

1 **Model-Based Estimation of Average Fish Weights from Recreational Fisheries**

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19
20 **Abstract**

21
22 Catch estimates from recreational fisheries are an important component of many fishery
23 management plans. Estimates of recreational catch (in weight) on the U.S. West Coast are often
24 derived as the product of catch in numbers of fish and average fish weights. When estimates of
25 average fish weight are imprecise (e.g., due to small sample sizes), the resulting estimates of
26 catch in weight can fluctuate and unnecessarily trigger or delay management actions. This and
27 other challenges associated with average weight estimation are currently addressed through
28 replication of data based on deterministic algorithms ('borrowing rules'). These methods differ
29 among states and do not present a viable method for variance estimation. In this study, we
30 describe a model-based framework for estimation of average fish weights, with an application to
31 the recreational groundfish fishery off Washington, U.S.A. The model-based framework
32 identifies important sources of variability in mean weight, quantifies uncertainty in estimates,
33 pools information to better inform strata with small sample sizes, predicts average weight for
34 unsampled strata, and does not require data replication. We examine the effect of sample size on
35 model-based estimates, and recommend propagation of uncertainty in average catch into
36 estimates of recreational catch in weight.

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38
39 **Keywords**

40
41 Catch, estimation, recreational, average weight

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43

44 1. Introduction

45

46 Catch monitoring is an important element of fishery management plans around the world (FAO
47 2020). When stocks are harvested by multiple fisheries, such as recreational and commercial
48 sectors, catch estimates must be standardized across fisheries into common units (e.g., metric
49 tons [mt]). In this way, total catch can be monitored against a target or limit (e.g., Annual Catch
50 Limits, or ACLs, in the United States) (Methot et al. 2014). In waters off the U.S. West Coast
51 (Washington, Oregon, and California), commercial landings of most species are recorded in units
52 of weight. However, catch estimates for marine recreational fisheries are estimated in numbers of
53 fish. To produce estimates of recreational catch in weight, the catch in numbers is multiplied by
54 average fish weight in each stratum. Therefore, fish size data (weights and lengths) are a key
55 component of catch monitoring efforts for these fisheries, but are also important for other aspects
56 of fishery management in the region, including stock assessment.

57

58 Estimation of average fish weights from recreational catch is in principle a very straightforward
59 procedure. In practice, however, several issues commonly arise. When estimates of average fish
60 weight are highly variable (e.g., due to small sample sizes), resulting estimates of total
61 recreational catch in weight can fluctuate and unnecessarily trigger (or delay) management
62 action, such as fishery closures. Several mechanisms can contribute to small sample sizes.
63 Sampling of mixed-stock fisheries may provide adequate coverage for primary target species, but
64 only sparsely sample the less common species. Regulations also play a role. When retention of
65 certain species is prohibited, this reduces the number of fish available to land-based samplers.
66 Changing budgets and sampling priorities are a factor. Also, efforts to manage at fine spatial or
67 temporal scales can reduce the amount of data available to generate stable estimates. In some
68 fisheries, many of these factors occur simultaneously, compounding the problem. A recent
69 review of sampling programs for U.S. recreational fisheries recommended that “small area”
70 estimation (SAE) procedures be investigated to reduce variability observed in design-based
71 estimators (NAS 2017). Rao and Molina (2015) describe a “small area” as any domain or
72 grouping (not limited to geographic areas) in which the number of available samples is
73 inadequate to provide estimates with the desired level of precision.

74

75 Another challenge is prediction of average weights for strata with no observations. This occurs
76 due to a lack of sampling, or when a species is observed in the catch but a length or weight
77 sample is not collected. In either case, some form of data imputation is needed (Rubin 1987,
78 Gelman and Hill 2006). This process involves selection of an imputation model, as well as a
79 method to characterize uncertainty. Estimation for strata with zero samples requires a model-
80 based approach (Pfeffermann 2013), and can be considered a special case of SAE.

81

82 Currently, all three western states use ‘borrowing rules’ (or simply ‘borrowing’) to reduce
83 variability in average weight estimates and/or to predict average weights for unobserved strata.
84 Although details of this approach vary among states, it involves a deterministic algorithm that
85 replicates (‘borrows’) data from observed strata when sample sizes do not meet a pre-specified
86 threshold. These data are assumed to be representative of the sparsely-sampled or unsampled
87 target stratum. Since data are replicated across strata, estimates of uncertainty are not clearly
88 defined and are sometimes ignored (i.e., average weights are treated as a constant). Preferably,
89 estimators of recreational catch in weight should account for uncertainty in both factors, catch in

90 numbers and average weight (Goodman 1960). Estimates of uncertainty are especially important
91 when data standards include precision thresholds, such as those recently established for
92 recreational fishing surveys in the United States¹.

93
94 In this paper, we seek to address several of the above-mentioned issues using a model-based
95 approach to estimate average fish weights. Specifically, we estimate average weights using
96 hierarchical regression models (Gelman 2006). These models pool information across strata,
97 ‘borrowing strength’ to reduce variability in estimates for sparsely-sampled strata, without the
98 need for data replication. For each species, we evaluate covariates used in the borrowing rules
99 (year and month), but also examine spatial (port) effects and vessel characteristics. Posterior
100 predictive distributions for average weight are used for data imputation in unobserved strata. Our
101 model-based approach produces estimates of average weight with uncertainty for both sampled
102 and unsampled strata. These can be combined with estimates of total catch (in numbers) to
103 produce estimates of total catch in weight that reflect uncertainty in both catch and average
104 weight.

105
106 We apply our model-based method to marine recreational fishery data from Washington, USA.
107 We compare model-based estimates of average weight to current estimates based on ‘borrowing
108 rules’ for several groundfish species in the Washington recreational fishery. Species were chosen
109 to include primary targets, as well as uncommon to rare components of the catch. Lastly, we use
110 model selection to evaluate important sources of variability in average weight and to identify a
111 model structure that has good predictive ability, a simple interpretation, and is easily
112 implemented using freely available software.

113
114

115 **2. Methods**

116

117 *2.1. Data and current estimation approach*

118

119 Washington Department of Fish and Wildlife (WDFW) collects fish length and weight data from
120 the coastal groundfish sport fishery in waters off the coast of Washington, USA. These efforts,
121 referred to as “biological sampling,” are independent of the sampling design for catch estimation.
122 Biological sampling is conducted by two interrelated groups - the Ocean Sampling Program
123 (OSP) and the Marine Fish Science (MFS) group (Davis and Wargo 2020). The OSP collects
124 length data at all ports, and also collects weight data upon request. For the species examined in
125 this study, OSP samples were available for the months of February through November, as fishing
126 effort is greatly reduced in winter months. The OSP sample unit is a randomly selected boat trip,
127 with four primary sites: Neah Bay, La Push, Westport, and Ilwaco. At the Westport site, the OSP
128 samples fish landed by private boats and the MFS samples carcass lengths from charter boats.
129 From March – September, the MFS also samples at Neah Bay and La Push to enhance data
130 collections. The MFS does not sample sport landings at Ilwaco. Data from both sampling
131 programs are combined to estimate average weight using WDFW’s borrowing rules.

132

¹ NOAA Fisheries. (2020, December 4). *NOAA Fisheries Establishes Recreational Fishing Survey and Data Standards*. Retrieved from <https://www.fisheries.noaa.gov/feature-story/noaa-fisheries-establishes-recreational-fishing-survey-and-data-standards>

133 The WDFW borrowing algorithm uses measured fish weights, when available, or weights
134 predicted from measured lengths using the best available weight-length relationship (see
135 supplemental materials for additional details). To remove outliers, fish are excluded if they
136 exceed a maximum length threshold for each species. The algorithm estimates average weights
137 for each species as the arithmetic mean for any year/month stratum having at least 50
138 observations. If fewer than 50 weights are available in a stratum, data from previous month(s)
139 are added, going back one month at a time, until the 50-fish minimum requirement is either met
140 or exceeded. If fewer than 50 weights are available across all sampled months, an average weight
141 is assigned from a lookup table in the database. Length and weight data are not available for
142 released fish, and released fish are assumed to have the same average weight as retained fish in
143 the same stratum. An analysis of differences in weight between retained and released fish would
144 require a change to WDFW's current sampling design, and is beyond the scope of this analysis.
145 See the supplementary materials for a more detailed description and flowchart of WDFW's
146 borrowing rules for average weight estimation.

147
148 We examine data for eight species. These include Black Rockfish (*Sebastes melanops*) and
149 Lingcod (*Ophiodon elongates*), both of which are primary targets of the recreational fishery. We
150 also include species that are less commonly sampled, such as Canary Rockfish (*S. pinniger*) and
151 Quillback Rockfish (*S. maliger*). These were chosen to represent 'data-poor' species for this time
152 period, as they had smaller sample sizes and a greater number of strata with no observations.
153 Other species in the study include China Rockfish (*S. nebulosus*), Copper Rockfish (*S. caurinus*),
154 Cabezon (*Scorpaenichthys marmoratus*), and the Blue/Deacon Rockfish complex, a cryptic
155 species pair (*Sebastes mystinus* and *S. diaconus*) that are not differentiated in the catch, but have
156 generally similar life histories (Bizzarro et al. 2020). We refer to the Blue/Deacon species
157 complex as "Blue Rockfish" for simplicity.

158
159 WDFW's biological samples and average weight estimates from the borrowing algorithm were
160 obtained from the Recreational Fisheries Information Network (RecFIN; recfin.org). RecFIN is a
161 repository of marine recreational fishing data for the states of Washington, Oregon, and
162 California. In coordination with WDFW, RecFIN staff linked weight records and estimates of
163 catch (in numbers) from the database to relevant covariates, created a custom view to simplify
164 queries, and facilitated access to data in a format that could be directly imported for our models.
165 All analyses in this study were conducted using the R programming language and environment
166 (R Core Team, 2020).

167 168 2.2. Model-based approach

169
170 We estimate average fish weight using generalized linear models (GLM) and generalized linear
171 mixed models (GLMM; Gelman 2006). These models offer a well-established framework for
172 identifying important sources of variability (model selection) and evaluating model performance.
173 They also allow us to estimate mean weight for both sampled and unsampled strata. We fit
174 models to the same data used to implement WDFW's borrowing rules. However, we use only the
175 observed data in each stratum, and do not replicate data from earlier months or require a
176 minimum number of samples per stratum. Similar to the borrowing algorithm, we include
177 weights predicted from lengths when direct weight measurements are not available. Hierarchical

178 (mixed) models were fit using the ‘rstanarm’ and ‘lme4’ packages and GLMs were fit using the
179 ‘glm’ function in R (Goodrich et al. 2020, Bates et al. 2015, R Core Team 2020).

180
181 We assume that fish weights (the response variables) are gamma distributed since the data are
182 continuous, strictly positive, and have a variance that increases with the mean. We relate mean
183 weight to the linear predictor via a log link function, and evaluate candidate models
184 independently for each species (i.e., species is not a covariate in the linear predictor).

185
186 Covariates considered during model selection included year, month, port of landing, and boat
187 mode (private and charter). Port of landing and boat mode are not part of WDFW’s borrowing
188 algorithm, but are strata used for catch estimation (in numbers). Therefore, we included them in
189 the set of candidate models. Port of landing could affect average weight if fish near a particular
190 port experienced differences in growth rate and/or exploitation history. Data from small,
191 secondary ports were combined with the primary sites for the model. Specifically, samples from
192 Chinook were combined with Ilwaco, and samples from Ocean Shores (OS) were combined with
193 Westport. Boat modes could also have an effect on the average weight of landed fish. Charter
194 boats, for example, may have access to more distant, less exploited reefs with larger fish.
195 WDFW’s catch estimates are also stratified by catch area and trip type (WDFW 2017). These
196 covariates were not included in the candidate set of models because they were not consistently
197 available for weight observations due to differences in the sampling designs for biological data
198 and catch estimation. All covariates were coded as categorical variables (‘factors’ in R).

199
200 As noted earlier, challenges with estimation of average weight include highly variable estimates
201 due to small sample sizes, and prediction for unobserved strata. In addition to models with only
202 ‘fixed’ effects (single-level models), we evaluate models that estimate group-level parameters
203 using information within the group and across groups (i.e., hierarchical models, ‘partial pooling,’
204 or ‘random’ effects). This is commonly referred to as borrowing strength or shrinkage (Gelman
205 and Hill 2006). In our hierarchical models, the average weight estimate for a group is ‘shrunk’
206 toward the mean across groups. The amount of shrinkage depends on the amount of information
207 within the group itself, and predictions for unobserved groups reflect uncertainty among groups.

208
209 All linear predictors were coded using the default ‘treatment’ contrasts for the design matrices.
210 Diffuse priors were selected for regression coefficients in the Bayesian models using the
211 ‘rstanarm’ package in R. Specifically, normal priors with a zero mean and standard deviation
212 (SD) of 3 kg for the intercept, and normal priors with a zero mean and SD=1 kg for the offsets.
213 An exponential prior with rate parameter equal to 0.25 (mean = 4) was used for the shape
214 parameter of the gamma distribution. Further details about prior specification in ‘rstanarm’ are
215 described by Goodrich et al. (2020).

216
217 We initially fit models for each species using maximum likelihood (for GLMs) or restricted
218 maximum likelihood for GLMMs (using the ‘glmer’ function in ‘lme4’). This approach reduces
219 the time needed to compare models as Bayesian estimation can be slow for larger data sets. It
220 also provides an opportunity to compare parameter estimates between models to confirm that our
221 choice of prior distributions do not significantly influence the results. We use Akaike’s
222 Information Criterion (AIC) to narrow the set of candidate models based on the (restricted)

223 maximum likelihood fits, then fit Bayesian hierarchical models using ‘rstanarm’ for final model
224 diagnostics and inference.

225
226 Convergence diagnostics for optimization algorithms included monitoring of convergence,
227 defined as gradients less than 0.005. Evidence of convergence for Bayesian models was assessed
228 using Gelman and Rubin’s (1992) diagnostic (“ \hat{R} ”) as reported by ‘rstanarm’ output, for each
229 parameter. Models with \hat{R} values less than 1.1 for all parameters were accepted. Bayesian
230 models were also monitored for divergent transitions in the Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC)
231 algorithm and maximum tree depth of the No-U-Turn-Sampler (Monnahan et al. 2017).

232
233 Once a model is selected and passes the above-mentioned convergence diagnostics, we evaluate
234 model performance. For this, we rely on posterior predictive checks (Gabry et al. 2019), whereby
235 the fitted model is used to simulate 10,000 replicate data sets that are then compared to the
236 observed data set. We use a combination of graphical and quantitative checks. Examples of
237 graphical checks include histograms comparing observations or group-level means to predictive
238 distributions. Quantitative checks include measures of predictive coverage, comparing quantiles
239 of the observed weights to quantiles of the posterior predictive distributions.

240
241 After selecting a model for average weight estimation, we compare estimates of mean weight
242 derived from the current borrowing algorithm (i.e., with data replication) to estimates from the
243 model-based approach. For each species, we plot group-level posterior means (i.e., every
244 observed combination of year/month/port/mode) from the model, and point estimates from the
245 borrowing algorithm, against arithmetic means of the observed weights.

246
247 Finally, we illustrate how uncertainty in estimates of average weight relate to sample size. For
248 each species, we plot percent standard error of the posterior mean as a function of sample size.
249 This analysis can be used to inform target sampling rates and to help optimize allocation of
250 sampling effort.

251
252

253 3. Results

254
255 The eight species we examined differed in average weight (grand means), ranging from less than
256 1 kg (blue and China rockfishes) to over 3 kg for lingcod (Table 1). Two primary targets of the
257 fishery (black rockfish and lingcod) had the largest total sample sizes (N=19,359 and N=10,569,
258 respectively). Canary rockfish had the smallest sample size (N=3,495), primarily due to
259 regulatory limits over the observed time period. Sample sizes for other species were in the range
260 of 4,000 – 5,000 weights. The median number of samples per observed stratum ranged from 10
261 for quillback rockfish to 49 for black rockfish (Table 1).

262
263 Samples were collected over 8 years (2010-2017) and across 4 port groups, 2 boat modes, and 7-
264 10 months depending on the species. Monthly coverage varied across years within each species.
265 During the primary months of March through October, the proportion of *potential* strata (512
266 possible combinations of year/month/port/mode) having at least one weight sample varied from
267 13% coverage for canary rockfish to 61% coverage for black rockfish. In practice, however,
268 catch does not occur in all combinations of year, month, port, and mode. So, while the proportion

269 of *landed* strata with weight samples would be larger, the model is still able to generate
270 predictions for all strata (observed or unobserved).

271

272

273 **Table 1. Summary of WDFW fish weight data by species, 2010-2017. Grand mean weight is the arithmetic**
274 **mean across all samples. The proportion of strata sampled is based on 512 year/month/port/mode**
275 **combinations having at least one sample, excluding winter months (November-February).**

276

Species	Average Weight (grand mean, kg)	Total Sample Size (N)	Median N per sampled stratum	Proportion of strata sampled
Black Rockfish	1.19	19,359	49	0.61
Blue Rockfish	0.96	4,165	16	0.25
Cabezón	2.81	4,186	15	0.40
Canary Rockfish	1.01	3,495	26	0.13
China Rockfish	0.94	4,547	12	0.31
Copper Rockfish	1.61	3,900	12	0.25
Lingcod	3.60	10,569	24	0.60
Quillback Rockfish	1.45	4,467	10	0.31

277

278

279 For this study, we evaluated 14 candidate models for each species (Table 2). We began with
280 GLMs (models 1-8), but due to the sparse nature of the data, these were limited in terms of
281 estimable fixed-effect interaction terms. We also considered a set of GLMMs that all included a
282 4-way interaction term as a random effect (models 9-14; Table 2). In the GLMMs, all
283 combinations of year/month/port/mode are estimated as deviations sharing a common
284 distribution. This simple random effects structure was chosen as it is highly flexible, easy to
285 interpret, allows for ‘partial pooling’ of information across strata, and facilitates prediction for
286 unobserved strata.

287

288 Based on Delta-AIC (AIC-min(AIC); calculated for each species separately), we found that all
289 the GLMMs showed significant improvements in fit relative to the GLMs (Table 2). This is not
290 surprising given the increase in model complexity associated with the 4-way interaction, and the
291 fact that the penalty term in AIC only counts the random effect as 1 extra parameter (the
292 hierarchical variance parameter). However, the purpose of using AIC in this study was to narrow
293 the set of candidate models prior to evaluating model performance. It seems unlikely that a single
294 model structure could be selected as the ‘best’ model for all species following any criterion,
295 given differences in biology and fishery characteristics over time and among ports. However,
296 one model may provide adequate performance across a wide range of species.

297

298 The GLMMs in the candidate set differ in terms of their fixed effect structures (models 9-14,
299 Table 2). The simplest GLMM (model 9) estimates a single intercept parameter (population
300 mean) as a fixed effect and performed relatively well for many species. Model 10 estimates
301 independent means for each year, along with stratum-specific deviations for each
302 year/month/port/mode that are drawn from a common distribution. Models 11 and 12 are similar,
303 with port group and boat mode replacing the year-specific estimates, respectively. Models 13 and
304 14 assume additive fixed effects for port/mode and year/port/mode, again with stratum-level
305 deviations estimated via the random effect term.

