525 **Figure 2.** Responses of skippers to hypothetical scenarios of decreasing catches (n = 29 for all scenarios).
526 Responses options were grouped into four categories: 'Remain', 'Adapt', 'Transform' and 'Exit' (SI Table
527 1). The number of skippers choosing each response by scenario is indicated within 'donut charts'. 'Not
528 assessed' accounts for missing responses.

529 **Figure 3.** Skipper clusters based on their choices. The heatmap shows hierarchical clustering of 29
530 skippers, according to the response they assigned to different scenarios of catch decreases. The
531 dendrogram in the y axis, where each individual is included as a row (coded as skipper#), shows the 2
532 selected clusters. Hypothetical scenarios of decreasing catches are depicted in columns. Response
533 categories are shown in the legend: 'Remain', 'Adapt', 'Transform' and 'Exit' (SI Table 1). 'Not assessed'
534 accounts for missing responses.

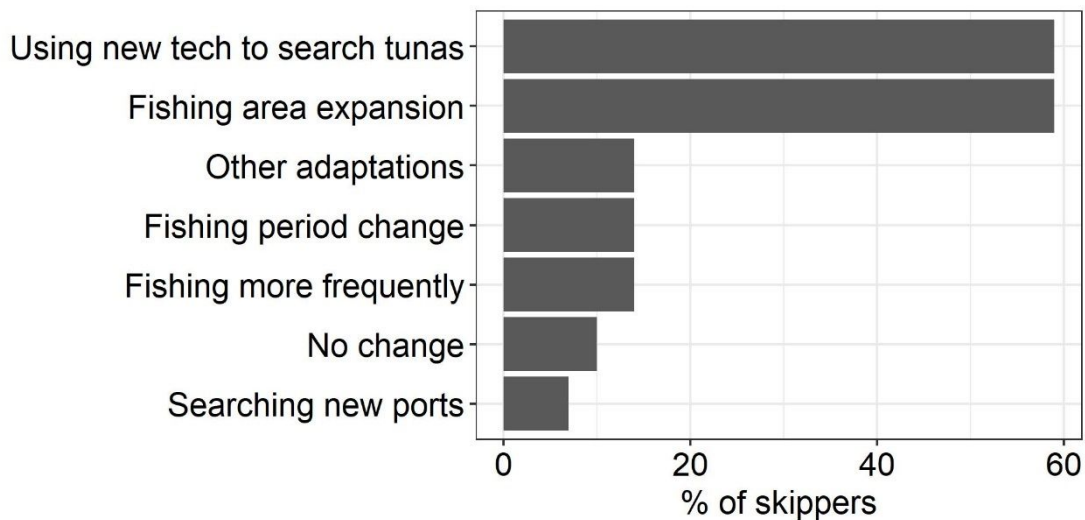
535 **Table 1.** Results from 3 binomial GLMs. The models test the association between the willingness to follow
536 adaptation or transformation strategies (or belonging to cluster 1 or 2, dependent variable) versus each
537 adaptive capacity variable (independent variables). The results of each model are shown on separate lines

538 containing the coefficient (estimate), the standard error (SE) and the p-value per model. Only significant
 539 associations ($p < 0.05$) are shown.

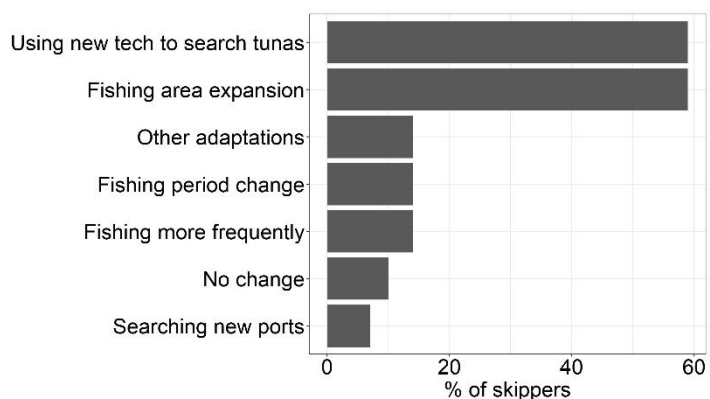
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541 **8. Figures and table**

