

1    **Quota allocation policies in U.S. federal fisheries management  
2    and implications for climate resilience**

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10    **Abstract**

11    Quota allocation, which divides fishing catch or effort between regions, sectors, subsectors,  
12    individuals, and/or seasons, is one of the most important and contentious processes in fisheries  
13    management. Quota allocation policies often aim to advance fairness and equity goals by  
14    preserving levels of historical participation and access. However, this reliance on historical  
15    patterns makes allocation policies vulnerable to climate change, which is shifting the  
16    accessibility of marine resources among historical and new participants. Despite this, there is  
17    little guidance on best practices for adapting allocation policies to climate change. In the United  
18    States, regional flexibility to design locally relevant allocation policies has innovated a diversity  
19    of approaches that can be studied for their climate vulnerability and/or adaptivity. Here, we  
20    synthesize the diverse allocation policies used to manage U.S. federal fisheries (491 stocks, 42  
21    management plans, 8 regions) and evaluate the vulnerability of these policies to climate  
22    change. We find that allocation policies are used to manage 46% of federally managed stocks.  
23    Although most policies are based on historical catch, many include features that promote  
24    climate adaptiveness, including the ability to transfer quota between states, sectors, or  
25    individuals; adjustment of allocations based on current resource distribution or abundance; set  
26    aside of quota to support research and experimentation; and gradual phase in of policy  
27    changes. Ultimately, we provide eight transferable recommendations for improving the ability for  
28    allocation policies to advance their fairness and equity goals under climate change.

29  
30    **Keywords:** adaptive management, catch allocations, catch shares, climate change, equity,  
31    fairness

32

33    **Short title:** Quota allocation and climate resilience

34     1. Introduction

35         Climate change is shifting the abundance, distribution, and phenology of harvested  
36         marine resources, which is challenging the ability for managers to maintain the conservation  
37         and socioeconomic goals set for global fisheries (IPCC, 2019). To achieve conservation goals,  
38         managers must establish catch or effort controls that maintain sustainability as stocks  
39         experience climate-driven shifts in their productivity and distribution (Gaines et al., 2018). To  
40         meet socioeconomic goals, managers must further ensure that access to shifting resources  
41         remains fair and equitable despite changing oceanographic conditions (Tokunaga et al., 2023).  
42         This can be achieved through a combination of management policies ranging from permitting,  
43         which governs who can access resources, to quota allocation, which governs how much catch  
44         or effort is available to those with permitted access (Ojea et al., 2017).

45

46         Quota allocation is arguably one of the most important and contentious processes in  
47         fisheries management as it dictates how access is shared among fishery participants. While the  
48         establishment of catch limits is a largely objective and scientific process (Punt, 2010), decisions  
49         about how to distribute the resulting quota is more subjective and depends on complex  
50         socioeconomic considerations (Morrison & Scott, 2014). Quota allocations are often made  
51         between jurisdictions (e.g., international, regional, state), sectors (e.g., commercial, recreational,  
52         tribal, research), subsectors (e.g., gillnets, longlines), individuals (e.g., catch shares), and  
53         seasons. Allocations are often based on relative levels of historical catch or effort as they  
54         frequently aim to maintain proportional access for fishing communities historically dependent on  
55         fishery resources (Cox, 2009; FLSF, 2010; Lynham, 2014). However, climate change is causing  
56         rapid departures from historical conditions, which can lead to unfair, inequitable, and inefficient  
57         resource use when access is based solely on historical dynamics (Palacios-Abrantes et al.,  
58         2020, 2023; Pinsky et al., 2018; Vogel et al., 2024). As a result, fisheries managers will need to  
59         develop procedures for adapting quota allocation policies so that they continue to advance their  
60         fairness and equity objectives despite changing ocean conditions.

61

62         The challenge posed by climate change is arguably most direct for spatial quota  
63         allocation policies as climate change will rearrange the distribution of stocks. Spatial allocations,  
64         which allocate quota across different management areas (e.g., countries, regions, states),  
65         generally aim to ensure that harvest is proportional to either the biological availability of the  
66         resource or the historical dependence of fishing communities on the resource. However,  
67         climate-driven shifts in the distribution of marine species imply that historical benchmarks used

68 to set spatial allocations will not reflect future distributions (Palacios-Abrantes et al., 2020, 2023;  
69 Pinsky et al., 2018). This can present a number of conflicts, inequities, and inefficiencies. For  
70 example, if allocations are not updated to reflect shifted distributions, some fishing communities  
71 may be unable to capitalize on increases in local availability, which would be especially  
72 challenging if other species in their portfolio are negatively impacted by climate change (Cline et  
73 al., 2017; Samhouri et al., 2024). Worse still, fisheries may be at increased risk of closure if they  
74 are unable to avoid a newly abundant resource for which they have little allocation.  
75 Furthermore, vessels from a region maintaining its allocation based on historical distributions  
76 may need to travel farther to fulfill their quota (Young et al., 2019), increasing costs, safety  
77 concerns, and carbon emissions (Papaioannou et al., 2021; Scherrer et al., 2024). Thus, there  
78 is an urgent need to develop frameworks for adapting spatial allocation policies to shifting  
79 species distributions resulting from climate change.

80

81       The allocation of quota between and within fishing sectors has less direct though still  
82 important connections to climate change. Allocations among sectors guarantee access for  
83 diverse fishery participants and, like spatial allocations, are often allocated in proportion to  
84 historical dependence (Edwards, 1990). However, climate change is pushing resources deeper  
85 (Pinsky et al., 2013), which could challenge the ability for nearshore recreational fisheries and/or  
86 small-scale commercial vessels to attain their historical quotas (Papaioannou et al., 2021).  
87 Allocations among gears within a sector similarly protect diverse access, but can also be used  
88 to limit effort by gears with larger bycatch or habitat impacts (Jenkins & Garrison, 2013).  
89 However, because climate change is also altering bycatch patterns (Free, Anderson, et al.,  
90 2023), allocations based solely on historical landings could exacerbate bycatch issues. Finally,  
91 allocations between individuals or groups (e.g., fishing cooperatives or communities), often  
92 termed “catch shares,” can improve safety-at-sea by slowing the race to fish (Birkenbach et al.,  
93 2017) and improve sustainability by better aligning conservation and economic incentives (e.g.,  
94 catch shares only hold value if a stock is healthy and the quota is large) (Costello et al., 2008).  
95 However, these policies are also largely based on historical catch patterns (Lynham, 2014),  
96 which makes them vulnerable to climate change (Tokunaga et al., 2023). Equity issues can  
97 arise as distribution shifts further the distance between the share owners and the resource  
98 (Edwards & Pinkerton, 2019). Furthermore, catch shares often lead to less diverse fishing  
99 portfolios (Holland et al., 2017), which can reduce resilience to climate change.

100

101       The laws governing U.S. federal fisheries management mandate that allocation policies  
102 be fair, equitable, and transparent, but gives regional managers immense flexibility in how they  
103 achieve these goals. The Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act, the  
104 primary legislation governing U.S. federal fisheries, provides ten National Standards to define  
105 management requirements, of which National Standard 4 directly relates to quota allocations  
106 (MSA, 2007). This provision specifies that allocations must be “*(1) fair and equitable to all such  
107 fishermen; (2) reasonably calculated to promote conservation; and (3) carried out in such  
108 manner that no particular individual, corporation, or other entity acquires an excessive share of  
109 such privileges*” (§ 600.325 National Standard 4—Allocations, 1998). Given the absence of  
110 feasible alternatives, both official guidance and adopted practices have generally aimed to be  
111 fair and equitable by maintaining historical access and harvests, though with additional  
112 considerations for new entrants, bycatch, economic efficiency, and other factors (Plummer et  
113 al., 2012). This openness gives the eight regional Fishery Management Councils (FMCs)  
114 (**Figure 1**) flexibility to design allocation policies tailored to their specific socioeconomic and  
115 ecological contexts. However, these approaches may have different strengths and weaknesses  
116 in their ability to fulfill National Standard 4 in maintaining fairness and equity under climate  
117 change.

118

119       In 2011, the U.S. National Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) launched an effort to  
120 provide more detailed guidance on allocation, but these recommendations do not explicitly  
121 consider climate change impacts on U.S. fisheries (Lapointe, 2012). This process began with a  
122 review of the allocation policies used in U.S. federal fisheries management (Morrison & Scott,  
123 2014; Plummer et al., 2012), which provided the context for subsequent guidance on criteria for  
124 triggering the review of allocation policies (Morrison, 2016a) and for factors to consider when  
125 conducting such reviews (Morrison, 2016b, 2017c). This guidance, which was cemented as  
126 national policy between 2016 and 2017 (Morrison, 2017b, 2017a), calls for an adaptive process  
127 for evaluating whether allocations are meeting management objectives and for adjusting  
128 allocations when objectives are not being met. These policies suggest that the review of an  
129 allocation policy could be triggered based on a tracked performance indicator, public input, or at  
130 regular time intervals. They also highlight that the ability to transfer quota between states,  
131 sectors, or individuals offers in-season adaptability. While both of these guidelines provide some  
132 inherent climate resilience, the connection to climate change is not explicit, and more guidance  
133 on strategies for climate-adaptive allocation policies is needed (US GAO, 2022).

134

135        In this paper, we synthesize the diverse allocation policies used to manage U.S. federal  
136    fisheries, evaluate the vulnerability or adaptivity of these policies to climate change, and provide  
137    recommendations for increasing the climate-adaptiveness of allocation policies. We begin by  
138    cataloging the allocation policies of 491 stocks managed by the 42 fisheries management plans  
139    developed by the 8 FMCs into a standardized database. This provides a platform for  
140    understanding the myriad of allocation approaches taken across the U.S. and for understanding  
141    how approaches differ by region. We then evaluate the vulnerability or adaptiveness of these  
142    policies to climate change and offer recommendations for increasing the ability for these policies  
143    to maintain equity and fairness under climate change. We draw these recommendations from  
144    best practices identified from both U.S. and international fisheries management. These  
145    recommendations provide a roadmap for any federal, state, or international fishery seeking to  
146    maintain the fairness and equity of their allocation policies under climate change.

147    2. Methods

148    2.1 Systematic review of U.S. allocation policies

149        We inventoried the quota allocation policies currently implemented in U.S. federal  
150    fisheries management by reviewing all 42 Fishery Management Plans (FMPs; including 5  
151    “Fishery Ecosystem Plans” or FEPs) and their associated amendments for descriptions of their  
152    allocation policies (**Table S1**). We prepared a brief summary of each allocation policy to provide  
153    a clear and concise description of these often complex policies using a consistent structure and  
154    terminology. Each summary describes the types of allocation policies used, the recipients of  
155    quota, the amount of quota allocated to each recipient, and the basis for the allocation amounts.  
156    When necessary, we reviewed documents in addition to the FMPs, FEPs, and amendments to  
157    gather this information (e.g., Environmental Impact Statements and Final Rulings in the Federal  
158    Register). In some cases, we also summarized the history of changes made to the allocation  
159    policy and the motivation for these changes. These historical adjustments provide critical  
160    insights into considerations and pathways for adapting allocation policies in response to climate  
161    change. However, we only recorded this information when it was readily accessible to keep the  
162    scope of our review manageable. The summaries are provided in **Appendix A**.

163

164        We used the summaries to develop a database describing the allocation policies used to  
165    manage 491 federally managed marine fish and invertebrate stocks with a common set of  
166    characteristics (**Figure 1; Table S1**). The database summarizes: (1) basic information on each

167 stock (i.e., FMC, management plan, species group); (2) the allocation policy types used to  
168 manage the stock; and (3) traits of each of the implemented allocation policy types. We  
169 classified allocation policy types into five categories: spatial, sector-based (among sectors),  
170 subsector-based (within a sector), catch shares, or seasonal (**Figures 2 & 3**). A spatial policy  
171 allocates quota among countries, states, or other management areas. A sector-based policy  
172 allocates quota among commercial, recreational, tribal, and research sectors. A subsector-  
173 based policy allocates quota to groups (e.g., gear types, vessel size tiers, product end uses)  
174 within one of these sectors. A seasonal policy allocates quota across different seasons. We use  
175 “catch shares” as a general term for allocation policies that distribute quota among individual  
176 fishermen, groups of fishermen, cooperatives, fishing communities, or other entities, which  
177 include individual fishing quotas (IFQs), territorial use rights for fisheries (TURFs), and limited  
178 access privilege programs (LAPPs). We excluded limited access permits that were not  
179 specifically associated with an effort or catch allocation. We recorded the basis for each  
180 allocation type, i.e., whether the allocation amount was derived based on historical catch or  
181 effort, recent catch or effort, recent resource distributions, equal catch or effort, an auction, or a  
182 combination of approaches. We also recorded the number and identity of geographies, sectors,  
183 or subsectors receiving allocations. The structure of the database is illustrated in **Table S2**.  
184

185 We confirmed the accuracy of our summaries and database by comparing them to  
186 information synthesized in other relevant but less comprehensive reports (FLSF, 2010; Morrison  
187 & Scott, 2014; Plummer et al., 2012; Tokunaga et al., 2023) (**Figure S1 & S2**) and by asking  
188 FMC staff members with expert knowledge of allocation policies to review the summaries. We  
189 received reviews from FMC staff members for 34 of 42 FMPs (81%).

190 2.2 Brief review of international allocation policies

191 To broaden our search for climate-adaptive quota allocation policies, we supplemented  
192 our systematic review of allocation policies used in U.S. federal fisheries management with a  
193 brief review of allocation policies used in other fisheries around the world. We focused this  
194 review on international fisheries whose allocation policies have been well summarized in a few  
195 key sources (i.e., where an exhaustive review was not required to generate a comprehensive  
196 understanding of each entity’s quota allocation policies). The selected vignettes and their key  
197 references are as follows: Europe (Carpenter & Williams, 2021; Scholaert, 2023; Seas At Risk,  
198 2024), Australia (Knuckey et al., 2019; Mazur et al., 2020; McShane et al., 2021), New Zealand  
199 (Lock & Leslie, 2007), and the Parties to the Nauru Agreement (PNA) for Pacific skipjack tuna

200 (*Katsuwonus pelamis*, Scombridae) (Aqorau et al., 2018). The successes and failures of these  
201 allocation policies are highly instructive to the U.S. and any other country that allocates quota in  
202 the context of rapid environmental change.

