

A review of approaches to quantifying uncertainty in fisheries stock assessments

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Abstract

Scientific uncertainty affects all parts of the fisheries management process. This study reviews methods for quantifying scientific uncertainty for presentation as part of the scientific advice to fisheries managers. We surveyed stock assessment scientists to a) identify the methods commonly used to quantify uncertainty, b) describe how method use has changed over time, c) investigate the factors that influence which methods are used, and d) characterize how scientific uncertainty is presented to fisheries managers. We found that scientific uncertainty is being quantified and included in scientific advice across multiple fishery management systems. Frequentist approaches for quantifying uncertainty are used more broadly than Bayesian approaches, and the survey did not detect this changing over time. Time restrictions and methodology requests during the scientific review process were commonly reported as factors influencing the use of uncertainty methods. Uncertainty in estimates of management targets (e.g., fishing mortality or biomass), projections, and catch limits were the quantities most frequently included in the scientific advice presented to fisheries managers. Methods for quantifying uncertainty and their incorporation into management advice are quickly advancing, and our approaches for reviewing progress towards clearly and explicitly communicating the sources, treatment, and impacts of uncertainty in management processes must keep pace.

Key words: scientific uncertainty; stock assessment; scientific advice

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Communicating uncertainty is an inescapable component of providing scientific advice for
3 fisheries management. The advent of national commitments to a precautionary approach for the
4 conservation and management of ecological resources was championed by organizations such as
5 the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) in the 1990s and inspired a thorough review of
6 methods for quantifying uncertainties in stock size, stock productivity, reference points, and
7 fishing mortality by Patterson et al. (2001). The efficacy of fisheries management is influenced by
8 at least five types of uncertainty: 1) observation uncertainty, the uncertainty in measurement of
9 observable quantities such as biomass from surveys, catch or sizes-at-age; 2) process uncertainty,
10 the uncertainty due to underlying stochasticity in stock dynamics such as recruitment or variation
11 in the growth of a fish stock; 3) model uncertainty, the misspecification of model parameters or
12 structure (e.g., assuming the incorrect form for selectivity as a function of size); 4) estimation
13 uncertainty, the inaccuracy and imprecision associated with estimated model parameters; 5) and
14 implementation uncertainty, the variability in the implementation of management strategies
15 (Holland and Herrera, 2009; Rosenberg and Restrepo, 1994). These uncertainties occur in all
16 fishery systems, and affect the interpretation of data, analysis results, ranking of management
17 options, and the efficacy of those options (Peterman, 2004). The resulting impact of uncertainty
18 on scientific advice is critical because both overemphasis and understatement of uncertainty can
19 undermine scientific credibility and ultimately progress towards management goals (Dankel et al.,
20 2012). Failure to effectively account for uncertainty can lead to overshooting management targets,
21 failing to rebuild depleted stocks, and missing opportunities to take advantage of sustainable
22 fishing opportunities (Cadrin et al., 2015). Rosenberg (2007) suggested those who produce
23 scientific advice for fisheries management navigate the pitfalls of blanket generalizations about
24 uncertainty by discerning “the almost certain from the less certain”.

25 It is convenient to consider two classes of uncertainty when discussing the quantification of
26 uncertainty: scientific uncertainty (i.e., observation, process, model, and estimation uncertainties)
27 and management uncertainty (i.e., implementation uncertainty). The focus of this paper is on
28 methods for and applied examples of quantifying scientific uncertainty, as these dominate the
29 literature and are general across jurisdictions and taxa. Identifying the widely used tools and
30 methods for quantifying scientific uncertainty and the frequency of use over time, fish stocks, and
31 regions can contribute to the continued development of best practices. Understanding the factors
32 influencing the use of a tool or method can inform the allocation and development of resources to
33 better quantify uncertainty.

34 During this exploration of methods and tools for quantifying uncertainty, we will use the
35 following definitions of key concepts. The *fisheries management process* consists of data
36 collection, analysis, scientific review, provision of scientific advice, decision-making, setting of
37 catch limits, and enforcement (FAO, 1997). *Jurisdictions* are the organizations (e.g., single
38 governmental, multi-national governmental, and non-governmental) designing and implementing
39 the fisheries management process. A *stock assessment* is a process that includes the activities,
40 analyses, and reports related to the data collection, analysis, and scientific review components of
41 the fishery management process (PFMC, 2018). More specifically, the *analysis* process of a stock
42 assessment applies statistical and mathematical models to use different data sources (e.g., survey,
43 fishery, biological) to make quantitative predictions about the abundance and trends of fish stocks
44 and of fishing intensity (Hilborn and Walters, 1992). Scientific uncertainty can be quantified using
45 frequentist and Bayesian paradigms of statistical inference (hereby deemed as *uncertainty*
46 *methods*). *Sensitivity analyses* elucidate how these uncertainties propagate through an assessment

47 model and can be apportioned to sources of uncertainty in the model inputs and parameter values
48 (Satelli, 2002; Steel et al., 2009). The modeling frameworks designed for stock assessment
49 analysis, the uncertainty methods, and sensitivity analyses can be assembled into *packages* (i.e.,
50 well-documented software repositories) to be downloaded and installed on a computer for
51 reproducible analyses.

