Implementing a 2-dimensional smoother on either survival or natural mortality improves a state-space assessment model for Southern New England-Mid Atlantic yellowtail flounder

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# Abstract

Survival is an important population attribute in fisheries stock assessment models and is typically treated as a deterministic process without process uncertainty. A recently developed state-space assessment model, however, treated the variation in survival as stochastic and independent of age and year. Several studies have shown that some population attributes such as recruitment can be autocorrelated, and that not accounting for autocorrelated population processes in stock assessment models may result in notably biased estimates of population attributes. These studies as well as the strong retrospective pattern found in the last assessment of Southern New England yellowtail flounder (*Limanda ferruginea*) motivated us to evaluate the two-dimensional (age and year) autocorrelations in survival. We found that survival deviations were first-order autocorrelated among both ages (autocorrelation = 0.56, standard error = 0.10) and years (autocorrelation = 0.33, standard error = 0.12). Moreover, the model which estimated the autocorrelations in survival deviations fitted data much better (AIC = 22) and had notably reduced retrospective patterns than the model which assumed independent survival. We also found that estimating the autocorrelations in survival deviations altered both the estimates and predictions of spawning biomass and fishing mortality by as much as 40%. Finally, by comparing the relative effect of an environmental covariate for recruitment and this 2-dimensional smoother for survival on model outcome, we showed that the survival smoother is notably more important to the assessment of Southern New England yellowtail flounder in terms of improving model fit according to AIC and providing reliable SSB prediction.

**Keywords**: state-space model; stock assessment; random effects; survival; autocorrelation; yellowtail flounder

# Introduction

Biological processes of a fish population usually, if not always, vary over time and age. For instance, a process such as recruitment can be autocorrelated in time if the environmental or ecological process by which it is driven is autocorrelated in time (Johnson et al. 2016; Thorson et al. 2014). Johnson et al. (2016) found that in cases where recruitment is highly autocorrelated, ignoring this autocorrelation in stock assessment models can lead to large biases in model predictions as well as the associated uncertainty intervals. Population processes, such as selectivity, can also be autocorrelated among ages because adjacent age classes are often more similar in size, physiology, behavior, etc. than disparate age classes (Nielsen and Berg 2014; Berg and Nielsen 2016). When variations in selectivity are autocorrelated among ages, models that estimate this autocorrelation have been shown to fit data better than models that assume independent selectivity variations (Nielsen and Berg 2014). To date, using a two-dimensional (2D) autocorrelation structure across both ages and years to model population processes is rare. One exception is Cadigan (2016), who developed a state-space, age-structured assessment model for Northern Cod (*Gadus morhua*) where the among-age and among-year autocorrelations in natural mortality rate () were simultaneously estimated. However, Cadigan (2016) did not compare the model estimates, predictions, goodness-of-fit, or retrospective patterns under alternative 2D autocorrelation structures for .

Yellowtail flounder (*Limanda ferruginea*)is a commercially important demersal flatfish in the Northwest Atlantic ranging from the Labrador Sea in the North to the Chesapeake Bay in the South (NEFSC 2012). There are four stocks of yellowtail flounder delineated by the following areas: Canadian Grand Banks, Cape Cod-Gulf of Maine, Georges Bank, and Southern New England-Mid Atlantic. All four stocks experienced overfishing from the 1970s to the mid-1990s and since then all stocks have experienced some recovery (Stone et al. 2004) except for the southern-most Southern New England-Mid Atlantic (SNEMA) stock. The SNEMA stock is currently assessed using a statistical catch-at-age model, the Age-Structured Assessment Program (ASAP; Legault and Restrepo 1999), and has declined in recent years to historic lows (5% of SSBMSY proxy; NEFSC 2020). There are two major sources of uncertainty in recent stock assessments (NEFSC 2012, 2020). First, the assessment cannot explain the dramatic decrease in recruitment since the 1990s. Recent studies have linked poor recruitment to low spawning stock biomass (SSB) as well as unfavorable environmental conditions (more northward Gulf Stream and reduced cold pool; Miller et al. 2016; Xu et al. 2018). Second, there is a strong retrospective pattern of spawning stock biomass (SSB) and fully-selected fishing mortality rate (*F*). The cause underlying the strong retrospective patterns is unclear, but no doubt, strong retrospective patterns in SSB and *F* can induce bias and uncertainty in the determination of stock and harvest status (Brooks and Legault 2016; Miller and Legault 2017).

Retrospective pattern refers to the systematic inconsistency in estimates of fishery variables when additional years of data are included in the assessment model (Mohn 1999). It typically arises due to misspecifying temporal changes in input data or biological parameters, e.g. assuming a parameter is constant in the model when it varies in reality (Hurtado-Ferro et al. 2014; Legault 2009). To address retrospective issues in the assessments of some New England fish stocks such as Georges Bank yellowtail flounder (Legault et al. 2012) and Gulf of Maine Atlantic cod (NEFSC 2013), stock assessment scientists sometimes impose a temporal trend to *M* in stock assessment models. *M* is an important parameter in stock assessment models because it directly influences stock productivity and moreover, misspecifying *M* can lead to biased estimation of population attributes (Miller and Legault 2017; Thorson et al. 2015) and key reference points such as virgin biomass and maximum sustainable yield (Johnson et al. 2015). However, *M* is often difficult to estimate accurately in stock assessment models because it is confounded with some other parameters such as fishing mortality and recruitment, so *M* is usually pre-specified as a time-invariant constant to simplify model estimation (Deroba and Schueller 2013; Johnson et al. 2015; Legault and Palmer 2015). Deroba and Schueller (2013) conducted a simulation experiment to evaluate the estimation biases in SSB and recruitment that are induced by misspecifying . They found that misspecifying the temporal variation in likely induces larger biases than misspecifying the age-variation in does, underling the importance of correctly specifying the temporal trend in to stock assessment models. In fact, the impacts of misspecifying are positively related to , and was near the historical maximum for SNEMA yellowtail flounder in 2018, since was at a historic low (Legault and Palmer 2015; NEFSC 2020). Furthermore, the current SNEMA yellowtail flounder assessment specifies as a time-invariant, decreasing function of age, based on a time series average of weight-at-age data and the allometric relationship defining how declines with size (Lorenzen 1996; NEFSC 2012). Thus, there is reason to believe that misspecifying as constant could be a reason for the concerning retrospective patterns in recent assessments of the stock.

