# Advancing spatially explicit fisheries management with age-specific species distribution models

Eric J. Ward[1, 2, *] and Nick Tolimieri[1, *]

[1]Conservation Biology Division, Northwest Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

[*]Authors contributed equally to this work

[2]Corresponding author: eric.ward@noaa.gov

**Abstract**

Many species distribution models (SDMs) incorporate external information, such as environmental or habitat features, yet the majority overlook age-specific information. Including age information may be particularly valuable for species exhibiting age-related spatial patterns driven by ontogenetic shifts, recruitment dynamics, and selective fishing pressures. Here, we develop an age-structured SDM framework using data from the west coast of the USA and concentrate on two species with distinct life histories: North Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*) and sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*). We validate our approach by forecasting age classes across survey locations in future years; these results highlight that forecast models have predictive skill (sablefish more so than hake) and that the predictive ability is highest for older age classes. Using predictions of age-1 sablefish as an example, we demonstrate how our models may be used to forecast future bycatch risk in space, helping increase the efficiency of fisheries. Our framework is applicable to a wide range of survey types and platforms around the world and supports the development of spatially explicit management strategies and optimal allocation of fishing effort.

**Key words**

25    Species distribution model, age structure, forecast, bycatch risk, sablefish, Pacific hake

## Introduction

Species distribution models (SDMs) are widely used in marine ecology to understand and predict the spatial distribution of species based on environmental conditions, mechanisms, and biological processes (Melo-Merino et al. 2020). These models have informed management decisions for conservation and resource allocation, especially in the face of changing environmental conditions and human impacts, such as fishing pressure (Elith and Leathwick 2009; Guisan and Thuiller 2005). Recent advances in SDM applications in the marine environment have incorporated external drivers such as temperature (Fredston et al. 2021) and habitat features (Laman et al. 2018; Phillips et al. 2017). A second use of these models has been to predict temporal trends in species biomass from spatiotemporal fisheries independent survey data (Thorson et al. 2015). Trends estimated from SDMs may be included in integrated population models (stock assessments) for commercially fished species or used to identify risks to populations of conservation concern. Recent developments in these models have included depth (Johnson et al. 2019) and habitat variables (Cao et al. 2017) to improve trend estimation.

While many SDMs around the world have included variables such as temperature, depth, or habitat, they have generally overlooked age structure, and instead modeled either species occurrences or densities across all age or size classes. Omitting information on age or size may be partially dependent on data availability (ageing fish generally requires sampling otoliths, which is costly, and surveys may not observe younger age classes for some species), but may also be driven by the modeling choices of analysts. Much of the previous research has demonstrated that age structure is a fundamental characteristic of fish populations, influencing spatial distribution and abundance. Mechanisms may include

ontogenetic shifts (including shifts in depth or space; Dahlgren and Eggleston 2000),

recruitment variability (particularly for species whose recruitment is strongly linked to the

environment), and selective fishing pressures (Rijnsdorp et al. 2018). Fishing pressure may

alter the age composition of a population, and because there is a spatial component of

fishing effort, these impacts may be spatial (Ono et al. 2016). Recent work has also

highlighted that age-based SDMs can improve understanding of environmental drivers on

commercially valuable populations (Ono et al. 2024). Ignoring age-specific information in

SDMs may lead to incomplete or inaccurate predictions, especially for species with strong

age-related spatial gradients.

Incorporating age structure into SDMs may provide more accurate predictions by

capturing spatial and temporal variability related to life history traits, age-specific habitat

preferences, and population dynamics (Karp et al. 2025). Fish often exhibit ontogenetic

shifts, where younger individuals occupy different habitats than adults due to factors like

predator avoidance, habitat preferences, and diet changes (Ciannelli et al. 2004; Werner

and Gilliam 1984). These shifts can create age-specific distributions across habitats,

particularly for species that undergo distinct life history phases. Additionally, spatiallly

variable recruitment pulses and age-related migration patterns can influence the spatial

distribution of younger versus older fish. Fishing selectivity often further accentuates these

patterns by disproportionately removing larger, older fish, which alters the population

structure and potentially shifts spatial distributions (Hilborn and Walters 1992; Methot

and Wetzel 2013). By incorporating age, SDMs could better predict these dynamics and

improve our understanding of species-environment relationships.

