

1 **Assessing the performance of statistical classifiers to discriminate fish stocks using**
2 **Fourier analysis of otolith shape**

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13 **Abstract**

14 The assignment of individual fish to its stock of origin is important for reliable stock
15 assessment and fisheries management. Otolith shape is commonly used as the marker of
16 distinct stocks in discrimination studies. Our literature review showed that the application and
17 comparison of alternative statistical classifiers to discriminate fish stocks based on otolith
18 shape is limited. Therefore, we compared the performance of two traditional and four machine
19 learning classifiers based on Fourier analysis of otolith shape using selected stocks of Atlantic
20 cod (*Gadus morhua*) in the southern Baltic and Atlantic herring (*Clupea harengus*) in the
21 western Norwegian Sea, Skagerrak and the southern Baltic Sea. Our results showed that the
22 stocks can be successfully discriminated based on their otolith shapes. We observed
23 significant differences in the accuracy obtained by the tested classifiers. For both species,
24 support vector machines (SVM) resulted in the highest classification accuracy. These findings
25 suggest that modern machine learning algorithms, like SVM, can help to improve the
26 accuracy of fish stock discrimination systems based on the otolith shape.

27

28 **Key words:** Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua*, Atlantic herring *Clupea harengus*, fish stock
29 discrimination, machine learning, support vector machines

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Discrimination of fish stocks is essential for reliable fisheries resource management and is
32 currently an integral part of modern fish stock assessments (Begg et al. 1999). Many
33 commercially exploited fish stocks show strong habitat overlaps, resulting in a temporal
34 mixing. A disregard of stock mixing, particularly when stocks differ in productivity, may lead
35 to the overexploitation of unique spawning components (Kell et al. 2004; Kerr et al. 2017).
36 Therefore, individuals from mixed-stock catches need to be assigned to their stock of origin
37 using reliable stock discrimination methods with high classification accuracy (Cadrin et al.
38 2014).

39 One widely applied stock discrimination technique involves otoliths; calcium carbonate
40 structures located in the inner ear of fishes (Campana and Casselman 1993). Otolith shape is
41 mostly driven by a combination of environmental and genetic factors and contains stock-
42 specific features, which are usable as a relevant marker of distinct stocks (Vieira et al. 2014;
43 Berg et al. 2018). In recent years, diverse methods enabling the description of the otolith
44 shape were developed and tested, such as curvature-based descriptors, wavelets, shape
45 geodesics or mirroring techniques (Parisi-Baradad et al. 2005; Nasreddine et al. 2009; Harbitz
46 and Albert 2015). However, otolith outlines are still most frequently investigated with a
47 mathematical scheme of Fourier decomposition, namely fast Fourier transform or elliptical
48 Fourier analysis (Stransky 2014). Both fast Fourier transform and elliptical Fourier techniques
49 decompose shape, which is a polygon of two-dimensional coordinates, into a spectrum of
50 harmonically related trigonometric curves and calculate coefficients describing each of these
51 curves (for details see Haines and Crampton 2000; Kuhl and Giardina 1982). Calculated
52 coefficients may be then used as predictors for the discrimination of fish stocks in
53 multivariate statistical analysis (Stransky 2014).

