# INDIAN OCEAN SWORDFISH STOCK ASSESSMENT 1950-2021 (STOCK SYNTHESIS)

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## SUMMARY

This report presents a stock assessment for Indian Ocean swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) using *Stock Synthesis 3* (SS3). The assessment uses a spatially disaggregated, sex explicit, and age structured model that includes several sources of fisheries and biological data. The assessment model covers the period 1950–2021 and represents an update and revision of the 2018 assessment model with the inclusion of updated longline CPUE indices and length composition data. A range of sensitivity models are also presented to explore the impact of key data sets and model assumptions.

The assessment assumed the Indian Ocean swordfish constitute a single spawning stock partitioned into 4 spatial areas (NW, NE, SW, and SE), to account for differential abundance and depletion levels among regions. The assessment model defined 15 fisheries, based on fleet and region. Standardised CPUE series (as relative abundance indices) are available from the Japanese, Taiwanese, Portuguese, Spanish, South African, and Indonesia longline fleets. The reference model focused more on the Japanese (for 4 regions), Portuguese (SW), and South African (SW) indices, assuming that they are proportional to the regional abundance of swordfish. Final models also include alternative configurations on more CPUE index, replacing more recent index suing CPUE indies from fleets in each region. Another key difference made to the previous assessment model is that the selectivities for the Japanese fleet were estimated for each region separately given the spatial variability in the length compositions, rather than assumed to be common for all regions, as in the previous assessment.

The final assessment model options correspond to a combination of model configurations, including alternative CPUE configurations for recent years (Japanese/Portuguese/South Africa index, or Japanese/Taiwanese/Indonesia index), assumptions on growth (otolith or spine based age estimates), alternative values of SRR steepness (0.7, 0.8, or 0.9), recruitment variability  $\sigma_R$  (0.2 or 0.4), and the alternative sample size of length composition data (20 or 5). The model ensemble (a total of 24 models) encompass a range of stock trajectories. Estimates of stock status were combined across from the 24 models and incorporated uncertainty estimates from both within and across the model ensemble.

The overall stock status estimates do not differ substantially from the previous assessment. Fishing mortality rates have remained relatively stable in recent years and are well below the  $F_{MSY}$ . Biomass was estimated to have been increasing since 2010. Spawning stock biomass in 2018 was estimated to be 42% of the unfished levels and 170% of the level that can support MSY ( $SSB_{2018}/SSB_{MSY} = 1.75$ ). With high likelihood, current fishing mortality was estimated to be lower than  $F_{MSY}$  ( $F_{2018}/F_{MSY} = 0.6$ ). The probability of the stock being currently in the green Kobe quadrant is estimated to over 95%. Considering the quantified uncertainty, the stock is considered not to be overfished and is not subject to overfishing in 2018. The retrospective analysis provided some confidence on the robustness of the model with respect to recent data, yet the uncertainly on levels of most recent recruitment may undermine the predictive capabilities of the model. Annual catches since the 1990s have been within the range of the estimated MSY and the current catch is projected to be sustainable over the longer term. the estimated stock status is summarized as below:

•	Catch in 2021	23237
•	Average catch 2017–2021	30 809
•	MSY (80% CI)	29 856 (26 319–33 393)
•	F <sub>MSY</sub>	0.16 (0.12-0.20)
•	$SB_0$	224 673 (200 328-249 019)
•	SB <sub>2021</sub> :	75 891 (58 019–93 764)
•	$SB_{MSY}$	55 055 (40 243 -69 866)
•	$SB_{2021}/SB_0$	0.35 (0.32–0.37)
•	$SB_{2021}/SSB_{MSY}$	1.39 (1.01–1.77)
•	$F_{2021} / F_{MSY}$	0.60 (0.43-0.77)

## 1. INTRODUCTION

This paper presents a stock assessment of Swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) in the Indian Ocean (IO) including fishery data up to 2021. The assessment implements an age- and spatially structured population model using the Stock Synthesis 3.30 (Methot et al. 2020, Methot & Wetzel 2013).

A number of surplus production models were fitted to Indian Ocean broadbill swordfish catch and CPUE data as a first attempt at a formal model-based stock assessment at the 5th IOTC Working Party on Billfish. These models yielded plausible inferences about the impact of the swordfish fishery on the whole of the Indian Ocean population.

Kolody (2009) conducted preliminary work toward an Indian Ocean swordfish stock assessment using Stock Synthesis 3. The prime motivation for developing the SS3 model in 2009 was to increase the resolution of spatial processes, so that the differential and possibly elevated depletion in the SW Indian Ocean could be more explicitly described. The model population was age-structured, sex explicit, and spatially disaggregated into 4 regions. Kolody (2010) and Kolody et a. (2011) updated the assessment, with a focus on the SW region where a separate model was run assuming that the SW constituted a separate stock.

Sharma & Herrera (2014) updated the assessment for the Indian Ocean Model. Based on evidence of Muths et al. (2013), there are no differences in genetic structure obtained from the SW Region and the entire IO Region. As such, only one stock assessment was examined. The subsequent assessments in also adopted the one-stock hypothesis. The assessment 2017 (Fu 2017) explored several spatial structures including sub-regional models to characterise regional abundance distribution), and the assessment in 2020 (Fu 2017) adopted a revised fleet structure by partitioning the longline fishery amongst several major industrial fleets to better account for the variability in the length compositions

This report provides an updated stock assessment for swordfish in the Indian Ocean using fishery data up to 2021, and builds on the work by Fu (2017, 2020), Sharma & Herrera (2014), and Kolody (2010), Kolody et a. (2011), assuming a single Indian Ocean population stock (IO), but spatially disaggregated into four areas (Figure 1). The model incorporates the following updates:

- Three additional year of data (2019–2021),
- Improved information on nominal catches and catch and effort data from IOTC database
- Revised CPUE series for the Japanese, Taiwanese, Portuguese, Spanish, and Indonesian fleet
- Addition of the South African CPUE in the South-west (SW) region,

The assessment provides estimates of stock status and reference management quantities. Model uncertainties are characterised under combinations of model assumptions and parameter values using a grid approach. The assessment also examined a new approach to derive the regional weighting assumption based on the Japanese catch effort data.



Figure 1: Spatial structure showing the 4 areas used in the assessment model, and distribution of SWO catches in the Indian Ocean by fleet aggregated for 1990-2018.

## 1.1 Biology and stock structure

Swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) are a large pelagic species, broadly distributed throughout the Indian Ocean to a southern limit of 50° S. Swordfish are highly fecund, migratory fish that grow quickly in the early years and reach their maximum size at about 15 years of age. Swordfish have a wider geographical distribution than other billfish. They routinely move between surface waters and great depths and do not form schools. Female swordfish grow faster and live longer than males, and they have different distributions depending on size. There is evidence for spatial heterogeneity in size/sex composition in other oceans (Ward and Elscot 2000). Larger, predominantly female fish are observed in the more southern latitudes of the South Pacific. In Atlantic, medium and large-sized swordfish tend to dominate longline catches in temperate waters and smaller swordfish are more common in warmer waters.

Swordfish are considered batch spawners. One estimate suggested that female swordfish in equatorial waters may spawn as frequent as once every three days over a period of seven month (Ward & Elscot 2000). Swordfish larvae seem to be rare in eastern Indian Ocean. However, a few swordfish larvae have been reported from the Mozambique Channel and east of Madagascar. By contrast high concentrations occur in the north-east Indian Ocean (off north western Australia and south-west of Java) and in equatorial waters to about 80E (Ward & Elscot 2000).

Stock structure of Indian Ocean samples of swordfish were examined using genetic analyses. Lu et al. (2006) describe mitochondrial DNA evidence for three possible population delineations within the Indian Ocean (but recognised that increased sample sizes would be desirable), suggesting samples drawn from the waters off northern Madagascar and the Bay of Bengal were 2 distinct groups compared to the other populations from the Indian Ocean and West Pacific. In the Indian Ocean, a large continuous larval distribution in the eastern Indian Ocean is described in Nishikawa et al (1985). Unfortunately, other regions of the Indian Ocean were not as heavily sampled. Some evidence suggests that there may be genetic distinction within the IO, and this is the subject of ongoing investigation of the IOSSS project led by IFREMER, Reunion (Bradman et al. 2010. Bourjea et al 2011). Results obtained in 2013 (Muths et al. 2013) did not identify any clear differences in genetic structure within this ocean, suggesting it is appropriate to consider swordfish as a single population in the Indian Ocean.

#### 1.2 Fishery overview

Indian Ocean swordfish have been taken by the Japanese longline fleet primarily as by-catch, since the early 1950s (Figure 2). The population was not heavily exploited before targeted fisheries began in the early 1990s. At this time the Taiwanese longliners began taking large numbers, initially in the SW region, followed by the other regions. As the Fresh Tuna longline fishery developed in the late 1980s, annual catches rapidly increased to reach a peak of about 35,000 in the late 1990s–early 2000s. The European longline fleet (predominantly from Spain) started a targeted fishery in the 1990s, while only small numbers are reported in the driftnet fisheries, and purse seine catches are very rare. Total catches have declined substantially since the mid-2000s, attributed to large effort decreases in the longline fleets due to risk of piracy). Since 2012 catches appear to show signs of recovery as a consequence of improvements in security in the area off Somalia. However, catches since 2019 declined as a result of the large reduction of catches from the Taiwanese industrial and freshtuna longline fleets (Figure 2). Swordfish are a high value catch that represent an increasingly important source to many coastal nations in Indian Ocean.