Instead of imposing a trend on by age or year, we explored a more flexible and objective method to address the retrospective problem: estimating a 2D smoother on survival or that was first-order autoregressive, AR(1), over both age and year. We implemented this 2D AR(1) structure in the Woods Hole Assessment Model (WHAM), a state-space age-structured assessment framework developed at the NEFSC (Miller and Stock 2020; Stock and Miller, this issue). Whereas statistical catch-at-age models do not distinguish between observation and process errors, state-space models are able to simultaneously estimate process error (variance of unobserved states, such as population numbers-at-age), and the observation errors in associated data (Nielsen and Berg 2014; Miller et al. 2016; Aeberhard et al. 2018). Statistical catch-at-age models assume that survival is deterministic, i.e. the number of age *a* fish in year *y*, , is determined by *F*, *M*, and the numbers in the previous year: . Process errors, , can be included directly on as random effect deviations in survival (Gudmundsson and Gunnlaugsson 2012; Nielsen and Berg 2014; Miller et al. 2016) or on (Cadigan 2016), such that . We extend the model presented in Miller et al. (2016), in which annual survival was stochastic, but with the stochastic deviations in survival assumed to be uncorrelated by age or year, i.e. all . The can be equivalently called “random effects,” “deviations,” or “process errors” on numbers-at-age or survival. Henceforth, we refer to the as random effects or deviations.

In this study, we investigated 2D autocorrelation structures on both survival and in an assessment of SNEMA yellowtail flounder. In software packages such as AD Model Builder (ADMB; Fournier et al. 2012) and Template Model Builder (TMB; Kristensen et al. 2016), alternative models can be objectively compared based on metrics of retrospective pattern, e.g. Mohn’s (Mohn 1999), and model fit, e.g. Akaike’s information criterion (AIC; Akaike 1973; Burnham and Anderson 2002). We assessed whether it was better to place the 2D AR(1) smoother on survival versus , if a model could be estimated with 2D AR(1) smoothers on both survival and , and the impact on estimates of SSB and *F*. Finally, we evaluated whether incorporating an environmental effect in the stock-recruit function could further improve retrospective patterns and model fit.

# Material and Methods

## 2.1. 2D AR(1) smoother

We first compared various autocorrelation structures for survival deviations in WHAM. For simplicity, we only considered the first-order autocorrelation structure that has been widely used in previous studies (Cadigan 2016; Nielsen and Berg 2014). In WHAM, the stochastic survival deviations, , for age and year *y* () can be calculated by rewriting the stock equations:

where represents numbers at age and is the stock-recruit function in which an environmental time series () can be incorporated as a covariate. is the total number of observation and prediction years and represents the plus-group. This state-space model is unique in its ability of incorporating the stochastic change of the environmental covariate over time, uncertainty in associated observations, and its effect on recruitment as a covariate in the stock-recruit function (Miller et al. 2016; Stock and Miller, this issue). Strictly speaking, the survival deviation term () stands for population migration into or out of the stock because it does not alter either the *M* or *F* in the Baranov catch equation (Gudmundsson and Gunnlaugsson 2012), and in fact realized “survival” can be greater than one (i.e., whenever ). Indeed, population mixing between adjacent yellowtail flounder stocks has been observed in tagging studies, but the extent of which was not large enough to significantly affect the population dynamics of each individual stock, including the depleted SNEMA stock (Cadrin 2003; Goethel et al. 2015). Gudmundsson and Gunnlaugsson (2012) claimed that the survival deviation term can also be interpreted as “irregular natural mortality”, because impacts population dynamics primarily through stock equations. Cadigan (2016) and Aldrin et al. (2020) follow this interpretation. In fact, this survival deviation term can also be caused by deviations in fishing mortality or more generally deviations from the Baranov catch equation.

Miller et al. (2016) and Nielsen and Berg (2014) assumed that survival deviations are independent of age and time and normally distributed with zero means. In other words, for all *a* and *y*:

(2)

where for all ages were assumed to be the same but different from age *a* = 1, i.e. recruitment, which we denote as . This assumption rests on the fact that survival variations for young-of-the-year (recruitment) are generally larger than for other ages. Unlike statistical catch-at-age models, the can be estimated internally in the model as fixed effect parameters. Survival deviations, however, are not necessarily independent. If survival deviations are autocorrelated among ages and years, they should follow a multivariate normal distribution:

(3)

where , is the  covariance matrix for the multivariate normal distribution and is calculated as the Kronecker product of the covariance matrix for the AR(1) process among ages () and the correlation matrix for the AR(1) process among years ():

where and are the two AR(1) coefficients in age and time, respectively. Either of them can be fixed at a constant between -1 and 1 or estimated in the state-space model as fixed effect parameters. Note that when both and are fixed at 0, there is no survival autocorrelation in either dimension and Eq. 3 collapses to Eq. 2. In fact, is the likelihood distribution function for this covariance structure:

which means that the covariance between two survival deviations is positively related to how close the locations of the two survival deviations are on the age-time surface. As above, for all ages were assumed equal but different from age *a* = 1, i.e. recruitment, denoted as .

Alternatively, we can apply this 2D AR(1) structure to random effect deviations in *M*, , as in Cadigan (2016):

(6)

where is the mean *M* and can either be fixed or estimated. Applying deviations in *M* versus determines where in the Baranov catch equation it affects the predicted catch, . Another difference is that deviations in *M* affect the calculation of reference points, whereas deviations in do not.