54 However, once shape coefficients are extracted, little attention has been paid to apply and
55 compare performances of alternative statistical systems to assign fish individuals to known
56 groups (stocks or species) based on their otolith shape. Available classifiers arise from
57 different fields, like statistics (e.g., linear discriminant analysis), artificial intelligence and
58 data mining (e.g., decision-trees) or connectionist approaches (e.g., neural networks)
59 (Fernández-Delgado et al. 2014). Most machine learning (ML) algorithms are not yet part of
60 the traditional statistical modeling, hence their application in ecology is still scarce (Olden et
61 al. 2008). However, modern ML algorithms have a high potential to outperform traditional
62 parametric classifiers in solving real-world classification problems (Fernández-Delgado et al.
63 2014). They are much more flexible than conventional models and are able to handle the non-
64 linear relationships and interacting elements that often characterize biological data (Guisan
65 and Zimmermann 2000). Current computational capabilities and freely available statistical
66 software allow relatively easy implementation of these modern algorithms and they may be
67 valuable in the development of fish stock discrimination routines. The advantages of ML
68 applications have been already considered in other stock discrimination approaches, like in
69 otolith chemistry (e.g., Mercier et al. 2011) or analysis of parasitological markers (e.g.,
70 Perdiguero-Alonso et al. 2008). These studies strongly suggest that current ML classifiers are
71 already well suited to assign fish to stocks and that classification abilities are improved
72 compared to traditional discriminant analysis.

73 Few studies used ML algorithms and Fourier analysis of otolith shape to discriminate fish
74 stocks (e.g., Zhang et al. 2016; Mapp et al. 2017). However, these studies did not compare the
75 ML performance with traditional classifiers like linear discriminant analysis. Only recently
76 Jones and Checkley (2017) compared random forest with discriminant analysis to identify
77 otoliths found in sediment cores and showed that the ML approach outperformed the
78 traditional classifier. However, they applied these algorithms to distinguish between species,

79 i.e. between higher taxonomic groups that naturally show stronger otolith shape differences
80 than between fish stocks. To the best of our knowledge, no comprehensive comparison of
81 traditional and modern ML classifiers to assign individuals to fish stocks has been conducted.
82 Here, we apply six statistical classifiers (two traditional: linear discriminant analysis (LDA),
83 quadratic discriminant analysis (QDA), and four machine learning classifiers: K-nearest
84 neighbors (KNN), classification and regression trees (CART), random forest (RF) and support
85 vector machines (SVM)) to discriminate stocks of two commercially exploited fish species,
86 where Fourier analysis of otolith shape is required for accurate estimation of mixing ratios for
87 a proper stock assessment: Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) in the southern Baltic and Atlantic
88 herring (*Clupea harengus*) in the northeastern Atlantic.

89 This paper aims to i) conduct a systematic review of the available scientific literature focusing
90 on statistical classifiers associated with Fourier analysis of otolith shape for discrimination
91 purposes; ii) investigate the otolith shape variability of cod and herring stocks by applying
92 elliptical Fourier analysis; and iii) assess the performance of traditional and recent ML
93 classifiers to assign fish individuals to their group of origin based on their otolith shape.
94

95 **2. Materials and methods**

96 2.1. Literature review of the use of statistical classifiers

97 Peer-reviewed literature was searched in the Web of Science Core Collection database using
98 the keywords: “otolith\$” and “Fourier”. Only English-language studies on otolith shape that
99 applied Fourier analysis to discriminate fish groups at different biosystematics levels
100 (ecotype, stock, population, species) were chosen for further investigation. Selected literature
101 was reviewed to analyze which statistical classification algorithm was applied to discriminate
102 different fish groups. Different types of algorithms based on the framework of Fisher
103 discriminant analysis (Fisher 1936), including parametric and nonparametric extensions, were

104 aggregated as one group ("discriminant analysis"). The list of 106 publications used in the
105 review process is given in the supplementary materials (Table S1).

