

1 **Predicting year class strength for climate-stressed gadid stocks in the Gulf of Alaska**

2 Michael A. Litzow^{a*}, Alisa A. Abookire^b, Janet Duffy-Anderson^c, Benjamin J. Laurel^d, Michael J. Malick^e,
3 Lauren A. Rogers^f

4 ^aNational Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Fisheries
5 Science Center, 301 Research Ct. Kodiak, AK 99615, USA; mike.litzow@noaa.gov

6 ^bAlaska Coastal Observations and Research, PO Box 1332, Kodiak, AK 99615, USA; alaskacor@gmail.com

7 ^cNational Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Fisheries
8 Science Center, 7600 Sand Point Way NE, Seattle, WA 98115, USA; janet.duffy-anderson@noaa.gov

9 ^dNational Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Fisheries
10 Science Center, Hatfield Marine Science Center, 2030 SE Marine Science Dr., Newport, OR 97365, USA;
11 ben.laurel@noaa.gov

12 ^eNational Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Northwest
13 Fisheries Science Center, 7305 Beach Dr. East, Port Orchard, WA 98366, USA; michael.malick@noaa.gov

14 ^fNational Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Alaska Fisheries
15 Science Center, 7600 Sand Point Way NE, Seattle, WA 98115, USA; lauren.rogers@noaa.gov

16 *Corresponding author

17 Abstract

18 Climate change makes fish stocks more vulnerable to recruitment failure, and early detection of these
19 events is important for an effective management response. Here, we evaluate the value of larval and
20 juvenile surveys, and a thermal spawning habitat index, for predicting recruitment in two economically
21 important gadids, walleye pollock (*Gadus chalcogrammus*) and Pacific cod (*G. macrocephalus*), in the
22 Gulf of Alaska. These stocks have been exposed to rapid human-induced ocean warming since 2014,
23 which has apparently contributed to anomalies in age structure, size at age, and other population
24 variables (for pollock) and stock collapse (for cod). We found that warming results in recruitment that
25 falls short of predictions from historical spawner-recruit relationships for both stocks, highlighting that
26 climate change makes recruitment expectations based on historical experience less reliable. However,
27 we also found that recruitment could be successfully predicted with surveys of early-life stages. Using
28 Bayesian regression, we found that juvenile trawl survey data for pollock predicts recruitment to age-1
29 (as estimated by a stock assessment model), while prediction from larval surveys was less successful.
30 Beach seine estimates of juvenile abundance also predicted pollock recruitment, a surprising result for a
31 species that is typically sampled in offshore habitats. The spawning habitat index and beach seine survey
32 both predicted cod recruitment to age-3 as estimated by the stock assessment model. We did not find a
33 predictive relationship between cod larval abundance and recruitment. However, residuals from the
34 larval model showed low-frequency variability, suggesting nonstationarity (time-dependence) in the
35 predictive relationship. Dynamic Factor Analysis (DFA) models summarizing information across multiple
36 data sets showed reasonable predictive value for both species (Bayesian $R^2 \approx 0.4$ for log recruitment),
37 and they also allowed recruitment prediction for years with missing observations in some data sets. We
38 conclude that surveying multiple early life stages may be the most useful approach for predicting gadid
39 recruitment.

40 Keywords: climate change; early life stages; Pacific cod; recruitment; walleye pollock

41 1. Introduction

42 The signal of human-induced climate change is emerging from the envelope of natural variability for
43 many ocean ecosystems (Henson et al. 2017, Laufkötter et al. 2020, Silvy et al. 2020), placing fish stocks
44 around the world under unprecedented climate conditions. Expected outcomes include an increase in
45 the rate of events such as stock collapse (Pershing et al. 2019). Critically, these climate change outcomes
46 may be “surprising” in that they are poorly constrained by ecological understanding based on historical

47 experience. In this context, “historical” experience is derived from a backward-looking perspective on
48 ecosystem and population variability, based on previous observations, which contrasts with a forward-
49 looking perspective that assumes that current trends will continue (Dietze et al. 2018, Pershing et al.
50 2019). As anthropogenic climate extremes place ecosystems around the world under conditions that are
51 outside the envelope of historical variability, ecological understanding based on historical conditions is
52 increasingly less relevant, and tools are needed for rapidly assessing ecosystem states that have never
53 been observed before (Williams and Jackson 2007, Wolkovich et al. 2014, Dietze et al. 2018). One
54 important tool for avoiding collapse in climate-stressed stocks is early recognition of changing
55 population dynamics to allow rapid adaptation by managers (Pershing et al. 2015). Changes to
56 recruitment (the production of young fish to sustain the stock) are particularly important for early
57 detection of incipient population changes. Fishing truncates the age structure of exploited stocks
58 (Barnett et al. 2017), which has the pernicious effect of increasing recruitment variance and sensitivity
59 to climate perturbations while also making stock biomass more dependent on regular recruitment
60 events (Anderson et al. 2008, Shelton and Mangel 2011). Predicting recruitment (i.e., year class
61 strength) is therefore of particular interest for the management of climate-stressed fisheries.

62 Recruitment and other population parameters are often estimated with age-structured stock
63 assessment models, which are advantageous for combining information from different data sources.
64 However, out-of-sample prediction of recruitment by these models is often very low (Giron-Nava et al.
65 2020). Recruitment estimates are therefore typically made retrospectively, after cohorts have appeared
66 in the fishery or fishery-independent surveys. A lag therefore exists between the timing when year class
67 strength is established, which typically occurs at the first year of life (age-0; Houde 2008), and
68 recognition of year class strength by the model used for estimating management reference points.
69 Observations of cohorts at age-0 (as eggs, larvae, or juveniles) might therefore be useful for providing
70 earlier indications of future adult recruitment. However, extreme levels of sampling variance and highly
71 variable early life mortality have often precluded effective prediction of recruitment by early life stage
72 surveys (Stige et al. 2013).

73 Here, we evaluate the ability of larval and juvenile abundance surveys and a temperature-based index of
74 spawning habitat suitability to predict recruitment as estimated by stock assessment models for two
75 exploited gadids in the Gulf of Alaska: walleye pollock (*Gadus chalcogrammus*, hereafter “pollock”) and
76 Pacific cod (*G. macrocephalus*, hereafter “cod”). These populations have been the subject of early life
77 stage monitoring efforts for forty years and so provide a data-rich model system for examining this

78 question. Early detection of recruitment variability for these stocks has become more important since a
79 series of extreme ocean temperature anomalies in the Gulf of Alaska during 2014-2019, which have
80 been formally attributed to human-induced causes (Walsh et al. 2018b, Laufkötter et al. 2020). The
81 transition from conditions consistent with natural variability to extreme ocean temperatures that can
82 only be explained with human influence (e.g., greenhouse gas emissions) is associated with an increased
83 likelihood of recruitment failure for both species (Litzow et al. 2021). This anthropogenic warming event
84 apparently contributed to a number of anomalous responses by the pollock stock, including negative
85 weight-at-age anomalies, early maturation and reduced natural mortality, and strongly contrasting
86 abundance trends in bottom trawl and acoustic midwater surveys (Dorn et al. 2020). The warming event
87 also resulted in collapse of the cod stock, apparently due to the impacts of early life stage thermal stress
88 combined with increased metabolic demands and insufficient prey resources for older cohorts
89 (Barbeaux et al. 2020b), though synergistic fishing effects cannot be ruled out (Harley et al. 2006, Hsieh
90 et al. 2006).

