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# Testing novel methods for short-term forecasting of European glass eel recruitment 

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#### Abstract

:

Recruitment forecasting constitutes a major issue in population dynamics, especially in stock assessments. In many cases, high recruitment stochasticity thwarts the determination of a


stock-recruitment (SR) relationship. When no SR relationship is available, recruitments can be projected from past trends using methods such as the geometric means of the past recruitments. This approach implicitly assumes stability in upcoming years and might not be appropriate in the case of regime shifts. Recruitment forecasting is particularly critical when predicting fishing opportunities for recruitment fisheries. The fishery of glass European eels (Anguilla anguilla) is an example of a recruitment fishery. The French glass eel fishery, which is currently guided by two models to forecast upcoming recruitments and derive fishing opportunities, has failed to achieve management targets. This study develops new models that forecast glass eel recruitments without assumptions about the SR relationship, and with flexible assumptions about future recruitment evolutions. Tests based on multiple criteria found the best performance in a random slope model, which provides flexibility to track recruitment dynamics while balancing the interests of fisheries, management and conservation. This model has wide potential for trend projections in natural resource management, economics and other fields.

Keywords: Recruitment forecasting, Bayesian stock assessment, random walk, multicriteria, European eel

## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Recruitment: a key element in population dynamics

Understanding and quantifying the renewal of populations is important, especially for exploited species, such as fish, for which renewal is a critical process in the sustainability of the fishery. Among the many ecological processes, such as mortality (both natural and anthropogenic) and biomass growth, the fishery population dynamics rely on recruitment,
i.e., offspring resulting from reproduction that become harvestable by the fishery (Mangel et al., 2010). Fish recruitment is typically highly variable since it depends on both biotic (prey, predators) and abiotic factors (temperature, currents) (Maunder and Thorson, 2019; Miller et al., 2009; Myers, 1998; Subbey et al., 2014) and is sensitive to regime shifts (Ljunggren et al., 2010; Mueter et al., 2007; Perretti et al., 2017). In this context, recruitment modeling, and its temporal variation, plays a critical role in estimating future abundance and in setting biological reference points that guide sustainable harvesting (Cury et al., 2014; Maunder and Thorson, 2019; Subbey et al., 2014; Sydeman et al., 2018).

### 1.2 Forecasting short-term recruitment

Stock-recruitment (SR) relationships can be used to predict recruitments arising from a given spawning biomass (Beverton and Holt, 1993; Hilborn and Stokes, 2010; Ricker, 1954). In practice, it is often difficult to discern the nature of an SR relationship and to estimate its parameters (Myers, 1998; Stocker and Noakes, 1988; Sydeman et al., 2018). Errors in the choice of such relationships can undermine the reliability of a fishery stock assessments (Hilborn and Walters, 2013; Maunder and Deriso, 2003; Myers, 2001; Plagányi et al., 2019).

When no clear SR relationship has been established for a stock (ICES, 2003), forecasting recruitments generally requires making assumptions regarding recent and future trends. The geometric mean of recent recruitments is often used in such short-term recruitment forecasts (ICES, 2006; Needle, 2001). Environmental information (e.g., the use of an upwelling index) or the empirical coupling of environmental and biotic information can also improve forecasts (Needle, 2001). Since long-term temporal trends have been
observed for many stocks (Gascuel et al., 2016; STECF, 2022), the use of methods not accounting for regime shifts could lead to potential biases in management recommendations.

### 1.3 Recruitment fishery

Assumptions about future recruitments are fundamental in the process of estimating fishing opportunities. They are even more crucial for a fishery exploiting the young of the year or juveniles, called a recruitment fishery, since fishing opportunity estimations directly depend on the reliability of these assumptions.

### 1.4 Case study: the European eel (Anguilla anguilla) recruitment fishery

The glass eel fishery of the European eel (Anguilla anguilla) is an example of a recruitment fishery (Briand et al., 2008; Dekker, 2003, 2002). The European eel is a facultatively catadromous species that reproduces in a unique spawning ground in the Sargasso Sea (Wright et al., 2022). European eel larvae are transported across the Atlantic Ocean through oceanic currents and metamorphose into glass eels as they reach the continental shelves from Norway to Morocco, including the Mediterranean and Baltic basins (Tesch, 2003). The arrival of glass eels in the continental waters compels recruitment. The eels enter the continental waters, turning into yellow eels, and colonize a large range of habitats from saline to fresh water (Arai and Chino, 2012; Daverat et al., 2006). After a growth phase, they metamorphose into silver eels and migrate back to the spawning ground (Righton et al., 2016). Despite its large distribution area, the European eel is panmictic (Als et al., 2011). The species is targeted by commercial and recreational fisheries throughout its continental life stages (Dekker, 2019).

Glass eel recruitment declined by approximately $15 \%$ per year from 1980 to 2010, remaining at a low level (Dekker, 2019; ICES, 2022; Moriarty, 1990). In 2000, the fishery was declared outside safe biological limits due to impaired recruitment and threatened stock renewal (ICES, 2001). The European eel was added to Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora in 2007 (CITES, 2007) and has been listed as critically endangered by the International Union for Conservation of Nature since 2008 (Freyhof and Kottelat, 2008). In 2007, the European Council adopted Regulation No. 1100/2007, known as the Eel Regulation, requiring member states to establish Eel Management Plans (EMPs) in their national waters that aimed at reducing anthropogenic mortalities at all life stages (EU, 2007). The French EMP goal was to reduce mortality by $40 \%$ (glass eel) or $30 \%$ (yellow and silver eels) in the first three years of the plan, and by $60 \%$ by 2015 for each stage mentioned previously (the harvest rate being used to quantify the mortality). To reduce the fishing mortality of glass eels, France enforced measures including a national glass eel Total Allowable Catch (TAC) system for commercial fisheries (Ministère de l'Ecologie, de l'Energie, du Développement durable et de l'Aménagement du Territoire et al., 2010). In the absence of an established SR relationship, the Scientific Committee uses two recruitment models based on past abundance indices to forecast upcoming recruitments to support the determination of a glass eel TAC that will produce the needed reduction in anthropogenic mortality (Beaulaton et al., 2020). However, the management target has not been achieved since 2015, questioning the quality of these short-term forecast models and their underlying assumptions.

### 1.5 Devising and comparing short-term recruitment forecast models

Devising recruitment models that are robust to departures from their underlying assumptions is a key challenge (here, we used "robustness" as defined by Box (1979), i.e., the property that makes model outcomes insensitive to departures from ideal assumptions). In the context of an undefined SR relationship and past recruitment knowledge, this paper proposes two new recruitment models with flexible recruitment evolution assumptions to produce robust short-term recruitment forecasts. Furthermore, this work presents a model comparison strategy based on new criteria for assessing the implications of model outcomes for conservation, management and exploitation. This work is undertaken through a recruitment fishery case study: the European eel (Anguilla anguilla) recruitment fishery.

