

1 **Evaluating potential changes to the US Chukchi Sea bottom trawl survey design via**
2 **simulation testing**

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18 **Abstract**

19 The US Chukchi Sea consists of the waters off the northwest of Alaska and is a naturally
20 dynamic ice-driven ecosystem. The impacts from climate change are affecting the Arctic marine
21 ecosystem as well as the coastal communities that rely on healthy marine ecosystems. In
22 anticipation of increased ecosystem monitoring in the area, there is an opportunity to evaluate
23 improved sampling designs for future ecological monitoring of the Chukchi Sea, an area that is
24 sampled less comprehensively compared to other regions in Alaska. This analysis focused on
25 standardized NOAA-NMFS-AFSC bottom trawl surveys (otter and beam trawls) and three types
26 of survey designs: simple random, stratified random, and systematic. First, spatiotemporal
27 distributions for 18 representative demersal fish and invertebrate taxa were fitted using
28 standardized catch and effort data. We then simulated spatiotemporal taxon densities to replicate
29 the three survey design types to evaluate design-based estimates of abundance and precision
30 across a range of sampling effort. Modest increases in precision were gained from stratifying the
31 design when compared to a simple random design with either similar or lower uncertainty and
32 bias of the precision estimates. There were often strong tradeoffs between the precision and bias
33 of the systematic estimates of abundance (and associated variance) across species and gear type.

34 The stratified random design provided the most consistent, reliable, and precise estimates of
35 abundance indices and is likely to be the most robust to changes in the survey design. This
36 analysis is intended to provide the template for how we could change the bottom trawl survey
37 designs in the Chukchi Sea and potentially other survey regions in Alaska going forward and will
38 be important when integrating new survey objectives that are more ecosystem-focused.

39 **Introduction**

40 The recent environmental and ecological changes occurring in the Pacific Arctic Ocean are
41 unprecedented (Huntington et al., 2020). The diminishing extent of the sea ice observed in the
42 past century is perhaps the most visual representation of the changes occurring in the Arctic
43 ocean (Polyak et al., 2010). The Arctic ice pack reached its lowest point in 2012 relative to 1979-
44 2000 (Parkinson and Comiso, 2013). Sea ice and the cold conditions associated with it are
45 important to atmospheric and oceanographic regulation (Budikova, 2009). The edges of the sea
46 ice are active in primary and secondary production, creating important foraging habitats for fish
47 and marine mammals (Post et al., 2013). Seals haul out on the surface of the ice to rest and nurse
48 their pups and polar bears and walruses depend on the ice to hunt. Many Arctic communities
49 hunt these mammals for subsistence. Warmer waters can expand the habitat ranges of more
50 temperate species. For example, the discovery of large populations of mature walleye pollock (a
51 common and commercial Bering Sea species) in the Russian western portion of the Chukchi Sea
52 (e.g., Emelin et al., 2022; Maznikova et al., 2023b) led to the development of a fishery in the
53 region in 2021.

54 The US portion of the Pacific Arctic Ocean includes the eastern Chukchi Sea which is connected
55 to the Bering Sea via the Bering Strait and extends to the Beaufort Sea to the northeast. Bottom
56 trawl surveying of groundfish and benthic invertebrates have been conducted by the National
57 Marine Fisheries Service (NMFS) and its predecessor, the Bureau of Commercial Fisheries
58 sporadically since the 1950s. Increased monitoring of the Chukchi Sea is likely, given the
59 poleward expansion of many Bering Sea species like walleye pollock, Pacific cod, and various
60 flatfishes into the northern Bering Sea (Stevenson and Lauth, 2019a; Spies et al., 2020) and
61 further into the Chukchi Sea (Datsky et al., 2022; Cooper et al., 2023; Levine et al., 2023;
62 Maznikova et al., 2023b) in recent anomalously warm years.

63 In the past ten years, there have been increased efforts to conduct integrated ecosystem-wide
64 monitoring across the entire Chukchi Sea (Baker et al., 2023). To increase the monitoring of
65 groundfish and benthic invertebrates in the Chukchi Sea, it has been proposed to extend the
66 current Bering Sea NMFS bottom trawl survey (BTS) conducted by the Alaska Fisheries Science
67 Center (AFSC) similar to the extension of the Bering Sea survey into the northern Bering Sea
68 since 2010. Thus, the naive assumption for future Chukchi Sea NMFS survey designs is to
69 extend the fixed NMFS Bering Sea 20-nmi systematic grid onto the Chukchi Sea shelf as done in
70 2012 (Goddard et al., 2014). However, until funding is available for a groundfish survey in the
71 Chukchi Sea, there is an opportunity to evaluate survey designs that could provide reliable
72 abundance estimates while allowing for more flexibility in survey extent and total survey effort
73 than a systematic survey would. Systematic sampling has its advantages especially in survey
74 logistics (e.g., stations are equally spaced) and variance reduction for homogeneously distributed
75 populations. Randomized designs, especially with stratification, can allow for higher flexibility
76 to different levels of total survey effort while providing robust and unbiased survey estimates of

77 abundance and variance. Stratum boundaries and station allocations among strata can also be
78 optimized to weight species of importance (Oyafuso et al., 2021).
79 We evaluated the bias and precision of survey estimates of abundance using a systematic fixed-
80 grid survey design along with two types of randomized designs in the US Chukchi Sea BTS.
81 Spatiotemporal distributions for 15 representative demersal fish and invertebrate taxa were fitted
82 based on historical bottom trawl catch and effort data. The models used to fit these
83 spatiotemporal relationships were then used to simulate taxon densities on which surveys under
84 different designs could be conducted. Three conventional survey designs were evaluated: simple
85 random sampling (SRS), stratified random sampling (STRS), and a fixed-grid systematic (SYS)
86 grid similar to what is employed in the NMFS Bering Sea BTS. Design-based estimates of
87 abundance and precision from the three survey designs across a range of sampling effort were
88 calculated, from which the performance of each design was evaluated. We evaluated the
89 advantages and tradeoffs of using a systematic grid as previously done in the NMFS Chukchi
90 Sea BTS and then highlighted potential improvements to the survey by using randomized
91 designs. This analysis is intended to provide a template for a modified Chukchi Sea groundfish
92 survey design going forward and will be important when transitioning to ecosystem-focused
93 survey objectives.

