Running head: Capelin variability amplifies cod instability

Managing Arctic predator harvest instability amplified by variable prey productivity and

ocean temperature

Daisuke Goto[1,*], Anatoly A. Filin[2], Daniel Howell[1], Bjarte Bogstad[1], Yury Kovalev[2], and

Harald Gjøsæter[1]

[1]Institute of Marine Research, P.O. Box 1870, Nordnes, 5817 Bergen, Norway

[2]Polar Branch of the Federal State Budget Scientific Institution, Russian Federal Research

Institute of Fisheries and Oceanography ("PINRO" named after N.M. Knipovich), Akademik

Knipovich Street 6, 183038 Murmansk, Russia

[*]Corresponding author: daisuke.goto2@gmail.com

Abstract

Living marine resources are often managed for single target species under precautionary

harvest policies to achieve socioeconomic and conservation objectives through a tradeoff

between short-term yield stability and long-term sustainable harvest. However, not

accounting for imperfect knowledge of how dynamic ecosystem processes modulate

variability in fished populations (ecological uncertainty) may underestimate risks of missing

management targets. We present an illustrative case study to test how constraining short-term

fluctuation in catch quotas perturbs stock and yield stability of an apex predator, Northeast

Arctic (NEA) cod (*Gadus morhua*), when its primary food resource, capelin (*Mallotus*

villosus), and climate vary over time. We use a stochastic multispecies model (STOCOBAR–

Stock of Cod in the Barents Sea) to simulate the cod stock dynamics through life history

processes under variable ocean temperatures. Capelin productivity influences cod biomass

directly through consumption and indirectly through cannibalism by adult cod. We evaluate

harvest strategy scenarios of varying levels (5% to 50%) of yield stability constraints under

the current precautionary harvest control rule (target exploitation rate, F_{pa}, of 0.40 and

threshold spawning stock biomass, B_{pa}, of 460 thousand tonnes). Analyses show that

performance of constraining catch fluctuation is highly sensitive to how cod and capelin

interact. When the constraints are tightened to 25 % or less, the stock abundance and catch

are projected to rise while the year-to-year variation is amplified through variable cod

cannibalism–capelin productivity. Our work reveals that muffling variance in catch forces

cod to respond to capelin fluctuation faster, becoming increasingly unsynchronized with

harvest intensity and, thus, increasing recruitment variability and facilitating stock depletion

(higher probabilities of exceeding F_{pa} and falling below B_{pa}–21% and 15%, respectively).

Our study demonstrates unintended consequences of stability control of fish catches, a

commonly adapted harvest strategy in industrial capture fisheries. This policy can

inadvertently destabilize stocks, amplify catch fluctuation, and ultimately increase

overharvest risk when not accounting for compounded effects of ecologically connected

processes in assessments, underscoring the need for an ecosystem approach to designing

management strategies to safely harvest top predators in increasingly more dynamic oceans.

KEYWORDS: management strategy evaluation; food web; ecosystem-based management;

forage fish; stock assessment; recruitment; climate variability; cod

INTRODUCTION

Fluctuation in living natural resources poses myriad socioeconomic and conservation

challenges in sustainably managing harvest (Fryxell *et al.* 2010; Carpenter *et al.* 2015). Stable

marine resources provide not only predictable quotas to harvesters but also food and

employment security in many fishing nations (Garcia & Rosenberg 2010). In industrial

capture fisheries, harvest strategies are designed to maintain stock abundance above a

threshold that prevents overharvest and sustains its fishery; however, some harvest rules (for

example, constant escapement rules) can amplify year-to-year catch fluctuation (Deroba &

Bence 2008). To achieve short-term stability in catch, additional control rules are often set to

constrain the variation (Deroba & Bence 2008). Such control rules are currently developed

and implemented for single target species, assuming stable biotic and abiotic conditions (Hall

& Mainprize 2004). However, these assumptions are often violated in oceans; fluctuation in

ecosystem productivity may amplify variability in fished populations (May 2001; Rouyer *et*

al. 2012). Harvest strategies that fail to account for dynamic ecosystem processes may, thus,

lead to exploitation rate that is unsynchronized with natural stock dynamics, increasing the

risk of overfishing and stock depletion (Mace 2001; Hall & Mainprize 2004), and

socioeconomic damage (Caddy & Seijo 2005; Nielsen *et al.* 2018).

Variability in fish stocks can arise from stochasticity in demographic traits under dynamic

environments (Ware & Thomson 2005; Pepin 2015). These dynamics often propagate

through trophic interactions to modulate productivity of fished populations (Ottersen *et al.*

2001; Ware & Thomson 2005). Environmentally driven plankton production, for example,

regulates forage fish production that support fished apex predators (Ware & Thomson 2005;

Frederiksen *et al.* 2006). Large year-to-year fluctuation can emerge particularly in early life

stages of marine populations (Leggett & Deblois 1994; Ottersen & Loeng 2000); seasonal to

decadal variation in ocean conditions propagates through predator–prey interactions,

amplifying or dampening variance in year-class strength of exploited predators (Edwards &

Richardson 2004). Uncertainty in trophic dynamics can, thus, pose challenges in designing

control rules to maintain yield stability for exploited populations (Essington, Sanchirico &

Baskett 2018).

 Trophic interactions between cod (*Gadus morhua*) and capelin (*Mallotus villosus*) in the

North Atlantic present such dynamics that modulate year-to-year fluctuation in cod fishery

yield (Link *et al.* 2009). Cod productivity often fluctuates from year to year with variability

in ecosystem (bottom-up) processes including interactions with other fishes during early life

stages (Lilly *et al.* 2008; Minto & Worm 2012). In particular, cod cannibalism is often

amplified by food shortage (Yaragina, Bogstad & Kovalev 2009); capelin–a short-lived (≤ 5

years), semelparous, widely distributed pelagic planktivore–comprises a large part of adult

cod diet (Dolgov 2009; Holt *et al.* 2019) and may regulate cod cannibalism on the young (age

≤ 3) and, in turn, recruitment dynamics. Moreover, owing to migratory behaviors driven by

ocean conditions and plankton distribution, time-varying capelin aggregation may reflect

changes in ecosystem processes including systemwide shifts in ice phenology, thermal

regimes, and plankton productivity (Carscadden, Frank & Leggett 2001; Rose 2005). Spatial

and temporal overlap between cod and capelin in cod spawning and nursery grounds may,

thus, regulate cod recruitment, stock structure, and yield variability (Ciannelli & Bailey 2005;

Johannesen *et al.* 2012).

The Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock distributed over the Barents Sea and its surrounding

areas (Fig. 1a) is the world's largest, supporting two major fishing nations, Norway and

Russia (Kjesbu *et al.* 2014). The fishery dates back to the period when the northern coasts of

these nations were likely populated after the end of the last ice age. An international

industrial trawl fishery in the Barents Sea developed in the early 1900s and total catches by

all gears peaked at more than 1.2 million tonnes in catch in some years in the period 1955-

1975 (ICES 2019). Following the establishment of 200-mile economic zones in the late

1970s, the fishery by Norway and Russia dominated (ICES 2019) and subsequently depleted

the stock prior to the establishment of a harvest control rule (HCR) by the Norwegian-

Russian Fishery Commission in the early 2000s (ICES 2019). This HCR, which was in force

until 2016, the target exploitation rate (that sustainably maximize yield) at 40% of

harvestable stock biomass. Further, to constrain yield fluctuation, 1) the catch quotas are set

for the three coming years (as averages); and 2) year-to-year yield fluctuation is limited to

less than 10%. These harvest strategies, along with favorable habitat conditions, ultimately

allowed the stock to balloon with the quota reaching one million tonnes in 2014, the highest

in more than three decades (Kjesbu *et al.* 2014). However, it remains uncertain how the

harvest strategy of constraining year-to-year yield fluctuation would perform and contribute

to stock behavior if variable ocean conditions were accounted for.

Here we illustrate how the harvest strategy of constraining year-to-year yield fluctuation

regulates short-term stability in catch and long-term stock persistence when accounting for

ecological (structural) uncertainty, time-varying ecosystem productivity, with NEA cod as a

case study. Using a stochastic, multispecies model previously developed for the Barents Sea

cod–capelin complex (Filin 2009; Howell *et al.* 2013), we analyze harvest strategy scenarios

designed to constrain year-to-year fluctuation in NEA cod yield (ICES 2016) with time-

varying capelin biomass (Fig. 1b)–a proxy for the Barents Sea ecosystem carrying capacity

(Gjøsæter 1998) under variable ocean temperature (environmental stochasticity, Fig 1c). We

further test how the cod harvest strategy performs when incorporating an ecological

mechanism that regulates cod year-class strength–an interplay of cod cannibalism and capelin

variability (Hjermann *et al.* 2007), and evaluate implications of adapting the ecosystem-based

approach to conservation and sustainable use of marine fish stocks under climate variability.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Barents Sea cod–capelin system

The Barents Sea cod–capelin complex is among the few co-managed stocks in the North

Atlantic (Gjøsæter, Tjelmeland & Bogstad 2012). Historically, capelin has been the major

forage species supporting exploited apex predators in the Barents Sea food web (Gjøsæter

1998); its stock biomass has been measured by acoustic methods to reach up to seven million

tonnes in the 1970s and 1990s (Gjøsæter 1998). Capelin is a small, pelagic, schooling fish,

rarely reaching lengths above 20 cm and ages above five years. It feeds in the northern

Barents Sea on meso- and macro- zooplankton but migrates to the northern coasts of Norway

and Russia to spawn in spring. It is semelparous and thus magnifies its role of bringing

energy from the northern parts of the Barents Sea to the southern coastal areas. Although

capelin supplies a food source for many piscivores in the Barents Sea, cod are by far their

primary predator, consuming up to more than three million tonnes per year (Dolgov 2002).

Capelin fluctuation, thus, likely drives the intensity of cod cannibalism and year-class

strength, reflecting depensatory effects of depleted food resources (Hjermann *et al.* 2007).

For example, amplified year-to-year fluctuation in capelin biomass in the 1980s and 1990s

was largely responsible for the cod stock development; cod cannibalism peaked following the

capelin collapses (Hjermann *et al.* 2007). The collapses, in particular the first one,

propagated through the rest of the Barents Sea food web to a variable degree, depending on

availability of other food (Hjermann *et al.* 2007; Gjøsæter, Bogstad & Tjelmeland 2009).

Barents Sea cod-capelin model

To simulate the Barents Sea cod-capelin dynamics, we used a stochastic, multispecies

model that accounts for ecosystem processes (a model of intermediate complexity for

ecosystem, Plagányi *et al.* 2014)–STOCOBAR (***Sto**ck of **Co**d in the **Bar**ents Sea*).

STOCOBAR has been developed previously at Russian Federal Research Institute of

Fisheries and Oceanography (Filin 2009); the version used in this study has been described

fully in Howell *et al.* (2013) (Fig. 1d). The model was fitted to time series (1981–2010) data

of cod abundance (annual bottom trawl and acoustic survey) indices (CPUE), catch, capelin

biomass, maturity-at-age, and weight-at-age, which were taken from annual stock

assessments by the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) Arctic

Fisheries Working Group; the methods used are extensively documented in ICES (2010). For

brevity, we outline the model structure here; STOCOBAR simulates age-structured

population dynamics of the cod stock in a single area (Barents Sea and adjacent areas) with a

single fleet through yearly growth, feeding, maturation, recruitment, natural mortality

(including cannibalism), and fishing mortality (Howell *et al.* 2013). Growth and feeding are

temperature-dependent to capture variable metabolic rate (Fig. 1d, Howell & Filin 2014). The

model projects cod stock development and evaluates harvest strategies and recovery plans

under plausible ecosystem scenarios including trophic dynamics between cod as a predator

and one or more prey under climate variability (Howell *et al.* 2013).