## 2 Material and Methods

In this work, we considered ourselves to be in the position of the Scientific Committee of 2020, which met during summer 2020 and was in charge of providing advice for the 20202021 fishing season.

### 2.1 Glass eel fishery data

### 2.1.1 Recruitment time series

Using recruitment time series collected from widely distributed monitoring sites and due to varying regional time series trends in these series, the Working Group on Eels (WGEEL) uses a General Linear Model (GLM) to derive two glass eel recruitment indices,
the "North Sea" and "Elsewhere Europe" (i.e., Europe excluding the North Sea and Baltic Sea) indices from 1980 to 2019 (ICES, 2022; ICES and EIFAC, 2010). The reconstructed values are given in reference to the geometric mean of the period 1960-1979. While these recruitment indices are considered to be good indicators of the population status, the complex ecology of the species hinders the derivation of abundance indices at later life stages, including spawning stock biomass (Drouineau et al., 2016; ICES, 2022). As such, while recruitment trends are well documented, attempts to fit SR relationships have not been successful (Dekker, 2004; ICES, 2013). Since the "Elsewhere Europe" index covers France and includes several French time series (ICES, 2022), it is thought to describe past evolution recruitments in France. Therefore, it was used as a recruitment estimate in this study (Fig. 1). Since the Scientific Committee focuses on the 1980-2019 recruitment period to make its forecast consistent with their model assumptions, the dataset is restricted to the post-1980 time range. The 1980 recruitment value is taken as a reference value and set at 100 , so upcoming annual recruitments are calculated as a percentage of this reference value. Since glass eels reach continental French waters between November and April (ICES, 2020), the annual recruitment is spread over two calendar years (e.g., glass eel arrivals between November 2018 and April 2019, also called season 2019). For simplicity, season " $t$ " refers to the season spread over years $t-1$ and $t$.


Fig. 1. Recruitment estimates used in this study: the "Elsewhere Europe" recruitment index from 1980 to 2019 (ICES WGEEL 2019); it uses base 100 for the 1980 season.

### 2.1.2 Landing data

French glass eel landing data reported to the WGEEL from 1980 to 2020 were used (catches from 2009 were missing). The harvest rate corresponds to the annual ratio between landings data and recruitment. Since recruitment is a relative index (i.e., a dimensionless variable rather than an absolute estimate of abundance or biomass), the ratio of the landings data and the recruitment index gives a relative harvest rate index, with a mean reference harvest rate index calculated over the period 2004-2008 and defined as the 100 baseline (Beaulaton et al., 2020).

### 2.2 Recruitment forecasting models

### 2.2.1 General principle

In France, the Scientific Committee in charge of recommending TACs for the forthcoming $t+1$ fishing season generally meets in early summer $t$. At this point, recruitment data are available up to season $t-1$ (since fishing season $t$ is not yet finished). Therefore, the Scientific Committee needs to forecast recruitments for seasons $t$ and $t+1$ to support fishing opportunities for season $t+1$. To provide first insights on the recruitment level of the ongoing season $t$, the Scientific Committee collects qualitative feedback from professional fishermen, associations in charge of on-field scientific monitoring of diadromous fish, environmental inspectors, and foreign scientists. This qualitative information allows building minimum and maximum recruitment values for fishing season $t$ as compared to the previous season, which are then used as a censor interval in Bayesian forecasting models. In accordance with the general pattern observed by the Scientific Committee, and since the 2020 season is uncompleted, recruitment in 2020 is equivalent to recruitment in 2019 (e.g., 5.3) but with a substantial uncertainty interval (e.g., $5.3 \pm 3$ ) (Beaulaton et al., 2020). Based on the WGEEL "Elsewhere Europe" recruitment index from 1980 to 2019, and on the qualitative expert feedback for 2020, the recruitment models are able to forecast the upcoming recruitment.

### 2.2.2 Existing glass eel recruitment models: single-trend and two-trend models

- Modeling framework

To forecast glass eel recruitment, two models fitted in a Bayesian framework have been developed by the Scientific Committee and have been in use since 2014. Both models have a
yearly time step (Beaulaton et al., 2020). They are fitted to the WGEEL "Elsewhere Europe" recruitment index from 1980 to 2019, considering the censor season for 2020.

- Introduction of the two existing recruitment models

This first recruitment model, called the single-trend (ST) model, postulates that recruitment changes exponentially at a constant rate. Thus, recruitment is assumed to vary linearly with a unique slope coefficient $a$ in the $\log$ scale. Perturbations are autocorrelated in time to reflect the fact that recruitment above the decreasing central trend is generally followed by recruitment above the central trend (Beaulaton et al., 2020):

$$
\begin{gathered}
1 \text { For } t \text { in [1980; 2022], } I R_{t} \sim \operatorname{Ln}\left(\mu_{I R_{t}}, \sigma_{I R}^{2}\right) \\
\mu_{I R_{t}}=\mu_{I R_{0}}+a . t+\rho \cdot \varepsilon_{t} \\
\varepsilon_{t}=\log \left(I R_{t-1}\right)-\left[\mu_{I R_{0}}+a .(t-1)\right]
\end{gathered}
$$

where $I R_{t}$ is the recruitment index for year $t$ that follows a lognormal distribution of mean $\mu_{I R_{t}}$ and variance $\sigma_{I R}^{2}\left(\log\right.$ scale). $\mu_{I R_{0}}$ is an initialization parameter, $a$ is the recruitment slope, $\varepsilon_{t}$ is the annual autocorrelated random disturbance and $\rho$ is its autocorrelation coefficient.

Due to a possible change in trends in recent years (ICES, 2019), the Scientific Committee proposed an alternative recruitment model in 2014. This model postulates a change in the recruitment trend in 2012, as it is the first year in which the implementation of EMPs could have had an effect on recruitment (Beaulaton et al., 2020). Two recruitment slopes $a_{l}$ (before 2012) and $a_{2}$ (since 2012) are considered. The two-trend (TT) model is defined as follows:

For $\mathbf{t}<2012$ (time period 1), $\mu_{I R_{t}}=\mu_{I R_{0}}+a_{1} \cdot t+\rho \cdot \varepsilon_{t_{1}}$

$$
\varepsilon_{t_{1}}=\log \left(I R_{t-1}\right)-\left[\mu_{I R_{0}}+a_{1} \cdot(t-1)\right]
$$

For $\mathbf{t} \geq 2012\left(\right.$ time period 2), $\mu_{I R_{t}}=\mu_{I R_{2011}}+a_{2} \cdot(t-2011)+\rho \cdot \varepsilon_{t_{2}}$

$$
\varepsilon_{t_{2}}=\log \left(I R_{t-1}\right)-\left[\mu_{I R_{2011}}+a_{2} \cdot(t-2011)\right]
$$

The variables are similar to the ones in the ST model (Equation 1). Then, $\varepsilon_{t_{1}}$ and $\varepsilon_{t_{2}}$ represent annual autocorrelated random disturbances depending on time periods (before or after 2012), and $\rho$ is the common autocorrelation coefficient. Models currently used to support glass eel TAC recommendations are innovative because of their integration of a long-term trend and a possible regime shift with the TT model. However, because of their rigid underlying assumptions on recruitment future evolution, both model outcomes critically depend on whether a regime shift occurred and whether it took place in 2012. Moreover, the TT model is open only to a regime shift in a specific year and not to any other regime shift.