94 Methods

95 Survey Area and Historical Datasets

96 The US Chukchi Sea sampling frame consists of a 2-nmi resolution grid ($N = 15,736$ cells or
97 sampling units) that extends north of the Bering Strait and is bounded by the Barrow Canyon
98 100-m isobath to the north, US-Russia Maritime Boundary to the west, and the 10-m isobath
99 along the Alaska coastline to the east.

100 Readers are referred to Stauffer (2004) and Deary et al. (2021) for a detailed specification of the
101 gears used in this study. We will briefly introduce and identify the major differences between the
102 two gears used.

103 83-112 Eastern otter trawl (“otter trawl” hereafter): Surveys from two years, 1990 and 2012,
104 were included in this analysis due to the consistencies in the sampling protocol. In 1990, 48
105 stations were sampled along 11 transect lines perpendicular to shore near Point Hope, Alaska
106 (Barber et al., 1997). In 2012, a systematic sampling design was employed based on a 30-nmi
107 square grid with the planned trawl stations located at the approximate center of each grid cell,
108 resulting in a total of 73 sampling locations, 71 of which were successful and included in the
109 analysis. The wings and throat sections of the trawl net have a 10.2 cm mesh size. The codend
110 has a 8.9 cm mesh size and a smaller-meshed 32-mm liner for retaining smaller organisms. Otter
111 trawl tows were trawled at a target speed of 3 knots for 15 minutes. Acoustic net mensuration
112 sensors were used to assess trawl performance and to provide net width for calculating effort
113 (total area swept, the product of net width and distance trawled with bottom contact).

114 Plumb staff beam trawl (“beam trawl” hereafter): Surveys from three years, 2012, 2017, and
115 2019 were included in this analysis and used the same systematic grid as the 2012 otter trawl
116 survey. In 2012, a tickler chain preceded the trawl footrope (Gunderson and Ellis, 1986;
117 Kotwicki et al., 2017). Beam trawl tows from 2017 and 2019 were conducted as part of the

118 Arctic Integrated Ecosystem Survey component of the Arctic Integrated Ecosystem Research
119 Program. The body of the trawl has 7-mm mesh with a 4-mm mesh at the cod end. In 2017 and
120 2019, the tickler chain was removed, and the trawl was modified with a footrope of 10.2-cm
121 rubber discs over a steel chain as in Abookire and Rose (2005). In all beam trawl survey years,
122 effort was calculated similar to the otter trawl, with a bottom contact sensor to determine
123 distance fished by the trawl. Effective trawl width of the trawl was assumed to be 2.26 m in 2012
124 (Gunderson and Ellis, 1986; Kotwicki et al., 2017), and 2.1 m in 2017 and 2019 (Abookire and
125 Rose, 2005). Beam trawl tows were trawled at a target speed of 1.5 knots for 2.9-7.5 minutes.
126 Catch samples from the beam and otter trawls were identified and sorted to the lowest possible
127 taxonomic group, weighed, and counted. Field identifications of a subset of age-0 gadids in 2017
128 and 2019 were confirmed with genetic techniques (see Wildes et al., 2022).

Species List

130 The set of taxa we chose to include in this analysis was influenced by cultural importance to
131 Bering Strait and Chukchi Sea communities, commercial and ecological importance, availability
132 in the dataset, adequate catchability to the two bottom trawl gears, and the ability to fit
133 informative spatiotemporal distribution models to survey catch data. Taxa groupings were
134 defined from a prior northern Bering Sea analysis of bottom trawl surveys conducted from 2010-
135 2021 (Markowitz et al., 2022). These taxa groupings were important representatives of the
136 demersal marine community as identified by Bering Sea native communities (Markowitz et al.,
137 2022). We do not have similar distinctions for those communities living within the Chukchi Sea,
138 however these taxa groupings represent a diverse range of fish and invertebrate taxa in an area
139 proximal to the Chukchi Sea via the Bering Strait. Taxa were further filtered to those with
140 reasonably high catchability for each of the two gears (Lauth et al., in review) and models were
141 fit separately for each taxon and gear type to reflect those differences in catchability.

142 Table 1: List of the fish and invertebrate taxa and associated gears included in the analysis.

Scientific Name	Common Name	Gear
<i>Pleuronectes quadrituberculatus</i>	Alaska plaice	otter trawl
<i>Boreogadus saida</i>	Arctic cod	beam and otter trawl
<i>Hippoglossoides robustus</i>	Bering flounder	beam and otter trawl
Family: Zoarchidae	eelpouts	beam trawl
Family: Agonidae	poachers	beam and otter trawl
Family: Stichaeidae	pricklebacks	beam trawl
<i>Eleginops gracilis</i>	saffron cod	beam and otter trawl
Family: Cottidae	sculpins	beam and otter trawl
Family: Liparidae	snailfishes	beam and otter trawl
<i>Gadus chalcogrammus</i>	walleye pollock	otter trawl
<i>Limanda aspera</i>	yellowfin sole	otter trawl
Phylum: Bryozoa	bryozoans	beam trawl
Class: Scyphozoa	jellyfishes	beam and otter trawl
<i>Asterias amurensis</i>	purple-orange sea star	beam and otter trawl

Scientific Name	Common Name	Gear
Class: Gastropoda	snails	beam and otter trawl
<i>Chionoecetes opilio</i>	snow crab	beam and otter trawl
Class: Anthozoa	soft corals and sea anemones	beam and otter trawl
Subphylum: Tunicata	tunicates	beam trawl

143

Conditioning and Operating Models

144 We conditioned univariate spatiotemporal distribution models on historical catch and effort
 145 survey data for a particular gear and taxon using the VAST (vector-autoregressive
 146 spatiotemporal) R Package [v. 4.0.2; Thorson and Barnett (2017); Thorson (2019)]. The VAST
 147 model is a spatiotemporal generalized linear mixed-effects model where Gaussian Markov
 148 random effects describe spatial and/or spatiotemporal variation (spatial variation that is constant
 149 or time-varying, respectively) in density and temporal variation in the mean density is modeled
 150 as a fixed effect of survey year. Continuous spatial and/or spatiotemporal random fields were
 151 approximated using the INLA R package [www.r-inla.org; Rue et al. (2009)] using a mesh with
 152 200 spatial “knots” where the values of spatial variables between knot locations are calculated
 153 via bilinear interpolation. Spatiotemporal fields were modeled as independent and identically
 154 distributed among years. If a model with spatiotemporal variation included resulted in a
 155 decreased (i.e. \geq 2-unit decrease) AIC value relative to the model estimated with just spatial
 156 variation, it was chosen as the operating model for a taxon/gear combination. The “Poisson-link”
 157 reformulation of a conventional delta model was used (Thorson, 2018), and a gamma distribution
 158 was specified for modeling biomass density.

