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**Title:** Global fishery dynamics are poorly predicted by classical models

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## 1 **Abstract:**

2 Fisheries dynamics can be thought of as the reciprocal relationship between an exploited  
3 population and the fishers and/or managers determining the exploitation patterns. Sustainable  
4 production of protein of these coupled human-natural systems requires an understanding of their  
5 dynamics. Here, we characterized the fishery dynamics for 173 fisheries from around the globe  
6 by applying general additive models to estimated fishing mortality and spawning biomass from  
7 the RAM Legacy Database. GAMs specified to mimic production models and more flexible  
8 GAMs were applied. We show observed dynamics do not always match assumptions made in  
9 management using ‘classical’ fisheries models and the suitability of these assumptions varies  
10 significantly according to large marine ecosystem, habitat, variability in recruitment, maximum  
11 weight of a species, and minimum observed stock biomass. These results identify circumstances  
12 in which simple models may be useful for management. However, adding flexibility to classical  
13 models often did not substantially improve performance, which suggests in many cases  
14 considering only biomass and removals will not be sufficient to model fishery dynamics.  
15 Knowledge of the suitability of common assumptions in management should be used in selecting  
16 modeling frameworks, setting management targets, testing management strategies, and  
17 developing tools to manage data-limited fisheries. Effectively balancing expectations of future  
18 protein production from capture fisheries and risk of undesirable outcomes (e.g. ‘fisheries  
19 collapse’) depends on understanding how well we can expect to predict future dynamics of a  
20 fishery using current management paradigms.

21

22 Key words: coupled human-natural systems, effort dynamics, population dynamics, production  
23 models, stock assessment

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### 43 **Introduction**

44 Approximately twenty percent of worldwide dietary protein is derived from the sea (FAO, 2016).  
45 Global population is projected to increase to over 9 billion by 2050 (from a current population of  
46 ~7 billion; UN-DESA, 2015), but production from capture fisheries stabilized at 85-95 million  
47 metric tonnes (mmt) in the 2000s (FAO, 2016). Fisheries managers are often tasked with  
48 ensuring the fish and invertebrate populations that support these fisheries remain productive and  
49 attempt to do so by modeling the dynamics of exploited populations to determine sustainable  
50 catches. Models of fishery dynamics often assume the number of individual fish entering a  
51 population is related to spawning biomass (SB) and that decreases in spawning biomass occur  
52 due to natural mortality and fishing mortality (F). Most management strategies for fisheries are  
53 predicated on the assumption that management can manipulate fishing pressure to achieve  
54 changes in a fished population. However, shifts in population dynamics over time (Szuwalski et  
55 al. 2015) can influence the response of a population to fishing and these responses likely vary by  
56 region and species (Neubauer et al., 2013; Thorson et al. 2012). Effectively balancing  
57 expectations of future protein production and risk of undesirable outcomes (e.g. ‘fisheries  
58 collapse’) requires an ability to understand and predict the dynamics of a fishery.

59

60 ‘Fisheries dynamics’ are defined here as the manner in which F and SB change at different levels  
61 of F and SB. Changes in F can be seen as the response of management or fishers to changes in  
62 the population and the perceived level of exploitation; changes in SB can be seen as the response

63 of the population to exploitation, density-dependence (i.e. the existence of a ‘carrying capacity’),  
64 and/or environmental forcing. Fisheries managers make assumptions about the way SB and F  
65 change when developing strategies for management. For example, SB is expected to decrease on  
66 average when F increases, and F might be assumed to decrease when SB is low due decreases in  
67 the profitability of fishing (Thorson et al., 2014) or management action. The validity of these  
68 assumptions and the predictability of fishery dynamics can influence the performance of a given  
69 management strategy, but these assumptions are not often checked.

70  
71 Here we characterize the fishery dynamics for 173 stocks from the RAM Legacy Stock  
72 Assessment Database (Ricard et al, 2012) by fitting generalized additive models to estimates of  
73 SB and F. Using these fitted models, we ask, “If today’s SB and F are known, can changes in SB  
74 and F next year be predicted based on the past responses of the fishery?” We then link stock  
75 characteristics to a measure of predictability and identify stocks with expected fishery dynamics  
76 given common assumptions of density-dependence, stationary dynamics, active management,  
77 and/or cost-based constraints on fishing effort. Finally, we discuss implications for management  
78 and potential strategies for coping with different levels of predictability and unexpected fishery  
79 dynamics.

80

## 81 **Materials and methods**

### 82 Global fisheries data

83 Time series’ of SB and F from the RAM Legacy Stock Assessment Database were used based on  
84 the criteria that the recruitment estimates for the years extracted must not come directly from a  
85 stock-recruit curve (i.e. predictions of F and SB derived deterministically from assumed structure  
86 of stock assessment models were not used) and at least 18 contiguous years of F and SB were  
87 available. The RAM Database is the most up-to-date compilation of stock assessments for  
88 stocks fished worldwide. Exploring relationships between potentially dependent, model-derived  
89 quantities can be fraught with statistical pitfalls (Thorson et al., 2015). However, these are the  
90 best available estimates of F and SB and fisheries management is routinely conducted using  
91 these estimates as accurate representations of reality. Therefore, assumptions made about  
92 fisheries dynamics by managers should be consistent with the dynamics compiled in this  
93 database. In total, 173 stocks were included in the analysis and time series’ of SB were rescaled

94 from 0 to 1 before analysis to improve comparability. Rescaling was not done for F because  
 95 fishing mortality already represents a rate that is approximately comparable among stocks  
 96 (differences in selectivity will impact the comparability of Fs (Cordue 2011), but selectivities  
 97 were not reported in the RAM database).

98

### 99 Population dynamics, GAMs, and predictability

100 Dynamics of the SB and F of a population can be characterized as:

$$B_{t+1}, F_{t+1} = B_t, F_t + f(B_t, F_t) + N(0, \Sigma) \quad \text{Eq 1a}$$

101 where  $B_t$  and  $B_{t+1}$  are SB in years  $t$  and  $t+1$ ,  $F_t$  and  $F_{t+1}$  are fishing mortality in years  $t$  and  $t+1$ ,  
 102  $f(B_t, F_t)$  represents the coupled natural and human dynamics of SB and F, and  $N(0, \Sigma)$  is a  
 103 multivariate normal “process error” arising from our model  $f(B_t, F_t)$  failing to include all relevant  
 104 processes. We seek to estimate  $f()$ , and take the first difference of F and SB:

$$B_{t+1}, F_{t+1} - B_t, F_t = f(B_t, F_t) + N(0, \Sigma) \quad \text{Eq 1b}$$

105 Given the assumption that  $\Sigma$  is diagonal, we can decompose these dynamics into two  
 106 independent equations:

$$B_{t+1} - B_t = g(B_t, F_t) + N(0, \sigma_B^2) \quad \text{Eq 1c}$$

$$F_{t+1} - F_t = h(B_t, F_t) + N(0, \sigma_F^2)$$

107 where  $g()$  represents “population dynamics” and  $h()$  represents “effort dynamics” (Thorson et al.,  
 108 2013). Both  $g$  and  $h$  can be estimated using non-parametric models given the assumption that  $F_t$   
 109 and  $B_t$  are known without error. We used two strategies to fit the fishery dynamics data (Eq. 1c)  
 110 here. First, we estimated  $g()$  and  $h()$  using generalized additive models (GAMs), but restricted  
 111 the number of knots allowed for each to a maximum of 3. Three knots allowed for quadratic  
 112 models to be fit, which represents the prevailing dynamics assumed by most fisheries models (i.e.  
 113 the dynamics between SB and F can be described by at most a dome-shaped curve). Second, we  
 114 again estimated  $g()$  and  $h()$  using GAMs, but the number of knots was increased to 5. Five was  
 115 chosen to offer more flexibility in estimation, but also increased the potential for overfitting with  
 116 some of the shorter time series.

117

118 Predictability of changes in F and SB for both methods was evaluated by excluding the last year  
119 of data, fitting the GAMs, predicting the excluded year using the fitted models and calculating  
120 the absolute relative error of the observed vs. the prediction. This process was repeated for each  
121 of the last five years of data and the mean absolute relative error over those five years (MARE) is  
122 used here to represent the predictability of changes in F and SB. Excluding the last year from the  
123 analysis and predicting the change mimics the management process in which SB is estimated one  
124 year out and a target F is set. MARE was recorded for the ‘traditional’ dynamics models (i.e.  
125 restricted to quadratic relationships between F and SB) and the ‘flexible’ dynamics model (i.e.  
126 the model in which the number of knots allowed was increased).

127

### 128 Fishery dynamics and expectations

129 Each of the fitted relationships between SB and F represent a different ‘process effect’ in the  
130 human-natural coupled system of a fishery. Models fit to changes in F describe the way in which  
131 fishers and fisheries managers perceive and interact with a stock, while models fit to changes in  
132 SB describe how the stock responds to exploitation as well as density-dependent and  
133 environmental changes.

134

135 Before applying the GAMs described above to the observed data, they were fitted to data drawn  
136 from simulated populations to understand 1) what fishery dynamics are ‘expected’ given a  
137 common model of fishery dynamics used in fisheries management (e.g. Beverton and Holt, 1957)  
138 and 2) how well the GAMs could be expected to reflect the underlying dynamics of a system. A  
139 production model (equation 2) undergoing an exploitation history in which ‘effort dynamics’  
140 (equation 3; Thorson et al., 2013) determine fishing mortality was used to simulate data. The  
141 effort dynamics model defines a point at which economic equilibrium is reached (i.e. profits =  
142 costs) and posits an unregulated fishery will converge upon this point. The dynamics of a system  
143 driven by effort dynamics (i.e. a spiral in F vs. SB phase space converging on a target over time)  
144 are very similar to those observed in a system managed to a reference point like  $B_{MSY}$ . Once a  
145 stock target is specified in management (e.g.  $B_{MSY}$ ), managers endeavor to maintain the stock at  
146 that point. However, due to errors in the management process (e.g. implementation, process, or  
147 observation), the realized fishing mortality rarely equals the target. Consistent course correction  
148 through management action would therefore be expected to produce a spiral path through F vs.

149 SB space, and, consequently, the effort dynamics model is also appropriate to apply to managed  
 150 stocks (i.e. all those in this analysis). Models (Eq. 1c) were fit to the changes in F and SB from  
 151 data sets simulated for different numbers of observed years and beginning observation of the  
 152 fishery at different time in the exploitation.

153

$$B_{t+1} = B_t + rB_t \left(1 - \frac{B_t}{K}\right) - C_t \quad \text{Eq 2}$$

154 Where:

- $B_t$  Biomass at time  $t$
- $r$  Intrinsic rate of population growth (set to 0.2)
- $K$  Carrying capacity (set to 1000)
- $C_t$  Catch from the fishery at time  $t$

155

$$C_{t+1} = \frac{C_t}{B_t} \left(\frac{B_t}{a * B_0/2}\right)^x B_{t+1} \quad \text{Eq 3}$$

156 Where:

- $a$  Indicates what fraction of  $B_{MSY}$  economic equilibrium occurs (set to 0.5)
- $B_0$  Equilibrium biomass in the absence of fishing
- $x$  Adjusts the fraction of last year's catch applied based on the relationship of current biomass to the biomass at economic equilibrium (set to 0.2)

157

### 158 Random forests: linking stock characteristics to predictability

159 The predictability of fisheries as a coupled human-natural system (measured as MARE for  
 160 predictions based on Eq. 1c) may vary among stocks based on life history characteristics of the  
 161 species, or for other reasons. We therefore conduct a post-hoc analysis of predictability based on  
 162 biological and fishery characteristics. To do so, we use 'random forest', which is an efficient  
 163 statistical method for estimating nonlinear responses and interactions among many potential  
 164 predictors (Brieman, 2001). Random forests boast high classification accuracy, can model non-  
 165 linear relationships between predictor and response variables, can model complex interactions  
 166 among predictor variables, and provide a method for determining variable importance (Cutler et

167 al., 2007). Random forests were an appropriate choice for analysis here because functional  
168 forms and interactions for the variables tested here were not obvious, nor was the analysis  
169 balanced. When compared to other methods, such as generalized linear models, random forests  
170 are able to reveal more complicated relationships (De'ath and Fabricius, 2000). Random forests  
171 were implemented here using the R package "randomForest" (Breiman et al. 2013).

172

### 173 *Data for classification*

174 Maximum weight, maximum length, maximum age, and habitat type were drawn from FishBase  
175 (Froese and Pauly, 2015; references 39-68 were used to fill gaps in FishBase) and large marine  
176 ecosystem, managing body, phylogenetic order, average F, minimum observed spawning  
177 biomass, and length of time series were drawn or calculated from the RAM Legacy Database  
178 (Ricard et al. 2012) to be tested as explanatory variables for predictability of changes in F and  
179 SB (Table 1). The Spearman's cross-correlation (1904) between spawning biomass and  
180 recruitment (where the zero lag correlation represent the influence of spawning biomass on  
181 recruitment and the largest correlation of the negatively lagged correlations represents the  
182 influence of recruitment on spawning biomass), the average length of recruitment regimes, and  
183 the coefficient of variation in recruitment were taken from Szuwalski et al. (2015).