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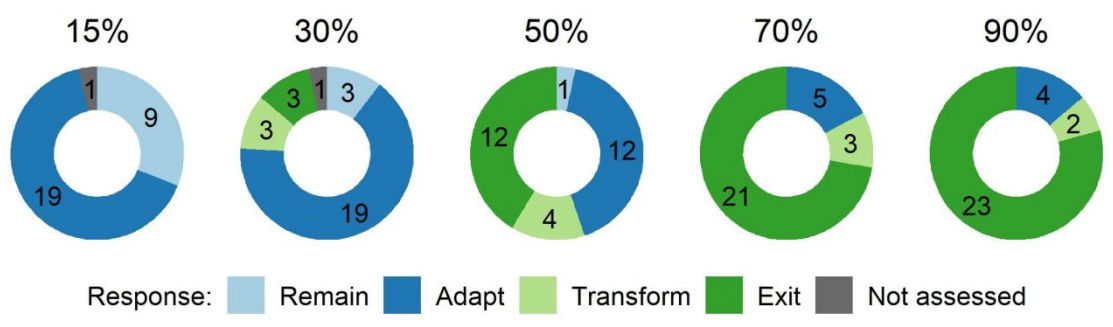
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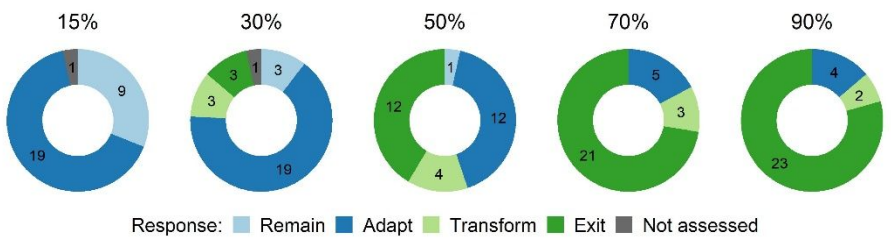
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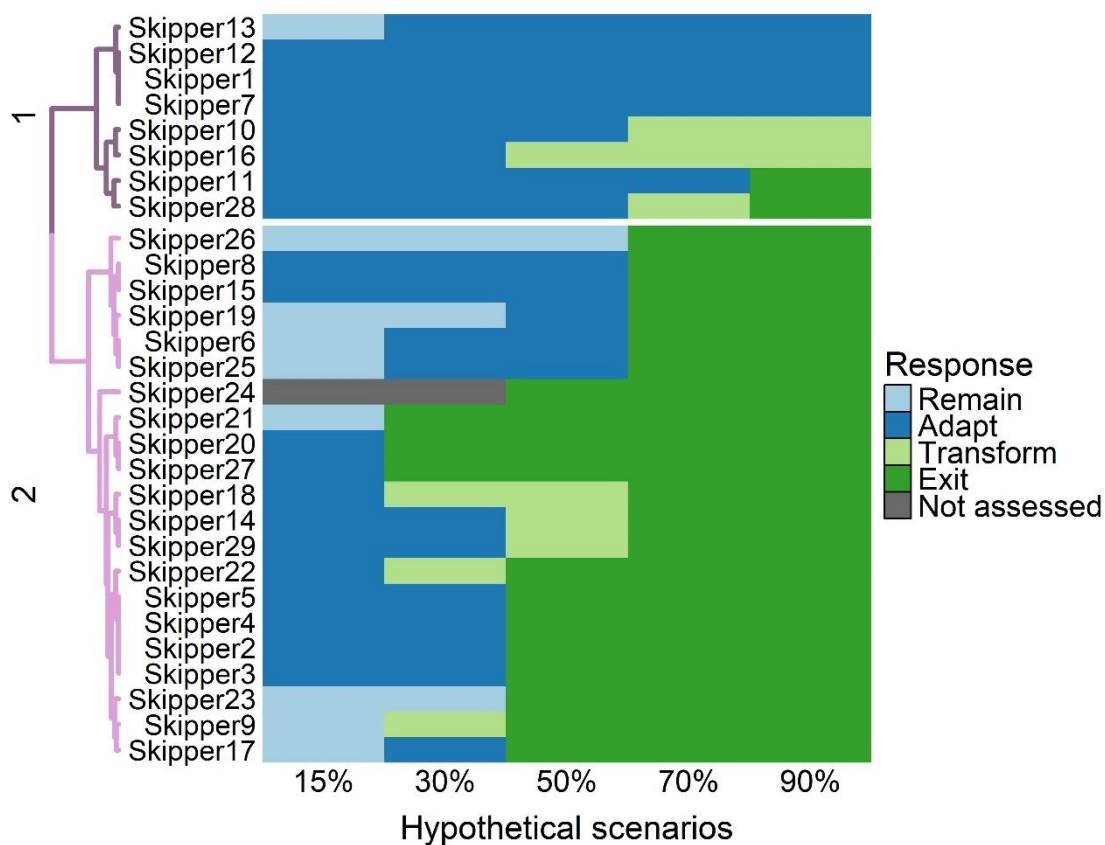