91 There is a long history of research on the relationship between early life stage abundance and
92 recruitment to the pollock stock. In particular, Bailey et al. (2012) and Stige et al. (2013) showed that
93 estimates of larval abundance alone were poor predictors of subsequent recruitment. However, these
94 authors also found that the predictive value for these time series was nonstationary (i.e., time-varying).
95 This nonstationarity appears to result from changing control of pollock recruitment over time. In the
96 1980s, larval mortality was the primary driver of recruitment variability (Bailey 2000), but in the 1990s
97 predation on juveniles became a more important limiting factor for recruitment, and the predictive
98 value of larval abundance degraded (Ciannelli et al. 2004, 2005). More recently, abundance of age-0
99 pollock has been shown to be an early indicator of year class strength in this stock (Wilson and Laman
100 2021).

101 Less work has focused on the predictive value of early life stage observations for cod recruitment. Laurel
102 et al. (2016) showed that beach seine catches of age-0 cod could predict age-1 abundance at the same
103 sites in the following year. Laurel and Rogers (2020) showed that an index of spawning habitat suitability
104 (depth-averaged temperature conditioned on laboratory estimates of temperature-dependent egg
105 survival) could predict larval cod abundance, juvenile cod abundance from seines at two long-term
106 sampling sites at Kodiak Island, and recruitment estimates from the stock assessment model. This
107 analysis did not consider the value of larval abundance or juvenile abundance from seines for predicting
108 modeled recruitment, and it also did not consider an additional set of seines over a wider area of the

109 western Gulf of Alaska (Litzow et al. 2021). Additionally, post-2014 climate anomalies in the Gulf of
110 Alaska may have sharply reduced habitat suitability for larval cod due to changes in timing of the spring
111 bloom and increased metabolic demands of larvae, which may have further disrupted predictive
112 relationships between larval abundance and cod recruitment (Laurel et al. 2021).

113 Thus while strong climate forcing on these stocks increases the need for better recruitment prediction,
114 the magnitude of climate perturbations also increases the possibility of changing control points for
115 cohort strength, increasing the chance of nonstationary predictions from early life stage observations.
116 Re-evaluation of the predictive value of early life stage observations is therefore needed to establish
117 whether and how these data can be used quantitatively in stock assessments or management strategy
118 evaluations, or qualitatively to inform management advice (Dorn and Zador 2020).

119 The goal of the current study is to re-assess the value of early life stage observations for predicting
120 pollock and cod recruitment. Our analysis puts post-2014 climate extremes in the context of four
121 decades of observations, and it also draws on recent advances in dimensional reduction techniques for
122 time series data to combine information from multiple data sources for individual stocks. Our specific
123 objectives are to: 1) use Bayesian models to produce probabilistic assessments of the value of individual
124 early life stage time series for predicting recruitment estimates from stock assessment models, 2) assess
125 predictive value for Dynamic Factor Analysis (DFA) models that combine information across multiple
126 time series, and 3) use time series of model residuals to explore possible nonstationarity in predictions.
127 We also examine the effect that extreme climate anomalies have on predictions generated from
128 historical stock-recruit relationships, as a way of assessing the vulnerability of expectations based on
129 historical norms during unprecedented climate conditions (Pershing et al. 2019).

130 **2. Methods**

131 *2.1. Data sources*

132 We used four sources of biological information: an index of spawning habitat suitability for cod based on
133 temperature-dependent egg survival at depth (Laurel and Rogers 2020), a May-June ichthyoplankton
134 survey that samples larvae of both species, July-August beach seines that sample juveniles of both
135 species at fixed site locations, and an August-September pelagic trawl survey that samples juvenile
136 pollock.

137 The index of spawning habitat suitability for cod was constructed by combining observational data on
138 temperatures at depth with laboratory-derived rates of hatch success of cod eggs at different
139 temperatures (see Laurel and Rogers, 2020). Specifically, measured temperatures at GAK1, a long-term
140 monitoring station maintained by the University of Alaska (<http://research.cfos.uaf.edu/gak1/>; Fig. 1a),
141 were used to estimate hatch success across depths, seasons, and years. An annual index was developed
142 by taking the average estimated hatch success rate across depths of 100–250 m from January to April
143 based on reported spawning dynamics for cod in Alaska (Stark 2007, Neidetcher et al. 2014).

144 Fish larvae were sampled during 1981-2019 (missing years in 1984, 1986, 2012, 2014, 2016, and 2018),
145 and juvenile pollock trawl surveys were conducted during 2000-2001 and odd years from 2003 to 2019.
146 Larvae were sampled over a fixed area (Fig. 1a) during mid-May — early June using oblique tows from
147 10 m off bottom (or 100 m depth maximum) to the surface using a 60-cm diameter bongo net (333 or
148 505 μm mesh). Calibrated flowmeters in each net estimated the volume filtered, and catch was
149 standardized as number 10 m^2 area of sea surface sampled. Finally, time series indices of larval
150 abundance were calculated as the area-weighted mean catch to account for spatial differences in
151 sampling effort among years (Doyle et al. 2009).

152 Beach seines were conducted with a negatively buoyant, 36-m long seine, with wings 1 m deep at the
153 ends of the net and 2.25 m deep in the middle, 13 mm mesh in the wings and 5 mm delta mesh in the
154 cod end bag. Seine wings were attached to 25 m ropes for deployment and retrieval from shore, and
155 nominal sampling area was $\approx 900 \text{ m}^2$ of bottom habitat. Sampling was conducted during July and August
156 at 95 sites in 15 bays (Fig. 1a), with each site sampled 1-4 times per year. The two easternmost bays
157 were sampled each year during 2006-2020, with at least two sampling visits per year ($n = 880$ sets). The
158 remainder of bays were sampled during 2018-2020 ($n = 265$ sets). Because beach seine effort varied
159 spatially and seasonally in different years, we used model-based estimates of annual abundance for
160 each species as our time series for subsequent analyses. These estimates were the predicted annual
161 catch per unit effort (fish / set) from Bayesian regression models invoking year as a factor, day of year as
162 a smooth term (thin plate regression splines) and site nested within bay (as a group-level, or random
163 term). In particular, we used a Generalized Additive Model (GAM) that estimates annual abundance
164 after controlling for the day of year of each sampling event (as a smoothed non-parametric term to
165 allow for nonlinear seasonal changes in abundance), and nested site and bay random effects (to account
166 for differences in abundance among sites and bays that are sampled unequally across years). The
167 Bayesian formulation has the benefit of providing full uncertainty estimates of model coefficients and

168 predicted values (Fang et al. 2019). Details on Bayesian model fitting are given in section 2.2, and further
169 details are in Litzow et al. (2021).

170 Trawl surveys for age-0 pollock were conducted in a fixed area (Fig. 1a) in August-September. Samples
171 were collected using a midwater trawl fished with 1.5×2.1 m steel V-doors (566 kg each) and equipped
172 with a 3 mm cod end liner. The trawl was fished obliquely through the water column at a ship speed of
173 4.6 to 5.6 km hr^{-1} and a wire retrieval rate of 10 m min^{-1} . A time series of age-0 pollock abundance was
174 developed by calculating an area-weighted mean catch m^{-2} in each year, using the same methodology as
175 for the larval index (Rogers et al. 2021).

176 Stock assessment model estimates of recruitment at age-0 are from the authors' preferred models from
177 2020 stock assessment reports. These stock assessment models are age-structured models that estimate
178 a number of population parameters using a variety of data inputs; models are fit in Stock Synthesis and
179 AD Model Builder software and form the basis for setting management reference points and fishing
180 quotas (details in Barbeaux et al. 2020a, Dorn et al. 2020). Recruitment estimates are lagged from
181 estimated age-1 abundance for pollock, and age-3 abundance for cod. This difference in the age at
182 which recruitment is estimated reflects differences in data availability for the two models: age-1 pollock
183 are sampled by acoustic trawl surveys, but the earliest life-stage data for the cod model are provided
184 when cod begin to appear in bottom trawl sampling gear at age-3. Our analysis only included
185 recruitment estimates that overlapped with observational time series and were supported by data on
186 year class strength within the model (year classes 1981-2019 for pollock, 1981-2016 for cod).