We used capelin biomass as a proxy for the carrying capacity for cod, representing "good"

and "poor" years of habitat conditions that regulate cod growth and cannibalism. The model

uses capelin as a primary food source for cod with all other food items being aggregated as

"other food'. Capelin were statistically modeled (no feedback for cod predation on capelin,

Fig. 1d) to simulate observed patterns of declining biomass 1) when cod spawning stock

biomass (SSB) exceeding 400 thousand tonnes or 2) when capelin biomass falling below

three million tonnes in the previous year. Further, we imposed a cap on capelin biomass at six

million tonnes when cod SSB exceeds 800 thousand tonnes. The modeled capelin biomass

varies among years and simulations (on average, from 684 to 2789 thousand tonnes, Fig. 1c).

Cod recruitment (at age 3) depends on age-1 cod abundance and cod cannibalism. Age-1

cod abundance is simulated using the Ricker stock-recruitment function, and pre-recruit

mortality by cannibalism is a function of capelin biomass and cod stock structure (size and

age composition) (Fig. 1d, Howell *et al.* 2013). Although temperature may affect cannibalism

indirectly through consumption, this effect is negligible within the historical temperature

range used in this study. Further, we did not include indirect temperature effects on

cannibalism through spatial distribution (Howell & Filin 2014). Based on the model fitting,

we capped mortality by cannibalism at 90%, 60%, and 40% of total mortality at age- 1, 2, and

3 (respectively). Uncertainty in recruitment was then incorporated using residuals in the

simulated data for the historical period of 1980–2007, assuming the normal distribution.

Ocean temperatures regulate the model cod stock dynamics through recruitment, growth,

and consumption (Fig. 1d). The model uses a thermal regime that replicates historical

patterns of annual temperature changes in the Kola Section in the Barents Sea (Fig. 1b). To

create a temperature scenario, we first split the observed temperature data (1950-2017) into

three groups; cold (annual mean temperatures $< 3.6°C$), moderate ($3.6°C \leq$ annual mean

temperatures $\leq 4.2°C$), and warm (annual mean temperatures $> 4.2°C$) years. Then,

temperature data were randomly selected from these three groups sequentially. The modeled

periods (cold, moderate and warm years) last from one to five years; the length of each period

was set randomly (Fig. 1b).

Harvest control rules (HCRs) for NEA cod

We evaluated modeled NEA cod stock behaviors based on the precautionary approach to

HCR performance of the 2016 TAC calculation (ICES 2016). Under this HCR, mean

instantaneous fishing mortality rate of age 5–10 fish (F_{bar}) is set to 0.40 (F_{pa}) when SSB

equals to or exceeds 460 thousand tonnes (B_{pa}). When SSB falls below B_{pa}, F_{bar} is set to F_{pa}

scaled to the proportion of SSB relative to B_{pa} as:

$$F_{bar} = F_{pa} \frac{SSB}{B_{pa}}$$

193 Annual fishing mortality rate at age is computed as:

$$F_{ji} = \frac{F_{bar(i)}}{F'_{bar}} F'_j$$

,

where F_{ji} is fishing mortality rate at age of j in year i; $F_{bar(i)}$ is mean fishing mortality rate in

year i, computed in the model according to the set HCR; F'_{bar} is mean fishing mortality rate

in the initial year; and F'_j is fishing mortality rate at age j in the initial year.

The harvest rule to constrain yield fluctuation provides stability and predictability for

harvesters by minimizing year-to-year variability in catch (and thus revenue). Under the

precautionary principle, the stability constraint is applied only when SSB equals to or exceeds

B_{pa}. If this results in TAC year-to-year variation exceeding the set constraint (±%), the model

algorithm searches for F_{bar} until it finds the value that does not exceed the boundary set by

the constraint. The constraint was not applied in the first year after the recovery period (when

SSB < B_{pa}); F_{bar} is set to F_{pa} regardless of TAC in the previous year. The 2016 management

strategy evaluation of this HCR with year-to-year variance in TAC constrained to ±10% has

demonstrated that implementing the stability constraint (with density dependence in

cannibalism and growth) under constant productivity reduces interannual variability in cod

catch by more than 50%; however, mean SSB declines by nearly 15%, and the risk of

overharvest rises 2x (ICES 2016). To evaluate how constraining short-term variation in TAC

influences the cod stock behavior and catch stability under variable capelin productivity and

climate, we analyzed nine management scenarios to constrain year-to-year variation in cod

catch–no constraint (±0%), ±5%, ±15%, ±20%, ±25%, ±30%, ±40%, and ±50% with varying

capelin biomass and, in turn, cod cannibalism intensity. We used the following performance

metrics to evaluate the harvest strategies; SSB, total (age 3+) stock biomass (TSB), TAC,

interannual catch variability, and risks–probabilities exceeding precautionary reference points

(B_{pa} and F_{pa}) and limit reference points (B_{lim} = 220 thousand tones and F_{lim} = 0.74).

To further evaluate how process (ecological) uncertainty involving capelin variability–an

interplay of capelin variability and cod cannibalism–contributes to cod catch variance under

stability constraints, we tested model performance of four model configurations that represent

ecological assumptions on cod cannibalism–capelin variability under a 10% constraint and

variable ocean temperature; 1) varying capelin biomass with cannibalism, 2) varying capelin

biomass without cannibalism, 3) constant capelin biomass (1000 tonnes) with cannibalism,

and 4) constant capelin without cannibalism.

We ran 100-year simulations to evaluate each management scenario (25 x 9 simulations). We

analyzed each scenario based on 25 realizations because preliminary simulations showed that

mean catches vary less than ±1% with more than 25. We disregarded the first 20 years of

model output as a 'burn-in' to minimize effects of the initial conditions and evaluated the

outputs from year 21 to 100. Because this study primarily focuses on implications of applying

limits to year-to-year fluctuations in cod catch, we did not incorporate other sources of

uncertainty such as assessment error and implementation error (annual catches are assumed

equal to TAC) in this study; we set fishing selectivity (fishing pattern) as time-invariant in the

first year. Further, for clarity, we simplified the cod HCR in simulations by removing the

following constraints; the "three-year forecast", F applied to current SSB to compute TAC,

the floor of F = 0.3, and setting the target F (=1.5x F_{pa}) when SSB exceeds 3x B_{pa} (ICES

2019).