### 2.2.3 Development of alternative glass eel recruitment models: the spike and slab model and the random slope model

Two new models were developed to address the limitations of the existing models.

### 2.2.3.1 Spike and slab model

In contrast to the TT model, the spike and slab (SS) model aims to objectively test for the existence of a change in slope in 2012.

- The spike and slab method

The spike and slab method is a Bayesian selection technique to identify the most relevant predictors of interest (George and McCulloch, 1993; Ishwaran and Rao, 2005; Titsias and Lázaro-Gredilla, 2011). It relies on a specific mixture of priors based on a binary indicator called $\gamma$, which quantifies, a posteriori, whether the variable of interest should be included in the model (George and McCulloch, 1993).

- Spike and slab model formulation

The spike and slab prior appears suitable for objectively assessing the existence of a change in the recruitment slope: it provides insights into whether a slope change actually took place in 2012. Similarly to the TT model (Beaulaton et al., 2020), a potential slope change is assumed to occur in 2012 in the SS model. A new variable diffa was introduced as the difference between the two slopes $a_{2}$ and $a_{1}$ :

$$
3 \quad \operatorname{dif} f_{a}=a_{2}-a_{1}
$$

Instead of setting the priors to $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ (as in the TT model), we set the priors to $a_{1}$ and $\operatorname{diff}_{a}:$

$$
\begin{gathered}
4 \quad \operatorname{diff}_{a} \sim N\left(0, \sigma_{d i f f_{a}}^{2}\right) \\
\sigma_{\text {diff }}^{a}= \\
2 \\
\hline .(1-\gamma)+d . \gamma \text { with } \mathrm{c}=1.10^{-4} \text { and } \mathrm{d}=3.10^{-2} \\
\gamma \sim \operatorname{Ber}(0.5)
\end{gathered}
$$

$\gamma$ is a binary value; when set to 0 , the diffa ${ }_{a}$ prior is narrow at approximately 0 , so $a_{2}$ is constrained to be similar to $a_{1}$; when set to 1 , the resulting prior promotes $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ distinct from 0 , so $a_{2}$ is distinct from $a_{1}$. Parameters $c$ and $d$ tune the mixture of the two normal distributions of the different priors. Following Ishwaran and Rao (2005), they were chosen to provide sufficiently distinct probability distributions to distinguish slope changes from slope conservation. A sensitivity analysis is provided in the Supplementary Material. Posterior distributions of $\gamma$ and diff $_{a}$ indicate whether the slope change should be included (mean of the $\gamma$ posterior distribution $\simeq 1$ and $\operatorname{diff}_{a} \neq 0$ ) or not (majority of $\gamma=0$ and $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ close to 0 ). With such priors, the SS model is the combination of the a posteriori distribution relative weights of situations where $\gamma=0$ (equivalent to the ST model) or $\gamma=1$ (equivalent to the TT model), and the ST and TT models are two subcases of the SS model.

### 2.2.3.2 The random slope recruitment model

The TT and SS models allow a change in the recruitment trend in a single specific year or no changes at all. An alternative option is to consider the recruitment slope as a timevarying random variable. Local linear trend models are widely used to model and predict macroeconomic time series (Delle Monache and Harvey, 2012). In such models, the slope is itself a time-varying random variable following a random walk. Therefore, the random slope (RS) model is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{gathered}
5 \text { For } \mathrm{t} \text { in [1980;2022], } I R_{t} \sim \operatorname{Ln}\left(\mu_{I R_{t}}, \sigma_{I R}^{2}\right) \\
\mu_{I R_{t}}=\mu_{I R_{t-1}}+a_{t}+\eta_{t} \text { with } \eta_{t} \sim N\left(0, \sigma_{\eta}^{2}\right) \\
a_{t}=a_{t-1}+\delta_{t} \text { with } \delta_{t} \sim N\left(0, \sigma_{\delta}^{2}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

where $I R_{t}$ is still the recruitment index for year $t$ that follows a log normal distribution of parameters $\mu_{I R_{t}}$ (mean in the $\log$ scale) and $\sigma_{I R}^{2}$ (variance in the $\log$ scale). Then, $\mu_{I R_{t}}$ is assumed to be centered around its previous value, plus a slope $a_{t}$ and a random noise $\eta_{t}$. The slope $a_{t}$ itself follows a random walk, with random noise $\delta_{t}$. It can be demonstrated that $\sigma_{\delta}$ (variance of the noise of the mean changes) and $\sigma_{\eta}$ (variance of the noise of the slope random walk) are redundant, and as such, estimating both parameters can lead to idenfiability issues (Cole, 2020; Schnute, 1994). Here, we assumed that $q_{\delta}=\left(q_{\eta} / 2\right)^{2}$. By doing so, the model is then equivalent to a commonly used double exponential smoothing (Harvey, 1986) and yields robust predictions (Delle Monache and Harvey, 2012). The ST, TT and SS models are special cases of this more generic RS model.

### 2.3 Bayesian inference and priors

The Bayesian models were fitted using JAGS (Plummer, 2003). We used the runjags package as an interface between R and JAGS (Denwood, 2016). Uninformative priors were used for most parameters (Table 1). Three chains were run in parallel for 200,000 iterations with a thinning period of ten after a burn-in period of 200,000 iterations. Model convergence was checked using Gelman tests (Gelman and Rubin, 1992) and with graphical verifications by traceplots.

Table 1. Priors on the models ("ST": Single-trend; "TT": Two-trend; "SS": Spike and slab; "RS": Random slope) parameters and the number of associated equations ("Eq.").

|  | Variables | $\begin{gathered} \text { ST } \\ \text { (Eq. 1) } \end{gathered}$ | TT $\mathbf{S S}$ <br> (Eq. 2) (Eq. 4) | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{R S} \\ \text { (Eq. 5) } \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $\mu_{\text {IR }}$ |  | $\mathrm{N}(0,0.01)$ |  |
| 2 | $\sigma_{I R}$ |  | $\operatorname{Gamma}(0.01,0.01)$ |  |
| 3 | $\rho$ |  | $\mathrm{U}(-1,1)$ |  |
| 4 | $\eta$ |  | $\mathrm{N}(0,1)$ | For tin [1980;2022], $\eta_{\mathrm{t}} \sim \mathrm{~N}\left(0, \sigma_{\eta}^{2}\right)$ |
| 2 | $\sigma_{\eta}$ |  |  | $\operatorname{Gamma}(0.01,0.01)$ |
| 6 | $a$ | $\mathrm{N}(0,0.01)$ |  | $\mathrm{N}(0,0.01)$ |
| 7 | $a_{1}$ |  | $\mathrm{N}(0,0.01)$ |  |
| 8 | $a_{2}$ |  | $\mathrm{N}(0,0.01)$ |  |
| 9 | $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ |  | $\mathrm{N}\left(0, \sigma_{\text {diff }}{ }^{2}\right)$ |  |
| 10 | $\gamma$ |  |  |  |
| 11 | $\delta_{t}$ |  |  | For tin [1980;2022], $\delta_{\mathrm{t}} \sim \mathrm{~N}\left(0, \sigma_{\delta}^{2}\right)$ |
| 12 | $\sigma_{\delta}$ |  |  | $\sigma_{\delta}=\left(\sigma_{\eta}^{2} / \sigma_{I R}\right) * 0.5$ |