Understanding the spatial distributions of age classes also is important for both

conservation and fisheries management (Kopf et al. 2024). Previous work has linked

population productivity to age structure, with above average contributions from larger and

older females (Ohlberger et al. 2022). For populations where spatial distribution varies by

age or size, identifying spatial concentrations of larger, older females, is useful for

identifying areas associated with elevated productivity (Berkeley et al. 2004).

Understanding how the spatial age structure of a population intersects with the spatial

allocation of fishing effort and fishers' targeting behavior also has implications for fisheries

management. Though results vary by fisheries and gear, for some fisheries larger sized

individuals are more valuable per kg than small or medium sized individuals (Tsikliras &

Polymeros 2014).

Because of the recursive nature of population dynamics, e.g. numbers at age $a$ at

time $t$ can be used to predict numbers at age $a+1$ at time $t+1$, age-structured SDMs with

predictive skill also provide a tool for forward prediction, with considerable implications

for marine resource management. Reliable predictions of species distributions can help

managers anticipate and mitigate issues such as bycatch risk by identifying regions with

high densities of specific age cohorts (Lewison et al. 2004). Forecasting the spatial

distribution of certain age classes can inform spatially explicit management strategies and

help optimize fishing effort to target sustainable cohorts. For example, knowing the

expected future locations of specific age classes could aid in creating time-area closures

that protect vulnerable life stages or ensure harvests focus on more resilient portions of

the population. However, building robust age-structured SDMs requires high-quality, long-

term datasets with consistent sampling methods across both age and space to ensure the

validity of these predictions.

Around the world, age and life history information is routinely collected by a

number of sampling platforms, including from fisheries and fisheries independent surveys.

While fisheries dependent data are often used to inform age structured models, these data

may include biases due to preferential spatial sampling or gear selectivity; data from

fisheries independent surveys may also include size- or age-selectivity, but these effects are

more consistent across space and time. The primary objective of our paper is to explore the

utility of developing age - structured SDMs from fisheries independent data. Focusing on

two species with contrasting life history characteristics in the North Pacific, the semi-

pelagic North Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*) and longer – lived benthic sablefish

(*Anoplopoma fimbria*), we first develop a flexible framework for modeling spatially explicit

numbers at age. These species also represent contrasts in ontogeny; older sablefish

generally move offshore to deeper depths (Head et al. 2024), while Pacific hake tend to

migrate north as they age (Agostini et al. 2006). Second, we evaluate the ability of this

framework to offer predictive skill in future forecasts and quantify how the predictive

relationship changes as a function of age. Finally, we demonstrate how model output may

be used to examine changing species compositions through time, make maps of potential

bycatch hotspots, and identify areas with higher concentrations of mature fish as potential

targets of fishing effort.

## Methods

*Data*

On the west coast of the USA, the West Coast Groundfish Bottom Trawl Survey

(WCGBTS) has been an annual survey conduced from 2003 - present. The WCGBTS is

designed to estimate the abundance, size, and age composition of groundfish species

important to commercial and recreational fisheries found in near-bottom habitats on the

west coast of the USA (Keller et al. 2017). The survey effort is concentrated in summer

months and has been conducted annually since 2003 (data are publicly available at

https://www.nwfsc.noaa.gov/data). Importantly, the random stratified sampling design,

spatial and seasonal coverage, effort, and gears have remained constant within the period

we analyze. Like many other surveys around the world, no WCGBTS survey occurred in

2020 because of the Covid-19 pandemic. Though the WCGBTS survey samples hundreds of

species, we concentrated our analysis on the two species with the most age data from the

WCGBTS, North Pacific hake and sablefish. These species are also commercially important,

and previous work indicates different ecologies related to the distribution of juvenile fishes

with hake having more spatially variable juvenile distribution from year to year (Tolimieri

et al 2020). While otoliths are sampled continuously during the WCGBTS survey for a broad

range of species, otoliths are generally aged when species are being prioritized for stock

assessment by the Pacific Fishery Management Council (PFMC); full assessments between

species may occur irregularly and be sporadically updated every 5 – 10 years. Hake and

sablefish represent exceptions, as the hake stock is assessed annually by co-managers from

the USA and Canada (Grandin et al. 2024) and sablefish is frequently assessed because of

its high commercial value. For our analysis, we used sablefish collected 2003 – 2023

(except for 2020 when there was no survey; mean 1314.4 individuals sampled per year;

Table S1) and Pacific hake collected 2007 – 2019 (mean 650.7 individuals sampled per

year; age information was not collected for 2004-2006 or from 2020 – present; Table S2).