## 2.2. Application to SNEMA yellowtail flounder

We evaluated the performance of our proposed 2D AR(1) survival smoother by using data from the 2019 SNEMA yellowtail flounder stock assessment as a case study (NEFSC 2020). We included likelihood components for the following observations through 2018: (1) three indices of abundance from the spring, fall, and winter NEFSC bottom trawl surveys; (2) aggregate catch from one commercial fleet; and (3) age composition from the three bottom trawl surveys and the commercial catch. As in Miller et al. (2016), age composition data were assumed to follow a logistic-normal distribution with pooling of zero observations (Atchison and Shen 1980). Empirical weight-at-age, natural mortality-at-age, and maturity-at-age were treated as known. Maturity was fixed at 0.0052, 0.6836, 0.9854, 0.9970, 0.9963, and 1 for ages 1-6, while natural mortality was specified as 0.405, 0.336, 0.296, 0.275, 0.256, and 0.2311 yr-1 for ages 1-6 (NEFSC 2020). Selectivity of the fleet was divided into six time blocks as in NEFSC (2020). We estimated logistic selectivity for the fleet and indices, except in three time blocks where age-specific, flat-topped selectivity facilitated convergence, i.e. we fixed selectivity at 1 for older ages and estimated selectivity at younger ages as free parameters. During three prediction years, , weight, and maturity were fixed at the values in the terminal year of the data. Variables treated as random effects, such as numbers-at-age, *M*, and the CPI, were forecast in the prediction years by simply continuing the stochastic process, e.g. AR(1) for the CPI. All the aforementioned data and the complete assessment report can be accessed at https://apps-nefsc.fisheries.noaa.gov/saw/sasi/sasi\_report\_options.php.

We first considered six models treating only the numbers-at-age (NAA) as random effects (Table 1). These models estimated deviations in survival by age and year, , assuming alternative autocorrelation structures formed by fixing or estimating the three parameters in Eq. 5. We refer to NAA-1 as the “base” model, because it was most similar to a statistical catch-at-age model, where recruitment is typically estimated independently by year and survival is deterministic. NAA-2 added recruitment autocorrelation. NAA-3 through NAA-6 estimated “full state-space” models, with numbers at all ages treated as random effects, but with different autocorrelation structures. NAA-3 estimated independently as in Miller et al. (2016) and Nielsen and Berg (2014), NAA-4 and NAA-5 added autocorrelation across ages and years, and NAA-6 estimated all parameters in the described 2D AR(1) smoother (Eq. 5, Table 1). To isolate the effect of incorporating the 2D AR(1) smoother on survival, we compared the model fit, retrospective pattern, and relative difference in SSB and *F* estimates from NAA-6 versus NAA-3.

Next, we fit a set of models treating the numbers-at-age as in the base model, NAA-1, but including deviations in *M* with the same set of autocorrelation structures: none, independent, AR(1) by age, AR(1) by year, and 2D AR(1). For each autocorrelation structure, we alternatively fixed or estimated the mean *M*, , resulting in a set of 10 nested models (Table 2). As for the set of NAA models, we isolated the effect of the 2D AR(1) smoother on *M* by comparing M-2 to M-5 (fixed ) and M-7 to M-10 (estimated ). We then tested the ability of WHAM to simultaneously estimate numbers-at-age and *M* as random effects, using only the independent and 2D AR(1) autocorrelation structures for each.

Finally, we tested whether linking an environmental covariate to recruitment could further improve model fit and retrospective pattern. Miller et al. (2016) and Xu et al. (2018) found that incorporating the Cold Pool Index (CPI) or Gulf Stream Index (GSI) into the stock-recruit function for SNEMA yellowtail flounder significantly improved model performance as measured by AIC and Mohn’s . Here, we used the CPI instead of the GSI because standard errors were straightforward to calculate for the CPI and these values could be used directly in the assessment model as observation error. This avoided the need to estimate the CPI observation error internally. We calculated the CPI as in Miller et al. (2016) and incorporated it into the Beverton-Holt stock-recruit function as a limiting factor:

where is from Eq. 1.

We fit the models using WHAM, an R package that utilizes TMB to fit age-structured, state-space stock assessments (Miller and Stock 2020). TMB calculates the marginal likelihood of fixed effect parameters using the Laplace approximation to integrate across random effect parameters (Kristensen et al. 2016), and fixed effect parameters are then estimated by maximizing the marginal likelihood within R (R Core Team 2020). After the fixed effect parameters are estimated, TMB predicts the random effect coefficients using empirical Bayes (Kristensen et al. 2016). We compared model fit and retrospective pattern using AIC and Mohn’s (Mohn 1999), using seven retrospective peels as in the latest assessment (NEFSC 2020).

# Results

## 3.1. Numbers-at-age (survival) as random effects

Treating numbers at all ages as random effects resulted in markedly better model fit (lower AIC) and reduced retrospective pattern (lower Mohn’s ; Table 3). Estimating survival deviations with autocorrelation by age, year, or both further reduced AIC and Mohn’s . According to both AIC and the magnitude of estimated and , the among-year autocorrelation in survival deviations was higher and had larger impact on model fit than the among-age autocorrelation in survival deviations (Table 3). The survival deviations estimated by models with autocorrelation were smoothed across ages and years relative to the models with independent deviations (Fig. 1). NAA-6, with the 2D AR(1) structure, had the best fit and retrospective pattern, reducing AIC by 36.2, by 0.41, by 0.18, and by 0.14 compared to NAA-3 with independent survival deviations (Table 3). Simply constraining the survival deviations with the 2D AR(1) structure reduced estimates of *F* and increased estimates of SSB by about 15% (relative difference between NAA-6 and NAA-3; Fig. 2). NAA-3 and NAA-6 estimated similar SSB in the terminal year of the assessment, 2018, but then differed in their SSB estimates in the projection years by about 30%, even though *F* was held constant at similar values (Fig. 2).