106

107 2.2. Study species and datasets

108 2.2.1. Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua*

109 Atlantic cod is one of the most important commercially exploited fish species across the
110 North Atlantic Ocean, inhabiting also the brackish waters of the Baltic Sea. Here, Baltic cod
111 is managed as two separate stocks: one western stock (ICES subdivisions (SDs) 22-24) and
112 one eastern stock (SDs 24-32, ICES 2019a). The genetically distinct cod stocks coexist in the
113 Arkona Basin (SD 24, Hemmer-Hansen et al. 2018, Weist et al. 2019), resulting in
114 uncertainties in the stock assessment. Since the ICES benchmark in 2015, otoliths of cod from
115 commercial samples from the mixing area are assigned to their respective stock of origin
116 using Elliptic Fourier descriptors and LDA (ICES 2015, 2019b; Hüseyin et al. 2016). For this
117 study, we used otolith images of genetically validated Baltic cod samples (N=507, Weist et al.
118 2019) from the mixing area (SD24, Fig.1) and from adjacent areas (Belt Sea (SD 22),
119 Øresund (SD 23) and Bornholm Basin (SD 25)). The dataset consists of 52% western Baltic
120 cod (WBC) and 48% eastern Baltic cod (EBC) (Table 1). For further details refer to Schade et
121 al. (2019).

122

123 2.2.2. Atlantic herring *Clupea harengus*

124 Atlantic herring is a commercially exploited fish species in the northeastern Atlantic that has
125 been a key species for stock discrimination studies (Geffen 2009). Herring stocks in this
126 region consist of multiple spawning components. In this study, we analyzed otoliths from four
127 distinct spawning components (Table 1): Norwegian spring spawners (NSS, 27% of herring
128 data), coastal Skagerrak spring spawners (CSS, 20%), Greifswald Bay herring (GB, 31%) and

129 central Baltic northern component (CBNC, 22%) (ICES 2018a, 2018b). While NSS is clearly
130 a separate stock, CSS and GB are managed within the stock of western Baltic spring spawners
131 (WBSS), whereas CBNC is part of the central Baltic herring (CBH) stock. To ensure that
132 distinct components were sampled, we only used herring sampled in spawning condition.
133 Further, only herring of age 5-6 were selected to reduce age effects on shape variability
134 (Libungan et al. 2015). Herring were mainly collected during scientific surveys, except for
135 GB and some samples of CSS that were caught by local fishers using gillnets.

136

137 2.3. Otolith shape analysis

138 For cod and herring, shape images of clean and unbroken sagittal otoliths were used. Images
139 of the right otolith were preferred; otherwise, the image of the left otolith was flipped. There
140 are no differences between left and right otoliths for cod (Campana and Casselman 1993;
141 Cardinale et al. 2004) and herring (Libungan et al. 2015). High-resolution images were
142 binarized using the threshold function of the GNU Image Manipulation program (Natterer and
143 Neumann 2008).

144 For the shape analysis, outlines were automatically obtained from converted images using the
145 *Momocs* package (Bonhomme et al. 2014) in the R environment (R Core Team 2018).

146 Elliptical Fourier analysis proposed by Kuhl and Giardina (1982) was used to quantify otolith
147 outlines. This technique decomposes two-dimensional shape with a sum of harmonics, where
148 each harmonic is described by four coefficients (two for x -axis and two for y -axis
149 coordinates). Precision of approximate reconstruction of shapes increases with the number of
150 harmonics used, but it is recommended to reduce the number of harmonics for multivariate
151 analysis. To define the appropriate number of harmonics, 100 otoliths were randomly sampled
152 from the whole set and the Fourier power (PF_n) spectrum and cumulated Fourier power (PF_c)
153 was calculated with the following formulas:

$$PF_n = \frac{A_n^2 + B_n^2 + C_n^2 + D_n^2}{2}$$

$$PF_c = \sum_1^n PF_n$$

154 where A_n , B_n , C_n , D_n are the coefficients of n^{th} harmonic (Lord et al. 2012). The number of
 157 harmonics that reaches 99% of cumulated Fourier power of 30 harmonics were chosen to
 158 summarize shapes of otoliths (Stransky et al. 2008b; Vieira et al. 2014). The first three
 159 coefficients were taken as fixed values ($A_1=1$; $B_1=C_1=0$) to normalize otoliths for size,
 160 orientation and starting point (Tracey et al. 2006). Mean otolith shapes of different stock
 161 components were calculated by invert transformation of Fourier coefficients. Overall variance
 162 in the shape of otoliths was assessed with principal component analysis (PCA) integrated with
 163 morphospaces (theoretical shapes were reconstructed based on the PCA scores) (Bonhomme
 164 et al. 2014).