306

307 **Table 2. Comparison of GLMs (models 1-8) and GLMMs (models 9-14) based on Delta-AIC (AIC – min(AIC)), by species. Degrees of freedom = d.f.**
 308 **Codes for categorical covariates are yr = year, pt = port group, md = boat mode, and mo = month. Models (GLMMs) with a random intercept (a 4-way**
 309 **interaction term) are indicated by “(1 | yr:mo:pt:md),” following notation used in the ‘lme4’ and ‘rstanarm’ packages for R. * indicates failed**
 310 **convergence of the optimizer in glmer.**
 311

#	Linear Predictor	d.f.	Species								Average Δ-AIC
			Black Rockfish	Blue Rockfish	Cabezon	Canary Rockfish	China Rockfish	Copper Rockfish	Lingcod	Quillback Rockfish	
1	yr	9	2384	1548	1454	893	2175	633	2106	1431	1578
2	pt	5	2215	1622	1049	1208	658	693	2010	1127	1323
3	md	3	2345	1792	1629	1286	2123	730	2245	1159	1664
4	yr + pt	12	2152	1409	863	877	610	589	1903	1026	1178
5	yr + md	10	2311	1514	1452	893	2001	624	2108	1066	1496
6	pt + md	6	2163	1612	1038	1202	658	692	2012	1086	1308
7	yr + pt + md	13	2118	1389	832	864	610	564	1904	991	1159
8	yr + pt + md + pt:md	16	2001	1389	829	837	493	490	1860	912	1101
9	Intercept + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	3	5	0*	24	0	35	5	14*	22	13
10	yr + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	10	5	2	29	11*	43	7	16	28	18
11	pt + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	6	1	1	1*	3	0	7	0	1	2
12	md + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	4	4	2*	25	1	32	5	13	16	12
13	pt + md + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	7	1	3	0	5	1	1	0	0	1
14	yr + pt + md + (1 yr:mo:pt:md)	14*	0*	7*	1*	17*	4*	0*	1*	3*	4

312
313

314 Although the simplest GLMM (#9) was the ‘best’ among candidate models for canary rockfish,
315 the optimization in ‘glmer’ failed to converge (gradient > 0.005) when the same model was fit to
316 data for blue rockfish and lingcod (Table 2). In fact, of the 48 models fit using ‘glmer,’ 13 did
317 not converge. Eight of these cases were for one model (#14), which didn’t converge for any
318 species and was not considered further. The remaining 5 cases that did not converge did not
319 show a consistent pattern (Table 2). Convergence issues with ‘glmer’ are often not an issue when
320 using a Bayesian framework (see discussion for details). Since we used Bayesian models for
321 final inference, and the converged GLMMs consistently outperformed the GLMs, we moved
322 forward with performance testing to determine whether the ‘best’ model in the set was a good
323 model.

324
325 One GLMM (model 13, Table 2) had the lowest average AIC, and also converged for all species.
326 This model specifies additive fixed effects for port group and boat mode, deviations and variance
327 of the random effect term, and a shape (dispersion) parameter for the assumed gamma
328 distribution. We selected model 13 for final inference, performance evaluation, and comparison
329 to the existing borrowing algorithm.

330
331 Bayesian fits with model 13 did not show any evidence of lack of convergence, with $\hat{R} < 1.1$ for
332 all parameters, no divergent transitions, and maximum tree depths <15 (the default in
333 ‘rstanarm’), for all eight species in our study. Posterior predictive checks suggest that the models
334 were able to adequately reproduce patterns in the observed data (Figures 1-6 illustrate results for
335 black rockfish; see supplementary materials for results from other species). Specifically,
336 marginal means by year, month, port, and mode were calculated for each of 10,000 simulated
337 data sets from the model, and compared to marginal means from the observed data set.

338
339 Marginal means by year (Figure 1) were consistent with observed means, even though year was
340 not included as a fixed effect in the model. Since many months may have few or no samples, we
341 also model month as part of the 4-way interaction term. However, monthly marginal means of
342 the posterior predictive distribution show that the model is capable of capturing seasonal
343 variability (Figure 2). The model also predicts greater uncertainty for months with fewer samples
344 (e.g., February and November) compared to peak months during the summer (Figure 2). This
345 demonstrates that deviations in the random effect are able to capture annual and seasonal
346 changes in mean weight, and reproduce the expected relative changes in uncertainty.

347
348 Unlike the borrowing algorithm, model 13 accounts for differences in mean weight associated
349 with port group (spatial effects) and boat mode. Black rockfish caught in the Ilwaco/Chinook
350 port group had a mean weight of roughly 1.28 kg, while average weight in Neah Bay was 1.13
351 kg (Figure 3). Charter boats, on average, caught larger black rockfish than private boats, and this
352 difference was also captured by the model (Figure 4).

353
354 Model performance is often best visualized by comparing observed and predicted values. Figure
355 5 reveals that, relative to the borrowing algorithm, predictions from the model-based approach
356 are less concentrated around the population mean (roughly 1.2 kg, Table 1) and more closely
357 match the observed weights. This is especially true for observed values below 1 kg and above 1.4
358 kg. This improvement in fit to the observed values when using the model-based approach also
359 holds for the other species we examined (see Supplemental Materials).

360
 361 Another useful metric of model performance is a comparison of observed data distributions to
 362 simulated data sets from the model. If simulated data are consistent with the observed data, then
 363 95% of observations should fall within the 95% central interval, and likewise 50% of
 364 observations should fall within a 50% central interval. Using model 13, we found that the 95%
 365 highest density intervals for the posterior predictive distributions contained almost exactly 95%
 366 of the observations (Table 3). Across species, the 50% highest density interval contained a
 367 slightly larger fraction of the data (51-60%; Table 3). This suggests that the data distributions are
 368 slightly more concentrated around their central tendencies than the predictive densities from the
 369 model.

370
 371 **Table 3. Fraction of observations, by species, that fall within the 50 and 95 percent highest density intervals**
 372 **from the posterior predictive distribution given model 13. PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets.**
 373

Species	50%	95%
Black Rockfish	0.533	0.951
Blue Rockfish	0.576	0.947
Cabazon	0.550	0.948
Canary Rockfish	0.599	0.954
China Rockfish	0.556	0.954
Copper Rockfish	0.509	0.961
Lingcod	0.585	0.942
Quillback Rockfish	0.592	0.949

374
 375 As mentioned earlier, one of the motivations for using borrowing algorithms is to reduce
 376 variability in mean weights that results from small sample sizes. Our model-based approach
 377 achieves this through ‘partial pooling’ of information among the coefficients of the random
 378 effects term. In this framework, stratum-level estimates are ‘shrunk’ toward the population
 379 mean by an amount that reflects the amount of information in the available data (Figure 6, black
 380 open circles). Estimates from well-informed strata will change very little, while estimates from
 381 poorly-informed strata will shrink towards the population mean. The amount of shrinkage
 382 depends on the variance of the data as well as the distance from the population mean. For a
 383 primary target species like black rockfish, many strata have large sample sizes. As a result,
 384 posterior means from the model are largely consistent with the observed, stratum-level means
 385 (Figure 6, black open circles). However, when estimated means are very large (e.g., >1.5 kg) or
 386 very small (e.g., <0.75 kg), the shrinkage effect becomes much more noticeable in the model-
 387 based estimates.

388
 389 Estimates from the borrowing algorithm are less variable than the stratum-level means (Figure 6,
 390 grey solid circles). However, unlike the model-based approach, estimates of mean weight from
 391 the borrowing algorithm do not reflect information in the available data. The relationship
 392 between the data in a stratum and the estimates from the algorithm is very weak. In fact, some
 393 estimates from the borrowing algorithm appear to be ‘shrinking’ in the opposite direction one
 394 would expect (away from the population mean). Since model 13 includes fixed effects for port
 395 group and boat mode, the random effects are actually estimated as deviations from the 8 possible
 396 combinations of port & mode. In that sense, the dashed lines in Figure 5 do not exactly match the
 397 population means in the model (observant readers will notice that a single estimate from the

398 model appears to ‘shrink’ in the wrong direction). However, we show only one horizontal and
399 one vertical reference line representing the population grand mean for the sake of clarity.
400 Shrinkage plots for other species, similar to Figure 5, are available with the supplemental
401 materials.

402
403 Given that data are replicated through time, it is not clear how to calculate variance estimates for
404 the current WDFW borrowing rules. As noted earlier, uncertainty in average weight is needed in
405 order to properly estimate uncertainty for total catch in weight. We have shown that estimates of
406 uncertainty from our model-based approach reflect uncertainty in the data for these eight species
407 (Table 3). Another benefit of quantifying uncertainty in mean weight is understanding how data
408 collection affects precision of the estimates. Percent standard errors of the model-based average
409 weight estimates decrease with increasing sample sizes, as one would expect (Figure 7). Sample
410 sizes of 50 or more per stratum result in PSEs less than 7% for all species, and sample sizes of
411 100 or greater consistently produce PSEs less than 5%.

412
413 Small sample sizes (e.g., <25 fish), however, can have PSEs between 10-20%, which may
414 influence estimates of uncertainty for total catch in weight. Predictions for unsampled strata will
415 have even larger PSEs, but in practice most catch estimates used for management are an
416 aggregate across multiple strata (reducing PSEs for the aggregate catch).

417
418

419 **4. Discussion**

420

421 Information about average fish weight from recreational fisheries is needed to meet the
422 requirement for total coast-wide harvest and mortality in federally-managed U.S. fish stocks.
423 Catch estimates from all three West Coast states (Washington, Oregon, and California) are
424 produced in numbers of fish, along with estimates of uncertainty. We propose a model-based
425 approach for estimating mean weight conditional on several other variables (year, month, port,
426 and mode). The same model is used to generate estimates for observed strata and predictive
427 distributions for unsampled strata, both with uncertainty. We show that the model-based
428 estimates are better able to reproduce the observed data than the current borrowing algorithm,
429 which ignores uncertainty in average weight. The model-based estimates can be combined with
430 existing estimates of catch in numbers to produce estimates of total catch in weight that reflect
431 uncertainty in both average weight and catch in numbers (Goodman 1960). This propagation of
432 uncertainty is not possible using the deterministic borrowing algorithm.

433

434 Although we illustrate our method with data from Washington State, this study provides a
435 general framework for average weight estimation that warrants consideration by other agencies
436 that employ borrowing rules. Among U.S. West Coast recreational fisheries, deterministic
437 algorithms differ by state, and none of the algorithms quantify uncertainty. This study describes a
438 consistent framework that does not require data replication, identifies important sources of
439 variability in mean weight, quantifies uncertainty, pools information to better inform strata with
440 small sample sizes, imputes average weight for unsampled strata, and helps inform survey
441 design. The model-based approach also appears to work well across a range of species, from
442 ‘data-rich’ to ‘data-poor.’

443

444 Variability in mean weight estimates, which can arise due to small sample sizes, is addressed in
445 our method through partial pooling of information (Gelman and Hill 2006). The resulting
446 ‘shrinkage’ of imprecise estimates toward population means reduces the influence of erratic
447 average weights on estimates of catch in biomass. The message in Figure 5 is two-fold. First, the
448 model-based estimates of mean weight are more consistent with observed means, compared to
449 the borrowing algorithm. Second, and equally important, is the fact that the model only shrinks
450 the estimates as far as the population mean, unlike the borrowing algorithm which appears to
451 ‘shrink’ estimates in the wrong direction. Another advantage of partial pooling is that variance of
452 the random effects can be propagated in predictions for unsampled strata.

453
454 SAE using hierarchical (generalized linear mixed-effects) models has a well-established
455 theoretical basis (Ghosh and Rao 1994; Schaible 1996; Pfeffermann 2013; Rao and Molina
456 2015), but to our knowledge has not been proposed for estimation of average weights for
457 recreational fisheries. As noted by Schaible (1996), small area (“indirect”) estimators are often
458 only considered after a sampling design is developed and implemented. Future research could
459 examine how the use of SAE methods, such as the one we propose, interact with design-based,
460 direct estimation methods and potentially influence the design of fishery surveys in general.

461
462 Advantages of the model-based approach also include a well-established framework for model
463 selection. We use AIC to illustrate this approach, but other information criteria such as the
464 Widely-Applicable Information Criterion (WAIC) and Leave-One-Out Information Criterion
465 (LOOIC) are reasonable alternatives (Vehtari et al. 2017). These methods have the advantage of
466 not requiring a strict definition of model dimension for the penalty term. Although AIC treats the
467 random effect term in our models as a single parameter, the use of posterior predictive checks
468 provides a means to ensure that the ‘best’ model in the candidate set is also a good model. While
469 we chose a single model that performs well across a wide range of species, another option would
470 be to tailor models to specific data sets depending on the unique characteristics of a species
471 and/or fishery. For example, canary rockfish was declared overfished in 2000 and rebuilt in 2016
472 (PFMC 2018). Due to limited landings during that time, a simple model for average weight may
473 be warranted, while a more complex model may be supported in subsequent years with larger
474 sample sizes.

475
476 We encountered issues with convergence for some GLMMs that were fit using the glmer
477 package in R. These models were not used for final inference, but the speed of the optimization
478 algorithm in glmer is useful for rapid evaluation of multiple models during the model selection
479 process. With the exception of model 14 (Table 2), failed convergence was uncommon and could
480 potentially be resolved through modification of settings in the optimization algorithm. Advice on
481 resolving these issues is beyond the scope of this paper, but often includes the suggestion to
482 implement a Bayesian model. We did not encounter convergence issues for these data sets when
483 using rstanarm. This is due in part to specification of “weakly informative” priors that have
484 negligible impacts on results but prevent estimation algorithms from ‘getting lost’ in
485 unreasonable regions of the parameter space (Lemoine 2019).

486
487 Alternatives to the model-based approach include modification of survey designs to estimate
488 catch in biomass as well as catch in numbers. Essentially, estimation of catch rates in biomass
489 would eliminate the need for separate estimates of catch in numbers and average weight.

490 Modification to existing survey designs can be expensive, however, and benefits may not
491 warrant the costs. This approach would also only affect future estimates, and average weight
492 estimates would still be required to convert historical estimates of catch from numbers to weight.
493 Hot and cold deck imputation methods are another option for dealing with missing data
494 (Andridge and Little 2017). The model-based approach offers a single solution to both estimation
495 and imputation, with associated variance estimates, but evaluation of performance and careful
496 examination for evidence of model misspecification is key. We find that posterior predictive
497 checks are a powerful tool for evaluating model performance and diagnosing model
498 misspecification (Gelman and Hill 2006).

499
500 Our analysis of percent standard errors as a function of sample size can be used to inform
501 allocation of sampling effort across strata. If PSEs below 5% are adequate for catch monitoring,
502 then sampling effort beyond 100 fish per stratum could be re-allocated to address other priorities.
503 Model-based estimates of uncertainty may be less than corresponding design-based estimates
504 due to the partial pooling of information, but this bias-variance tradeoff is by design. Since the
505 borrowing algorithm in this study does not provide an estimate of variance, we find the model-
506 based approach to be a significant improvement, both in terms of point estimates and variance
507 estimation.

508
509 Small changes in mean weight can have important implications for catch monitoring and in-
510 season management of primary target species (e.g., black rockfish; H. Hall, WDFW, pers.
511 comm.). Large fluctuations in mean weight due to small sample sizes can produce similar
512 difficulties when they occur for infrequently landed, but constraining species within a mixed-
513 stock fishery (i.e., overfished stocks). The use of borrowing algorithms for average weight
514 estimation is not unique to the U.S. west coast. Similar algorithms have been adopted in the
515 southeast United States (Matter and Turner, 2010; Matter and Rios, 2013). These methods often
516 follow a sequence of increasing aggregation to meet minimum sample sizes, but lack detailed
517 analysis of whether alternative algorithms would better reproduce the observed average weights.
518 Similar to the WDFW example, these algorithms do not provide variance estimates (Southeast
519 Data Assessment and Review, 2016). In these respects, our proposed framework provides a way
520 forward.

521 522 523 **Acknowledgements**

524
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528
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Figure captions for Dick et al.

Figure 1. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for black rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

Figure 2. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms; February – November) for black rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

Figure 3. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for black rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

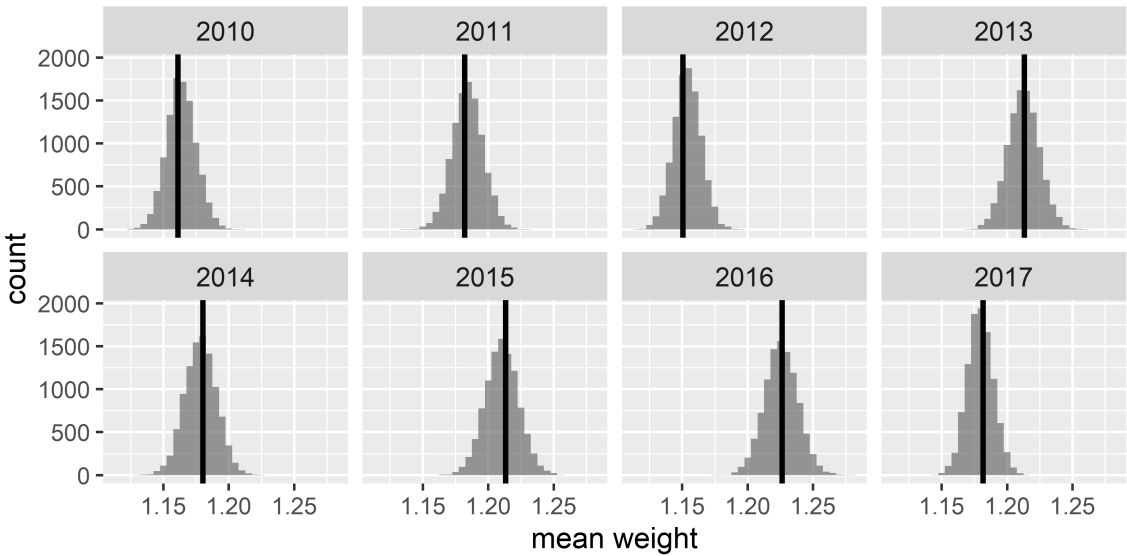
Figure 4. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for black rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

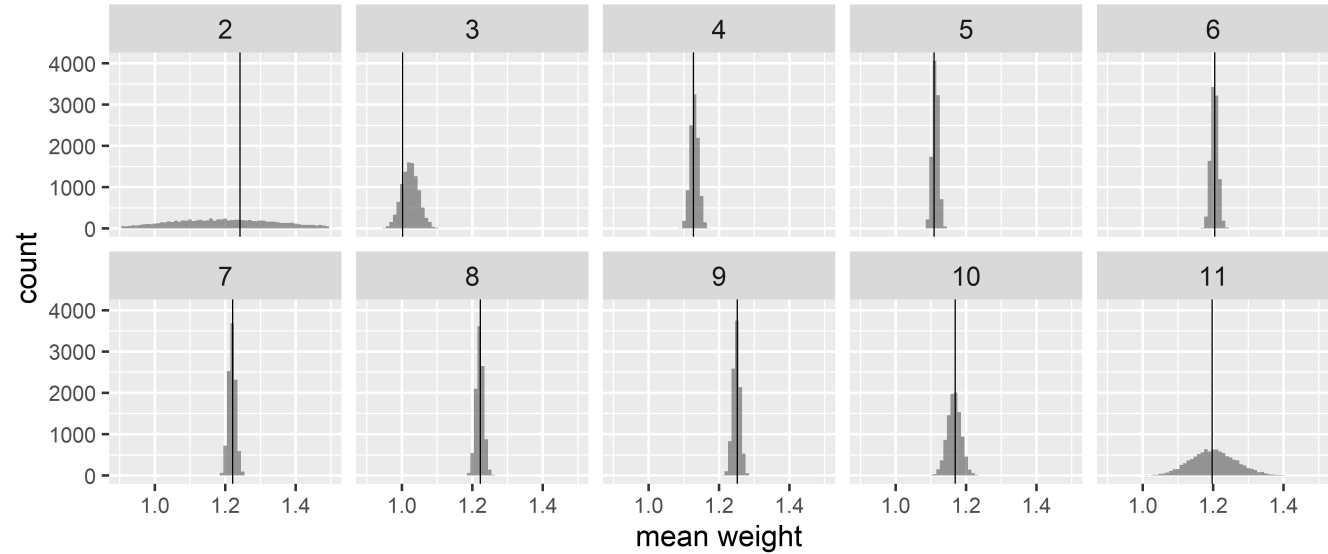
Figure 5. Observed weights [kg] of black rockfish ($n=19,359$) versus the mean of the posterior predictive distributions (upper panel) and the mean from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid line is the 1:1 line for reference.

Figure 6. Estimated posterior means [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for black rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (316 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

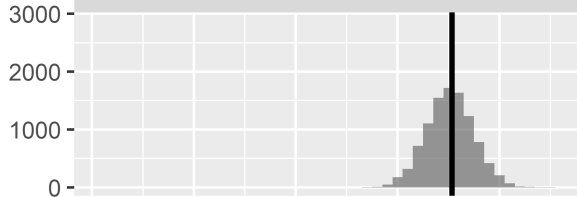
[Figure 7 in color, online only]

Figure 7. Percent standard error (PSE) of the posterior mean by stratum (year/month/port/mode), as a function of sample size and species.