The survival deviations estimated in years near the end of the assessment impacted the projections of SSB. For instance, all NAA models estimated very low recruitment in 2015, i.e. strong negative survival of age-1 fish, and this propagated through the end of the assessment and into the projection years for models that included autocorrelation by year (Fig. 1). In the terminal year, these models also estimated negative survival deviations for ages 2-4, but slightly positive deviations for the plus-group. The combined effect of the survival deviations across ages resulted in the model with 2D AR(1) autocorrelation projecting lower SSB in 2019, but higher SSB in 2020-2021, than the model with independent deviations (Fig. 2). Note that the projected survival deviations a[symptot](javascript:void(0);)ically approached zero over time (Fig. 1), so the direct influence of the survival smoother on SSB predictions became increasingly weaker over time.

## 3.2. Deviations in *M* as random effects

Including deviations in *M*, instead of survival, also substantially improved model fit and retrospective pattern (Table 4). This was true whether or not was estimated. In contrast to treating numbers-at-age as random effects, including 1D autocorrelation by age or year led to worse fit and retrospective pattern than estimating independent *M* deviations. Again, the 2D AR(1) structure had the best fit, regardless of whether was estimated (M-5 and M-10; Table 4). Compared to the models with independent *M* deviations, including the the 2D AR(1) structure reduced AIC by 5.9, by 0.05, by 0.10, and by 0.06 when was not estimated (Table 4). When was estimated, however, adding the 2D AR(1) structure resulted in worse retrospective pattern ( by 0.18, by 0.14, and by 0.18; Table 4). The estimated 2D AR(1) *M* deviations were smoothed less than the 2D AR(1) survival deviations, as evidenced by and (Figs. 1 and 3, Tables 3-4). When was not estimated, the effect of adding the 2D AR(1) structure on estimates of *F* and SSB was similar as for the NAA models: lower *F* and higher SSB by about 10-15% during assessment years, similar terminal year status, and then lower SSB in short-term projections by a greater amount (Fig. 2). Models that estimated increased *M* compared to the value fixed in the assessment, and adding the 2D AR(1) structure on *M* deviations resulted in larger differences in *F* and SSB. Whether was estimated or not, *M* deviations for younger ages in models with 2D AR(1) autocorrelation were positive in the terminal year (Fig. 3). This was consistent with the NAA 2D AR(1) models estimating negative survival in this period (Fig. 1), and explained why adding 2D AR(1) autocorrelation led to lower SSB in short-term projections (Fig. 2).

## 3.3. Estimating deviations in both survival and *M*

Models that attempted to estimate deviations in both survival and *M* with 2D AR(1) autocorrelation failed to converge. However, adding independent *M* deviations to NAA-6 (2D AR(1) on survival) and adding independent survival deviations to M-5 and M-10 (2D AR(1) on *M*) substantially improved model fit (lower AIC by 25.9, 9.5, and 3.8, respectively; Tables 3-5). Differences in Mohn’s between these models were not large or consistent. In the model with lowest Mohn’s , deviations in both survival and *M* reinforced each other—positive survival deviations were estimated for the same years and ages as negative *M* deviations (e.g. ages 1-3 during the late 1970s-1980s in Fig. 4). Thus, the magnitude of the deviations reduced from approximately -2 to 2, as when only survival or *M* deviations were estimated (Figs. 1 and 3), to the range -1 to 1 (Fig. 4). Including independent deviations in survival and *M* had the largest impact on *F* and SSB estimates when was estimated (Fig. 2). Adding independent deviations in survival to the model with 2D AR(1) deviations in *M* resulted in higher (increase from 0.47 to 0.76), which propagated the elevated *M* in the terminal year stronger and further into the projection years (M-5 in Fig. 3; top panel in Fig. 4). The result was a more pronounced decline in projected SSB (Fig. 2).

## 3.4. Incorporating the CPI-recruitment effect

Finally, we investigated the effect of additionally incorporating an environmental covariate, the CPI, into the stock-recruit function for the NAA-M models which converged (Tables 5-6). Across models with different random effects on survival and *M*, including a CPI effect on recruitment reduced Mohn’s by about 0.1 on average and did not have much influence on or (Fig. 5). The NAA-M-CPI model with lowest Mohn’s had the lowest Mohn’s of all models considered (Fig. 6). Including the CPI-recruitment effect did not have much impact on the estimates of SSB and *F*, given that deviations in survival and *M* were already included (Fig. 7).

# Discussion

Using a state-space, age-structured assessment model developed for SNEMA yellowtail flounder, we showed that implementing a 2D AR(1) smoother on survival or *M* considerably improved model fit and reduced the retrospective patterns for SSB, *F*, and recruitment. Different from previous assessments in the region which addressed a retrospective problem by *a priori* specifying a temporal trend in (e.g. Georges Bank yellowtail flounder and Gulf of Maine Atlantic Cod; Legault et al. 2012; NEFSC 2013, 2020), this paper provides a more objective, flexible, and generic approach to reduce retrospective pattern in stock assessments. In WHAM, both the two autocorrelation coefficients in the 2D AR(1) smoother can either be specified at fixed values or estimated as parameters. This makes it easy to specify or estimate a temporal trend in *M* or survival, and then compare performance against models with constant or 2D AR(1) correlation. Specific to SNEMA yellowtail flounder, we showed that it is more important to estimate the among-year than among-age autocorrelation in survival deviations by comparing the AIC of several alternative models with differing autocorrelation assumptions. However, including both dimensions as a 2D AR(1) process consistently resulted in the best model fit and lowest retrospective pattern. Moreover, the estimated survival and *M* deviations for older ages were of comparable magnitude to those for age 1 (Fig. 4), which means that the variation in adult survival is at least as influential as recruitment variation to the population dynamics of SNEMA yellowtail flounder.