RESULTS

Cod stock performance and yield stability

Under the base scenario, projected cod biomass reached dynamic equilibrium by year 20

(Fig. S1), with mean stock size (TSB) of ~2.3 million tonnes, mean spawning stock biomass

(SSB) of ~1.1 million tonnes, mean catch of 680 thousand tonnes, and 694 million recruits

(Table 1), which are all in line with the historical stock status of NEA cod (ICES 2017). With

higher than 30% constraints, the stock showed negligible changes (Fig. 2 and S1). By

contrast, with 30% or lower constraints, SSB and catch became increasingly variable with

greater amplitudes (Fig. 2 and S1). The stability rule was implemented increasingly more

often as the constraints became tighter (33%, 48%, and 72% of the projection years under

30%, 20%, and 10% constraints scenarios, respectively). Further, mean your-to-year (and

overall among-year) variation in stock size, SSB, and recruits rose (by, on average, 44%,

69%, and 116%, respectively, Fig. 3). The management strategy evaluation of the cod HCR,

which based on an assumption of constant capelin production, has showed that mean year-to-

year variation in catch declines from 26.9% to 12.4% (with a decline in mean catch from 777

to 744 thousand tonnes) with the 10% constraint (ICES 2016). By contrast, with variable

capelin productivity, mean year-to-year variation in catch and fishing mortality rose, ranging

from –39% to 166% and –24% to 96% (respectively); catch varied from 142 to 1234

thousand tonnes, whereas fishing mortality varied from 0.18 to 1.1 (Fig. 3).

Stock size–fishing mortality asynchrony

Temporal patterns of cod stock abundance and fishing mortality became increasingly

asynchronized, accompanied by shorter periods and larger amplitudes with 30% or lower

constraints (Fig. 4). With the 10% constraint, fishing mortality became increasingly more

variable as constraining catch led to overharvest more often, peaking at the lowest stock

abundance (250 thousand tonnes) in year ~75, and then stabilized with fishing mortality at

F_{pa} (Fig. 4).

Cod cannibalism–capelin productivity interaction

Incorporating time-varying capelin biomass amplified year-to-year variation in cod stock

(through changes in consumption and cannibalism intensity) and catch. When capelin

biomass was time-invariant with no cod cannibalism, year-to-year variation in cod catch

remained less than 2% even under the 10% constraint (Fig. 5 and S2). Likewise, with varying

capelin biomass and no cod cannibalism, catch variation rose by only ~4% (Fig. 5 and S2).

By contrast, when cod cannibalism was introduced, catch variation varied from –56% to

70%. When varying capelin biomass and cod cannibalism were both introduced, catch

variation rose further, ranging from –90% to 312% (Fig. 5 and S2).

Stability–yield tradeoffs under variable capelin productivity and ocean temperature

Although cod stock abundance and catch both increased as the constraints became

tightened from 50% to 5% (by 40% in TSB, 51% in SSB, and 17% in catch, Fig. 6a, Table 1),

the harvest strategies became increasingly less precautionary (Fig. 6a). With 30% or higher

constraints, mean fishing mortality exceeded F_{pa} and F_{lim} with less than 3% and 1%

probability, respectively, and SSB fell below B_{pa} and B_{lim} with less than 2% probability (Fig.

6b). By contrast, with 30% or lower constraints, greater amplitudes in fishing mortality while

cod biomass was declining increased the risk of overharvest and stock depletion; the

probabilities of SSB falling below B_{pa} and B_{lim} (3.1–20% and 0.3–6%, respectively) and

fishing mortality exceeding F_{pa} and F_{lim} increased (10–24% and 0.3–8.7%, respectively)

because of asynchronized stock–fishing mortality dynamics (Fig. 4 and 6b). These risk levels

with variable capelin productivity were up to 600x larger than with constant capelin

productivity estimated previously (ICES 2016).

DISCUSSION

We demonstrate that constraining year-to-year variation in fishery yield can inadvertently

destabilize stock and catch dynamics when not accounting for ecological uncertainty such as

dynamic predator–prey interactions and environmental stochasticity. This undesirable

consequence of stability constraints as a harvest policy arises because the constraints allow

fishing intensity and stock abundance to become unsynchronized owing to pronounced

boom-and-bust cycles of exploited populations (Frank *et al.* 2016). In the case of Northeast

Arctic (NEA) cod, unlike the findings from the latest management strategy evaluation (ICES

2016), our analyses show that variability in capelin production and ocean temperature

amplifies year-to-year variation in cod recruitment through cannibalism and, in turn, stock

abundance and catch under the harvest strategy investigated. Incorrect ecological

assumptions of capelin variability and cod cannibalism can substantially underestimate stock

variability and yield stability. Constraints of less than 30% year-to-year fluctuations

theoretically produce greater cod catches in some years because of larger peaks in stock

abundance and recruitment under variable capelin productivity. However, these constraints

also systematically shorten cod stock periodicity when capelin productivity and ocean

temperature vary over time, increasing the risk of overharvest and depletion (by up to more

than 20%) under the current management plan.