187 Our historical SST data come from the NOAA Extended Reconstructed SST data set, version 5 (ERSSTv5;
188 Huang et al. 2017). We calculated annual mean SST values for the western Gulf of Alaska (the area of
189 our pollock and cod sampling) for the months of January – June (corresponding the spawning, larval, and
190 early juvenile phases for the two species). Projected future SST anomalies were calculated for the Gulf
191 of Alaska from downscaled climate model outputs for five CMIP5 models (Climate Model
192 Intercomparison Project, Phase 5) with good predictive skill for Alaska (Walsh et al. 2018b, 2018a).
193 These anomalies are from combined time series of model hindcasts (1987-2005) and projections under
194 Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 (Schwalm et al. 2020).

195 2.2. Analysis

196 We began our analysis by evaluating the degree to which extreme climate anomalies resulted in error
197 for recruitment predictions based on historical norms. We simulated recruitment predictions for each
198 stock on a rolling window basis using the following approach. We fit a Ricker model to the first 30 years
199 of the estimated recruitment and spawning stock biomass time series, and we then used that Ricker
200 model to predict recruitment in the following year (i.e., recruitment predicted from spawning stock
201 biomass in year 31). We also calculated the magnitude of the SST anomaly in the prediction year, based
202 on the mean and standard deviation of SST values for the same 30 year period. The recruitment
203 prediction error was recorded (i.e., $\ln[\text{predicted recruitment for year 31}] - \ln[\text{actual modeled}$
204 $\text{recruitment estimate for year 31}]$), as was the SST anomaly. The window was then advanced one year
205 (i.e., recruitment given spawning stock biomass in year 32 was predicted from a Ricker model fit to the
206 first 31 years of data, and the SST anomaly was calculated in year 32 relative to the first 31 years), and
207 this procedure was repeated until the end of the stock assessment model time series was reached. Note
208 that our goal in this analysis was to evaluate the impact of warming on predictions that might be made
209 from historical spawner-recruit relationships, rather than assessing the ability of stock assessment
210 models to predict out-of-sample recruitment (Giron-Nava et al. 2020). We used the rolling window
211 approach because it explicitly models a situation where historical understanding (based on data from
212 the rolling window) is confronted with new information (from the update year). Recruitment errors
213 were scaled as z-scores for each species (difference from the mean value, divided by the standard
214 deviation), and the relationship between SST anomalies and recruitment prediction error, for both
215 species combined, was estimated with Bayesian regression, using thin plate splines to model a non-
216 parametric relationship (Wood 2003). An initial model that fit the SST – recruitment prediction error
217 relationship separately to each species showed that there was no substantive difference in effects
218 between species. This model with species-specific effects produced worse out-of-sample prediction (i.e.,
219 a higher Leave One Out Information Criterion score; Vehtari et al. 2017), and was therefore rejected in
220 favor of a model that pooled results across species.

221 After the relationship between SST anomalies and recruitment prediction error was estimated, we
222 summarized hindcasted and projected probabilities of extreme SST anomalies (> 2SD and > 3SD) for
223 annual Gulf of Alaska SST during 1987-2046. This analysis used a combination of historical simulations
224 (1987-2005) and RCP8.5 projections (2006-2046) from CMIP5 outputs. For each year, we estimated the
225 probability of extreme events as the proportion of the five models that projected anomalies >2 SD and >

226 3SD (Walsh et al. 2018b). The resulting time series were smoothed with 11-year rolling means to isolate
227 the trend from the noise of interannual variability.

228 All time series of observed abundance and modeled recruitment strength were normalized with natural
229 log transformations prior to analysis. All time series (including the habitat index) were scaled as z-scores
230 to aid comparison across data types. Normalized, scaled data are plotted for each species in Fig. 1b,c.

231 We used Dynamic Factor Analysis (DFA; Zuur et al. 2003) to summarize variability across the
232 observational time series for each species (larval surveys, seines, and trawl surveys for pollock; habitat
233 index, larval surveys, and seines for cod). DFA is a dimensional reduction technique developed
234 specifically for time series analysis which estimates variability in an unobserved (or “latent”) shared
235 trend, based on loadings for individual time series and a variance-covariance matrix. We fit DFA models
236 in the MARSS package version 3.11.3 (Holmes et al. 2012) in R version 4.0.4 (R Core Team 2021). We fit
237 two different variance-covariance structures for each species (same variance and no covariance or
238 different variance and no covariance), with the best model selected based on the Akaike Information
239 Criterion. Two other model structures (same variances and same covariance, different variances and
240 covariances) returned models with loadings of 0 and were dropped from consideration. DFA models
241 were fit to that part of the time series that included at least one observation in every year (1987-2020
242 for pollock, 1994-2020 for cod).

243 When evaluating the ability of different early-life data sets to predict recruitment, we no longer used
244 the rolling window approach but simply used all of the data in hand. This is because we were no longer
245 interested in challenges to historical understanding, but instead were interested in the ability of early-
246 life data to predict eventual recruitment. We estimated predictive value for each observational time
247 series, and for the shared trend from DFA models, through comparison with stock assessment model
248 recruitment estimates using Bayesian linear regression models fit in Stan 2.21.0 and the brms package in
249 R (Carpenter et al. 2017, Bürkner 2017). All estimated parameters had a potential scale reduction factor
250 (\hat{R}) less than 1.05, an effective sample size of at least 1000, and no divergent transitions were observed.
251 We also assessed chain convergence and model fits using graphical methods (e.g., trace-plots) and
252 posterior predictive checks (Gabry et al. 2019). Different years were covered by each time series (Fig.
253 1b,c), so formal model comparison (e.g., by the Leave One Out Information Criterion) was not feasible
254 (i.e., different response variable sets were available for each year). Rather than model comparison, we
255 evaluate the predictive value of different time series for stock assessment model recruitment estimates

256 by comparing regression coefficients and Bayes R^2 values, which are calculated from the model
257 posteriors as

$$258 \quad R^2 = \frac{Var_{\mu}}{Var_{\mu} + Var_{res}},$$

259 where Var_{μ} is the variance of modelled predictive means, and Var_{res} is the modelled residual variance
260 (Gelman et al. 2019). While we recognize that these metrics do not support as rigorous a comparison as
261 formal model selection techniques, we judged that this approach was superior as it used all of the
262 information available for each time series.

263 Finally, we conducted an exploratory analysis of potential nonstationarity in predictive value for models
264 fit to data from each observational stage (i.e., spawning habitat suitability, larval and juvenile
265 abundance) by plotting residual time series from model posteriors (with 95% CIs). Temporal trends in
266 model residuals are an important indication that a model assuming stationary (time-independent)
267 relationships is inadequate to a situation where ecological relationships (in this case, the relationship
268 between early-life data and eventual recruitment) are changing over time. Conversely, independently
269 distributed residuals (without temporal dependence) are an indication that the assumption of
270 stationarity is valid (Litzow et al. 2018, Rollinson et al. 2021). To examine potential time-dependent
271 errors in predictions we fit GAMs and associated confidence intervals (assuming independence among
272 years) to the time series of residual means. Periods when the confidence interval for the GAM fits did
273 not include 0 were judged to reflect possible changes in prediction value. All data and code necessary
274 for reproducing our results are posted in the “predict-R” repository
275 (<https://github.com/mikelitzow/predict-R>) [Permanent repository in Zenodo on acceptance].