165

166 2.4. Statistical classifiers

167 Among the six selected algorithms, linear discriminant analysis (LDA) and quadratic
 168 discriminant analysis (QDA) were chosen as one of the most popular classifiers, widely
 169 implemented in otolith-based fish stock and species discrimination (e.g., Paul et al. 2013;
 170 Zhang et al. 2013). They are applied to predict the affiliation of observations from two or
 171 more known classes. Both classifiers use the best combination of several characters that
 172 provide the strongest separation of classes by maximizing the standard deviation between
 173 obtained groups and minimizing them within groups (Fisher 1936).

174 K-nearest neighbors (KNN) algorithm is one of the simplest ML classifier that can be applied
 175 both to binary and multiclass problems (Hall et al. 2008). In the first step, it selects the nearest
 176 neighbors and then determines the class of observation using these selected neighbors. One of
 177 the KNN advantages is its higher tolerance of the data structure (Hastie et al. 2009).

178 Similarly, classification and regression trees (CART), a nonparametric procedure, requires no
179 assumptions about the distribution of the data. These models are obtained by recursively
180 partitioning the data space and fitting a simple prediction model within each partition. As a
181 result, the partitioning can be represented graphically as a decision tree (Loh 2011).

182 Random forest (RF) is an ensemble technique, based on a set of CARTs, where a bootstrap
183 approach is implemented to select a random set of observations and variables used to
184 construct each tree in ensemble. Finally, decisions of all trees on object allocation are
185 aggregated and the majority is used in order to provide final class prediction (Breiman 2001).

186 Support vector machines (SVM) was selected among the broad range of ML approaches,
187 because of its ability to deal with high-dimensional datasets and its flexibility in modeling
188 diverse data sources (Ben-Hur et al. 2008). This technique uses kernel functions to project the
189 predictive variables into feature space with more dimensions than the initial space of the input
190 data, allowing the construction of linear models (Cortes and Vapnik 1995).

191

192 2.5. Statistical analysis

193 All predictors (Fourier coefficients) were examined for normality with graphical tools (Zuur
194 et al. 2010). None of the variables showed significant deviation from normal distribution. For
195 each fish species, differences in total fish length between stock components were tested and
196 found to be significant using one-way ANOVA (TukeyHSD, $p < 0.001$). To test allometric
197 effects of fish length on shape coefficients, analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were
198 conducted. Information on stock components origin was included in the model as fixed
199 factors and fish length as covariate. If the interaction between fixed factor and covariate was
200 significant, the variable was excluded from the dataset, otherwise, shape coefficients with
201 significant fish length effect were standardized using the common slope for all stock
202 components (Zhuang et al. 2014).

203 Classification and Regression Training package *caret* (Kuhn 2008) for R was used to compare
204 performances of selected classifiers. The package allows for different algorithms to be trained
205 in a consistent environment and to conduct the tuning of the machine learning parameters. All
206 predictor variables were scaled and centered in a preprocessing stage. Optimal
207 hyperparameters of KNN (k), CART (cp), RF ($mtry$) and SVM (σ and C) were defined during
208 preliminary tuning (Fig. S1 and S2). Following Mercier et al. (2011) and Zhang et al. (2016),
209 a 4-fold cross-validation resampling method was used to provide the data for the assessment
210 of the performance of each classifier. This validation method is advised as a reasonably stable
211 and low biased measure of model performance (Hastie et al. 2009), but typically indicates
212 lower accuracy of the evaluated algorithms than most often applied leave-one-out cross-
213 validation. Datasets were randomly split into four equal subsets with preservation of class
214 ratios, where three subsets (75% of observations) were used as training data to classify the
215 remaining subset (25% of observations). Validation was repeated for each of the four splits.
216 Additionally, 100 repetitions of the whole process were conducted using a bootstrap approach
217 with independent resampling (Hastie et al. 2009). Confusion (error) matrices (e.g. Kuhn 2008;
218 Perdiguer-Alonso et al. 2008) were generated and classification accuracy (the percentage of
219 fish correctly assigned to their actual class) was calculated as a measure of classifier quality.
220 In order to assess the influence of the number of Fourier harmonics used for the shape
221 representation on classification accuracy, each cross-validation procedure (400 repetitions)
222 was conducted on datasets produced with between 2 to n harmonics, where n is the number of
223 harmonics that reach 99% of cumulated Fourier power. When number of variables was lower
224 than the specified optimal hyperparameter $mtry$ for RF, the default $mtry$ was applied, which
225 equals the square root of the number of variables. Moreover, in order to assess the influence
226 of the number of classes on the performance of classifiers, herring dataset was split into two-
227 class subsets and similar cross-validation was run for each pair of spawning components. The