Figure 2: Total swordfish catch in tonnes by fishery fleet 1950 – 2021 for the North-west (NW), North-east (NE), South-west (SW), and South-east (SE) regions in the Indian Ocean.

#### 2. OBSERVATIONS AND MODEL INPUTS

The data used in the swordfish assessment consist of catch and length composition data for the fisheries defined in the analysis, and regional longline CPUE indices. The details of the configuration of the fishery specific data sets are described below.

#### 2.1 Spatial stratification

The appropriate spatial structure for the assessment remains uncertain. Different hypotheses have been proposed, various options have been explored for IO swordfish to date, including (1) one or more discrete stocks (2) two or more populations that are produced from a common spawning ground, but have foraging grounds site fidelity (i.e. while this is a single population genetically, depletion can differ

in different regions at different rates) 3) discrete spawning populations with mixing in common foraging grounds.

Some evidence suggests that there may be genetic distinction within the IO (Bradman et al. 2010, Bourjea et al 2011). Based on results obtained in 2013 (Muths 2013), there are no differences in genetic structure obtained from the SW Region and the entire IO Region. As such, the assessment is based on the single stock IO model (Shared spawning with foraging grounds site fidelity). However, the model is disaggregated into 4 areas corresponding to those used in the Japanese and Taiwanese catch rate standardization analyses in recent years (Figure 1). Given the vast size of the Indian Ocean, and the migration rate inferences that have been made from tagging studies to date, it seems unlikely that there would be rapid mixing processes across the whole basin, even if the population was genetically homogeneous. As such, localised overfishing could result in negative local consequences even if the population is genetically homogenous. The 4-area structure is a pragmatic disaggregation that conveniently partitions most of the national fleets.

SS3 can estimate movement rates among areas, however, these estimates are generally of little value in the absence of tagging data. In all models, migration rates were fixed at very low levels (<< 1% per year), which essentially creates 4 populations except for the shared spawning and recruitment dynamics (foraging grounds site-fidelity).

The previous assessment also developed sub-regional models in which each region was assumed to be a single stock and each model was fitted only to the region-specific data. However, the sub-regional models were mainly to derive weighing factors for determining biomass distributions in a spatially disaggregated IO model.

## **2.2 Definition of fisheries**

There are many different fisheries catching swordfish in the Indian Ocean (see below), with vastly different gear types and levels of data quality (IOTC 2023):

- ALGI Gillnet, trolling and other minor artisanal fisheries
- AUEL Longline fishery of Australia (target is SWO)
- EUEL EU longliners targeting SWO plus other longliners assimilated to EU longliners
- ISEL Semi-industrial longline fleets operating in Reunion (EU.France), Mayotte (EU.France), Madagascar, Mauritius and the Seychelles
- JPLL Longline fishery of Japan plus other fleets assimilated to the Japanese fleet
- TWLL Large scale tuna longline fleet of Taiwan, China, plus other longline fleets assimilated to the Taiwanese fleet
- TWFL Fresh-tuna longline fleets of Taiwan and Indonesia, plus other fresh-tuna longline fleets assimilated to those

For the assessment, 15 fleets were defined based on spatial disaggregation of these fisheries (Table 1). Earlier assessments which aggregated the longline fleets as one homogeneous fishery group in each region except for SW (Fu 2017). However, there are somewhat differences in the size compositions of samples taken by different longline fleets (e.g. the JPLL fishery tend to catch more large fish) which potentially indicate differential selectivity patterns amongst the fisheries. Therefore, the current assessment maintained the disaggregation of the fleet structure for the longline fisheries as in the 2020 assessment,

Name	number	Area	Description
			Northwest Gillnet and other non-longline/-
ALGI_NW	1	NW	handline gears
JPLL_NW			Northwest Japan and assimilated longliners
	2	NW	(target tunas)
			Northwest Taiwan, China and assimilated
TWLL_NW	3	NW	longliners and handlines (mixed target)
ALGI_NE			Northeast Gillnet and other non-longline/-
	4	NE	handline gears
			Northeast Japan and assimilated longliners
JPLL_NE	5	NE	(target tunas)
TWLL_NE			Northeast Taiwan, China and assimilated
	6	NE	longliners and handlines (mixed target)
TWFL_NE			Northeast fresh-tuna longliners (target
	7	NE	tunas)
			Southwest European and assimilated
EUEL_SW	8	SW	longliners (target SWO)
			Southwest semi-industrial longliners (target
ISEL_SW	9	SW	SWO)
			Southwest Japan and assimilated longliners
JPLL_SW	10	SW	(target tunas)
			Southwest Taiwan, China and assimilated
TWLL_SW	11	SW	longliners and handlines (mixed target)
			Southeast Australia Longline fishery of
AUEL_SE	12	SE	Australia
EUEL_SE	13	SE	Southeast Southeast west European and
			assimilated longliners (target SWO)
JPLL_SE	14	SE	Southeast Japan and assimilated longliners
			(target tunas)
TWLL_SE	15	SE	Southeast Taiwan, China and assimilated
_			longliners and handlines (mixed target)

Table 1: Fleet definitions (number 1–15) and for the SS3 Assessment. Suffixes denote regions within the Indian Ocean as indicated in Figure 1: NW – North-West; NE – North-East; SW – South-West; SE – South-East.

## 2.3 Catch history

Catch data were compiled based on the fisheries definitions (Figure 3). An update of catches by fishery was provided by the IOTC Secretariat, including catches from 2019–2021. The time series of catches were similar to the catch series included in the 2020 assessment. A revision to the the Indonesia's fresh longline catches was conducted in 2018 (Geehan 2018). The revision incorporated changes to IOTC Secretariat's catch estimation methodology that led to Indonesia's fresh longline catches of swordfish being revised down from over 50,000 t to less than 35,000 t in recent years (Geehan & Setyadji 2018). There are also some revisions to the swordfish catches from I.R. Iran and Pakistan's gillnet fishery (Figure 3). Overall, the longline catches currently comprise around 70% of total swordfish catches in the Indian Ocean.



Figure 3: Fishery catches (metric tonnes) aggregated by year (grey: current catch estimates for the 2022 assessment; red: estimates used in the 2020 assessment). Note the y-axis differs among plots.

#### 2.4 CPUE indices

Thirteen standardized CPUE series (Table 2, Figure 4) were available at the time of the assessment, including the Japanese (Matsumoto et al. 2023), Taiwanese (Wang 2023), South African (Parker & Kerwath 2020), Portuguese (Coelho & Rosa 2023), and Indonesian (Setyadjy et al. 2020) longline fleets. The CPUE series are included in the assessment as relative abundance indices. Most indices were provided up to year 2022 and the index in 2022 were not included in the current assessment.

In each region, the Japanese CPUE series were standardised as two separate series: 1979-1993 and 1994-2022, because there were the significant differences between the two periods in terms of hooks between Floats, proportion of zero-catch sets and targeting practices (Matsumoto et al. 2023). The 1979 - 1993 index was shown to be uninformative of the stock depletion and did not have any appreciable impact on model estimates (Fu 2020), so they are not included in the current assessment.

In each region, the Taiwanese indices were standardised for 2004 to 2022. Catch effort data were also available in the earlier years. However, some of the fishing practices for swordfish by longliners (the use of squid baits with light sticks, setting shallower at night) were widely adopted in the late 1980s, probably resulted in significant improvements in swordfish catch rates (Campbell 1998).

The Portuguese pelagic longline fishery in the Indian Ocean started in the late 1990's, targeting mainly swordfish in the southwest, also catches relatively high quantities of sharks as bycatch in certain areas and seasons (Coelho et al. 2023). The Portuguese series showed a declining trend between 2000 and 2021 (relatively stable between and 2021. The index is assigned to the SW region in the assessment model.

The Spanish series from 2000 to 2018 is also assigned to the SW region although the fleet has fished a much larger area. Shifting targeting (i.e. shark vs swordfish) is very important in this fishery. Earlier analysis demonstrated that the inclusion or exclusion of the species ratio factor makes very little difference to the annual time series in this case, suggesting that the seasonal targeting shifts are probably not introducing any consistent bias to the time series.

The South African Series is based on a Swordfish target fishery of the South African pelagic longline fleet operating along the west and east coast of South Africa. The South African index (Parker & Kerwath 2020) showed a declining trend between 2006 and 2018, in a magnitude similar to the Portuguese CPUE. The index has not been updated since the last assessment, so the same index used for the previous assessment were used for the current assessment. The index is assigned to the SW region in the assessment model.

The Indonesian CPUE series derived from observer data covering 2006 to 2021 is assigned to the NE region. The index appears to be very noisy but has an overall flat trend.

From 1994 until about the middle of the 2000s, the Japanese CPUE indices showed a major reduction in all regions, which coincided with the time when longline catches in the Indian Ocean increased significantly (Figure 2). In more recent years the CPUE series from the various longline fleets, however, show very substantial heterogeneity, at times, contradictory trends. In the NW, Japanese and Taiwanese indices are very stable, and both have shown an upward trend from 2004 to 2012 and a relatively flat trend from 2012 to 2021. However, the Japanese indices in the latter period showed very high interannual variability. In the NE the Japanese index has significantly increased since 2012, whereas the Taiwanese and Indonesian indexes have generally had a flat trend. In the SW, there has been a noticeable consistency between Portuguese, South African, and Taiwanese indices, with a strong positive correlation of 63% between Portuguese and South African indices, 47% between Portuguese and Taiwanese indices, and 74% between South African and Taiwanese indices, while all indices have generally been declining. However, the Japanese index in the region in somewhat increasing during this period. In the SE, the Japanese and Taiwanese indices were relatively comparable from 2005 to 2015, but since then, they have begun to diverge, with the Taiwanese index increasing and the Japanese index remaining stable.