### 2.4 Model comparison strategy

### 2.4.1 Deviance Information Criterion to assess model fitting quality

The Deviance Information Criterion (DIC), a Bayesian version or generalization of the Akaike Information Criterion, quantifies the trade-off between goodness of fit and model complexity (Spiegelhalter et al., 2002). The DIC is one of the most widely used criteria to assess the performance of Bayesian models (Gelman et al., 2014). The DIC was calculated through 200,000 iterations with a thinning period of ten for each model. Like the AIC, the

DIC assesses the capacity of the model to predict observed data and, as such, quantifies the hindcasting capacity of the model. However, it does not assess the forecasting ability of a model, which is necessary to underpin robust stock management advice (Kell et al., 2021).

### 2.4.2 Assessing model forecasting performance through a simulation exercise

Assessing the predictive capacity of the models requires a dataset in which the "true" recruitment is known and can be compared to model forecasts. In this context, we carried out a simulation exercise to generate artificial "surrogate" datasets.

- Generating surrogate recruitment time series

Three scenarios were used to simulate surrogate recruitment time series from 2020 to 2030. To simulate the declining recruitment in Scenario 1, we used the ST model to construct a forward recruitment index series from 2020 to 2030. The TT model enabled the generation of a forward recruitment time series for Scenario 3 to replicate an increasing recruitment trend since 2012. Finally, Scenario 2 was an intermediate situation between Scenarios 1 and 3. The future recruitment of Scenario 2 was simulated by the TT model with $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ set as the difference between the median $\left(a_{2}\right)$ and median $\left(a_{1}\right)$ (both estimated by the TT model), which equates to $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ close to 0 . Thus, Scenario 2 roughly assumes stable recruitment. For each scenario, 2,000 "observed" recruitment time series were generated (Fig. 2, Part 1).

- Fitting the model to the simulated recruitment time series

Each model was fitted to the simulated recruitment time series up to season $t$ according to the following iterative algorithm, mimicking the process of the Scientific Committee (Fig. 2, Parts 2 and 3):

- For each Scenario $s$ from 1 to 3
- For each time series $i$ from 1 to 2,000
- For each model $m$ from 1 to 4
- For each year $t$ from 2020 to 2029
- The combination of the WGEEL time series (from 1980 to 2019) and the simulated recruitment from 2020 to $t-1$ is used as input data (for $t=$ 2020, only the WGEEL time series is used).
- The censor interval for recruitment $t$ is set as the value at time $t-1 \pm 3$ (to reproduce the management task).
- The model $m$ forecasts recruitment in $t+1$, and this forecasted value is compared with the corresponding "observed" value (i.e., from the simulated recruitment time series).

This process generates recruitment forecasts from 2021 to 2030. All the recruitment models were fitted to the three recruitment scenarios. For this prospective analysis, one chain was run with 5,000 iterations with a thinning period of ten, resulting in 500 samples (after a burn-in period of 10,000 iterations for the ST, TT and SS models, and 200,000 iterations for the RS model to ensure convergence, since it has many more parameters). These parameters were applied to the three scenarios.

- Quantifying model forecasting performances

The forecasting performance of each model was evaluated by calculating Percent BIAS (PBIAS) (Gupta et al., 1999). The PBIAS indicates whether the model tends to overestimate (negative PBIAS) or underestimate (positive PBIAS) compared to "observed" recruitment indices, where 0 is the optimal PBIAS value.

For a Scenario $s(1: 3)$, a simulated recruitment index series $i(1: 2,000)$, a model $m(1: 4)$, and a year $t$ (2021:2030), an annual PBIAS is calculated by comparing the yearly "observed" recruitment $I R_{\text {obs }}$ with the median of the posterior distribution estimated by the forecasting model $q 50\left(I R_{\text {sampled }}\right)$. We therefore obtain 20,000 PBIAS values ( 2,000 simulated recruitment trajectories*10 years) per model for each scenario (i.e., 20,000*4*3 PBIAS values in fine) (Fig. 2). Therefore, PBIAS is calculated as follows:

$$
P B I A S_{s, m, i, t}=\frac{I R_{\text {obs } s, i, t}-q 50\left(I R_{\text {sampled } s, i, m, t}\right)}{I R_{\text {obs } s, i, t}} \times 100
$$

) Simulating recruitment trajectories through 3 scenarios


Evolution of recruitment according to the three scenarios considered. Each colored line represents a recruitment trajectory ( 10 trajectories plotted among the 2,000 trajectories simulated).
(2) Material for the simulation exercise

Each model is fitted to each trajectory of each scenario.


Fig. 2. Diagram showing the quantification of the forecasting performance through the calculation of PBIAS and its different steps (from 1 to 4 ).

For each model fit (i.e., a combination of a simulated time series and a recruitment model), we set the annual TAC by multiplying the target harvest rate by the median of the posterior distribution of the forecasted recruitment $q 50\left(I_{\text {sampled }}\right)$. Tests were also carried out with quantiles of $25 \%$ and $75 \%$ and are presented in the Supplementary Material. We also calculated the corresponding catch at the management target (i.e., the target harvest rate multiplied by the "observed" recruitment $I R_{\text {obs }}$ ) (Fig. 3, Step 4a).

The application of recruitment forecasting models affects species conservation, the glass eel fishery, and compliance with management objectives. We developed quantitative criteria to compare model performance with respect to these effects (Fig. 3, Step 4b). For each scenario, each model and each simulated recruitment time series, we computed the annual average predicted catch TAC over the period 2021-2030, representing the Fishery criterion. Then, the proportion of years in which the management target was met from 2021 to 2030 (years with predicted catch TAC < catch at the management target) was used as the Management criterion. The quantity of glass eels saved if a given model is chosen, representing the Conservation criterion, is computed as the annual mean of the difference between the highest predicted TAC among the models and the predicted TAC of the considered model over the period 2021-2030.