228 algorithms were developed in parallel, using the same training and test sets. Therefore, paired
229 t-tests with adjusted p-values to control false discovery rates (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995)
230 were used to test differences in accuracies of classifiers in relation to the dataset with the n
231 number of Fourier harmonics. The importance of Fourier descriptors was calculated with the
232 *varImp* function of the *caret* package and was visualized in decreasing order using mean
233 importance for all models. All of the models were built using following the R packages: LDA
234 and QDA with *MASS* (Brian et al. 2015), KNN with *caret* (Kuhn 2008), CART with *rpart*, RF
235 with *randomForest* (Liaw and Wiener 2002) and SVM based on the radial basis function
236 (RBF) kernel with *kermlab* (Karatzoglou et al. 2015).

237

238 3. Results

239 3.1. Literature review of the use of statistical classifiers

240 Among 106 selected papers published in the period from 1990 to 2018 that incorporate
241 Fourier analysis as the method for otolith shape description, the framework of Fisher
242 discriminant analysis (DA) was the most popular statistical approach. Studies that applied
243 only DA constituted ~92%, while one study (<1%) used DA and RF in parallel (Jones and
244 Checkley 2017). The remaining ~7% of the publications applied classifiers other than DA to
245 assign samples to their respective class, e.g., support vector machines or K-nearest neighbors
246 classifier (Reig-Bolaño et al. 2010b; Benzinou et al. 2013), boundary-based shape
247 classification (Nasreddine et al. 2009), between-class correspondence analysis (Ponton 2006),
248 or random forest (e.g., Zhang et al. 2016).

249 Application of more than one classifier in the same analysis was scarce (~8% of papers).

250 Comprehensive comparison of accuracy of nine ML algorithms was done by Mapp et al.
251 (2017), including naive Bayes, Bayesian networks, logistic regression, HyperPipes, C4.5, RF,
252 KNN, SVM, and rotation forest. Jones and Checkley (2017) showed that RF algorithms

253 outperformed DA in terms of accuracy. Torres et al. (2000) presented that QDA was superior
254 to LDA, while Finn et al. (1997) found no differences between LDA and QDA models. SVM
255 performed better than KNN in terms of correct classification rate, but the second classifier
256 resulted in more stable performances across the classes and has been chosen for
257 discrimination of fish based on otolith shape in Benzinou et al. (2013).

258 3.2. Otolith shape variability

259 Precision of approximate reconstruction of shapes increased with the number of harmonics
260 used (Fig. 2). For both species, 13 harmonics were needed to achieve 99% of cumulative
261 Fourier power summarizing the otolith shapes. Consequently, the first 13 harmonics were
262 used in further analyses. Due to the significant interaction between stock components and fish
263 total length in the ANCOVA models ($p < 0.001$), six and 12 Fourier descriptors were excluded
264 from cod and herring data, respectively. A further 23 (cod) and 29 (herring) descriptors were
265 corrected for the fish length effect using a common slope.