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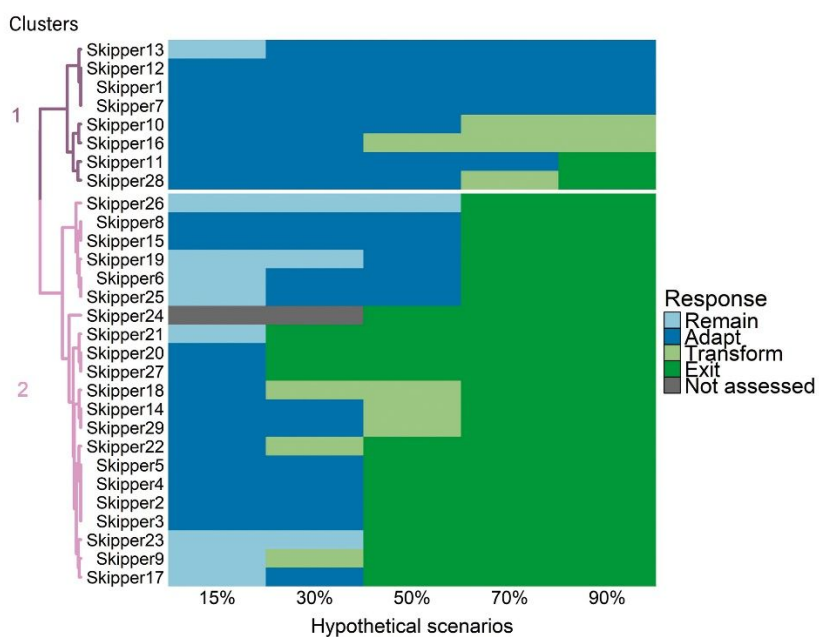
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551 Table 1

Adaptive capacity category	Independent variable definition	Code in SI Table 3	Estimate	SE	p-value
Flexibility	Number of years spent in current job	job_years	-0.3146	0.1357	0.0204
Learning	Intergenerational knowledge importance	intergen_knowld	2.0658	0.9238	0.0253

Socio-cognitive	Perception of abundance change	change_abundance	2.8620	1.1730	0.0147
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553 9. Supplementary material

554 The following supplementary material ("Supplementary_material.pdf") is available at ICESJMS
 555 online. It includes the survey questions and information about representativeness of data, the
 556 adaptation continuum, variables for association measures and cluster choice.