276 **3. Results**

277 Strong climate change events (as indexed by SST anomalies) were associated with failure of recruitment
278 predictions generated from historical spawner-recruit relationships (Bayes $R^2 = 0.42$, 95% CI = 0.16 -
279 0.58). SST anomalies $> 2SD$ were associated with the largest prediction errors (actual recruitment more
280 than 1 SD less than predicted; Fig. 2a). Downscaled CMIP5 models indicate that the probability of these
281 extreme temperatures associated with unpleasant “surprises” (low recruitment events poorly
282 constrained by historical spawner-recruit relationships) is rapidly increasing (e.g., probability of
283 anomalies $> 2SD \approx 0.4$ by 2030, ≈ 0.6 by 2040). The annual probability of more extreme anomalies ($>$
284 $3SD$) is projected to reach ≈ 0.2 by 2040 (Fig. 2b).

285 For pollock, the larval abundance, age-0 seine abundance, and age-0 trawl abundance time series were
286 all informative for estimating the shared trend in recruitment variability, as indicated by positive DFA
287 loadings with 95% CI that did not include 0 (Fig. 3a). The DFA-estimated trend in pollock recruitment
288 strength showed a run of negative values during the 2014-2016 heatwave years (Fig. 3b). For cod, all
289 three time series also showed positive loadings that could be distinguished from 0 in the DFA model,
290 with some indication of stronger loadings for the earliest time series (habitat index and larval
291 abundance) and a weaker loading for the later time series (age-0 seine; Fig. 3c). The shared trend in the
292 cod DFA model indicated a step decline in recruitment since the onset of temperature extremes in 2014
293 (Fig. 3d).

294 Bayesian regression coefficients and Bayes R^2 values indicated a gradient of predictive value in pollock
295 time series, with weaker predictions based on larval abundance, intermediate predictions for age-0
296 seines, and very strong predictive value for age-0 trawls (Fig. 4). The DFA trend for pollock showed
297 predictive value intermediate between that of larval abundance and age-0 trawls, and regression
298 coefficients for all four time series could be distinguished from 0 (Fig. 4). Residual time series for the
299 four pollock models showed a declining trend, but this trend could be distinguished from 0 only for the
300 larval time series (Fig. 5). The final four years of the time series (2016-2019) included the three lowest
301 residuals from the larval model, and the magnitude of these residuals was much greater than that of
302 persistently positive (negative) residuals during the 1980s (1990s).

303 Beach seines showed the strongest predictive value for cod recruitment, with markedly weaker
304 predictive value for the habitat index, and a regression coefficient for larval abundance that could not be
305 distinguished from 0 (Fig. 6). The DFA trend for cod was intermediate in predictive value. Residual time
306 series for the larval prediction model showed a transition from persistently positive values in the 1980s
307 to persistently negative values in the 1990s through the mid-2000s, followed by residuals that were not
308 persistently negative or positive during 2007-2016 (Fig. 7). Residuals from the cod DFA model showed
309 some evidence of a transition from negative to positive values across the 1994-2016 time series (Fig. 7).

310 **4. Discussion**

311 All three early life stage time series showed value for predicting recruitment to the pollock stock, and
312 two of three time series showed value for predicting recruitment to the cod stock, as judged by 95%
313 credible intervals for regression coefficient estimates that did not include 0. The exception was
314 prediction of cod recruitment from the larval survey, and this was also the time series that showed the

315 strongest indication of a nonstationary relationship with recruitment. This result indicates that the
316 relationship between larval abundance and cod recruitment has changed over time. A similar trend from
317 negative to positive residuals was observed for predictions from the spawning habitat suitability index,
318 indicating coherence in this result for early-life cod (i.e., similar nonstationary trends in prediction
319 residuals for both time series). And, since the habitat and larval time series load heavily on the DFA
320 trend for cod (Fig. 3), a similar trend in prediction residuals was observed for the DFA trend (Fig. 7).
321 Accounting for this changing relationship might provide an avenue for improving recruitment prediction,
322 and this nonstationarity also suggests that research on changing controls of recruitment may improve
323 inference about evolving controls of population dynamics for this stock (Rollinson et al. 2021). We also
324 found some indication of trends towards negative residuals for pollock prediction models, particularly
325 for the larval time series, which may indicate a trend of worsening survival between early life stages and
326 recruitment to that stock.

327 We conclude that early life observations were generally useful for predicting recruitment in our study
328 populations, though nonstationarity in predictive relationships should be regularly evaluated. We found
329 that errors for predictions made without early life stage data (i.e., from historical spawner-recruit
330 relationships) are strongly associated with the magnitude of climate anomalies acting on the system
331 (Fig. 2a), and that the probability of strong climate anomalies is rapidly increasing (Fig. 2b). Given these
332 trends, historical expectations concerning the envelope of likely variability for these stocks are becoming
333 rapidly outmoded (Pershing et al. 2019, Litzow et al. 2021). These considerations make early
334 information on recruitment variability especially valuable (Pershing et al. 2015). In particular,
335 observations of very low abundance at the larval or juvenile stages appear to be a reliable indicator of a
336 weak year class. Examples for pollock include 2015 and 2019 (Fig. 4) and 2015 and 2016 for cod (Fig. 6).
337 The extreme climate conditions during these years were associated with novel conditions affecting year-
338 class strength – both in abiotic conditions (low salinity reducing pollock egg survival, high temperatures
339 reducing cod egg survival), and biotic conditions (Laurel and Rogers 2020, Laurel et al. 2021, Rogers et al.
340 2021).

341 The practical value of predictions from early life stage observations was evident during the recent
342 marine heatwaves, when these data were used to provide early warning of likely recruitment failures for
343 these stocks, 1-3 years before such impacts were detectable in fisheries or standard survey data used in
344 stock assessments. While early life stage data are not routinely included in stock assessment models in
345 the Gulf of Alaska, these data are increasingly used to provide supplemental information for the stock

346 assessment teams giving management advice, and for the managing body, the North Pacific Fisheries
347 Management Council (NPFMC), which makes decisions on annual fishing quotas. In 2019, the cod stock
348 assessment lead identified concerns that continued lack of recruitment would delay recovery of the
349 stock following the steep decline in 2015-2017. The management system for Pacific cod ensures that
350 catch limits decrease as the population declines based on a harvest control rule. However, the NPFMC
351 took extra precaution and reduced catch levels an additional 40%, citing concerns about a weak 2019
352 year class and the subsequent risk that the stock might fall into “overfished” status in 2020 or 2021. By
353 providing rapid assessments of potential year class strength, early life stage surveys can thus be used to
354 guide tactical fisheries management decisions, particularly during climate events that may be outside
355 the range of historical variability.

356 As judged by coefficient estimates, the DFA trend for pollock showed intermediate predictive value for
357 pollock (slightly better than larval and juvenile seine prediction, worse than juvenile trawl prediction;
358 Fig. 4). Larval and juvenile surveys are only conducted in odd years, so updated values of the DFA trend,
359 informed by the annual seine data, may be useful for predicting recruitment for even-year cohorts. In
360 contrast, juvenile seine data were superior to the spawning habitat index and larval survey for predicting
361 cod recruitment (Fig. 6), so there is no advantage to be gained from using the DFA trend over seine data
362 in that case.

