

1 **Forecasting for recreational fisheries management: What's the catch?**

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23 Abstract

24 The re-authorized Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act
25 required regional fishery management councils to implement annual catch limits (ACLs) for
26 nearly all stocks under U. S. federal management. Since 2011, the number of stocks requiring
27 ACLs (and monitoring) has increased nearly tenfold, with strict accountability measures
28 requiring either in-season quota closures or shortening of subsequent seasons to avoid ACL
29 overages. Robust forecasts of catch can also provide a projected baseline for evaluation of
30 proposed management alternatives. We compared generalized linear models (GLM), generalized
31 additive models (GAM), and seasonal auto-regressive integrated moving average (SARIMA)
32 models in terms of fit, accuracy, and ability to forecast catches of four representative fish stocks
33 supporting recreational fisheries in the southeastern United States. All models were useful in
34 developing reliable forecasts to inform management. GAM models provided the best fit the
35 observed data; however, the SARIMA and GLM modeling approaches provided the best
36 forecasts for most scenarios. SARIMA and GLM also provided the best predictions of the
37 seasonal trend in landings, a desirable feature for in-season quota monitoring. SARIMA was
38 more sensitive and GLM was less sensitive to recent trends, providing a useful bookend for
39 forecasts. The time span of input data affected forecast accuracy from all model types
40 considered. This study suggests multiple forecasting models should be investigated, with
41 performance metrics carefully selected and evaluated, as no single model is likely to perform
42 best for all stocks of interest.

43

44 Introduction

45 The Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management (MSA) (U.S. Congress,
46 2006) requires regional fishery management councils to specify annual catch limits (ACLs) at a
47 level such that overfishing does not occur. Annual catch limits are required for all stocks under
48 U. S. federal management, except stocks with annual life cycles and those managed by
49 international agreement in which the U. S. participates. This provision was implemented in 2010
50 or earlier for stocks subject to overfishing, and in 2011 for all other federally-managed stocks.
51 This requirement results in a nearly tenfold increase in in the number of ACLs must be
52 monitored (from 2012 forward) relative to previous years (NMFS, 2014). To address this
53 challenge, methods for forecasting fisheries catches and projecting season lengths to avoid ACL
54 overages are needed. Reliable forecasting methods are needed especially for recreational
55 fisheries in the southeastern region of the U.S. In this region, recreational landings comprise the
56 majority of total landings for many species (Coleman et al. 2004) yet, do have only limited in-
57 season harvest information available (i.e., data available in two-month waves after 45 day delay
58 for each wave) that are often inadequate for current management needs. .

59 Forecasting fish landings is a critical element in the management of fisheries stocks
60 because it can inform strategy development and policy decisions (Thorson et al. 2014;
61 Makridakis and others 2008; Hanson et al. 2006; Stergiou and Christou, 1996). Forecasts can be
62 used to apply in-season or post-season accountability measures and also to provide a baseline for
63 forecasting the impacts of proposed management actions. To date, forecasting applications in
64 fishery management applications are limited. Thorson and et al. (2014) evaluated a suite of
65 models across > 2,000 vertebrate taxa and provided some general guidance. In the U.S. South
66 Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, Hanson et al. (2006) evaluated three models used to forecasts

67 annual landings of Atlantic Menhaden and found that multiple regression and artificial neural
68 networks could be used for this long-term commercial fishery. Forecasts of Brown Shrimp
69 growth and production are also forecasted in the Gulf of Mexico based on environmental
70 conditions in estuaries (Adamack et al. 2012). To be useful, appropriate methodologies need to
71 be developed and evaluated, weighing the tradeoffs of model complexity, performance, and the
72 ability to inform management (Tsitsika and others 2007). Approaches to forecasting fish
73 landings are varied but generally fall into four broad categories: 1) using the previous year's
74 landings, 2) population dynamics models, 3) correlation-based regression models, and 4) time-
75 series models.

76 Population dynamics models are advantageous because they attempt to characterize
77 factors affecting abundance, productivity, and growth potential of a stock (Hilborn and Walters,
78 1992; Buckland and others 2004; Newman and others 2006). Unfortunately, these models are
79 data intensive, and require substantial time, effort, and resources to develop (Thorson et al.
80 2014). Due to these limitations, stock assessment models are only developed every 3-5 years for
81 economically important species in the Southeastern U.S. For many federally managed species,
82 adequate data are unavailable and resources are insufficient to develop population dynamics
83 assessment models (Berkson and Thorson, 2015; Carruthers et al. 2014). Moreover, when
84 forecasting is the primary objective, population dynamics models are not necessarily superior to
85 other less intensive methods as they require estimates of many parameters and have a tendency
86 to overfit, limiting their forecasting performance (Ward et al. 2014; Clark, 2004).