52 Dichmont et al. (2016a) assert that assembling stock assessment modeling frameworks into
53 packages is integral for increasing access to tools for quantifying uncertainty. The advantages of
54 assessment packages include that open access to such packages facilitates exploration of multiple
55 assessment configurations and strengthens the peer-review process. However, implementing a new
56 model for a stock using packages developed for different, specific stocks presents challenges such
57 as dealing with the “black box” effect when debugging potential errors and the steep learning curve
58 for packages with many options. This meta-analytic approach to characterizing package use in
59 U.S. fisheries management lends itself well to exploration of other analysis components such as
60 methods for quantifying scientific uncertainty.

61 We apply a similar meta-analytic approach to Dichmont et al. (2016a) to summarize the
62 methods that produce model outputs used to communicate scientific uncertainty to fisheries
63 managers. Specifically, we are interested in the methods used for quantifying uncertainty within a
64 given assessment framework and across such frameworks. We surveyed stock assessment
65 scientists to investigate the following: 1) what methods for quantifying uncertainty are used?; 2)
66 how have methods changed over time?; 3) what are the most common factors that influence the
67 use of a specific method?; and 4) how are scientific uncertainties presented to fisheries managers?

68 **2. Methods**

69 The survey addressed each research question through the use of multiple choice and free response
70 questions (see Supplementary Figs 1- 7 for survey questions). Participants in the survey were asked
71 to state the assessment tools (e.g., packages) they have used, the approaches used for quantifying
72 scientific uncertainty while conducting assessments, and the quantities of interest used in
73 sensitivity analyses (Supplementary Figs 2-4). To characterize how method and tool use has
74 changed over time, participants were asked to provide the tools, analyses, and approaches used in
75 a (subjective) representative sample of the assessments they have conducted (Supplementary Figs
76 6-7). To identify factors that may influence method and tool use, analysts were asked which
77 available methods for quantifying uncertainty were not used, which quantities of interest could
78 have been considered for uncertainty evaluation but were not, and why (Supplementary Figs 3-4).
79 Finally, participants were asked how they have presented uncertainties to fishery managers
80 (Supplementary Fig. 5).

81 The survey was distributed to scientists who have conducted stock assessments and provided
82 scientific advice to management. Survey participants (N=68) have provided scientific advice for
83 many organizations around the world. Respondents self-defined the numbers of years worked as a
84 stock assessment scientist, and these ranged from 1 to 38 years (Fig. 1).

85 We asked survey respondents to provide information for some representative stock
86 assessments they have conducted over the last 5-10 years. This included the common and scientific
87 names of the stock, the agency for which the assessment was conducted, the year the assessment
88 was conducted, the packages used, the data types used, the sensitivity analyses conducted, and the
89 uncertainty methods used. Survey respondents were invited to list the uncertainty methods,
90 sensitivity analyses, and packages featured in the survey and any additional analyses and analysis
91 methods. The resulting time series covered 1997 to 1999 (ranging from 1 to 3 assessments each
92 year) and 2002 to 2018 (ranging from 1 to 64 assessments each year). Originally, there were 372

93 assessments reported. However, there were cases of repeat assessments because multiple
94 assessment authors who have worked on the same assessments were surveyed. The information
95 was collated across respondents and resulted in 353 individual assessments.

96 **3. Results**

97 *3.1 Representativeness of the survey results*

98 Our survey reviewing methods for quantifying scientific uncertainty has notable limitations. The
99 representation of agencies and regions is not evenly distributed, as 35 of the 68 respondents were
100 based at the U.S. National Marine Fisheries Service. However, the assessment scientists and the
101 stocks they reported working with fall within 17 of the 18 regions used by the RAM Legacy Stock
102 Assessment Database [Ricard et al., 2012] to aggregate assessment summaries (Fig. 1). The
103 patterns in method use presented have low sample sizes (e.g., 1-2 stocks) for assessments in the
104 early part of the time series.