363 Cod and pollock population trends in Alaska tend to be correlated over interannual to decadal time
364 scales (Hollowed et al. 2001, Mueter et al. 2007), and that tendency was born out in our data - the
365 pollock DFA trend and cod log seine abundance were correlated at $r = 0.73$. However, while cod and
366 pollock are morphologically similar at early life stages, they show distinctive behavior and physiology
367 that will likely elicit different responses to shared climate forcing. Pollock release eggs over the course of
368 a spring season in the form of multiple batches from individual females, and pollock eggs are relatively
369 ubiquitous in surface layers during ichthyoplankton spring surveys (Doyle and Mier 2016, Rogers et al.
370 2021). In contrast, cod are single-batch spawners with demersal eggs that are deposited on the ocean
371 floor. Cod year class strength is less likely to be impacted by variability in advection fields and surface
372 temperature following spawning, but cod eggs are much more sensitive to warm anomalies at depth
373 (Laurel and Rogers 2020). After hatch, both Pacific cod and walleye pollock share the water column as
374 larvae (Doyle and Mier 2016) and have similar growth response to temperature (Hurst et al. 2010, Laurel
375 et al. 2016, Koenker et al. 2018). Following the larval period, the life histories of these species diverge
376 again as Pacific cod go through a transition to life on the ocean floor and begin a period of nearshore

377 occupancy ('settlement') while juvenile pollock remain in the surface layers in both nearshore and
378 offshore habitats (Moss et al. 2015; Laurel et al. 2016).

379 As warming and other anthropogenic climate change effects move the Gulf of Alaska ecosystem further
380 from the historical range of conditions, these differences in life history, habitat occupation and
381 physiology suggest the potential for species-specific patterns of further nonstationarity in the predictive
382 relationships demonstrated in this study. Relationships among temperature, advection, and salinity have
383 changed historically in the Gulf of Alaska in ways that have apparently contributed to nonstationary
384 climate-biology relationships across the fish and crustacean community (Litzow et al. 2018, 2019), and
385 further changes to these climate relationships may have accompanied the extreme 2014-2019
386 temperature anomalies (Litzow et al. 2020). Previous nonstationarity in recruitment prediction from
387 pollock larval abundance (Bailey 2000, Stige et al. 2013) is apparent in our data in a run of positive
388 residuals in the 1980s followed by more neutral residuals in the 1990s (Fig. 5). However, the magnitude
389 of those earlier residual trends appears to be much less than the magnitude of negative residuals during
390 2014-2019. These recent negative residuals for recruitment predictions from pollock larval abundance
391 appear to signal declining early life stage survival in the contemporary Gulf of Alaska climate (Rogers et
392 al. 2021). Residuals for cod recruitment predictions from larval abundance also showed a previously-
393 unreported low-frequency pattern of persistently positive values in the 1980s and negative values in the
394 1990s and 2000s (Fig. 7). The timing of the change in sign of these residuals is consistent with both a
395 decline in temporal variance in the Aleutian Low, which appeared to have widespread implications for
396 nonstationary regulation of Gulf of Alaska fish populations (Litzow et al. 2018, 2019), and also with the
397 proposed timing of the switch in the primary factor regulating pollock recruitment (Bailey 2000, Stige et
398 al. 2013). The coincident change in cod residuals might imply that that species also saw a transition from
399 recruitment limited by larval mortality to recruitment limited by predation on juveniles. Such a
400 transition would be consistent with the proposed transition for control of pollock recruitment around
401 the same time, from environmental control of larval abundance to predation control of juvenile
402 abundance (Bailey 2000). However, we do not have data in hand to test that hypothesis in the current
403 study. Measurement error may also be an important source of nonstationarity in predictive
404 relationships. Climate change effects phenology and growth of early life stage fishes (Laurel et al. 2021),
405 which may result in an increasing disconnect between the timing of fixed-design surveys and the peak
406 abundance of different life history stages they target.

407 If projections concerning the expected rate of warming in the North Pacific and Gulf of Alaska are
408 correct (Walsh et al. 2018b, Laufkötter et al. 2020), and given that these populations are at the southern
409 limit of their range as commercially-important fisheries, the most likely prediction for both species in
410 coming decades appears to be persistent recruitment failure and local extirpation, at least commercially.
411 An important aspect of successful climate adaptation by fisheries stakeholders is the maintenance of
412 catches from declining stocks for as long as possible to give time for new fisheries to be developed
413 (Cinner et al. 2018). Predicting recruitment to these stocks using early-life surveys may be particularly
414 valuable in this context. Given the potential for nonstationary predictive value for individual time series,
415 monitoring across multiple early life stages will likely be the most effective approach for developing
416 robust predictions of year class strength as climate change effects on these stocks intensify.

417 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

418 **Michael A. Litzow:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Software, Visualization, Writing –
419 original draft, Writing – review & editing. **Alisa A. Abookire:** Investigation, Writing – review & editing.
420 **Janet Duffy-Anderson:** Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Benjamin J. Laurel:** Investigation,
421 Writing – review & editing. **Michael J. Malick:** Investigation, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing
422 – review & editing. **Lauren A. Rogers:** Investigation, Writing – review & editing.