87 Correlation-based regression models (e.g., linear models) have been used successfully to
88 predict menhaden landings in the U.S. Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico since at least 1975 (Schaaf
89 and others 1975) and were used for more than three decades to produce annual forecasts of

90 landings (Hanson and others 2006). However, landings for many species follow non-linear
91 trajectories where the response variable may be more appropriately modeled using non-Gaussian
92 error distributions (Ward et al. 2014). Generalized linear models (GLMs; Nelder and
93 Wedderburn, 1972) are extensions of linear models that can accommodate response variables
94 following exponential family distributions (e.g., Poisson, negative binomial) and may be superior
95 to linear models for modeling fish landings data. Generalized additive models (GAMs; Wood,
96 2006) extend the GLM by allowing non-parametric relationships between the response and
97 explanatory variables (Wood, 2003). Rigorous routines for model selection and validation may
98 prevent overfitting than occur with these models (Zuur and others 2010). Most correlation-based
99 methods do not account for time explicitly in the model, although some methods may provide
100 this capability (e.g., generalized estimating equations). If covariates are used, a determination of
101 future values of covariates is required to develop a forecast. In some cases, this can be quite
102 realistic (e.g., landings restriction due to closed season); however, in other cases it may be
103 difficult or impossible to predict (e.g. environmental conditions).

104 Time series models are conceptually simple and popular tools for forecasting. Seasonal
105 auto-regressive integrated moving average (SARIMA) models can be constructed using only the
106 information contained in the series (Dennis and others 1991; Holmes, 2001; Ives and others
107 2010) and aim to describe the autocorrelation in these data (Hyndman and Athanasopoulos 2014;
108 Ward et. al 2014). More simply, this can be thought of as a multiple regression model with
109 lagged values as covariates. These models are flexible and assume that future conditions are
110 similar to the past conditions that generated these observed data. SARIMA models assume that
111 the time series is stationary with stable variance throughout the time period. Unfortunately, these

112 assumptions are frequently violated with fisheries data, although this can often be resolved
113 through differencing and/or transformation (Box and others 2013).

114 The purpose of this study was to evaluate a suite of approaches to produce short-term
115 forecasts at two-month intervals (i.e., 'waves') necessary to inform fisheries management
116 decisions for U.S. federally managed species in the Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic Ocean.
117 Specifically, we considered approaches that could be fit with minimal data (e.g., landings data)
118 and applied to a range of species with varied life histories and fisheries characteristics. We used
119 four representative fish stocks/stock complexes supporting recreational fisheries that are
120 currently managed by the South Atlantic or Gulf of Mexico Fishery Management Councils and
121 compared the performance of GLMs, GAMs, and SARIMA in terms of model fit, accuracy, and
122 forecasting ability. The goal of these approaches was to develop reliable methods for predicting
123 timing of in-season closures to avoid exceeding an ACL and predicting total annual landings in
124 the absence of a quota closure.

125

126 **Materials and Methods**

127 *Recreational Fisheries Catch Data*

128 Recreational landings data were obtained from the NMFS Southeast Fisheries Science
129 Center (SEFSC) ACL Dataset (accessed May 2013), which provided aggregated landings data
130 from 1986-2012 from the Marine Recreational Fisheries Statistics Survey (MRFSS), the
131 Southeast Headboat Survey (HBS), and the Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (TPWD) Creel
132 Survey. Landings data from the various surveys are provided in both numbers and pounds. The
133 ACL dataset provides improved quality assurance and quality control on the raw data generated
134 by each of these surveys; for example, the ACL dataset implements a hierarchical procedure to

135 backfill missing weight estimates from MRFSS (now MRIP;
136 <http://www.st.nmfs.noaa.gov/recreational-fisheries/index>). In short, samples are aggregated
137 upward (i.e., wave, mode) to ensure adequate sample size (i.e., ≥ 30).

138 The MRFSS intercepts collect data on port agent observed landings ('A' catch) and
139 angler reported landings ('B1' catch) and discards ('B2' catch) in numbers by species, two-
140 month 'wave' (e.g., Wave 1 = Jan/Feb, ..., Wave 6 = Nov/Dec), area fished (inland, state, and
141 federal waters), mode of fishing (charter, private/rental, shore), and state (North Carolina to
142 Louisiana). These dockside intercepts are expanded using effort data collected via telephone
143 surveys (private/rental: random digital dial during each wave; for-hire: weekly 10% random
144 sample). In 2012, MRFSS was nominally replaced by the Marine Recreational Information
145 Program (MRIP). In 2013, the MRFSS survey methodology was modified by MRIP, resulting in
146 some changes that are still being calibrated by SEFSC. Thus, MRIP values from 2013 forward
147 were not considered for this modeling exercise.

148 Landings of headboats (i.e., recreational vessels where customers pay "by the head") are
149 calculated using a combination of logbook reports and dockside sampling, and adjustments to
150 landings are made based on underreporting and misreporting determined through dockside
151 validation by port agents. Southeast Headboat Survey
152 (<http://www.sefsc.noaa.gov/labs/beaufort/sustainable/headboat/>) fishing records contain trip-
153 level information on number of anglers, trip duration, date, area fished, landings (number of fish)
154 and releases (number fish) by species.

155 The TPWD Creel Survey (<https://tpwd.texas.gov/fishboat/fish/didyouknow/creel.phtml>)
156 generates estimates of landings for private/rental boats and charter vessels fishing off Texas.
157 TPWD conducts a stratified random angler-intercept survey at specified boat-access sites

158 throughout the year. TPWD landings are reported in numbers by ‘high-use’ (May 15-November
159 20) and ‘low-use’ time periods (November 21-May 14), area fished (state and federal waters),
160 and mode (charter, private/rental). TPWD high and low use landings estimates are re-estimated
161 by NMFS personnel to correspond to MRFSS two-month waves.