203 2.3 Identifying best practices for climate-adaptive allocation policies

204 We used our systematic review of U.S. allocation policies and brief review of  
205 international policies to identify best practices for climate-adaptive allocation policies. We  
206 identify these practices as policies that either (1) directly consider climate change in the  
207 allocation of quota or (2) support the adaptive management of allocation policies, which  
208 indirectly but effectively bolsters management responsiveness to climate change. Adaptive  
209 management views management strategies as experiments that can be iteratively studied and  
210 adjusted in response to outcomes (Walters, 1986). By periodically reviewing and updating  
211 management strategies to ensure that management objectives are being met (Bahri et al., 2021;  
212 Walters & Hilborn, 1976), adaptive management provides inherent climate resilience by  
213 ensuring that management is responsive to changing conditions, especially under high  
214 uncertainty (Bahri et al., 2021). As a result, the United Nations Food and Agricultural  
215 Organization (FAO) identifies adaptive management as a “fundamental principle of climate-  
216 adaptive management” and highlights flexible management that is robust to uncertainty as  
217 especially valuable (Bahri et al., 2021). Adaptive management is often implemented through a  
218 cyclic process that can be divided into the following stages: (1) planning, (2) doing, (3)  
219 evaluating and learning, and (4) adjusting (Jones, 2005). We organized the identified best  
220 practices for climate-adaptive allocation within this cyclic adaptive management framework.

221 3. Allocation policies in U.S. fisheries

222 3.1. Overview

223 A large portion (46%; 228 of 491 stocks) of federally managed fish and invertebrate  
224 stocks are managed using some form of quota allocation policy (**Figure 3**). Sector-based  
225 allocation policies are most common, followed by catch shares, subsector-based, spatial, and  
226 seasonal policies. Allocation policies are especially commonly used by the U.S. East Coast  
227 FMCs (i.e., the Mid-Atlantic, South Atlantic, and New England, in order of decreasing  
228 frequency.).

229 3.2. Spatial allocations

230 Spatial allocation policies are used in the management of 12% (n=57 stocks) of federally  
231 managed stocks (**Figure 3**). All regions except for the South Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, and  
232 Caribbean employ country-based spatial allocations of transnational stocks (**Figure 4A**). The  
233 lack of country-based allocations in the South Atlantic is likely due to its distance from an  
234 international border (**Figure 1**). The lack of country-based allocations in the Gulf of Mexico,  
235 which neighbors Mexico, and in the Caribbean, which neighbors many island nations, is likely  
236 due to (1) a lack of data to quantify the transnational distribution of resources and (2) the  
237 regional prevalence of reef fish, which exhibit higher site fidelity and more granular population  
238 structure than other fish taxa (Biggs & Nemeth, 2016; Carson et al., 2011; Coleman et al.,  
239 1999). In the Pacific, country-based allocations for coastal pelagic species are based on fixed  
240 percentages (**Figure 4B**), despite awareness that these stocks experience dynamic shifts in  
241 distribution as a response to oceanographic conditions (Pozo Buil et al., 2021). In New England,  
242 country-based allocations for Eastern Georges Bank haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*,  
243 Gadidae), Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*, Gadidae), and yellowtail flounder (*Pleuronectes*  
244 *ferruginea*, Pleuronectidae) are jointly managed by the U.S. and Canada through the  
245 Transboundary Management Guidance Committee (TMGC). The TMGC determines annual  
246 allocations for all three stocks by combining both historical landings and current resource  
247 distribution according to fisheries independent trawl surveys (Andrushchenko et al., 2022). This  
248 approach is climate-adaptive because it incorporates information on recent distribution shifts. By  
249 retaining the influence of historical landings, it also balances current distributions with historical  
250 dependence. This policy was first implemented in 2003 weighing historical landings at 40% and  
251 current distribution at 60% and was annually adjusted in 5% increments until reaching the target  
252 90% current distribution to 10% historical landings weighting in 2010 (Andrushchenko et al.,  
253 2022). Such gradual changes, termed “phase ins,” allow time for fleets to adapt to changes in  
254 their allocation, which presents a good practice for reducing socioeconomic impacts when  
255 changing fisheries policies (S. Cox et al., 2019).

256

257 The Mid-Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico are the only regions to allocate quota among  
258 constituent states (**Figure 4A**). The North Pacific likely lacks state-based allocations because  
259 Alaska is the only state in the region. The lack of state-based spatial allocations in the Pacific is  
260 likely because Pacific groundfish stocks are often assumed to have stock structure matching  
261 state boundaries and thus have state-specific catch limits (PFMC, 2023b). Although the  
262 Western Pacific and Caribbean regions have island territories similar to states (**Figure 1**), they

263 do not use territorial allocations because catch limits are calculated at the island territory level,  
264 similar to the approach in the Pacific. Although state-based allocations for Mid-Atlantic bluefish  
265 (*Pomatomus saltatrix*, Pomatomidae) are fixed percentages (**Figure 4C**), they are transferable  
266 between states, which increases their adaptiveness to climate-driven shifts in distribution. In  
267 contrast, the state-based allocations for Mid-Atlantic black sea bass (*Centropristes striata*,  
268 Serranidae) and summer flounder (*Paralichthys dentatus*, Paralichthyidae) are dynamically  
269 updated, weighing both historical landings and current distribution or abundance. Specifically,  
270 when summer flounder abundance is below 9.55 million pounds, quota is allocated based on  
271 the default percentages (**Figure 4C**); when it is above this threshold, the excess quota is  
272 allocated in equal shares (with the exception of Maine, New Hampshire, and Delaware, which  
273 split 1% of the additional quota above 9.55 million pounds). Black sea bass allocations are even  
274 more spatially dynamic: 75% of the quota is allocated using the historical landings-based default  
275 percentages and the remaining 25% is regionally allocated based on regional biomass  
276 distributions estimated by the most recent stock assessment (**Figure 4C**).  
277

278 Area allocations are the only spatial allocation strategy used in the South Atlantic and  
279 are also widely used in the North Pacific and New England (**Figure 4A**). In the South Atlantic,  
280 area allocations divide quota between (1) the Gulf of Mexico and South Atlantic for black  
281 grouper (*Mycteroperca bonaci*, Serranidae), yellowtail snapper (*Ocyurus chrysurus*, Lutjanidae),  
282 and mutton snapper (*Lutjanus analis*, Lutjanidae); (2) northern and southern zones for South  
283 Atlantic king mackerel (*Scomberomorus cavalla*, Scombridae) and (3) northern, southern, and  
284 western zones for Gulf of Mexico king mackerel (**Figure 4D**). In New England, Atlantic herring  
285 (*Clupea harengus*, Clupeidae) quota is allocated among statistical areas (**Figure 4D**) and  
286 Atlantic scallop (*Placopecten magellanicus*, Pectinidae) quota is allocated among “open access”  
287 and “specified access” areas. Finally, in the North Pacific, quota is allocated among various  
288 zones and statistical areas.

289 3.3. Sector allocations

290 Sector allocations are used in the management of 27% (n=134 stocks) of federally  
291 managed stocks (**Figure 3**). The approach to allocating catch between commercial,  
292 recreational, tribal, and research sectors differs widely by region. In the South Atlantic, Gulf of  
293 Mexico, and Mid-Atlantic, which have the largest recreational fisheries of the eight management  
294 regions (NMFS, 2022) (**Figure 1**), allocations between commercial and recreational sectors are  
295 implemented as a fixed percentage of the total allowable catch, which is generally based on

historical reference periods (**Figure 5AB**). The percentage and reference periods vary by region and stock. In a nationally unique example, the management of Mid-Atlantic bluefish allows for in-season quota transfers between the commercial and recreational sectors. In the Caribbean, there are no explicit allocations of quota between commercial and recreational sectors, but the use of a constant catch harvest control rule that sets catch limits for each sector based on landings during a historical reference period (Free, Mangin, et al., 2023) represents an implicit allocation policy, as the allocation of catch remains fixed based on historical precedent (**Figure 5C**). In the remaining regions with smaller recreational fisheries, allocations to the recreational fishery are largely done through “set asides,” which remove projections of the expected recreational catch from the total allowable catch and allocate the remainder to the commercial fishery. The only exceptions are for Gulf of Maine Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*, Gadidae) and haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*, Gadidae) in New England, which are allocated using fixed percentages (**Figure 5A**), and for Pacific salmon (*Oncorhynchus* spp., Salmonidae), which is allocated using policies that increase the percent allocation to recreational fisheries at low population sizes to ensure reasonable recreational fishing opportunities (**Figure 5D**). Allocations to tribal fisheries and research are also assigned through set asides. Allocations for research are common for the scientific surveys (e.g., bottom trawl surveys) that support stock assessments as well as for programs that support cooperative research (e.g., “exempted fishing permits” program or the “research set asides” program of the New England and Mid-Atlantic).

### 3.4. Subsector allocations

Subsector, or within sector, allocations are used in the management of 15% (n=73 stocks) of federally managed stocks (**Figure 3**). They are especially widely used in the New England, North Pacific, and Pacific regions, which support a multitude of different fleets targeting diverse groundfish species (**Figures 3 & 6**). They are not used in the Western Pacific or Caribbean, potentially as a result of insufficient fleet-specific catch data. Subsector allocations are primarily used to divide catch within the commercial fishing sector (**Figure 6A**). Gulf of Mexico red snapper (*Lutjanus campechanus*, Lutjanidae), which allocates recreational catch between the for-hire (a.k.a., party boat, head boat, charter boat, 42.3%) and private fleets (57.7%), is the only stock managed using subsector allocations within the recreational sector. Commercial quota for Gulf of Alaska Pacific cod (*Gadus macrocephalus*, Gadidae) is divided between fifteen subsectors, the maximum number of divisions of any subsector-based allocation policy (**Figure 6B**). Within the commercial sector, subsector allocations are divided between fleets that differ in their: catch share program participation (16 stocks), gear type (e.g., longline,

329 gillnet, trap; 16 stocks), end use of catch (e.g., bait or food; 6 stocks), target species (e.g.,  
330 herring, non-herring; 3 stocks), and vessel tier (e.g., specialists vs. generalists; 2 stocks)  
331 (**Figure 6A**). Atlantic mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*, Scombridae) and golden tilefish  
332 (*Lopholatilus chamaeleonticeps*, Malacanthidae), both managed by the Mid-Atlantic FMC, are  
333 the only stocks for which quota is allocated among vessels exhibiting different “tiers” of  
334 participation or specialization in the fishery. The Northeast Skate Complex FMP, implemented in  
335 New England, allocates catch among vessels targeting skates for bait or for human  
336 consumption (“wing” fishery), and is the only FMP to allocate based on end use. The Northeast  
337 Multispecies FMP, also implemented in New England, is the only FMP to allocate catch among  
338 commercial fleets that do or do not participate in a catch share program.

339 3.5. Catch share allocations

340 Catch shares are used in the management of 23% (n=111 stocks) of federally managed  
341 stocks (**Figure 3**). There are currently 18 catch share programs for federally managed species  
342 in the U.S. The first program (Mid-Atlantic: Surf Clam and Ocean Quahog) was implemented in  
343 1990, and the most recent (North Pacific: Pacific Cod Trawl Cooperative Program) in 2024  
344 (**Table S3; Figure 7**). Additionally, in 2000, scallop permit holders in Alaska formed a self-  
345 organized, voluntary catch share that is managed through the Weathervane Scallop  
346 Cooperative that we include in our analyses. Catch shares are most common in the North  
347 Pacific. Currently, neither the Caribbean nor the Western Pacific implement any catch share  
348 programs. Initial allocations are typically distributed to active participants in the fishery at the  
349 time of program implementation, and are based on best years of landings during a historical  
350 reference period (**Figure 7**). However, alternative allocation procedures exist. For example, the  
351 Atlantic Sea Scallops IFQ bases allocations on historical landings and vessel size. In the case  
352 of the voluntary scallop cooperative program in Alaska, allocations are negotiated on a yearly  
353 basis by participants. For highly self-regulated programs such as AI Pollock and Alaska CDQ,  
354 allocations are also negotiated internally. In some programs, participants transfer individual  
355 allowance (quota, catch history, etc.) to cooperatives or sectors (e.g., “potential sector  
356 contribution” for New England Multispecies) on either a mandatory or voluntary basis. Some  
357 programs, including the Bering Sea and Aleutian Islands Non-Pollock (Amendment 80)  
358 Cooperative Program and the U.S. Atlantic Bluefin Tuna Longline Individual Bluefin Quota  
359 Program, were implemented to manage bycatch of non-target species in a fishery.

360

361        Many of the catch share programs in the U.S. share characteristics common to these  
362 types of programs. New entrants are uncommon because of the high cost of entry (e.g., cost of  
363 buying or leasing quota on top of cost of vessel, gear, gas, etc.). Currently, most programs allow  
364 transfers of both quota shares (permanent sale) and annual allocations (temporary lease)  
365 among entities. However, quota share caps (holdings cap) and annual allocation caps (use  
366 caps) are commonly implemented to limit consolidation (Brinson & Thunberg, 2016). Transfers  
367 can act as a mechanism for entry to a fishery, but quota is often too expensive for entry to be  
368 feasible for early career fishermen (Holland et al., 2017). To combat this obstacle, programs  
369 such as the Gulf of Alaska's Halibut and Sablefish IFQ's Community Quota Entities rely on non-  
370 profits to buy quota, and lease it to community members, although these programs tend to be  
371 underutilized (Soliman, 2015). Although uncommon, adaptive catch share programs aim to  
372 facilitate new entrants, reduce the prevalence of absentee quota owners, and ensure allocation  
373 is representative of current species distributions and fishery activity (Stephen et al., 2019). For  
374 example, the West Coast Groundfish Trawl Catch Share Program sets aside 10% of quota to  
375 address issues common to catch share programs, but this reserve has consistently been  
376 passed-through to IFQ participants because the Pacific FMC has not yet identified ways to  
377 address issues with the set-aside quota (NOAA, 2014). Adaptive catch share programs can also  
378 allow management to reclaim and redistribute quota, which presents a potential mechanism for  
379 adaptively revising allocation policies to better achieve equity and fairness goals under climate  
380 change.