Myriad ecosystem processes regulating fish survival interactively influence how harvest

strategies perform in practice (Okamoto, Schmitt & Holbrook 2016). Constraining short-term

yield variation disrupts fished population cycles and, in turn, inadvertently promotes larger

fluctuation in catches when ecosystem productivity varies. Catch stability constraints

asynchronized with ecosystem carrying capacity of the stock, for example, can amplify its

variability instead (Link 2017). In relatively species-poor, high-latitude systems such as the

Barents Sea, changes in productivity likely propagate further through the food web (less

buffering) and may amplify year-to-year fluctuation in life history events of fished

populations (Bellingeri & Vincenzi 2013). Our study uses capelin biomass as a proxy for the

carrying capacity for NEA cod and its fishery. By explicitly accounting for one of the key

ecological processes that regulate cod productivity–an interplay of cannibalism and food

supply, analyses reveal that dampening amplitudes in cod catch amplifies its response to

capelin's shorter population cycle through cod cannibalism, forcing the population to become

increasingly asynchronized with fishing intensity. Because many industrial capture fisheries

selectively remove larger and older fish, greater fishing mortality in depleted stocks can

further truncate age structure (Okamoto, Schmitt & Holbrook 2016; Gamelon, Sandercock &

Sæther 2019). As a result, exploited populations become increasingly more recruitment-

dependent, eroding their resilience to environmental stochasticity (Minto, Myers & Blanchard

2008; Gamelon, Sandercock & Sæther 2019).

Year-class fluctuation of many fished populations is governed by temporal variability

(including multidecadal regime shifts) in various oceanic processes (Cushing 1990), which

are often mediated through food-web interactions (Lilly *et al.* 2008). Stocks may, in turn, be

overfished in poor years and underfished (yield loss) in good years if managed without

accounting for ecosystem variability (Link 2017). Our analyses show that when NEA cod

recruitment dynamics are strongly regulated by capelin productivity, cod stock abundance

becomes increasingly variable and asynchronized with fishing intensity under tighter yield

stability constraints, thereby amplifying cod catch instability. Over the past half century, the

Barents Sea has shown large fluctuations in productivity (Dalpadado *et al.* 2012), during

which the capelin stock has collapsed three times (Gjøsæter, Bogstad & Tjelmeland 2009).

The capelin stock collapses subsequently intensified cod cannibalism, weakening cod

recruitment strength (Yaragina, Bogstad & Kovalev 2009; Yaragina, Kovalev & Chetyrkin

2018), and ultimately depleting the cod stock in the late 1980s. Because Barents Sea capelin

also supports other apex predators as a primary food source (as well as its fishery), its

declines may have triggered a series of trophically mediated processes that exacerbated the

cod stock depletion, including increased consumption of the young by marine mammals such

as harp seals (Bogstad *et al.* 2015). Cod overharvest can also release mesopredators from

predation (Hjermann *et al.* 2007), promoting resource competition with and predation on

young cod–weakening the 'cultivation' effect (Walters & Kitchell 2001). These complex,

ecological dynamics that regulate year-class strength of fished populations can have both

stabilizing and destabilizing effects under variable fishing pressure and ecosystem

productivity (Anderson *et al.* 2008), confounding the performance of harvest strategies.

Imposed stability constraints may inadvertently amplify variability of exploited populations

by modifying natural cycles owing to various sources of uncertainty often overlooked in

assessments (Botsford, Castilla & Peterson 1997). Nearly 70% (of 200+) assessed fish stocks

worldwide has shown irregular temporal shifts in productivity regime (Vert-pre *et al.* 2013);

imposing constraints without accounting for ecological uncertainty such as dynamic

ecosystem processes would, thus, likely increase the risk of overharvest and stock depletion

(Kell *et al.* 2005). Other sources of uncertainty including implementation error (owing to lags

in management response)–raising fishing mortality while stocks are declining–would also

promote further depletion, thereby posing a greater risk of stock collapse (Kell *et al.* 2005).

Although evaluating strategies to lower this risk is beyond the scope of our study, imposing a

ceiling on exploitation rate when the stock is declining, for example, may mitigate the

probability of overharvest and stock depletion (Gröger *et al.* 2007). Other approaches include

suspending stability constraints when stock abundance is above precautionary biological

thresholds such as B_{pa}, (Gröger *et al.* 2007). In the NEA cod harvest control rules, the "three-

year look ahead" rule, for example, is designed to curtail exploitation rate when stock

abundance is above B_{pa} but is declining. When developing harvest policies, we must consider

dynamic tradeoffs between maintaining yield stability and minimizing the risk of overharvest

(short-term stability vs. long-term sustainability, Kell *et al.* 2005) under uncertainty.

361  Although large short-term variation in catch is often disfavored by harvesters and seafood

362 processors, patterns in stock variance may provide valuable information about the stock

363 status such as its resilience (Anderson *et al.* 2008). Magnified variance may signal impending

364 internal structural shifts in nature including fished populations (Brock & Carpenter 2010).

365 The analysis of the extensive database on global commercial marine fisheries compiled by

366 the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) suggests that imposed stability

367 in catches can hide early warnings that may help prevent stock collapses–a potential long-

368 term consequence of stabilizing yield (Mullon, Fréon & Cury 2005; Carpenter *et al.* 2015).

369 Stability in living marine resources may, thus, need to be maintained by allowing them to

370 develop resilience (for example, restoring stock structure) rather than imposing apparent

371 stability (Carpenter *et al.* 2015).

372  The case of the Barents Sea cod-capelin complex illustrates that stability constraints, a

373 widely implemented policy tool, can bring about a counterintuitive outcome; the harvest

374 strategy to constrain short-term yield fluctuation can inadvertently destabilize its stock

375 dynamics when ecosystem productivity varies. Because the model in our study did not

376 account for other sources of uncertainty in ecosystem processes including variable predation

377 pressure (no feedback from cod to capelin), interannual fluctuations in stock abundance and

378 catch under stability constraints are likely conservative estimates. Nevertheless, the findings

379 highlight broader implications of structural uncertainty when designing and analyzing harvest

380 strategies for ecologically connected stocks. Constraining fluctuations of such stocks without

381 accounting for variability in key ecosystem processes–common in many single-species-based

382 assessments–may underestimate the risk of stock depletion and possible collapse (Gårdmark

383 *et al.* 2013). Adapting ecosystem-based approaches (such as use of models of intermediate

384 complexity for ecosystem, Plagányi *et al.* 2014) when evaluating management strategies, as

demonstrated here, will safeguard against such a risk and help sustainably manage valuable

living marine resources in increasingly variable oceans (Gårdmark *et al.* 2013).