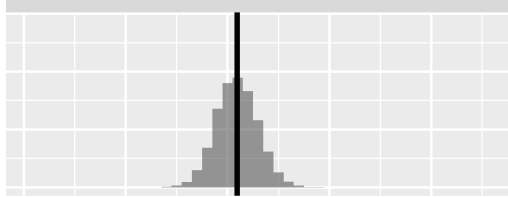




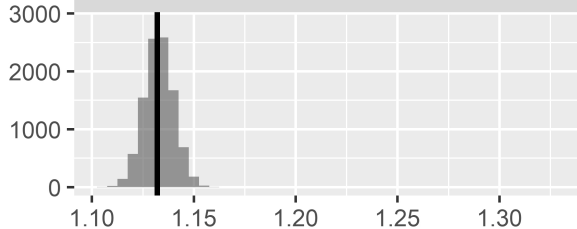
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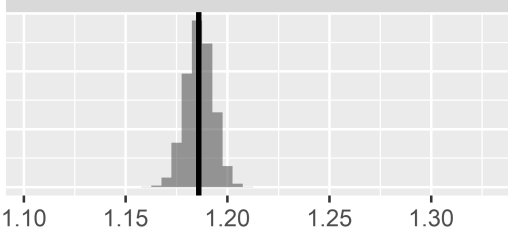
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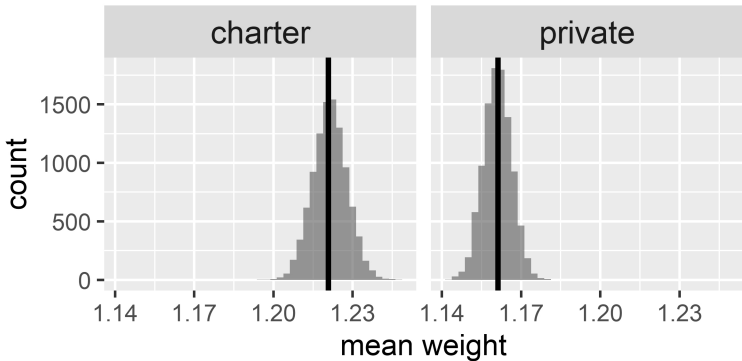
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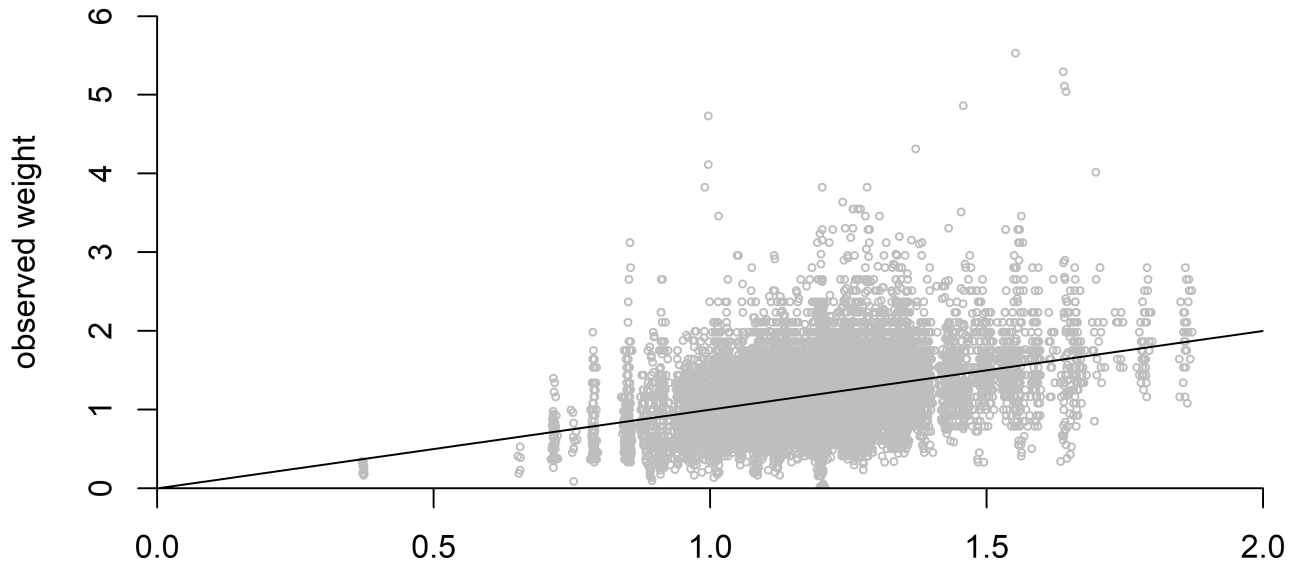


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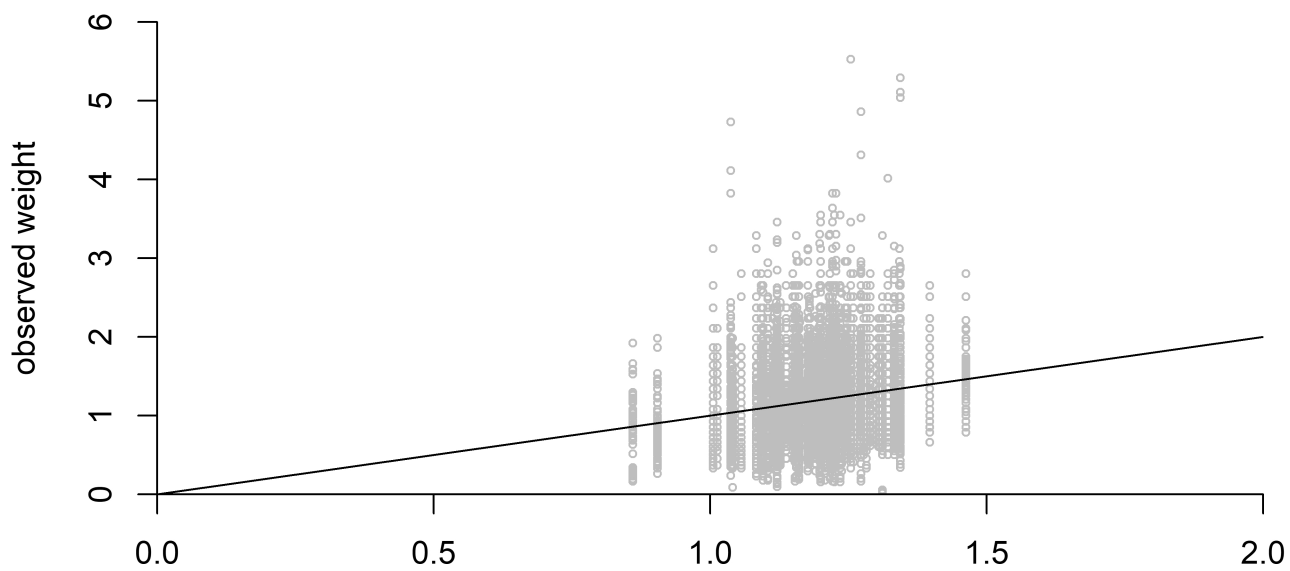


mean weight

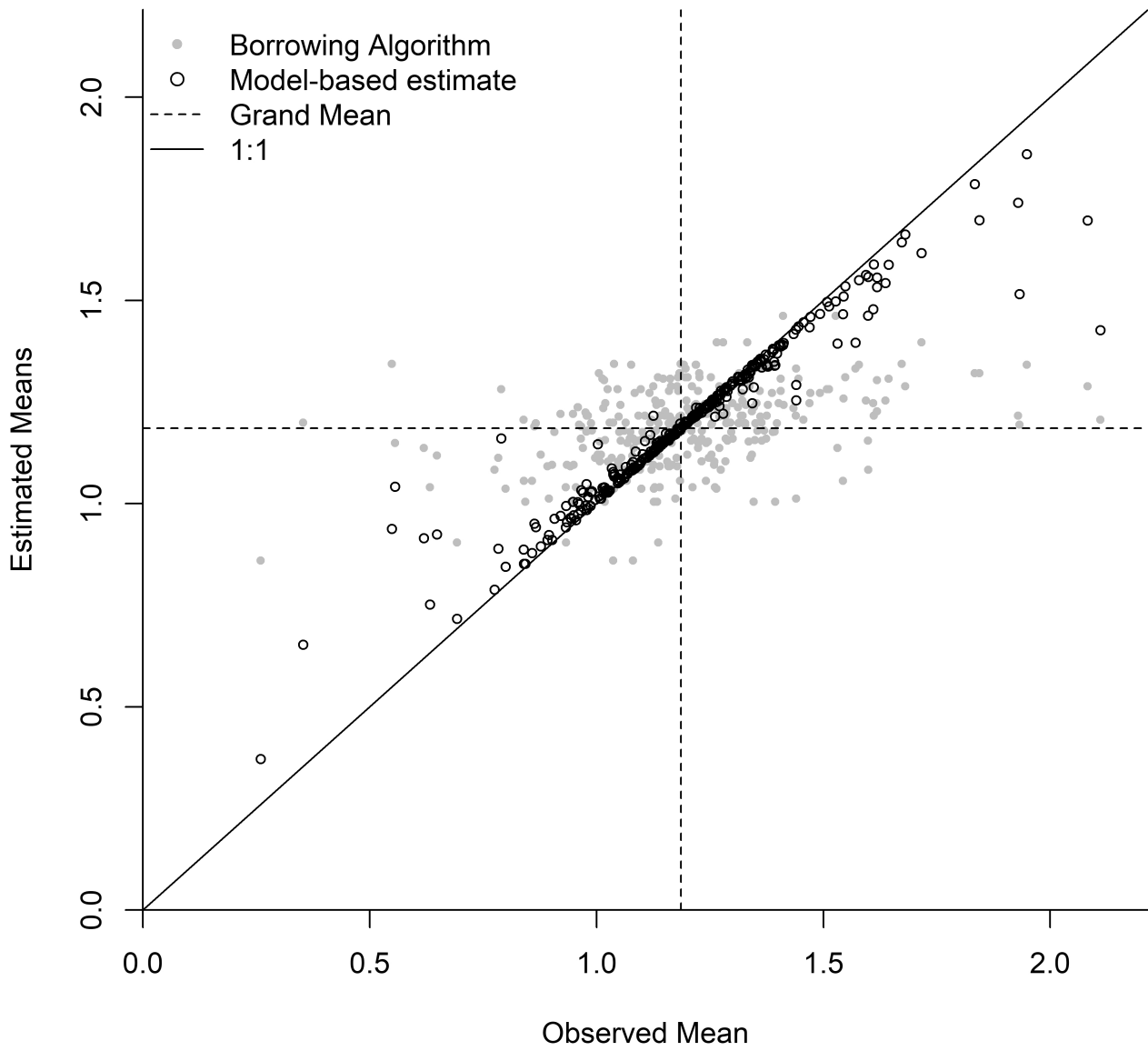




Posterior Predictive Mean



Borrowing Algorithm



Supplementary Materials for Dick et al. (“Model-Based Estimation of Average Weights from Recreational Fisheries”)

The Washington average weight procedure does not calculate separate estimates of average weight for retained and released fish, thus for a given stratification, values of retained and released average weight will be equal. The procedure begins by calculating an imputed weight for each individual Washington sample where a length is provided, but no corresponding weight. The equation used to calculate imputed weight is:

$$imputed\ weight = a \times length^b \tag{1}$$

Where a and b are the species-specific length-weight parameters and length is the length of the sampled fish measured in mm. Records where the length of the sampled fish exceed a stored maximum length threshold are excluded by the procedure and thus, not used in the average weight calculation. For each species, the imputed and measured weights are summed along with a count of the number of weight samples for each year-month stratification. These totals are used to calculate an estimated average weight for each processing-month. The degree of stratification employed in the calculation is dependent upon the number of available weight samples at each stratum level (Table S1, Figure S1). For each aggregation level (hereafter “agg level”), the procedure requires ≥ 50 samples to generate an average weight for a given species. The Washington procedure begins at agg level 7 and assigns an average weight to each year, month, agency, and species stratum. The average weight computation begins with the processing-month and works backwards monthly through time, counting samples and stopping on the month where the sample count reaches ≥ 50 for each given species. Using those samples, an average weight is calculated for the current processing-month. If the 50 sample threshold is not reached at agg level 7, and a fixed weight exists for the respective species and current processing-year, the average weight is assigned from the fixed weight table (agg level 7.1). If an average weight from the fixed weight table is not available for the current processing-year, the procedure selects the average weight from the fixed weight table for the most recent available year for the respective species to assign to the processing-month (agg level 7.2). If an average weight does not exist in the fixed weight table for a given species, then an average weight is calculated using Washington sample data from all available years (agg level 14).

Table S1. Levels of aggregation for average weight calculation, as defined for WDFW borrowing rules. Source: RecFIN 2020.

Agg Level	Agency	Year	Month	Species	Agency	Subregion	Port	Trip Type	Mode	Notes
7	WA			X	X					- Requires at least 50 samples to calculate average weight - No date limit on collection of past records to calculate average weight
7.1	WA	X		X	X					- Average weight value from fixed weight table for processing year
7.2	WA			X	X					- Most recent average weight value from fixed weight table
14	WA			X	X					- Average weight calculated using retained samples from WA for all years - No date limit on collection of past records to calculate average weight

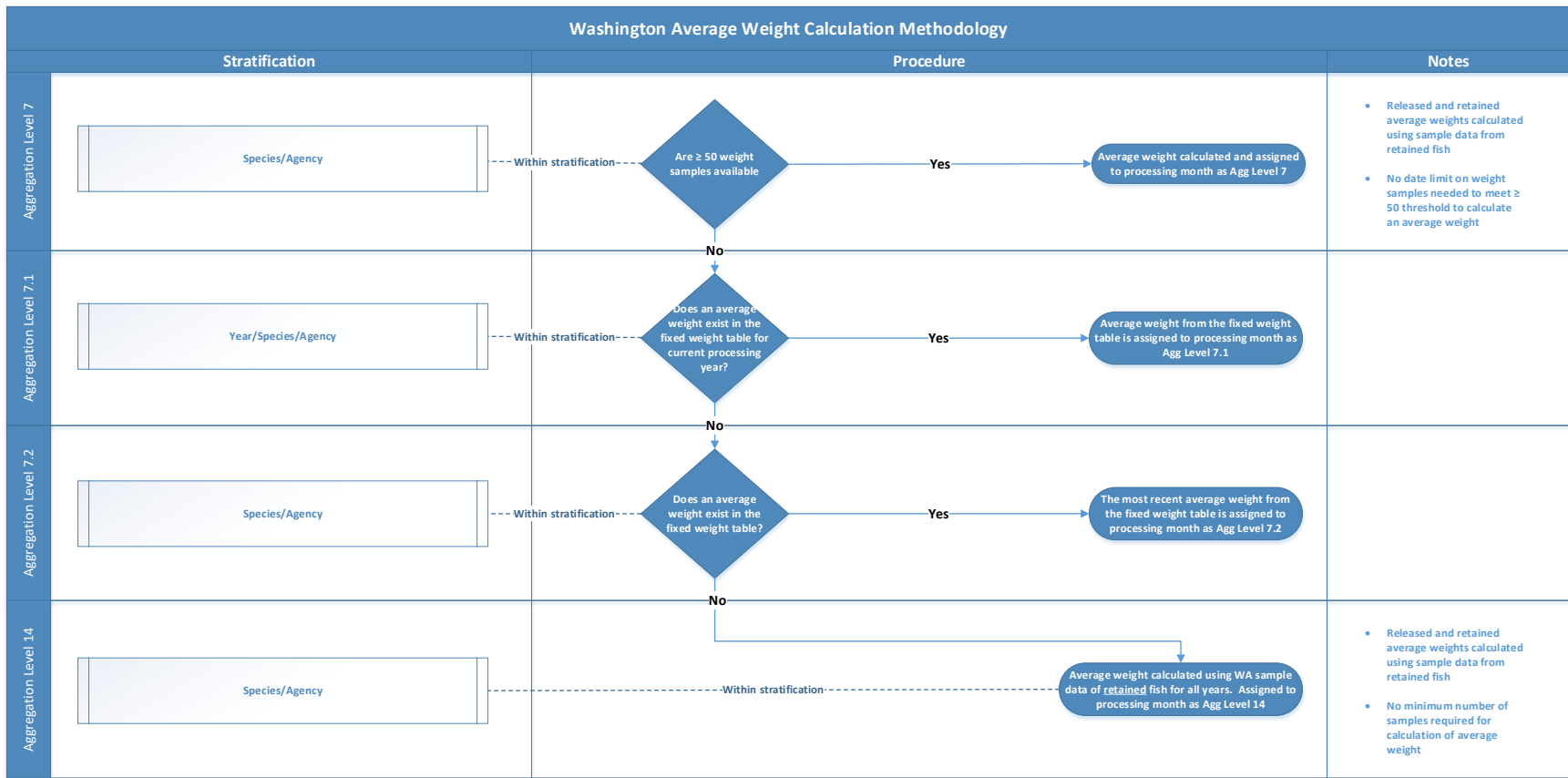


Figure S1. Flowchart of WDFW borrowing rules. Source: RecFIN 2020.

Results for Blue Rockfish

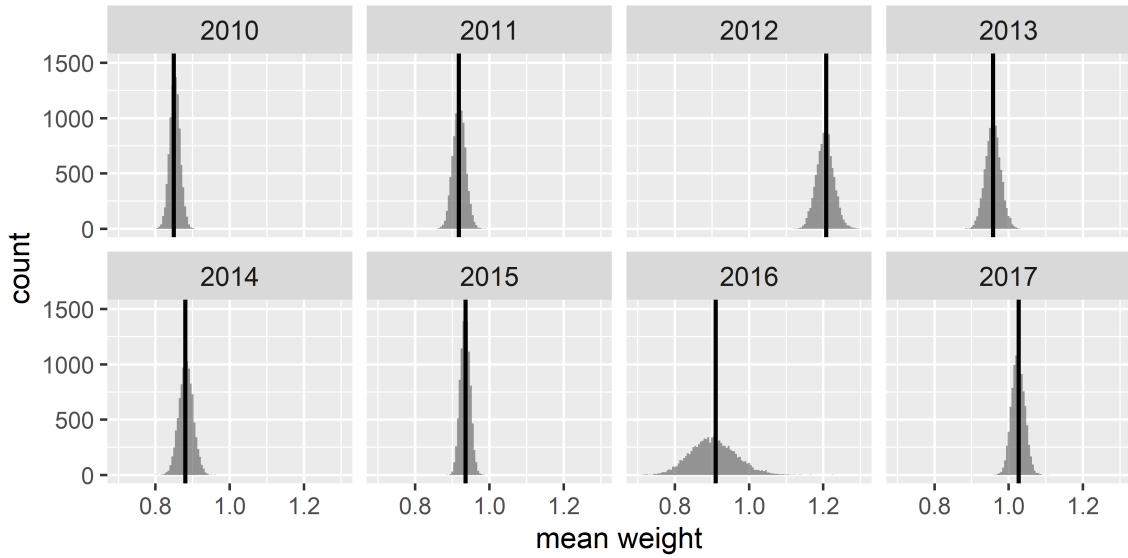


Figure S2. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for blue rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

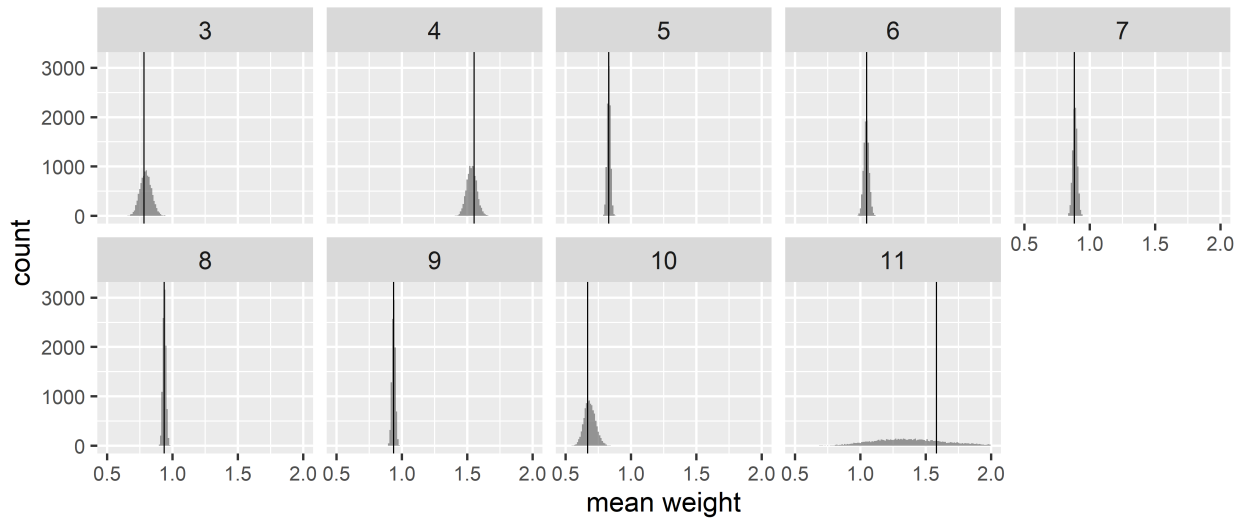


Figure S3. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for blue rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