266 Visual inspection of mean otolith shape identified differences between cod stocks and herring
267 components (Fig. S3). Among cod stocks, WBC had wider otoliths than EBC. Otoliths of
268 NSS and CBNC herring were generally wider than those of CSS and GB herring, which mean
269 otolith shapes were very similar.

270 For cod, the first two PCA axes explained 72.6% of the overall variance in the shape of
271 otoliths (Fig. 3a). The two cod stocks were mainly separated along the first axis, even though
272 a strong overlap was observed. For herring, 66.3% of the overall variance was explained by
273 the first two axes (Fig. 3b).

274

275 3.3. Classification accuracy

276 The classification accuracy of cod otoliths increased with increasing number of harmonics but
277 stayed relatively constant for six and more harmonics (Fig. 4a). One exception is QDA, where

278 the accuracy slightly decreased with a higher number of harmonics. In comparison, the
279 accuracy continued to increase for herring otoliths with increasing number of harmonics (Fig.
280 4b).

281 The accuracy differed significantly between classifiers, except for QDA and KNN for cod
282 otoliths as well as LDA and KNN for herring (Table 2). For both species, SVM resulted in the
283 highest classification accuracy (Fig. 4), even when herring data were sequentially split into
284 two-class subsets (Fig. S4). LDA resulted in slightly but significantly lower accuracy for cod
285 (Fig. 4a, Table 2).

286 The 4-fold cross-validation using SVM (best classifier) and 13 harmonics (accounting for
287 99% variance of the otolith shape) resulted in an accuracy of 79.54% for cod and 74.13% for
288 herring (Table 3). For cod, the misclassification rate was equal in both stocks (~10%). For
289 herring, the highest misclassification occurred between GB and CSS herring (~7%).

290 Misclassification among the other herring components was low (<1%).

291 The relative importance of individual Fourier descriptors was consistent among statistical
292 classifiers for both species (Fig. 5), except for CART. CART and RF both rely on the
293 importance of only a few descriptors (~8 or less), while the other classifiers rely on the
294 importance of a higher number of Fourier descriptors.

296 4. Discussion

297 Presented review of the literature showed that the application and comparison of alternative
298 classifiers to discriminate fish groups based on their otolith shape is limited. In this study,
299 stock-specific differences in otolith shapes for cod and herring could be detected, which
300 enables the assignment of individual fish to its respective stock of origin. Moreover, a
301 comparison of different statistical classifiers suggested that ML algorithms, in particular

302 SVM, can improve the accuracy in stock discrimination approaches using the shape of
303 otoliths.

304

305 4.1 Literature review of the use of statistical classifiers

306 The literature review emphasized that traditional DA was used in most of the studies for the
307 classification of fish groups based on the elliptical Fourier descriptors of otolith shape, while
308 application of alternative classifiers was less common. For example, Zhang et al. (2016) used
309 random forest to discriminate stocks of the Japanese Spanish mackerel (*Scomberomorus*
310 *niphonius*) based on Fourier descriptors of otolith shapes, but no comparison with other
311 classifiers was reported. Mapp et al. (2017) used nine ML algorithms for fish stock separation
312 of two clupeid species using otolith shapes. However, the study of Mapp et al. (2017) was not
313 focused on the absolute classification accuracy, but on the applicability of morphometric
314 approaches that incorporate size information. No comparison with traditional classifiers, like
315 linear discriminant analysis, was made in Mapp et al. (2017), while Jones and Checkley
316 (2017) showed that RF algorithms were superior to DA during classification of fish
317 individuals into different taxonomic groups based on the morphological descriptors and
318 elemental compositions of otoliths.