381        3.6. Seasonal allocations

382        Seasonal quota allocations are only used to manage 7% (n=34 stocks) of federally  
383 managed stocks (**Figure 8**). Seasonal allocations are most common on the U.S. East Coast  
384 (**Figure 8**). On the West Coast, they are only used for Pacific sardine (*Sardinops sagax*,  
385 *Alosidae*) and select species managed by the Bering Sea-Aleutian Island and Gulf of Alaska  
386 Groundfish FMPs (not illustrated; percents unknown). Existing seasonal allocations are divided  
387 among quarters (e.g., New England silver and red hake), trimesters (e.g., Mid-Atlantic longfin  
388 inshore squid), or seasons (e.g., South Atlantic king mackerel) (**Figure 8**). In general, seasonal  
389 allocations are used to avoid catch limit overages and to curb the race to fish. A notable  
390 exception is the seasonal allocation policy for Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*, *Clupeidae*),  
391 which is used to ensure that the majority of catch comes when the demand for bait for the  
392 American lobster (*Homarus americanus*, *Nephropidae*) fishery is highest and the herring fishery  
393 is therefore most profitable. The Atlantic herring allocation policy is also noteworthy because of

394 its flexibility, which makes it climate-adaptive. The policy is determined annually and can be  
395 allocated across bi-monthly, trimester, or seasonal periods based on the recommendations of  
396 constituent states.

397 4. Allocation policies in international fisheries

398 4.1. Europe

399 The Common Fisheries Policy (CFP), which governs fisheries management in the  
400 European Union (EU), allocates EU Member States a fixed percentage of the annual total  
401 allowable catch (TAC) of more than 200 stocks based on each state's historical (1973-1978)  
402 catch (Carpenter & Williams, 2021). This policy aims to provide so-called "relative stability" for  
403 each Member State. Although the CFP provides guidance on how Member States should further  
404 distribute their allocated quota among subnational fleets, it awards States ultimate authority over  
405 these distributions. Specifically, Article 16 of the CFP states that "*each Member State shall*  
406 *decide how the fishing opportunities that are allocated to it...may be allocated to vessels flying*  
407 *its flag*" and Article 17 suggests that allocations use "*transparent and objective criteria including*  
408 *those of an environmental, social and economic nature, [which could include] the impact of*  
409 *fishing on the environment, the history of compliance, the contribution to the local economy, and*  
410 *historic catch levels*" (Carpenter & Williams, 2021). However, to date, the vast majority of  
411 subnational allocations have been based on historical catches and have rarely considered other  
412 social, economic, or environmental criteria (Carpenter & Williams, 2021; Scholaert, 2023; Seas  
413 At Risk, 2024). As a result, two-thirds of consulted stakeholders report that they do not think that  
414 Member States implement Article 17 in a satisfactory manner (Posti & Rudh, 2022). The most  
415 common reason for allocations to deviate from historical catches has been to support small-  
416 scale fishing opportunities or to support low impact fishing gears, which often go hand in hand  
417 (Seas At Risk, 2024). For example, the Swedish scampi (*Nephrops norvegicus*, Nephropidae)  
418 fishery incentivizes the use of lower impact creel traps over higher impact bottom trawls, by  
419 allocating more quota to small-scale creel fishers than would be awarded based on historical  
420 catch proportions. In a few cases, allocations have been used to encourage new entrants. For  
421 example, Ireland's coastal multispecies fishery and Malta's bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*,  
422 Scombridae) fishery reserves quota for fishermen without previous participation and catch  
423 records. Finally, Greece's bluefin tuna fishery allocates quota for vulnerable populations,  
424 including fishermen with island residency, disabled children, small vessels, or small crews.

425 These examples, though exceptions to the rule, illustrate the broad array of ecological,  
426 economic, and social objectives that quota allocation can be used to support.

427 4.2. Australia

428 Australian allocation policies vary widely across subnational jurisdictions (states and  
429 territories). In 2010, the Australian Fisheries Managers Forum identified allocation as one the  
430 most important policy issues to address (AFMF, 2010). In response, the Fisheries Research and  
431 Development Corporation formed a working group to synthesize existing allocation policies and  
432 provide recommendations for reform (FRDC, 2012). The working group report found that only  
433 two of the country's six coastal jurisdictions (Western Australia and South Australia) had clear  
434 policies for guiding allocation decisions (Neville, 2012). In 2016, another government report  
435 concluded that "*the basis for allocation is often opaque, uncertain, and/or of questionable*  
436 *efficiency*" and that "*stated policy objectives include multiple and sometimes competing goals*  
437 *that often provide limited guidance on how judgements should be made*" (Productivity  
438 Commission, 2016). Since these reports, Queensland, New South Wales, and Northern  
439 Territory have written allocation policies but have yet to implement them. Victoria and Tasmania  
440 have yet to write an allocation policy (Knuckey et al., 2019). In Western Australia and South  
441 Australia, sector allocations are made between commercial, recreational, and Indigenous fleets,  
442 and have been primarily based on historical catch, despite the fact that these allocation plans  
443 recognize the importance of other social, cultural, and economic values in making allocation  
444 decisions (Smyth et al., 2018). A lack of data on Indigenous catch has led to a default allocation  
445 of 1% to Indigenous fishermen for most fisheries with sector allocations, which is analogous to  
446 the "*de minimis*" allocations employed by the U.S. Mid-Atlantic FMC. However, the South  
447 Australia management plan for Goolwa pipi (*Latona deltoides*, Donacidae), a small saltwater  
448 clam, allows for trading between sectors, and the Indigenous allocation has reached as high as  
449 25% of the catch. A 2021 review of all Australian allocation policies found no examples of  
450 subsector allocations, which the review described as being difficult to implement due to their  
451 controversial political nature (McShane et al., 2021). In several jurisdictions, panels of  
452 independent experts and fishing industry representatives are convened to make or adjust  
453 allocation policies (Mazur et al., 2020). These reviews can be triggered when there is sufficient  
454 stakeholder feedback, when a sector exceeds its allocation, or when the management plan is  
455 reviewed or changed substantially. If the panel determines a review is necessary based on the  
456 collected evidence, which includes information on historical catch, current allocation and  
457 management practices, and species biology, the panel makes recommendations to the minister

458 of the relevant department, who makes the ultimate decision. This process is similar to NOAA  
459 guidelines for U.S. allocation policy reviews (Morrison, 2016a, 2017b), except for its use of an  
460 independent panel to make unbiased judgements.

461 4.3. New Zealand

462 The majority of New Zealand's harvested marine species are managed through the  
463 Quota Management System (QMS), which is the national program under which catch limits are  
464 set and allocated between commercial, recreational, and customary fishery sectors (Lock &  
465 Leslie, 2007). Customary fisheries, which are managed by *tangata whenua* (people of the land  
466 with authority in a particular *rohe moana* [fishing area]) for non-commercial food gathering, were  
467 secured by the Treaty of Waitangi (Fisheries Claims) Settlement Act 1992. The allocation  
468 between sectors varies by species (Fisheries of New Zealand, 2024a) but is generally  
469 dominated by the commercial sector (**Figure S3**). Within the commercial sector, quota is  
470 allocated among commercial fishermen that individually own Annual Catch Entitlements (ACEs)  
471 in the QMS catch share system. ACEs may be sold or leased, but there are species-specific  
472 maximum holding limits to curtail aggregation, diversify ownership, and promote pathways for  
473 entering the fishery. There are also minimum holdings limits (Fisheries of New Zealand, 2024b),  
474 which are presumably used to reduce complexity, increase attainment, and/or encourage  
475 stewardship, though we cannot find a stated motivation for these limits. Initial allocations were  
476 made based on each vessel owner's catch history (i.e., owner's choice of catch from the  
477 1981/82, 82/83, or 83/84 season) and negotiations through a complex appeal process. When  
478 first introduced in 1986, these allocations were made as a fixed tonnage based on the  
479 Government's misguided belief that catch limits would only increase with improved management  
480 (Lock & Leslie, 2007). However, in 1990, the near collapse of the orange roughy (*Hoplostethus*  
481 *atlanticus*, Trachichthyidae) fishery led the Government to convert shares to a fixed proportion,  
482 based on quota owners holdings at the time of the transition. In the interim years, the  
483 Government bought back surplus quota when the sum of quota exceeded the catch limit, which  
484 was predictably expensive and inefficient. The Māori, the indigenous people of New Zealand,  
485 were excluded from the initial commercial quota allocation process. The 1996 Fisheries Act  
486 determined that the Māori would be allocated 20% of the commercial quota for all new species  
487 added to the QMS and the remainder would be allocated to fishing permit holders based on  
488 their catch history. In 2022, the Māori were reported to own 33% of commercial quota (47% by  
489 value) and 100% of the customary quota (Hudson, 2022).

490 4.4. Pacific Island skipjack tuna

491 The Parties to the Nauru Agreement (PNA) (PNA Tuna, 2010), which governs the  
492 management of skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*, Scombridae) in nine Pacific Island  
493 countries, has been heralded as one of the best climate-adaptive spatial allocation systems  
494 (Aqorau et al., 2018). The PNA’s “vessel day scheme” (VDS) (PNA Tuna, 2011) was explicitly  
495 developed to cooperatively manage this highly migratory species as it shifts its distribution  
496 across the waters of PNA members due to changing oceanographic conditions. The VDS is a  
497 “cap and trade” system that sets the total annual purse-seine fishing effort at ~45,000 days and  
498 allocates these days to member countries based on the area of their Exclusive Economic Zones  
499 (EEZs) and the preceding 7-8 years of catch. Importantly, the VDS also provides a pathway for  
500 PNA members to trade quota in response to El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO). During the  
501 La Niña phase of ENSO, the catch is concentrated in the west, whereas during the El Niño  
502 phase, the catch is concentrated in the east (Lehodey et al., 1997). With trading, the VDS allows  
503 countries to purchase fishing days when tuna are located in their region and sell fishing days  
504 when tuna are located elsewhere. In this way, the VDS allows member countries to profit  
505 regardless of where skipjack tuna are caught that year. This system is expected to provide  
506 community resilience as skipjack tuna shift east due to directional climate change (Bell et al.,  
507 2013). The expectation is that, over time, PNA countries in the east will gradually receive  
508 greater allocations as their catch history increases relative to countries in the west, and  
509 countries in the west will be compensated for these directional losses through the annual  
510 leasing of their remaining allocation (Aqorau et al., 2018).

511 5. Best practices for climate-adaptive allocation policies

512 Based on our systematic review of U.S. allocation policies and brief review of  
513 international policies, we identified eight best practices for implementing or enhancing the  
514 adaptive management of quota allocation policies (**Figure 9**). These best practices are to: (1)  
515 define clear and measurable management objectives; (2) define and collect data required to  
516 assess and adjust allocation policies; (3) facilitate quota transfers between regions, sectors, and  
517 individuals; (4) balance historical and contemporary resource access in setting allocations; (5)  
518 ensure opportunities for new entrants; (6) allocate quota for research and experimentation; (7)  
519 reduce impacts of changes to allocation policies on stakeholders; and (8) conduct regular  
520 reviews of allocation policies. We detail these recommendations in the sections below.

521 5.1 Define clear and measurable management objectives

522 The adaptive management of quota allocation policies depends on the definition of clear  
523 and measurable management objectives (Plummer et al., 2012). Without these, managers will  
524 be unable to track whether objectives are being met or determine if adjustments are necessary,  
525 which is especially problematic as climate-driven changes in resource availability accelerate the  
526 need for policy modifications. We recommend that each FMP/FEP or other relevant policy  
527 document (e.g., catch share policy) define allocation objectives, discuss tradeoffs between  
528 competing objectives (Heen et al., 2014; Mardle et al., 2000), and identify data sources that can  
529 be used to monitor progress towards the objectives (see *section 5.2* for more details). Adaptive  
530 management of allocation policies provides inherent climate resilience by ensuring that policies  
531 are regularly revisited to ensure that they are achieving their objectives as both oceanographic  
532 and socioeconomic conditions change. There may also be opportunities to explicitly incorporate  
533 climate change into allocation policy objectives. For example, allocation could be used as a tool  
534 for mitigating the negative impacts of climate change, especially on vulnerable communities, by  
535 allocating the most climate-vulnerable communities (Colburn et al., 2016; Himes-Cornell &  
536 Kasperski, 2015; Koehn et al., 2022) more quota than their historical share (**Figure 10C**). While  
537 allocations have historically sought to maintain “horizontal equity” where allocations are  
538 proportional to historical access (**Figure 10B**), the Magnuson-Stevens Act and associated  
539 guidelines leave the door open for alternative definitions of equity (W. Morrison, 2016b). For  
540 example, managers could set goals for “vertical equity” (**Figure 10C**) and use allocation as a  
541 tool for compensating communities disadvantaged by historical allocations or by the impacts of  
542 contemporary or future climate change (Kourantidou et al., 2021).