We found that the 2D AR(1) smoother impacted SSB and estimates as well as near-term SSB predictions, and that including an effect of the CPI on recruitment in models with survival and *M* deviations negligibly impacted the estimates of SSB and . This underscores the importance of implementing survival or *M* deviations with the 2D AR(1) smoother to the assessment of SNEMA yellowtail flounder. The 2D AR(1) structure could also extended to three dimensions if, for example, survival is modelled to be sex-specific. A 3D AR(1) process across year, age, and cohort could be appropriate, since cohort effects are visible in the estimated 2D AR(1) survival and *M* deviations (Figs. 1, 3, and 4). The generic 2D AR(1) random effects structure we introduce in this paper can be applied to other potentially autocorrelated biological processes (e.g., selectivity and growth) as well, and we imagine this will be an important research topic in the development of next-generation stock assessment models with mixed effects (Punt et al. 2020). Indeed, WHAM makes heavy use of 2D AR(1) random effects, currently allowing users to specify them on numbers-at-age, natural mortality, and selectivity (Stock and Miller, this issue).

For SNEMA yellowtail flounder, implementing the 2D AR(1) smoother on survival or *M* considerably reduced the severity of retrospective pattern and modified near-term predictions of SSB (Figs. 2 and 6). Incorporating 2D AR(1) deviations in survival led to lower AIC, while the model with 2D AR(1) deviations in *M* had lower Mohn’s (Tables 3-4, Fig. 6). The model with 2D AR(1) deviations in *M*, independent deviations in survival, and the CPI-recruitment effect had the lowest Mohn’s , with , , and all less than 0.11 (Fig. 6). This implies that including these factors in the SNEMA yellowtail flounder assessment would provide more reliable estimates of stock and harvest status.

Near-term SSB forecasts changed substantially, about 30%, when the 2D AR(1) smoother was included to constrain deviations in survival or *M*. In models where the survival or *M* deviations are independent (e.g. NAA-1, NAA-3, M-2), they do not affect projections of SSB unless they are linked to an environmental covariate that is also projected. In contrast, including autocorrelation by year ( or ) affects short-term projections, with the trend near the assessment terminal year becoming important. In the case of SNEMA yellowtail flounder, models with estimated positive *M* deviations in recent years, and this clearly resulted in lower projected SSB. The effect of including the 2D AR(1) on survival deviations was less straightforward, because projected survival deviations were negative for younger ages and positive for older ages. The combined effect in the first projection year was a reduction in forecasted SSB relative to the model with independent deviations. In subsequent years, the forecasted SSB increased. The explanation for this counterintuitive result is that the older ages contribute more to SSB than younger ages, and the cumulative effect of consecutive years with slightly elevated survival of the plus-group trumped the reduced survival of younger ages. Therefore, implementing 2D AR(1) autocorrelation in survival or *M* is likely to have greater impact on near-term SSB predictions in the SNEMA yellowtail flounder assessment than incorporating an environmental effect on recruitment. Unfortunately, whether to include the 2D AR(1) smoother on survival or *M* was not clear—models with 2D AR(1) survival deviations had lower AIC, while models with 2D AR(1) *M* deviations had lower Mohn’s . This matters because their predicted trends in SSB diverged in the second and third projection years.

Whether 2D AR(1) autocorrelation is included or not, allowing survival or *M* to vary in time does not make calculating biological reference points (BRPs) easier. We envision two different ways to calculate BRPs for models with deviations in survival or *M*:

1. *Deterministic BRPs*: The simplest calculation for BRPs is to ignore the stochastic variation in survival and calculate the yield curve given average survival. This procedure ignores the process error in biological processes and is typically used to calculate BRPs.
2. *Dynamic BRPs*: Regime shifts in recruitment have been shown to trigger rebuilding rules that target biomass levels that are essentially impossible under new recruitment dynamics (Szuwalski et al. 2015). Therefore, BRPs can vary across time and be calculated annually based upon the survival deviation estimated for each year.

For SNEMA yellowtail flounder, since the 1990s estimated survival deviations were predominantly negative, and *M* deviations were mostly positive. Ignoring these trends in productivity may result in biased estimates of BRPs in recent decades. Furthermore, treating survival or *M* deviations as uncorrelated in time neglects to propagate productivity changes in short-term projections. Whereas calculating dynamic BRPs seems to be more appropriate, it poses a challenge to management because an assumption regarding how survival or *M* deviations are attributed to fishing mortality, natural mortality, and migration is required. These three processes are generally confounded in stock assessment models, which means that it is difficult, if possible, to partition their influences on the estimates of population attributes including survival. We recommend future research exploring their relative performance when coupled with management procedures and different parameterizations of time-variation in survival and *M*.

Care should be taken when interpreting the main findings found in this study. First, survival of the plus-group is not strictly survival. This matters because including the 2D AR(1) smoother on survival estimated increased survival of the plus-group, which resulted in higher short-term forecasts of SSB relative to models with independent survival deviations or 2D AR(1) deviations on *M*. Second, population dynamics in the 3 year projection time period were predicted by keeping *F* constant at the level in the terminal model year, and differing *F* may account for some variation in projected SSB. However, the models estimated very similar terminal year *F*, which was near historic lows and less than the value of *M* fixed in the assessment (Figs. 2 and 6). This likely has negligible impact on the results. Last, all the conclusions made in this study are species-specific. For example, the relative importance of the recruitment covariate, deviations in survival versus *M*, and 2D AR(1) smoother to SSB prediction is highly dependent upon the parameters (e.g., age at maturity, longevity, selectivity and weight-at-age) that influence the age structure and life history of the stock. Generally speaking, the 2D AR(1) smoother can directly impact the predicted numbers at all ages, and thereby, is expected to be more important to near-term SSB prediction for late-matured and long-lived fish stocks. On the other hand, a recruitment covariate can only directly impact near-term predictions of recruitment. For late-matured and long-lived fish stocks, the covariate-induced change in recruitment prediction is not able to propagate to most of the mature age classes, and therefore will not appreciably impact SSB predictions in the near-term.