423 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

424 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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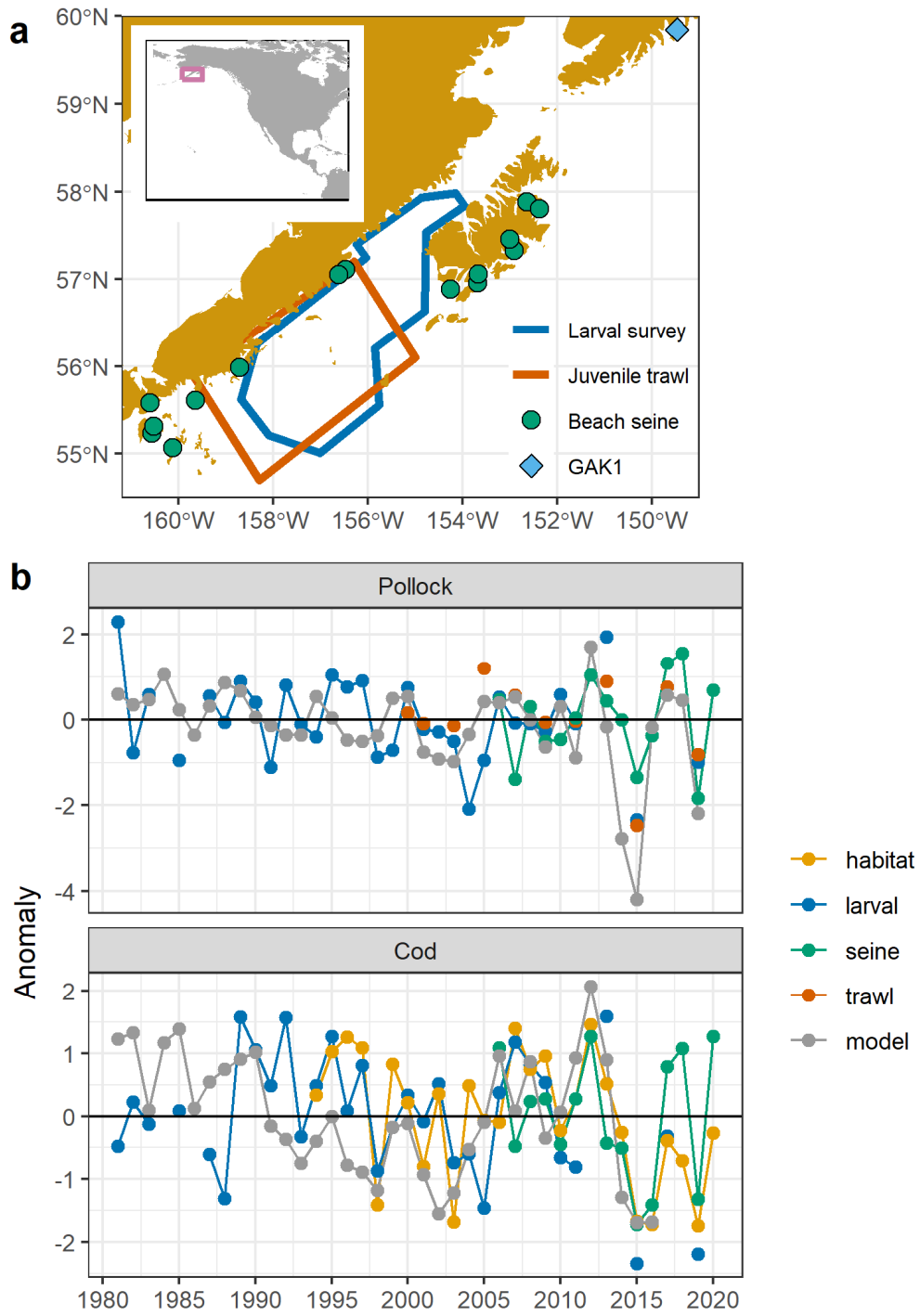
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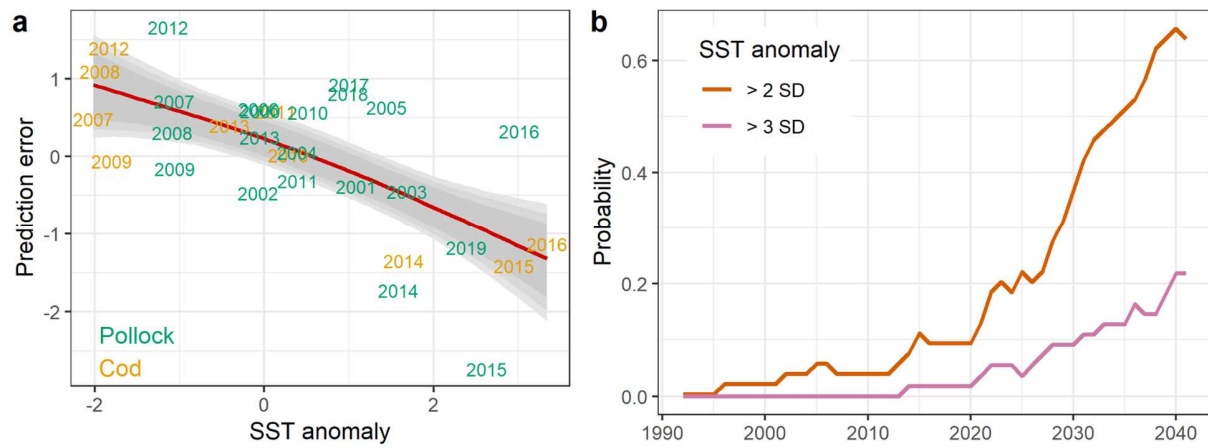
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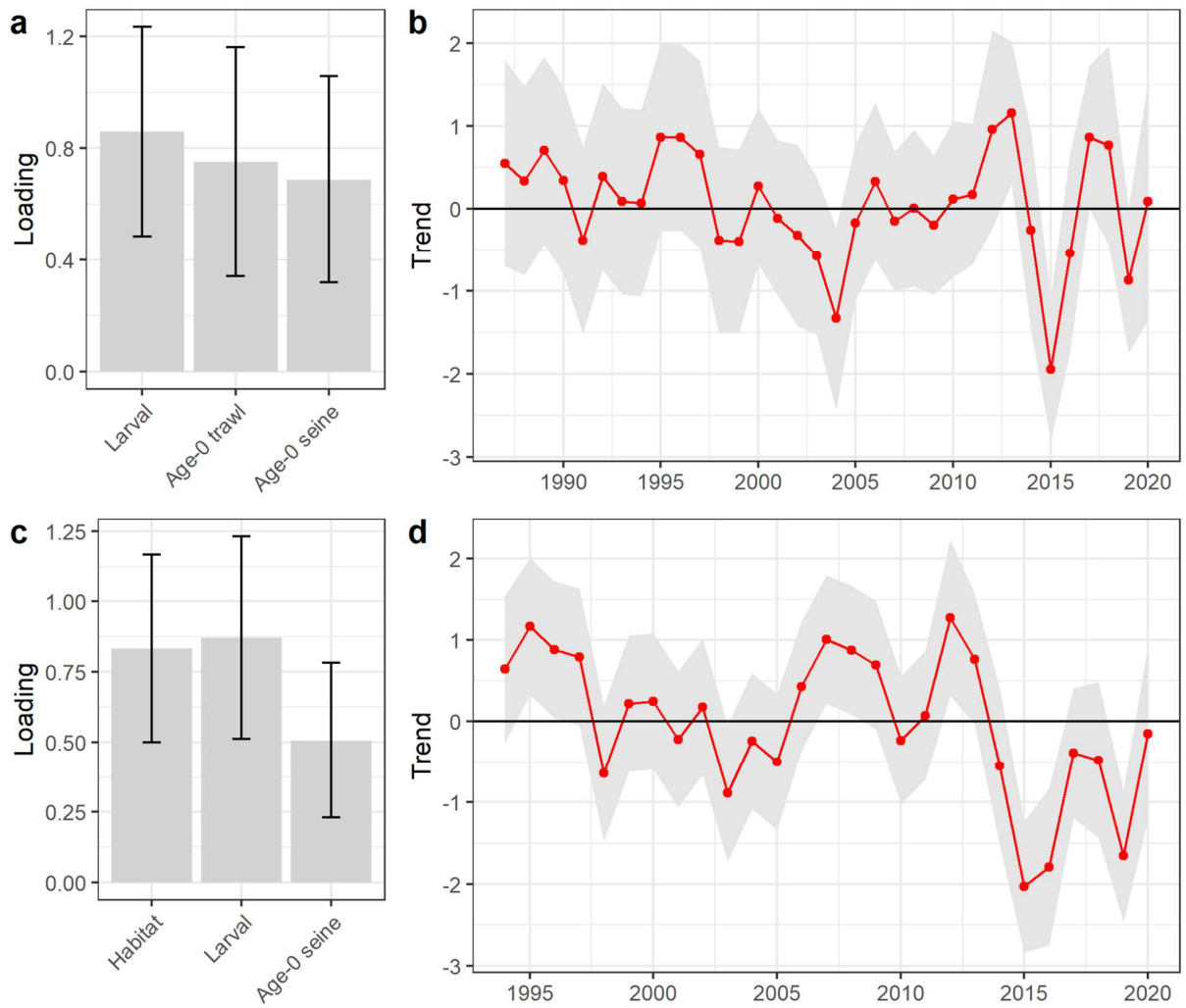
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582 Fig. 1. Study system. a) Study site. b) Age-0 field data and stock assessment model recruitment estimates
583 for each species.