184

185 Variables important for determining the predictability of stocks were identified using a stepwise  
186 method similar to Genuer et al. (2010). Random forests were fit to the data using all identified  
187 predictor variables (table 1) and the variance explained (a 'pseudo- $r^2$ ') was calculated as 1-mean  
188 square error divided by the variance of the response variable. The predictor with the lowest  
189 importance score was dropped and random forests were fit to the data again. The resulting  
190 trajectory of percent variance explained can be used to indicate which variables are important. A  
191 vector of random numbers was also included as a predictor in each random forest to aid in the  
192 identification of important variables. Variables that performed more poorly than the random  
193 number vectors were not considered for inclusion in the final model.

194

## 195 **Results**

196 *Simulation and defining expected fishery dynamics*



197 Consistent patterns arose in the estimated relationships between F and SB when GAMs were fit  
198 to data simulated from surplus production and effort-dynamics models (Eq. 2-3) regardless of the  
199 number of data points included. These consistent patterns form the basis for the ‘expected  
200 dynamics’ against which the RAM Legacy data will be compared. For example, the influence of  
201 F on changes in SB (which tracks the impact of fishing on the population) shows an inverse  
202 relationship (i.e. as F increases, SB decreases for the simulated data sets; solid lines; Figure 1).  
203 Consequently, we defined expected dynamics for this model class as only negative monotonic  
204 relationships. If this expectation is violated (i.e., no influence of F on SB) then this implies that  
205 fisheries management cannot affect SB by changing F, which would render fisheries  
206 management ineffective.

207  
208 The influence of SB on changes in SB reflects density-dependent effects manifested in the  
209 endogenous dynamics of the population. The relationship between changes in SB and SB was  
210 negative and monotonic for most simulated data sets (dot and dash line; Figure. 1). The  
211 mechanism behind this relationship can stem from different sorts of density dependence (e.g.  
212 direct cannibalism or competition for resources). Depensation at low stock sizes could also  
213 result in a concave relationship, but there is little evidence for depensation in fished marine  
214 stocks (Liermann, et al., 2001). Still, for the purposes of this analysis, expected relationships are  
215 defined as negative monotonic or concave relationships between changes in SB and SB.

216  
217 The influence of SB on the change in F indicates how managers (or fishers) change F based on  
218 the perceived size of the stock. The change in F decreased as SB decreased in the simulated data  
219 sets (dotted line; Figure 1). This is conceptually intuitive because, even in the absence of  
220 management, as SB decreases the profitability of the fishery should decrease with a decreasing  
221 CPUE. If management is active, its primary job is to decrease F when SB decreases past a  
222 certain point. However, hyperstability in the CPUE resulting from schooling behavior may allow  
223 F to remain high as SB decreases in open access situations and some management strategies  
224 eschew biomass-based metrics for constant fishing mortality rates. For this analysis, the  
225 ‘expected’ dynamic between changes in F and SB is one in which F decreases at low SB sizes  
226 because it is most consistent with management goals and open-access—however the size at

227 which this decrease occurs can be different between unregulated effort-dynamics and active  
228 fisheries management.

229  
230 The influence of  $F$  on the change in  $F$  indicates the way in which managers (or fishers) change  $F$   
231 in response to a perceived level of exploitation. For the simulated data sets, this relationship is  
232 either flat or convex with respect to  $SB$  (dashed line; Figure 1). However, any relationship  
233 between  $F$  and changes in  $F$  could be plausible, depending on the history of fishing and  
234 management. Consequently, we have placed no expectations on this relationship in this analysis  
235 (i.e. all forms of the relationship can be ‘expected’).

236  
237 The results of this simulation exercise show that the GAMs can be used to estimate the  
238 relationship between  $SB$  and  $F$ , given the underlying dynamics of the system follow those that  
239 are most often assumed by fisheries managers. Predictions of changes in  $SB$  and  $F$  were nearly  
240 perfect for the longest simulated time series (60 years; RMSE  $<0.001$  for both) using only the  
241 ‘traditional dynamics’ models from above (i.e. those in which the number of knots was construed  
242 to be 3 or fewer). This exercise also produced a baseline for ‘expected dynamics’ given a  
243 ‘traditional’ management paradigm.

244  
245 *Application to global fisheries*

246 For each stock, the functions  $g()$  and  $h()$  that describe the population and effort dynamics were  
247 estimated from the data with varying degrees of explanatory power. The predictability of  
248 changes in  $F$  and  $SB$  based on these fitted models varied significantly across large marine  
249 ecosystem (LME), recruitment variability, maximum weight of the species fished and the ratio of  
250 minimum and maximum observed  $SB$ , as indicated by the applied random forests (see Table 1  
251 for a description of tested variables). Predictability of changes in  $SB$  also varied across  
252 maximum length of the species fished, while predictability of changes in  $F$  also varied among  
253 habitat types. In general, changes in  $SB$  were more predictable than changes in  $F$ , but there was a  
254 larger variety in predictability of  $F$  (0.17 vs. 0.73 MARE; compare top rows of figure 2). The  
255 average  $F$  over the history of the fishery also influenced the predictability of changes in  $SB$  to  
256 some extent and the influence of recruitment on  $SB$  influenced the predictability of changes in  $F$   
257 (figure 3).

258  
259 Observed fishery dynamics often did not match the classical assumptions of fishery dynamics.  
260 Sixty-two percent of stocks displayed one of three patterns in fishery dynamics: 22% displayed  
261 all expected dynamics, 21% showed density dependence, but SB did not decrease as F increased,  
262 and 19% showed density dependence, but F did not increase as SB increased. In total, dynamics  
263 consistent with density-dependence appeared in 73% of stocks, and SB decreased as F increased  
264 for 54% of stocks. The proportion of stocks that displayed all expected dynamics varied  
265 significantly according to LME, the influence of recruitment on spawning biomass (as seen  
266 through the most significant lagged cross correlation), variability in recruitment, and average F  
267 (figure 4). Predictability did not markedly improve when moving from models with 3 knots to 5  
268 knots (figure 5).

269  
270 *Case studies*  
271 Predictability was often relatively high when a fishery responded as expected to changes in F and  
272 SB (and hence identifying and managing toward a target level of SB and F was possible).  
273 Sablefish (*Anoplopolma fimbria*, Anoplopolmatidae) in the eastern Bering Sea presented a good  
274 example of expected fishery dynamics (figure 6). SB began relatively high while F was low, SB  
275 decreased as F increased, then F decreased as SB declined further, after which SB subsequently  
276 rebounded. The resulting spiral in F vs. SB phase space was centered around the management  
277 target for the stock (Hanselman et al. 2013). Survey and CPUE data do not start until 1979, so  
278 the early part of the time series' of F and SB do not have informative data driving them.  
279 However, they could be removed and the same spiral (though a truncated version of it) would be  
280 seen in F vs. SB phase space. This spiral is what produces the 'predictability' of the system with  
281 classical models. Errors in predictions of changes in SB were 4% on average for the last 5 years  
282 of data (88<sup>th</sup> percentile out of all stocks); errors in predicted Fs were 6% on average (97<sup>th</sup>  
283 percentile).