162 Landings time series for three recreationally-important stocks and one incidentally-
163 caught stock complex with relatively simple management histories were assembled. Landings
164 for vermilion snapper (*Rhomboplites aurorubens*), and Gray Snapper (*Lutjanus griseus*)
165 managed by the GMFMC as well as Red Porgy (*Pagrus pagrus*) and the ‘Grunts’ complex
166 managed by the SAFMC were computed as the sum of MRFSS, HBS, and TPWD landings by
167 year and wave. The SAFMC ‘Grunts’ complex contains White Grunt (*Haemulon plumierii*),
168 Margate (*Haemulon album*), Sailor's Choice (*Haemulon parra*), and Tomtate (*Haemulon*
169 *aurolineatum*); most of these stocks are incidentally caught on trips targeting other species.
170 During the years considered for this analysis, none of these stocks were subject to quota closures.

171 Management histories were reconstructed for all four species to account for the timing of
172 federal recreational quota closures and closed seasons. For projection purposes, all recreational
173 landings were assigned to two-month waves. Model inputs for each species were expressed as
174 catch (in pounds whole weight) per open day (catch was assumed equal for all open federal days
175 within a wave). Expressing catch as a daily rate was important for determining the date a catch
176 limit might be exceeded and also for handling any closures in the management history of the
177 stock. As states adopted compatible seasonal regulations for the species of concern, all landings
178 were assumed to occur within the federal season; thus, the federal open days by wave were used
179 as the divisor for computing wave-specific catch-per-day. To reduce prediction bias associated
180 with reductions in catches due to fisheries closures in the Gulf of Mexico following the

181 Deepwater Horizon/BP oil spill in April 2010, values for April-December 2010 in the Gulf of
182 Mexico were recomputed as the average of 2009 and 2011 values for the same time period.
183 Shorter duration events such as hurricanes and red tides were not considered.

184 *Modeling approach*

185 Time series of recreational harvest for each species were fitted using GLMs (Hardin and
186 Hilbe, 2007), GAMs (Wood, 2006), and seasonal autoregressive integrated moving average
187 models (SARIMA;(Box et al., 2013)). Projected catch per day by wave was projected in pounds
188 instead of numbers because the ACLs for these stocks are specified in pounds.

189 *Generalized Linear Model*

190 Long-term and seasonal trends in the catch-per-day time series were captured using a
191 GLM, fit with Proc GENMOD in SAS v9.2 software (SAS Institute, Inc., 2000). Mean catch-
192 per-day (lbs) was dependent upon a linear predictor of year and a quadratic predictor of wave,
193 which were linked via a log link function with a negative binomial response error distribution
194 (Nelder and Wedderburn, 1972). Residual diagnostics and Akaike's Information Criterion
195 (AIC; Akaike, 1974) values were used to select the final model configurations.

196 *Generalized Additive Model*

197 Generalized additive models were also fit to each time series. Mean catch per day (lbs)
198 was predicted using a cubic-spline smoother (s) for the main effects (year) and a tensor product
199 spline (te) (De Boor and others 1978) for the interaction term (wave, year) (Gasper and others
200 2013). GAMs were fit using the mgcv library (Wood, 2006) in R v.3.0.2 (R Development Core
201 Team, 2013). Backward selection was used to determine if predictors or interactive effects could
202 be removed without compromising model performance. AIC and a log-likelihood ratio test were
203 used to determine whether more complex models were warranted (Froeschke and others 2012).

204 *Seasonal ARIMA Model*

205 Time series exhibiting a long-term trend and a seasonal trend may be well-suited to a
206 SARIMA model (Box et al., 2013). In a SARIMA $(p,d,q)*(P,D,Q)$ model, the auto-regressive
207 component (p) represents the lingering effects of previous observations, the integrated
208 component (d) represents temporal trends, and the moving average component (q) represents
209 lingering effects of previous random shocks (or error). SARIMA models were implemented
210 using Proc ARIMA in SAS v9.2 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC). All possible combinations of
211 single-difference SARIMA models for catch-per-day by wave were considered (Table A1). A
212 single-difference SARIMA model only considers a maximum of one differencing term in the
213 annual and one differencing term in the seasonal component. All SARIMA models were fit
214 using conditional least squares. Stationarity tests were used to guide differencing selection.
215 Final SARIMA model selection was guided by examination of autocorrelations, inverse
216 autocorrelations, partial autocorrelations, cross-correlations, residual diagnostics, and AIC.