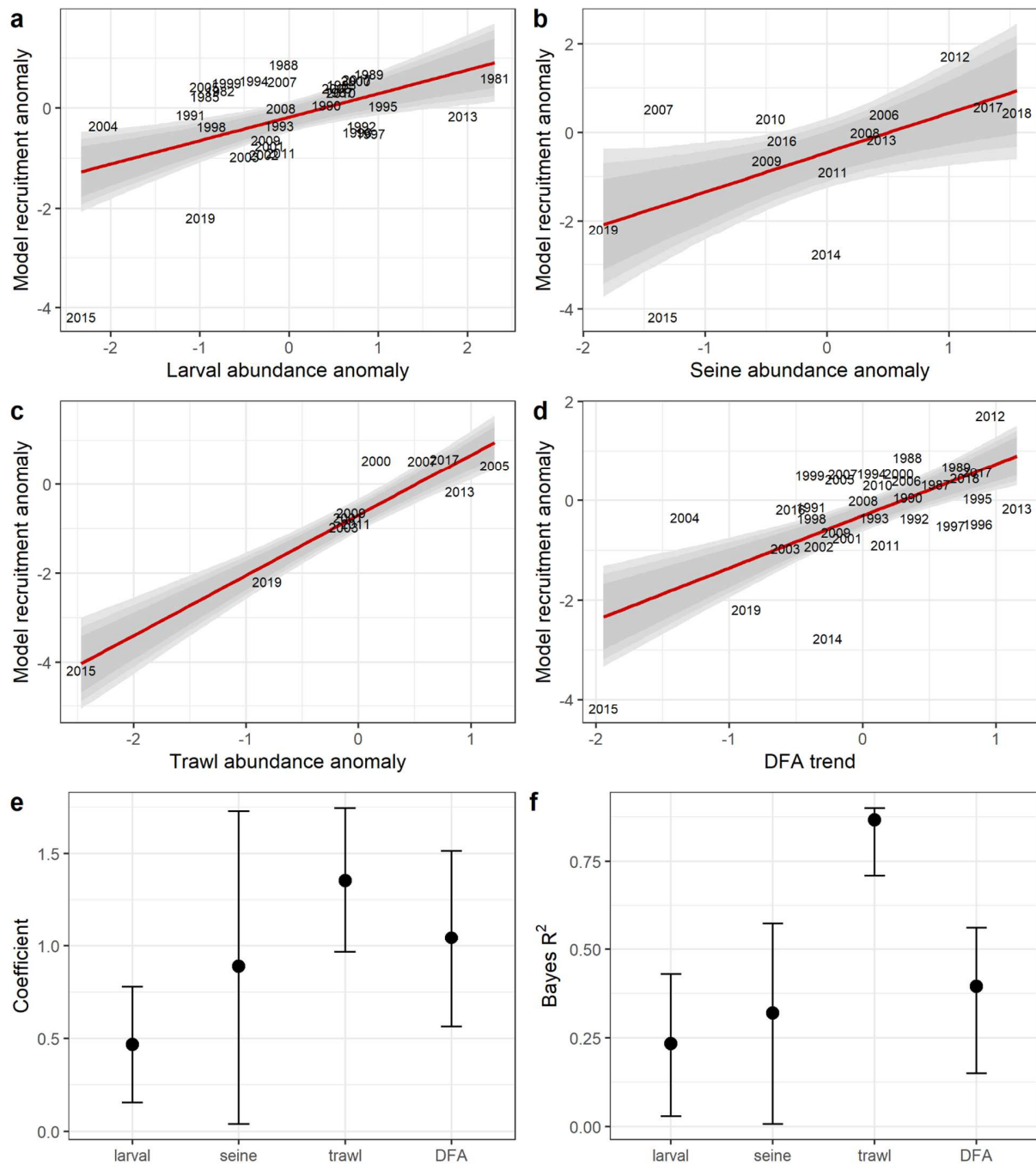
584

585 Fig. 2. Climate change and prediction error for recruitment at age-0. a) Prediction error for both species
 586 combined as a function of annual SST anomaly (posterior means with 80 / 90 / 95% CI). b) Probability of
 587 > 2 SD and > 3 SD SST anomalies (relative to 1987-2016 base period) from downscaled CMIP5 models
 588 under emissions scenario RCP8.5: mean annual probabilities for five models, smoothed with 11-year
 589 running mean (redrawn from data in Walsh et al. 2018).



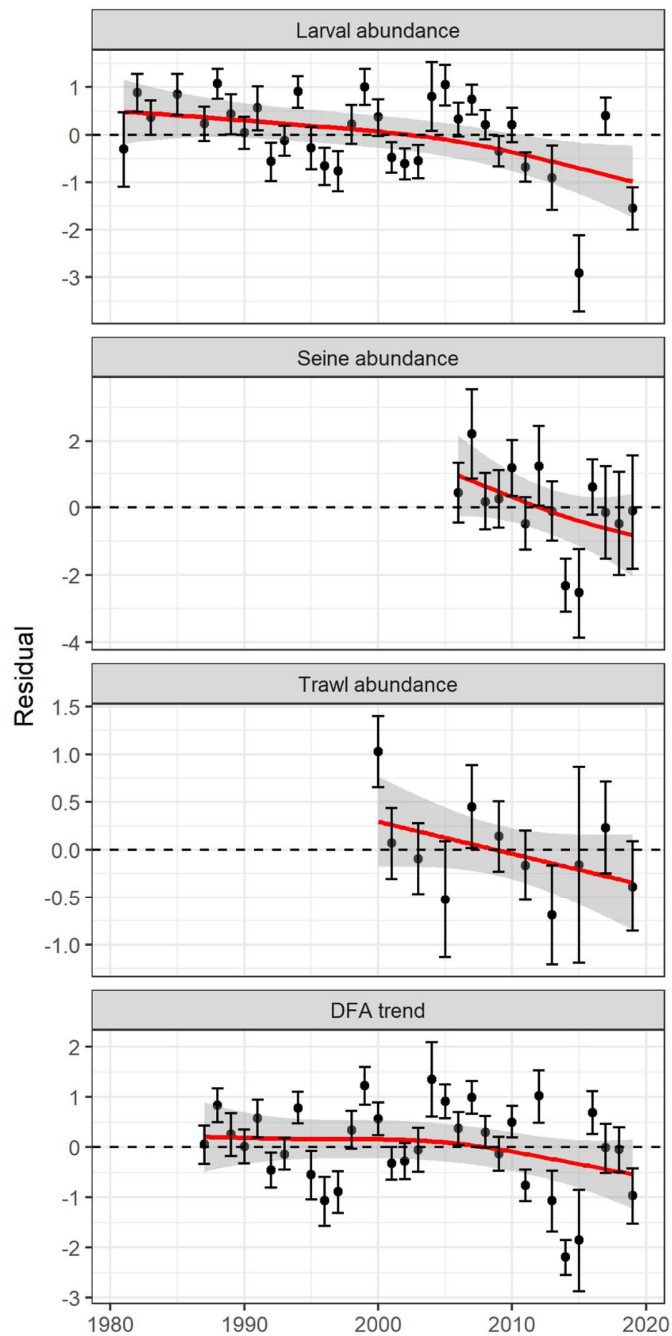
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591 Fig. 3. Loadings and shared trend from DFA models for shared trend in recruitment. a-b) Time series
 592 loadings and shared trend for (a-b) pollock, (c-d) cod.