557 10. Acknowledgments

558 This research was supported by the project CLOCK, under the European Horizon 2020 Program,
 559 ERC Starting Grant Agreement n°679812 funded by the European Research Council. It is also
 560 supported by the Spanish Government through María de Maeztu excellence accreditation 2018-
 561 2022 (Ref. MDM-2017-0714). EO thanks Gain-Xunta the Galicia for the Oportunus program. We
 562 specially thank all the skippers and workers from the fishing companies and associations who
 563 facilitated this study and participated to share their knowledge. Two anonymous reviewers also
 564 improved the manuscript.

565 11. Data Availability Statement

566 The code that supports the findings of this study is openly available in
 567 ~~'tropituna_skipper_adapt_transform'~~ at
 568 https://github.com/irrubio/tropituna_skipper_adapt_transform and
 569 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4612052>
 570 ~~<https://doi.org/> to come after major revisions~~. The data that support the findings of this study
 571 are available on request from the corresponding author, I. Rubio
 572 (iratxe.rubio@bc3research.org).

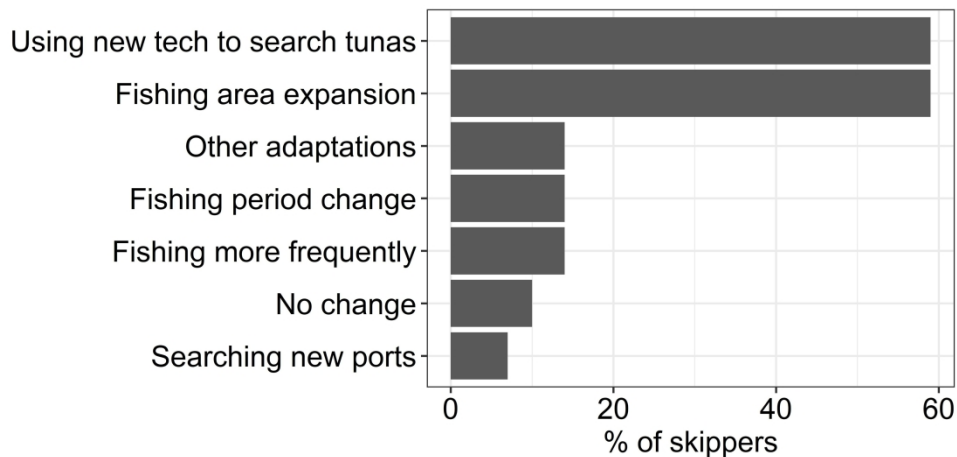


Figure 1. Adaptation actions performed by skippers (n = 29) in the last 10 years. The percentage of skippers undertaking each adaptation action (y-axis) is shown on the x-axis. 'Other adaptations' refers to an open option where skippers could add adaptation actions not listed in the provided options.

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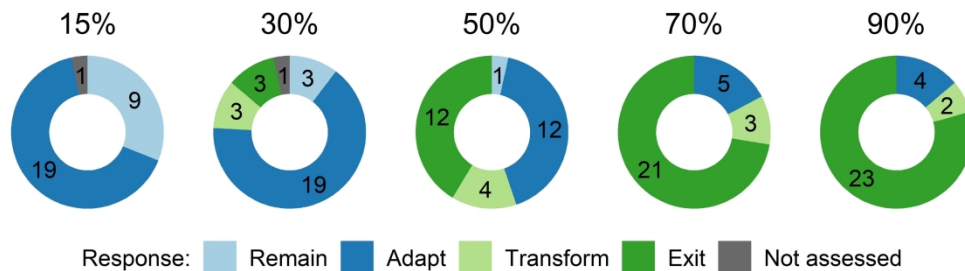


Figure 2. Responses of skippers to hypothetical scenarios of decreasing catches (n = 29 for all scenarios). Responses options were grouped into four categories: 'Remain', 'Adapt', 'Transform' and 'Exit' (SI Table 1). The number of skippers choosing each response by scenario is indicated within 'donut charts'. 'Not assessed' accounts for missing responses.