We filtered the data to include only female fishes because typically more females are aged

than males and because stock assessments estimate female spawning biomass.  We also

truncated ages to focus on those with the highest data availability; for hake this included

ages 1 – 5, and for sablefish ages 0 – 9 (data from these ages represented 54% and 75% of

the total aged fish, respectively).

*Statistical modeling*

We constructed a unique spatiotemporal model for each species – age combination

in our dataset. We adopted this approach partially because of smaller sample sizes relative

to applications that have modeled ages simultaneously (Ono et al. 2024). An advantage of

modeling all ages simultaneously is that it allows for additional complexity (such as shared

year effects between age classes). However an advantage of modeling ages independently

is greater flexibility (e.g. unique autocorrelation and spatial variance parameters by age).

Individual fish were aggregated at the haul level. As these aggregated counts are zero-

inflated (85% of hake and 89% of sablefish observations) and represent small counts (< 7),

we modeled counts at age with a Binomial distribution. This approach also incorporates

variability in sampling effort, using the total number of fish sampled as the Binomial N

parameter. We constructed a spatiotemporal model as an extension of Generalized Linear

Mixed Models (GLMMs) such that the prediction in location $s$ and time $t$ can be written as

$$u_{s,t} = g^{-1}\left(\beta_t + \omega_{s,t} + \delta_{s,t}\right)$$

where $u_{s,t}$ represents the mean predicted probability of occurrence, $g^{-1}()$ represents the

inverse link function (logit), $\beta_t$ represent time – varying intercepts modeled as an AR(1)

process $\beta_t = \rho\beta_{t-1} + \sqrt{1-\rho^2}\eta_t$, where $\eta_t \sim N(0, \sigma_\beta)$, the spatial field

$\boldsymbol{\omega} \sim \text{Multivariate Normal}(0, \Sigma_\omega)$ and the spatiotemporal fields $\boldsymbol{\delta}_t$ are modeled as an AR(1)

process $\boldsymbol{\delta}_t = \rho\boldsymbol{\delta}_{t-1} + \sqrt{1-\rho^2}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t$, where $\boldsymbol{\epsilon_t} \sim \text{MVNormal}(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma_\epsilon})$. The spatial field $\boldsymbol{\omega}$

represents the average spatial distribution across years, while the spatiotemporal field $\boldsymbol{\delta}_t$

quantifies interannual variation in the spatial distribution likely in response to

environmental variables (Thorson 2019), and in our parameterization, includes temporal

autocorrelation (the AR(1) process).

Spatial and spatiotemporal random fields were constructed as Gaussian Markov

random fields (GMRFs) using the Stochastic Partial Differential Equation approach (SPDE)

(Lindgren et al. 2011; Lindgren and Rue 2015). The SPDE method models the spatial

correlation between points as a Matérn covariance function with smoothness parameter

$v = 1$. Spatial meshes for all ages and species were constructed with a cutoff distance of

50km (the cutoff distance controls the spacing of mesh vertices). Parameter estimation was

done using the sdmTMB software package (Anderson et al. 2024) with R 4.3.1 (R Core

Team 2024). The sdmTMB package relies on Template Model Builder (TMB; Kristensen et

al. 2016) to quickly and efficiently maximize the marginal log likelihood using auto-

differentiation and the Laplace approximation to integrate out random effects. Models were

evaluated for convergence (positive-definite Hessian matrix, and a maximum absolute log

likelihood gradient < 0.001) and residuals diagnostics were evaluated with the DHARMa

package (Hartig, 2022). Code and data to replicate our analysis is publicly available on

Github, https://github.com/noaa-nwfsc/spatial-age-models.