543 5.2 Define and collect data required to assess and adjust allocation policies

544 The adaptive management process hinges on the definition and evaluation of indicators  
545 for tracking management performance and for determining when adjustments need to be made  
546 to management strategies or even management objectives (Walters, 2007). This requires  
547 resources to be directed to data collection and analysis that can inform whether allocations are  
548 achieving their objectives and subsequently guide revisions if they are not. The following list of  
549 potential indicators is not comprehensive but illustrates some of the data types that could be  
550 useful for tracking performance. First, catch reporting and monitoring should be specific enough  
551 to evaluate attainment (i.e., the percent of the allocation caught annually) among the entities  
552 allocated catch. If rigorous catch monitoring is established and a specific entity (e.g., state,  
553 sector, subsector, etc.) is consistently under its quota, then reallocation of that quota to another

entity, especially if that entity consistently meets its quota, may be justified. Second, reliable estimates of recreational catch, which is notoriously challenging to quantify, and well-designed and well-supported survey methods (National Academy, 2006) are necessary to ensure fair access for this sector (Ryan et al., 2016). Third, reliable estimates of discards may be necessary to determine whether the current allocation is using the resource efficiently and minimizing waste and ecosystem impacts. Fourth, demographic information on fishery participants throughout the supply chain – ranging from owners, captains, crew, processors, and dealers – especially on vulnerable groups, is necessary for evaluating equity and fairness of allocation policies (NAS, 2024). Fifth, knowledge of species distributions, which may require coordination across jurisdictions, will involve collection, curation, and analysis of fisheries-independent survey data (see DisMAP as example; NOAA Fisheries, 2024a). Sixth, regional Climate Vulnerability Assessments (Morrison et al., 2015, 2016; NOAA Fisheries, 2024b) should be revisited to ensure the inclusion of all federally managed species to better support the consideration of climate vulnerability in allocation decisions. Finally, to effectively consider habitat impacts of a gear, protected species bycatch, or other factors in making allocations, data must be collected to inform these judgements. Ultimately, the data collected should be aligned with management objectives; a management objective may prove ineffective if it is not measurable or is not actively measured.

### 572 5.3 Facilitate quota transfers between regions, sectors, and individuals

573 The ability for quota owners to transfer quota access rights – either temporarily through  
574 leasing or permanently through sale – provides flexibility for fishermen to adapt to climate  
575 change and other shocks (Tokunaga et al., 2023). The temporary transfer of quota access  
576 through leasing provides in-season flexibility and the ability for fishermen to rapidly respond to  
577 changes in ways that are more self-governed. The permanent transfer of quota access provides  
578 a mechanism for fishermen who have lost access to a resource to be compensated and  
579 provides capital necessary for adapting to this loss of livelihood provisioning. While the ability to  
580 transfer quota between individuals is a feature of most catch share programs, the ability to  
581 transfer quota between states, sectors, and subsectors is less common, which presents a key  
582 opportunity to enhance climate resilience. As one example, limited ability to transfer or lease  
583 quota between the at-sea and inshore Bering Sea pollock (*Gadus chalcogrammus*, Gadidae)  
584 subsectors have limited the fisheries ability to respond to changes in species distributions,  
585 bycatch management, and market dynamics (Criddle & Strong, 2013). These programs could  
586 be modeled after Mid-Atlantic bluefish, which allows for in-season transfers between the

587 commercial and recreational sectors and between states, and Mid-Atlantic black sea bass  
588 (*Centropristes striata*, Serranidae) and summer flounder (*Paralichthys dentatus*,  
589 Paralichthyidae), which also allows for transfers between states. In catch share programs, a key  
590 risk in allowing transfers is the consolidation of quota among a few individual entities, some of  
591 which may no longer actively fish or even reside in the community; however, this adverse  
592 outcome can be curbed through the use of allocation caps that limit the percent of quota that  
593 can be possessed or used by an individual entity (Brinson & Thunberg, 2016). This is consistent  
594 with National Standard 4, which requires that “*no particular individual, corporation, or other*  
595 *entity acquires an excessive share of such privileges*” (§ 600.325 National Standard 4—  
596 Allocations, 1998). The transferability of quota also serves to: (1) increase economic efficiency,  
597 by ensuring that quota aggregates among those with easiest access to the resource; (2)  
598 promote conservation, by ensuring that fishing effort occurs in proportion to biomass, thereby  
599 avoiding the local depletion that could occur if quota remained tied to areas with declining  
600 abundance (Pinsky & Fogarty, 2012); and (3) provide a mechanism for fishermen losing access  
601 to be directly compensated and for fishermen gaining access to capitalize on emerging  
602 resources, which could compensate for climate-driven losses in other fisheries in their portfolio  
603 (Cline et al., 2017; Samhouri et al., 2024). Finally, the ability to transfer quota is aligned with  
604 resilience principles that encourage self-governance and flexibility (Mason et al., 2022).  
605 Subsequently, the FAO recommends the establishment of tradable fishing rights among nations  
606 as a tool to either respond or (ideally) anticipate distributional shifts, and similar policies could  
607 be implemented across a range of jurisdictional boundaries (Bahri et al., 2021).

608 5.4 Balance historical and contemporary resource access in setting allocations

609 The adaptation of allocation policies to climate-driven changes in resource distribution  
610 will require weighing both historical and contemporary access to resources (**Figure 11**). The  
611 tendency for current allocation policies to interpret equity as the maintenance of historical  
612 access is unlikely to meet fisheries objectives as stocks shift in their availability. A failure to  
613 adjust allocations in response to these shifts could undermine (1) fairness and equity, by  
614 preventing those with growing local fisheries from benefiting from these gains, (2) efficiency, by  
615 requiring vessels to travel further to access the resource, which increases costs, safety  
616 concerns, and carbon emissions (Papaioannou et al., 2021; Scherrer et al., 2024); and (3)  
617 conservation, by promoting local depletion if quota holders continue to fish in areas at the  
618 trailing edge of a shifting distribution (Pinsky & Fogarty, 2012). However, at the other end of the  
619 spectrum, fully adjusting allocation policies in response to contemporary or projected changes in

resource distributions could also introduce inequities by reducing access for stakeholders who have historically relied on the resource (Palacios-Abrantes et al., 2023). Thus, adjusting allocations by weighing both historical and contemporary resource access may present a useful compromise, especially when quota is transferable (see section 5.3). This can be achieved by calculating allocation percentages by weighing historical landings with recent landings (e.g., sector allocations in the majority of South Atlantic snapper-grouper stocks) or with current biomass distribution as estimated from either a survey (e.g., area allocations in the Gulf of Alaska pollock fishery) or an assessment model (e.g., state allocations in the Mid-Atlantic black sea bass commercial fishery). Among these approaches, we recommend weighing current conditions based on the distribution of the resource, as the distribution of the catch lags behind resource shifts and is inherently limited by existing allocation policies and management regulations (Pinsky & Fogarty, 2012). Additionally, we recommend mapping current distributions using fisheries-independent surveys given the high temporal and spatial resolution of these surveys (Maureaud et al., 2024) compared to stock assessments, which are updated less regularly (e.g., every 2-10 years; Neubauer et al., 2018) and represent coarse spatial structure. Ultimately, the weight assigned to historical and contemporary access is a policy decision that should be explicitly linked to policy objectives, but in general, we recommend that historical access be favored for static stocks and that contemporary access be favored for shifting stocks. In the Mid-Atlantic, scientists and managers have begun to explore the viability of an automated “dynamic allocation” procedure that uses both current distributions and historical catch to update allocations for shifting stocks without requiring renegotiations and time intensive FMP amendments (Vogel et al., 2024).

## 5.5 Ensure opportunities for new entrants

Any policy that allocates natural resources among harvesters should consider new entrants seeking to gain access to the resource (Cox, 2009). The initial capital required to obtain commercial fishing permits, quota, gear, and/or vessels limits new participants (Cullenberg et al., 2017). These barriers are particularly steep in fisheries with catch shares or other forms of limited entry programs, and have played a role in the ‘graying of the fleet,’ or the increased average age of commercial fishermen (Cramer et al., 2018). Climate change is likely to exacerbate the new entrant problem as climate-driven shifts in the distribution of fish and invertebrates will make the resource available to new regions, sectors, and individuals (Pinsky et al., 2018). A pathway for providing access to these new participants is critical for increasing economic efficiency, perceptions of fairness, and the stability of allocation decisions (A. Cox,

653 2009). Access for new entrants could be catalyzed through set asides reserved for new entrants  
654 or through quota and/or permit banks that ease access for new participants. For example,  
655 through the Adaptive Management Program (AMP; Amendment 20 of the Pacific Groundfish  
656 FMP) the Pacific FMC sets aside quota from the groundfish catch share program in a “public  
657 trust pool” that can be used to support conservation, new entrants, community stability, or to  
658 compensate for unintended consequences of the catch share program (PFMC & NMFS, 2010).  
659 Unfortunately, the program has yet to be used and instead AMP quota has been passed to  
660 fishermen in proportion with quota share holding, limiting insights into both the benefits and  
661 pitfalls of new entrant set asides (Nayani & Warlick, 2018). The leasing of quota or permits to  
662 new participants through fisheries trusts (banks), potentially at rates lower than they would  
663 receive from a traditional owner, can help new entrants gain experience and capital before  
664 buying quota or permits themselves (Kauer et al., 2024). For example, in 2010, the Maine  
665 Department of Marine Resources purchased eleven federal Northeast Multispecies permits,  
666 which it leases to fishermen through the Maine Groundfish Permit Bank (Maine DMR, 2022).  
667 Other examples include the Alaska Community Quota Entities, which lease groundfish and crab  
668 quota to catch share members (NPFMC, 2016) and the Monterey Bay Fisheries Trust, which  
669 leases groundfish quota at reduced rates to local fishermen (Kauer et al., 2024). Finally, quota  
670 transfers (see section 5.3) are a useful tool for fishermen seeking to expand their participation in  
671 an emerging fishery, which can enhance climate resilience if other fisheries in their portfolios are  
672 experiencing climate-driven declines (Cline et al., 2017; Samhouri et al., 2024).

## 673 5.6 Allocate quota for research and experimentation

674 The allocation of quota towards programs that support research and experimentation  
675 could incentivize adaptive innovation in response to climate change. This could include the  
676 reservation of quota for existing programs such as “research set asides” (RSAs) or for  
677 “exempted fishing permits” (EFPs). Research set asides, which have only been used by the  
678 New England and Mid-Atlantic FMCs, represent a portion of quota that is set aside for vessels  
679 engaged in scientific research. The set-aside quota is awarded through a competitive grant  
680 process and the sale of the associated catch both funds the research and compensates the  
681 vessels supporting the research (NOAA, 2024). These programs have been especially  
682 successful for high value stocks such as Atlantic scallops (*Placopecten magellanicus*,  
683 Pectinidae) and monkfish (*Lophius americanus*, Lophiidae) in New England (Vogel et al. 2024),  
684 where they have supported innovative research on climate change and population dynamics,  
685 improved survey methods, and bycatch avoidance (NOAA, 2024). The program in the Mid-

686 Atlantic lasted from 2002-2014 and funded 41 projects totalling \$16 million in value (MAFMC,  
687 2024) on issues ranging from black sea bass trap design to evaluations of summer flounder size  
688 and bag limits (MAFMC, 2021b). The program was discontinued due to concerns of misuse  
689 (e.g., misreporting of landings) and concerns that the quality of the science did not justify the  
690 costs (Seagraves, 2014). While some projects, such as the trawl survey conducted by the  
691 Northeast Area Monitoring and Assessment Program, generated data used in management,  
692 many other projects failed scientific review post-completion, raising concerns about proposal  
693 vetting and project oversight (MAFMC, 2024). Thus, expansion of the research set aside  
694 program would require reforms that address these issues. Exempted fishing permits are a  
695 national program supported by all of the FMCs (NMFS, 1996). These permits allow fishermen  
696 who partner with scientists to conduct cooperative research to fish in ways that may not  
697 otherwise be permitted. The dedicated allocation of quota to these programs could incentivize  
698 research into adaptive actions that promote climate resilience (Bonito et al., 2022). For example,  
699 research could reveal methods for targeting emerging fisheries, avoiding bycatch problems,  
700 generating more reliable indices of abundance that support better management, marketing new  
701 products, or making gears more efficient (Free, Anderson, et al., 2023).

## 702 5.7 Reduce impacts of changes to allocation policies on stakeholders

703 The adjustment of quota allocation policies in response to climate change and other  
704 socioecological factors will inevitably result in a set of “winners” who gain quota and “losers”  
705 whose quota is taken away. A number of actions can be taken to minimize the socioeconomic  
706 impacts to individuals and communities losing access to quota when allocation policies change,  
707 directly supporting National Standard 8 of the Magnuson-Stevens Act to “minimize adverse  
708 economic impacts on [fishing] communities” (§ 600.345 National Standard 8—Communities,  
709 1998) First, the gradual “phase in” or “phase out” of changes to allocation policies provides time  
710 to adapt. Phased allocation changes have been pioneered by the Mid-Atlantic FMC, which, for  
711 example, used a 7-year phase-in period to reallocate commercial bluefish quota among fourteen  
712 East Coast states (MAFMC, 2021a). Second, the preservation of some minimal amount of quota  
713 through a “*de minimis*” allocation guarantees at least some level of access for historical  
714 participants when allocations are dynamically updated based on the current abundance or  
715 distribution of resources. *De minimis* allocations have been used by the Mid-Atlantic FMC to  
716 preserve minimum levels of commercial access to bluefish by states (MAFMC, 2021a) and have  
717 been used by the Pacific FMC to preserve minimum levels of access to South of Cape Falcon  
718 Coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*, Salmonidae) for the recreational sector when biomass

719 fluctuates (PFMC, 2021). Such policies could preserve access if the adjustment of spatial quota  
720 allocations in response to survey-based (e.g., New England TMGC-managed stocks) or model-  
721 based (e.g., Mid-Atlantic black sea bass) estimates of spatial distribution became more  
722 common. Finally, the redistribution of allocation through the sale of quota rather than through  
723 policy adjustments allows those losing quota to be directly compensated, which provides capital  
724 necessary for adaptation (Mason et al., 2022).