217 *Model evaluation and performance*

218 Time series of three different lengths (i.e., 1999-2011, 2004-2011, and 2007-2011) were
219 compared in terms of model fit and forecasting performance. Exploring time series of varying
220 lengths is important as stocks vary in the period for which reliable catch data exists and this
221 approach permits a mechanism to examine trade-offs with model complexity across time series
222 of different lengths that are not confounded by individual species effects. Although data were
223 available prior to 1999, preliminary projections suggested model performance was occasionally
224 improved by truncating the time series but not by extending it to prior to 1999. To evaluate
225 forecast utility, we evaluated the proportion of variation explained by the covariates (R^2), and the
226 mean error (i.e., observed - fitted values) for the final year of data. For Atlantic stocks, we also

227 removed the terminal year from the time series (i.e., ‘drop-one’), re-fit the model to 2004-2010
228 data and predicted landings for 2011 to provide a more robust evaluation of forecast performance
229 by using the fitted model to forecast beyond the data that were used to build the model and more
230 closely simulate how these models would be used in practice by resource managers. The
231 deviance between the forecast and the actual landings in the final year provided an additional
232 estimate of accuracy. This ‘drop-one’ approach was only applied to Atlantic stocks due to the
233 confounding impact of having up to 36.6% of the Gulf of Mexico EEZ closed to fishing in 2010
234 due to the Deepwater Horizon/BP Oil Spill. Finally, a variation on the ‘drop-one’ approach was
235 applied to all four stocks by plotting cumulative landings time series to evaluate model fits from
236 1999-2011, 2004-2011, and 2007-2011 data relative to observed values in 2011 and model
237 forecasts relative to observed values in 2012. A simple approach of using the previous year’s
238 landings as a forecast was also explored for all scenarios. As SARIMA uses a Gaussian error
239 structure and permits negative forecast values, all SARIMA-based predictions of negative
240 catches within a wave were converted to zeroes for these comparisons.

241 **Results**

242 Most stocks exhibited long-term trends as well as seasonal periodicity in landings. Catch
243 was typically lowest during winter (i.e., Waves 1 and 6) and peaked during summer (i.e., Waves
244 3-4). Model statistics are provided in Table 1. For the longer time series (i.e., 1999-2011, 2004-
245 2011), a SARIMA (0,1,1)x(0,1,1) structure fit the data best of the different SARIMA models
246 considered; meaning the data were differenced at the previous time step and the seasonal time-
247 step, and a moving average term was used on both to fit the data. In the shortest time series
248 evaluated (i.e., 2007-2011), a SARIMA (1,1,0)x(0,1,1) structure fit the data best of the different

249 SARIMA models considered, indicating an autoregressive term did better capturing the trend
250 with a limited set of data than a moving average.

251 *Gulf of Mexico*

252 From 1999 to 2011, vermilion snapper landings peaked during summer each year and
253 total annual landings increased during the time series (Figures 1, 2). All modeling approaches
254 captured this pattern after appropriate model fitting and selection routines. For vermilion
255 snapper, R^2 increased with shorter time series for all models and the GAM model provided the
256 best fit to the observed data (Table 1). Examining the mean error during the final year of data
257 indicated the SARIMA model fits were much closer to the observed values, with the lowest
258 mean error in the final year provided by the shortest time series (2007-2011; SARIMA: 162.66,
259 GAM: 735.01, GLM: 607.86 lb/day). This time series was non-stationary with increasing catch
260 rates toward the end of the period. Of the models considered, SARIMA most closely captured
261 this pattern in the observed data, and only under-estimated landings by 5% for the 2007-2011
262 input time series. The other modeling approaches resulted in much higher under-estimation of
263 total landings (19-53%), with GLM showing the greatest fluctuation in accuracy dependent upon
264 input time series.

265 From 1999 to 2011, Gray Snapper landings peaked during summer each year and total
266 annual landings increased and then decreased during the time series (Figures 1, 3). As with
267 vermilion snapper, all three models captured this pattern and R^2 increased with shorter time
268 series for all three model approaches; the GAM was the best fit to the observed data (Table 1).
269 In terms of explained variance, the GLM and SARIMA models were comparable although
270 SARIMA had lower mean error in the final year of the times series. The lowest mean error in
271 the final year was provided by the shortest time series (2007-2011; SARIMA: 59.31, GAM:

272 650.30, GLM: 463.01 lb/day). The time series was non-stationary; however, the greatest annual
273 landings of Gray Snapper occurred in the middle third of the time series. Fits of regression
274 models to the final year in the time series were highly dependent on the input time series
275 selected, and in most cases were outperformed by the previous year's landings. In the shortest
276 time series considered (i.e., 2007-2011), the SARIMA provided the best fit, overestimating
277 cumulative landings by only 2%. The SARIMA model produced negative catch predictions for
278 some waves (Figure 3).

279 *Atlantic*

280 Red porgy annual landings were relatively stable from 1999-2012 with the exception of a
281 trough in 2000 and a peak in 2007 (Figure 1). Atlantic Red Porgy displayed a distinct seasonal
282 pattern with catch rates peaking during summer each year (Figure 4) and this pattern was
283 captured by all models. Model fits improved with shorter time series and the GAM model
284 provided the best fit to the observed data (Table 1). Examining the mean error during the final
285 year of data indicated the SARIMA model fits were much closer to the observed values. The
286 lowest mean error in the final year was provided by the middle time series (2004-2011;
287 SARIMA: 10.51, GAM: 43.33, GLM: 20.41 lb/day). Of the models considered, SARIMA most
288 closely captured the inter-annual pattern in the observed data and model fits to the 2004-2011
289 time series underestimated 2011 cumulative landings by only 1%.