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

AAF and DH designed the study. AAF develop the model and ran simulations. DG, AAF,

DH, BB, YK, and HG analyzed the model outputs. DG, AAF, DH, BB, YK, and HG wrote

and edited the manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank anonymous reviewers for comments on earlier versions of the manuscript. Some

figures use images from the IAN Symbols, courtesy of the Integration and Application

Network, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science

(ian.umces.edu/symbols/). This project was partially funded by Institute of Marine

Research's REDUS (Reduced Uncertainty in Stock Assessments) project.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All survey and catch data used for model development are available at the International

Council for the Exploration of the Sea 2010 Arctic Fisheries Working Group Report

(https://www.ices.dk/sites/pub/Publication%20Reports/Forms/DispForm.aspx?ID=17227).

REFERENCE

Anderson, C.N., Hsieh, C.-h., Sandin, S.A., Hewitt, R., Hollowed, A., Beddington, J., May,

R.M. & Sugihara, G. (2008) Why fishing magnifies fluctuations in fish abundance. *Nature,*

452, 835.

Bellingeri, M. & Vincenzi, S. (2013) Robustness of empirical food webs with varying

consumer's sensitivities to loss of resources. *Journal of Theoretical Biology,* **333,** 18-26.

Bogstad, B., Gjøsæter, H., Haug, T. & Lindstrøm, U. (2015) A review of the battle for food

in the Barents Sea: cod vs. marine mammals. *Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution,* **3,** 29.

Botsford, L.W., Castilla, J.C. & Peterson, C.H. (1997) The management of fisheries and

marine ecosystems. *science,* **277,** 509-515.

Brock, W.A. & Carpenter, S.R. (2010) Interacting regime shifts in ecosystems: implication

for early warnings. *Ecological Monographs,* **80,** 353-367.

Caddy, J. & Seijo, J. (2005) This is more difficult than we thought! The responsibility of

scientists, managers and stakeholders to mitigate the unsustainability of marine fisheries.

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences, **360,** 59-

75.

Carpenter, S.R., Brock, W.A., Folke, C., Van Nes, E.H. & Scheffer, M. (2015) Allowing

variance may enlarge the safe operating space for exploited ecosystems. *Proceedings of the*

National Academy of Sciences, **112,** 14384-14389.

Carscadden, J., Frank, K. & Leggett, W. (2001) Ecosystem changes and the effects on capelin

(*Mallotus villosus*), a major forage species. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic*

Sciences, **58,** 73-85.

Ciannelli, L. & Bailey, K.M. (2005) Landscape dynamics and resulting species interactions:

the cod-capelin system in the southeastern Bering Sea. *Marine ecology progress series,*

291, 227-236.

Cushing, D. (1990) Plankton production and year-class strength in fish populations: an update

of the match/mismatch hypothesis. *Advances in marine biology*, pp. 249-293. Elsevier.

Dalpadado, P., Ingvaldsen, R.B., Stige, L.C., Bogstad, B., Knutsen, T., Ottersen, G. &

Ellertsen, B. (2012) Climate effects on Barents Sea ecosystem dynamics. *ICES Journal of*

Marine Science, **69,** 1303-1316.

Deroba, J.J. & Bence, J.R. (2008) A review of harvest policies: understanding relative

performance of control rules. *Fisheries Research,* **94,** 210-223.

Dolgov, A. (2002) The role of capelin (*Mallotus villosus*) in the foodweb of the Barents Sea.

ICES Journal of Marine Science, **59,** 1034-1045.

Dolgov, A.V. (2009) Trophic structure of the Barents Sea fish assemblage with special

reference to the cod stock recoverability. *Progress in Oceanography,* **81,** 165-173.

Edwards, M. & Richardson, A.J. (2004) Impact of climate change on marine pelagic

phenology and trophic mismatch. *Nature,* **430,** 881.

Essington, T.E., Sanchirico, J.N. & Baskett, M.L. (2018) Economic value of ecological

information in ecosystem-based natural resource management depends on exploitation

history. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences***,** 201716858.

Filin, A.A. (2009) Changes in cod management Sstrategy that have resulted from warming

scenarios for The Barents Sea. *Theme Session on Advances in marine ecosystem research:*

what we have learned from GLOBEC and what we can carry forward in future climate

related programs. International Council for the Exploration of the Sea, ICES CM

2009/C:05.

Frank, K.T., Petrie, B., Leggett, W.C. & Boyce, D.G. (2016) Large scale, synchronous

variability of marine fish populations driven by commercial exploitation. *Proceedings of*

the National Academy of Sciences, **113,** 8248-8253.

Frederiksen, M., Edwards, M., Richardson, A.J., Halliday, N.C. & Wanless, S. (2006) From

plankton to top predators: bottom☐up control of a marine food web across four trophic

levels. *Journal of Animal Ecology,* **75,** 1259-1268.

Fryxell, J.M., Packer, C., McCann, K., Solberg, E.J. & Sæther, B.-E. (2010) Resource

management cycles and the sustainability of harvested wildlife populations. *science,* **328,**

903-906.

Gamelon, M., Sandercock, B.K. & Sæther, B.E. (2019) Does harvesting amplify

environmentally induced population fluctuations over time in marine and terrestrial

species? *Journal of Applied Ecology,* **56,** 2186-2194.

Garcia, S.M. & Rosenberg, A.A. (2010) Food security and marine capture fisheries:

characteristics, trends, drivers and future perspectives. *Philosophical Transactions of the*

Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, **365,** 2869-2880.

Gårdmark, A., Lindegren, M., Neuenfeldt, S., Blenckner, T., Heikinheimo, O., Müller-

Karulis, B., Niiranen, S., Tomczak, M.T., Aro, E. & Wikström, A. (2013) Biological

ensemble modeling to evaluate potential futures of living marine resources. *Ecological*

Applications, **23,** 742-754.