One final note is that the run time required to fit the models varied substantially and in unintuitive patterns. Much of TMB’s advantage over ADMB in computational speed depends on its algorithm for automatically detecting sparseness of the Hessian matrix (Kristensen et al. 2016), and we found that this sparseness detection was the most important determinant of model run time. Directly specifying the survival deviations, , as random effect parameters did not result in a sparse Hessian, but parameterizing the log numbers at age, , and then calculating the as derived quantities, did. When only numbers at age 1 (i.e. recruits) were random effects, the Hessian was not detected as sparse. Thus, some of the least complex models we considered (e.g. NAA-1, NAA-2, and M-1 through M-10) took longer to run than the most complex model, NAA-M-CPI-4 (Table 7). With or without a sparse Hessian, adding 2D AR(1) autocorrelation increased run time by about 3x. Increasing model complexity had little impact on run time as long as the Hessian was detected as sparse, and the most complex model took 1.35 minutes to run on a laptop computer (Table 7). While these results are limited to the dimension of the SNEMA yellowtail flounder application (e.g. the number of age classes and time steps), they suggest that incorporating additional complexity into stock assessments via random effects in TMB is unlikely to be a hurdle in the future.

# References

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Table 1. Descriptions of models with only numbers-at-age (NAA) estimated as random effects. In other words, these models estimated deviations in survival by year and age, , with the covariance given by Eq. 5. NAA-1 is most similar to a statistical catch-at-age model, where recruitment is typically estimated independently by year and survival is deterministic.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Ages treated as random effects | Correlation structure | Estimated parameters | Notes |
| NAA-1 | Age-1 (recruits) | Indep. |  | base |
| NAA-2 | Age-1 (recruits) | AR(1) year | , |  |
| NAA-3 | All ages | Indep. | , | Miller et al. (2016) |
| NAA-4 | All ages | AR(1) age | , , |  |
| NAA-5 | All ages | AR(1) year | , , |  |
| NAA-6 | All ages | 2D AR(1) | , , , |  |

Table 2. Descriptions of models with only natural mortality (*M*) estimated as random effects. These models estimated deviations in *M* by year and age, , with the covariance given by Eq. 6. All models treated the numbers-at-age as in the base model, NAA-1 (recruitment independent by year, deterministic survival). M-1 was also equivalent to the base model and did not estimate any *M* parameters.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | Estimate ,  mean *M* | Correlation structure | Estimated parameters | Notes |
| M-1 | --- | --- | --- | base |
| M-2 | --- | Indep. |  |  |
| M-3 | --- | AR(1) age |  |  |
| M-4 | --- | AR(1) year | , |  |
| M-5 | --- | 2D AR(1) | , , | Cadigan (2016) |
| M-6 | Yes | --- |  |  |
| M-7 | Yes | Indep. | , |  |
| M-7 | Yes | AR(1) age | , |  |
| M-9 | Yes | AR(1) year | , , |  |
| M-10 | Yes | 2D AR(1) | , , , |  |

Table 3. Model results where only numbers-at-age (NAA) were estimated as random effects. NAA-6, where survival is a 2D AR1 process across years and ages, had the lowest AIC and Mohn’s . Mohn’s abbreviations: *R* = recruitment, *SSB* = spawning stock biomass, and *F* = fishing mortality averaged over ages 4-5. Maximum likelihood estimates of parameters constraining random effects are listed with standard error in parentheses.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimated parameters | | | |  | Model fit | | |  | Mohn’s | | |
| Model |  |  |  |  |  | -log | AIC |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-1 | 1.18 (0.13) | — | — | — |  | -934.024 | -1712.0 | 221.6 |  | 5.86 | 0.99 | -0.42 |
| NAA-2 | 0.66 (0.08) | — | 0.92 (0.05) | — |  | -957.164 | -1756.3 | 177.3 |  | 4.56 | 0.90 | -0.38 |
| NAA-3 | 1.01 (0.12) | 0.58 (0.05) | — | — |  | -1027.684 | -1897.4 | 36.2 |  | 0.97 | 0.27 | -0.17 |
| NAA-4 | 0.86 (0.12) | 0.53 (0.05) | — | 0.46 (0.10) |  | -1036.859 | -1913.7 | 19.9 |  | 0.55 | 0.12 | -0.06 |
| NAA-5 | 0.76 (0.11) | 0.48 (0.05) | 0.60 (0.09) | — |  | -1044.252 | -1928.5 | 5.1 |  | 0.73 | 0.14 | -0.08 |
| NAA-6 | 0.72 (0.10) | 0.47 (0.05) | 0.52 (0.10) | 0.34 (0.12) |  | -1047.803 | -1933.6 | 0.0 |  | 0.56 | 0.09 | -0.03 |