There has been a large reduction of effort by the Japanese longline fleet since 2005, coinciding with the onset of the piracy activity in the western Indian Ocean. The reduction of fishing mostly occurred in the north-west Indian Ocean as the Japanese fleet pulled out of the region but is also evident in other regions. Although the piracy activity has abated after 2012, the effort has not returned to the previous levels. As such, the spatial overage of the Japanese CPUE may have been poor in recent years, particularly in the NW and NE regions.

All available CPUE are included in the assessment model. However, depending on the model option, some of these CPUE series may have been down-weighted to the point that they were uninformative (see Table 4 - Table 6).

Table 2: CPUE series available for the SS3 Assessment. Suffixes denote regions within the Indian Ocean as indicated in Figure 1: NW – North-West; NE – North-East; SW – South-West; SE – South-East. Number is the SS3 index number

Name	Number	Area	Description
UJPLL_NW	16	NW	JPN CPUE series (1994–2021)
UJPLL_NE	17	NE	JPN CPUE series (1994–2021)
UJPLL_SW	18	SW	JPN CPUE series (1994–2021)
UJPLL_SE	19	SE	JPN CPUE series (1994–2021)
UTWLL_NW	20	NW	TWN CPUE series (2004–2021)
UTWLL_NE	21	NE	TWN CPUE series (2004–2021)
UTWLL_SW	22	SW	TWN CPUE series (2004–2021
UTWLL_SE	23	SE	TWN CPUE series (2004–2021)
UPOR_SW	24	SW	POR CPUE series (2000–2021)
UZAF_SW	26	SW	ZAF CPUE series (2004-2018)
UIND_NE	28	NE	IND CPUE series (2006-2021)



Figure 4: Standardized CPUE by area for Japanese, Taiwanese, Portuguese, South African, and Indonesian longline fleets by sub-region. All series have been rescaled so that they are visually comparable for relevant periods of overlap. Note that this re-scaling does not reflect the relative weighting that is applied to the Japanese fleet. Also note that Japanese indices were standardised for 1979–1993 (not included in the current assessment) and 1994–2021 separately.

## 2.5 Length frequency data

Length-frequency observations are available for 14 of the 15 defined fisheries (except for the gillnet fishery in the NW). Size composition was partitioned into 25 bins of width 9 cm (except the first and last), from <45cm to >252 cm). The length frequency observation for each fishery represents the actual number of swordfish measured. In the assessment, all length composition strata from all fleets were down weighted by dividing the number of fish included in the aggregated sample by a factor of 10, with a maximum sample size of 20, to account for sampling is probably not truly random. Explorations from the previous assessment suggested that this weighting option is consistent with the effective sample sizes determined using the Francis (2012) method. The time series of length frequencies for each model fishery are shown in Figure 5 (Length samples with less than 20 fish measured per year and fishery are excluded from the assessment). (Figure 5).

The length compositions of the fleets differ noticeably, and the Japanese fleet appears to have taken more larger swordfish, as evidenced by the overall wider size distribution of the JPLL catch samples (Figure 5). However, there appears to be some regional variation in length samples taken by the Japanese fleet, with fish lengths in the Northwest appearing to be smaller than in other regions (Figure 5). In each region, the patterns also vary amongst fleets: for example, the average fish size from Japanese and EU longline size shows a little decreasing trend in recent years, whereas Taiwanese and Seychelles length samples show an increase. According to Herrera and Pierre (2014), most samples available from the longline fishery of Japan come from training vessels in recent years. The representativeness of the samples collected on training vessels is uncertain, as these vessels do not necessarily operate in the same areas or use the same fishing techniques as the commercial vessels from Japan.



length

Figure 5: time series of length compositions of swordfish samples by model fishery 1981–2021. Length samples with less than 20 fish measured per year are excluded.

## 3. MODEL STRUCTURAL AND ASSUMPTIONS

## **3.1 Population dynamics**

The stock assessment model partitioned the Indian Ocean swordfish population into four areas, two sex groups, and age groups 1-30 years with the last age a plus group (in unfished equilibrium, <0.25% of the population survives to reach the plus-group with the M value considered).

The swordfish population is sex-structured to (potentially) account for a number of sex-specific population features that may be worth describing. Notably, growth curves differ by sex, and it is useful to be able to represent the two distributions (or aggregated of the two distributions) in the catch-at-length likelihoods (or it would be useful in principle, if we were confident about the growth curves, size composition data, mortality estimates and stationary selectivity assumptions). Spatial distributions often differ by sex (e.g. large females are disproportionately found in cooler temperate waters in the south Pacific). Selectivity may differ by sex due to the differing spatial distributions, and there also may be direct size biases in some fisheries (e.g. commercial fishers report that large swordfish may be less vulnerable to circle hooks). Natural mortality may also be sex-specific, but no distinction was made in these models. However, there is no evidence that the sex structure is contributing much to the behaviour of the model in its current form.

The population was assumed to be in unfished equilibrium in 1950, the start of the catch data series. The model was iterated from 1950-2018 using an annual time-step. The nominal unit of time in the model is one year during which population processes (e.g., recruitment, spawning, and ageing) were applied in sequence according to the dynamics implemented within the Stock Synthesis model (Methot 2020). Observations were fitted to model predictions within the year. The main population dynamics processes are as follows:

## 3.1.1 <u>Recruitment</u>

Recruitment was assumed to occur annually at the start of the year. New recruits enter the population as age-class 1 fish (averaging approximately 70 cm). Annual recruitment deviates from the recruitment relationship were estimated in the model for 1970–2020 (51 deviates). The recruitment deviates were estimated for the period that may be informative regarding the variation in recruitment. Recruit in the final year was deterministic from the stock recruitment relationship (because these cohorts are only weakly observed by the data). The final model options included three (fixed) values of steepness of the BH SRR (h 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9).

Recruitment deviates were assumed to have a standard deviation ( $\sigma_R$ ) of 0.2, with an alternative value of 0.4 also included in the final model options. There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that spawning (and recruitment) may be out of phase in the southern and northern hemispheres, however, the growth, size sampling and selectivity assumptions are such that the quarterly model explored in 2010 could not provide much insight into recruitment processes. Swordfish are often assumed to have lower recruitment variability than tuna populations, and the recent summary of tuna populations suggest that the estimated (annual) variability is often lower than has been a priori assumed in the tuna assessments (ISSF 2011 reports values of 0.2 - 0.5).

Area-specific parameters were estimated to distribute the mean recruitment among regions. Recruitment anomalies by region were estimated with a very high CV, such that the spatial distribution of recruits was only indirectly constrained by the overall recruitment CV.

## 3.1.2 Growth and maturity

Swordfish exhibit phenomenal growth in the first year of life and there is a marked difference in growth rate between male and female. The strong evidence for sex dimorphism in swordfish can be potentially

important in the right-hand tail of the size distribution, which is often estimated to consist predominantly of large mature females. The previous assessment considered four alternative sets of growth curves to allow for uncertainty due to potential area-specific growth rates, and ongoing concerns about age estimation from fin spines.

- CSIRO estimated very slow growth based on South-East Indian Ocean fin ray samples (Young and Drake 2004).
- NMFS estimated higher growth from Hawaiian samples (DeMartini et al. 2007).
- Wang et al. (2010) described an intermediate growth curve (pooled western and eastern samples from the Indian Ocean equatorial region).
- New CSIRO estimates based on SW pacific fin ray samples (Farley el al. 2016).
- New CSIRO estimates based on SW pacific otolith samples (Farley el al. 2016).

Farley et al. (2016) undertook a growth study for swordfish in South-West Pacific waters comparing the use of both fin-rays and otoliths samples. The study found that age estimates from fin rays and otoliths produce different growth curves in the SW Pacific, with discrepancies evident in age classes >7 years for females and >4 years for males. The otolith-based growth curves indicate slower growth and a higher maximum age for both males and females, compared to the ray-based growth curves of Young & Drake (2004) and DeMartini et al. (2007). Although direct validation of the ageing method was not carried out in the study, age estimates from otoliths are likely to be more reliable than fin- rays, especially in larger/older fish, as fin-rays are subject to resorption and vascularisation of the core (Farley et al. 2016). The study also suggested that estimated ages for larger fish are older when derived from otoliths and the close correspondence of the new growth curves with those from Hawaii. Consequently, the WPB15 agreed that the stock assessment for swordfish should use the new otolith-based estimates from Farley et al. (2016) (Figure 6–left). Following the previous assessment, the Taiwan estimate (Wang et al. 2010) was also included in final model options.

Length-at-age was assumed to be normally distributed around the mean length-at-age relationship with a CV of 15% at age 0, decreasing linearly (in proportion to length) to 10% at age 30+.

While a number of studies quantify the relationship between size and maturity, the uncertainty of age estimation that undermines the growth relationships also undermines the maturity/fecundity by age relationship. Following recommendations from WPB15, the assessment used the age-based logistic ogive from Farley et al. (2016) (as applied from the new otolith-based growth from SW pacific), which suggested a 50% maturity at about age 4.34 (Figure 6–right).



Figure 6: Growth (left) and age-based maturity (right) for swordfish. Two growth options are considered in the assessment: CSIRO SW Pacific otolith (GoMf) and Taiwan Indian Ocean (GtMf).