290 From 1999 to 2011, 'Grunts' complex landings peaked during summer each year and
291 total annual landings were relatively stable over the study period (Figure 1, 5). Similar to the
292 other species examined, the explained variance in annual landings of 'grunts' for all models
293 increased with shorter time series and the GAM provided the best fit to the observed data (Table
294 1). In terms of explained variance, the GLM and SARIMA models were comparable although

295 SARIMA was more accurate than GLM when comparing the fitted and observed values in the
296 final year of the times series. The lowest mean error in the final year was provided by GAM in
297 the middle time series (2004-2011; SARIMA: 368.10, GAM: 4.38, GLM: 119.34 lb/day). There
298 was a spike HBS and MRFSS landings in Wave 3, 2007 that was not captured by any models.

299 *Forecast and Summary*

300 The trend for the 'Grunts' complex was dynamic (see Figure 5). The drop-one scenario
301 model fits to the final year were excellent for SARIMA (only 7% error), but model predictions
302 from SARIMA were poor (a 67% underestimate). Both SARIMA and GAM overweighted the
303 long-term decline in landings (Figure 6). For the Atlantic 'Grunts' complex the most accurate
304 prediction was provided by the previous year's landings. For Red Porgy, SARIMA provided the
305 best model fit to the final year of data (a 6% overestimate) and the best forecast accuracy (a 4%
306 overestimate). Catch levels in 2011 for both stocks were within the long-term range of previous
307 catch levels.

308 Examination of model fits to cumulative observed landings for 2011 indicated that in 9 of
309 12 scenarios, model fits from SARIMA were superior to GLM and GAM (closer to observed
310 values; Figure 7). SARIMA confidence intervals were much larger than confidence intervals for
311 fitted GLM or GAM models (Figure 7). For SARIMA models, the confidence interval contained
312 the observed values in all twelve scenarios examined whereas the confidence intervals estimated
313 using GLM and GAM did not always contain the observed values. A comparison of the percent
314 deviation from the observed cumulative landings trend by wave, across stocks and time series,
315 indicated that GLM provided the best overall model fits ($0.2\% \pm 36.2\%$ error; mean \pm SD),
316 followed by SARIMA ($5.7\% \pm 76.7\%$). GAM and the previous year's landings provided similar
317 overall predictive error ($13.9\% \pm 31.1\%$, $13.2\% \pm 43.3\%$, respectively). One undesirable feature

318 of SARIMA is that declining trends in landings during a given wave may be forecast as zero or
319 negative landings, as observed with Gulf Gray Snapper (Figure 3). In this study, negative
320 forecasts were replaced with zeroes; however, it may be preferable to substitute the most recent
321 year's landings for that wave to avoid underestimating harvest. This approach reduced mean
322 error from SARIMA predictions by wave, across stocks and time series by nearly half (from
323 5.7% to 2.9%).

324 Total 2012 landings for Gulf vermilion snapper were 23% lower than 2011 landings;
325 whereas total 2012 landings for the other stocks evaluated were 35-42% higher than 2011 values.
326 Examination of model forecasts to cumulative observed landings for 2012 indicated that in 5 of
327 12 scenarios, mean forecast values of SARIMA were closest to observed values predictions
328 (Figure 8). In 5 of the remaining 7 scenarios, GLM provided the best predictions (Figure 8). For
329 Gulf Gray Snapper, SARIMA provided the best prediction using the 2007-2011 time series (8%
330 error). For Gulf vermilion snapper, GLM provided the best prediction using the 2004-2011 time
331 series (-1% error). For the Atlantic 'Grunts' complex, the best predictions were obtained from
332 SARIMA and GLM using the 1999-2011 time series (-4% and +4% error in the cumulative
333 landings prediction, respectively). For Atlantic Red Porgy, the best prediction was from GLM
334 using the 1999-2011 time series (-16% error). SARIMA confidence intervals were much larger
335 than confidence intervals for fitted GLM or GAM models, indicating greater uncertainty (Figure
336 8). SARIMA tended to be more responsive to short-term trends in catch that deviate from the
337 long-term average trend. For SARIMA models, the confidence interval contained the observed
338 values in all twelve scenarios examined whereas the confidence intervals estimated using GLM
339 and GAM did not always contain the observed values. Overall, SARIMA fits to seasonal
340 patterns were less biased but all model fits became more similar as the length of the input time

341 series was reduced. In the 12 scenarios explored, at least one regression-based approach
342 provided a superior prediction relative to using the previous year's landings.

343 A graphical comparison of the model fitting and forecasting performance of GLM, GAM,
344 and SARIMA models across the four stocks illustrates the tradeoffs in terms of model fit,
345 explained variance and forecasting performance (Figure 9). In terms of fitting the model to the
346 observed data, the flexibility of the GAM provided superior fits for each stock relative to
347 SARIMA and GLM. However, in terms of predictive performance, as indicated by fits to the
348 terminal year of the time series and accuracy of drop-one scenario forecasts, SARIMA and GLM
349 were generally superior to GAM.