159 The density ($kgkm^{-2}$) of each taxon was predicted onto the Chukchi spatial domain based on
 160 the maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters of the chosen model for each gear type. The
 161 total abundance index (I_{st}) of taxon s in year t was calculated using an epsilon bias-correction
 162 technique (Thorson and Kristensen, 2016) and represents the “true” abundance from which to
 163 evaluate the design-based abundance indices of the different surveys tested. Using the fitted
 164 spatiotemporal model as an operating model, population densities were simulated for each taxon
 165 with observation error to represent samples obtained by simulating surveys under different
 166 sampling designs in the “Survey Simulation” section below.

167

Survey designs

168 Three survey designs were tested: SRS, STRS, and a fixed-station systematic grid under a range
 169 of total sampling effort from roughly 50 - 175 total stations. Distance from shore and latitude
 170 were used as stratum variables for the STRS designs and the SamplingStrata R package
 171 (Barcaroli, 2014) was used to optimize the placement of stratum boundaries and allocation of
 172 effort across strata subject to user-defined pre-specified precision targets for each taxon. A full
 173 explanation of the optimization methods can be found in (Barcaroli, 2014) and an application of
 174 the STRS survey design optimization in the Gulf of Alaska is described in Oyafuso et al. (2021,
 175 2022). Appendix A provides more detail into how the STRS optimization was parameterized for
 176 the Chukchi BTS. For each gear type we optimized stratum boundaries for three- and four-
 177 stratum solutions, as this range of strata created the most reasonable solutions given the range of
 178 sample sizes analyzed.

179

Survey Simulation

180 The estimated abundance index \widehat{I}_{st} for taxon s in year t and associated variance for the three
 181 designs were calculated following Wakabayashi et al. (1985):

$$182 \quad \widehat{I}_{st} = \sum_l^L A_l \overline{CPUE}_{lst}$$

$$183 \quad Var(\widehat{I}_{st}) = \sum_l^L A_l^2 Var(\overline{CPUE}_{lst})$$

184 where \overline{CPUE}_{lst} is the mean CPUE (units $kg km^{-2}$) in stratum l (L total strata), taxon s , and year
 185 t and A_l is the total area (units km^2) of stratum l .

186 The above equations can be used for calculating total abundance and variance under SRS and
 187 SYS by assuming one stratum, $L = 1$. While some studies indicate more appropriate variance
 188 estimators for systematic designs (e.g., Aune-Lundberg and Strand, 2014), the naive approach of
 189 assuming SRS estimators was used to calculate the abundance index and variance for the SYS
 190 simulations.

191 Each survey was replicated for $M = 1,000$ iterations. It was assumed that all sampling units
 192 were available for trawling, however in practice, variation in bottom rugosity and currents may
 193 render some sampling units untrawlable (i.e., unavailable to the sampling frame). Due to the
 194 limited data used to condition the operating model, high positive outliers in density masked the
 195 trends in the performance metrics. Thus, prior to calculating the performance metrics, positive
 196 outliers greater than three standard deviations above the mean among survey replicates were
 197 removed.

198 Performance metrics

199 Three performance metrics were used to evaluate survey designs. The True CV ($TrueCV_{st}$) is
 200 the variability of the estimated abundance index across the survey replicates and is defined as the
 201 standard deviation of the estimated indices of abundance normalized by the true value, $\frac{\sqrt{Var(\widehat{I}_{st})}}{\widehat{I}_{st}}$,
 202 where \widehat{I}_{st} refers to the vector of estimated indices for taxon s and year t across the M replicates.
 203 The True CV provides two pieces of information about the precision of the survey design: 1) if
 204 the True CV is low for simulated densities generated from one type of survey (e.g., SRS), that is
 205 an indication that the survey is appropriate for a species with that type of distribution (i.e., the
 206 data quality is high); and 2) A very low True CV can indicate that any survey will have a hard
 207 time estimating the variability in the density of the target species, in which case the relative root-
 208 mean-square error (RRMSE) of the CV is a useful diagnostic for determining whether a
 209 proposed survey can provide a reliable estimate of CV. The RRMSE of CV is defined as

210 $\frac{\sqrt{\sum_m^M (CV_{stm} - TrueCV_{st})^2 / M}}{\widehat{CV}_{st}}$ where \widehat{CV}_{st} refers to the vector of estimated sample CVs for taxon s and
 211 year t across the M replicates. Lastly, bias is the residual of a quantity relative to its assumed
 212 “true” value. Bias of the estimated index of abundance from a sample is relative to the assumed

213 true index conditioned by the data. Bias of the estimated sample CVs associated with the index
214 of abundance is relative to the True CV.