284  
285 Prediction was very difficult for some stocks, particularly short-lived species with variable  
286 recruitment. Pacific herring (*Clupea pallasii*, Clupeidae) in the Gulf of Alaska, was a good  
287 example of a stock with poor predictability (2<sup>nd</sup> percentile and 1<sup>st</sup> percentile for predictability in  
288 SB and F, respectively). A relatively long history of exploitation was captured in the assessment

289 for herring and large swings in abundance and fishing pressure were observed, during which  
290 much of the F vs SB phase space was explored (figure 6). However, the responses in a given  
291 area of the phase space were not consistent through the history of the fishery, which translated to  
292 poor predictive performance.

293  
294 Some stocks were fished to low levels and never rebounded, even when fishing pressure was  
295 relaxed (a “one-way trip”). Ten percent of stocks in the analysis showed one-way trips, but  
296 determining if shifts in population dynamics or overfishing caused the collapses is often difficult.  
297 Walleye pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*, Gadidae; figure 6) around the Aleutian Islands  
298 exhibits a ‘one-way trip’ hailed by some as the “most spectacular fishery collapse in North  
299 American history” and was attributed to overfishing (Bailey, 2011). However, changes in F for  
300 pollock were as expected (i.e. F decreases when SB was low), SB did not respond as expected  
301 (i.e. increase when F was low). Although changes in F were as expected, the timing of these  
302 changes was not immediate—there were several years during which SB was low, but F was still  
303 high, which suggests a lagged management response.

304  
305 Counter-intuitive responses to fishing were common. For example, changes in F for skipjack  
306 tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*, Scombridae) in the Pacific Ocean produced very little change in  
307 SB—spawning biomass actually increased with increases in F (figure 6). This could be a result  
308 of relatively light fishing pressure and changes in the environment, but European plaice  
309 (*Pleuronectes platessa*, Pleuronectidae) on the Celtic-Biscay Shelf experienced relatively high  
310 and steady F and showed similarly counter-intuitive patterns—SB changed independently of F  
311 (figure 6). Responses like these run counter to the assumptions of most management strategies  
312 and corroborate evidence that population dynamics for many exploited species are influenced  
313 more strongly by the factors other than SB over the range of observed stock sizes (Szuwalski et  
314 al. 2015). Plots for all fisheries included in the analysis and supplementary references can be  
315 found in the supplementary materials.

316

## 317 **Discussion**

318 *Quantified gradients of predictability*

319 Gradients of predictability imply gradients in both manageability and the appropriate precaution  
320 to be taken when calculating sustainable catches. This may be particularly important for stocks  
321 that have little management or are poorly understood, particularly when attempting to manage  
322 under the traditional paradigm of fishery dynamics. Quantifying and placing fishery dynamics in  
323 a global context (as we have done here) will allow for more appropriate incorporation of  
324 uncertainty in the study and management of exploited populations. The Precautionary Approach  
325 (i.e. when estimates of spawning biomass are uncertain, err on the side of conserving the stock;  
326 FAO 1996) is often invoked to address some of the uncertainty in estimates of SB and F due to  
327 model misspecification and process error, but there is no standardized way of determining an  
328 appropriate amount of precaution (although forecasting error may sometimes be a useful proxy;  
329 Ralston et al, 2011). Our finding suggest less-predictable stocks should be evaluated with greater  
330 caution than more-predictable stocks, given that SB or F is more likely to change unexpectedly  
331 for unpredictable stocks.

332  
333 Climate change and increased variability has the potential to drastically influence the  
334 predictability of stocks. Fisheries managers' main sources of information when managing stocks  
335 are time series of catch, indices of abundance, and samples of the age and size distribution, from  
336 which the productivity and response of a population to exploitation can sometimes be inferred.  
337 However, if stock productivity is influenced by factors other than SB and large environmental  
338 changes occur, past observations of catch and estimates of abundance will be less informative  
339 about expected future productivity (Szuwalski and Hollowed, 2016). Changing trophic  
340 interactions over time may have similar influences on the predictability (Szuwalski et al., 2016).  
341 Under all the myriad influence, one-way trips (and the opposite circumstance in which  
342 productivity increases; e.g. Arrowtooth flounder in the Gulf of Alaska, Figure S6) may become  
343 more prevalent as the oceanic environment continues to change (Doney et al., 2012).

#### 344 345 *Drivers of predictability*

346 In general, variables identified by this analysis as important for predicting changes in SB and F  
347 make intuitive sense. Longer maximum lengths and higher maximum weights (which both are  
348 related to older maximum ages) buffer against large inter-annual changes in SB and therefore  
349 improve predictability of changes in SB. Higher CVs of recruitment can make predicting F and

350 SB more difficult, particularly if recruitment comprises a relatively large fraction of exploitable  
351 biomass. The influence of habitat on predictability of changes in  $F$  may stem from differential  
352 selectivity of gear types used in different habitats and differences in management (consider the  
353 targeting ability of a demersal trawl fishery and a pelagic purse seine fishery). LME was  
354 important for both changes in  $F$  and SB, perhaps due to differences in fisheries management or  
355 environmental forcing by geographic area. Higher minimum observed SB improved  
356 predictability in  $F$  and SB, perhaps because relatively low SB is correlated with increased  
357 variability in recruitment and hence less-predictable biomass dynamics (Minto et al. 2008).  
358 Stocks with all 'expected' fishery dynamics were more likely to have lower minimum observed  
359 SB, higher CVs around recruitment and a higher average  $F$ . These are all factors that predispose  
360 a stock to explore the  $F$  vs SB phase space more thoroughly.

361

### 362 *Implications for model suitability*

363 We show 'classical' production models do not effectively predict the dynamics of a large  
364 fraction of global fisheries, but many fisheries have sufficient data to perform assessments that  
365 incorporate age-at-length sampling data, tagging data, or other information. Additional biological  
366 information may improve predictability for changes in SB in many cases and the stock  
367 assessments from which the estimated time series of  $F$  and SB were drawn would likely predict  
368 changes in SB better than the presented models. For example, age-composition information will  
369 inform estimates of past recruitment and provide information regarding somatic growth in a  
370 given year (Ono et al., 2015; however, incorporation of additional biological data does not  
371 always decrease uncertainty in management quantities, Kell et al. 2016). Similarly, information  
372 regarding fishery characteristics (profitability, management changes, nominal effort) may  
373 increase predictability for  $F$  (Sethi et al, 2010; Menychuk, et al., 2013). Nevertheless, our results  
374 provide a lower-bound on predictability and can be used to identify relatively unpredictable  
375 stocks, which could then be managed with greater precaution. Furthermore, the concept  
376 encapsulated by our analysis (e.g. testing the predictability of a given modeling framework for  
377 both simulated and real data) should occupy a central point of any management effort.