4a Indicators calculation: Total Allowable Catch (TAC) year by year calculation
For a scenario $s$ and for a trajectory $i$ :
For $t$ ranging from 2020 to 2029:


4b Indicators calculation: comparison criteria
For a scenario $s$, for a model $m$ and for $t$ ranging from 2021 to 2030:


Fig. 3. Diagram showing the quantification of the forecasting performance through the simulation exercise: Total Allowable Catch calculation (Step 4a) and comparison criteria calculation (Step 4b) (see Fig. 2 for previous steps).

### 3.1 Evolution of the recruitment slope over time depending on models

When comparing strictly declining recruitment slopes (i.e., coefficient distributions < 1), the ST model tends to estimate the lightest declining trend compared to the TT and SS declining trends (the ST median recruitment slope is superior to other medians; Fig. 4). For both the TT and SS models, recruitment declines during the first period ( $a_{l}$ strictly inferior to 1), while the recruitment trend evolution during the second period is unclear (since 1 is within the $95 \%$ credibility interval of $a_{2}$ and corresponds to stable recruitment). Recruitment slopes $a_{1}$ and $a_{2}$ are distinct for the TT model, while the $95 \%$ confidence intervals of the two time periods overlap for the SS model. The TT and SS models also differ by a larger amplitude of the $95 \%$ credibility interval for the SS model compared to the TT model during time period 2 . These results arise from the fact that the SS model is constructed as a mixture of cases rejecting or considering a change in slope between the two time periods, with $7.6 \%$ of cases not considering a change in the recruitment slope (according to $\delta$ posterior distribution).


Fig. 4. Annual recruitment slope coefficients $a$ (in linear scale). The letters and colors account for the recruitment models. The numbers " 1 " and " 2 " account for time periods (1: 1980-2011; 2: 2012-2022; when no time period is assigned, the value is estimated through the entire time period, i.e., 1980 to 2022). Dashes represent q2.5, q50 and q97.5.

For the RS model, the yearly varying random slope posterior distributions are mainly (q50 and q75) below 1 (and strictly below 1 in 2001) until the mid-2000s, suggesting a declining trend (Fig. 5). After a q50 increase between 2005 and 2013 in favor of an increase in recruitment, there is no clear trend in the most recent years, with later posterior distributions approximately 1 . The mean and median recruitment slopes over the time series are 0.9 , representing a decrease of $8 \%$ in recruitment each year (on a linear scale). Unsurprisingly, the forecasted slopes (for the 2020, 2021 and 2022 seasons) have larger credibility intervals than the other models.


Fig. 5. Evolution of the annual recruitment slope over time according to the RS model. Black line and dots: q50; the darker ribbon: the $50 \%$ credibility interval; the lighter ribbon: the $95 \%$ credibility interval.

### 3.2 Model performance

### 3.2.1 Deviance Information Criterion

According to the DIC, the TT and SS models outperform the ST model (Table 2). However, the RS model outperforms them despite its greater complexity.

Table 2. The Deviance Indicator Criterion value according to the recruitment model ("ST": Single-trend; "TT": Two-trend; "SS": Spike and slab; "RS": Random slope)

| Recruitment model | ST | TT | SS | RS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DIC | 249.9 | 251.0 | 255.1 | 238.9 |

### 3.2.2 Error in recruitment estimations depending on model and scenario

The models mainly overestimate recruitment in Scenario 1 (The PBIAS values are mostly negative) and underestimate recruitment in Scenario 3 (The PBIAS values are mostly positive) (Fig. 6). The results are less obvious for Scenario 2; the ST and RS models underestimate recruitment, while the TT and SS models overestimate recruitment. Unsurprisingly, the ST and TT models perform particularly well in scenarios in which they were used to simulate the data.

Interestingly, while the PBIAS distributions vary among models, and for each model among the scenarios, the boxplot distribution pattern remains similar across the scenarios, namely the ST model, the RS model, the SS model and the TT model in order of decreasing

PBIAS values. Across scenarios, the RS model appears to be the least biased model (The PBIAS oscillating by approximately 0) (Fig. 6A) and underestimates recruitment by $6.7 \%$ (median(PBIAS) over all the scenarios; closest value to 0 among models) (Fig. 6B).


Fig. 6. Boxplots presenting the PBIAS for the four models through the three scenarios (A) or combining all scenarios (B) ("ST": Single-trend; "TT": Two-trend; "SS": Spike and slab; "RS": Random slope). The outliers are not displayed for better readability but are considered in the calculation of values (such as median) (strategy q50).

The RS model behaves in a similar way regardless of the scenarios during this 10 -year period, suggesting that the model is robust to varying recruitment patterns.

### 3.2.3 Quantification of the risk for fisheries, management and conservation

Fig. 7 displays the distributions of the Fishery, Conservation and Management criteria depending on the scenario and the model.


Fig. 7. Boxplots presenting the three criteria "Fishery", "Management" and "Conservation" across scenarios ("sce") and among models ("ST": Single-trend; "TT": Two-trend; "SS": Spike and slab; "RS": Random slope) over the 10 years of simulation. The outliers are not displayed for better readability but are considered for building the graph and the calculated values (such as the median) (strategy q50).

Unsurprisingly, since the ST model was used to simulate the recruitment series of Scenario 1, it performs well (i.e., limited potential catch loss when comparing mean annual

TAC to others, very good compliance to the management rule and many eels saved) in this scenario. For Scenarios 2 and 3, the ST model reaches the management target with a high frequency and provides a high quantity of glass eels saved at the cost of large reductions in catches, resulting in the lowest mean annual catch.

Across scenarios and criteria, the TT and SS models have similar results when estimating recruitment, and regarding the criteria comparison strategy. These models frequently miss the management target and result in the lowest glass eel escapement, except for Scenario 3 (the one in which the TT model was used to simulate the time series). On the other hand, these models lead to the highest TAC (slightly higher for the TT model than for the SS model).

Considering a time period of 10 years, the RS model behaves in a similar way regardless of the scenarios (i.e., intermediate mean TAC, proportion of years with target achievement oscillating approximately $50 \%$, and stable amount of glass eels saved), confirming its robustness to different recruitment trends.

## 4 Discussion

Recruitment is a key question in population dynamics, especially for short-term forecasting (Maunder and Thorson, 2019). This article provides insights into building and comparing forecasting models. The RS model stands apart as the more robust method to forecast short-term recruitment indices based on its bias quantification results and its implications for management, exploitation and conservation.