*Validating future predictive ability*

As a first validation, we leveraged the natural recursive element of our data to

quantify the ability of our models to predict the future distribution by age. For each of the

species - age models constructed above, we made predictions to the survey locations in the

following year (e.g. age 3 hake in years 2007 – 2018 was used to predict the distribution of

age 4 hake in 2008 – 2019). For each year, we related the predicted probabilities of

occurrence $\hat{u}_{s,t}$ to observations by multiplying predictions by the total number of fish

sampled for ageing ($N_{s,t}$) in the validation dataset, $\hat{n}_{s,t} = N_{s,t} \cdot \hat{u}_{s,t}$. We quantified the

relationship between predictions and observations by fitting a simple Poisson GLM, where

counts of fish of age $a$ in year $t$ were treated as the response and $log(\lambda_{s,t}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot$

$log(\hat{n}_{s,t})$. The exponentiated slope parameter $exp(\beta_1)$ represents a change in expected

counts that would be expected from a 1 – unit change in $log(\hat{n}_{s,t})$. As a diagnostic check

and to understand whether there were potential temporal patterns in the response, we fit a

second model as a GLMM with R package glmmTMB (Brooks et al. 2017); this second

model was identical to our Poisson GLM with random effects in $\beta_0$ and $\beta_1$, where year was

used as the grouping variable.

*Using predictions to quantify bycatch risk*

To illustrate potential benefits to fisheries management, we used output from our

models to generate spatiotemporal predictions of age – 1 sablefish in year $t$ (from age – 0

sablefish in year $t$ - 1). Sablefish often occur in an assemblage including Dover sole

*Microstomus pacificus*, shortspine and longspine thornyheads (*Sebastomus alascanus and S.*

*altivelis*, respectively*)*. This complex (known as 'DTS') forms an important fishery on the

West Coast, and bycatch of sablefish can impact quotas for the other three species, as well

as the at–sea hake fishery. For example, in 2017, the at–sea hake fishery had 50 mt of

sablefish quota set aside in the area north of 36°N, but the fleet caught more than 3 times as

much, prompting in-season warnings to alter fishing behavior.

Gridded predictions from our Poisson GLM represent the expected number of fish

per unit of effort in each location. To turn these into a potentially more useful measure of

risk, we calculate the predicted total age – 1 sablefish catch per unit of effort (CPUE) within

a given radius of major fishing ports on the US west coast. For consistency with previous

work, we used a radius of 282 km (Leising et al. 2024). These predictions of port-level

CPUE were then summarized as annual time series (1 – step ahead forecasts).

**Results**

One useful output from our spatiotemporal models is the estimated spatial field, $\omega_s$,

representing the average spatial distribution across years. Results from our model of North

Pacific hake show a concentration of age – 1 hake near the coast, and more of latitudinal

north – south break for 2 – 3 year old hake (with higher occurrences in the South, Fig. 1). As

expected, age 4 hake appear to have a northern distribution, though the gradient is less

clear than for ages 2 – 3. For sablefish, our models estimate a concentration of age 0 – 2

sablefish in shallow water, with a deeper distribution by age 3 (Fig. 2). Latitudinally, there

are several areas in central Oregon that appear to have consistently lower occurrences than

average for older age classes (Fig. 2).

*Tracking strong age cohorts*

Estimates of age composition by year may be useful in tracking the distribution of

such cohorts through time, as well as examining variability in distributions of particular

age classes. For example, for both hake (Figs. 3 and S2) and sablefish (Figs. 4 and S3),

distinct patches of high age – 0 abundance tended to disperse as the fish aged such that

spatial distributions for older age–classes were less distinct. While predictions can be made

for any cohort, strong cohorts represent both future fishing opportunities and potential

bycatch issues. Therefore, we also used the results from our models to project the spatial

distributions of strong hake cohorts (2008, 2010, 2014, 2016; Fig. 3 and Fig. S2) and strong

sablefish cohorts (2008, 2010, 2016, 2021, Fig. 4 and Fig. S3). These predictions are also

useful in revealing subtle differences between strong cohort years. For example, the 2014

cohort of Pacific hake had a larger fraction of age – 1 individuals distributed in the northern

part of the domain (along the coast of Washington state), while other cohorts had hotspots

in the center and southern portion of the domain. Similarly for sablefish, the 2016 cohort

was concentrated in the north (age–1 individuals in 2011), versus other cohorts that had a

more coastwide distribution. In fact, age–1 fish were uncommon south of approximately

Cape Mendocino (40°N) from 2015 – 2020 (Fig. S3), concurrent with marine heatwaves

during this period.