350

351 **Discussion**

352 Federal requirements implemented in the amended MSA (U.S. Congress, 2006) require
353 specification (and monitoring) of ACLs for most federally managed stocks. Resources are
354 insufficient to develop population dynamics-based landings projection models for most managed
355 stocks (Martell and Froese 2013; Hanson et al., 2006; Hilborn and Walters, 1992). Thus, other
356 methods must be identified to predict catch rates to ensure landings remain within prescribed
357 ACLs (Carruthers and others 2014). Given the large number of stocks that must be monitored
358 (Berkson and Thorson 2015), routines must be robust to widely varying temporal patterns that
359 characterize recreational landings patterns for most species (Ward et al. 2014). Similar to
360 previous efforts with Atlantic and Gulf menhaden, this study suggested statistical forecasting
361 could be a viable approach to predicting landings (Hanson et al., 2006; Ives et al., 2010). A
362 major goal of recreational fisheries management is to prevent catch limit overages – this can be
363 accomplished by in-season closures or post-season adjustments to the regulations or season

364 length in the following year. Accurate forecasts of recreational catches are critical to the
365 application of both of these accountability measures.

366 Our study suggests semi-automated SARIMA or GLM model fitting and selection
367 routines could be used to develop short-term (i.e., one year) forecasts to inform management
368 decisions; however, the quality and time span of input data can affect the accuracy of model
369 forecasts. Longer time series tended to include up and down fluctuations in catch, whereas
370 cutting the regression input time series omitted these fluctuations. By fitting to a shorter time
371 series, the short-term trend tended to be better-captured at the expense of long-term fluctuations
372 in catch. No single model or time series performed best across all stocks of interest; thus
373 performance metrics need to be carefully selected and evaluated across multiple models. Our
374 projections implicitly integrated the highly correlated terms of catch and effort by expressing
375 catch rates as catch per open day. Changes in management regulations, environmental
376 conditions, or economic conditions that might lead to changes in catch per unit effort would lead
377 to increased uncertainty in forecasts; if these changes are anticipated, they can be incorporated as
378 covariates in the models.

379 In general, SARIMA models performed well across a range of time series and would
380 serve as an appropriate starting point for forecasting landings. The SARIMA model mean
381 forecasts were generally un-biased in fits to observed data although confidence limits were
382 consistently greater than those produced from GLM or GAM. SARIMA models can
383 accommodate but do not require additional covariates for either model building or forecast, a
384 distinct advantage over GLM and GAM. For in-season quota monitoring, the manager's goal is
385 to close the fishery before the landings exceed the quota, but without forgoing harvest up to the
386 quota. Thus, the predicted trajectory of cumulative landings is more important than the final

387 projected total. Comparisons of SARIMA, GAM, and GLM forecasts fit to the 2011 cumulative
388 observed landings time series indicated the SARIMA approach best fit the cumulative landings
389 time series for most scenarios. However, for some stocks, GLM performed better than SARIMA
390 and was less sensitive than SARIMA or GAM to recent trends, providing a useful bookend for
391 forecasts.

392 SARIMA forecasts should be treated with skepticism when they generate negative
393 landings values, as they are likely overfitting a recent trend. Negative forecast values from any
394 catch forecast model should minimally be replaced with zeroes, as negative catches are not
395 possible. In this study, substitution of landings values for the most recent year of fishing
396 improved forecast accuracy over replacement with zeroes in most cases. For model projections
397 to 2012, the SARIMA model forecast negative catch rates in 2012 for Atlantic Red Porgy in
398 wave 1 using all three time series, and in wave 6 using the 1999-2011 and 2007-2011 time series.
399 Replacing these forecasts with the previous year's landings resulted in minor improvements in
400 cumulative total forecast accuracy (projected cumulative landings relative to observed
401 cumulative landings) as compared to replacement with zeroes (1999-2011: +6%, 2004-2011:
402 +1%, 2007-2011: +4% more accurate). Replacement of the wave 6 landings for Gulf vermilion
403 snapper in the 2007-2011 forecast reduced forecast accuracy by 11% compared to substituting
404 zeroes. SARIMA forecast negative catch rates in 2012 for Gulf Gray Snapper in waves 1, 2, 5,
405 and 6 using the 1999-2011 and 2004-2011 time series. Replacing these forecasts with the
406 previous year's landings resulted in major improvements in cumulative total forecast accuracy as
407 compared to replacement with zeroes (1999-2011: +26%, 2004-2011: +42% more accurate). In
408 summary, post hoc replacement of negative SARIMA values with landings from the most recent
409 year of fishing is recommended.

410 A strength of GAM models is the ability to fit noisy, non-linear data, however, this
411 flexibility can also permit overfitting of the model to these data if careful model selection and
412 validation routines are not employed (Wood 2006). GAM models provided the best fit to the
413 observed data in nearly all cases owing to the additional flexibility of this model to accommodate
414 noisy data. However, their tendency to overfit, despite model selection and validation resulted in
415 reduced forecasting performance in comparison to SARIMA and GLM models. While
416 overfitting can be addressed in GAMs (Zuur et al., 2010) by controlling the "wiggleness" of the
417 smoothing function, this can be quite arbitrary with small data sets. Alternatively, cross-
418 validation could be used, though the appropriateness of this approach in this present study is
419 doubtful given the moderate size of the input data sets.