725 5.8 Conduct regular reviews of allocation policies

726 Adaptive management requires the periodic review of policies to ensure that objectives  
727 are being met or if adjustments are needed (Walters, 1986). Thus, managers must develop a  
728 clear procedure for determining when to review allocation policies, whether to adjust them, and  
729 how to make adjustments when necessary. A number of NOAA policy documents provide useful  
730 guidance on scheduling and conducting allocation policy reviews (W. Morrison, 2016b, 2017b,  
731 2017c) but implementation of this guidance has lagged (US GAO, 2020). These guidelines  
732 suggest that reviews could be scheduled at regular intervals, prompted by stakeholder  
733 feedback, or triggered by a tracked performance indicator. Managers could blend approaches to  
734 balance the advantages and disadvantages associated with each approach. For example,  
735 allocation reviews require time and resources that compete with other FMC responsibilities  
736 (PFMC, 2023a), and regular reviews should not be scheduled too frequently. Instead, regularly  
737 scheduled reviews could operate as a failsafe in case a review is not triggered by either  
738 stakeholder input or a tracked performance indicator within a set timeframe. The ability for  
739 stakeholder feedback to prompt allocation reviews strengthens inclusive, participatory, and  
740 transparent governance, which are central to climate-resilient fisheries management (Mason et  
741 al., 2022); however, to avoid taking on allocation reviews too frequently, clear criteria for  
742 stakeholder-prompted reviews must be established. Furthermore, some stakeholder groups  
743 may have better representation and access to managing bodies than others, underscoring the  
744 value of regular or indicator-triggered reviews to ensure equity and fairness for  
745 underrepresented groups. Triggering reviews based on a tracked performance indicator is a  
746 compelling approach because it forces managers to define clear and measurable management  
747 objectives. The indicator could be economic (e.g., cost-benefit, economic impact, or economic  
748 efficiency analyses; Edwards, 1990; Plummer et al., 2012), social (e.g., metrics of resilience,  
749 vulnerability, or well-being; Jepson & Colburn, 2013), ecological (e.g., changes in stock status,  
750 increases in discards, changes in species distribution, etc.), or a combination, noting that

751 National Standard 5 prevents allocation decisions from being made based on economics alone  
752 (§ 600.330 National Standard 5—Efficiency, 1998).

## 753 6. Conclusions

754 Quota allocations are a highly versatile fisheries management tool. They can be used to  
755 promote fairness and equity, improve economic efficiency, prevent local depletion, avoid catch  
756 limit overages, reduce bycatch, and curb the race to fish. However, without adaptive  
757 management, climate change threatens the ability for these important policies to achieve their  
758 intended objectives by altering the abundance, distribution, and phenology of both target and  
759 non-target species. First and foremost, the success of adaptive management depends on  
760 clearly defined management objectives so that the performance of management strategies can  
761 be regularly evaluated and updated when needed. Given the “fairness and equity” objectives  
762 common to most national and international allocation policies, a much needed first step for  
763 operationalizing adaptive quota allocation management is clearly defining these important but  
764 often murky concepts. In the absence of clear definitions, the vast majority of quota allocation  
765 policies have envisioned “fairness and equity” as the maintenance of historical access to fishing  
766 opportunities. However, the continuation of such an objective under directional climate change  
767 is ill-advised if not impossible. This opens the door for envisioning new fairness and equity  
768 objectives that could focus on incorporating historically excluded participants, creating  
769 opportunities for new entrants, or offsetting negative impacts from climate change, offshore wind  
770 development, or other factors inhibiting fisheries, all while protecting opportunities for historical  
771 participants and providing time for them to adapt as stocks shift beneath them. Here, through an  
772 analysis of “bright spots” of climate-adaptive allocation policies, we provide a roadmap toward  
773 helping allocation policies to achieve their fairness and equity goals in a rapidly changing ocean.

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786 Data availability statement

787 All of the data used in the paper are either available in the supplemental materials or in the  
788 following GitHub repository: [https://github.com/zoekitchel/cc\\_allocation](https://github.com/zoekitchel/cc_allocation)

789 Conflict of interests statement

790 CMF serves on the Scientific and Statistical Committee (SSC) of the Pacific Fisheries  
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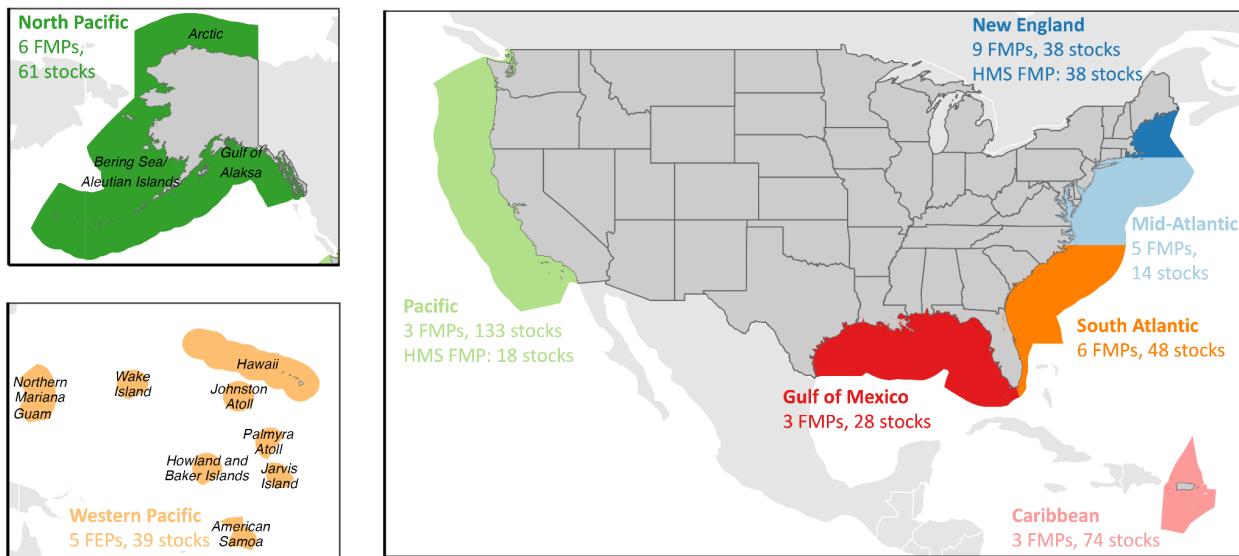
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1142 Tables and Figures

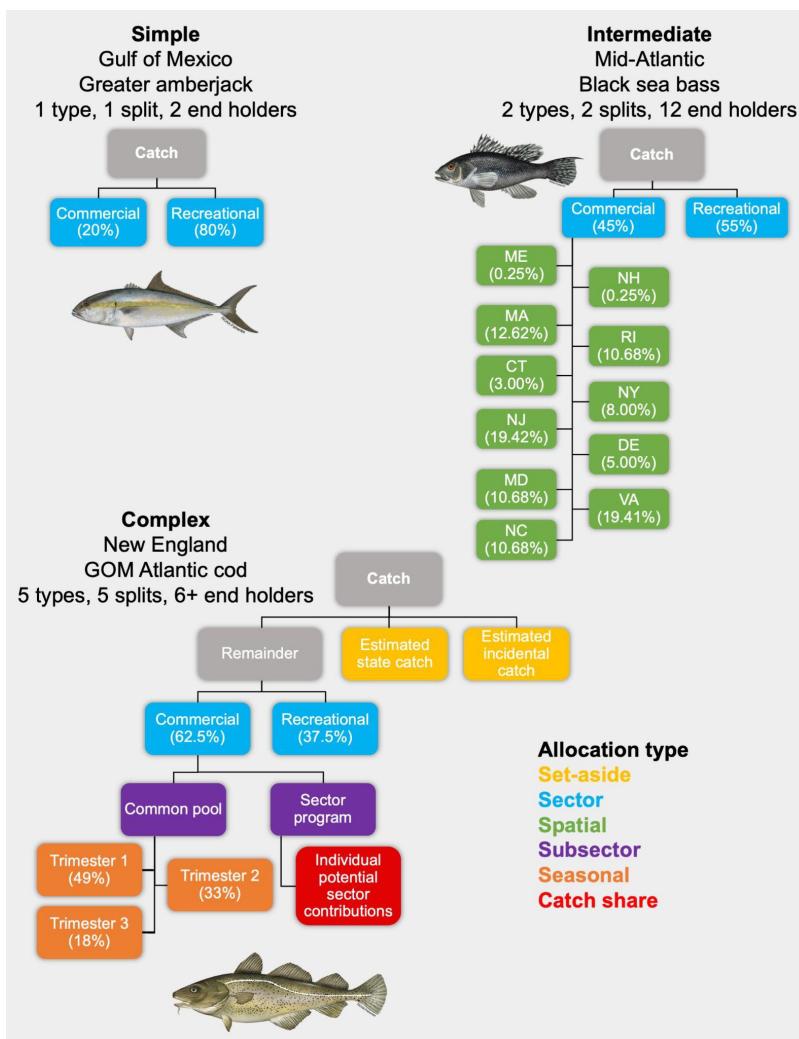


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**Figure 1.** The jurisdiction of the eight U.S. regional Fishery Management Councils (FMCs), the number of Fishery Management Plans (FMPs) or Fishery Ecosystem Plans (FEPs) developed by each FMC, and the number of stocks managed by each FMC through these FMPs. The Atlantic and Pacific Highly Migratory Species (HMS) FMPs are developed by NOAA but are listed with the Pacific and New England FMCs.

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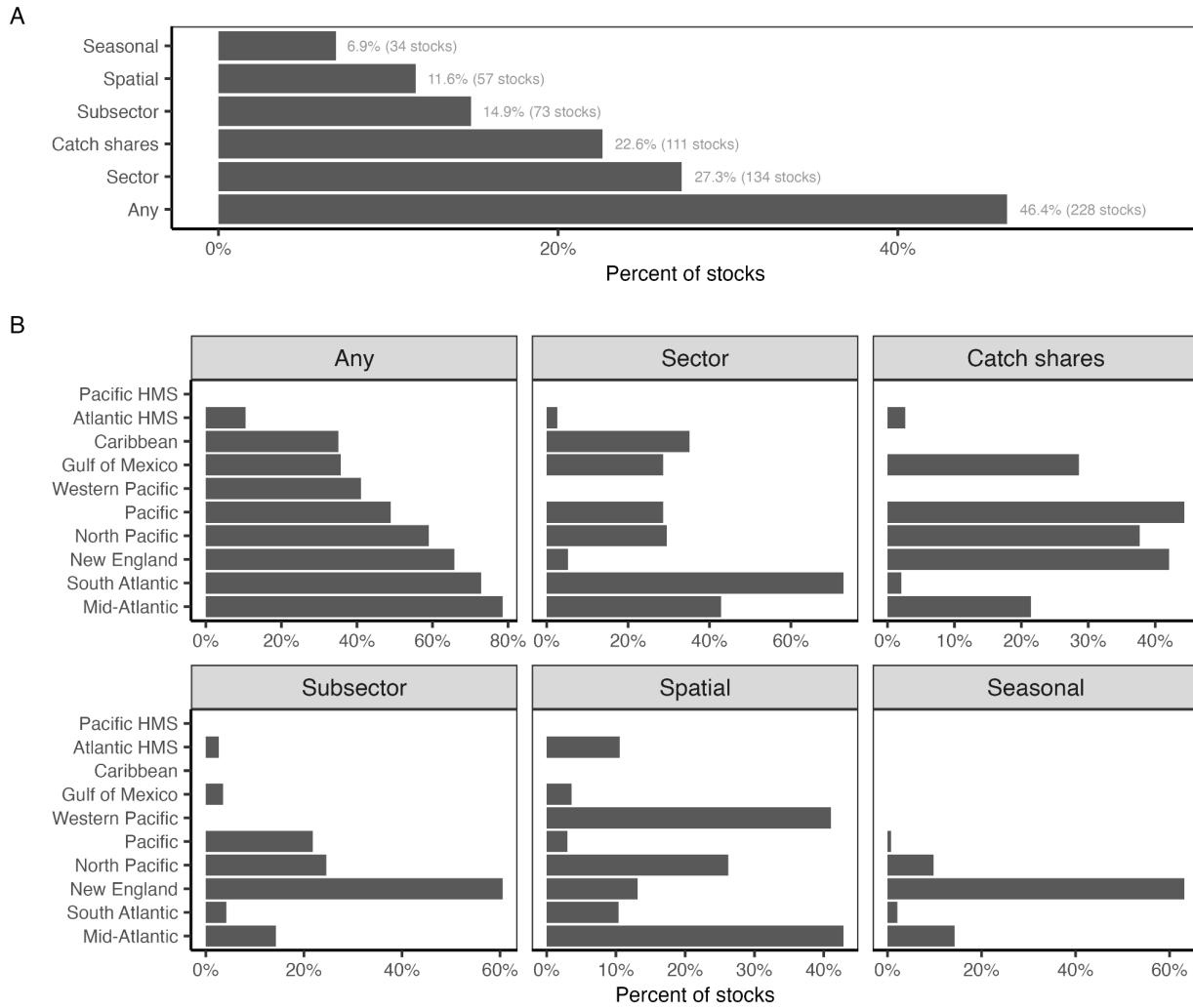
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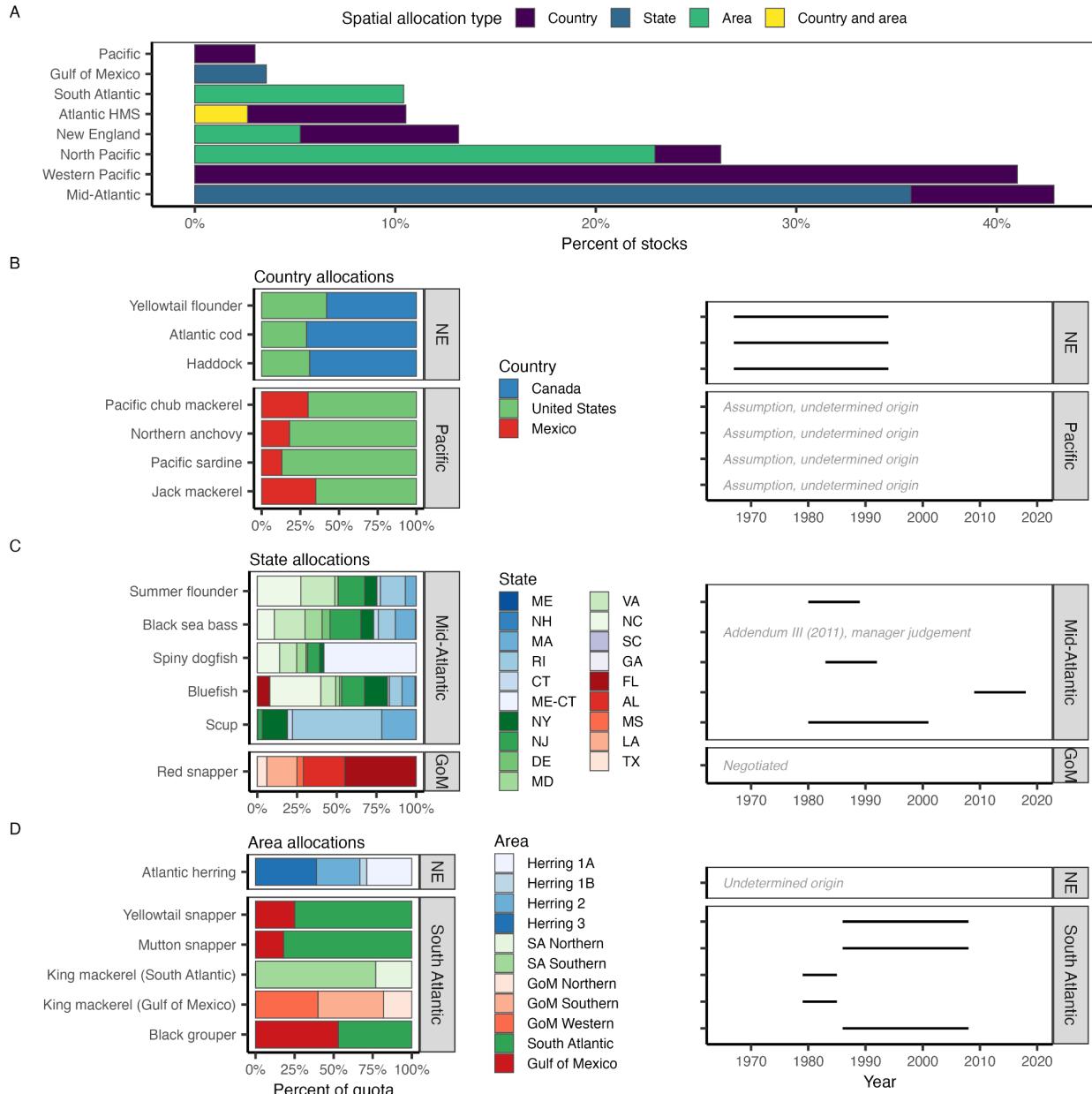
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**Figure 2.** Flowcharts illustrating examples of quota allocation policies of low, medium, and high complexity. Box color indicates the type of quota allocation policy. Both of the illustrated “set asides” are forms of subsector allocations.