Table 4. Model results where only recruitment and natural mortality (*M*) were estimated as random effects. M-10, which estimated mean *M*, , as well as 2D AR1 random effects on *M*, had the lowest AIC but not Mohn’s . M-5 and M-7 had lower Mohn’s than M-10, but higher AIC. Numbers-at-age (NAA) were treated as in model NAA-1. Only estimating , without any random effects on NAA or *M*, substantially reduced AIC and Mohn’s (compare M-1 to M-6). Mohn’s abbreviations: *R* = recruitment, *SSB* = spawning stock biomass, and *F* = fishing mortality averaged over ages 4-5. Maximum likelihood estimates of parameters constraining random effects are listed with standard error in parentheses.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimated parameters | | | |  | Model fit | | |  | Mohn’s | | |
| Model |  |  |  |  |  | -log | AIC |  |  |  |  |  |
| M-1 | — | — | — | — |  | -934.024 | -1712.0 | 227.5 |  | 5.86 | 0.99 | -0.42 |
| M-2 | — | 1.18 (0.09) | — | — |  | -1037.981 | -1918.0 | 21.5 |  | 0.12 | 0.20 | -0.13 |
| M-3 | — | 1.15 (0.43) | — | 0.25 (0.49) |  | -979.398 | -1798.8 | 140.7 |  | 2.06 | 0.10 | -0.08 |
| M-4 | — | 0.13 (0.06) | 0.98 (0.02) | — |  | -988.290 | -1816.6 | 122.9 |  | 1.19 | -0.12 | 0.30 |
| M-5 | — | 0.89 (0.12) | 0.47 (0.21) | 0.39 (0.14) |  | -1042.965 | -1923.9 | 15.6 |  | -0.07 | 0.10 | -0.06 |
| M-6 | 0.79 (0.04) | — | — | — |  | -976.715 | -1795.4 | 144.1 |  | 2.36 | 0.15 | -0.09 |
| M-7 | 0.70 (0.12) | 0.71 (0.10) | — | — |  | -1045.295 | -1930.6 | 8.9 |  | -0.13 | -0.03 | 0.09 |
| M-8 | 0.81 (0.11) | 0.42 (0.16) | — | -0.86 (0.19) |  | -983.717 | -1805.4 | 134.1 |  | 1.98 | 0.12 | -0.07 |
| M-9 | 0.36 (0.22) | 0.12 (0.07) | 0.98 (0.03) | — |  | -983.959 | -1805.9 | 133.6 |  | 1.55 | -0.10 | 0.26 |
| M-10 | 0.83 (0.16) | 0.56 (0.08) | 0.37 (0.14) | 0.30 (0.16) |  | -1051.753 | -1939.5 | 0.0 |  | -0.31 | -0.17 | 0.27 |

Table 5. Model results where both numbers-at-age (NAA) and natural mortality (*M*) were estimated as random effects. NAA-M-5 had the lowest AIC but not Mohn’s . NAA-M-2 had higher AIC but the lowest Mohn’s . Four of the models did not converge. Mohn’s abbreviations: *R* = recruitment, *SSB* = spawning stock biomass, and *F* = fishing mortality averaged over ages 4-5.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimated parameters | | |  | Model fit | | |  | Mohn’s | | |
| Model | NAA | M |  |  | -log | AIC |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-M-1 | , |  |  |  | -1051.090 | -1942.2 | 17.3 |  | 0.20 | 0.17 | -0.09 |
| NAA-M-2 | , | , , |  |  | -1048.691 | -1933.4 | 26.1 |  | -0.22 | 0.02 | 0.04 |
| NAA-M-3 | , |  | Yes |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-M-4 | , | , , | Yes |  | -1054.627 | -1943.3 | 16.2 |  | -0.52 | -0.28 | 0.54 |
| NAA-M-5 | , , , |  |  |  | -1061.727 | -1959.5 | 0.0 |  | 0.52 | 0.10 | -0.04 |
| NAA-M-6 | , , , | , , |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-M-7 | , , , |  | Yes |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-M-8 | , , , | , , | Yes |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 6. Results from models that estimated an effect of the Cold Pool Index (CPI) on recruitment, in addition to random effects on numbers-at-age (NAA) and natural mortality (*M*). NAA-M-CPI-4 had the lowest AIC but not Mohn’s . NAA-M-CPI-2 had higher AIC but the lowest Mohn’s . NAA-M-CPI-5 did not converge. Mohn’s abbreviations: *R* = recruitment, *SSB* = spawning stock biomass, and *F* = fishing mortality averaged over ages 4-5.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimated parameters | | |  | Model fit | | |  | Mohn’s | | |
| Model | NAA | M |  |  | -log\* | AIC |  |  |  |  |  |
| NAA-M-CPI-1 | , |  |  |  | -996.345 | -1824.7 | 3.7 |  | 0.16 | 0.17 | -0.09 |
| NAA-M-CPI-2 | , | , , |  |  | -994.979 | -1818.0 | 10.4 |  | -0.11 | 0.02 | 0.06 |
| NAA-M-CPI-4 | , | , , | Yes |  | -1001.182 | -1828.4 | 0.0 |  | -0.42 | -0.25 | 0.47 |
| NAA-M-CPI-5 | , , , |  |  |  | -1000.819 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

\*Note that the likelihoods and AIC in Table 4 are not comparable to those in Tables 1-3 because additional data (the CPI) have been included.

Table 7. Example model run times as a function of model size and whether TMB detected sparseness of the Hessian matrix. Model size = number of random effects (dimension of the Hessian matrix with respect to random effects).

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Model | NAA random effects | | M random effects | Model size | Sparse Hessian | Run time (min) |
| NAA-1 | Recruits | Indep. | --- | 45 | No | 1.51 |
| NAA-3 | All NAA | Indep. | --- | 270 | Yes | 0.37 |
| NAA-6 | All NAA | 2D AR(1) | --- | 270 | Yes | 1.12 |
| M-2 | Recruits | Indep. | IID | 321 | No | 2.67 |
| M-5 | Recruits | Indep. | 2D AR(1) | 321 | No | 10.30 |
| NAA-M-CPI-4 | All NAA | Indep. | 2D AR(1) | 593 | Yes | 1.35 |

A screenshot of a cell phone

Description automatically generated

Figure 1. Survival deviations by year and age estimated by models in which only numbers-at-age (NAA) were random effects. The vertical dashed line denotes the terminal year in the assessment, 2018.

A close up of a map

Description automatically generated

Figure 2. Relative difference in estimates of *F* (top panels) and SSB (lower panels) from constraining deviations in survival (left) and *M* (center, right) to follow a 2D AR(1) correlation structure over ages and years. Relative difference was calculated as , where is either *F* or SSB. In the center column, was fixed, whereas was estimated in the right column. IID = independent deviations by age and year (as per column heading), 2D AR1 = 2D AR(1) deviations, and 2D AR1 + NAA/M = 2D AR(1) deviations as well as IID deviations in the off-column heading. The vertical dashed line marks the terminal year in the assessment, 2018.