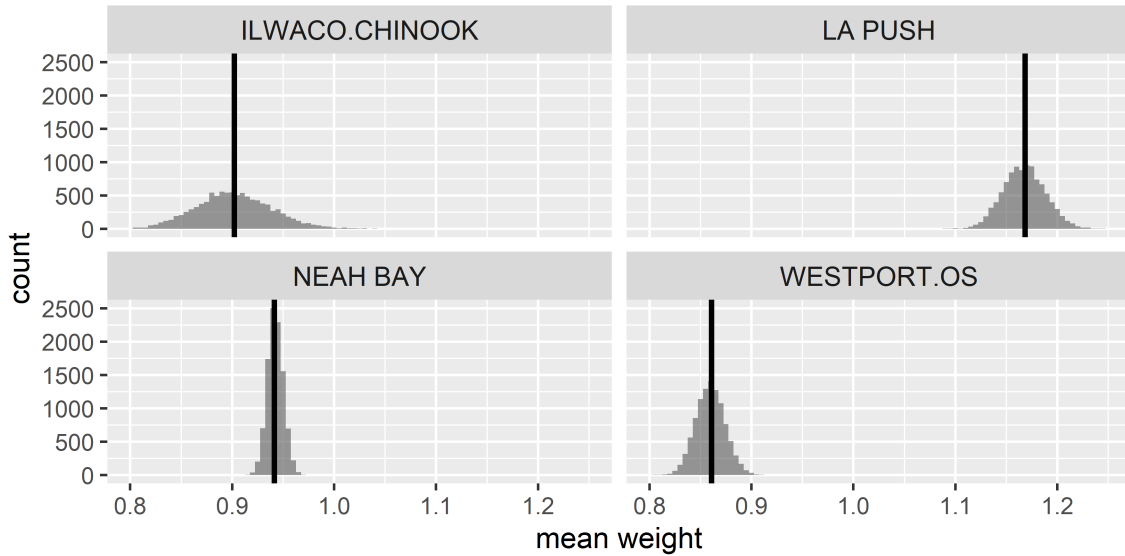


Figure S4. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for blue rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

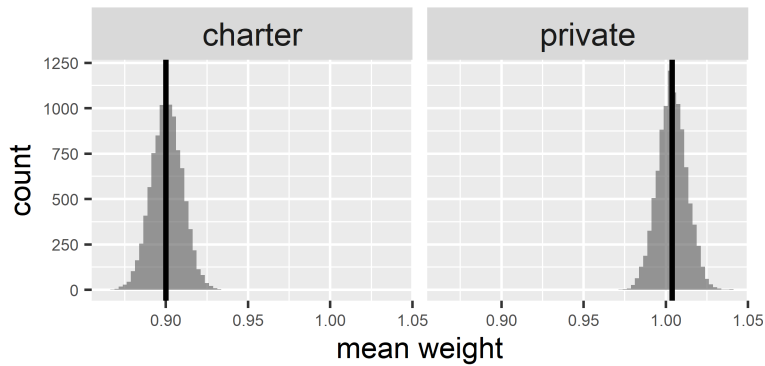


Figure S5. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for blue rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

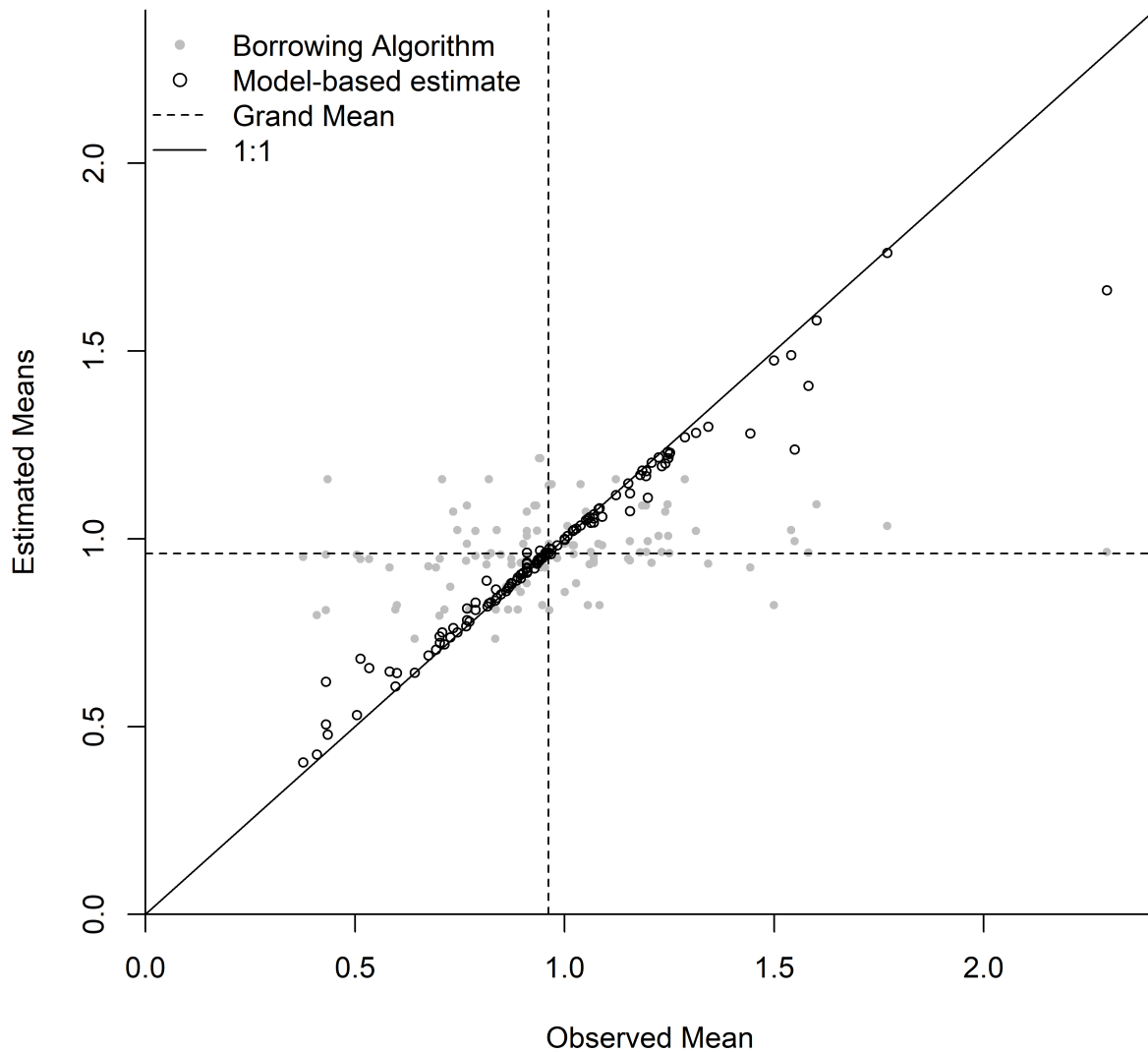


Figure S6. Estimated posterior mean weight [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for blue rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (127 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

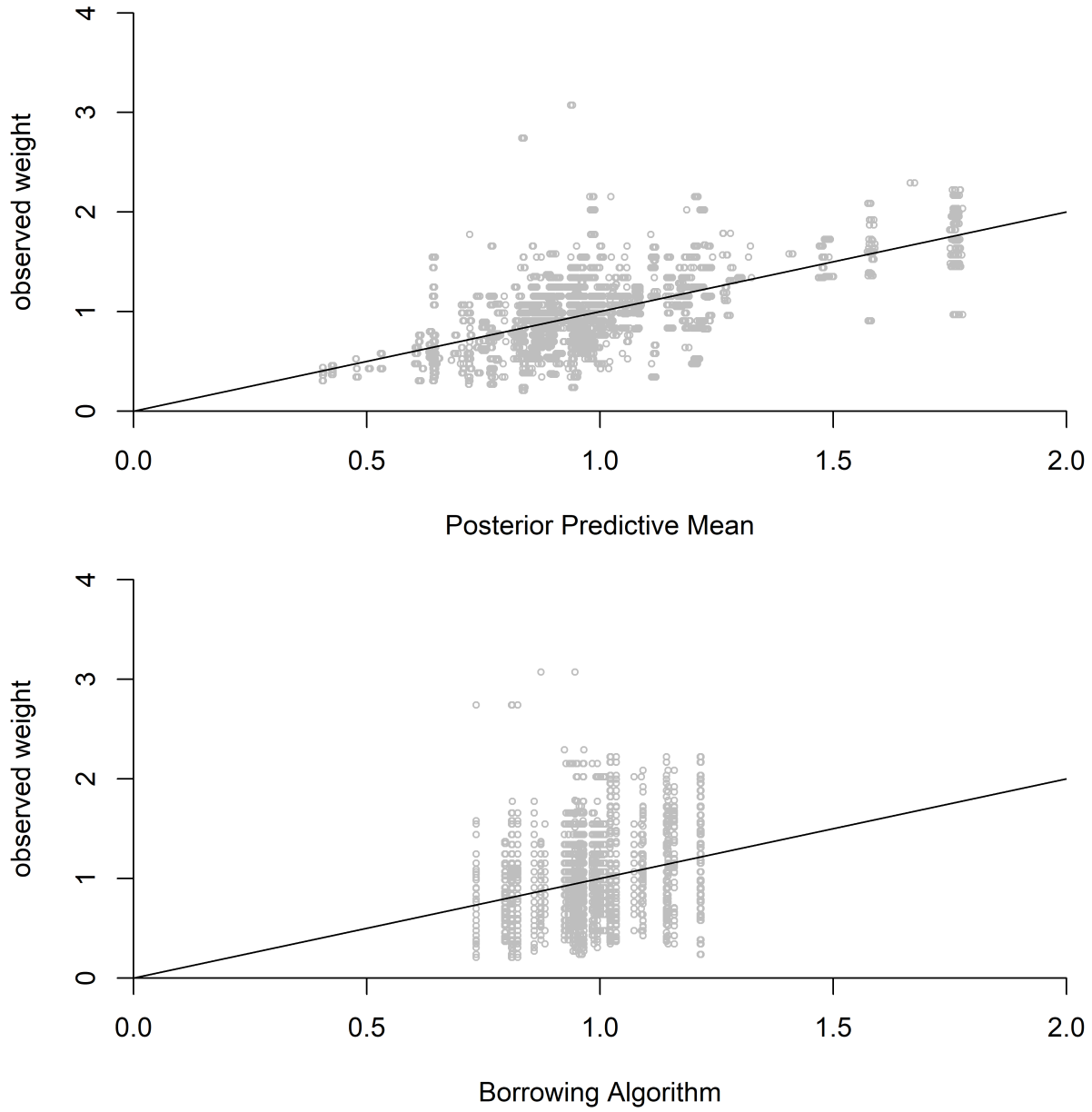


Figure S7. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for blue rockfish to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for Cabezon

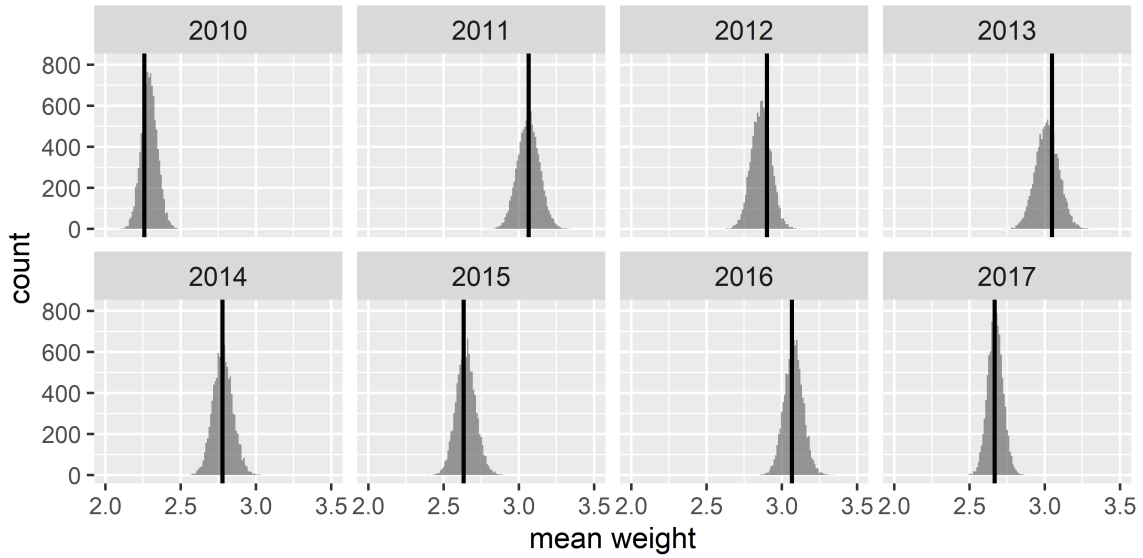


Figure S8. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for cabezon, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

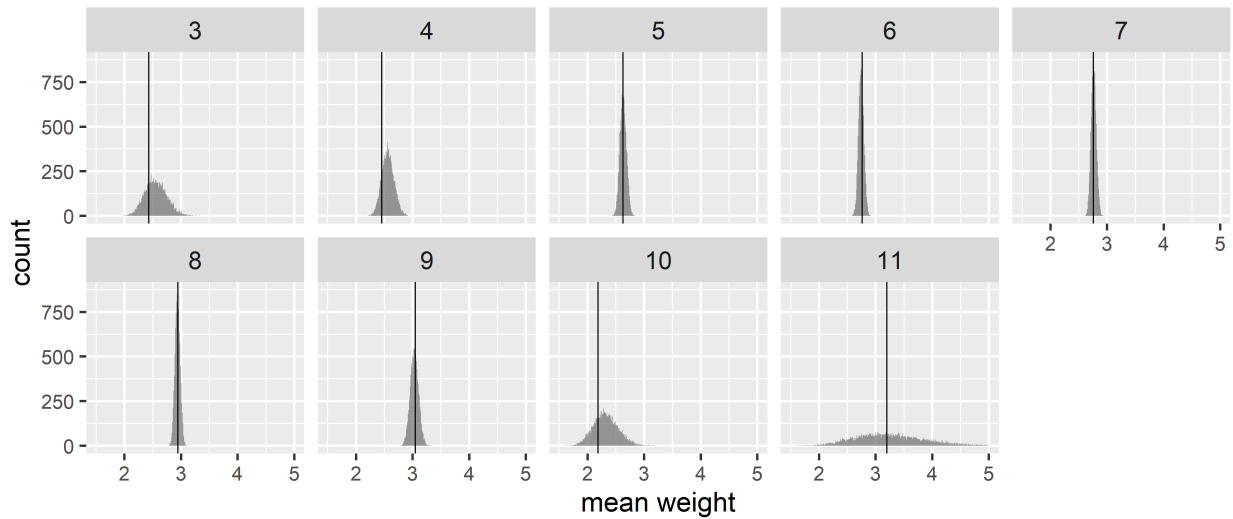


Figure S9. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for cabezon, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

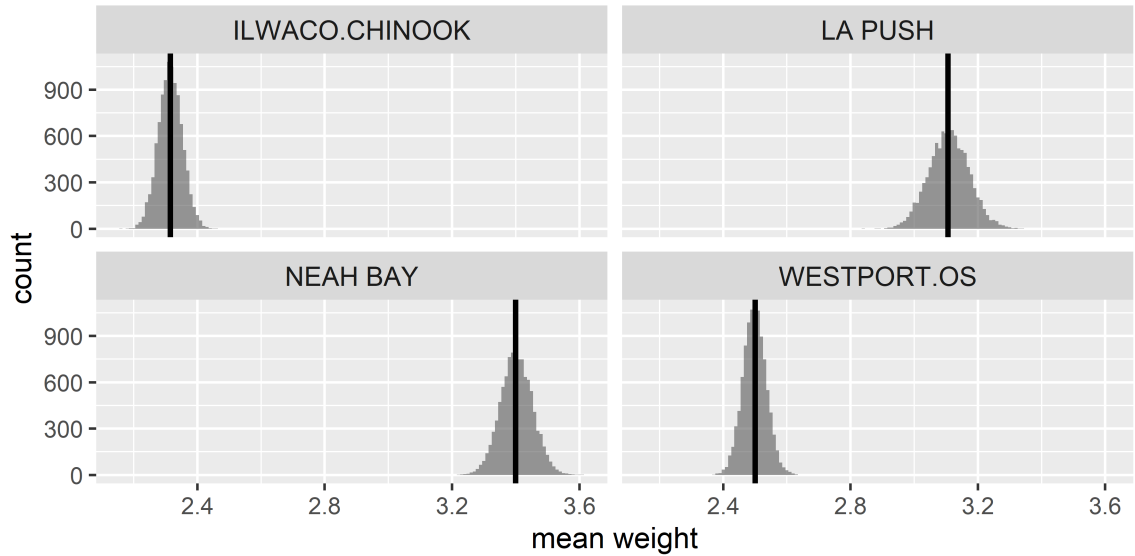


Figure S10. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for cabezon, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

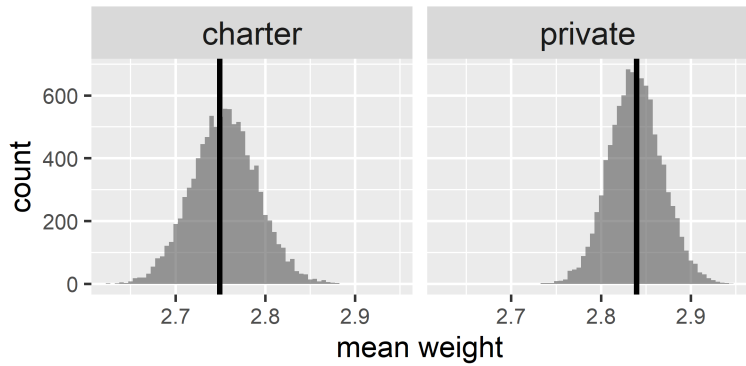


Figure S11. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for cabezon, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