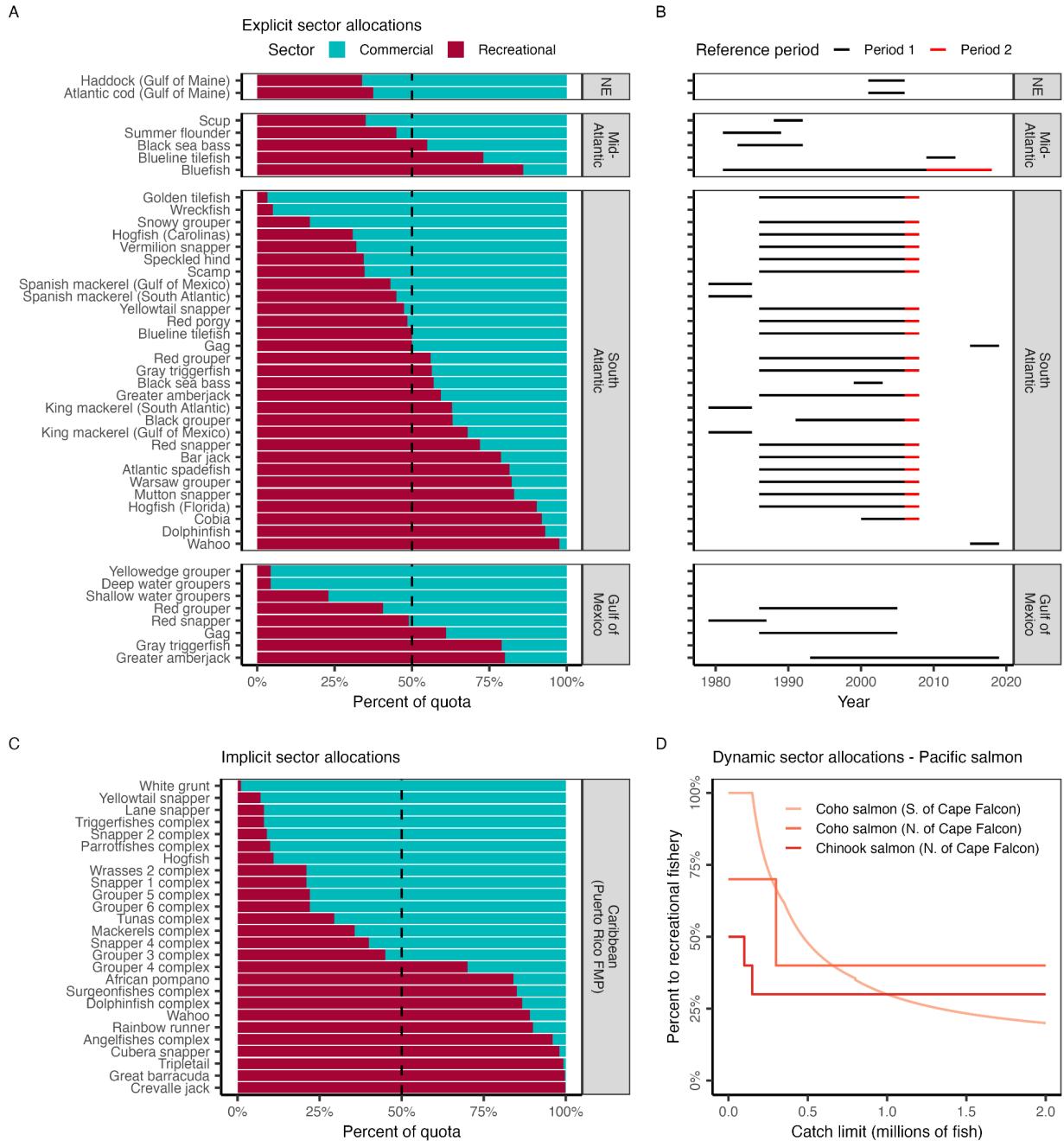
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1156 **Figure 3.** The percent of federally managed fish and invertebrate stocks managed using quota  
1157 allocation policies (A) nationwide and (B) by regional Fishery Management Council.



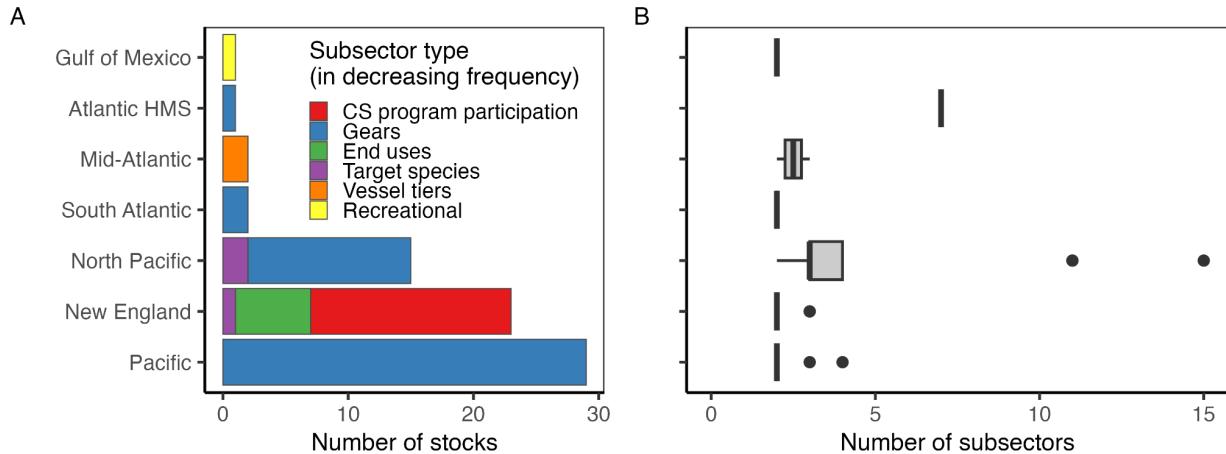
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**Figure 4.** The (A) percent of stocks managed with spatial allocation policies by regional Fishery Management Council (FMC) and spatial allocation type and the percent allocations for stocks managed with (B) country-, (C) state-, and (D) area-based spatial allocation policies. In (C), color groups indicate the FMC representing each state: New England (blues), Mid-Atlantic (greens), South Atlantic (purples), and Gulf of Mexico (reds). In (D), color groups indicate the area scheme: herring zones (blues), South Atlantic king mackerel zones (greens), and Gulf of Mexico king mackerel zones (reds). The Atlantic bluefin tuna stock is managed by the Atlantic Highly Migratory Species (HMS) FMP using both country- and area-based spatial allocations.



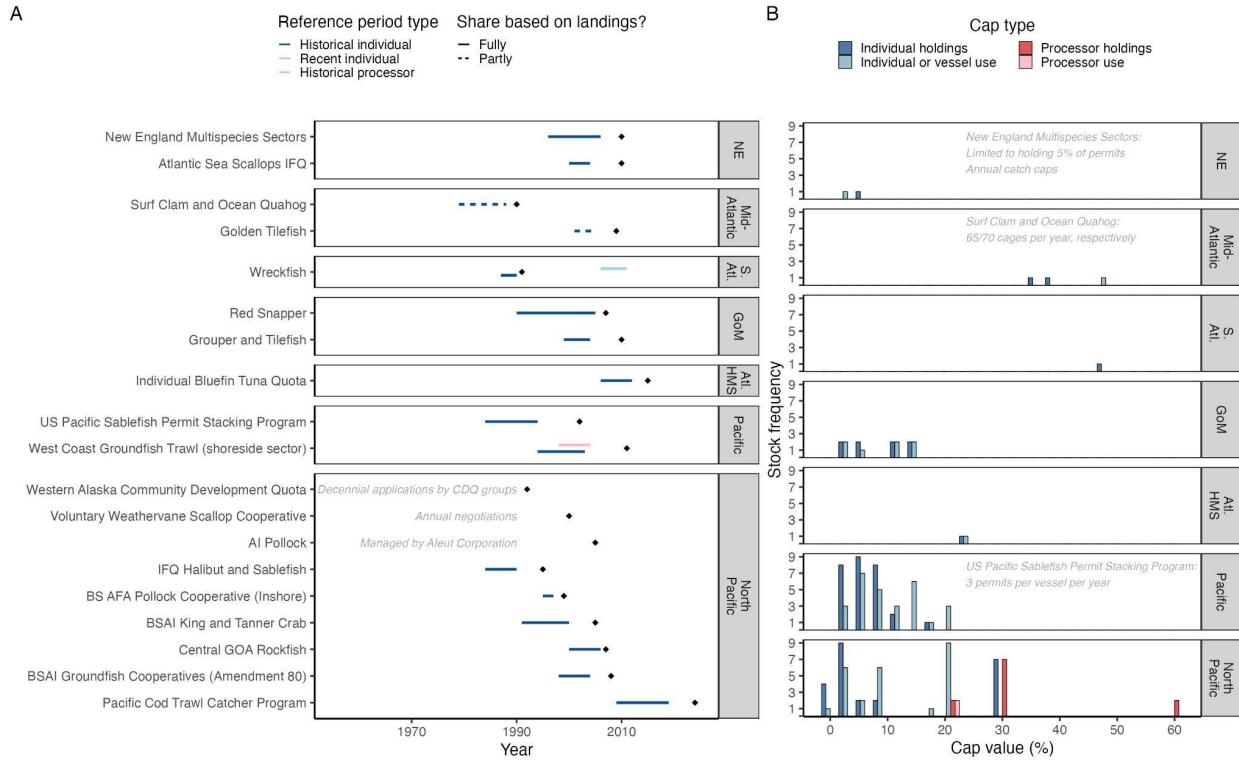
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**Figure 5. Sector-based allocation policies by regional Fishery Management Council (FMC).**  
 Panel A shows the percent of quota allocated to commercial and recreational fisheries by FMC and stock. Stocks are sorted in order of increasing allocations to recreational fisheries. The vertical dashed line indicates a 50:50 split. Panel B shows the reference period used to derive the allocation policy (lines). A few policies weigh the recent time period in addition to the selected reference time period. Panel C illustrates the implicit allocation policies resulting from setting fixed catch limits based on historical catch time series for stocks managed by the CFMC Puerto Rico FMP. Panel D shows the dynamic sector allocation policies used to vary sector allocations based on salmon stock size for stocks managed by the PFMC Pacific Salmon FMP.



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**Figure 6.** The **(A)** number of stocks managed using subsector allocations by regional Fishery Management Council (FMC) and subsector type and **(B)** number of subsectors included within the subsector allocation policies implemented by each FMC. In **(A)**, all but the “Recreational” subsector type are commercial subsectors. In the boxplots, the solid line indicates the median, the box indicates the interquartile range (IQR; 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers indicate 1.5 times the IQR, and points indicate outliers.