Gjøsæter, H. (1998) The population biology and exploitation of capelin (*Mallotus villosus*) in

the Barents Sea. *Sarsia,* **83,** 453-496.

Gjøsæter, H., Bogstad, B. & Tjelmeland, S. (2009) Ecosystem effects of the three capelin

stock collapses in the Barents Sea. *Marine Biology Research,* **5,** 40-53.

Gjøsæter, H., Tjelmeland, S. & Bogstad, B. (2012) Ecosystem-based management of fish

species in the Barents Sea. *Global Progress in Ecosystem-Based Fisheries Management*

(eds G.H. Kruse, H.I. Browman, K.L. Cochrane, D. Evans, G.S. Jamieson, P.A. Livingston,

D. Woodby & C.I. Zhang), pp. 333-352. Alaska Sea Grant, University of Alaska Fairbanks,

.

Gröger, J.P., Rountree, R.A., Missong, M. & Rätz, H.-J. (2007) A stock rebuilding algorithm

featuring risk assessment and an optimization strategy of single or multispecies fisheries.

ICES Journal of Marine Science, **64,** 1101-1115.

Hall, S.J. & Mainprize, B. (2004) Towards ecosystem☐based fisheries management. *Fish*

and fisheries, **5,** 1-20.

Hjermann, D.Ø., Bogstad, B., Eikeset, A.M., Ottersen, G., Gjøsæter, H. & Stenseth, N.C.

(2007) Food web dynamics affect Northeast Arctic cod recruitment. *Proceedings of the*

Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences, **274,** 661-669.

Holt, R.E., Bogstad, B., Durant, J.M., Dolgov, A.V. & Ottersen, G. (2019) Barents Sea cod

(*Gadus morhua*) diet composition: long-term interannual, seasonal, and ontogenetic

patterns. *ICES Journal of Marine Science,* **76,** 1641-1652.

Howell, D. & Filin, A.A. (2014) Modelling the likely impacts of climate-driven changes in

cod-capelin overlap in the Barents Sea. *ICES Journal of Marine Science,* **71,** 72-80.

Howell, D., Filin, A.A., Bogstad, B. & Stiansen, J.E. (2013) Unquantifiable uncertainty in

projecting stock response to climate change: example from North East Arctic cod. *Marine*

Biology Research, **9,** 920-931.

ICES (2010) Report of the Arctic Fisheries Working Group, ICES Document CM

2010/ACOM pp. 664.

ICES (2016) Report of the Second Workshop on Management Plan Evaluation on Northeast

Arctic Cod and Haddock and Barents Sea Capelin (WKNEAMP-2), 25–28 January 2016,

Kirkenes, Norway. ICES CM 2016/ACOM:47., pp. 104.

ICES (2017) Report of the Arctic Fisheries Working Group (AFWG), 19–25 April 2017,

Copenhagen, Denmark. ICES CM 2017/ACOM:06. 493 pp.

ICES (2019) Arctic Fisheries Working Group (AFWG). ICES Scientific Reports. 1:30. 934

pp. http://doi.org/10.17895/ices.pub.5292

Johannesen, E., Lindstrøm, U., Michalsen, K., Skern-Mauritzen, M., Fauchald, P., Bogstad,

B. & Dolgov, A. (2012) Feeding in a heterogeneous environment: spatial dynamics in

summer foraging Barents Sea cod. *Marine ecology progress series,* **458,** 181-197.

Kell, L., Pastoors, M., Scott, R., Smith, M., Van Beek, F., O'Brien, C. & Pilling, G. (2005)

Evaluation of multiple management objectives for Northeast Atlantic flatfish stocks:

sustainability vs. stability of yield. *ICES Journal of Marine Science,* **62,** 1104-1117.

Kjesbu, O.S., Bogstad, B., Devine, J.A., Gjøsæter, H., Howell, D., Ingvaldsen, R.B., Nash,

R.D. & Skjæraasen, J.E. (2014) Synergies between climate and management for Atlantic

cod fisheries at high latitudes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences,* **111,**

3478-3483.

Leggett, W. & Deblois, E. (1994) Recruitment in marine fishes: is it regulated by starvation

and predation in the egg and larval stages? *Netherlands Journal of Sea Research,* **32,** 119-

134.

Lilly, G.R., Wieland, K., Rothschild, B.J., Sundby, S., Drinkwater, K., Brander, K., Ottersen,

G., Carscadden, J.E., Stenson, G.B. & Chouinard, G.A. (2008) Decline and recovery of

Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua) stocks throughout the North Atlantic. *Resiliency of gadic*

stocks to fishing and climate change (eds G.H. Kruse, K.F. Drinkwater, J.N. Ianelli, J.S.

Link, D.L. Stram, V. Wespestad & D. Woodby), pp. 39–66. Alaska Sea Grant, University

of Alaska Fairbanks.

Link, J.S. (2017) System-level optimal yield: increased value, less risk, improved stability,

and better fisheries. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences,* **75,** 1-16.

Link, J.S., Bogstad, B., Sparholt, H. & Lilly, G.R. (2009) Trophic role of Atlantic cod in the

ecosystem. *Fish and fisheries,* **10,** 58-87.

Mace, P.M. (2001) A new role for MSY in single-species and ecosystem approaches to

fisheries stock assessment and management. *Fish and fisheries,* **2,** 2-32.

May, R.M. (2001) *Stability and complexity in model ecosystems.* Princeton university press.

Minto, C., Myers, R.A. & Blanchard, W. (2008) Survival variability and population density

in fish populations. *Nature,* **452,** 344.

Minto, C. & Worm, B. (2012) Interactions between small pelagic fish and young cod across the North Atlantic. *Ecology,* **93,** 2139-2154.

Mullon, C., Fréon, P. & Cury, P. (2005) The dynamics of collapse in world fisheries. *Fish and fisheries,* **6,** 111-120.