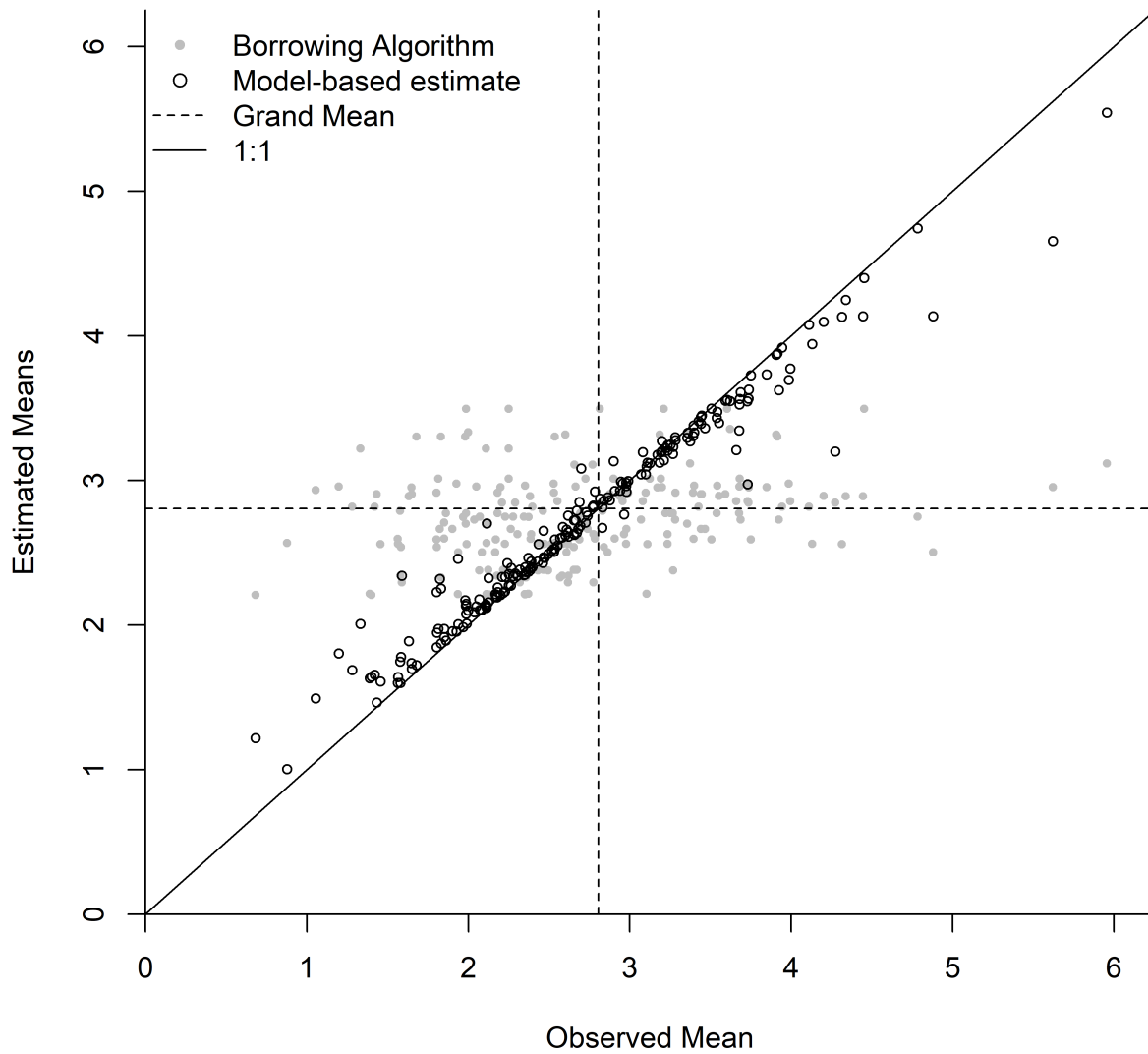


Figure S12. Estimated posterior mean weight [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for cabezon. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (206 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

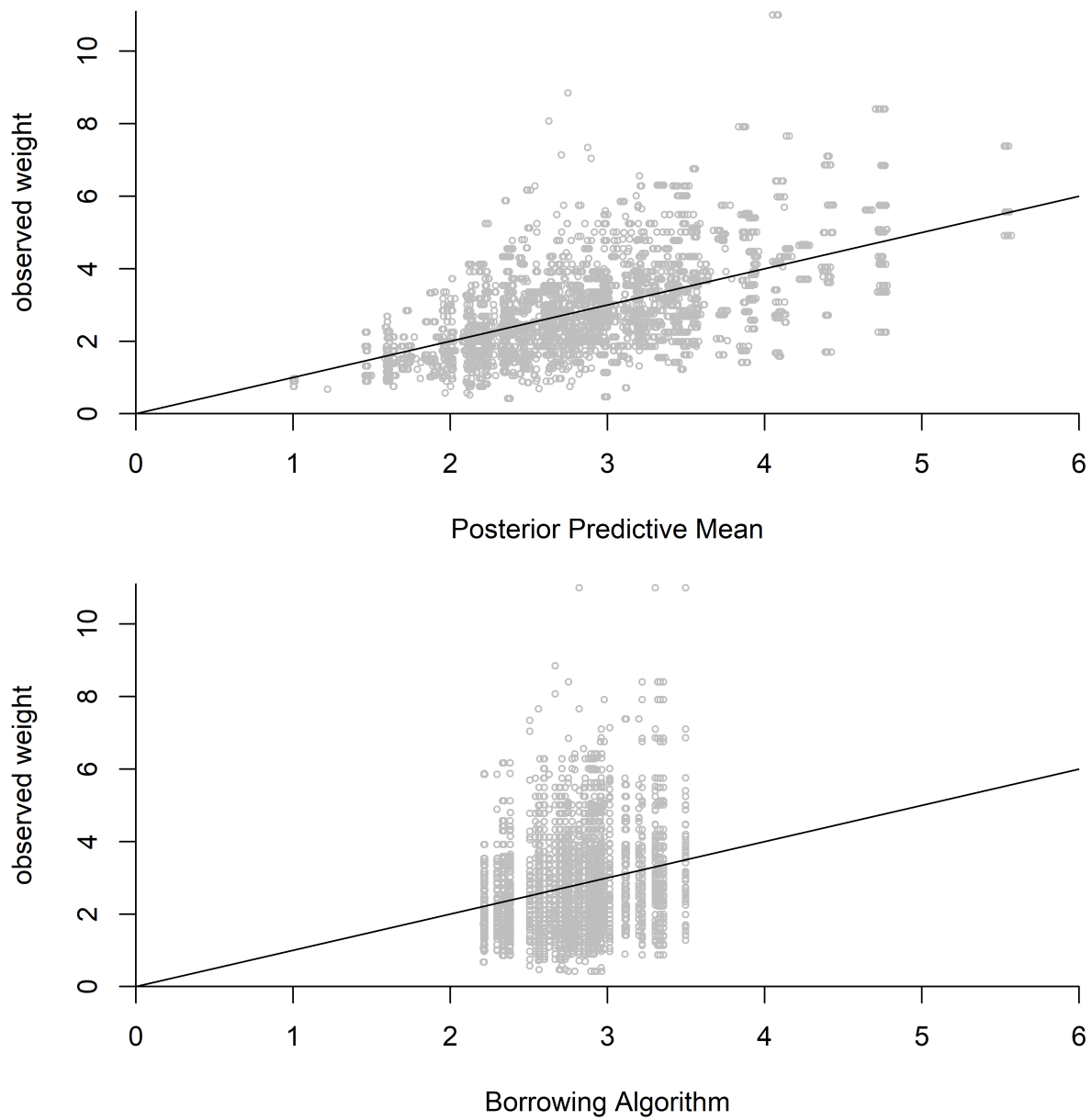


Figure S13. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for cabezon to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for Canary Rockfish

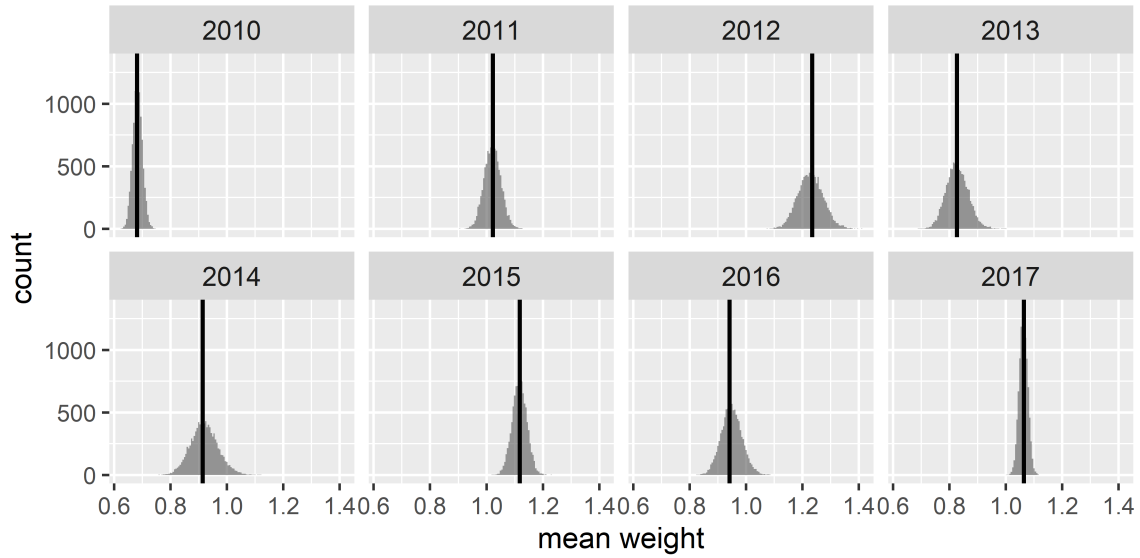


Figure S14. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for canary rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

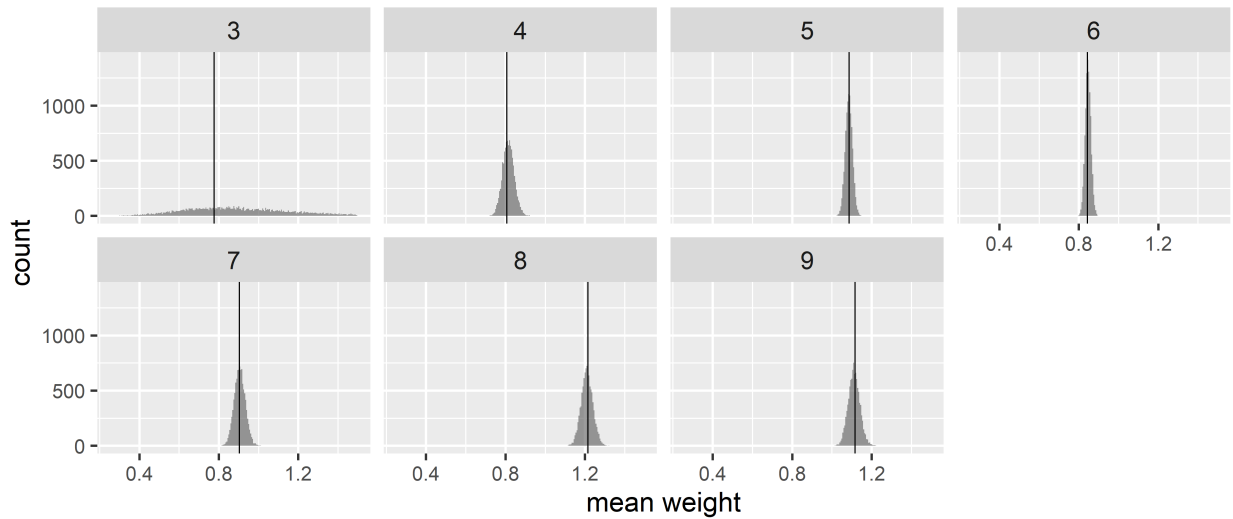


Figure S15. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for canary rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

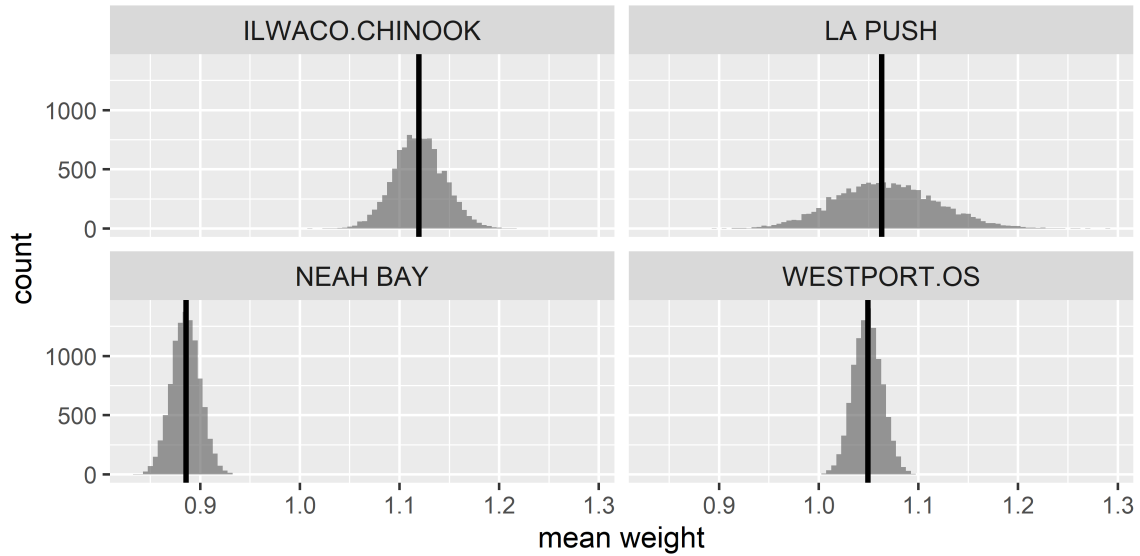


Figure S16. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for canary rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

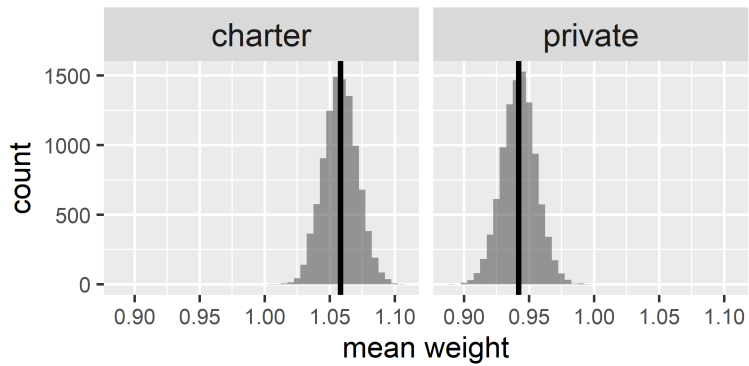


Figure S17. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for canary rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

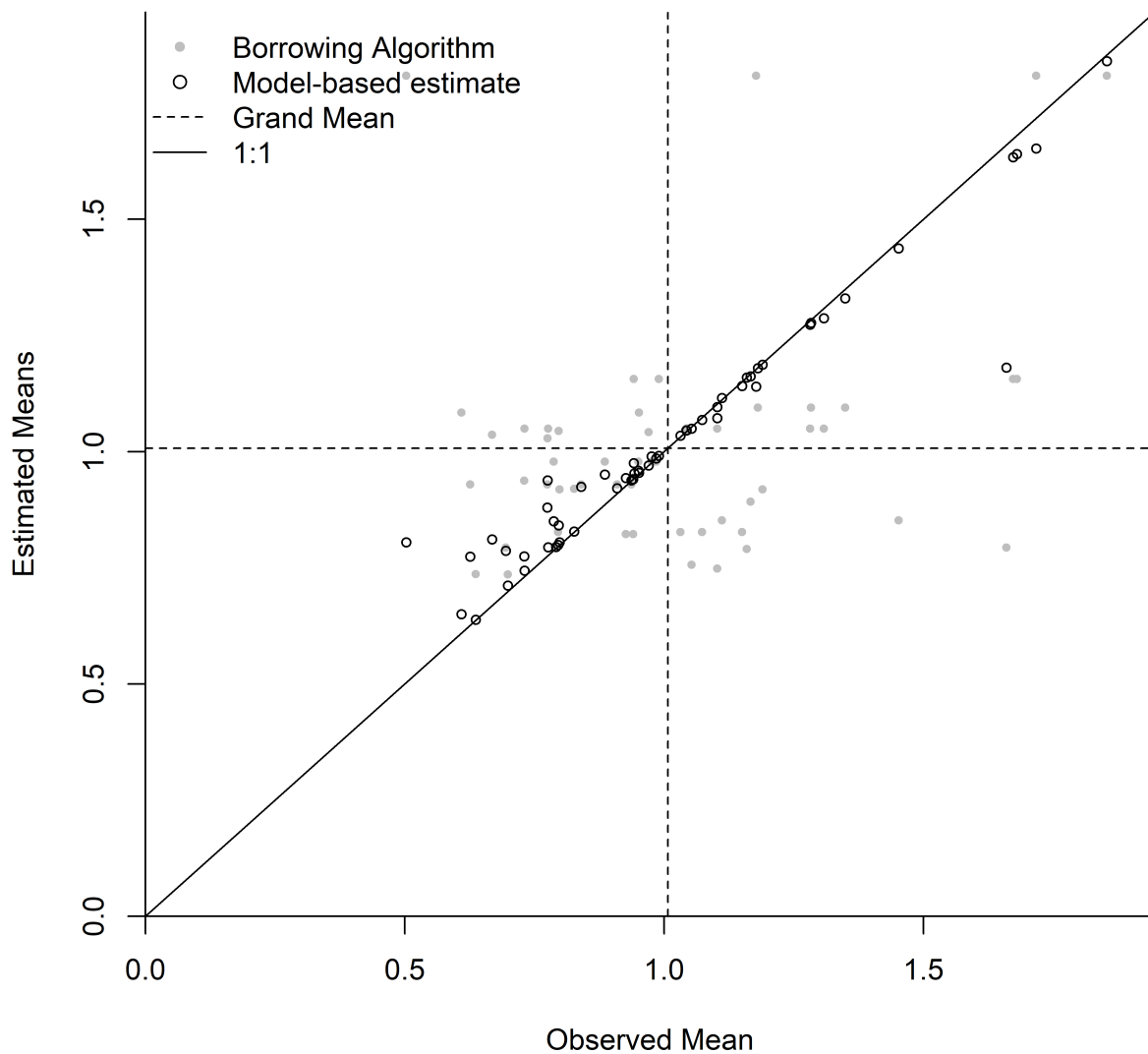


Figure S18. Estimated posterior means from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for canary rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (56 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

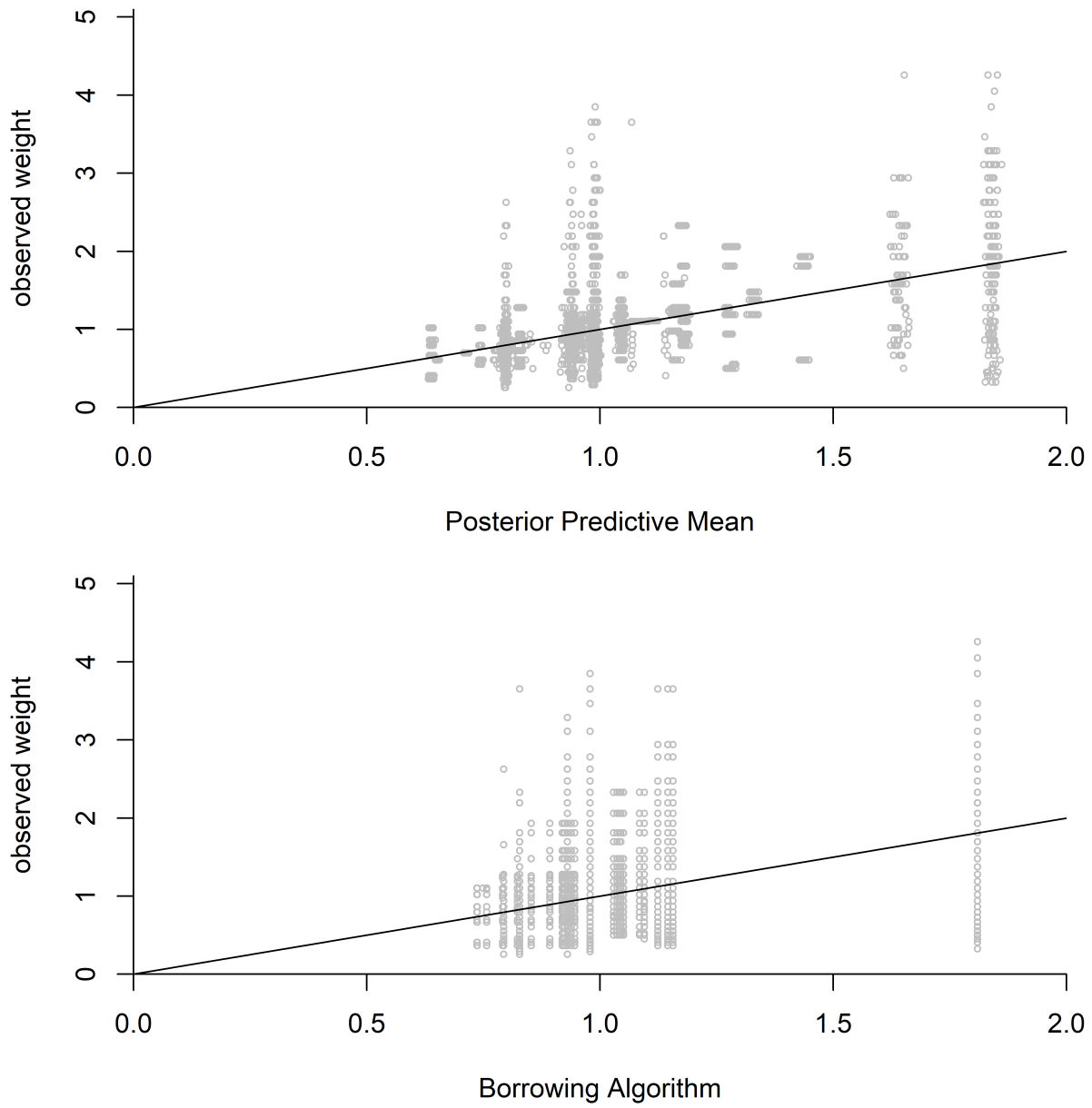


Figure S19. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for canary rockfish to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for China Rockfish