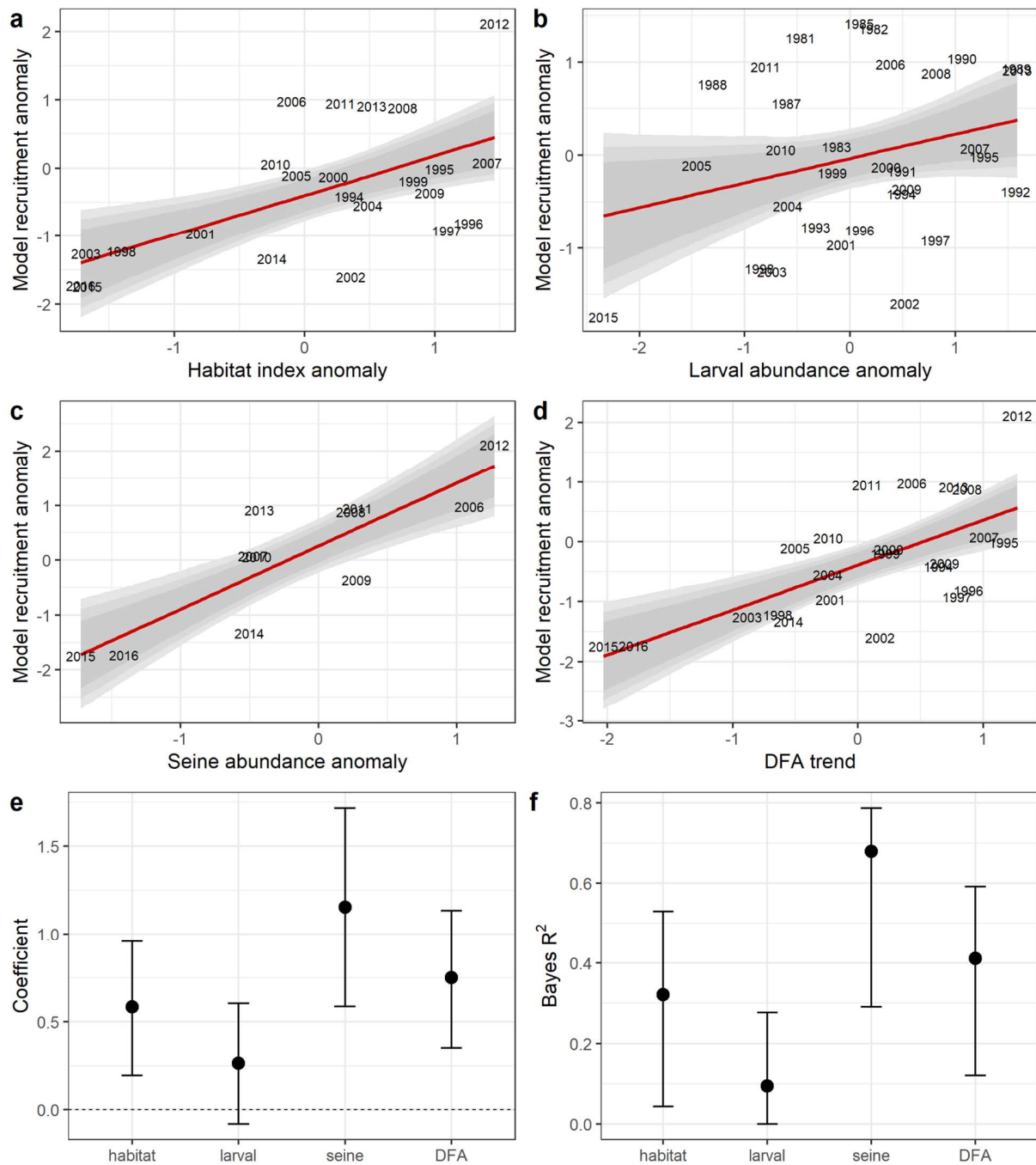
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594 Fig. 4. Predicting pollock model recruitment estimates from age-0 field observations. Bayesian
 595 regression (80 / 90 / 95% CI) of model estimates on a) larval abundance, b) juvenile seine abundance, c)
 596 juvenile trawl abundance, d) DFA for all three time series. e) Estimated regression coefficients (95% CI)
 597 for each model, f) Bayes R^2 (95% CI) for each model.



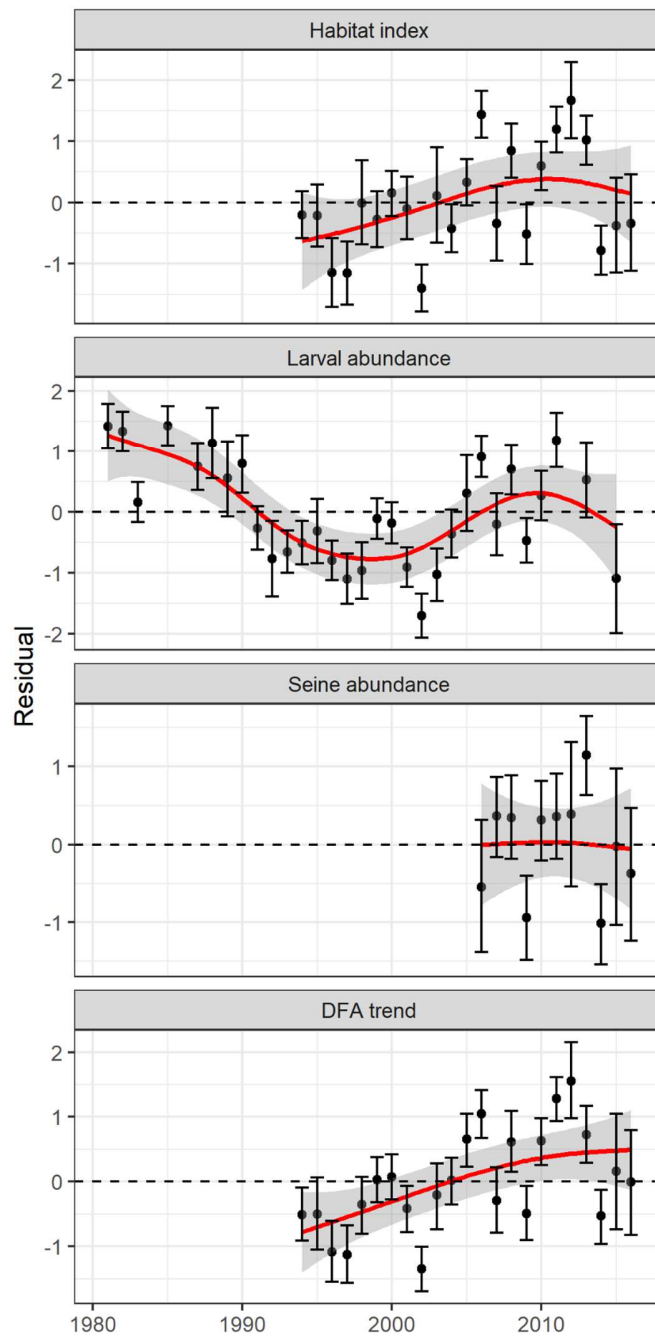
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599 Fig. 5. Residual time series for Bayesian predictions of pollock stock assessment model recruitment
 600 estimates: a) larval abundance, b) seine abundance, c) trawl abundance, d) DFA trend. Residuals are
 601 posterior medians and 95% CIs, and fitted regressions are from Generalized Additive Models, with 95%
 602 CIs, calculated under the assumption that years are independent observations.



603

604 Fig. 6. Predicting cod model recruitment estimates from age-0 field observations. Bayesian regression
 605 (80 / 90 / 95% CI) of model estimates on a) spawning habitat index, b) larval abundance, c) juvenile seine
 606 abundance, d) DFA for all three time series. e) Estimated regression coefficients (95% CI) for each model,
 607 f) Bayes R² (95% CI) for each model.



608

609 Fig. 7. Residual time series for Bayesian predictions of cod stock assessment model recruitment
 610 estimates: a) spawning habitat index, b) larval abundance, c) seine abundance, d) DFA trend. Residuals
 611 are posterior medians and 95% CIs, and fitted regressions are from Generalized Additive Models, with
 612 95% CIs, calculated under the assumption that years are independent observations.

613