### 4.1 Innovative recruitment forecasting models

Spike and slab priors are widely used in Bayesian variable selection (Ishwaran and Rao, 2005; Titsias and Lázaro-Gredilla, 2011). The inclusion, or not, of a predictor is estimated internally in the model, and the resulting predictions are a weighted average of the model with and without the predictor (Titsias and Lázaro-Gredilla, 2011). As such, this approach appears appropriate for testing the existence of a regime shift, objectively balancing the predictions of the ST and TT models. However, the parametrization of a spike and slab prior remains partially subjective (tuning the coefficients $c$ and $d$ in the expression of the variance) and based on expertise to separate plausible values from impossible ones (George and McCulloch, 1993). A sensitivity analysis (see the Supplementary Material) demonstrated that our results are not overly sensitive to the parameter values (this is not surprising, as situations with a slope change largely dominate). However, this could change in the future, especially if recruitment starts decreasing again and the weight of the ST model (i.e., the frequency of $\gamma=$ 0 ) increases. Therefore, it would seem necessary to repeat the sensitivity analysis regularly and update the parametrization of the prior in any future use of the SS model. Various slight modifications have been proposed to help in the parametrization of the spike and slab priors and to reduce the resultant uncertainty (George and McCulloch, 1993; Ishwaran and Rao, 2005). However, these modifications would not entirely remove the subjectivity of the resulting model and the need to check its sensitivity.

The SS model imposes a change in the recruitment trend at a fixed and unique year. This could be challenged by future data. One could imagine adding other years of trend change, or at least modeling the year of the change as a random variable. However, preliminary tests have shown that the resulting models fail to converge. In this framework, the

RS model is much more flexible. A random slope model appears suitable for resolving the debate between a model with either a single or two slopes, and determining the year in which a potential regime shift occurs. Indeed, random slope models have proven to provide robust predictions, even in the presence of cyclic patterns or trend changes (Delle Monache and Harvey, 2012).

- Model and data uncertainty handling

Following the Scientific Committee, we used the EIFAAC-ICES-GFCM WGEEL "Elsewhere Europe" index as an indicator of French recruitment in our analysis. The use of this indicator was needed given the limited number of ongoing French recruitment time series (ICES, 2014). Since the index is partly derived from time series collected in regions other than France, this might lead to bias (ICES, 2022). More importantly, the WGEEL data were taken to be accurate and were known to be without error in the ST, TT and SS models. We considered an estimation error in the RS model (Equation 5), which is an improvement. However, the variance is assumed to be constant over time. The use of year-specific estimation errors generated by the GLM would probably be more realistic.

### 4.2 Model comparison strategy

Inspired by the Management Strategy Evaluation approach (Smith, 1999), we developed a multicriteria strategy to compare the performance of models.

- Bias in model estimation

First, we explored biases in recruitment forecasts, since systematic biases would result in systematic overestimations or underestimations of fishing opportunities. In our simulations,
the ST model tends to underestimate recruitment, while the TT and SS models tend to overestimate recruitment. Due to its enhanced flexibility, the RS model provides the least biased recruitment estimates across the three recruitment scenarios. As the RS model behaves the same way across scenarios, it appears to be the least sensitive to possible changes in future recruitment trends and the most robust, as defined by Box (1979).

- Model implications for European eel fishery, management and conservation

Inspired by the work of Lebot (2021) and Bevacqua (2007), we developed three criteria to assess and illustrate the trade-off between mean annual catch, management target achievement and quantity of glass eel saved. The ST model favors conservation by frequently achieving the management target but at the cost of lower TACs. On the other hand, both the TT and SS models promote the highest TACs but with a high risk of overshooting the management target and compromising conservation. The RS model provides the best trade-off since it shows intermediate responses for all considered sectors compared to other models. Moreover, the outcomes of the RS model are minimally sensitive to the scenarios, unlike other models.

### 4.3 Application to glass eel fishing opportunity evaluation

The current French evaluation of glass eel fishing opportunities relies on two recruitment models (ST and TT) with constrasting recruitment forecasts (Beaulaton et al., 2020). The Scientific Committee lacks a method for choosing between the two models, which leads to some misunderstanding from stakeholders. The RS model appears to be a good candidate for estimating glass eel fishing opportunities in France. Its use could overcome the difficulty of having two recruitment models by providing a single recruitment forecast. By
doing so, it could improve the reliability of the assessment and make the decision-making process more understandable to stakeholders. Moreover, the simulation strategy can be used to carry out a long-term risk analysis that would support science-based management.

### 4.4 A generic approach

- Comparing abundance forecast outcomes

As scientific results can be difficult to convey (Lehuta et al., 2016; Pita et al., 2016), we have proposed three explicit quantitative criteria with the aim of providing accessible information to those who make management decisions. The model selection method presented herein is not based on traditional statistical criteria, but on socioeconomic and environmental criteria. Since managers generally have to deal with trade-offs among competing interests, the multicriteria assessment appears to be an attractive decision-aiding tool that provides trade-off overviews across multiple sectors of interest (exploitation, management and conservation in this study) (Antunes et al., 2006; Röckmann et al., 2012). We do not pretend that the criteria we propose here are the only ones possible; however, we aim to demonstrate our trade-off exploration strategy. Indeed, implementing more relevant criteria, as well as adding a relative weight to each criterion to obtain a final score per model could arise from a co-construction involving all stakeholders (e.g., managers, fishers, scientists, NGOs) involved in the management of the European eel (Drouineau et al., 2021). This collaboration, as part of participatory modeling, could help to enhance the involvement of each stakeholder in fishery management, strengthening mutual trust and understanding (Drouineau et al., 2021; Röckmann et al., 2012). The same applies to the scenarios (here, we used three contrasting scenarios to simulate future recruitment time series, but these scenarios could be co-
constructed with stakeholders) and to quantiles of the posterior distribution of the forecasted recruitment used to calculate TACs (here, we used strategies q25, q50 and q75).

- Index-based abundance short-term forecasts

Analytical stock assessments of European (Anguilla anguilla) and American (Anguilla rostrata) eel have not been achieved despite much effort (ASMFC, 2023; ICES, 2019). As an alternative to analytic stock assessment, abundance index methods are being looked at as a means to generate harvest rules (e.g., the ITarget method, trend indicators) (ICES, 2023; Legault et al., 2023). With eel abundance indices playing a central role in supporting management advice and no viable alternative in sight, eel assessment scientists ought to be looking carefully at the best options to use abundance time series to guide harvest management. Of the modeling approaches tested here, the RS model best accounts for the recruitment variability. We therefore recommend its use for recruitment modeling and forecasting to guide European glass eel management advice.

The index-based methods presented in this paper could be applied to other eel life stages, and to other species. More generally, these methods could be easily implemented to support management advice when an analytical stock assessment cannot be conducted (e.g., rejected assessments, data-limited stock) (NEFSC, 2020; Punt et al., 2020) and could also be used in artisanal and traditional coastal recruitment fisheries (e.g., the sardine fry fishery in Italy) (STECF, 2023a, 2023b). Although this work is conducted at the recruitment fishery scale, these index-based forecasting methods could conceivably be applied to a wide range of scientific and economic fields.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

Mathilde Benezech: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Writing original draft, Writing -review and editing; Hilaire Drouineau: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Writing -review and editing, Project administration, Supervision; Anthony Acou: Conceptualization, Writing -review and editing; Agnès Bardonnet: Conceptualization, Writing -review and editing; Clarisse Boulenger: Conceptualization, Writing -review and editing; Patrick Lambert: Conceptualization, Writing -review and editing; Etienne Prévost: Conceptualization, Software, Formal analysis, Writing -review and editing; Laurent Beaulaton: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing -review and editing, Project administration, Supervision.

## Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Supplementary Material

## Testing novel methods for short-term forecasting of European glass eel recruitment

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## 1 The spike and slab model

As recommended by Georges and McCulloch (1993), we check that the intersection of the median value of $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ with the a priori distributions of $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ for $\gamma=0$ and $\gamma=1$ ensures an important difference (Fig. 1). Fig 1 confirms that the posterior distribution is different from the prior distribution and that the conditional posterior distribution of diff $_{a}$ with $\gamma=1$ and $\gamma=0$ are distinct.


Fig. 1. - Density of probability of the the two normal distributions that define the prior of diff $_{a}$ (A) - marginal posterior distributions of $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ depending on the value of $\gamma \mathbf{B}$

### 1.2 Sensitivity analysis to variance parameters $c$ and $d$

### 1.2.1 Setting $c$ and d parameters

Tuning the coefficients $c$ and $d$ in the expression of the variance $\sigma_{d i f f_{a}}^{2}$ (Eq. 4) can be considered subjective (George and McCulloch, 1993). As mentioned earlier, the prior for diff ${ }_{a}$ is bivariate with a narrow normal prior around 0 if the change of slope is rejected, and a wide normal prior (large variance) if the change of slope is accepted. Parameters $c$ and $d$ tune these two normal distributions. As such $c$ (variance of the narrow normal) should be chosen so that the prior is restricted to values that are small enough to be considered as an insignificant change. Conversely, $d$ (variance of the wide normal) should be large enough to allow significant change of slope (i.e. large $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ ) but small enough to eliminate impossible values (otherwise, the prior would be too flat leading to too small differences of density of probabilities between the two normal distributions). These priors will allow the model to select the relevant explanatory variables in a model in an autonomous way.

Remind that $\exp \left(\operatorname{diff}_{a}\right)$ can be interpreted as a rate of change between time periods 1 and 2 . If there is no change in the recruitment trend, the multiplicative coefficient between $\exp \left(a_{1}\right)$ and $\exp \left(a_{2}\right)$ should be close to 1 . As a first guess, we assumed that a variation of less than $2 \%$ around 1 is considered as a non-significant change in the recruitment trend. Just as an illustration, Dekker (2019) estimated that the recruitment dropped consistently by approximately $15 \%$ per year. This would correspond to $\exp \left(a_{l}\right)=0.85$ and to reject a shift for $0.85 * 0.98=0.83 \leq \exp \left(a_{2}\right) \leq 0.85^{*} 1.02=0.87$. Restricting a change of less than $2 \%$ between time periods 1 and 2 implies that $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ is restricted between $\log (0.98)=-0.02$ and $\log (1.02)=$ 0.02. A normal distribution with standard deviation $0.02 / 1.96=0.01$ would mean that $95 \%$ of diff $_{a}$ values are between -0.02 and 0.02 . We therefore chose $\boldsymbol{c}=(\mathbf{0 . 0 1})^{2}=\mathbf{1 . 1 0}^{-4}$.

In recent years, the rate of decrease may have changed and the recruitment tends to be stable or slightly increasing according to the WGEEL. If the recruitment decreased by about $15 \%$ in the first period (Dekker, 2019), stabilising the trend would correspond to a change of $1 / 0.85=1.17$. It is very unlikely that recruitment is now increasing as a rate similar to the former rate of decrease, so $1.15 / 0.85=1.35$ appears to be a reasonable upper bound for a situation of significant change in the recruitment trend. This corresponds to a $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ of $\log (1.35)$ $=0.30$. A normal distribution with standard deviation $0.30 / 1.96=0.15$ means that $95 \%$ of $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ values are ranging from -0.30 to 0.30 . As a result, we chose $\boldsymbol{d}=(\mathbf{0 . 1 5})^{2}=\mathbf{3 . 1 0}^{-2}$.

The values of parameters $c$ and $d$ have been chosen to provide sufficiently distinct probability distributions in order to distinguish situations of change in slope from situations of previous slope conservation. Indeed, situations where $\gamma=0$ should not be accepted as a change of slope, and reciprocally. In order to evaluate model sensitivity to $\operatorname{diff}_{a}$ prior, several pairs of values of $c$ and $d$ have been tested looking at the proportion of $\gamma=1$ depending on these values.

### 1.2.2 Sensitivity assessment

Since the tuning of parameters $c$ and $d$ of the bimodal variance are partly subjective, we check the sensitivity of the model to these parameters by fitting the spike and slab model with different pairs of $c$ and $d$ values (Table 1).

Table 1. Values chosen and their meaning in terms of recruitment evolution to evaluate model sensibility to $c$ and $d$ choices.

| Tested values for c | Percent of maximum decrease and maximum increase tolerated <br> between two consecutive years |
| :--- | :--- |
| $4.10^{-8}$ | $0.1 \%$ |
| $5.10^{-6}$ | $0.5 \%$ |
| $2.10^{-5}$ | $1 \%$ |
| $1.10^{-4}$ | $2 \%$ |
| $2.10^{-4}$ | $3 \%$ |
| Tested values for d | Percent of maximum decrease and maximum increase tolerated |
| $1.10^{-2}$ | $20 \%$ |
| $3.10^{-2}$ | $35 \%$ |
| $5.10^{-2}$ | $55 \%$ |

We compared the proportion of $\gamma=1$ in the $\gamma$ posterior distribution (Fig. 2). For the tested c and d values, the frequency of $\gamma=1$ is greater than $90 \%$. As such, the sensitivity of the model to c and d appears limited.


Fig. 2. Sensitivity matrix to values of $c$ and $d$ represented by the proportion of cases where $\gamma$ is 1 (in percent).

## 2 Multi-criteria comparison approach

### 2.1 Retrospective exercise

The metrics to quantify models forecasting performances and the risk for exploitation, resource presented hereby are the initial versions of the ones presented in the article.

In this exercise, we fitted all models (ST, TT, SS and RS) on the WGEEL recruitment index up to season $t$, assuming that recruitment in season $t+1$ falls in an interval ranging from -3 to +3 around recruitment of season $t$ (interval censorship). This mimicked the strategy used by the Scientific Council (Beaulaton et al., 2020). Then, we compared the model predictions for season $t+2$ with the time-corresponding «true» WGEEL value. We carried out this exercise for $t$ ranging from 2013 to 2017, since the regime shift is supposed to take place in 2012 and the last WGEEL index is in 2019. Three chains were run in parallel with 60,000 iterations with a thinning period of ten after a burn-in period of 200,000 iterations.