105 *3.2 Software and model framework*

106 Identifying the packages and thus the modeling frameworks used to conduct assessments allows
107 us to draw connections between the tools available and the methods for quantifying uncertainty—
108 i.e., how scientists are discerning “the almost certain from the less certain”. Survey respondents
109 were asked to identify software they use (and have used) in the process of conducting a stock
110 assessment. The provided list of available software featured 23 options (Table 1; Supplementary
111 Fig. 2) and the survey responses identified an additional 23 (Table 2). The packages used in the
112 provided assessments (N=353) were sorted into the following modeling frameworks: surplus
113 production models (N=2), virtual population analyses (VPA; N=17), age-structured models
114 (N=244), length-structured models (N=19), depletion models (N=9), depletion-based stock
115 reduction analyses (DB-SRA; N=3), and not specified (N=59). Not specified consisted of
116 responses with package descriptions that did not indicate the model framework used for an
117 assessment (e.g., “User-written ADMB code”). The use of the VPA model framework decreased
118 over time, the use of length-structured models increased in most recent years, and age-structured
119 models were used consistently throughout the time period surveyed (Fig. 2, panel a). Not enough
120 information was provided to describe trends in surplus production, depletion, or DB-SRA models
121 over time (Fig. 2, panel a). Assessments developed using age-structured models used the most
122 methods for quantifying uncertainty (Fig. 3). Frequentist uncertainty methods were used across all
123 frameworks except DB-SRA, with asymptotic methods being the most used frequentist approach
124 (Fig. 3).

125 *3.3 Structural models and estimation methods*

126 The patterns in use of sensitivity analyses and statistical inference paradigms (and the drivers of
127 such patterns) can influence the type and complexity of information to present with scientific
128 advice to management.

129 Sensitivity analysis help understand some aspects of model uncertainty. When asked if they
130 utilize sensitivity analyses to directly quantify uncertainty, 38 respondents provided a response:
131 20 respondents reported yes, 16 reported no, and 2 reported sometimes. The participants stated
132 that they used sensitivity analyses to qualitatively characterize uncertainty, i.e., as a “2nd tier of
133 uncertainty” to be used in conjunction with other methods (e.g., management strategy evaluation
134 and Bayesian methods). Sensitivity tests can be used to capture some aspects of model uncertainty
135 when providing management advice; for example, when defining states of nature and bracketing
136 ranges of plausible outcomes when important elements of uncertainty cannot be incorporated

137 directly into a model (e.g., if one cannot estimate natural mortality, steepness, or catch uncertainty).
138 These responses also highlighted the strength of sensitivity testing as a qualitative tool useful for
139 representing extremes to demonstrate model behavior and assess the robustness of model results
140 to baseline assumptions and assumed values for model parameters.

141 Participants were asked if they used frequentist (i.e., asymptotic methods, bootstrapping,
142 jackknife, and likelihood profiles) and Bayesian (i.e., Adaptive Importance Sampling (AIS),
143 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), Sample-Importance-Resample (SIR)) methods to quantify
144 process and estimation uncertainty. For the frequentist methods, asymptotic methods and
145 likelihood profiles were selected most frequently, followed by bootstrapping, and jackknife (Fig.
146 4, panel a). The dominant Bayesian approach was MCMC and its many variants (N=48) (Fig. 4,
147 panel b). The survey did not detect a substantial change in estimation method use over time (Fig.
148 5). Additional methods for quantifying uncertainty provided by survey respondents were decision
149 tables, ensemble modeling, retrospective analyses, and the Approximate Bayesian Computation.

150 Respondents referred to assessing the “performance” of models using retrospective analyses
151 of base models and previous assessments of the same stock, and models of various levels of
152 complexity (e.g., fitting a production model as well as a model that includes all of the data).

153 *3.4 Model specification and sensitivity analyses*

154 Evaluating the sensitivity of the outcomes of an assessment to the specifications of the model on
155 which it is based is integral for the prevention of overemphasis or understatement of uncertainty
156 and maintaining progress toward management goals and scientific credibility. We asked
157 respondents if they routinely conduct sensitivity analyses based on alternative catch streams, and
158 on assumptions about catchability, growth, maturity, natural mortality, recruitment (e.g., fixed
159 values for stock-recruitment steepness), selectivity parameterization, the stock-recruit relationship
160 (e.g., a Beverton-Holt or Ricker parameterization) and data set choice, and data weighting. The
161 quantities of interest investigated for sensitivity analyses did not change over time (Fig. 6). Of the
162 provided list, data weighting was the most selected option and maturity was the least (Fig. 7).
163 Additional sensitivities fell into two categories: data processing and changes to structural
164 assumptions. Sensitivities involving data processing (related in part to observation uncertainty)
165 included the range of years of data used for specific data sets and how they are used (e.g., a survey
166 using different sampling methods in different years), the binning of length compositions,
167 alternative survey indices (e.g., design- vs. model-based), use of tagging data, how survey data are
168 aggregated over space, area-stratified vs. spatially lumped, and alternative assumptions regarding
169 ageing imprecision and time-varying selectivity. Model structure sensitivity analyses (i.e., model
170 uncertainty) involved comparing results using different stock assessment packages (e.g.,
171 personalized ADMB model, Stock Synthesis, and SAM) [see Table 2 for example references], the
172 number of growth morphs (in a Stock Synthesis assessments), whether the model is single- or two-
173 sex, the number of areas, fleet structure, temporal step, alternative time ranges for the assessment
174 movement/migration assumptions, likelihood distribution assumptions, proportional vs. non-
175 proportional relationships between catch-rate and abundance, amount of fishing prior to the start
176 of the data series, cetacean depredation, and illegal, unreported, and unregulated fishing trends.