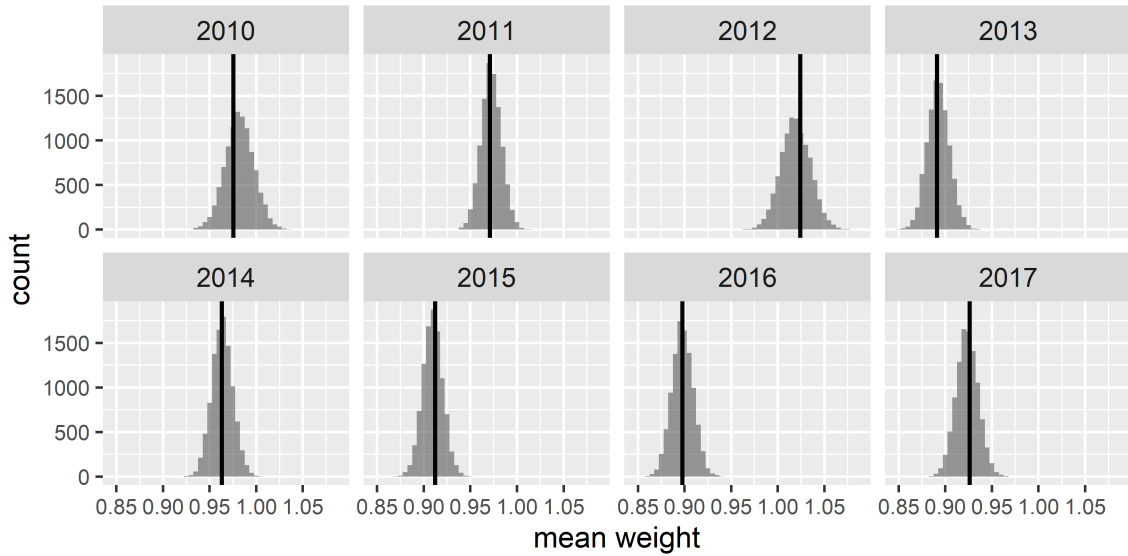


Figure S20. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for China rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

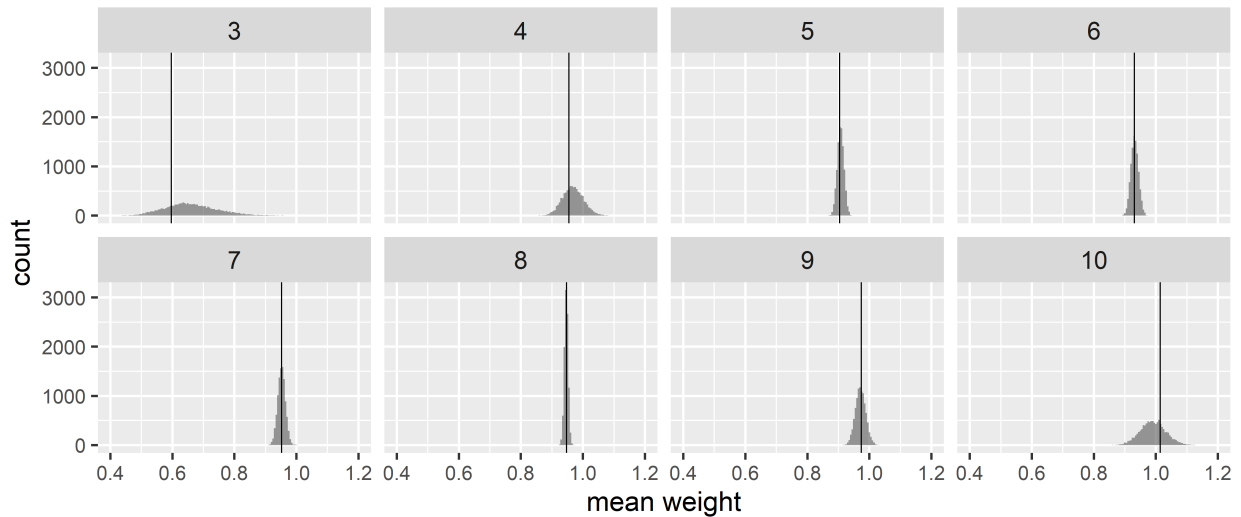


Figure S21. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for China rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

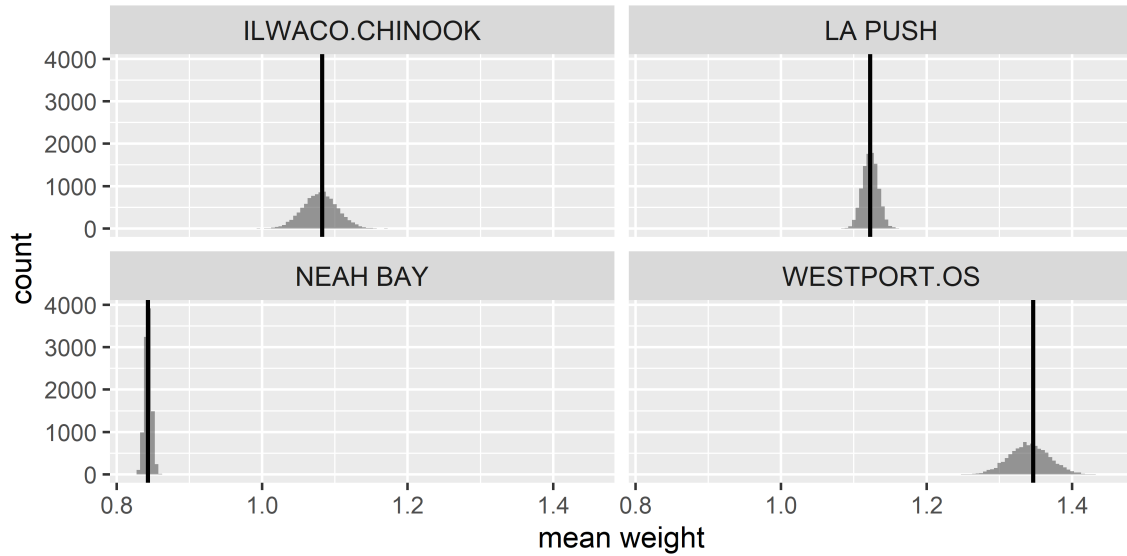


Figure S22. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for China rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

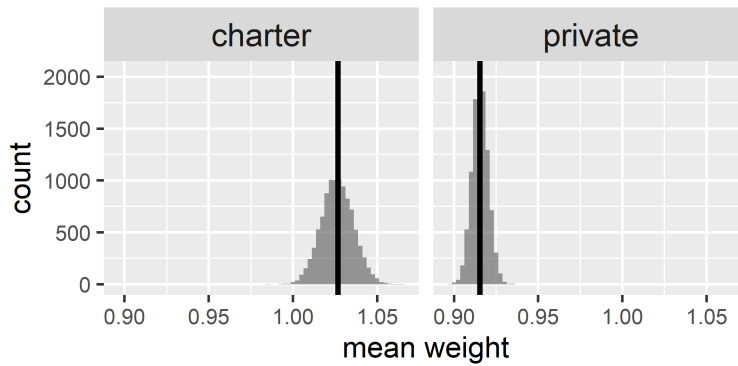


Figure S23. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for China rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

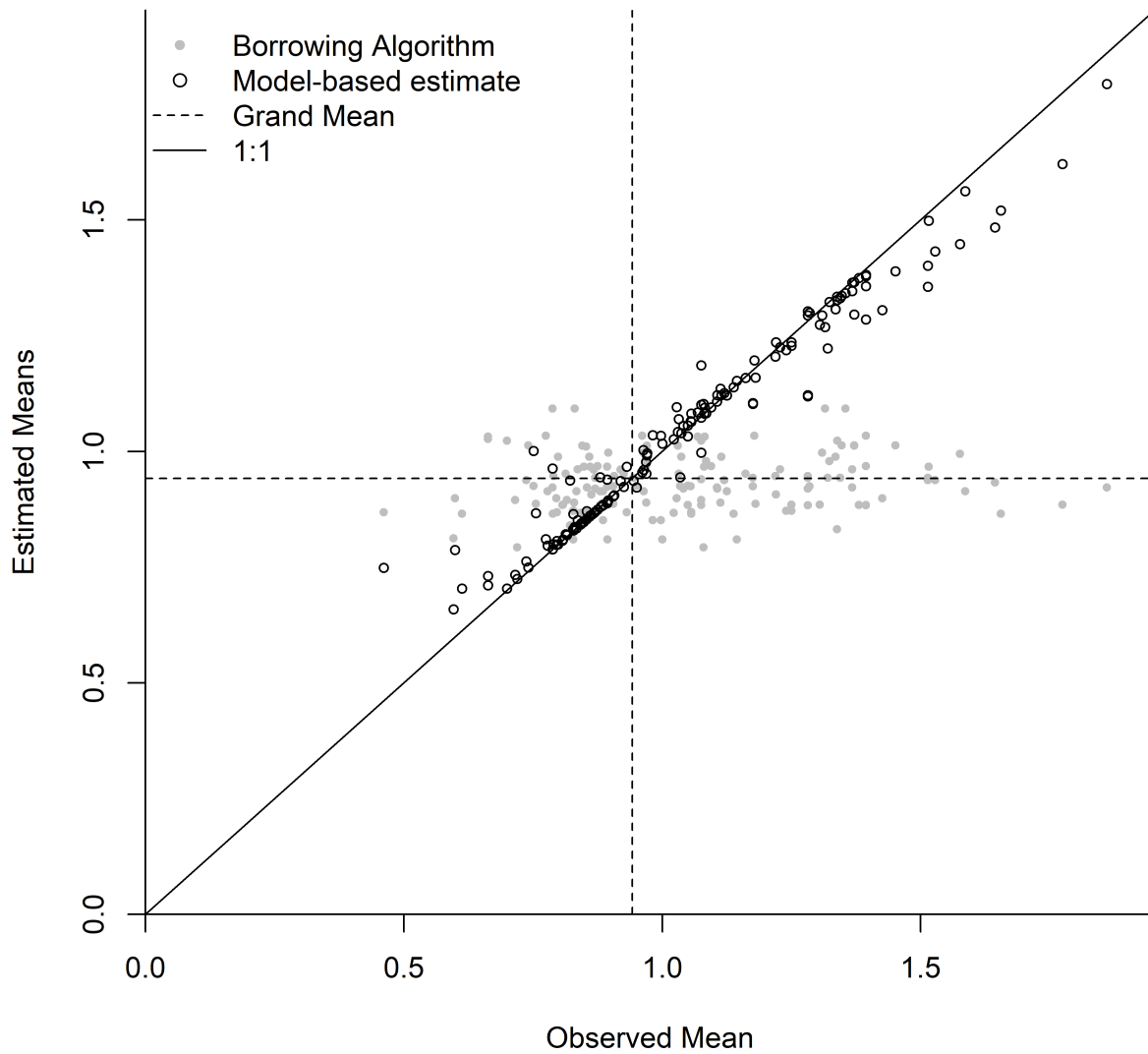


Figure S24. Estimated posterior means [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for China rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (157 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

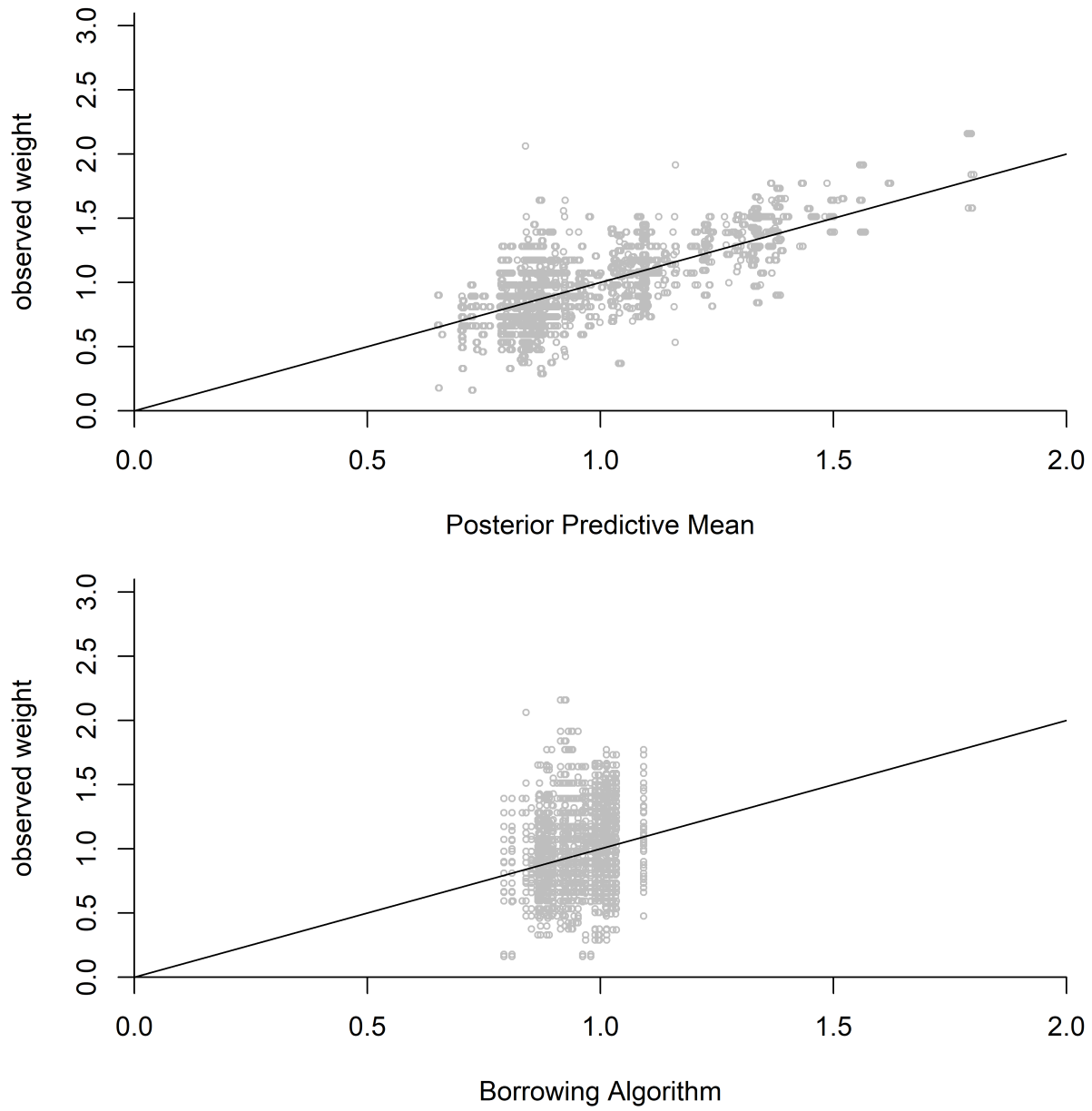


Figure S25. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for China rockfish to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for Copper Rockfish

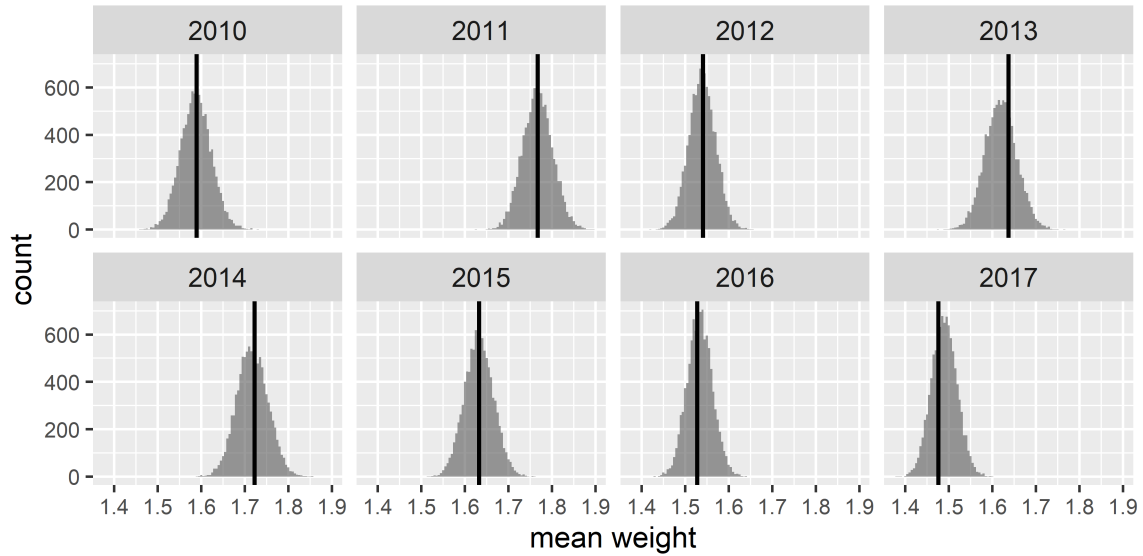


Figure S26. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for copper rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

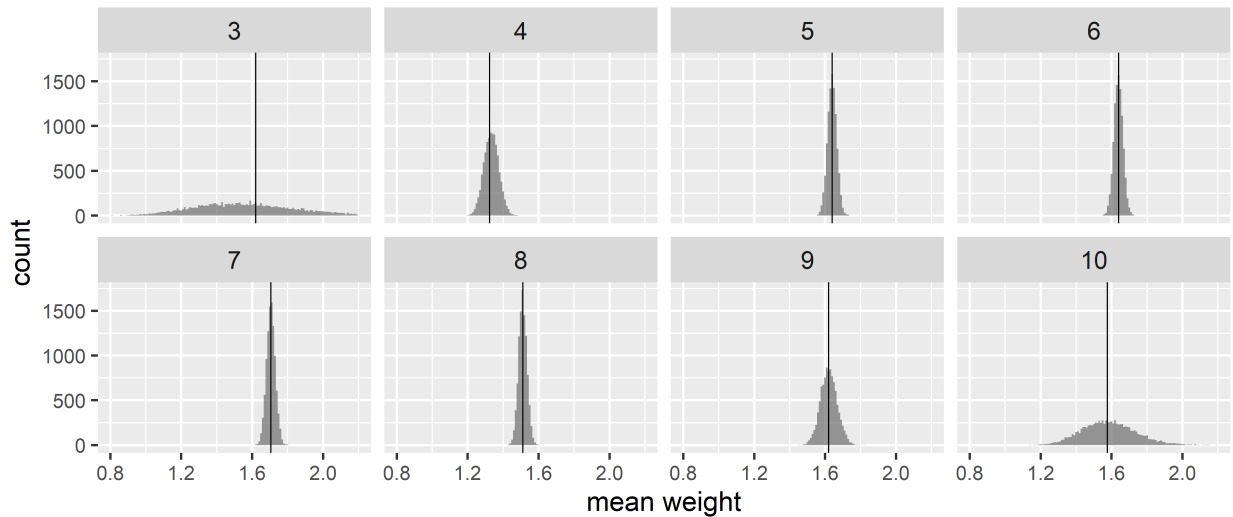


Figure S27. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for copper rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