### 2.1.1 Material and methods

### 2.1.1.1 Recruitment prediction error formulation

We compared models forecasting performance by quantifying the discrepancy between recruitment forecasts and "true" values (the WGEEL time series) through a variable called the "Recruitment prediction error". The difference between each predicted recruitment value and the WGEEL of the corresponding year value was calculated and named as the "prediction error". If the prediction error was negative, the recruitment was underestimated (respectively, positive prediction error translated recruitment overestimation).

### 2.1.1.2 Evaluation of risks for both exploitation and resource: development of two criteria

We developed two quantitative criteria to lead a quantitative risk assessment (Aven and Renn, 2009). We formulated these criteria thanks to the two following answers.

- If recruitment is overestimated in year $\boldsymbol{t}+\mathbf{2}$, how often is it overestimated it if a certain model (among the four) is used to predict recruitment index?

For each year and model, we computed the frequency of samples from the posterior distribution of recruitment that were greater than the corresponding WGEEL index value. This frequency of recruitment overestimation represents how often recruitment is overestimated when using a certain model to predict it. It quantifies the risk of not achieving the management target. Therefore, we called this frequency of recruitment overestimation the "Conservation Risk Indicator" (CRI).

Let $S_{i}(t, m)$ be a logical indicator with $i$ ranging from 1 to the number of iterations ( 60,000 in this study) for the year $t$ for one model $m$. If the difference between a recruitment prediction and the value of the WGEEL was positive, then the indicator $S_{i}(t, m)$ took the value 1, indicating a situation of overestimation of recruitment. Respectively, when the difference was negative, $S_{i}(t, m)$ took the value 0 and represented a situation of recruitment underestimation. We thus obtained a series of 1 and 0 of length 60,000 . The following formula was then applied to obtain the frequency of overestimation of recruitment for one year $t$ for one model $m$ :
(1) Overestimation frequency $(t, m)=\frac{\sum_{1}^{\text {number of iterations }} \operatorname{Si}(t, m)}{\text { number of iterations }}$ where number of iterations $=60,000$.

Therefore, we obtained five frequencies of recruitment overestimation for each model for the retrospective analysis.

- What is the potential loss of catches if a certain model (among the four) is used to predict recruitment in year $\boldsymbol{t + 2}$ ?

Underestimating recruitment would lead to implement too restrictive quotas and therefore generate potential catches losses for the fishery. Using the same approach as for the calculation of the recruitment prediction error, we computed the difference between predicted recruitment and the "true" value, except that if this difference was positive, we set the value at 0 . Indeed, with a positive difference (i.e. an overestimated recruitment), there was no risk for
the fishery to loose potential catches. This new indicator is called the "Fish Risk Indicator" (FRI).

We assessed the Conservation Risk Indicator (CRI) and the Fishery Risk Indicator (FRI) for each model to analyse the trade-offs between conservation and exploitation.

### 2.1.2 Results

### 2.1.2.1 Recruitment prediction error



Fig. 3. Boxplots presenting recruitment prediction error for the four recruitment models through the retrospective analysis from 2015 to 2019 ( ml : "ST" single-trend model; m2: "TT" two-trend model; m3: "SS" spike and slab model; m4: "RS" random slope model).

According to Figure 3, the ST model mainly underestimates recruitment compared to the ICES WGEEL recruitment index (median prediction error $=-1.64<0$ ). This is consistent with previous observations of the decreasing exponential trend in the model slope. On the other hand, the TT model tends to be over-optimistic compared to WGEEL recruitment index (median $=3.92>0)$. With a median prediction error of 1.85 , the SS model is the intermediate
between the ST model and the TT model. This result is consistent with the structure of the model, which is a mixture of the two models. Nevertheless, Figure 3 shows that the SS model mainly overestimates recruitment. The RS model appears to be the least biased model ( median prediction error $=0.96$ ).

### 2.1.2.2 CRI and FRI

Since the Conservation Risk Indicator (CRI) represents compliance or non-compliance with the conservation rule and the Fishery Risk Indicator (FRI) traduces the potential loss of catches for the commercial fishery, Figure 4 illustrates the trade-off between conservation and fishery objectives.


Fig. 4. Position of the four recruitment models when considering simultaneously the Fishery Risk Indicator (FRI) and the Conservation Risk Indicator (CRI) during the retrospective analysis from 2015 to 2019 (m1: "ST" single-trend model; m2: "TT" two-trend model; m3: "SS" spike and slab model; m4: "RS" random slope model).

A model with a CRI of about 0.5 would randomly alternates between over- and underestimation situations (since CRI is the recruitment overestimation frequency), as expected for
a non-biased model. Ideally, a model should also have a FRI as small as possible (i.e. limiting too strong underestimation of recruitment and therefore restricting potential loss of catch). As such, the model that comes closest to this CRI $=0.5$ and FRI $=0$ point is the RS model (Figure 4). Indeed, points relative to the RS model are always close to the $50 \%$ overestimation frequency threshold and minimize catches loss compared to the ST model. Indeed, the ST model favours compliance with the conservation rule, but at the expense of catches loss for the fishery. On the other hand, the TT and SS models ensure limited catch losses but at the cost of a systematic recruitment overestimation.

### 2.2 Simulation exercice

### 2.2.1 Evolution of simulated recruitment series



Fig. 5. Evolution of the simulated recruitment index over time according to the three scenarios (Scenario 1: decrease in recruitment; Scenario 2: stabilization of recruitment: Scenario 3: increase in recruitment). The coloured lines represent four time series of recruitment (of the total 2,000 simulated recruitment series) in order to highlight the heterogeneity among individual trajectories.

As expected, the 3 scenarios provide different trends in recruitment over time: a decreasing trend (i.e., scenario 1), a stable trend (i.e., scenario 2), and an increasing trend (i.e., scenario 3) (Figure above). However, it should be noted that the boxplots hide a great deal of heterogeneity between individual simulated time series. By testing the model on such
contrasted trajectories relying on different assumptions, it is possible to assess the robustness of forecasting models as defined by Box (1979).

### 2.2.2 Other strategies when calculating quotas

In the main document, we assumed that the quota was set based on the median of the posterior prediction of predicted recruitment (strategy q50). Here, we show how the fishery, management and conservation criteria would be effected if we use the quantiles $25 \%$ (strategy q 25 ) or $75 \%$ (strategy q75). Main results are not affected though there is a high probability of not achieving the management target with the strategy q75.


Fig. 6. - Boxplots presenting the three criteria "Fishery", "Management" and "Conservation across scenario ("sce") and among models ("ST": single-trend; "TT": two-trend; "SS": spike and slab; "RS": random slope) over the 10 years of simulation. Outliers not displayed for a better readability but considered for the graph and the calculated values (such as median) (strategy q25).


Fig. 7. - Boxplots presenting the three criteria "Fishery", "Management" and "Conservation across scenario ("sce") and among models ("ST": single-trend; "TT": two-trend; "SS": spike and slab; "RS": random slope) over the 10 years of simulation. Outliers not displayed for a better readability but considered for the graph and the calculated values (such as median) (strategy q75).

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