#### 3.1.3 Natural mortality

Natural mortality estimates for swordfish are highly uncertain given the current methods of age estimation are poorly validated. There are a broad range of M values assumed in other swordfish assessments worldwide, ranging from at least 0.2 - 0.5 (Davies et al. 2013). The value of M of 0.25 (constant over ages) was adopted for the current assessment.

#### 3.2 Fishery dynamics

#### 3.2.1 Selectivity

In the 2017 assessment, only two different size-based "double normal" selectivity curves were estimated, one for longline fleets, and one for the gillnet (and other associated) fleets. This assumption was revisited in the 2020 assessment and separate selectivities were estimated for a number of longline fleets, i.e., JPLL, TWLL, TWFL, and EUEL. A monotonically increasing logistic selectivity was estimated for the JPLL fishery, and a double normal selectivity for the TWLL and EUEL fisheries. The selectivities for the ISEL and AUEL were assumed to be same as the EUEL. The assumption of an asymptotic selectivity for at least one of the fisheries (i.e., JPLL) prevents the model from producing cryptic biomass. The selectivity for each fleet was shared by region (e.g. a common TWLL selectivity in the IO). A cubic spline selectivity (5 nodes) was assumed for the gillnet fishery in the NW and NE. The cubic spline selectivity has considerable freedom to represent a dome-shape, or an approximately logistic curve that either reaches a plateau or is monotonically increasing.

The selectivity assumption was revised in the current assessment: For the JPLL fishery, separate selectivity estimated for each region (the logistic selectivity in the NW fishery was replaced by a double normal selectivity); for the EUEL (shared amongst ISEL and AUEL), a logistic selectivity was used instead of the double-normal. The formal is to account for regional differences in the length compositions of Japanese longline fleets, which may have reflected spatial heterogeneity in swordfish size distribution. The regional heterogeneity, however, is not evident in length samples from other fleets. The latter is to account for there are comparatively more larger fish in the samples from the EUEL (and ISEL and AUEL) fleet than in the TWLL fleet. As in the last assessment, the selectivity for each fleet (except for JPLL) is shared across

regions to improve the model's stability.

Selectivity was parameterized as a pseudo-length-based function, i.e. the length-based curve is internally converted to an age-based function based on the length-at-age relationship. In this application, the potential benefit of this arises as a result of the sex dimorphism (i.e. two sex-specific age-based selectivity functions are derived from a single length-based selectivity function because of the difference in length-at-age). While the length-based selectivity function often exhibits a very steep ('knife-edge') slope, this is deceptive because there is considerable overlap in length-at-age.

## 3.2.2 Catchability

Catchability was assumed to be constant over time for all CPUE series. An area-specific scaling was applied to the Japanese CPUE series to convert the indices to relative abundance indices that are comparable among areas (i.e. CPUE = 1 in the NW region and CPUE =1 in the SW region implies that the two regions have identical abundance, not simply identical density). This allows catchability to be shared among areas for regional CPUE index. The shared catchability constraint is often useful for preventing localised behaviour in spatial models.

In the 2017 assessment, two alternative sets of regional scaling factor were used: one is based on the area of the region (Nishida 2008), and the other on biomass estimates from region-specific models (Fu 2017). The area-based scaling factor implies that the Japanese CPUE are essentially density estimates. However, the validity of the assumption that density is uniform within each large sub-region is questionable (it may be unrealistic to expect that swordfish catchability in a northern swordfish fishery has much relation to swordfish catchability in a southern SBT fishery). Further, changes in the CPUE standardisation methodologies have resulted in very different regional weighting being applied between assessments (see Figure 17 of Sharma (2014) and Figure 13 of Kolody et al. (2011)). The biomass-based estimates were derived by fitting region-specific models which included only regional fishery catches and observations, and the resulting stock biomass in each region were used to provide prior information on regional abundance distribution in the spatially disaggregated IO model. Estimated scaling factors for the NE, NW, SE, and SW regions are 1.06, 1.11, 0.67, and 1.17, respectively. To incorporate in the assessment model, the standardised JPLL CPUE index in each region was normalised to its mean and was then scaled by the respective regional scaling factor.

## 3.3 Modelling methods, parameters, and likelihood

The model is conditioned on catch (weight), such that it is assumed to be known without error, and extracted perfectly. The SS3 "hybrid" fishing mortality parameterisation was used, where SS3 starts with Pope's approximation and then conducts a fixed number (4) of iterations to approximate instantaneous F from the Baranov catch equation.

Parameters were estimated by minimising the objective function consisting of the following terms:

- Likelihoods
  - o Relative abundance indices with lognormal observation errors.
  - Length frequencies multinomial sampling assumptions (with assumed sample sizes << reported sample sizes depending on the option)
- Prior distributions and Penalties:
  - Annual recruitment deviates (lognormal) from the stock-recruitment relationship.
  - $\circ$  Every estimated parameter for selectivity, catchability, and R0, requires a prior probability distribution. For these parameters, the prior adopted was very diffuse, such that a bound was likely to be hit before the prior would exert an appreciable influence (e.g. SD = 99).

- $\circ$  Weak penalty (e.g. SD = 99) on the spatial distribution of the recruitment deviates in the 4 area model.
- Smooth penalties for parameters approaching bounds were adopted, however, bounds were not approached for any of the models discussed here (i.e. presumably because the parameters that are most difficult to estimate were generally fixed (i.e. growth, M, steepness).

The informative parameters estimated by the model included:

- Catchability for the informative CPUE series
- Selectivity parameters
- Virgin recruitment
- Annual recruitment deviations from the stock recruitment relationship
- Annual area-specific recruitment deviations
- Recruitment distribution by area

The Hessian matrix computed at the mode of the posterior distribution was used to obtain estimates of the covariance matrix, which was used in combination with the Delta method to compute approximate confidence intervals for parameters of interest.

## 4. ASSESSMENT MODEL RUNS

The approach we have taken here is to explore a range of model assumptions and parameter configurations that would impact assessment results. A reference model was identified for diagnosing model performance. Uncertainties are quantified using a grid of models running over permutations of plausible parameters and/or assumption options. The grid approach aims to provide an approximate understanding of variability in model estimates due to assumptions in model structure, which is usually much larger than the statistical uncertainty conditional on any individual model. The assessment was conducted using the 3.30 version of the Stock Synthesis software. The stock status was reported for the terminal year of the model (i.e. 2021).

#### 4.1 2020 model continuity run

In the 2020 assessment, no explicit base case model was chosen, and the final model options selected for management advice included 48 models with alternative assumptions on levels of steepness, growth, recruitment, and weighting on length frequency data. The model option with otolith-based growth estimates, the steepness of 0.8, recruitment  $\sigma_R$  of 0.2, and length composition sample size of 20 was considered as a reference model. The 2020 reference model was updated sequentially to ensure a level of continuity, and to assess the influence of the additional data available. The model period was extended the model period to year 2021 (from 2018). Incremental changes were made to arrive at a 'basic' model, which has the same model configuration as the 2020 reference model, except for updated observational data, and other adjustment in the estimation of reference quantities (see Table 3 for details).

Model	Description
io4_h80_GoMf_r2_CL020	2020 reference model
1-update-catch	Model extended to include 2019–2021, with updated catches
2-update-LF	Revised and updated length composition data for 2019–2021
3-update-CPUE	Revised and updated Longline CPUE indices
Basic	Extend period of estimation for recruitment deviates (to 2020);

Definition of F-age for determination of MSY (2021);

## 4.2 The revised model and sensitivities

The basic model was further modified to produce a revised model, which served as the basis for the development of the sensitivity analysis and the final model grid. The change allows the model to estimate independent JPLL selectivity in each region (and replaces the logistic selectivity in the NW fisheries with a double normal selectivity) instead of using a common selectivity across model regions. The revised also used a logistic selectivity rather than a double normal selectivity for the EUEL fleet (shared with ISEL and AUEL). The sensitivity models examined a range of model options related to the CPUE data series, biological parameters and model structure. The analysis complemented the suite of exploratory models conducted previously, with the aim of determining a suitable ensemble of model options to estimate stock status that captures a range of uncertainty. Table 5 provides a description of the alternative model options considered for the sensitivity analysis.

Category	Assumptions	Parameters
Recruitment	Recruitment is a function of Beverton-Holt stock-recruitment relationship (SRR). Regional apportionment of recruitment to NW, NE, SW, and SE. Temporal recruitment deviates from SRR, 1970–2020. Temporal deviates in the proportion of recruitment allocated to NW, NE, SW, and SE from 1965–2020.	$R_0$ Norm(10,10); $h = 0.80$ PropR2 Norm(0,1.0) $\sigma_R = 0.2.$ 48 deviates.
Initial population	A function of the equilibrium recruitment in each region assuming population in an initial, unexploited state in 1950.	
Age and growth	32 age-classes, with the last representing a plus group. VonBert Growth based on otolith estimates by Farley <i>et al</i> (2016). Mean weights ( $W_j$ ) from the weight-length relationship $W = aL^b$ .	$L_{\infty}^{f} = 275 \ L_{\infty}^{m} = 213.8 \ K^{f} = 0.157 \ K^{m} = 0.235$ $a = 3.815 \ e{-}06, \ b = 3.188$
Natural mortality	Constant at 0.25	
Maturity	Age specific logistic function from Farley <i>et al</i> (2016). spawning population includes female fish only.	$\alpha = -6.6, \beta = 1.50 \ (a_{50} = 4.42)$
Movement	Move rates were fixed at very low levels (<< 1% per year)	
Selectivity	Length specific, constant over time. Japanese longline fisheries: Double normal selectivity in NW, Logistic in other regions Taiwanese longline fisheries: Double normal selectivity, common among regions EUEL, ISEL, and AUEL longline fisheries: Logistic selectivity, common among regions Cubic spline (5 nodes) selectivity for Gillnet Fisheries CPUE indices mirror to principal LL selectivity.	Logistic Double Normal Five node cubic spline
Fishing mortality	Hybrid approach (method 3, see Methot & Wetzel 2013).	
CPUE indices	UJPLL 1994 – 2021 for NW, NE, and SE; UJPLL 1994 – 2003, UPOR 2000 – 2021, and UZAF 2004 – 2018 for SW. Shared Japanese regional catchability coefficient. A CV of 0.1 for all indices	Unconstrained parameter q
Length composition	Length composition for 14 out of the 15 fisheries. Multinomial error structure: Length samples assigned maximum ESS of 20.	