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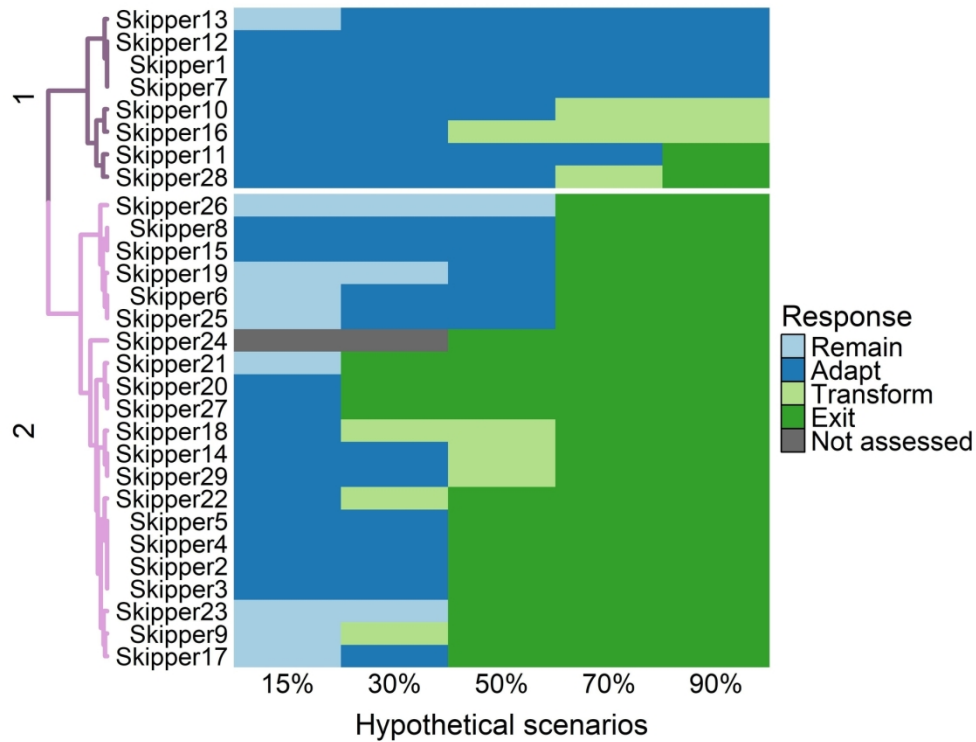


Figure 3. Skipper clusters based on their choices. The heatmap shows hierarchical clustering of 29 skippers, according to the response they assigned to different scenarios of catch decreases. The dendrogram in the y axis, where each individual is included as a row (coded as skipper#), shows the 2 selected clusters. Hypothetical scenarios of decreasing catches are depicted in columns. Response categories are shown in the legend: 'Remain', 'Adapt', 'Transform' and 'Exit' (SI Table 1). 'Not assessed' accounts for missing responses.

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Adaptive capacity category	Independent variable definition	Code in SI Table 3	Estimate	SE	p-value
Flexibility	Number of years spent in current job	job_years	-0.3146	0.1357	0.0204
Learning	Intergenerational knowledge importance	intergen_knowld	2.0658	0.9238	0.0253
Socio-cognitive	Perception of abundance change	change_abundance	2.8620	1.1730	0.0147

For Review Only

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3 Dear Dr Jan Jaap Poos,
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6
7 Thank you very much for this good news! Thank you very much to the reviewers too who gave
8 constructive feedback for the manuscript improvement.
9

10
11 In this last version of the manuscript we have added a few edits including the references
12 suggested by the reviewer (Lines 163 and 177-180), the code repository and DOI (Lines 223
13 and 569), the figures sized as requested by the journal (Lines 542, 546 and 549), and minor
14 text edits (Lines 370 and 378).
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19 Please feel free to contact me if I can provide any additional request about our work.
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