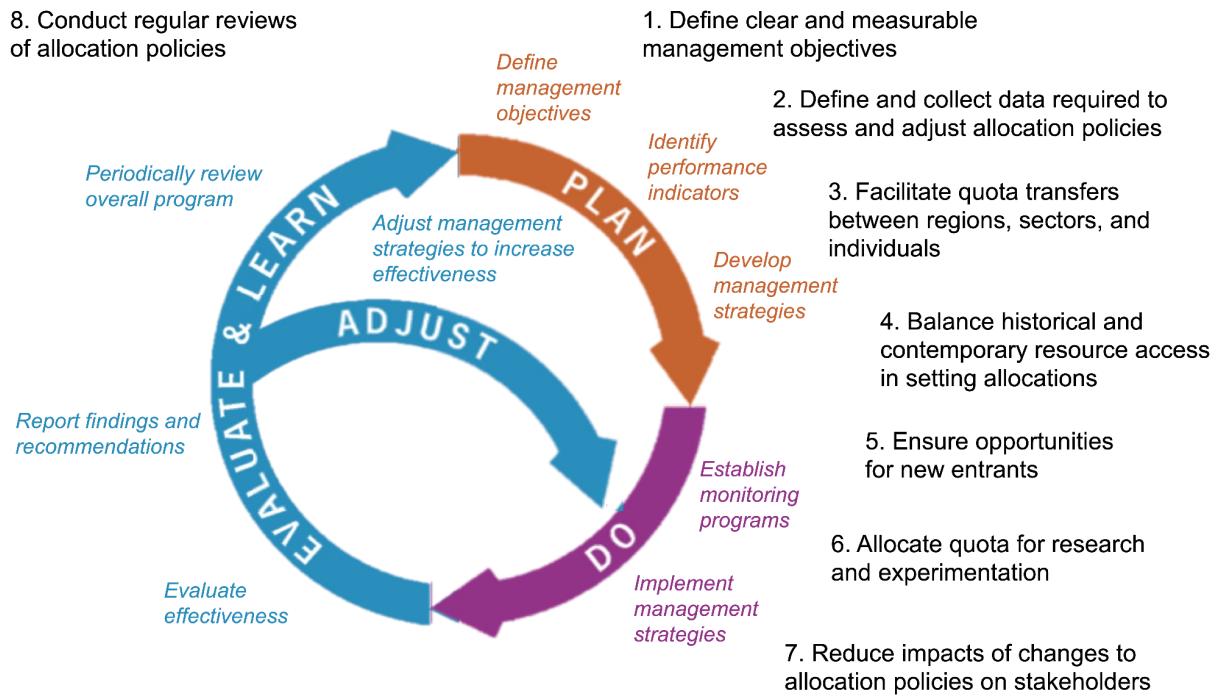


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1185 **Figure 7.** The (A) reference period and year of implementation (diamond) for allocations by  
1186 program and regional Fishery Management Council (FMC) and (B) stock frequency distribution  
1187 of holding and use caps by FMC. In (A), reference periods are colored by type (historical vs.  
1188 recent, individual vs. processor). Programs with reference periods are sorted by implementation  
1189 year. In 2012, inactive wreckfish quota was redistributed using a recent reference period (light  
1190 blue). Dashed lines highlight programs in which shares are partly rather than fully based on  
1191 landings (for Golden Tilefish, also depends on tier; for Surf Clam and Quahog, also depends on  
1192 vessel size). Gray text explains protocol for programs that do not use landings to determine  
1193 shares. Reference period can vary by species (New England Multispecies) and permit (Pacific  
1194 Cod Trawl Catcher Program), therefore most common reference period is illustrated. In (B), cap  
1195 value frequencies are colored by cap type (holding vs. use, individual vs. processor). Protocol  
1196 for programs with non percent-based caps described in gray text. Crew, catcher/processor, and  
1197 cooperative caps are rare and therefore excluded. The Weathervane Scallop Cooperative, W.  
1198 AK Community Development Quota, and AI Pollock do not employ caps, and are therefore  
1199 excluded. Halibut is excluded from IFQ Halibut and Sablefish because it is managed by the  
1200 International Pacific Halibut Commission. Bars are offset by 3 when necessary for visualization.



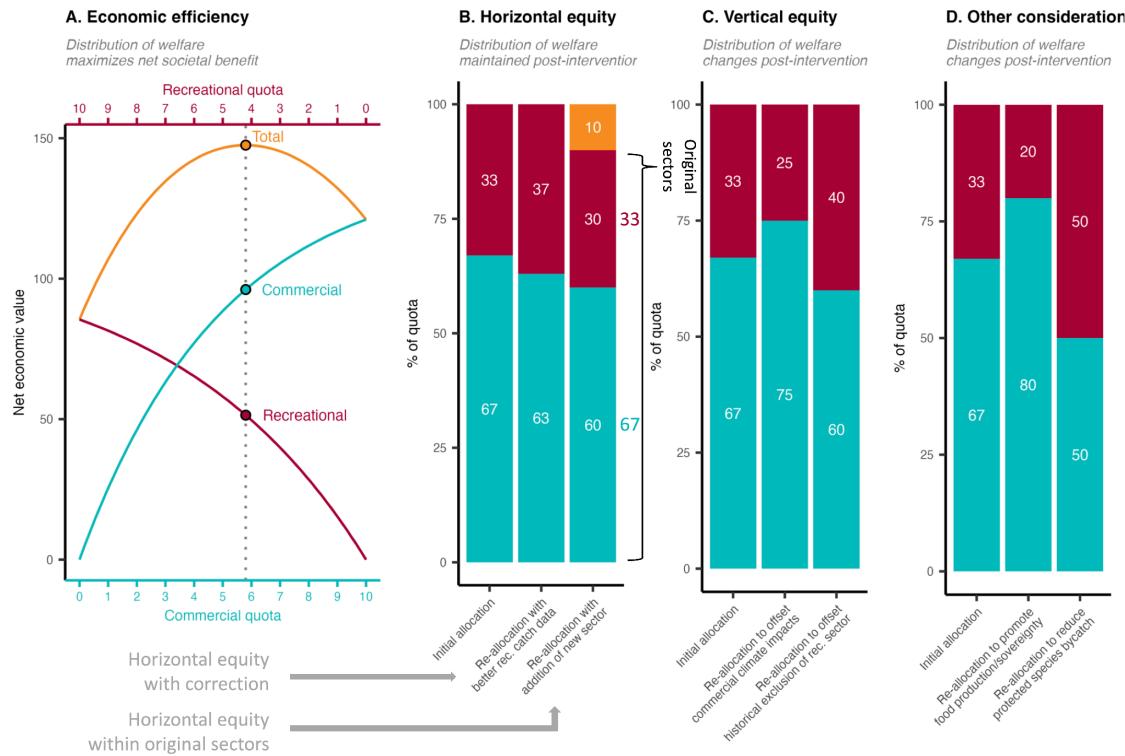
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**Figure 8.** Seasonal allocations of stocks by regional Fishery Management Council. Blocks indicate the temporal extent of each season and block size and color indicate the percent of quota allocated to that season.



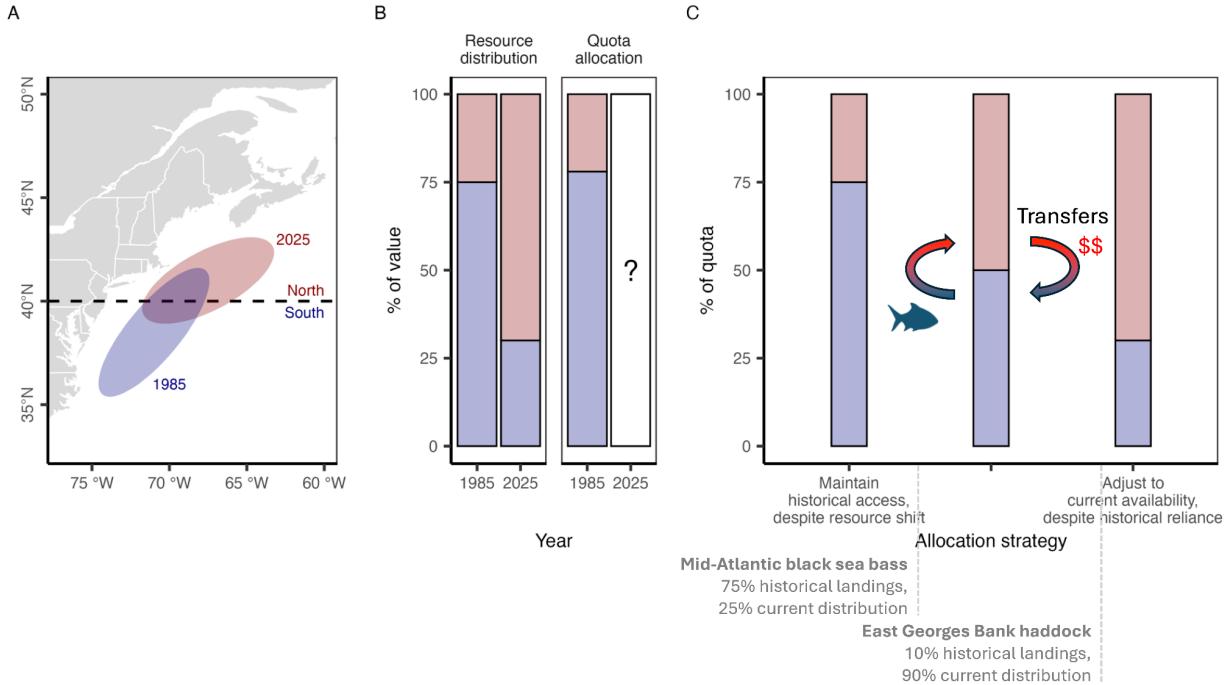
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**Figure 9.** A conceptual diagram illustrating the eight best practices (black text) for enhancing the adaptive management of quota allocation policies. The figure is adapted from Jones et al. (2005).



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1211 **Figure 10.** An illustration of alternative conceptualizations of equity in quota allocation policies.  
1212 Panel **A** illustrates an allocation policy that seeks to optimize economic efficiency by maximizing  
1213 the net economic benefits of commercial and recreational fisheries. The optimal policy is  
1214 marked by the vertical dotted line. Panel **B** illustrates a suite of allocation policies that seek to  
1215 maintain “horizontal equity” whereby the distribution of welfare remains proportional to historical  
1216 levels. Column 1 shows the initial allocation based on historical catch. Column 2 illustrates a  
1217 scenario in which the policy is updated with improved estimates of historical recreational  
1218 catches. Although it results in a different distribution of welfare relative to the initial policy, it is  
1219 motivated by the same goals (but uses better data) and is therefore still an example of  
1220 horizontal equity. Column 3 illustrates a scenario in which a historically omitted subsistence  
1221 sector (orange) is given access. The losses in allocation to the original sectors are proportional;  
1222 thus, horizontal equity is maintained. Panel **C** illustrates a suite of allocation policies that seek to  
1223 achieve “vertical equity” whereby the distribution of welfare changes after an intervention in a  
1224 way considered more fair. This could be to compensate communities disadvantaged by  
1225 historical allocations (column 2) or by the impacts of contemporary or future climate change  
1226 (column 3). Panel **D** illustrates how managers could adjust allocation policies to achieve other  
1227 fisheries objectives, such as promoting food production and sovereignty by prioritizing  
1228 commercial fishing (column 2) or reducing bycatch of protected species by prioritizing more  
1229 selective recreational fisheries (column 3). Although these adjustments change the distribution  
1230 of welfare, they are not motivated by equity and fairness between sectors (though they do relate  
1231 to broader societal concepts of fairness) and therefore do not qualify as vertical equity. We  
1232 illustrate these concepts using sector allocations as an example, but all these concepts apply to  
1233 any allocation between harvesting entities (states, subsectors, individuals, etc).



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1235 **Figure 11.** A conceptual schematic illustrating the spectrum of allocation options available to  
1236 managers as stocks shift distributions and their availability to fisheries under climate change.  
1237 Panel **A** illustrates the shift in distribution of hypothetical stock from 1985 to 2025 relative to a  
1238 hypothetical management boundary. Panel **B** illustrates the proportional distribution of the  
1239 resource between the two management zones in 1985 and 2025. The allocation of quota  
1240 between the zones roughly matches the 1985 distribution because it was established based on  
1241 1980-1985 catch distribution. Managers must now decide whether and how to adjust the quota  
1242 allocation given the climate-driven shift in distribution. Panel **C** illustrates the spectrum of  
1243 options available to managers. On one end of the spectrum, managers could maintain historical  
1244 access despite the resource shift. This protects historical access for southern zone fishermen  
1245 but introduces inefficiencies, risks local depletion, and is unfair to northern zone fishermen. On  
1246 the other end of the spectrum, managers could fully adjust to current resource distribution. This  
1247 is efficient and aligned with conservation goals but does not protect historical dependence and  
1248 is therefore unfair to southern fishermen. As a result, managers may wish to find a middle  
1249 ground between these two extremes. Examples of allocation policies that fall in middleground  
1250 are highlighted. Furthermore, allowing transfers between zones provides a mechanism for  
1251 northern fishermen to gain access and for southern fishermen to be compensated for lost  
1252 access.