## Table 4: Main structural assumptions of the swordfish reference model ('revised') and details of estimated parameters.

Model	Description						
CPUE indices							
altCPUE	Alternative CPUE configurations based on Japanese, Taiwanese, and						
	Indonesian CPUE:						
	NW: UJPLL 1994-2012; UTWLL 2005-2021						
	NE: UJPLL 1994-2012; UTWLL 2005-2021; UIND 2006-2021						
	SW: UJPLL 1994-2003; UTWLL 2005-2021						
	SE: UJPLL 1994-2015; UTWLL 2005-2021						
Length composition							
CL005	Down weighting the length composition data with the sample sizes reduced to						
	a maximum of 5.						
<b>Biological parameters</b>							
GtMf	Growth estimates from Wang et al. (2010)						
r4	Recruitment deviation $\sigma_R = 0.4$ .						
h70	Recruitment steepness $= 0.7$						
h90	Recruitment steepness $= 0.9$						
Spatial structure (One region	n model, fleet-as-area approach; using CPUE for one region only)						
ionw	UJPLL NW 1994 – 2021						
ione	UJPLL NW 1994 – 2021						
ione2	UJPLL NE 1994-2012; UTWLL NE 2005-2021; UIND 2006-2021						
iosw	UJPLL SW 1994 – 2003, UPOR 2000 – 2021, and UZAF 2004 – 2018						
iose	UJPLL NW 1994 – 2021						

Table 5: Description of the sensitivity models for the 2023 assessment. Changes are relative to the basic model.

## 4.3 Final model assessable (grid)

On basis of the exploratory analysis, final options were configured to capture the uncertainty related to assumptions on the CPUR configuration options, stock-recruitment steepness, recruitment deviations, growth, and effective sample sizes on the length composition data, which are thought to contribute to the main sources of uncertainty (Table 6). Thus, the final models involved running a full combination of options on steepness (3 values),  $\sigma_R$  (2 values), growth (2 options), and length composition data sample size (2 values), with a total of 24 models.

Model options	Description
CPUE	• <i>cj</i> – <i>CPUE</i> options from revised model (UJPLL, UPOR, UZAF)
	• <i>ct</i> - CPUE <i>options from the atlCPUE model (UJPLL, UTWLL, UIND)</i>
growth	• <i>GoMf</i> – Otolith based growth estimates by Farley et al. 2016.
	• <i>GtMf</i> – Estimates by Wang et al. 2010.
Length composition data	• CL20 – A maximum of 20 for the effective sample size
	• CL05 – A maximum of 5 for the effective sample size
Recruitment variability	• $R2$ – recruitment $\sigma_R = 0.2$
	• $R4$ – recruitment $\sigma_R = 0.4$ .
Steepness	• h70 – Stock-recruitment steepness parameter 0.7
	h80 – Stock-recruitment steepness parameter 0.8
	• h90 – Stock-recruitment steepness parameter 0.9

Table 6: Description of the final model options for the 2023 assessment. The final models consist of a full combination of options below, with a total of 48 models. The options for the reference model is highlighted.

#### 5. MODEL RESULTS

#### 5.1 2020 model continuity run

Updating the 2020 reference model with only the catch data yielded almost identical estimates of historical stock biomass, despite of the revisions being made to the catch estimates of the Gillnet fisheries (see Section 2.3). The updated CPUE (UJPLL and UPOR) and length composition data also had only minor effects on the assessment model (Figure 7). Further model updates (e.g., reference years for the MSY calculation) had also negligible effects on model estimates (Figure 7). Overall, the updated models estimated a slightly higher level of stock biomass but did not change the conclusion of stock status ( $B_{2020}/B_{msy}$  and  $F_{2020}/F_{msy}$ ) compared to the 2020 reference model.



Figure 7: Spawning biomass trajectories for IO swordfish from the step-wise model updates for 2020. (from the 2020 assessment reference model '*io4\_h80\_GoMf\_r2\_CL020*')

## 5.2 Revised model

The basic model included the regional UJPLL, UPOR, and UZAF indices as the abundance indices (the UZAF indices have not been updated since the last assessment) and maintained the same fleet structure for the regional longline and gillnet fisheries as the 2020 assessment. The model represents a continuous run of the 2020 reference model. The revised model is configured similarly to the basic model but allows for more flexible, regional specific selectivity for the JPLL fleet. The revision is likely to have an impact on how the CPUE, which are indices of the regional vulnerable biomass, are fitted in the model because the same fleet uses the same selectivity for the corresponding regional CPUE indices.

## 5.2.1 Model fits

The revised model was fitted to six sets of CPUE indices (4 UJPLL, UPOR, and UZAF) reasonably well (Figure 8). The decline in the UJPLL indices from the 1990s to mid-2000s is mostly driven by the significant increase of catches as well as the reduced recruitment during this period. In the SW region, the model did not fully capture by the large initial decline in the UJPLL, indicating that the extent of the decline is not entirely consistent with the model dynamics. The moderate decline in the UPOR and UZAF indices since the early 2000s was fitted well by model. In more recent years, the model also fitted well the significant increase in the UJPLL in the NE and the large decrease in the SE (as explained by divergent trends in regional recruitment). The standardised residuals show no apparent trend (Figure 9), indicating no gross misfits to these indices.

The fits to the time series of annual length frequency for each of the 14 fisheries are provided in Appendix A (Figures A1–A4). Although there is no gross misfit to these data, the fits were poor in some instances (e.g., JPLL\_SW1970 – 1980). The sampling may have been patchy in some fisheries in some years, with considerable variabilities in individual samples. The fits to the fleet-aggregated length frequency appear reasonable (Figure 10), indicating that the model has captured the gross features of the length composition data well (thus there is probably no significant bias in the estimates of the selectivities). The model also appeared to have tracked the mean length reasonably well – for the TWLL and EUEL fleets, the long-term trends in the predicted mean length are generally consistent with the observations (Figure 11). Compared to the previous assessment, there is a marked improvement in the fits to the length composition from the Japanese longline fishery in NW (JPLL\_NW), due to the use of a more region specific, dome shaped selectivity form, but the model still appear to over-estimated the mean length for the JPLL fleet in the NE and SE in the early years (prior to 2000).



Figure 8: Fit to the regional longline CPUE indices including UJPLL 1994–2021 (except in SW 1994 – 2003), UPOR 2000 – 2021, and UZAF 2004 – 2018 from the revised model.



Figure 9: Standardised residuals from the fits to the CPUE indices from the revised model. Circled dots, UJPLL; light grey, UPOR; grey, UZAF.



Figure 10: Observed (grey bars) and predicted (red line) length compositions (in 9 cm intervals) for each fishery of swordfish aggregated by all years for the revised model.



Figure 11: A comparison of the observed (grey points) and predicted (red points and line) average fish length (FL, cm) of swordfish by fishery for the revised model.

## 5.2.2 Model estimates

The estimated parameters in the revised model include: the overall population scale parameter *R0*, the time series of recruitment deviates, the distribution of recruitment among regions, the fishery selectivity parameters, the catchability parameters for the CPUE indices.

The length-specific selectivity functions are presented in Figure 12. The Japanese longline selectivity in the NW has a significant degree of doming and the selection declined quickly from 150 cm, while the selectivity in other regions was estimated to attach full selection at above 200 cm (similar selectivity was estimated for EUEL fleet in these regions). The selectivity for the TWLL longline fisheries was also estimated to be dome-shaped, with peak selectivity occurring at roughly 150-200 cm, due to the lack of large fish in the catch samples (see Figure 5). The size/sex-based partitioning of the species, in which the larger, predominately female individuals tend to be caught near the extremities of the range, may be consistent with the dome-shaped pattern.

Recruitment deviates were estimated from 1970 - 2020 (Figure 13). There is a very strong signal suggesting that recruitment was very high immediately prior to the start of the targeted fishery in the 1990s, followed by anomalously low recruitment. This trend is suspicious, but without the recruitment anomalies, the model could not provide an adequate fit to the CPUE series. It was expected that the recruitment signal might be corroborated by the size data, but there was not a strong signal in mean sizes, except that the observed mean size for most fleets showed some decline through the 2000s in the SW (see Figure 11). The distribution of recruits showed very similar patterns among regions except for a large pulse in the NE preceding the anomalously large increase of the Japanese longline CPUE towards the end of the time series.

This revised model suggests that the population in the southern regions is considerably lower than the northern regions (Figure 14 – left). The most notable features are the increase in the population estimated around the early 1990s (the beginning of the targeted fishery), the general decline in all regions over the next 20 years. The more recent biomass trend to vary amongst regions, driven by the divergent regional CPUE. The SW region was estimated to be depleted the most, with current biomass estimated to be below 20% of the initial level , while current biomass in other regions were estimated to be above 40% of the unfished level (Figure 14 – right). Overall, the stock biomass appears to have been increasing since the mid-2000s, following the decline in the preceding decade (Figure 15).