177 *3.5 Presentation of uncertainty to fishery managers*

178 Determining the most common assessment outputs used for producing scientific advice for
179 management may reveal how the methods for quantifying uncertainty and the information
180 requested by fisheries managers overlap. Survey participants were given eight options for
181 assessment outputs used to communicate scientific uncertainty to fishery managers: estimates of

182 fishing mortality and/or biomass; estimates of fishing mortality and/or biomass relative to
183 reference points; the results of simulation testing; the results of management strategy evaluations;
184 decision tables; values for catch limits (e.g., Total Allowable Catch (TAC), Acceptable Biological
185 Catch (ABC), Overfishing Limit (OFL)); projections under uncertainty; and other (Fig. 8). The
186 precision of estimates of incoming year class strengths (i.e., recruitment) and the results of
187 ensemble models were suggested as additional ways to communicate uncertainty by the
188 respondents. Several respondents reported that while they have presented many of these model
189 outputs to fisheries managers and their scientific review bodies, there are cases when the
190 information (and its associated estimates of uncertainty) have not been used in fisheries
191 management.

192 **4. Discussion**

193 Scientific uncertainty is being quantified and included in scientific advice across multiple fisheries
194 management systems. Frequentist approaches for quantifying process and estimation uncertainty
195 are used more broadly than Bayesian approaches, and the survey did not detect this trend changing
196 over time. This is also reflected in the prolific use of packages using asymptotic methods for
197 estimating uncertainty, which has qualitatively increased over time (in particular, those based on
198 ADMB). Similarly, there has been little change in the quantities of interest investigated for
199 sensitivity analyses over time, supporting Maunder and Piner's (2015) statement that successful
200 interpretation of data requires knowledge of growth, recruitment, natural mortality, selectivity, and
201 sampling processes for the stock—knowledge that remains incomplete for most stocks and regions.
202 Time restrictions and methodology requests during the scientific review process were commonly
203 reported as factors influencing the use of uncertainty methods (more below). Uncertainty in
204 estimates of management targets (e.g., fishing mortality or biomass), projections, and catch limits
205 were the quantities most frequently presented to managers. Survey respondents also expressed that
206 not all uncertainties that are quantified are presented and not all those presented are used by
207 managers in the decision-making process.

208 Ultimately, asking assessment scientists what factors influence their use of specific approaches
209 to quantifying scientific uncertainty revealed a common theme: the design of the fisheries
210 management system. The priorities of jurisdictions designing each component of this cycle vary
211 with their respective values, economic structures, and political traditions (Marchal et al., 2016). At
212 the heart of the fisheries management system lies the mission to have a transparent process
213 operating with the utmost integrity to strengthen stakeholder confidence in the decisions being
214 informed by scientific advice. Failure to explicitly define the roles and responsibilities of managers
215 and scientists presents opportunities for certain sources of uncertainty to not be properly identified
216 (Cadrin et al., 2015). The definition and communication of these roles and responsibilities is a
217 dynamic process that changes as the fishery management system encounters new situations and
218 experiences changes in decision-making participants and government structures (Francis and
219 Shotton, 1997).

220 Many jurisdictions create and implement review protocols to meet their goals and avoid the
221 above pitfalls, which directly influence the methods used to quantify uncertainty. This can manifest
222 as specific methodology requests for conducting assessments, quantifying uncertainty, and
223 presentation of scientific advice. The ICES uses a Generic Terms of Reference for many of its
224 stock assessment working groups. Each stock assessment working group applies an assessment
225 model framework that is either analytical, forecast, or based on trend indicators, and the final report
226 is requested to address the following: input data and data quality; catch misreporting; percent of
227 total catch taken in a regulatory area; if applicable, estimates of maximum sustainable yield proxy

228 reference points; the status of the stock relative to reference points; projected catch scenarios; and
229 historical and analytical performance of the assessment and catch options (ICES, 2018). In the
230 U.S., the Pacific Fishery Management Council has specific requests for the evaluation of
231 uncertainty in assessment results for U.S. West Coast groundfish and coastal pelagic species
232 stocks: model specification uncertainty; parameter uncertainty (including likelihood profiles);
233 retrospective analysis; historical analysis; probability statements for ranges of model runs; and for
234 groundfish at least three states of nature for model ranges (i.e., most probable, lower biomass
235 trajectory, and high biomass trajectory) (PFMC, 2018).