378

379 Upwards of 80% of worldwide fisheries are unassessed and minimally managed, and interest is  
380 high in improving assessment and management for these fisheries (Thorson et al., 2012; Costello

381 et al., 2012). However, data for assessment are often few. Methods that only require catch time  
382 series are being explored to assess and manage fisheries (Martell and Froese, 2012; MacCall,  
383 2009), but the debate concerning the information content of catch time series' is ongoing  
384 (Hilborn and Branch, 2013 vs. Pauly, 2013). Catch only methods can be justified if fisheries  
385 dynamics match the assumed dynamics of the prevailing fisheries paradigm (Thorson et al.,  
386 2013), yet this match is only apparent in 22% of assessed fisheries in our analysis. This suggests  
387 that, although there is a subset of stocks for which catch-only methods might be possible, catch is  
388 often not a reliable indicator of biomass in the larger scale fisheries examined here (this may not  
389 be the case for small scale and subsistence fisheries).

390

### 391 *Implications for management strategies*

392 Simulation frameworks (e.g. management strategy evaluation, Smith et al, 1999) are often used  
393 to test harvest strategies under a variety of assumed population and effort dynamics. However,  
394 simulation testing requires speculation about what scenarios are plausible or likely (Carpenter,  
395 2002; Rochet and Rice, 2009). Region-specific meta-analysis may provide improved baselines  
396 for simulating scenarios, but our study shows that unpredictable fishery dynamics are more the  
397 rule than the exception, and hence rapid changes in  $F$  or  $SB$  independent of the current level of  $F$   
398 or  $SB$  should be explored. Similarly, environmental and/or regime shift scenarios for biomass  
399 dynamics are common in the populations analyzed here and management strategies should be  
400 explored that are robust to these changes (e.g. Szuwalski and Punt, 2013). For many of the  
401 unassessed stocks globally, collection of data required for assessment can be prohibitively  
402 expensive. Simulation studies are increasingly being suggested for use to identify management  
403 strategies that are robust to a range of fishery dynamics (Bentley and Stokes, 2009; Punt, 2008),  
404 but have been criticized for the lack of variety in the assumed simulation dynamics (Rochet and  
405 Rice, 2009). We therefore recommend that future simulation studies explore both predictable  
406 dynamics (i.e., density dependent population dynamics combined with endogenous effort  
407 dynamics), unpredictable dynamics (i.e., regime-based population dynamics combined with  
408 rapid shifts in fishing pressure), and non-linear dynamics (as those suggested by Glaser et al.,  
409 2015).

410

411 Successful fisheries management requires an understanding of a population's response to  
412 exploitation and changes in the environment, if not on a mechanistic level, at least on a  
413 predictive level. Some failures in fisheries management can be traced to incorrect assumptions  
414 about population dynamics (e.g. Walters and Maguire, 1999). Consequently, regular checks that  
415 the dynamics of F and SB (and recruitment dynamics) in a population are operating as assumed  
416 should become a regular part of assessment and management. The ability of capture fisheries to  
417 continue to support global protein needs depends on our ability to sustainably manage exploited  
418 populations; fisheries managers must more thoroughly examine the way in which they expect a  
419 population to behave to ensure sustainable harvest.

#### 420 **Acknowledgments:**

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422 and the data used within can be downloaded at [ramlegacy.org](http://ramlegacy.org) and [www.fishbase.org](http://www.fishbase.org). Thanks to  
423 Andre Punt, Ray Hilborn, Jason Cope, Jim Hastie, Michelle McClure, Matthew Baker, and an  
424 anonymous reviewer for comments that improved this manuscript.

425

#### 426 **Supplementary materials:**

427 Plots similar to figure 6 for all stocks in the analysis and supplementary references used to  
428 populate the database used to identify gradients in predictability in are available online.

429

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535

536

537 Table 1. Description of variables linked to predictability of changes in F and SB.

Predictor	Description
Maximum length	Maximum body length achieved by a species
Maximum weight	Maximum body weight achieved by a species
Maximum age	Maximum age achieved by a species
Habitat	Major habitat occupied by a species (e.g. coral reef, pelagic, demersal)
LME	Large marine ecosystem
Management	Managing body for the stock (e.g. DFO, NMFS, ICCAT)
Assessment	Method of assessment (e.g. VPA, SCAA, Production model)
Order	Phylogenetic order (e.g. Scorpaeniformes)
Average F	Average estimated fishing mortality experienced of the period of assessment
Ratio of minimum and maximum observed SB	Minimum estimated spawning biomass over the period of assessment, calculated as a fraction of the maximum observed spawning biomass
Lagged CCF	Most significant negatively lagged crosscorrelation between spawning biomass and recruitment (indicates the influence of recruitment on SB)
Recruitment Drivers	Drivers of recruitment dynamics as indicated by Szuwalski et al. 2015
Length	Length of the time series for a given stock in this analysis
Zero CCF	Magnitude of the Spearman's correlation of between spawning biomass and recruitment
Coefficient of variation in recruitment	Quantifies the variability in recruitment

538

539

540 **Figure legends:**

541 Figure 1. Simulated fishing mortality (F. mort), spawning biomass (Sp.Bio.) from a production  
542 model with effort dynamics determining catch. The middle row plots the trajectory of the stock  
543 through F and SB phase space; white are the oldest observations, black are the newest. The  
544 bottom row plots the fitted relationship between changes in F or SB to current F or SB. Each  
545 column represents a different number of years of simulated data and/or starting observation at  
546 different points in the exploitation history.

547  
548 Figure 2. Variables identified as important in predicting changes in F and SB via random forest.  
549 Changes in F or SB are increasingly predictable (measured in mean absolute relative error  
550 [MARE]) towards the right of the graph. LMEs for which data for at least 5 stocks were  
551 included in the LME plot.

552  
553 Figure 3. Percent variability explained for changes in fishing mortality (F) and spawning biomass  
554 (SB) via random forest as terms are removed from the model. Vertical dashed line in each  
555 represents the random number vector and the variables to the right were retained in the models  
556 presented.