420 As with any model, the reliability of our forecasts was dependent upon both the accuracy
421 and the consistency of the historical data. Recreational data in the southeastern U.S. is based
422 upon surveys (i.e., SE Headboat Survey, MRFSS, and the TPWD Creel Survey). Each of these
423 surveys contains uncertainty and spikes in landings estimates may occur when high catch rates
424 from a limited subsample are expanded out. Survey data based upon dockside intercepts
425 extrapolated to a fishing population comprising millions of people is subject to variability which
426 may reflect sampling issues rather than actual landings trends. Changes in survey methodologies
427 or management regulations may reduce the predictive utility of historical data. Future
428 forecasting modeling should attempt to incorporate uncertainty in wave-specific recreational
429 catch estimates to avoid model overweighting of outliers that may be an artifact of survey design.
430 Additionally, the utility of all of the methods explored in this study is contingent upon the ability
431 of historical trends to represent future landings. Angler behavior is notoriously difficult to
432 predict (Johnston and others 2010; Branch and others 2006), and changes in management

433 regulations (i.e., closed seasons, bag limits, size limits) within or following the historical time
434 series make forecasting future recreational catches even more challenging. Future forecasting
435 modeling could explore the use management regulation time series as covariates, and also
436 evaluate the utility of economic predictors of recreational fishing effort such as United States
437 Gross Domestic Product or mean fuel prices. Finally, changes in stock size due to rebuilding
438 may also pose a problem, as increasing catch rates may result in higher-than-expected landings.
439 When a stock assessment is available, catchability may be combined with historical and
440 projected abundance-at-age to produce a time series of exploitable abundance. Exploitable
441 abundance may be a useful predictive covariate for catch forecasting models (N.A. Farmer,
442 unpublished data).

443

444 **Conclusions**

445 Recreational landings comprise a substantial proportion of the total landings for many
446 species in the southeastern U.S., and this pattern is becoming more common worldwide
447 (Coleman and others 2004; Cooke and Cowx, 2004). Coupled with more stringent fishery
448 regulations, the need to predict recreational fish landings will only increase. Although GAM's
449 flexibility consistently provided the best fits to the input data, the SARIMA model most often
450 provided the best fit to the final year in the time series, the most reliable forecast, and the best
451 track to the in-season cumulative landings curve. Given that management agency resources are
452 currently inadequate to develop stock assessments for all managed species (Martell and Froese
453 2013), developing suites of semi-automated approaches to understanding historical catch and
454 future patterns is essential.

455

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- 543

544 **Table 1.** Goodness of fit (R^2), mean error in terminal year across waves (ME; in pounds per day), total percent error in final
545 projected cumulative landings (TE), and mean error in projected year across waves (Drop1) for different stocks, modeling approaches,
546 and time series. Note ‘Drop1’ denotes forecasts where the terminal year of data is removed, the model refit, and the terminal year fit
547 is compared to the observed values.

STOCK	MODEL	$R^2_{(1992-2011)}$	$R^2_{(1999-2011)}$	$R^2_{(2004-2011)}$	$R^2_{(2007-2011)}$	ME ₍₁₉₉₂₋₂₀₁₁₎	ME ₍₁₉₉₉₋₂₀₁₁₎	ME ₍₂₀₀₄₋₂₀₁₁₎	ME ₍₂₀₀₇₋₂₀₁₁₎	TE ₍₁₉₉₂₋₂₀₁₁₎	TE ₍₁₉₉₉₋₂₀₁₁₎	TE ₍₂₀₀₄₋₂₀₁₁₎	TE ₍₂₀₀₇₋₂₀₁₁₎	ME_Drop1 ₍₂₀₀₄₋₂₀₁₀₎	TE _{fit2010} _Drop1 ₍₂₀₀₄₋₂₀₁₀₎	TE _{predict2011} _Drop1 ₍₂₀₀₄₋₂₀₁₀₎
Gulf of Mexico Vermilion Snapper	SARIMA	0.66	0.69	0.73	0.86	895	518	513	163	29%	17%	17%	-5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	GAM	0.70	0.79	0.81	0.91	1140	1031	995	735	-36%	-33%	-32%	-23%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	GLM	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.91	1660	1067	1070	608	-53%	-34%	-34%	-19%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	PrevYr	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1097	1097	1097	1097	-34%	-34%	-34%	-34%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Gulf of Mexico Gray Snapper	SARIMA	0.64	0.60	0.66	0.85	1002	840	1307	59	-25%	-21%	-33%	2%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	GAM	0.70	0.79	0.81	0.91	480	591	2475	650	18%	22%	93%	24%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	GLM	0.50	0.52	0.63	0.65	2034	1892	900	463	76%	71%	34%	17%	N/A	N/A	N/A
	PrevYr	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	385	385	385	385	16%	16%	16%	16%	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Atlantic "Grunts" Complex	SARIMA	0.51	0.42	0.37	0.31	212	51	368	169	-25%	-6%	-42%	-19%	735	7%	-67%
	GAM	0.70	0.79	0.81	0.91	68	80	4	84	7%	9%	-1%	-10%	218	17%	-26%
	GLM	0.45	0.45	0.50	0.64	290	332	119	66	33%	38%	13%	-8%	213	52%	24%
	PrevYr	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	104	104	104	104	-12%	-12%	-12%	-12%	104	86%	-12%
South Atlantic Red Porgy	SARIMA	0.40	0.61	0.66	0.65	36	17	11	58	-12%	-5%	-1%	-25%	6	6%	4%
	GAM	0.72	0.70	0.84	0.85	1	43	43	30	0%	-22%	-22%	-15%	129	-20%	-66%
	GLM	0.63	0.60	0.66	0.85	5	114	20	52	2%	58%	10%	-27%	67	51%	34%
	PrevYr	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	18	18	18	18	-9%	-9%	-9%	-9%	18	46%	-9%