In most regions, estimates of fishing mortality for Taiwanese fleets ranged from quite high in the 1990s to the early 2000s, although they have dropped substantially over the past ten years (Figure 16). Since the early 1990s, the fishing mortality from the TWFL fishery in the NE has increased quickly and has remained high in recent years. In the SW, the EUEL fleet has the highest exploitation rate since the early 2000s.

Revisions to the selectivity assumptions (mainly for JPLL fisheries) resulted in the initial biomass estimate being approximately 20% lower than the basic model (Figure 15). The current stock depletion estimate is also much lower, at 33% for the revised model and 41% for the base model (see Figure 15, Table B1).



Figure 12: Length specific selectivity by fishery from the revised model.



Figure 13: Recruitment deviates from the SRR with 95% confidence interval from the basic model



Figure 14: Estimated spawning biomass (left) and depletion (right) for the individual model regions from the revised model.



Figure 15: A comparison of estimated spawning biomass from the basic model and the revised model.



Figure 16: Trends in fishing mortality (annual) by fleet for the reference model

## 5.3 Sensitivity models

Selected results from the sensitivity models are provided in Appendix B. Table B1 summarised the estimates of key model quantities. The estimated  $SSB_0$  ranged from 214105 to 504,255 t, MSY ranged from 28743 t to 61042 t, and current depletion ranged from 34% to 75%.

## Sensitivity related to CPUE:

The model "altCPUE" investigate the effect of alternative CPUE configurations by substituting the more recent UJPLL (the UPOR and UZAF indices in the SW) with the UTWLL (UTWLL and UIND in the NE) indices. In each region, the Japanese index in the beginning period (i.e., 1994 to 2012 in NW) was preserved to provide the model with sufficient information on the level of stock depletion and also to ensure some degree of overlapping with the UTWLL indices (Figure B2). The model resulted very different regional abundance trend in NE and SE regions in recent years (Figure B3), suggesting that there is a lot of uncertainly in the recent changes in abundance in these two regions.

#### Sensitivity related to length composition data:

The sample size for the length composition data was capped at 20 in the revised model. Further analysis showed that a much larger sample size would lead to recruitment (and consequently biomass) mostly driven by the length data. The model with a smaller sample size (i.e. *CL005* where the sample size is capped at 5) estimated a similar level of overall stock biomass with some noticeable difference from late 1970s to the mid-1990s (Figure B1), without appreciable deterioration in the fit to the length composition data or change in the estimates of selectivity. The difference reflected the impact of the relative weighting of length composition data on early-period recruitment deviation estimates. The more recent biomass seemed to be less affected by the decrease in input sample size and was instead driven more by the JPLL CPUE indices, which began in 1994. The sensitivity analysis suggested that the model appears to be reasonably robust to the relative weighting of length composition data are generally consistent. Despite their small impact, the final model options kept both of the sample size options (5 and 20).

## Sensitivity related to biological parameters:

The sensitivity models related to growth, recruit variability and steepness represent alternative, yet plausible values of the biological parameters of the stock. These alternative parameter values did not fundamentally change the conclusion of the assessment but constitute additional uncertainty to the model estimates (Figure B1).

There is no evidence in the data that can help differentiate the two growth options, although the likelihood from the fits to the length composition data slightly favours the growth estimates by Wang (2010). A larger  $\sigma_R$  resulted in larger recruitment variability but did not change the trend in estimated recruitment throughout the model period.

The steepness values appear to have little influence on the fits of data, but is very influential on estimates of MSY-related reference quantities. The stock-recruit function alone is not sufficient to explain the recruitment pattern, and the pattern of anomalous recruitment is similar regardless whether steepness is low or high. The h90 option seems to be at the higher end of results generally assumed for tuna stocks (ISSF 2011). Observations of other SWO populations which have experienced a decrease in fishing effort seem to show a rapid population rebound (North Atlantic, SW Pacific). Together with life history considerations, this suggests that the higher steepness values are probably likely for this species.

#### Sensitivity related to the spatial structure:

Another spatial structure was investigated using the fleet area approach. The model is aggregated by area (single area) but retains the same fleet structure as the 4-region model. The model only included CPUE indices from a specific region, so multiple models were implemented for each set of regional CPUE indices (in NE two models were implemented, based on UJPLL or on UTWLL/UIND indices, see Table 5). These models produced initial biomass estimates (B0) that are very similar to the spatially explicit model, but the use of region-specific CPUE for the whole stock area resulted in lower current stock biomass estimates, thus a more pessimistic stock status, except the model that used UJPLL indices in the NE (see Table B1). This sensitivity suggested that the stock productivity estimate is reasonably robust to the spatial structure, but there is considerable uncertainty in the estimates of current stock depletion due to differences in the regional CPUE index. Assuming that regional indices represent local abundance, it is important that the model incorporates a suitable spatial structure that can fully explain the heterogeneity in the abundance trends of area to reduce bias in overall stock depletion estimates.

## 5.4 Final model options

The UJPLL, UPOR, and UZAF indices are considered as a more credible set of abundance indices for IO swordfish (see Fu 2017, and the discussions in Sections 7), thus were included in the final model options. Other CPUE indices (UTWLL, and UIND) were also included as an alternative yet plausible scenarios. The final model ensemble thus corresponds to a full combination of two CPUE configuration options, three steepness values (*h* 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9), two growth estimates, two levels of recruitment variability, and two levels of weighting on the length composition data, with a total of 48 models (see Table 6). The model "io4\_cj\_h70\_GtMf\_r4\_CL005" was excluded from the final ensemble based on an examination of model estimates because it contained erroneous estimates of selectivity parameters for the JPLL fishery in the NW (while the selectivity can be fixed at estimates from other comparable models, this is not pursed). These models included in the ensemble encompass a wide range of stock trajectories (Figure 17). Across the 47 models in the ensemble, initial spawning biomass (SSB0) ranged from 199,516 to 249, 939 t, current depletion ranged from 19% to 30% (SSB2021/SSB0) (Table 7). In general, higher stock biomass are associated with lower weighting of length composition data, and higher recruitment variability, and a lower steepness value.



Figure 17: Spawning biomass trajectories from the final model grid (key model options differentiated by colours, see Table 6).

Option	$SB_{\theta}$	<b>SB</b> <sub>MSY</sub>	SB <sub>MSY</sub> /SB <sub>0</sub>	SB2018	SB2018/SB0	SB2018/SBMSY	F2018/FMSY	MSY
io4 ci h70 GtMf r2 CL020	232982	65990	0.28	85822	0.37	1.30	0.68	27844
io4_ci_b70_GtMf_r2_CL005	239212	68177	0.29	90106	0.38	1.32	0.66	28375
io4_ci_b70_GtMf_r4_CL020	241174	68311	0.28	85099	0.35	1.25	0.68	28842
io4_ci_h70_GtMf_r4_CL005*	252339	72013	0.29	93059	0.37	1.29	0.64	29782
io4 ci h70 GoMf r2 CL020	227484	63749	0.28	76404	0.34	1.20	0.74	27027
io4 ci h70 GoMf r2 CL005	236238	66549	0.28	82261	0.35	1.24	0.70	27772
io4 ci h70 GoMf r4 CL020	232329	65086	0.28	74351	0.32	1.14	0.75	27657
io4 ci h70 GoMf r4 CL005	263554	74520	0.28	98110	0.37	1.32	0.61	30689
io4 ci h80 GtMf r2 CL020	218357	52819	0.24	81258	0.37	1.54	0.57	30000
io4 ci h80 GtMf r2 CL005	220356	53825	0.24	81668	0.37	1.52	0.57	30047
io4 ci h80 GtMf r4 CL020	243325	59036	0.24	91443	0.38	1.55	0.51	33261
io4 cj h80 GtMf r4 CL005	237502	58156	0.24	89493	0.38	1.54	0.53	32132
io4 cj h80 GoMf r2 CL020	211163	50492	0.24	71148	0.34	1.41	0.62	28919
io4 ci h80 GoMf r2 CL005	215605	52003	0.24	72924	0.34	1.40	0.61	29215
io4 cj h80 GoMf r4 CL020	217361	51966	0.24	71461	0.33	1.38	0.61	29784
io4 cj h80 GoMf r4 CL005	232807	56324	0.24	80697	0.35	1.43	0.57	31288
io4 cj h90 GtMf r2 CL020	208154	39812	0.19	78652	0.38	1.98	0.45	32650
io4 cj h90 GtMf r2 CL005	207444	40357	0.19	76885	0.37	1.91	0.46	32248
io4 cj h90 GtMf r4 CL020	218010	41715	0.19	80939	0.37	1.94	0.44	34155
io4 cj h90 GtMf r4 CL005	227362	44453	0.20	87670	0.39	1.97	0.42	34993
io4 cj h90 GoMf r2 CL020	199591	37758	0.19	68075	0.34	1.80	0.49	31283
io4 cj h90 GoMf r2 CL005	200938	38627	0.19	67325	0.34	1.74	0.50	31126
io4_cj_h90_GoMf_r4_CL020	206727	39111	0.19	69655	0.34	1.78	0.48	32389
io4_cj_h90_GoMf_r4_CL005	218200	42131	0.19	75731	0.35	1.80	0.46	33491

Table 7: Estimates of management quantities for the stock assessment model options. Model io4\_cj\_h70\_GtMf\_r4\_CL005\* is not included in the final ensemble.