## 1253      Supplemental Tables and Figures

1254      **Table S1.** Fishery Management Plans (FMPs) and Fishery Ecosystem Plans (FEPs) used to  
1255      manage U.S. federal fish and invertebrate stocks.<sup>†</sup>

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FMP/FEP	Year	# of species	# of stocks
<i>New England (10 FMPs)</i>			
Atlantic Sea Scallop	1982	1	1
Deep-Sea Red Crab	2002	1	1
Northeast Multispecies	1986	13	20
Small-Mesh Multispecies (Whiting)	2000	3	5
Northeast Skate Complex	2003	7	7
Atlantic Herring	1999	1	1
Atlantic Salmon	1988	1	1
Monkfish (with MAFMC)	1999	1	1
Spiny Dogfish (with MAFMC)	1999	1	1
Atlantic HMS (with all East Coast RFMCs)	2006		
<i>Mid-Atlantic (5 FMPs)</i>			
Atlantic Surfclam & Ocean Quahog	1977	2	2
Bluefish	1990	1	1
Mackerel, Squid, Butterfish	1978	5	5
Summer Flounder, Scup, Black Sea Bass	1988	3	3
Tilefish	2001	2	2
<i>South Atlantic (6 FMPs)</i>			
Dolphin & Wahoo	2004	4	4
Golden Crab	1996	1	1
Shrimp	1993	4	4
Snapper-Grouper	1983	55	55
Coastal Migratory Pelagics (with GFMC)	1983	3	3
GOM & SA Spiny Lobster (with GFMC)	1982	1	1
<i>Gulf of Mexico (3 FMPs)</i>			
Red Drum	1986	1	1
GOM Reef Fish	1984	31	31
GOM Shrimp	1981	4	4
<i>Caribbean (3 FMPs)</i>			
Puerto Rico	2022	65, plus cucumbers/urchins/corals	37
St. Thomas & St. John	2022	45, plus cucumbers/urchins/corals	26
St. Croix	2022	49, plus cucumbers/urchins/corals	26
<i>Pacific (4 FMPs)</i>			
Coastal Pelagic Species	2000	5	5
Pacific Groundfish	1982	86	100+
Pacific Salmon	2016	3	67
Pacific HMS	2003	11	11
<i>North Pacific (6 FMPs)</i>			
BSAI King & Tanner Crabs	1989	5	10
Arctic Fish	2009	3	3
BSAI Groundfish	1982	17, plus 3 complexes	23
GOA Groundfish	1978	19, plus 5 complexes	28
AK Salmon	1979	5	many
AK Scallop	1995	1	1
<i>Western Pacific (5 FEPs)</i>			
American Samoa Archipelago	2009		
Hawaii Archipelago	2009		
Guam (Mariana Archipelago)	2009		
Pacific Pelagic Fisheries	2009		
Pacific Remote Island Areas	2009		

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1258      <sup>†</sup> We did not evaluate the seven habitat-oriented FMPs because they do not manage marine fish or invertebrate  
1259      fisheries: (1) New England: Habitat FMP; (2) South Atlantic: Coral and Sargassum FMPs; (3) Gulf of Mexico:  
1260      Aquaculture, Coral, and Essential Fish Habitat FMPs; and (4) Pacific: Fishery Ecosystem Plan.

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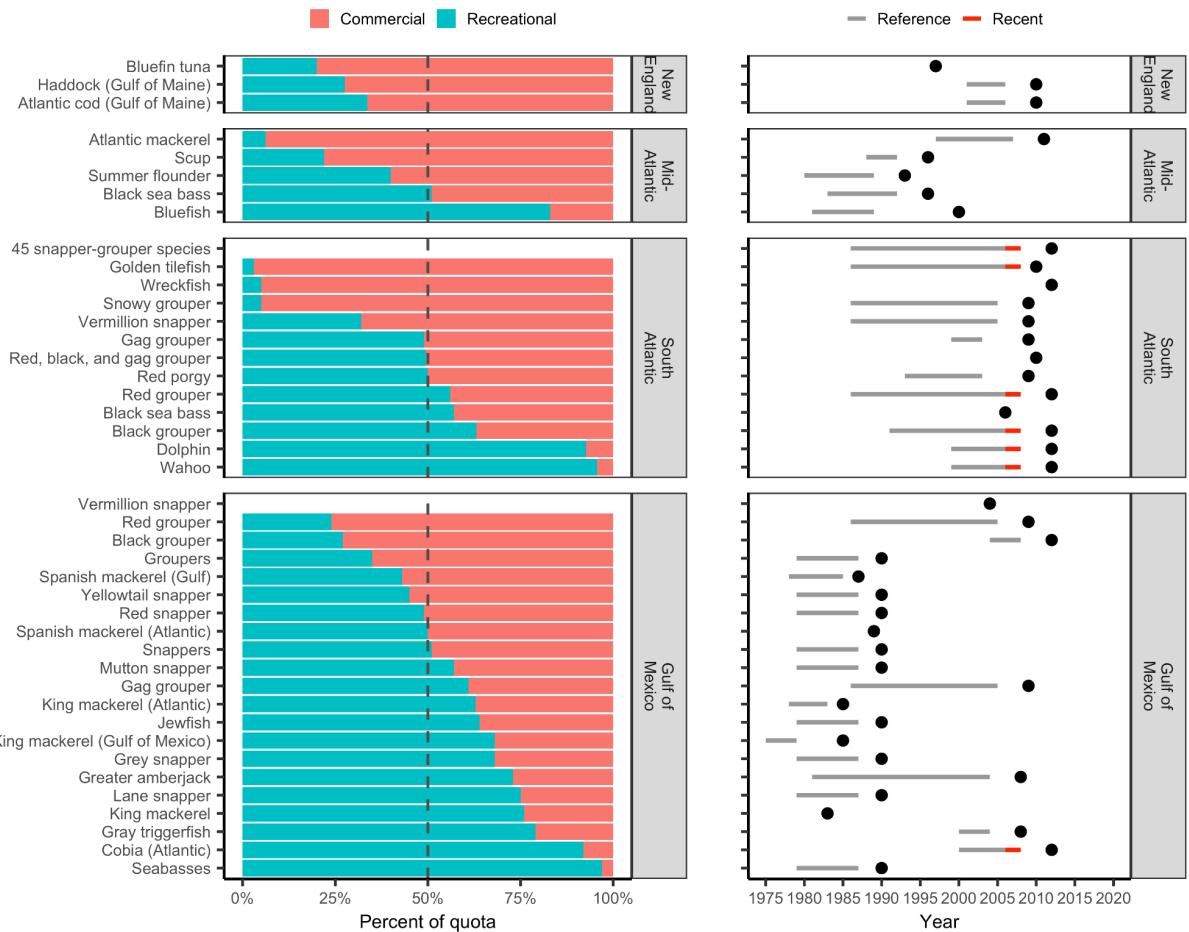
**Table S2.** Structure of the quota allocation policy database.

Description	Column name	Example
Council	council	NEFMC
Management plan	fmp	Northeast Multispecies
Stock name	stock	Granger fish - Georges Bank
Species category	spp_catg	Groundfish
Common name	comm_name	Granger fish
Scientific name	sci_name	<i>Petrificus totalus</i>
Catch prohibited (yes/no)?	prohibited_yn	No
Allocation rule (yes/no)?	allocation_yn	Yes
Geographic rule (yes/no)?	spatial_yn	Yes
Country rule (yes/no)?	country_yn	Yes
List of countries	country_list	US, Canada
Number of countries	country_n	2
Country reference years	country_yrs	1985-1990, 1995-2001
State rule (yes/no)?	state_yn	Yes
List of states	state_list	ME, NH, RI
Number of states	state_n	3
State reference years	state_yrs	1985-1990
Area (yes/no)?	area_yn	Yes
List of areas	area_list	Georges Bank, Gulf of Maine
Number of areas	area_n	2
Area reference years	area_yrs	1985-1990, 1995-2001
Sector rule (yes/no)?	sector_yn	Yes
List of sectors	sector_list	Research, comm, rec, tribal
Number of sectors	sector_n	3
Basis (catch/effort)	sector_basis	Catch
Sector reference years	sector_yrs	1985-1990
Subsector rule (yes/no)?	subsector_yn	Yes
List of subsectors	subsector_list	Longline, gillnet, trap
Number of subsectors	subsector_n	3
Subsector reference years	subsector_yrs	1985-1990, 1995-2001
Seasonal rule (yes/no)?	season_yn	Yes
List of seasons	season_list	Jan - May, Jun - Dec
Number of seasons	season_n	2
Indiv/group rule (yes/no)?	indiv_yn	Yes
Basis (hist., equal, auction)	indiv_basis	Historical catch
Reference years	indiv_yrs	1985-1990
Owner	indiv_owner	Vessel
Share caps (yes/no)?	indiv_caps_yn	Yes

1263   **Table S3.** Catch share programs by regional Fishery Management Council (FMC).  
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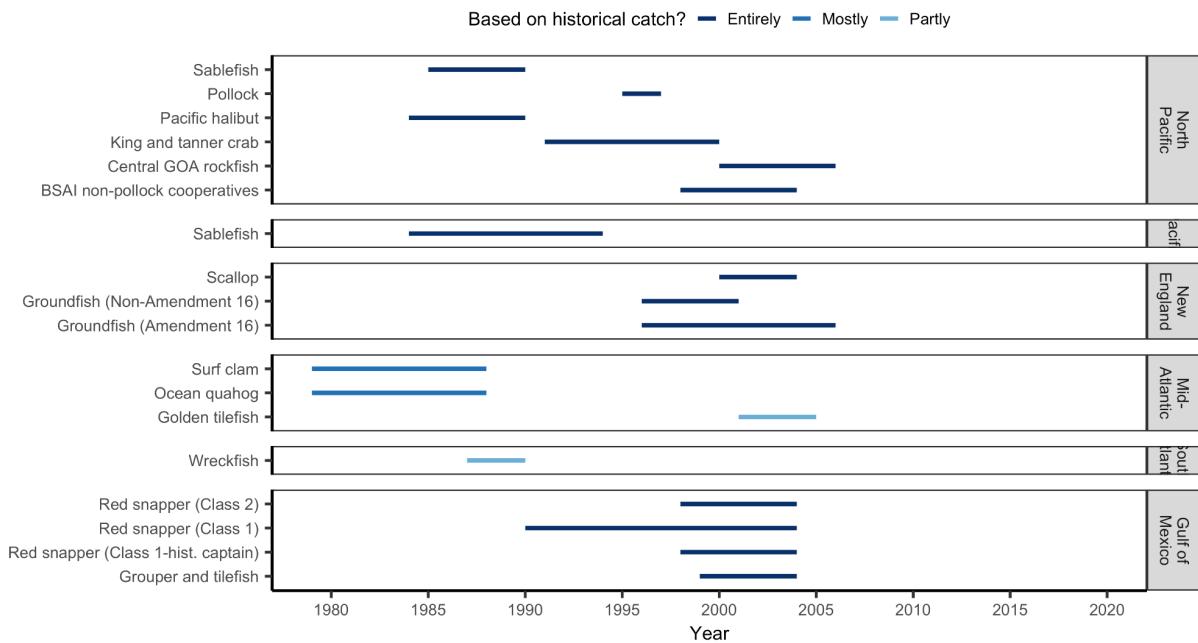
<b>Program</b>	<b>Year</b>
<i>Atlantic HMS</i>	
Individual Bluefin Tuna Quota	2015
<i>New England</i>	
Atlantic Sea Scallops IFQ	2010
New England Multispecies Sectoris	2010
<i>Mid-Atlantic</i>	
Surf Clam and Ocean Quahog	1990
Golden Tilefish	2009
<i>South Atlantic</i>	
Wreckfish	1991
<i>Gulf of Mexico</i>	
Red Snapper	2007
Grouper and Tilefish	2010
<i>Pacific</i>	
Pacific Sablefish Permit Stacking	2001
West Coast Groundfish Trawl Rationalization	2011
<i>North Pacific</i>	
Western Alaska Community Development Quota Program	1992
Individual Fishing Quota Halibut and Sablefish	1995
Bering Sea AFA Pollock Cooperative	1999
Weathervane Scallop Cooperative*	2000
Bering Sea and Aleutian Islands King and Tanner Crab	2005
Aleutian Islands Pollock	2005
Bering Sea and Aleutian Islands Groundfish (Non-Pollock) Cooperatives - Amendment 80	2008
Central Gulf of Alaska Rockfish	2011
Pacific Cod Trawl Cooperative Program	2024

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 1266   <sup>†</sup> The Weathervane Scallop Cooperative is a voluntary program and is not listed on the NOAA Catch  
 1267 Share website (<https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/national/sustainable-fisheries/catch-shares>). Our inclusion  
 1268 of this program and the recently added Pacific Cod Trawl Cooperative Program is why we arrive at 19  
 1269 rather than 17 catch share programs.



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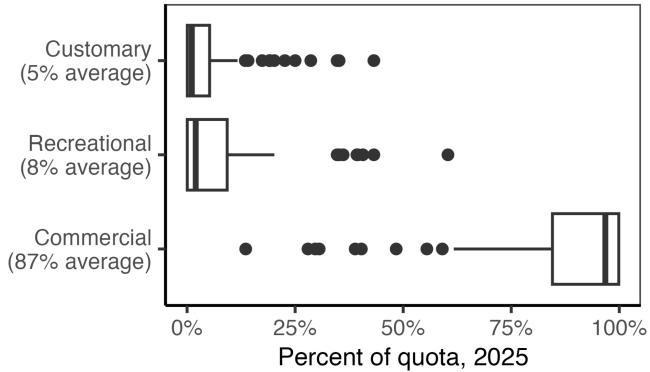
1271 **Figure S1.** Sector-based allocation policies documented by Morrison and Scott (2014). Panel **A**  
1272 shows the percent of quota allocated to commercial and recreational fisheries by regional  
1273 Fishery Management Council and stock. Stocks are sorted in order of increasing allocations to  
1274 recreational fisheries. The vertical dashed line indicates a 50:50 split. Panel **B** shows the  
1275 reference period used to derive the allocation policy (lines) and the year in which the allocation  
1276 policy went into effect (points). A few policies weigh the recent time period in addition to the  
1277 selected reference time period.



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**Figure S2.** Basis for catch share allocations documented by Morrison and Scott (2014).



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**Figure S3.** Quota allocation percentages among sectors for the 98 species managed within New Zealand's Quota Management System in 2025 (Fisheries of New Zealand, 2024a). In the boxplots, the solid line indicates the median, the box indicates the interquartile range (IQR; 25th to 75th percentiles), the whiskers indicate 1.5 times the IQR, and points indicate outliers.