When comparing the spatial and spatiotemporal parameters across ages and

species, we find that for most ages, there is a decrease in the estimated spatial and

spatiotemporal variances as well as a decrease in the spatial range with increasing age

(Fig. S1). Spatial and spatiotemporal variances control the magnitude of the peaks and

valleys in estimated latent fields, meaning that spatial fields estimated for older fish are

less variable and more spatially homogenous. Similarly, the spatial range determines the

distance at which locations are functionally independent (for the Matern, $\rho \sim 0.13$). The

decline in range with age implies that spatial distributions also become more patchy as a

function of age (Fig. S1).

*Forecasts*

Our 1–step ahead validation analyses indicate that there is a stronger association

between older ages compared to younger ages, and this effect is strongest for sablefish

(Fig. 5). When comparing our initial Poisson GLM to a more complicated GLMM with

random year effects in the intercept and slope (Fig. S4), we found little support for shared

correlations across age classes of a given species. Shared correlations would indicate for

example that age – 2 and age – 3 sablefish may be more or less predictable in certain years

(indicating that information about one age class may be useful in predicting another). With

the exception of a strong positive correlation between age – 0 and age – 1 sablefish, most

correlations between age classes were smaller than 0.3 in magnitude (Fig. S4).

*Quantifying bycatch risk of juvenile sablefish*

Our forecasts of age – 1 sablefish CPUE illustrates the variability of potential bycatch

risk in space and time. In most years for example, age – 1 CPUE is lowest in ports in the

state of California (Eureka, Fort Bragg, Morro Bay) and highest in several ports in the state

of Oregon (Astoria, Coos Bay, Fig. 6). These results also illustrate the high temporal

variability in age – 1 CPUE, with peaks occurring in 2009, 2014, 2017, and 2021, Figure 6).

During peak years, there is also variability among ports – forecasts of age – 1 CPUE were

similar for Astoria and Coos Bay in 2021 for instance, but the potential bycatch risk near

Astoria was higher in 2017 (Fig. 6).

**Discussion**

In this study, we developed an age–structured species distribution modeling (SDM)

framework to explore spatial age composition and predict age–specific distributions of two

commercially important fish species with different growth rates and spatial distributions:

North Pacific hake and sablefish. Our approach integrates spatiotemporal dynamics, age

structure, and forward–predictive capabilities, providing a useful tool for fisheries

management. By examining age–specific patterns in spatial distributions and validating

predictive skill, we highlight the potential utility of incorporating age structure into SDMs

for advancing spatially explicit fisheries management.

*Age-Structured Spatial Patterns*

Results from our age–structured spatial models underscore the importance of

accounting for age in SDMs. The spatial patterns observed for both hake and sablefish were

consistent with their distinct life histories, supporting the idea that ontogenetic shifts

significantly influence fish distributions. Younger age classes of hake and sablefish

exhibited broader distributions generally in shallower areas, while older individuals were

more concentrated offshore (sablefish in deeper waters, hake in more northern regions).

The deeper distribution of older sablefish reflects their preference for benthic habitats and

an ontogenetic shift to deeper waters, while the observed north-south gradient in older

hake aligns with known migratory behaviors influenced by spawning and feeding grounds

(Agostini et al. 2006).

*Predictive skill and cohort tracking*

Our validation analyses revealed that the predictive skill of our framework

increases with age, particularly for sablefish. This result is intuitive given that older age

classes generally exhibit more stable spatial patterns due to reduced recruitment

variability and more predictable habitat preferences (Head et al. 2014). In contrast, the

lower predictive skill for younger age classes reflects their higher spatiotemporal

variability, likely driven by recruitment pulses and early–life survival dynamics. Tracking

cohorts through time using our framework proved effective in identifying strong year

classes (Figs. 3 – 4). Identifying these cohorts may be useful to stock assessment and

management – for instance, understanding the spatial distribution of strong cohorts could

be used to inform spatial harvest allocation (Olsen et al. 2012). Additionally, the ability to

project spatial age composition provides a tool for assessing how environmental changes,

such as ocean warming or habitat shifts, may impact the distribution of key cohorts over

time.