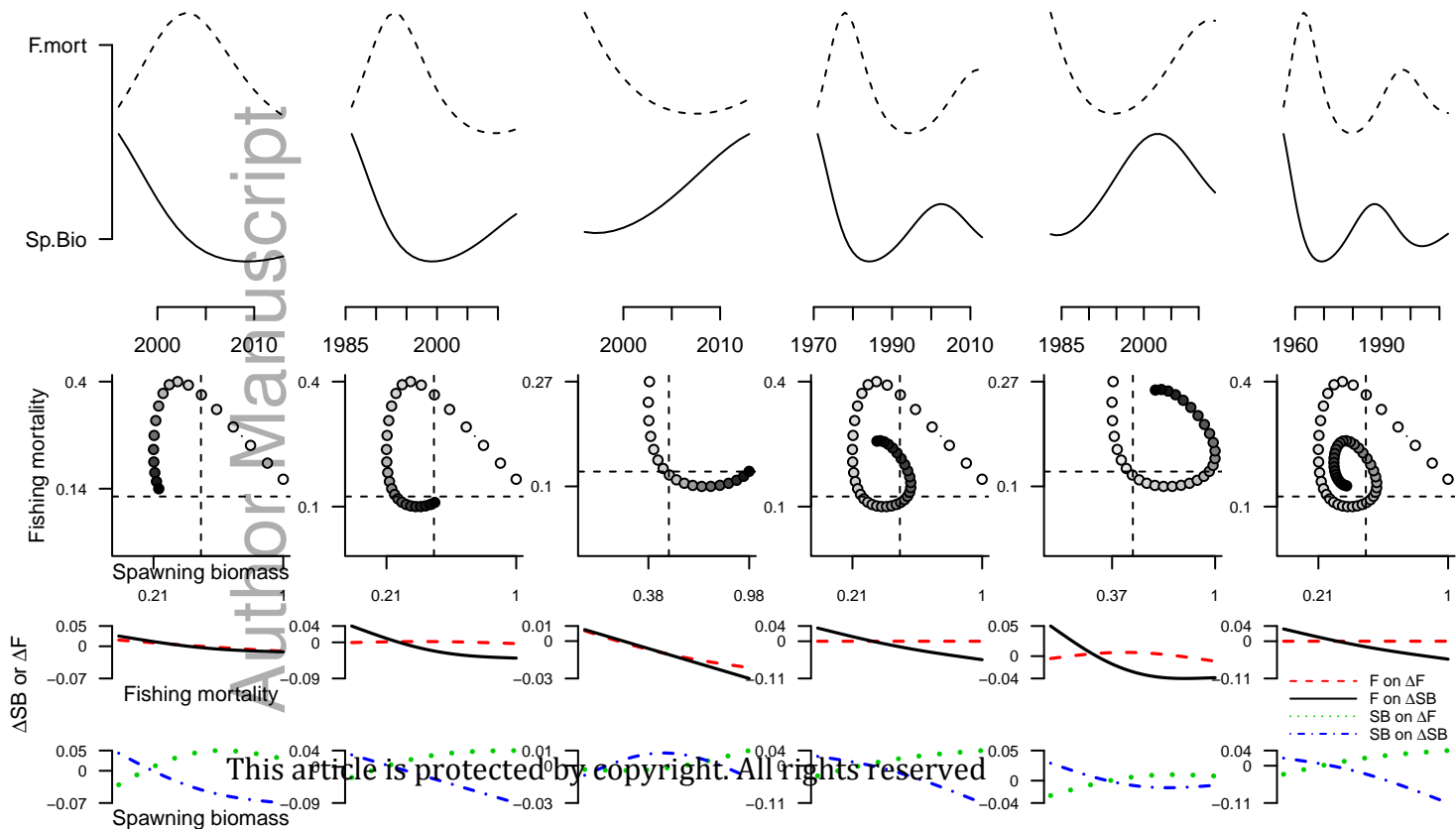
557  
558 Figure 4. Frequency of combinations of fishery dynamics and probability of all expected  
559 dynamics. Below the histogram of observed dynamics (top), the probability of observing all  
560 expected dynamics (i.e. active management and stationary, density-dependent population  
561 dynamics) given 4 variables identified as important by random forests (lagged CCF indicates the  
562 most significant negatively lagged cross correlation). Shaded areas represent 95% confidence  
563 intervals.

564  
565 Figure 5. Changes in root mean square error (RMSE) when moving from estimating the  
566 dynamics of SB and F using GAMs with 3 knots to 5 knots. A decrease in RMSE indicates  
567 improved predictive ability.