236 The time allocated to conduct and review a stock assessment varies by jurisdiction and directly
237 influences the methods used to quantify uncertainty. The amount of time available to conduct and
238 review a stock assessment to prepare scientific advice depends on resource availability (e.g.,
239 external reviewers) and the timetable for making short-term management decisions (e.g., setting
240 catch limits). In some regions of the U.S., assessments are conducted over the course of a few
241 months and are reviewed over a short time period (e.g., 5 days for U.S. West Coast) and any
242 additional model requests must be performed within this time frame (PFMC, 2018). In other
243 management systems such as New Zealand, fish-stock assessment groups meet daily over the
244 course of weeks or months to conduct the assessment and respond to scientific review feedback
245 (Marchal et al., 2009). ICES stock assessment working groups meet for 5-10 days to complete and
246 review assessments (Marchal et al., 2009). The combination of requested methodology and the
247 time available for conducting and reviewing assessments may not leave stock assessment scientists
248 with enough time to run full Bayesian analyses for quantifying process and estimation uncertainty.
249 However, advances in optimization approaches in software such as ADMB (e.g., Hamiltonian No
250 U-Turn Samplers) may reduce this bottleneck in analysis run time enough to influence the use of
251 uncertainty methods for management advice in the future (Monnahan et al., 2019).

252 The frequency of assessment for a stock (i.e., stock prioritization) also influences time
253 restrictions and may indirectly impact the use of specific uncertainty methods. Stock prioritization
254 generally relates to the total number of stocks and species assessed by a jurisdiction, relative
255 commercial importance of the stock, and data availability (Marchal et al., 2009; Methot, 2015).
256 Depending on the stock, assessment frequency may range from once a year to once every 10 or
257 more years. Jurisdictions with many stocks may have longer gaps between assessments for a single
258 stock because limited resources (e.g., number of available assessment scientists) may restrict the
259 number of assessments that can be conducted annually. The stocks and species assessed may also
260 rotate over time. Stock prioritization procedures (informally and formally defined) decide how this
261 stock rotation occurs and fisheries scientists and managers should collaborate to design procedures
262 that “focus limited resources where they are most needed to reduce uncertainty” (Cadrin et al.,
263 2015). Given these constraints, incorporating major changes to model structure and uncertainty
264 methodology may not be feasible every assessment cycle, especially if there are long gaps since
265 the last assessment for a stock, new data considerations, and requested methodology from scientific
266 review committees.

267 Summarizing the influence of management design highlights opportunities to expand the
268 repertoire for quantifying uncertainty for use in the development of scientific advice. Survey
269 respondents reported that the uncertainty methods and sensitivity analyses they employ often differ
270 between assessment reports for tactical management and research publications. Scientists should
271 continue to explore and test alternative hypotheses in a research context and integrate the reliable
272 approaches into the packages (new and existing) and requested methods used to inform
273 management. Using packages that have been previously reviewed and approved by the scientific

274 review committees has the potential to alleviate some of the burden of the review process and may
275 promote more effective communication of results (Dichmont et al., 2016a). The expansion of
276 current packages (e.g., Stock Synthesis and CASAL) can include the addition of spatially-
277 structured population dynamics models, incorporation of non-traditional data types (e.g., tagging
278 data, and habitat information), and integration of economic models (e.g., Australian fisheries
279 requiring management advice related to maximum economic yield) (Dichmont et al., 2016b).
280 Continued and expanded focus on cooperative research opportunities such as courses (e.g.,
281 Advanced School on Multispecies Modelling Approaches for Ecosystem Based Marine Resource
282 Management in the Mediterranean Sea (AMARE-ED), www.echo.inogs.it/amare-med/;
283 ICES training courses, www.ices.dk/news-and-events/Training/) and workshops (e.g., National Stock
284 Assessment Workshops, www.st.nmfs.noaa.gov/stock-assessment/workshops;
285 Center for the Advancement of Population Assessment Methodology (CAPAM), www.capamresearch.org) are
286 integral for “leveling the playing field” by fostering environments for the development and
287 dissemination of new methods for quantifying scientific uncertainty for use in scientific advice
288 across jurisdictional boundaries (Cadrin et al., 2015; Dichmont et al., 2016b).