A screenshot of a social media post

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Figure 3. Deviations in natural mortality (*M*) by year and age estimated by models without numbers-at-age (NAA) random effects. Estimating (right column) clearly reduced the magnitude of *M* deviations for AR(1) models (M-8 and M-9 vs. M-3 and M-4), but did not reduce the *M* deviations in models where the deviations varied by year and age (M-7 and M-10 vs. M-2 and M-5). The vertical dashed line marks the terminal year in the assessment, 2018.

A picture containing brick

Description automatically generated

Figure 4. Deviations in natural mortality (*M*, top panel) and numbers-at-age (NAA, bottom panel) from the final model with lowest Mohn’s , NAA-M-CPI-2. The vertical dashed line marks the terminal year in the assessment, 2018.

A picture containing bird

Description automatically generated

Figure 5. Reduction in retrospective patterns by including an effect of the Cold Pool Index (CPI) on recruitment, measured as the difference in Mohn’s between otherwise equivalent models. Across the various NAA and *M* models, including the CPI-recruitment link minimally impacted Mohn’s or , and slightly lowered Mohn’s by about 0.1 on average.

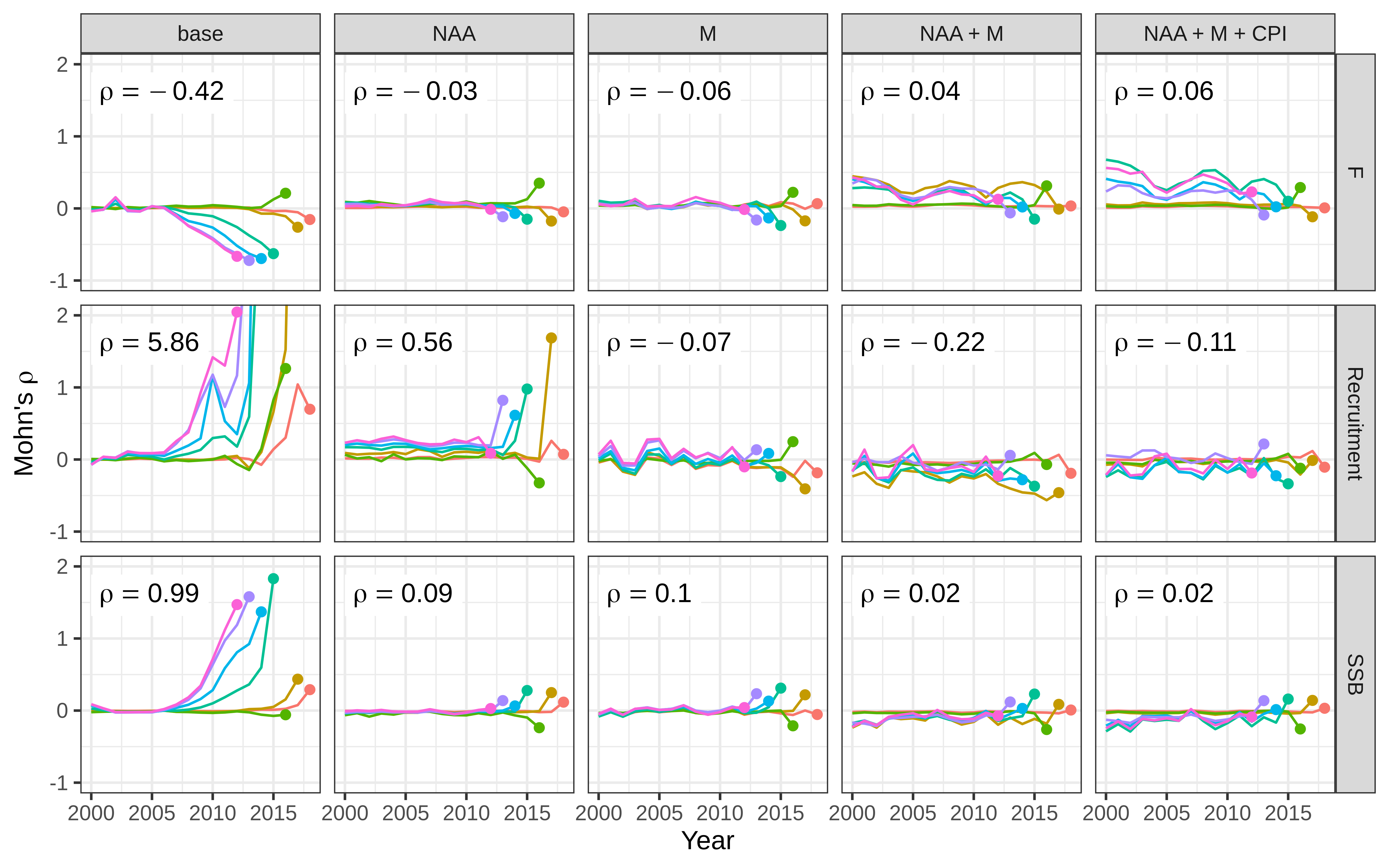


Figure 6. Retrospective patterns in fishing mortality (*F*, top row), recruitment (middle row), and spawning stock biomass (SSB, bottom row). Lines and points depict Mohn’s from seven peels, and the average Mohn’s is given in each panel. Columns show results by model: base = the statistical catch-at-age model, NAA-1, and the others are the models from Tables 3-6 with lowest Mohn’s (NAA-6, M-5, NAA-M-2, and NAA-M-CPI-2).

A close up of a map

Description automatically generated

Figure 7. Trends in fishing mortality (*F*) and spawning stock biomass (SSB). base = the statistical catch-at-age model, NAA-1. Within each model class, the model with lowest Mohn’s is shown (NAA-6, M-5, NAA-M-2, and NAA-M-CPI-2; Tables 3-6). The dashed line denotes the terminal year in the assessment, 2018. Note that the assessment years (1973-2018) extend beyond the x-axis limit.