*Managing bycatch risk*

Our case study using age–1 sablefish demonstrates the practical utility of our

modeling for mitigating bycatch risk. Forecasts of CPUE for age–1 sablefish revealed

significant temporal and spatial variability, with higher bycatch risk near Oregon ports in

certain years. Importantly, these forecasts could be provided to industry partners and

fisheries managers 6 – 12 months before fishing occurs. Such information could help

fishers avoid areas associated with high bycatch risk or be used to adjust the spatial

distribution of quota in certain years. The observed peaks in age–1 sablefish CPUE during

certain years suggest the influence of recruitment pulses, which are thought to be tied to

environmental drivers (Tolimieri et al. 2018; Tolimieri and Haltuch 2023). Future efforts

could also incorporate environmental covariates to enhance its predictive accuracy and

further support climate–resilient fisheries management.

*Need for reliable age data*

Perhaps the biggest challenge in implementing our modeling framework in the

future is that these models depend on reliable age data being collected. While the WCGBTS

provides a robust dataset, gaps in sampling (e.g., the absence of a 2020 survey due to the

COVID–19 pandemic) and variability in otolith aging efforts over time could introduce

uncertainty. The costs of ship-based surveys, such as the WCGBTS survey, have increased

around the world, and numerous efforts are being implemented to make these programs

more efficient (ICES 2020). While age samples are more expensive to collect than length

information, there is value from the increased precision associated with age data. For data

limited situations, it may be beneficial to aggregate age classes (or examine correlations

between ages), or explore the use of stage structured models.

*Future directions*

Our age–structured SDM framework represents a significant advance in spatial

modeling, offering novel insights into the dynamics of fish populations and their age-

specific distributions. From a management perspective, age–structured SDMs offer a

powerful tool for addressing critical challenges, including bycatch mitigation, spatial

planning, and sustainable harvesting. By providing high–resolution predictions of spatial

age composition, these models enable managers to align fishing effort with ecological and

economic goals, ensuring the long–term sustainability of marine resources. Future research

could extend this framework by incorporating environmental covariates, such as

temperature or oxygen, to account for dynamic habitat preferences, or fisheries removals

to account for local depletion (Ono et al. 2016). Additionally, exploring the potential for

multi–species models could provide insights into ecosystem-level interactions and their

influence on spatial distributions.

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**Competing interests statement**

We have no competing interests to declare

**Author contributions**

EJW and NT contributed equally to all aspects of this manuscript, including

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**Data availability statement**

All data and for replicating this analysis are publicly available on our Github repository,

https://github.com/noaa-nwfsc/spatial-age-models, and on publication will be archived at

Zenodo.

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**Figures**

**Figures**

Figure 1: Estimated spatial anomalies for Pacific hake ages 1 – 5. These fields represent the

average anomalies across all years, 2003 – 2023. The spatial anomalies for each age class

have been shifted along the longitude (x) axis to present the age-specific anomalies on the

same figure.

Figure 2: Estimated spatial anomalies for sablefish ages 0 – 9. These fields represent the

average anomalies across all years, 2003 – 2023. The spatial anomalies for each age class

have been shifted along the longitude (x) axis to present the age-specific anomalies on the

same figure.

Figure 3: Estimated spatial catch per unit effort (CPUE, kg per $km^2$) for Pacific hake; rows

represent strong cohorts in our dataset (2008, 2010, 2014, 2016). CPUE is standardized to

1.0 across cohorts for visualization purposes. Full predictions for all cohorts are in the

Supplementary Information. The CPUE maps for each year have been shifted along the

longitude (x) axis to present the age-specific anomalies on the same figure.

Figure 4: Estimated spatial catch per unit effort (CPUE, kg per $km^2$) for sablefish; each row

represents a strong cohort in our dataset (2008, 2010, 2016, 2021). CPUE is standardized

to 1.0 across cohorts for visualization purposes. Full predictions for all cohorts are in the

Supplementary Information. The CPUE maps for each year have been shifted along the

longitude (x) axis to present the age-specific anomalies on the same figure.

Figure 5: Estimated coefficients relating predicted densities of age a fish in year t to

observed numbers the following year. The coefficients and 95% confidence intervals

(vertical lines) are estimated in log space and presented here in normal space.

Figure 6: Estimated spatial catch per unit effort (CPUE, kg per km$^2$) for age-1 sablefish and

port-level forecasts of age-1 CPUE within a radius of 232 km. In the upper plot CPUE is

standardized to 1.0 across cohorts for visualization purposes, and maps for each year have

been shifted along the longitude (x) axis to present the age-specific anomalies on the same

figure.

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