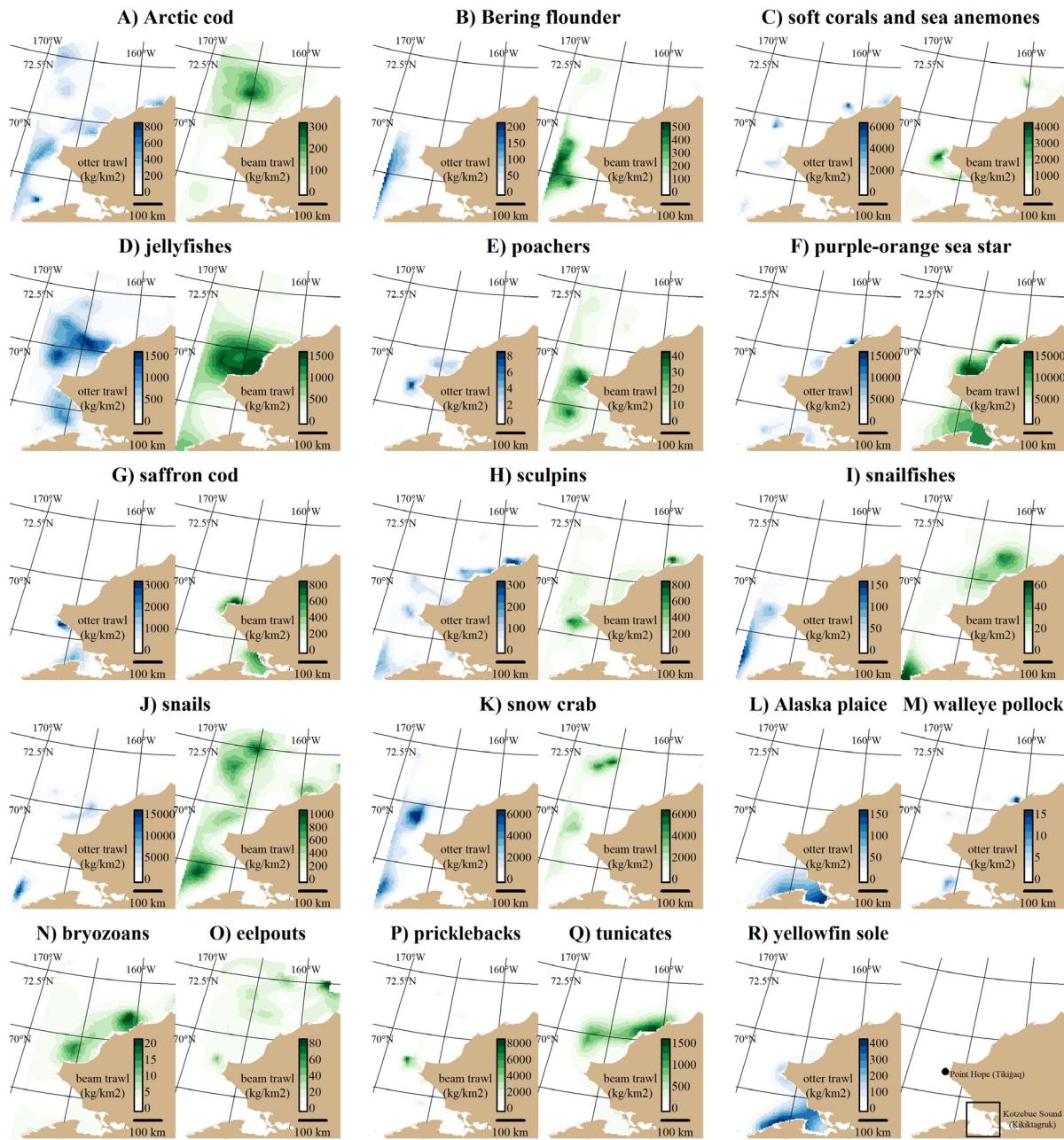
215 Code repository

216 The code used to perform this analysis and format this manuscript is currently stored in a code
217 repository in Z. Oyafuso's NOAA GitHub account and can be accessed at
218 https://github.com/zoyafuso-NOAA/chukchi_survey_evaluation.

219 **Results**

220 Species Distributions

221 The species included in this analysis exhibited a diversity of spatiotemporal distributions (Figure
222 1; see Appendix B for full spatiotemporal distributions and diagnostic plots). Alaska plaice
223 (Figure 1L), saffron cod (Figure 1G), and yellowfin sole (Figure 1R) were restricted to the
224 southeastern portion of the domain which includes Kotzebue Sound. Bryozoans (Figure 1N),
225 tunicates (Figure 1Q), sculpins (Figure 1H), poachers (Figure 1E) and jellyfishes (Figure 1D)
226 were more commonly observed in the middle of the domain around Point Hope. Purple-orange
227 sea stars (Figure 1F) had a broad nearshore distribution along much of the coastline of the
228 domain whereas eelpouts (Figure 1O), snailfishes (Figure 1I), and Bering flounder (Figure 1B)
229 had more offshore distributions along the western edge of the domain. Snails were commonly
230 observed across the spatial domain across both gears (Appendix B14). Arctic cod were
231 commonly observed with broad distributions across the domain (Figure 1A), although with
232 higher densities at beam trawl stations in the northern part of the domain in 2019 compared to
233 beam trawl stations in 2012 and 2017 (Appendix B2). Soft corals and sea anemones (Figure 1C)
234 and walleye pollock (uncommonly observed; Figure 1M) had patchier distributions. Snow crab
235 had higher offshore densities near the western boundary of the domain (Figure 1K) but were
236 present in high densities in the northern part of the domain as well (Appendix B15).



237

238 Figure 1: Predicted densities ($kg\text{km}^{-2}$) for each taxon under each gear type shown for the most
 239 recent survey year for a given gear type (2012 for the otter trawl (blue gradient) and 2019 for the
 240 beam trawl (green gradient)). Some taxa under a particular bottom trawl gear did not have a
 241 spatiotemporal distribution model (see Table 1 for specifications).

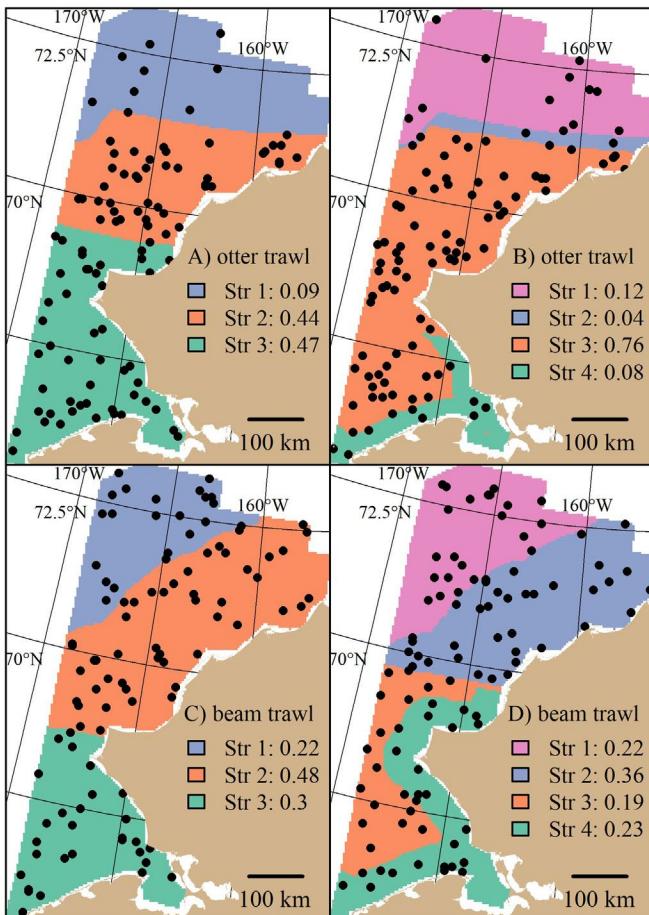
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Multispecies STRS Design Optimization

243 Stratum boundaries of both otter and beam trawl survey optimizations generally separated the
 244 domain of the Chukchi Sea into two latitudinal sections split at roughly 69 and 70 degrees N
 245 latitude (Figure 2). The three-stratum otter trawl solution (Figure 2A) consists of two latitudinal
 246 boundaries at roughly 70 and 71 degrees N latitude. The four-stratum otter trawl solution (Figure

247 2B) shares the northern latitudinal boundary at 71 degrees N latitude but also adds a nearshore
248 stratum in the southern part of the domain. The three-stratum beam trawl solution (Figure 2C)
249 has a southern stratum with a northern boundary at roughly 69 degrees N latitude and two
250 inshore/offshore strata in the northern section of the domain. The four-stratum beam trawl
251 solution (Figure 2D) is similar to the three-stratum beam trawl solution but two inshore/offshore
252 strata in the southern section of the domain.