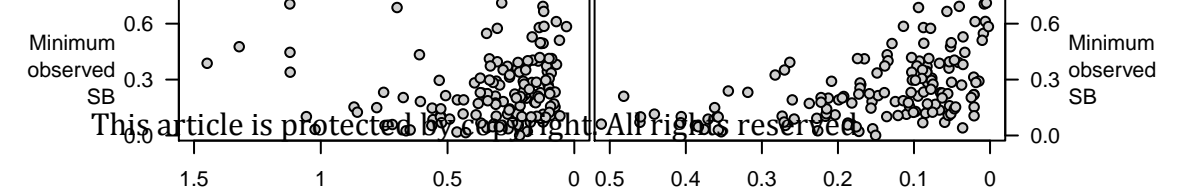
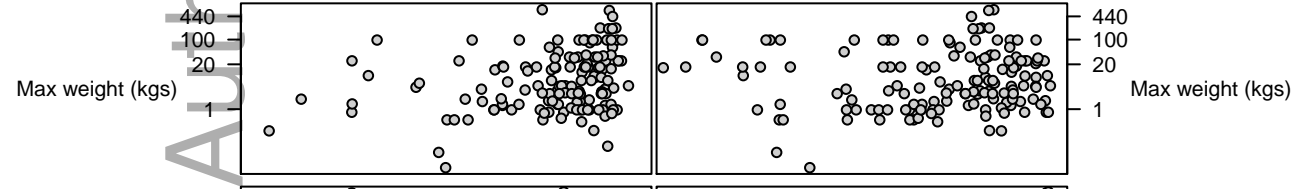
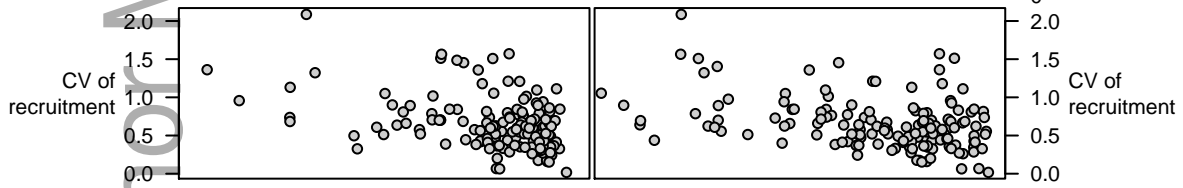
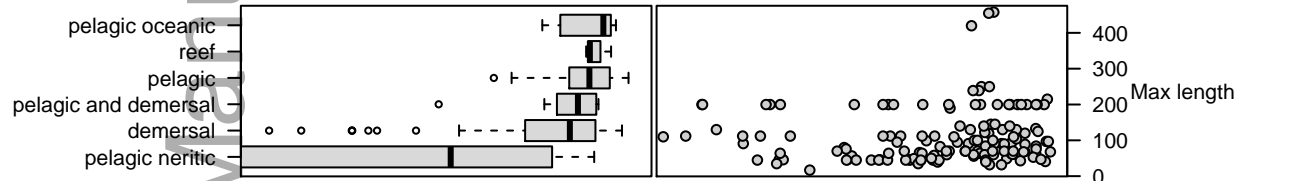
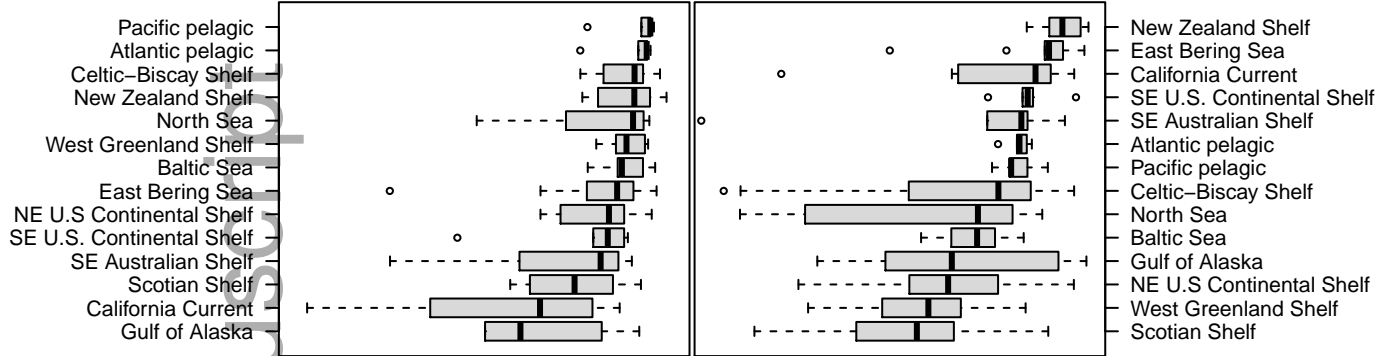
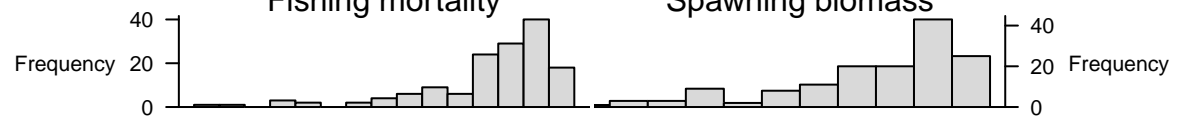
568  
569 Figure 6. Example stocks on the spectrum of predictability. Estimated fishing mortality (F mort),  
570 spawning biomass (Sp.Bio.) and recruits are in the top row. The middle row plots the trajectory  
571 of the stock through F and SB phase space; white are the oldest observations, black are the

572 newest. The bottom row plots the fitted relationship between changes in F or SB to current F or  
573 SB.

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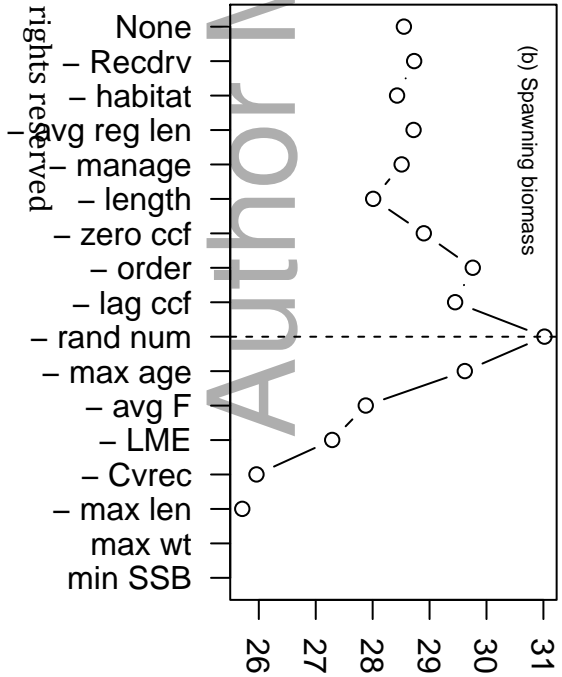
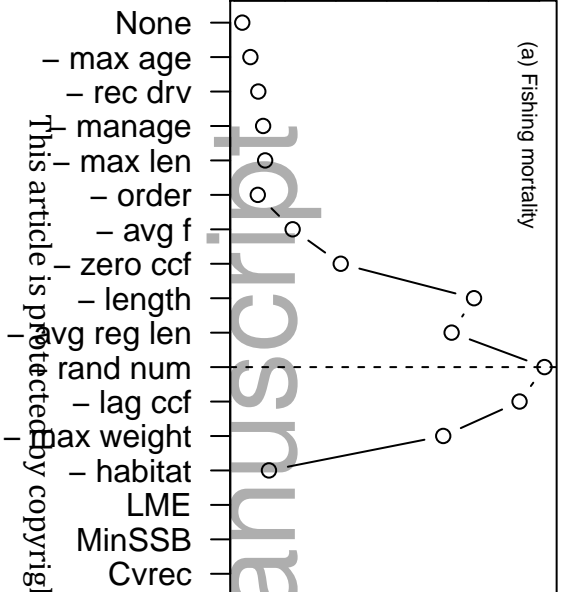


# Fishing mortality      Spawning biomass



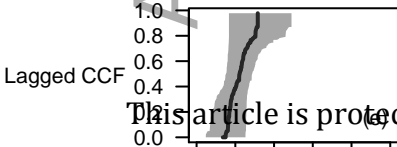
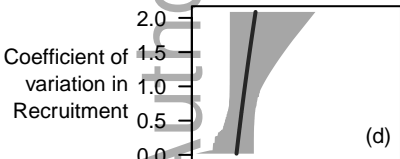
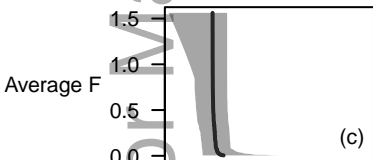
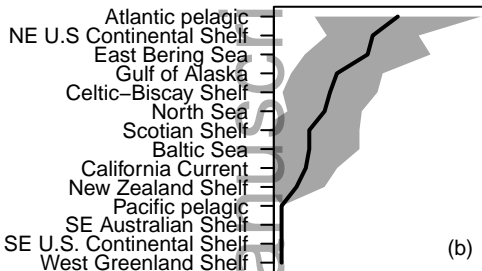
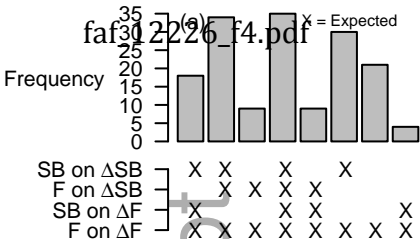