Nielsen, J.R., Thunberg, E., Holland, D.S., Schmidt, J.O., Fulton, E.A., Bastardie, F., Punt, A.E., Allen, I., Bartelings, H. & Bertignac, M. (2018) Integrated ecological–economic fisheries models—Evaluation, review and challenges for implementation. *Fish and fisheries,* **19,** 1-29.

Okamoto, D.K., Schmitt, R.J. & Holbrook, S.J. (2016) Stochastic density effects on adult fish survival and implications for population fluctuations. *Ecology Letters,* **19,** 153-162.

Ottersen, G. & Loeng, H. (2000) Covariability in early growth and year-class strength of Barents Sea cod, haddock, and herring: the environmental link. *ICES Journal of Marine Science,* **57,** 339-348.

Ottersen, G., Planque, B., Belgrano, A., Post, E., Reid, P.C. & Stenseth, N.C. (2001) Ecological effects of the North Atlantic oscillation. *Oecologia,* **128,** 1-14.

Pepin, P. (2015) Reconsidering the impossible—linking environmental drivers to growth, mortality, and recruitment of fish. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences,* **73,** 205-215.

Plagányi, É.E., Punt, A.E., Hillary, R., Morello, E.B., Thébaud, O., Hutton, T., Pillans, R.D., Thorson, J.T., Fulton, E.A. & Smith, A.D. (2014) Multispecies fisheries management and conservation: tactical applications using models of intermediate complexity. *Fish and fisheries,* **15,** 1-22.

Rose, G.A. (2005) Capelin (*Mallotus villosus*) distribution and climate: a sea "canary" for marine ecosystem change. *ICES Journal of Marine Science,* **62,** 1524-1530.

Rouyer, T., Sadykov, A., Ohlberger, J. & Stenseth, N.C. (2012) Does increasing mortality

change the response of fish populations to environmental fluctuations? *Ecology Letters,* **15,**

658-665.

Vert-pre, K.A., Amoroso, R.O., Jensen, O.P. & Hilborn, R. (2013) Frequency and intensity of

productivity regime shifts in marine fish stocks. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences, **110,** 1779-1784.

Walters, C. & Kitchell, J.F. (2001) Cultivation/depensation effects on juvenile survival and

recruitment: implications for the theory of fishing. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and*

Aquatic Sciences, **58,** 39-50.

Ware, D.M. & Thomson, R.E. (2005) Bottom-up ecosystem trophic dynamics determine fish

production in the Northeast Pacific. *science,* **308,** 1280-1284.

Yaragina, N.A., Bogstad, B. & Kovalev, Y.A. (2009) Variability in cannibalism in Northeast

Arctic cod (*Gadus morhua*) during the period 1947–2006. *Marine Biology Research,* **5,** 75-

85.

Yaragina, N.A., Kovalev, Y. & Chetyrkin, A. (2018) Extrapolating predation mortalities back

in time: an example from North-east Arctic cod cannibalism. *Marine Biology Research,* **14,**

203-216.

Tables

Table 1. Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock status under scenarios of varying levels of catch (TAC) stability constraints. TSB indicates total stock biomass (age 3+); and SSB indicates spawning stock biomass.

stock status	stability constraints in TAC								
	baseline	50%	40%	30%	25%	20%	15%	10%	5%
TSB (million tonnes)	2.27	2.25	2.30	2.25	2.37	2.56	2.78	2.99	3.17
SSB (million tonnes)	1.08	1.07	1.09	1.06	1.13	1.24	1.38	1.49	1.63
catch (thousand tonnes)	684.1	678.5	691.1	667.7	701.5	752.7	805.0	836.2	800.5
recruits (millions)	700.4	690.2	704.7	680.4	707.8	733.9	743.5	764.1	755.2

Figures

Figure 1. Study system. (a) Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod distribution in the Barents Sea. (b) Example of modeled ocean temperature (˚C). (c) Example of modeled capelin biomass (1000 tonnes). (d) Schematic diagram of the NEA cod–capelin STOCOBAR model structure. Artwork: Courtesy of the Integration and Application Network, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science (ian.umces.edu/symbols/).

Figure 2. Time series (year 21 to 100) of spawning stock biomass (SSB) and catch of the Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock under scenarios of no catch (baseline), ±30% constraint, ±20%, and ±10% constraints. Black vertical bars indicate SSB. Red solid lines indicate annual catch. Blue horizontal dashed lines indicate B_{pa} (= 460 thousand tonnes).

Figure 3. Mean year-to-year variance in stock size, spawning stock biomass (SSB), recruit numbers (age 3 fish), mean fishing mortality rate (F_{bar}), and catch of the Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock under scenarios of ±0% (baseline), ±30%, ±20%, and ±10% catch constraints. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals (among-year variation over year 21-100).

Figure 4. Time series (year 21 to 100) of harvestable (age 3+)/total stock abundance and mean fishing mortality (F_{bar}) of the Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock under scenarios of ±0 (baseline), 10%, 20%, and 30% catch constraints.

Figure 5. Mean year-to-year catch variance (%) of the Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock under scenarios of a ±10% catch constraint and variable ocean temperature with varying model configuration of cod cannibalism–capelin productivity: constant capelin biomass (1000 tonnes) without cannibalism (M1), varying capelin biomass without cannibalism (M2), constant capelin biomass with cannibalism (M3), and varying capelin biomass with cannibalism (M4). Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals (among-year variation over year 21-100).

Figure 6. Stock performance against reference points (F_{pa}, F_{lim}, B_{pa}, and B_{lim}) and catch quotas for the Northeast Arctic (NEA) cod stock under varying levels of catch stability constraint (±CV%) scenarios. (a) Relationship between catch and risk (the probability of exceeding the reference points). (b) Relationship between varying levels of catch stability constraint (±CV%) and risk. References points for the NEA cod stock are derived from ICES (2016). F_{pa} = 0.40; F_{lim} = 0.74; B_{pa} = 460 thousand tonnes; B_{lim} = 220 thousand tonnes.