253 Sampling densities for the otter trawl STRS designs were generally higher in the southern and
254 central strata and less so in the northern strata. Sampling densities for the beam trawl solutions
255 were proportional to stratum area. For the subsequent survey simulation section, the four-stratum
256 solution for the beam trawl and the three-stratum solution for the otter trawl were used as the
257 representatives of the STRS design in the survey simulations.



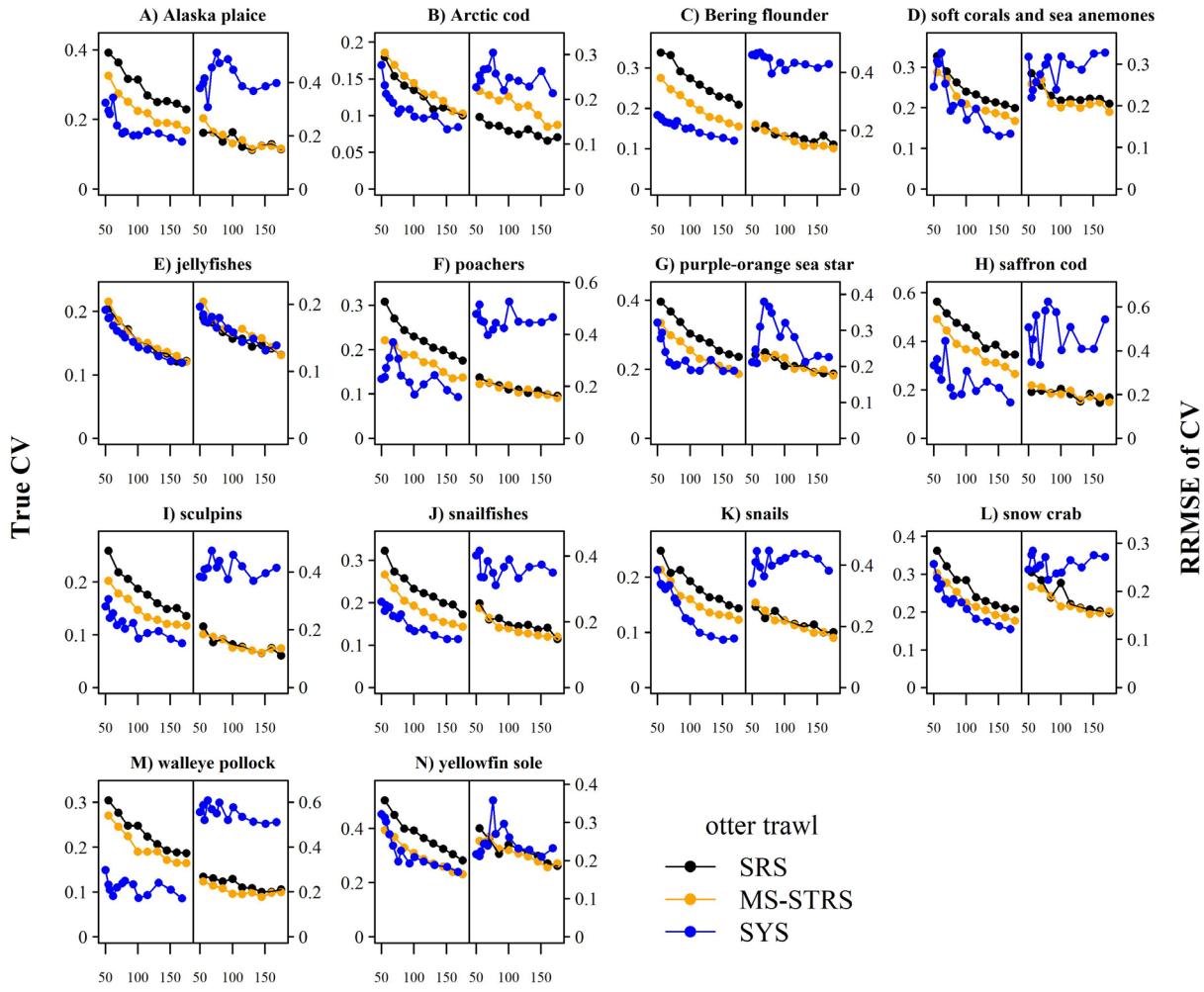
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259 Figure 2: Stratified random designs resulting from the stratified random design optimization
260 algorithm using three and four strata for the otter ((A) and (B)) and beam ((C) and (D)) trawl
261 gears. Distance to shore and latitude characterize the different strata. An example of 100 stations
262 randomly drawn from the optimal allocation are superimposed as points. The proportion of
263 stations allocated across strata are shown in the legend.