289 Using meta-analytic approaches to characterize how uncertainty permeates through fisheries
290 management systems around the world can also be further developed. The set of methods for
291 quantifying management uncertainty for use in advice for fisheries management has increased in
292 the last decade (e.g., Dichmont et al., 2006; Fulton et al., 2011; Sethi et al., 2005) and exploring
293 how factors such as fisheries management system design influences the development and
294 implementation of these methods is a promising area of future research. Investigating how
295 uncertainties are presented in scientific advice across jurisdictions (e.g., the Kobe framework [Kell
296 et al., 2016]) may provide insight about how to progress effective communication of uncertainty
297 in a field producing increasingly complex and multidimensional management advice to a broad
298 audience of stakeholders. Survey approaches *sensu* Levontin et al. (2017) complement this effort
299 by evaluating the reliability of our visualization of modeling approaches. The authors suggest that
300 repositories of stock assessment results begin routinely storing uncertainty measures in addition to
301 point estimates. Methods for quantifying uncertainty and their incorporation into management
302 advice is quickly advancing and our approaches for reviewing our progress towards clearly and
303 explicitly communicating the sources, treatment, and impacts of uncertainty in our management
304 processes must keep pace.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. The distribution of respondents by RAM Legacy Stock Assessment Database region (panel a) and the number of years each survey respondent has worked as a stock assessment scientist (panel b).

Figure 2. Frequencies of model framework used over time (panel a) and the number of reported assessments conducted in each assessment year (i.e., the sample size for each year of panel a) (panel b).

Figure 3. Frequencies of uncertainty methods used by model framework pooled over the 20 years of available assessments. Note that the assessment sample size is less than total number of available assessments ($N=294$ vs. $N_{\text{total}}=353$) because not all package descriptions provided by respondents indicated the model framework used (e.g., “User-written ADMB code”).

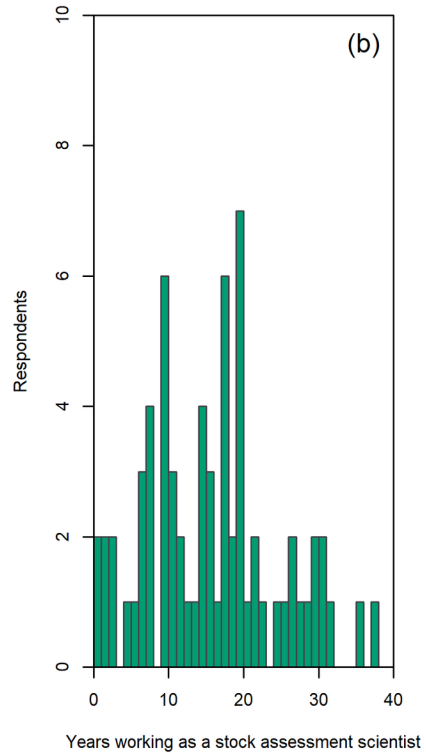
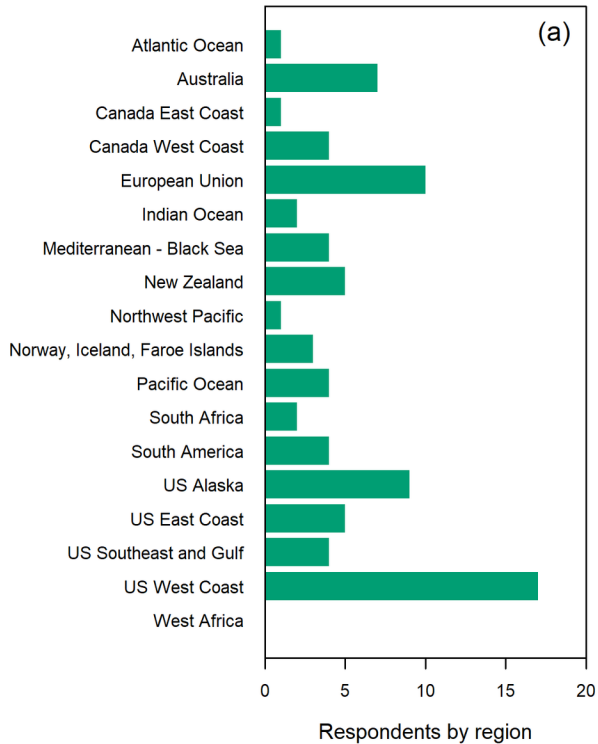
Figure 4. Frequency of use of frequentist (panel a, shades of gray) and Bayesian approaches (panel b, shades of green) for computing measures of uncertainty in assessment model outputs.

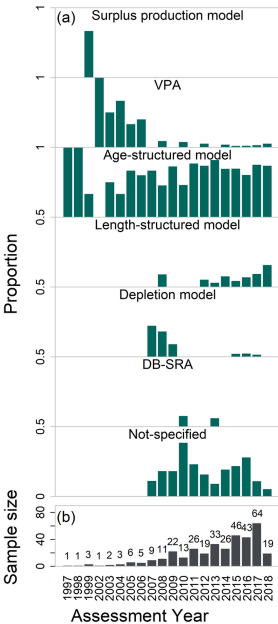
Figure 5. Frequencies of uncertainty methods used over time (panel a) and the number of reported assessments conducted in each assessment year (i.e., the sample size for each year of panel a) (panel b). Frequentist methods are the gray bars and Bayesian methods are the dark green bars.