548 **Figure Captions**

549 **Figure 1.** Time series of recreational landings data, in millions of pounds whole weight, for Gulf
550 of Mexico vermilion snapper and Gray Snapper, and Atlantic ‘grunts’ complex and Red Porgy,
551 by data source (Texas Parks and Wildlife Department Creel Survey: TPWD, Marine
552 Recreational Fisheries Statistics Survey: MRFSS, and Southeast Headboat Survey: HBS).

553 **Figure 2.** Three statistical models (solid gray line) and their 95% confidence limits (dashed gray
554 line) were fit to landings data of Gulf of Mexico vermilion snapper from 1999 to 2011 (open
555 circles), to evaluate model fits across model types and times series.

556 **Figure 3.** Three statistical models (solid gray line) and their 95% confidence limits (dashed gray
557 line) were fit to landings data of Gulf of Mexico Gray Snapper from 1999 to 2011 (open circles),
558 to evaluate model fits across model types and times series.

559 **Figure 4.** Three statistical models (solid gray line) and their 95% confidence limits (dashed gray
560 line) were fit to landings data of Atlantic Red Porgy from 1999 to 2011 (open circles), to
561 evaluate model fits across model types and times series.

562 **Figure 5.** Three statistical models (solid gray line) and their 95% confidence limits (dashed gray
563 line) were fit to landings data of the Atlantic ‘grunts’ complex from 1999 to 2011 (open circles),
564 to evaluate model fits across model types and times series.

565 **Figure 6.** Three statistical models (solid gray line) and their 95% confidence limits (dashed gray
566 line) were fit to landings data of Atlantic Red Porgy and the ‘grunts’ complex from 1999 to 2010
567 (open circles), withholding 2011 landings data (open squares) from the model, to evaluate
568 forecast accuracy across model types and times series.

569 **Figure 7.** Cumulative landings plots showing SARIMA (red), GAM (blue), and GLM (green)
570 model fits and 95% confidence limits (shaded areas) relative to observed cumulative landings for

571 2011, based on 1999-2011, 2004-2011, and 2007-2011 time series data for Atlantic Red Porgy,
572 Atlantic ‘grunts’ complex, Gulf of Mexico Gray Snapper, and Gulf of Mexico vermilion snapper.

573 **Figure 8.** Cumulative landings plots showing relative model performance between SARIMA
574 (red), GAM (blue), and GLM (green) forecasts with 95% confidence limits (shaded areas)
575 relative to observed cumulative landings for 2012, based on model fits to 1999-2011, 2004-2011,
576 and 2007-2011 time series data for Atlantic Red Porgy, Atlantic ‘grunts’ complex, Gulf of
577 Mexico Gray Snapper, and Gulf of Mexico vermilion snapper.

578 **Figure 9.** Radar plots showing relative model performance between SARIMA (solid line), GAM
579 (dashed line), and GLM (dotted line) forecast models with regards to model fitting (R^2) to
580 different time series lengths, mean error in model in the final year for model fits, and mean
581 accuracy of model forecasts under ‘drop-one’ fit scenarios for four recreationally exploited
582 stocks.

583

584 **APPENDIX**

585 **Table A1.** Seasonal (s) autoregressive integrated moving average (SARIMA) $(p,d,q)*(P,D,Q)s$
 586 model combinations evaluated, where the auto-regressive component (p) represents the lingering
 587 effects of previous observations, the integrated component (d) represents temporal trends, the
 588 moving average component (q) represents lingering effects of previous random shocks (or error),
 589 and s denotes the seasonal time step. As recreational landings are primarily collected in two-
 590 month waves, s was set equal to 6. A '1' denotes an active component in the model.

ARIMA(p,d,q)X(P,D,Q)s Model
ARIMA(0,1,1)X(0,1,1) s
ARIMA(1,0,0)X(0,1,1) s
ARIMA(0,0,1)X(0,1,1) s
ARIMA(0,1,1)X(1,1,0) s
ARIMA(1,0,0)X(1,1,0) s
ARIMA(0,0,1)X(1,1,0) s
ARIMA(1,1,0)X(0,1,1) s
ARIMA(1,1,0)X(1,1,0) s

591

592