264

Survey Performance

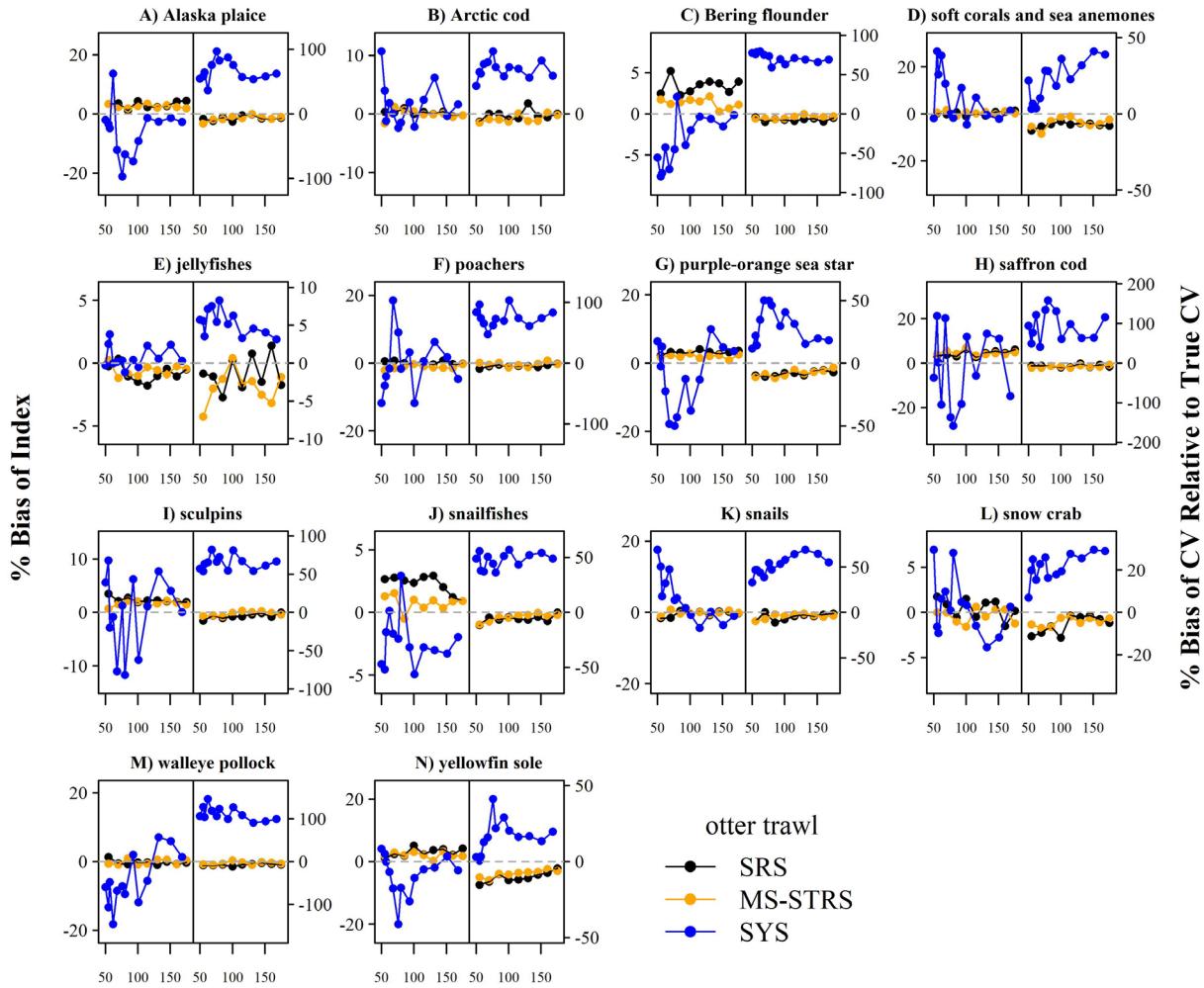
265 The random designs (SRS and STRS) monotonically decreased in True CV with increased
266 sample size for both gears. Since CV and precision are conversely related (lower True CV is
267 interpreted as higher precision and vice versa), we will describe survey performance using both
268 terms. The STRS designs often provided lower True CVs than the SRS designs at equivalent
269 sample sizes, especially for taxa collected via the otter trawl (Figure 3). The increase in precision
270 from a random to a stratified design was less for the taxa sampled with the beam trawl, with
271 many taxa performing similarly to the SRS design (Figure 5). Given the limited data used to
272 condition the operating model, the inconsistent +/- 5% bias observed with the estimated index is
273 fairly low (Figures 4 and 6).

274 The SYS design often provided the lowest True CVs compared to the two random designs;
275 however, this design displayed inconsistent behavior, as the True CV did not always decrease
276 with sample size. Furthermore, there was a tradeoff observed for many taxa under both gears,
277 where lower True CVs were associated with much higher RRMSE of CV (Figures 3 and 5). The
278 higher RRMSE of CV of the fixed systematic grid was attributed to a high positive bias of the
279 simulated sample CVs relative to the True CV (Figures 4 and 6). The average bias of the
280 abundance indices for the SYS designs across taxa were not consistent across total sample size,
281 with as much as a 25% fluctuation in average bias (Figures 4 and 6).



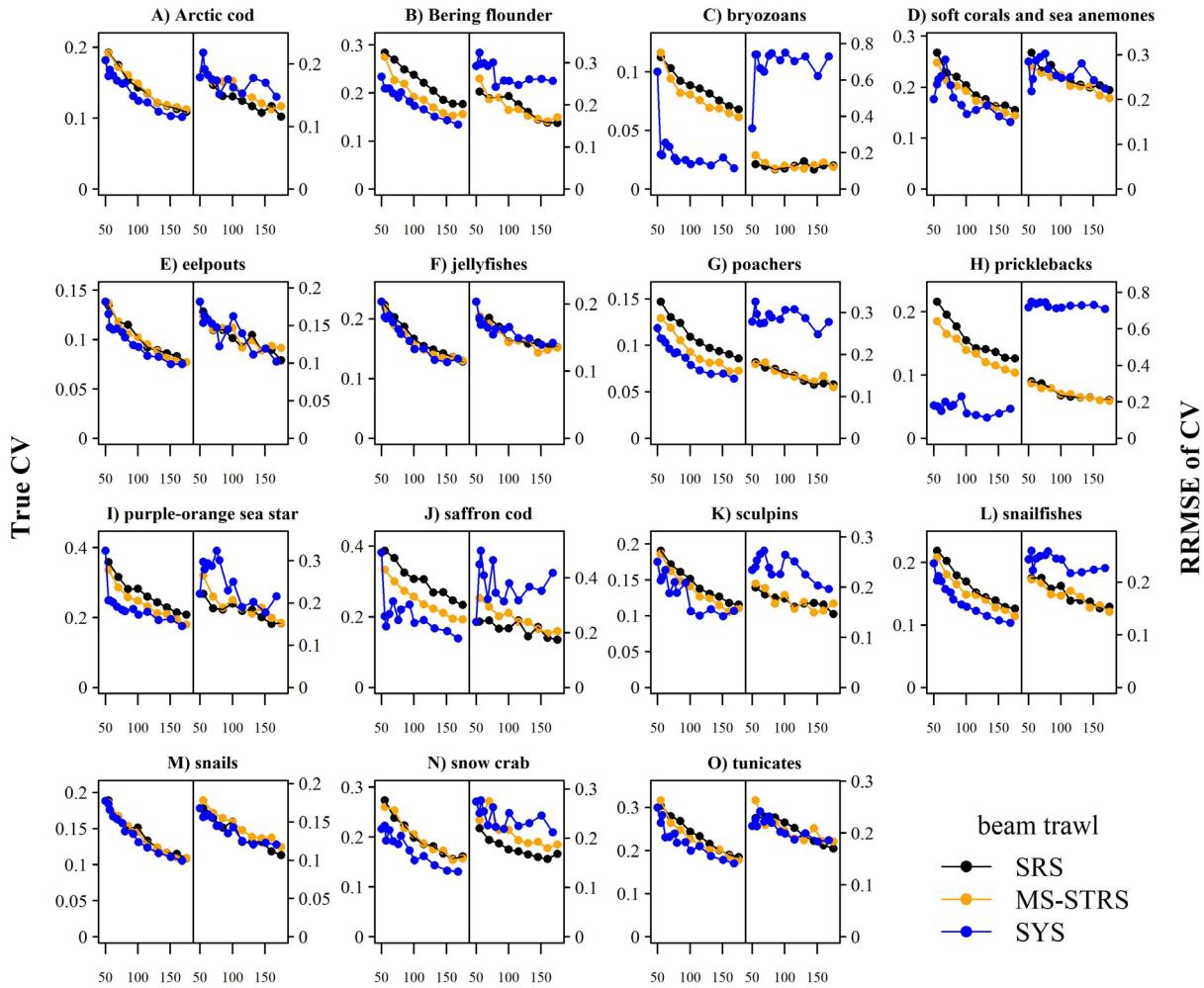
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Figure 3: True CV (left-side of panel) and relative root mean square error (RRMSE) of CV (right-side of panel) across a range of total sampling effort for each taxon and survey design for the otter trawl gear. SRS: simple random sampling; MS-STRS: stratified random sampling optimized over the species set; SYS: fixed-grid systematic sampling.