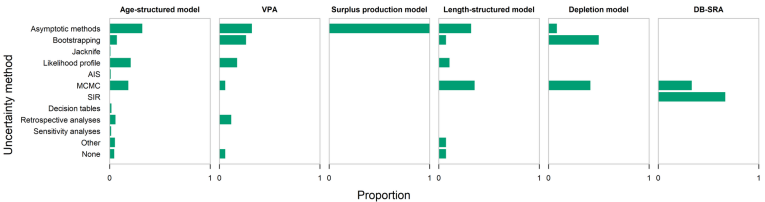
Figure 6. Frequencies of sensitivity analyses used over time (panel a) and the number of reported assessments conducted in each assessment year (i.e., the sample size for each year of panel a) (panel b).

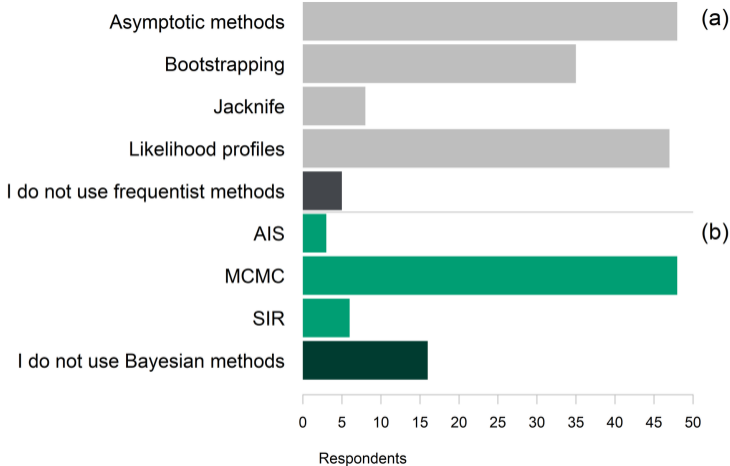
Figure 7. Frequency of sensitivity analyses not conducted during routine stock assessments (left column) and the reasons for not doing so (right column). Note that the respondents may have selected multiple reasons for not conducting sensitivity analyses and thus the bars on the right column do not sum to the bars on the left.

Figure 8. Frequency of quantities presented to managers (panel b). F and B represent fishing mortality and biomass, respectively.