% variability explained



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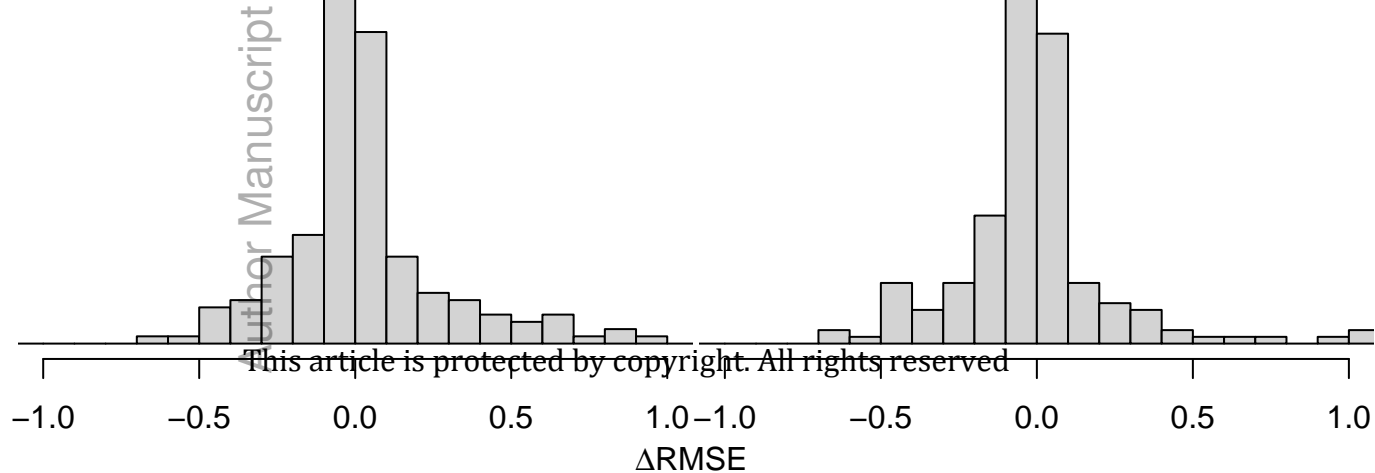
Variables excluded



0.0 0.4 0.8  
Probability of expected dynamics

(a) Spawning biomass

(b) Fishing mortality



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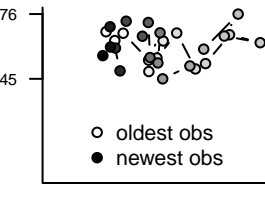
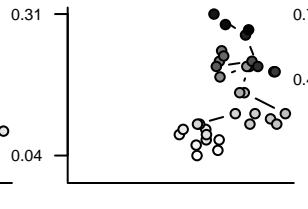
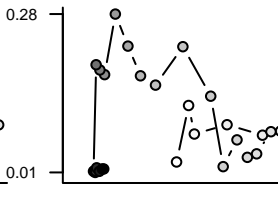
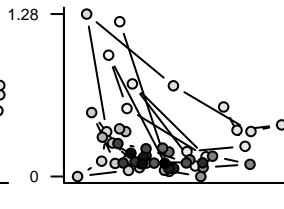
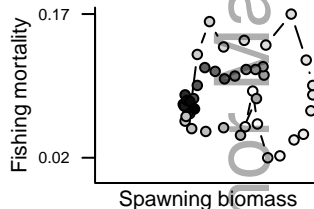
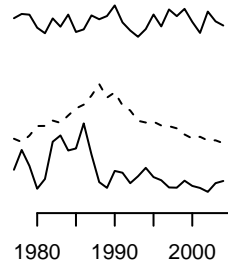
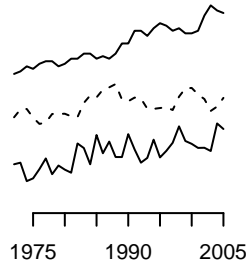
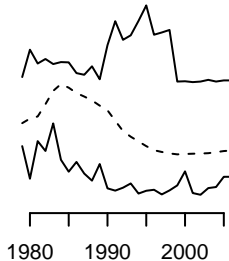
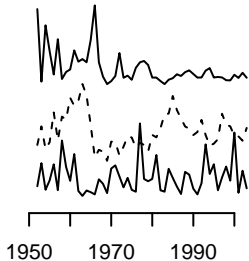
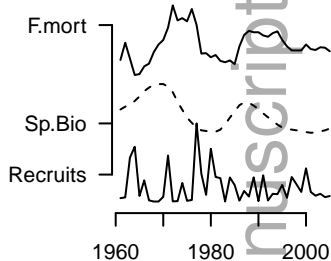
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Pacific herring  
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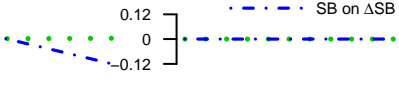
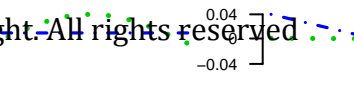
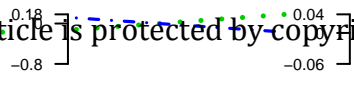
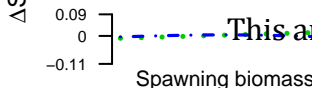
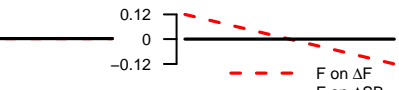
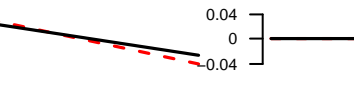
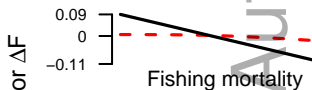
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Skipjack tuna  
 Species *Katsuwonus pelamis*  
 Order Perciformes  
 LME Pacific pelagic  
 RAM ID SPC-SKJCVWPAK-1972-2006-JENSEN

European Plaice  
 Species *Pleuronectes platessa*  
 Order Pleuronectiformes  
 LME Celtic-Biscay Shelf  
 RAM ID WGSSE-PLAICELT-1976-2006-JENNII



○ oldest obs  
 ● newest obs



--- F on  $\Delta F$   
 — F on  $\Delta SB$   
 ... SB on  $\Delta F$   
 -.- SB on  $\Delta SB$

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