io4_ct_h70_GtMf_r2_CL020	235871	69000	0.29	83323	0.35	1.21	0.73	27375
io4_ct_h70_GtMf_r2_CL005	235583	69499	0.30	81506	0.35	1.17	0.76	27042
io4_ct_h70_GtMf_r4_CL020	247225	72388	0.29	84460	0.34	1.17	0.73	28660
io4_ct_h70_GtMf_r4_CL005	249939	73959	0.30	84056	0.34	1.14	0.75	28496
io4_ct_h70_GoMf_r2_CL020	229713	66611	0.29	72774	0.32	1.09	0.80	26582
io4_ct_h70_GoMf_r2_CL005	233176	68096	0.29	72805	0.31	1.07	0.80	26668
io4_ct_h70_GoMf_r4_CL020	237147	68821	0.29	72437	0.31	1.05	0.80	27445
io4_ct_h70_GoMf_r4_CL005	246894	72407	0.29	74792	0.30	1.03	0.79	28032
io4_ct_h80_GtMf_r2_CL020	222629	56362	0.25	80034	0.36	1.42	0.61	29492
io4_ct_h80_GtMf_r2_CL005	218113	55954	0.26	74959	0.34	1.34	0.65	28576
io4_ct_h80_GtMf_r4_CL020	234649	59507	0.25	82521	0.35	1.39	0.60	31010
io4_ct_h80_GtMf_r4_CL005	235815	60853	0.26	81476	0.35	1.34	0.62	30582
io4_ct_h80_GoMf_r2_CL020	214917	54085	0.25	69012	0.32	1.28	0.66	28444
io4_ct_h80_GoMf_r2_CL005	214186	54506	0.25	65861	0.31	1.21	0.69	28018
io4_ct_h80_GoMf_r4_CL020	223469	56337	0.25	70328	0.31	1.25	0.66	29532
io4_ct_h80_GoMf_r4_CL005	231440	59377	0.26	71960	0.31	1.21	0.66	29939
io4_ct_h90_GtMf_r2_CL020	213363	44008	0.21	78194	0.37	1.78	0.48	31965
io4_ct_h90_GtMf_r2_CL005	206062	43484	0.21	71268	0.35	1.64	0.53	30479
io4_ct_h90_GtMf_r4_CL020	225717	46706	0.21	81307	0.36	1.74	0.47	33703
io4_ct_h90_GtMf_r4_CL005	226059	48259	0.21	80183	0.35	1.66	0.50	33001
io4_ct_h90_GoMf_r2_CL020	204458	42268	0.21	66867	0.33	1.58	0.53	30631
io4_ct_h90_GoMf_r2_CL005	199516	41985	0.21	61051	0.31	1.45	0.57	29563
io4_ct_h90_GoMf_r4_CL020	213730	44339	0.21	69007	0.32	1.56	0.52	31933
io4_ct_h90_GoMf_r4_CL005	220703	47268	0.21	70513	0.32	1.49	0.53	32154

## 5.5 Diagnostics

Several diagnostic tools were run for the basic model, including likelihood profiling, ASPM analysis, and retrospective analysis.

## 5.5.1 Profile likelihood

The likelihood profile on the population scaling parameter (R0) did not show major conflicts between datasets (Figure 18). Overall, the CPUE and size data appeared to have provided information on both the upper and lower bounds for the stock abundance, although the information content of CPUE data appears to be very week. The total likelihood is also strongly driven by the recruitment penalty function which penalises large recruit anomalies (required to support the catch history for a small R0. An additional jittering analysis suggested the model has attained the minimum in the likelihood surface examined.



Figure 18:Likelihood profile including total and component likelihood function values for the revised model.

## 5.5.2 ASPM analysis

The Age Structured Production Model (ASPM) analysis (Maunder & Piner 2015) was used to illustrate what is the main driver of the population trend, and whether the composition data has an undue influence on the estimates of abundance. The ASPM analysis involved running a variation of the revused model: where the length composition data were removed from the model (selectivity parameters fixed at the estimates from the basic model) and recruitment deviates were fixed to be zero.

The stock biomass from the ASPM model is shown in Figure 19. The analysis indicated that there is high degree of consistency between the catches and abundance indices for the swordfish stock, i.e. the catch alone explains reasonably well the historical abundance trend concerning the major decline, although a declining recruitment is also required in order to fully accommodate level of deletion from the late 1990s to the early 2000s.



Figure 19: SSB estimates from the ASPM analysis.

#### 5.5.3 Retrospective analysis

Retrospective analysis is diagnostic approach to reveal systematic bias in the model estimation. It involves fitting a stock assessment model to the full dataset. The same model is then fitted to truncated datasets where the data for the most recent years are sequentially removed. The retrospective analysis was conducted to the basic model for the last 5 years of the assessment to evaluate whether there were any strong changes in model results. The analysis indicated there is negligible retrospective pattern for key parameter and reference points estimates, which provided some confidence on the robustness of the model with respect to the inclusion of recent observational data.



Figure 20: Retrospective analysis summary for the revised model.

## 6. STOCK STATUS

#### 6.1 Current status and yields

*MSY* based estimates of stock status were determined for the final model options, including alternative assumptions on growth, alternative values of SRR steepness and recruitment variability, and the alternative weighting of length composition data. Stock status was determined for individual models (Table 7), as well as the for all (47) models combined, incorporating estimation uncertainty of each

model based on estimated variance-covariance matrix of parameters (Table 8). The simulation study by Neubauer et al. (2023) showed that the approach that combined estimation and parameter uncertainty in the ensembles can lead the inclusion of the true stock values in the confidence bounds even when the prior of key productivity parameters are biased (such as the grid axis of the steepness parameter). Barth and Vincent (2022) highlight that the inclusion of estimation error may lead to different estimates of management quantities and risk across a model grid.

*MSY* based reference points were derived based on the average F-at-age matrix in 2018, representing the most recent pattern of exploitation from the fishery. For the selected model options, point estimates of *MSY* ranged from 27027 t to 34933 t (Table 7). Models with higher steepness generally yielded comparatively higher estimates of *MSY*. Annual catches since the 2000s have generally been within the range of the estimated MSY (Figure 21).

In general, current stock biomass relative to the *MSY* based benchmarks are not fundamentally different for the range of model options, although the proximity to the *MSY* benchmarks is sensitive to the different of assumptions. Averaging across the model grid, fishing mortality rates have been increasing since 1990s, and then decreased after the 2000s. Fishing mortality rates have remained relatively stable from 2010 to 2018 and have dropped significantly over the last few years to a level that is well below the  $F_{MSY}$  (Figure 21). Biomass was estimated to have declined considerably from the 1990s through to the 2000s and have slightly increased since 2010 (Figure 21).

Estimates were combined across from the 47 models to generate the final KOBE stock status plot (Figure 22). For individual models, the uncertainty is characterised using the multivariate lognormal Monte-Carlo approach (Walter et al. 2019, Walter & Winker 2019, Winter et al. 2019), based on the maximum likelihood estimates and variance-covariance of  $F/F_{MSY}$  and  $SSB/SSB_{MSY}$ . Thus, estimates of final stock status included both within and across model uncertainty. Combined across the model ensemble,  $SSB_{2018}$  was estimated to be of 1.39  $SSB_{MSY}$  (1.01–1.77), and  $F_{2021}$  was estimated 0.60  $F_{MSY}$  (0.43–0.77) (Table 8). The probability of the stock being in the green Kobe quadrant in 2021 is estimated to be over 95%. The stock is therefore considered not to be overfished and is not subject to overfishing in 2021.

# Table 8: Estimated Status of swordfish in the Indian Ocean from the final model grid (Median and 80% quantile range).

Catch in 2021 (t)	23237
Average catch (t) 2017–2021	30 809
MSY (t)	29 856 (26 319–33 393)
F <sub>MSY</sub>	0.16 (0.12–0.20)
SB <sub>0</sub> (t)	224 673 (200 328-249 019)
$SB_{2021}(t)$	75 891 (58 019–93 764)
$SB_{MSY}(t)$	55 055 (40 243 -69 866)
$SB_{2021}/SB_0$	0.35 (0.32–0.37)
$SB_{2021}/SSB_{MSY}$	1.39 (1.01–1.77)
F <sub>2021</sub> / F <sub>MSY</sub>	0.60 (0.43–0.77)



Figure 21: Estimated stock trajectories for the Indian Ocean swordfish from the final model grid. Thin black lines represent 5%, 50%, 95% percentiles. In the catch plot, dotted lines represent estimate of MSY, the shaded area represents 5th and 95th percentiles



Figure 22: current stock status, relative to  $SB_{MSY}$  (x-axis) and  $F_{MSY}$  (y-axis) reference points for the final model grid. Triangles represent MPD estimates from individual models (purple dots represent the estimates from the revised model). Grey dots represent uncertainty from individual models. The dashed lines represent limit reference points for IO swordfish ( $SB_{lim} = 0.4 SB_{MSY}$  and  $F_{lim} = 1.4 F_{MSY}$ ).

## 6.2 Projection

Stock projections were conducted for the final model grid. For each model, the projections were conducted for a 10-year period (2022–2031) at a constant level of catch set as a multiple of the fishery catches in 2021. Five levels of catch were investigated representing 60% to 140% (in incremental of 20%) of the 2021 catch level. Recruitment during the projection period was at the equilibrium level. For each catch scenario, the probability of the biomass being below the  $SB_{MSY}$  level and the probability of fishing mortality being above  $F_{MSY}$  were determined over the projection horizon (2022 – 2031) using the delta-MVLN estimator (Walter & Winker 2019), based on the variance-covariance derived from estimates of SB/SB<sub>MSY</sub> and F/F<sub>MSY</sub> across the model grid. Thus, the estimator incorporated only the structure uncertainty across the final model options, which is thought to be much larger than the within model uncertainty of individual models.