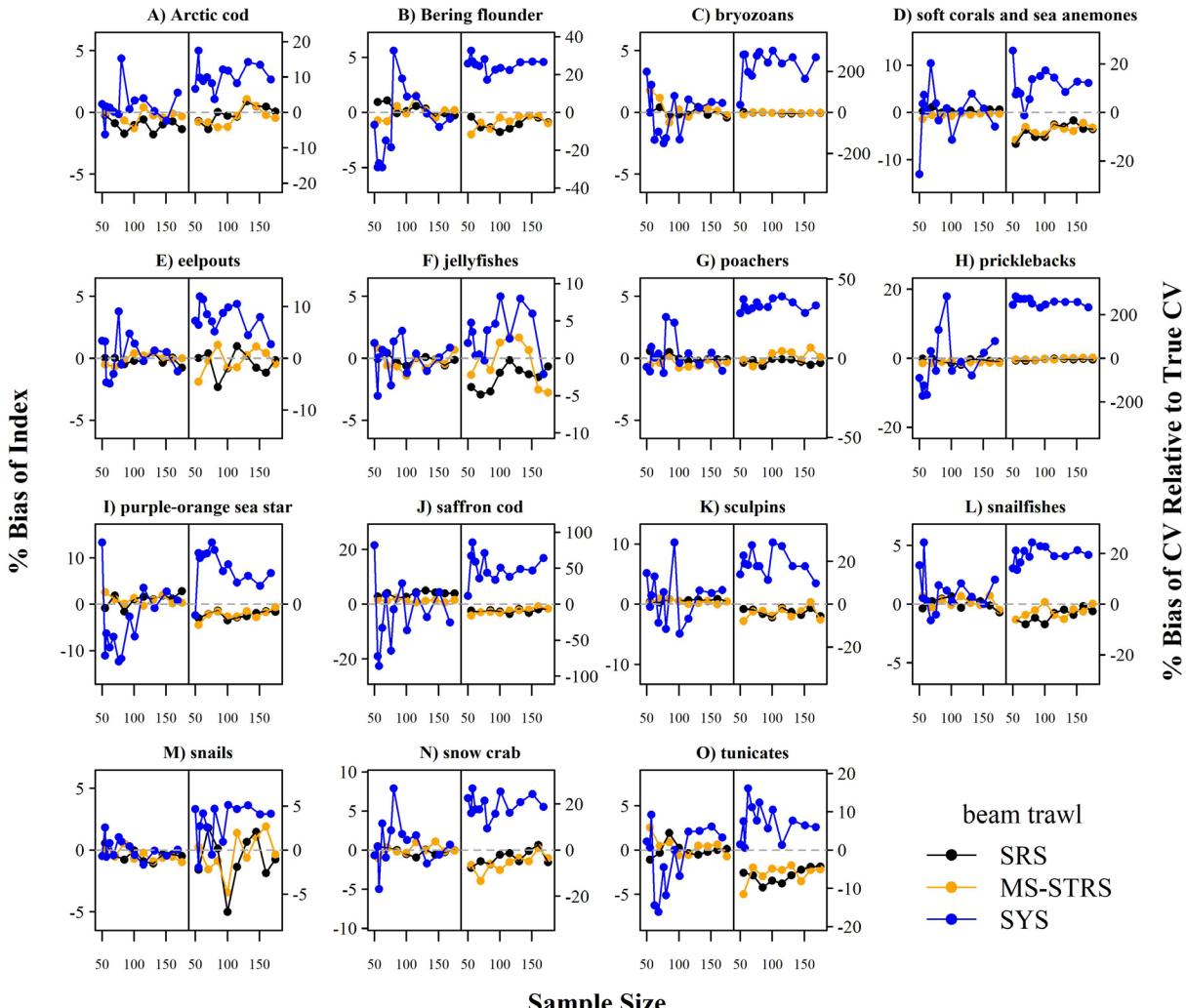
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Figure 4: Average percent bias of the 1) estimated abundance relative to the true abundance (left-side of panel) and 2) estimated sample coefficient of variation (CV) relative to the True CV (right-side of panel) across sample size for each taxon and survey design for the otter trawl gear. SRS: simple random sampling; MS-STRS: stratified random sampling optimized over the species set; SYS: fixed-grid systematic sampling.