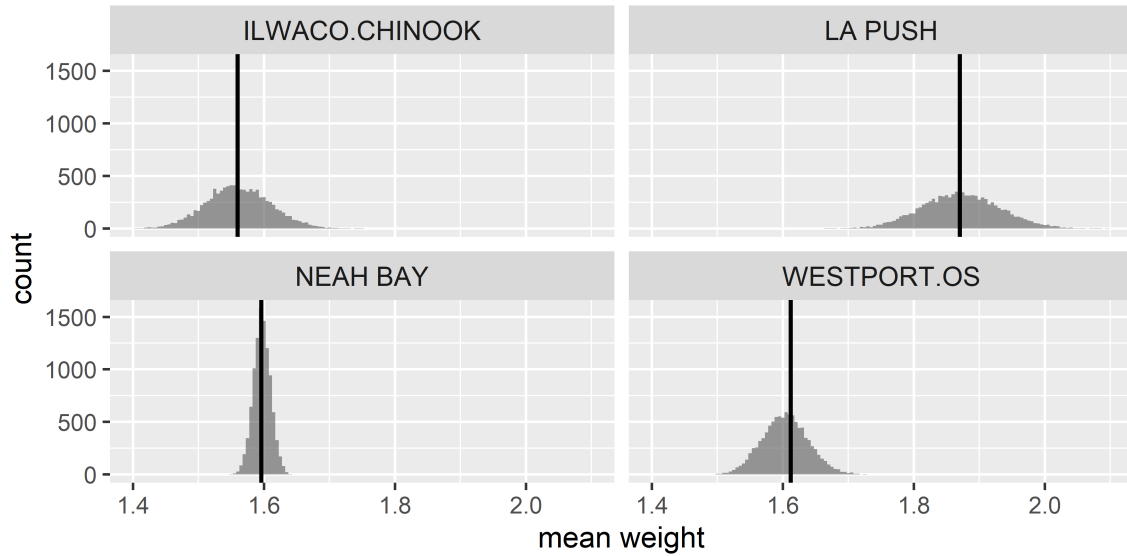


Figure S28. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for copper rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

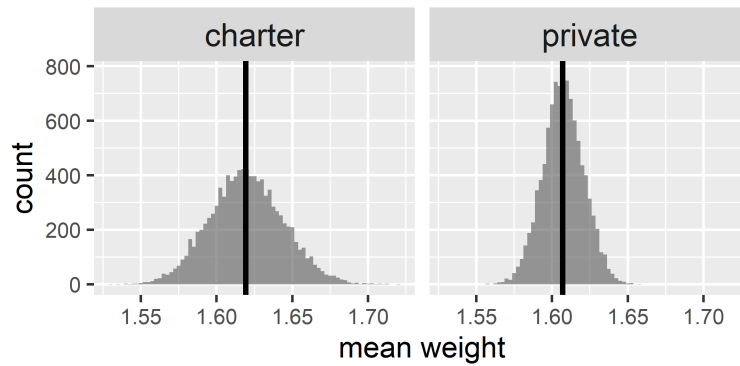


Figure S29. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for copper rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

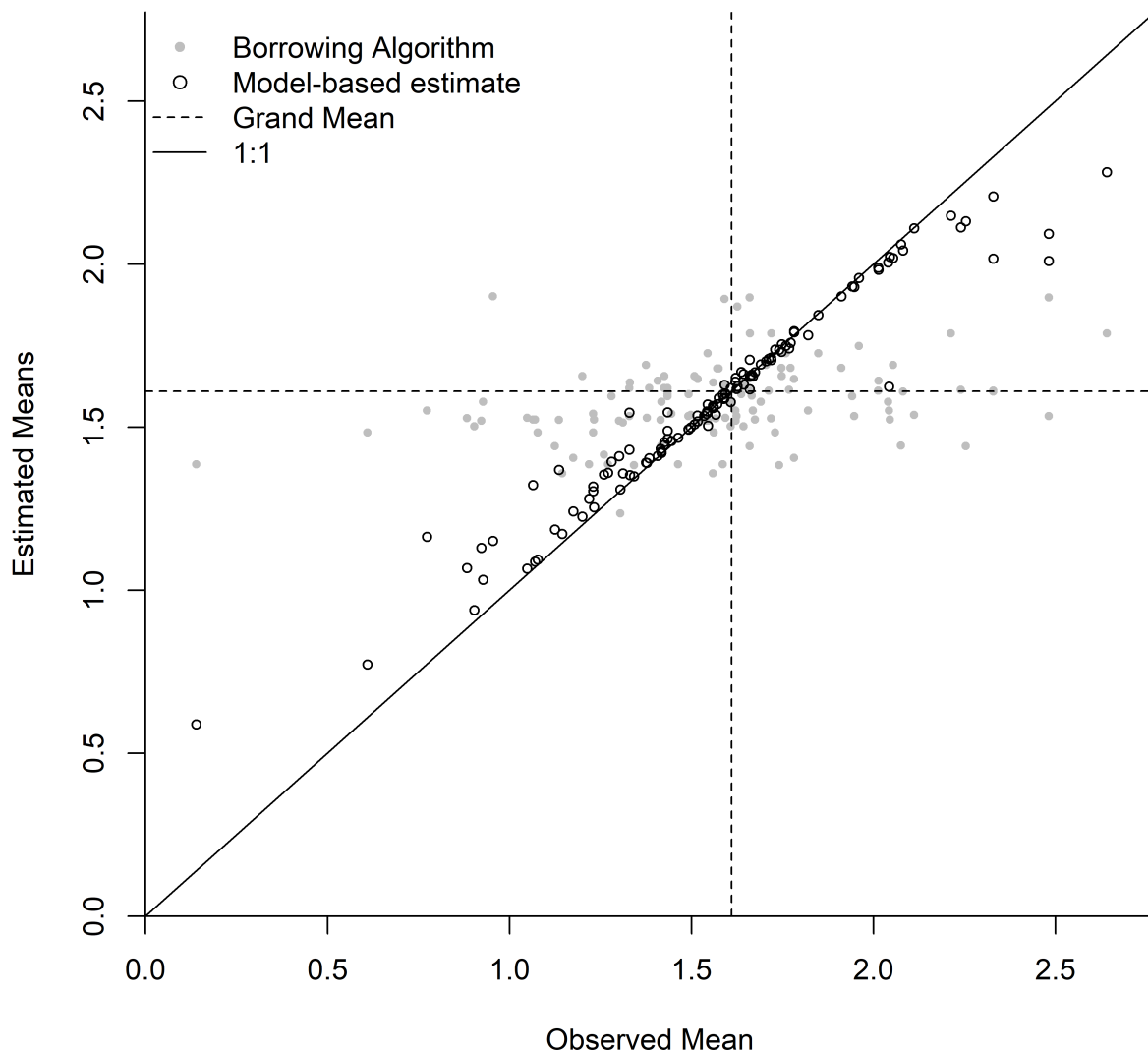


Figure S30. Estimated posterior means [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for copper rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (130 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

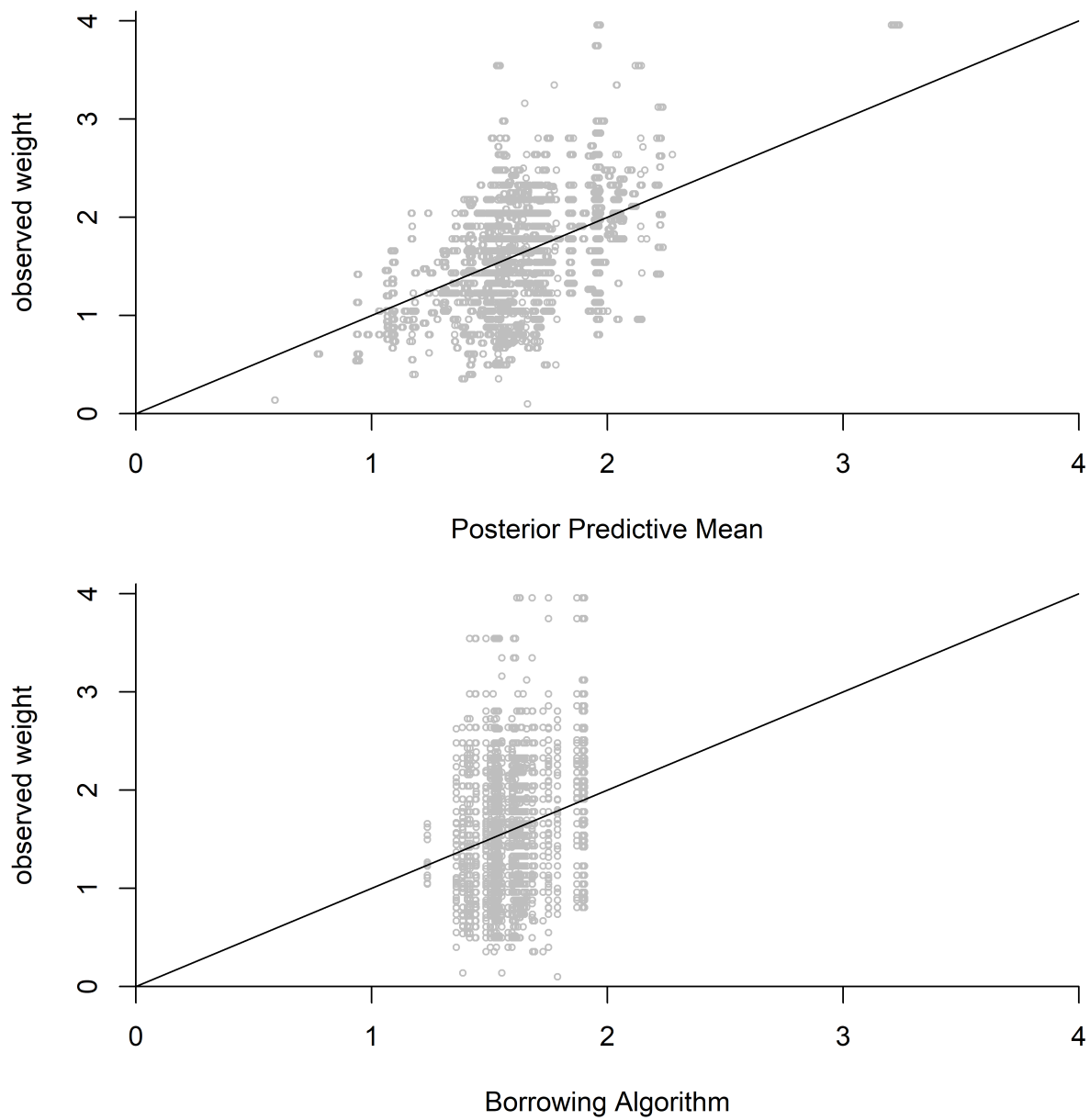


Figure S31. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for copper rockfish to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for Lingcod

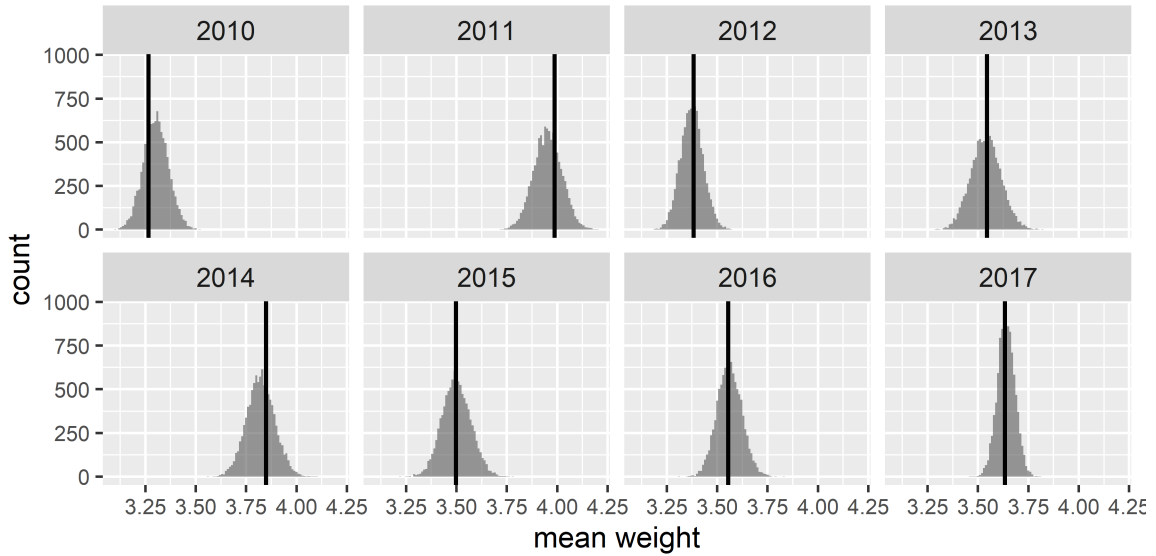


Figure S32. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for lingcod, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

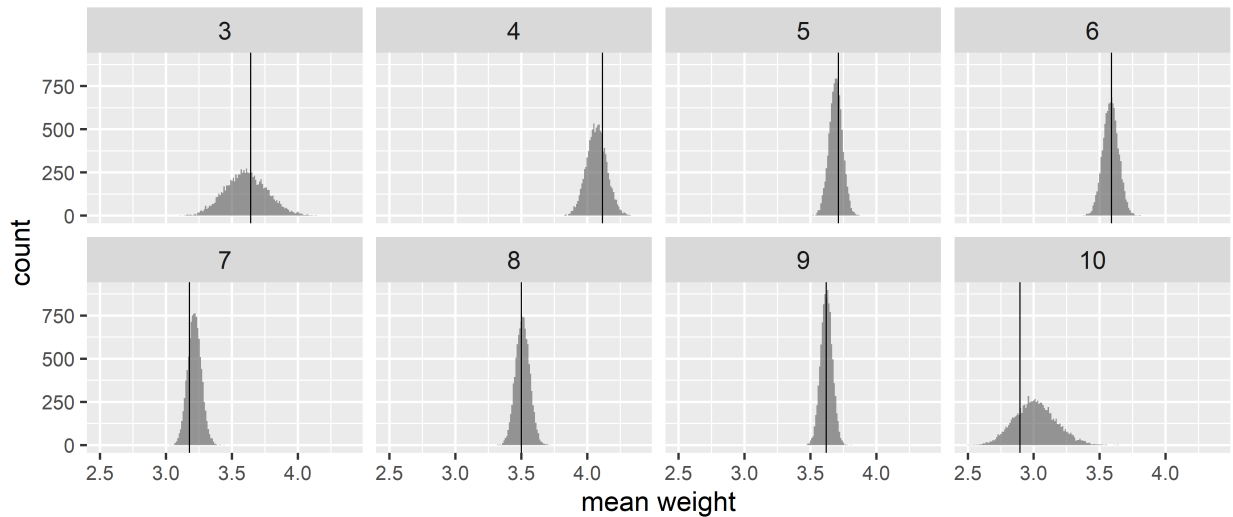


Figure S33. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for lingcod, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

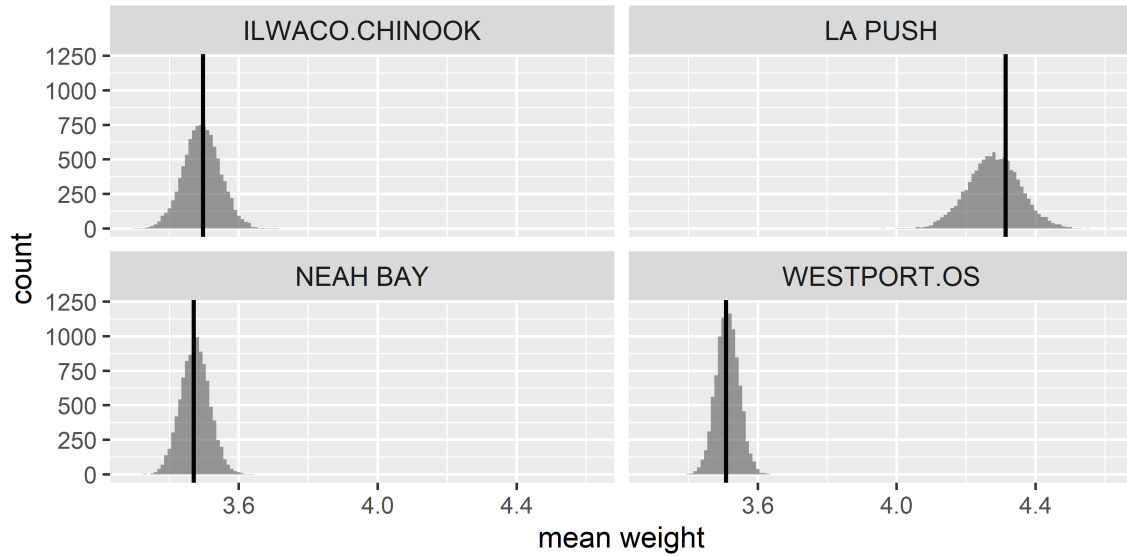


Figure S34. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for lingcod, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

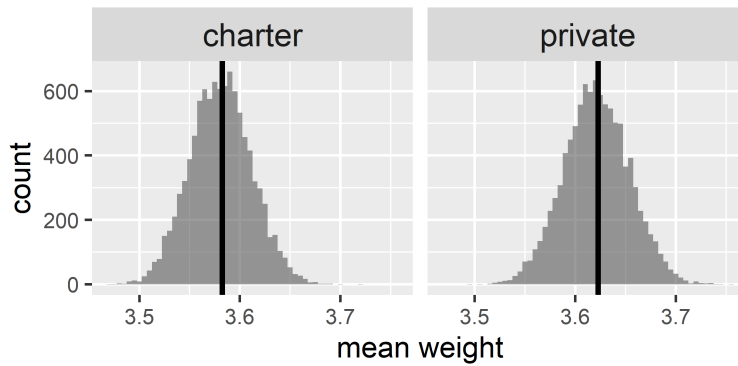


Figure S35. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (histograms) for lingcod, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

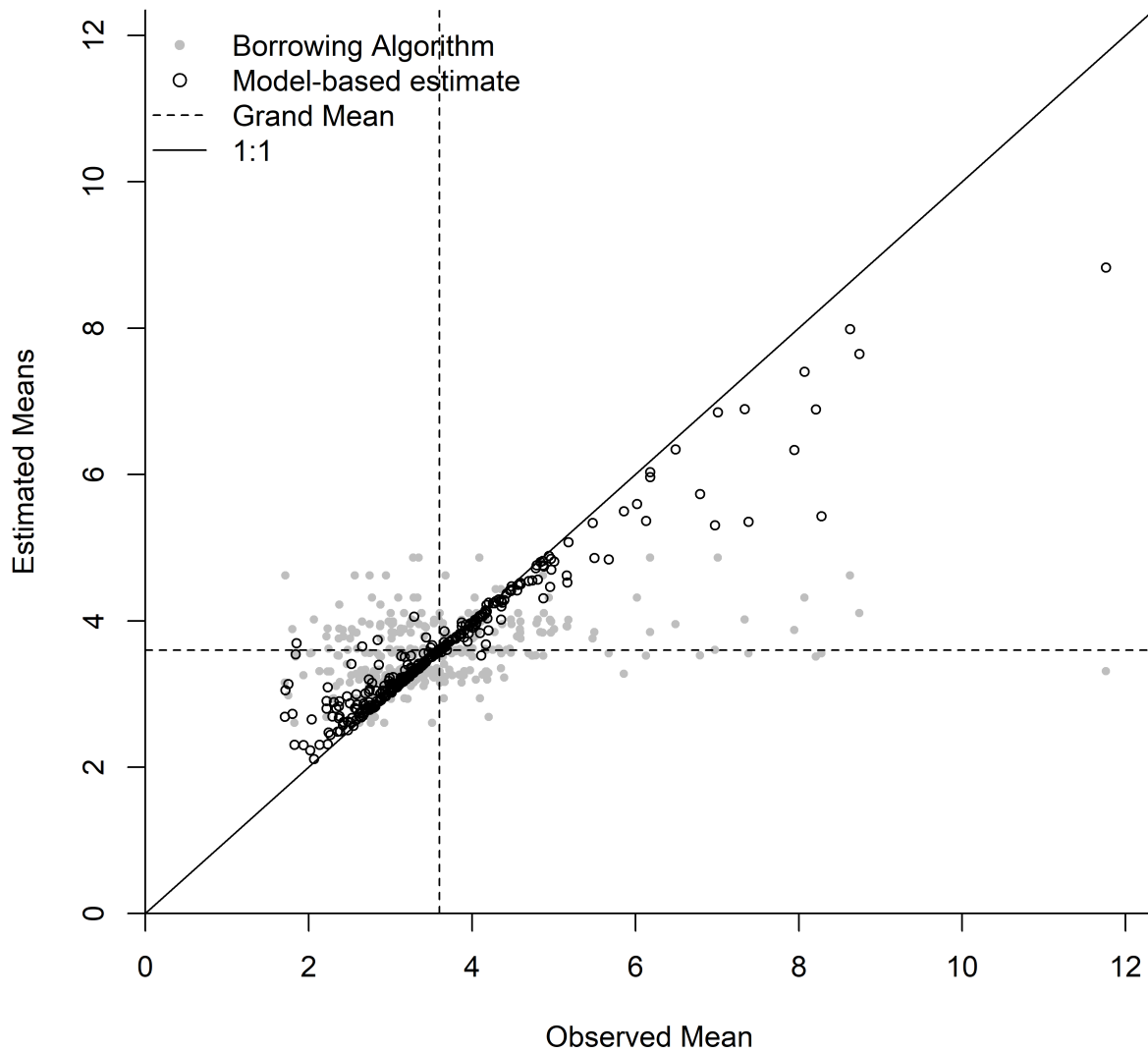


Figure S36. Estimated posterior means [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for lingcod. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (306 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