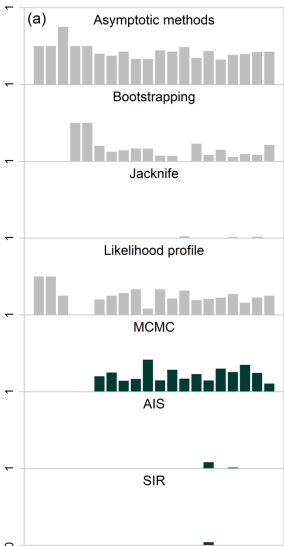




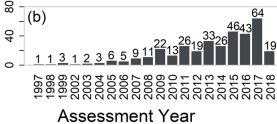


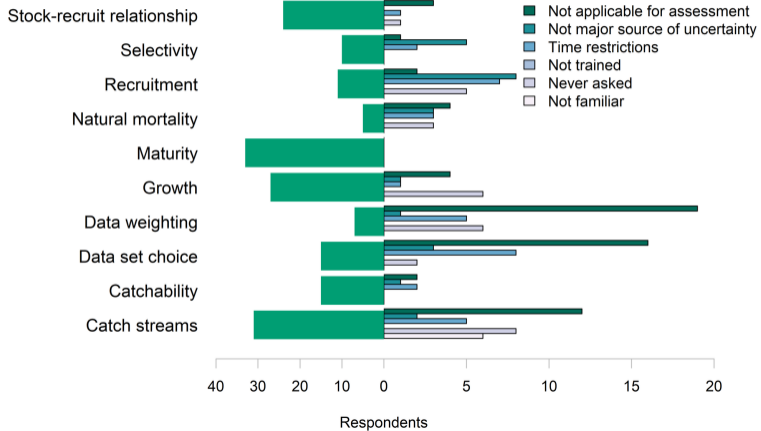


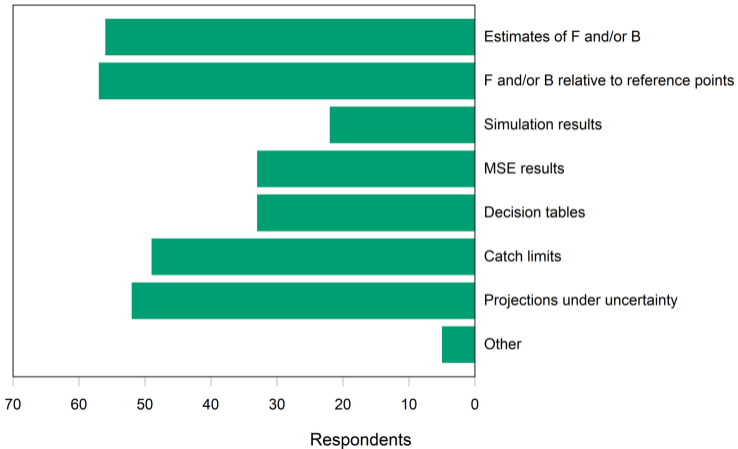
Proportion



Sample size







Tables

Software for assessments		
Option	Description	Example reference
ADMB-based model	Auto-differentiation Model Builder	Fournier (2012)
ASPIC	A Stock Production Model Incorporating Covariates	Prager (1994)
AMAK	Age/Age-size Models Assessment Method for	NOAA Toolbox
ASAP	Age-structured assessment program	NOAA Toolbox
BSP	Bayesian surplus production model	McAllister and Babcock (2006)
CASAL	C++ Algorithmic Stock Assessment Laboratory	Bull et al. (2012)
CEDA	Catch Effort Data Analysis	Hoggarth et al. (2006)
Coleraine	A Generalized Age-Structured Stock Assessment	Hilborn et al. (2003)
CSA	Catch-Survey Analysis	Collie et al. (1983)
FiSAT	FAO-ICLARM Stock Assessment Tools	Gayanilo et al. (1994)
FiSAT II	FAO-ICLARM Stock Assessment Tools II	FAO (2013)
FSIM	Forecasting simulator	Goodyear (2004a)
LFDA	Length Frequency Distribution Analysis	Hoggarth et al. (2006)
ParFISH	Participatory Fisheries Stock Assessment	Walmsley et al. (2005)
PRO-2Box	Project future abundance and mortality	Porch (2017)
PRODFIT	Surplus production model	Fox (1975)
SCALE	Statistical Catch-At-Length	NOAA Toolbox
SEEPa	Simulates longline catch and effort data	Goodyear (2004b)
SS	Stock Synthesis	Methot and Wetzel (2013)
STATCAM	Statistical-Catch-At-Age Model	NOAA Toolbox
VPA	Virtual Population Analysis	Pope (1972)
VPA-2BOX	Dual Zone Virtual Population Analysis model	NOAA Toolbox
Yield	Calculates fishery yields & stock biomasses	Hoggarth et al. (2006)

Table 1. Software used in the process of conducting a stock assessment; provided to the survey respondents (i.e., the de facto options featured in survey Section 1). All methods can be used to conduct sensitivity analyses.

Modeling framework	Description	Example reference
<i>Data limited assessment models</i>		
CC-SRA	Catch curve stock reduction analysis	Thorson and Cope (2015)
DCAC	Depletion-corrected average catch	MacCall (2009)
DB-SRA	Depletion-Based Stock Reduction Analysis	Dick and MacCall (2011)
<i>Other assessment models</i>		
a4a	Statistical catch-at-age model	Jardim et al. (2014)
ADBAYECOLA	Age structured production model for trawling and longline catches	Payá (2019)
Baleen II	Age structured production model	de la Mare and Cooke (1993)
BAM	Statistical catch-at-age model	Williams et al. (2015)
BATOOTHFISH	Age structured production model with trawling and longline catches	Payá (2019)
CALEN	Catch at length model	Davies et al. (2001)
CHOSAM	Age structured production model with trawling and longline catches	Payá (2019)
CHUSmodel	Chilean Humboldt Squid Depletion Model	Payá (2019)
F-ADAPT	A custom statistical catch-at-age spatial model	Brodiak et al. (1998)
GADGET	Globally applicable Area Disaggregated General Ecosystem Toolbox	Gadget (2020)
Grenadier model	Age structured production model with swept area biomass and length composition	Payá (2009)
iSCAM delay-difference model	Integrated statistical catch age model	Martell (2012)
Modified Punt-Walker model	Spatially aggregated age- and sex- structured population dynamics model	De Oliveira et al. (2013) Punt and Walker (1998)
MULTIFAN-CL	Statistical, length-based, age-structured model	Fournier et al. (1998)
MUPPET	Age structured production model	MUPPET (2010)
SAD	A linked separable ADAPT VPA model	De Oliveira et al. (2010)
SAM	Age-structured state-space model	Nielsen and Berg (2014)
SPiCT	Surplus production in continuous-time	Pedersen and Berg (2017)
Two-stage biomass model (custom)	Stage-structured production model	Roel et al. (2009)
XSA	Extended survivor analysis	Darby and Flatman (1994)

Table 2. Software used in the process of conducting a stock assessment; provided by the survey respondents.