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Figure 5: True CV (left-side of panel) and relative root mean square error (RRMSE) of CV (right-side of panel) across a range of total sampling effort for each taxon and survey design for the beam trawl gear. SRS: simple random sampling; MS-STRS: stratified random sampling optimized over the species set; SYS: fixed-grid systematic sampling.



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Figure 6: Average percent bias of the 1) estimated abundance relative to the true abundance (left-side of panel) and 2) estimated sample coefficient of variation (CV) relative to the True CV (right-side of panel) across sample size for each taxon and survey design for the beam trawl gear. SRS: simple random sampling; MS-STRS: stratified random sampling optimized over the species set; SYS: fixed-grid systematic sampling.

304

Discussion

305 When considering changes to ecological surveys, one must weigh the advantages of consistency
306 with historical designs in the same or adjacent regions against potential gains in efficiency and
307 flexibility of a new design. A SYS design, as currently implemented in the Bering Sea BTS, may
308 be a logical choice for a Chukchi BTS as a natural extension to the established Bering Sea SYS
309 design. Surveys conducted under a SYS design provide good spatial coverage of the sampling
310 domain and can thus be advantageous in the early, data-limited stages of a survey time series.
311 Having evenly spaced sampling stations is also logically advantageous, in that the completion
312 rate of stations per day is more consistent than with stations chosen under randomized designs.
313 When minimizing the survey CV is the top priority, systematic survey designs should ideally be

314 created with random starting locations to slightly vary the locations of stations within the
315 sampling frame. However, the SYS design as currently implemented in all Bering Sea BTS is the
316 most practical survey design due to those aforementioned logistical survey planning advantages.

317 The main tradeoff of the logistical advantages of the SYS design was the reduced quality of the
318 statistical data products that might result from such a design, as observed in our simulation
319 testing. We found that randomized designs provided more reliable estimates of abundance and
320 precision than SYS designs for the US Chukchi Sea. While the True CV for many taxa were
321 lower under SYS, the estimates of the variance were less reliable (i.e., RRMSE of CV) when
322 compared to both randomized designs. The tradeoff between the RRMSE of CV and True CV
323 has been shown previously in the Gulf of Alaska when comparing proposed optimized STRS
324 designs with historical STRS designs using similar simulation testing (Oyafuso et al., 2022).
325 Variance is a critical measure of the quality of a survey and can be used as a data weight in stock
326 assessment models, however the estimation of variance can be unreliable depending on the
327 design of the survey, along with other considerations like variation in catchability (Kotwicki and
328 Ono, 2019). The stratified random designs created in our analysis provided an advantageous
329 combination of increased precision relative to SRS and increased reliability of the estimated CVs
330 relative to the True CVs.

331 A challenge of designing STRS surveys in a region like the Chukchi Sea with highly dynamic
332 oceanographic conditions is that historical data to inform the design (i.e., stratification and effort
333 allocation across strata) may not represent the current ecosystem state, similar to the challenge of
334 forecasting species distributions to novel environmental conditions due to climate change
335 (Brodie et al., 2022). While the last NMFS beam trawl survey in the Chukchi Sea occurred in
336 2019, the most recent Chukchi Sea NMFS otter trawl survey occurred in 2012. Within the same
337 range of time (i.e., the last ten years), there have been significant poleward shifts in the
338 distributions of many subarctic taxa common to the Bering Sea (Kotwicki and Lauth, 2013;
339 Stevenson and Lauth, 2019b; Maznikova et al., 2023a) but previously seldom observed in the
340 Chukchi Sea, including many Bering Sea gadids like walleye pollock (Datsky et al., 2022;
341 Wildes et al., 2022). With continued sampling of the region, the design of a STRS survey could
342 be easily modified to reflect the species distributions observed in more recent years. The
343 discussion of the range of years to include when planning surveys is outside the scope of this
344 paper, however our approach to updating STRS designs is amenable to testing and planning
345 STRS designs that incorporate varying ranges of years to provide more weight to contemporary
346 data.

347 We investigated survey designs implemented with both otter and beam trawl gears in order to
348 anticipate survey designs consistent with the standardized bottom trawl gears used for NMFS-
349 AFSC BTS. The patterns among survey designs previously discussed were present in both the
350 beam and otter trawl gears. However, there were some differences in the optimized STRS
351 designs calculated for each gear type. The STRS designs for both gears had similar stratifications
352 that split the Chukchi spatial domain by two or three latitudinal regions and inshore/offshore
353 strata. However, the sampling densities for the otter trawl solutions were higher in the southern
354 and central strata compared to the northern strata whereas the beam trawl sampling densities
355 were nearly proportional to stratum area. As a result, the performance of the STRS beam trawl
356 survey abundance estimates were similar to the SRS design with some improvement in True CV
357 for a handful of taxa (e.g., Bering flounder, pricklebacks, saffron cod). We presume that the
358 expected gains in precision that come from stratification were diminished because of the strong

359 tradeoffs that exist when optimizing over a wide set of taxa with non-overlapping spatiotemporal
360 distributions.

361 The list of taxa to include in survey planning is an important decision process and should be a
362 part of broader discussions about survey objectives. We curated our taxa list by first considering
363 taxa that can be appropriately sampled by either the otter and/or beam trawl gears (Lauth et al.,
364 in review). We then considered commercial importance given the distribution shifts of
365 commercially important Bering Sea species into the Chukchi Sea as well as species like Arctic
366 cod that have been observed to be trophically important in the Chukchi Sea for various seabirds
367 and marine mammals (Kokubun et al., 2015; Quakenbush et al., 2015; Florko et al., 2021).
368 Lastly, it is critical to engage with stakeholders to consider their values and understand how to
369 monitor species of direct and indirect (e.g., dependent prey) importance to the resources they use.
370 In the US Chukchi Sea, the primary stakeholders are coastal Alaska Native communities. Marine
371 mammals are important to Alaska Native communities for subsistence and cultural value and
372 while trawl surveys cannot monitor marine mammals, they can be used to monitor prey species
373 on which these marine mammals depend. We have used information learned from Alaska Native
374 communities representing the northern Bering Sea (Markowitz et al., 2022) to identify species
375 used for subsistence or other purposes. Furthermore, we have begun more extensive efforts to
376 consult with Alaska Native communities in the US Arctic to further tailor potential monitoring
377 efforts to align with their values. In summary, we recommend that ecosystem monitoring surveys
378 be designed with thorough consideration of the values and objectives of all major components of
379 the socio-ecological system and how these relate to the limitations of what can be effectively
380 monitored with the observational methods available.

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