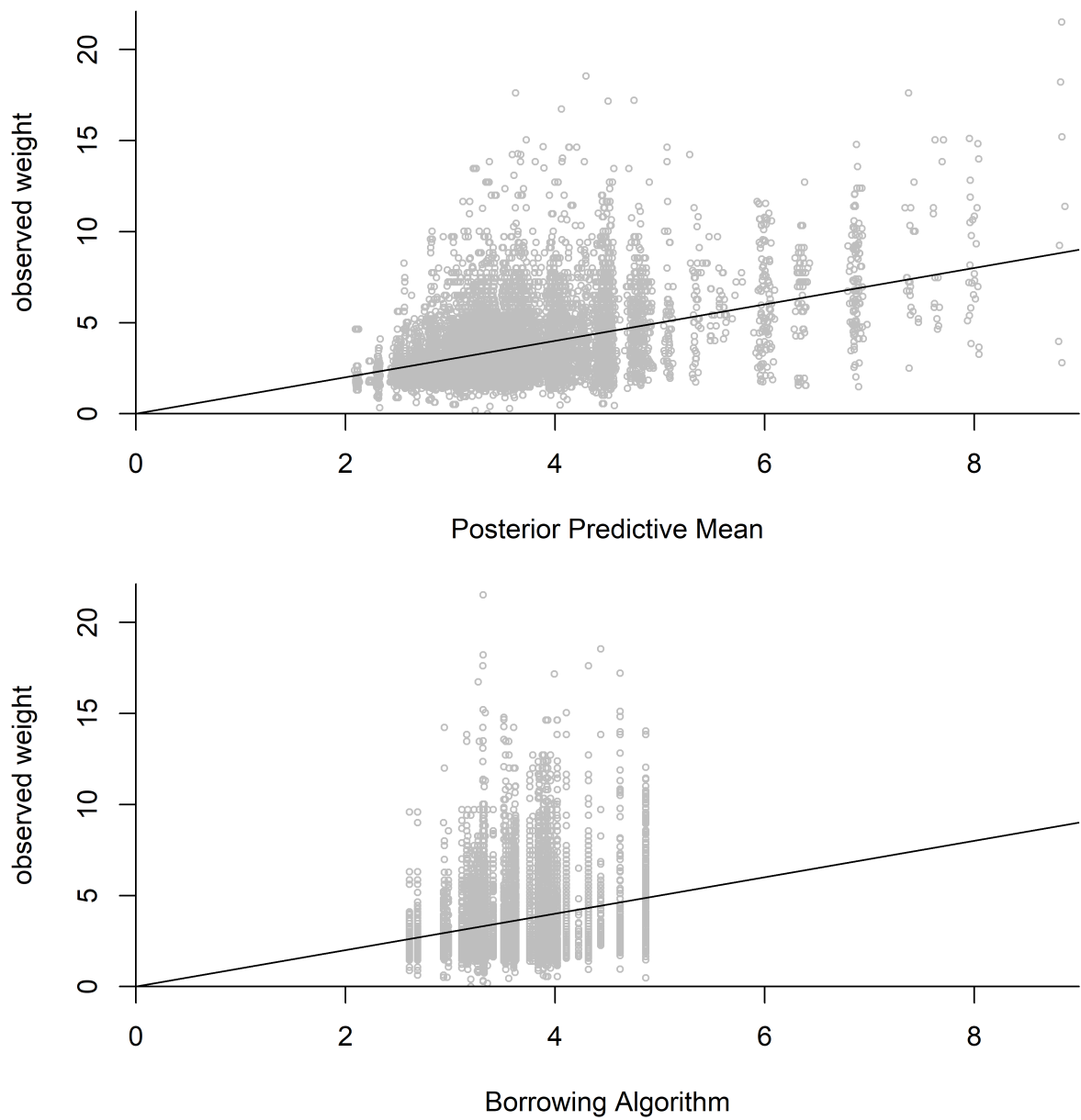


Figure S37. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for lingcod to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.

Results for Quillback Rockfish

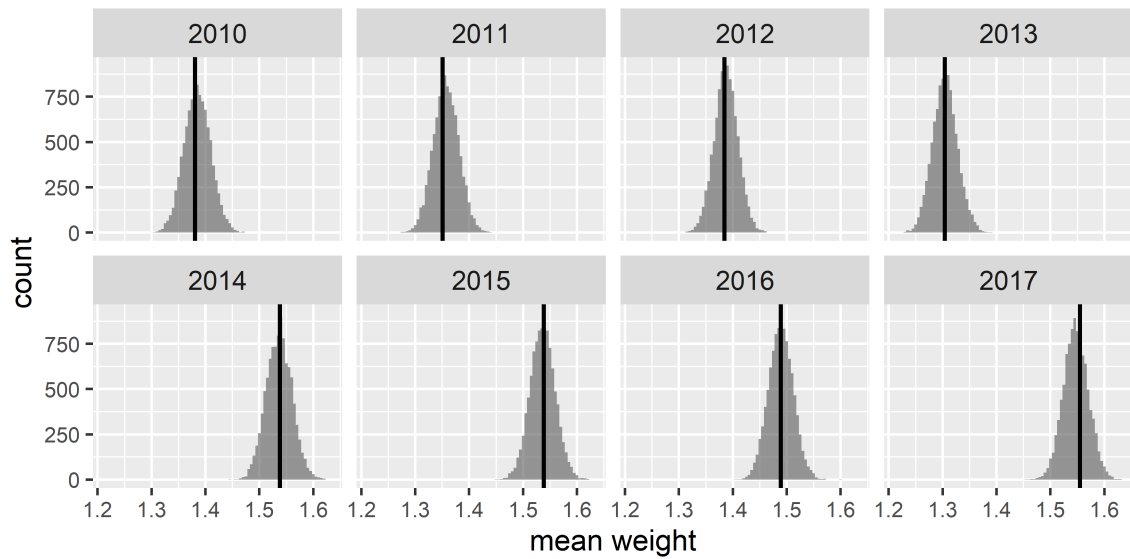


Figure S38. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by year (histograms) for quillback rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

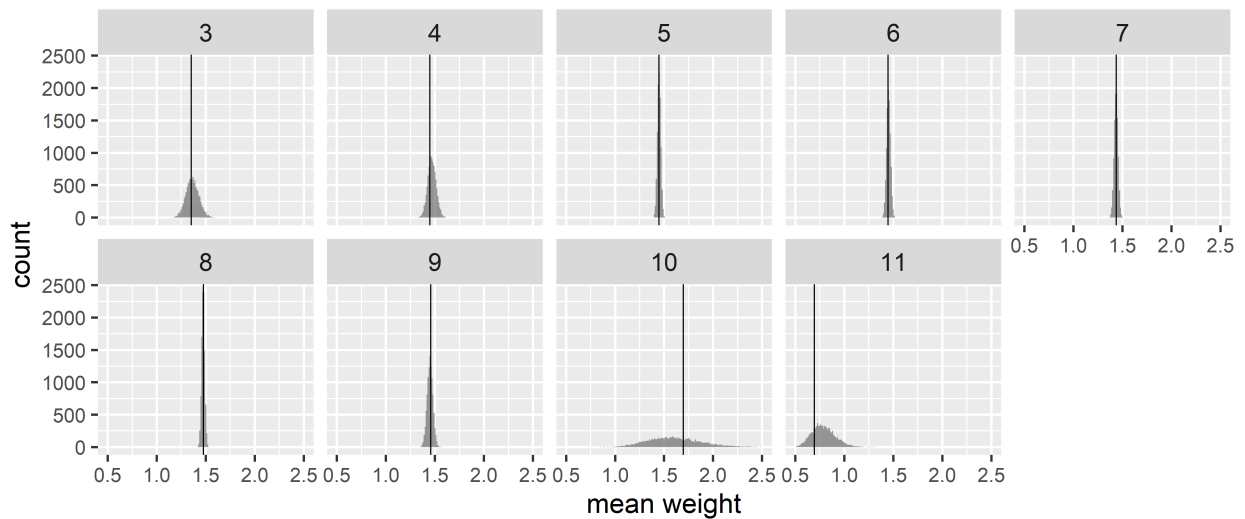


Figure S39. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by month (histograms) for quillback rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

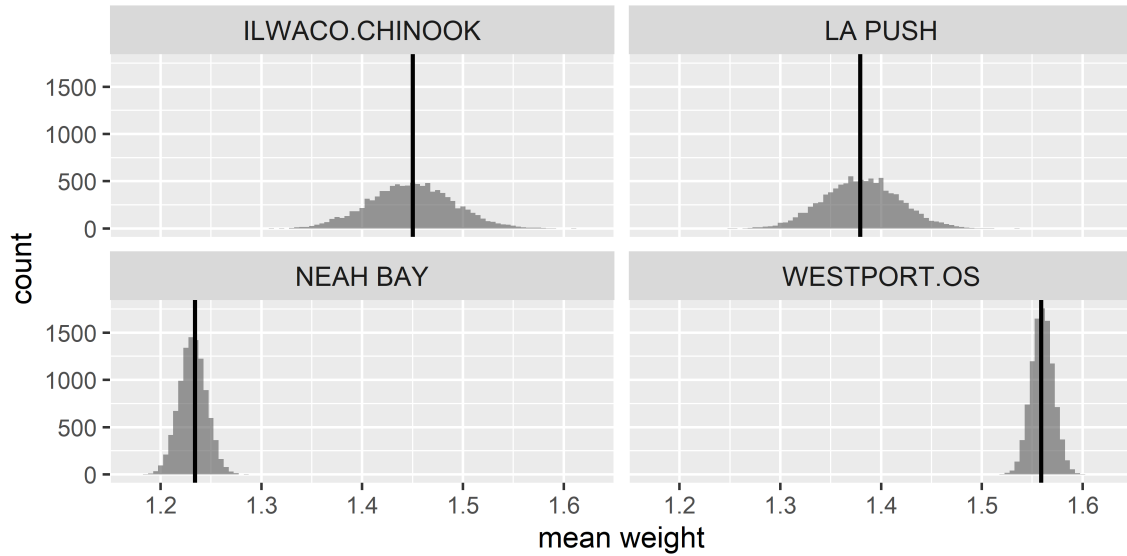


Figure S40. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by port group (histograms) for quillback rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

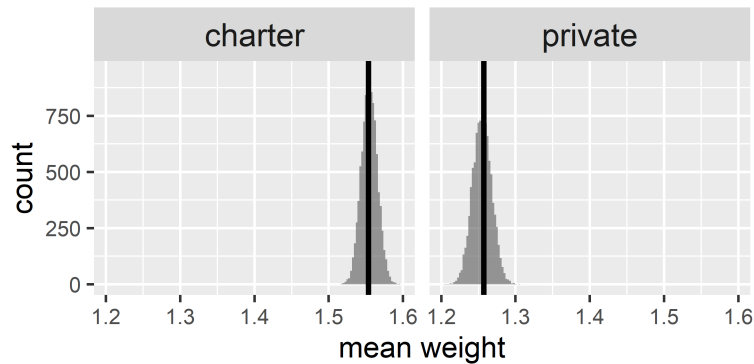


Figure S41. Posterior predictive distributions (PPD) of the marginal mean weight [kg] by boat mode (light) for quillback rockfish, relative to the marginal mean of the data (vertical line). PPDs are based on 10,000 simulated data sets from model 13.

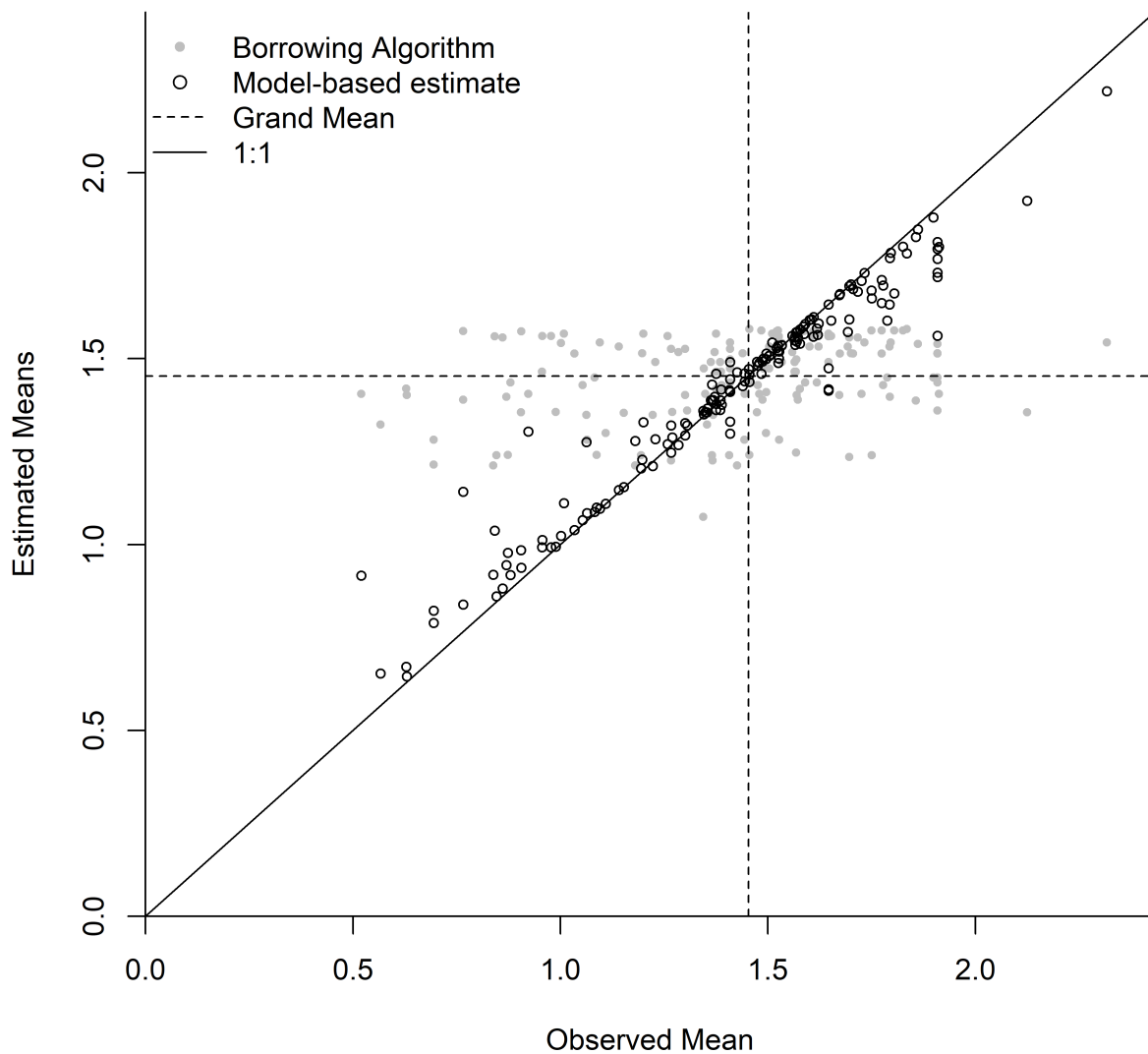


Figure S42. Estimated posterior means [kg] from model 13 (black open circles) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (grey solid circles) versus observed arithmetic means for quillback rockfish. Each point represents a single year/month/port/mode combination (159 observed strata). Horizontal and vertical dashed lines are the arithmetic mean weight across all observations (grand mean). Solid line is the line of equality (1:1).

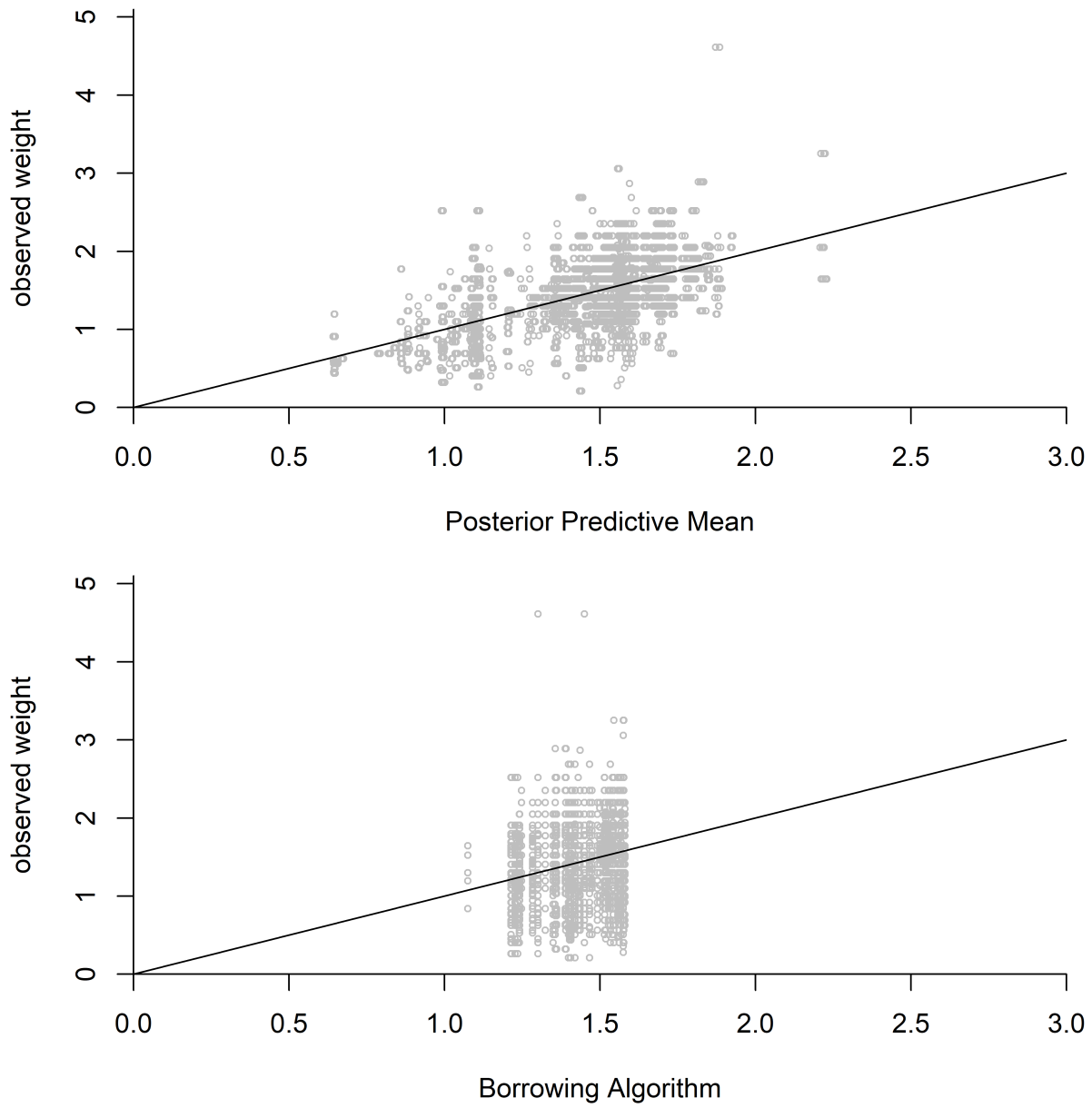


Figure S43. Comparison of observed weights [kg] for quillback rockfish to predicted mean weights from model 13 (upper panel) and estimates from the borrowing algorithm (lower panel). Solid black lines are 1:1 for reference.