Under the current levels of catches, the stock biomass is projected to remain relatively stable, with a high probability of maintaining at or above the  $SB_{MSY}$  for the longer term. An increase of 40% or more from current catch levels will likely result in the biomass being dropping below the  $SB_{MSY}$  level for the longer term (with close to 50% probability).

									Pr (B <bmsy)< th=""></bmsy)<>		
Catch	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	
60%	0.02	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
80%	0.02	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
100%	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0	
120%	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	
140%	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.09	0.11	0.14	0.15	
		Pr (F>Fmsy)									
Catch	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	
60%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
80%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
100%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
120%	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.08	
140%	0.18	0.20	0.24	0.28	0.33	0.36	0.40	0.42	0.35	0.30	

Table 9: Projected stock status: the probability of spawning biomass being below  $SB_{MSY}$  and fishing mortality being above  $F_{MSY}$  for 2022 – 2031 for five alternative levels of catch relative to 2021 (24 237mt) for final model grid.

## 7. DISCUSSION

This report presents a preliminary stock assessment for Indian Ocean swordfish using a spatially disaggregated, sex-explicit, and age-structured model. It represents an update and revision of the 2020 assessment model with newly available information, including updated reginal longline CPUE indices and length composition data. There is no fundamental change in the structure of the assessment model compared to the previous assessment except for the revision made to the JPLL selectivity assumption (regionally specific selectivity was estimated instead of a common, shared selectivity). Accordingly, a 'revised' model was configured to assess the model performance and diagnostics, with a range of sensitivity explored to assess the impact of model assumptions. The final model options involved running a combination of parameter and assumption options related to the CPUE configuration, stock-recruitment steepness, recruitment variability, growth, and weighting on the length composition data. The final estimates of stock status are based on a model assemble of 47 models (excluding one model with problematic selectivity estimates), incorporated uncertainty estimates from both within and across the model ensemble. The model ensemble further expanded the previous model grid by including as additional uncertainty axis related to the alternative CPUE options (e.g., replacing the recent UJPLL/UPOR/UZAF indices with UTWLL/UIND indices).

The overall stock status estimates obtained from the range of model options do not differ substantially from the previous assessment. Considering the quantified uncertainty, spawning stock biomass in 2021 was estimated to be 34% of the unfished levels and 170% of the level that can support MSY (SSB2021/SSBMSY = 1.39). With high likelihood, current fishing mortality was estimated to be lower than FMSY (F2021/FMSY = 0.6). The stock is considered not to be overfished and is not subject to overfishing in 2021. The retrospective analysis provided some confidence on the robustness of the model with respect to recent data, yet the uncertainly on levels of most recent recruitment may undermine the predictive capabilities of the model. Annual catches since the 1990s have been within the range of the estimated MSY and the current catch level is projected to be sustainable over the longer term.

The Indian Ocean swordfish fisheries present a number of unique problems in the development of a stock population model: there is a lack of good information on recruitment; there is considerable uncertainty on growth, maturity, and natural mortality; there are good time series of CPUE, but their reliability to track abundance is highly uncertain, given the conflicts between these time series; there is also a large amount of data on size structure, but the sampling may be not random. As with earlier assessments, the models presented here, while fairly representing some of the data (e.g., the biomass indices), also show some signs of poor fit. The assessment tested various combinations of assumptions to explore the sensitivity and describe the uncertainty in the stock status. It is unlikely the estimates of historical stock size are accurate, given assumptions about annual recruitment and the reliance on the historical catch-effort indices of abundance. Current stock status as estimated here should thus be treated with caution.

The Japanese and Taiwanese longline fleets have traditionally been used to generate the abundance indices for Indian Ocean swordfish stocks. These fleets have an extensive history, broad spatial coverage, and substantive logbook programmes. However, the operations of these fleets have changed historically, with large shifts in targeting that are poorly quantified. Conventional fisheries theory suggests that the depletion estimated by the Japanese series has been more consistent with the swordfish exploitation history than the Taiwanese series, and this interpretation has generally been given more weight in the assessment and management advice (Kolody et al. 2011). It is widely known that the catch efficiency of swordifih has experienced dramatic changes in the late 1980s and early 1990s with the deveopment of fresh-chill longline fleets which have further improved on catch rates through refinements to fishing gear such as the the introduction of light sticks and monofilament longlines in this period (Ward & Elscot 2000).

The abrupt decline in the JPN CPUE in the 1990s is the strongest signal in the assessment that drives the inference of very high depletion in most regions. The drop is so steep that the assessment models can only explain it through a combination of fishery depletion and anomalous recruitment (Martell 2010, Kolody 2010). However, it is recognized that the Japanese fleet underwent some changes in the 1990s that might be exaggerating the estimated level of swordfish depletion at that time (Kolody 2011). The recent trend in the Japanese CPUE in the northern regions is also suspicious: the very large increase in the index coincided with the period when vessels returned to the old fishing ground that had been avoided for several years due to the threat of piracy. The increase may be related to a combination of factors including increase in abundance and major changes in catchability, implying a possible non-linear relationship between CPUE and abundance. As such, the Taiwanese indices can provide an alternative possibility of relative abundance trend in recent years.

The conflicts amongst CPUE indices in the SW region represent a concern because there is a perception that this region may be excessively depleted. The recent Japanese CPUE is increasing, while the Portugal, South African CPUE are decreasing, and Taiwanese CPUE are decreasing fast initially but are increasing in the last few years. We would tend to trust the Portuguese and South African series more than the others because: (i) the indices are based on a swordfish target fishery; (ii) these fleets seem to have operated consistently over the recent time period, and ii) the standardisation analyses were very robust to different assumptions.

The assessment is assuming a single IO stock disaggregated into 4 areas with shared spawning and foraging grounds site fidelity. There are very few direct observations of swordfish migration in the Indian Ocean. The few conventional tag recaptures and satellite GPS tag deployments near the Australian coast provided no indication of large-scale movements, but these studies are limited by biased recovery effort and short deployment times respectively (Karen Evans, CSIRO, Australia, pers. comm.). Tagging studies from other oceans suggested residency or homing behaviour amongst components of populations (Carey and Robinson 1981), although a few trans-Atlantic swordfish migrations have been recorded (Kadagi et al 2011). However, it can be indirectly inferred that there are probably some relatively large seasonal migrations. Swordfish can be caught at least as far south as 45° S, however, the spawning regions (and larval distributions) have all been identified in the tropical regions. In the southern hemisphere at least, this suggests substantial directed seasonal migrations. The spawning season also seems to be several months out of phase between the northern and southern regions. It is not clear whether this represents a single annual migration between north and south, or whether distinct populations independently move between lower and higher latitudes in each hemisphere. However, in many cases, resolving the directed seasonal migration patterns is not required in an assessment.

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APPENDIX A: FITS TO LENGTH DATA FOR MAIN FLEETS FROM THE REVISED MODEL

Figure A1. Observed (blue) and predicted (red) length compositions for the four Japanese longline fisheries.



Figure A2. Observed (blue) and predicted (red) length compositions for the four Taiwanese fisheries.



Figure A3. Observed (blue) and predicted (red) length compositions for the EUEL (SW and SE), AUEL, and ISEL fleets.



Figure A4. Observed (blue) and predicted (red) length compositions for the TWFL and ALGI fisheries.



#### APPENDIX B: SELECTED RESULTS FROM THE SENSIVITY MODELS

Figure B1: A comparison of estimated spawning biomass from the basic model sensitivity models – (a) and (b), models related to CPUE options; (c), models related to sample sizes of length composition data; (d): models related on biological parameter assumptions. A description of the sensitivity models is given in Table 5.



Figure B2: (a) Model fits to the CPUE indices from the sensitivity model on the alternative CPUE option (altCPUE), and (b) residual from the model fits.



Figure B3: A comparison of estimated regional spawning biomass between the revised model the model altCPUE

	SB0	<b>SB</b> <sub>MSY</sub>	SB <sub>MSY</sub> /SB <sub>0</sub>	SB2021	SB2021/SB0	SB2021/SBMSY	<b>F</b> 2021/ <b>F</b> MSY	MSY
basic	257 567	60 753	0.24	114 838	0.45	1.89	0.43	34 236
revised	210 778	50 434	0.24	70 556	0.33	1.40	0.62	28 865
altCPUE	214 917	54 085	0.25	69 012	0.32	1.28	0.66	28 444
CL005	215 605	52 003	0.24	72 924	0.34	1.40	0.61	29 215
<b>GtMf</b>	218 357	52 819	0.24	81 258	0.37	1.54	0.57	30 000
r4	217 361	51 966	0.24	71 461	0.33	1.38	0.61	29 784
h70	227 484	63 749	0.28	76 404	0.34	1.20	0.74	27 027
h90	199 591	37 758	0.19	68 075	0.34	1.80	0.49	31 283
ionw	194 074	44 929	0.23	56 583	0.29	1.26	0.74	27 579
ione	212 475	49 284	0.23	95 415	0.45	1.94	0.46	29 959
ione2	193 924	44 897	0.23	51 379	0.26	1.14	0.80	27 546
iosw	190 765	44 130	0.23	39 819	0.21	0.90	0.99	27 187
iose	184 967	42 740	0.23	36 918	0.20	0.86	1.05	26 449

 Table B1: Maximum Posterior Density (MPD) estimates of the main stock status indicators from the basic and sensitivity model options.