319 Studies comparing more than one statistical classification algorithm indicated that the success
320 of fish classification can be significantly improved by alternative classifiers (Torres et al.
321 2000). These findings stress the need for the comparison of different classifiers, i.e., different
322 approaches should be explored so that the best method is used in order to achieve the best
323 possible assignment. More accurate assignment of individual fish allows for more robust
324 estimation of the contribution of different fish stocks within the mixing areas (i.e., a mixed
325 stock scenario, Hüsey et al. 2016). Accurate estimates of mixing levels can help to understand

326 how movement and mixing affect stock dynamics and provide the quantitative basis for
327 annual stock assessments and scientific advice (Horbowy 2005; Taylor et al. 2011).

328

329 4.2 Otolith shape variability

330 Our results support the previous studies showing that Baltic cod stocks can be successfully
331 discriminated based on the elliptical Fourier analysis of otolith outlines (Paul et al. 2013;
332 Hüsey et al. 2016). Significant differences in otolith shape were also reported for other stocks
333 and spawning populations of cod, e.g., the northeast Arctic and Norwegian coastal cod
334 (Stransky et al. 2008a), Faroe Plateau cod (Cardinale et al. 2004) or Icelandic cod
335 (Petursdottir et al. 2006). Mean shapes reconstructed on the calculated Fourier descriptors
336 indicated that the otolith outline of WBC and EBC differ in the large-scale shape
337 characteristics (mainly length–width relationship), where otoliths from the western stock are
338 wider and rounder than those from the eastern stock, which is in line with previous
339 observations (Paul et al. 2013; Hüsey et al. 2016). Differences in circularity and rectangularity
340 of otoliths were also reported in other cod stocks (Campana and Casselman 1993; Cardinale et
341 al. 2004).

342 Similarly, discrimination methods based on the analysis of otolith outlines were applied to
343 separate populations of herring in the Northern Atlantic (e.g., Burke et al. 2008; Libungan et
344 al. 2015). Our study revealed differences in otolith shape between herring components. Most
345 of the differences were based on the relationships between the length and width of the whole
346 otolith. NSS and CBNC have wider otoliths, but the rostrum of NSS herring otoliths is clearly
347 longer. Confusion matrices of the cross-validated models (Table 3) indicated that a relatively
348 large number of individuals from the CSS and GB were mis-assigned, suggesting similarity in
349 otolith shape. This result supports the current assessment approach, where both spawning
350 components are considered as one stock (WBSS) because of the high level of overlap (ICES

351 2018b). Although selected herring spawning components were discriminated with a high level
352 of accuracy, further studies need to include other stock components in this region, such as the
353 autumn spawners and the southern component of CBH (ICES 2018a).

354 The differences in the shape of fish otoliths, for both fish species, may be associated with a
355 combination of environmental and genetic drivers (Cardinale et al. 2004; Vignon and Morat
356 2010). To explore how these factors influence otolith shape, further analyses are needed,
357 including experimental and laboratory studies with appropriate control of the potentially
358 confounding variables (e.g., Berg et al. 2018). However, even without the mechanistic
359 understanding of the sources of shape variability, these results support the applicability of
360 Fourier analysis of otolith shape in stock discrimination routines and assessment of fish stocks
361 (Cadrin et al. 2014). The use of otoliths as indicator of stock identity has been previously
362 advocated because otoliths are routinely collected for aging in traditional fish monitoring,
363 providing a robust and cost-effective method for stock discrimination (Campana and
364 Casselman 1993; Cardinale et al. 2004).

365

366 4.3 Assessment of statistical classifiers

367 There were significant differences in accuracy between the six statistical classifiers tested.
368 The highest accuracy of fish classification was achieved by SVM, one of the rapidly
369 developing ML classifiers. Accuracy of the SVM model trained on cod data was only 0.9%
370 higher than of the second best performing classifier (LDA), but differences were significant.
371 However, the accuracy of the SVM trained on herring data was 7% to 20% higher than the
372 other classifiers. Good performance of the SVM algorithm, as well as other ML algorithms,
373 has been previously shown in discrimination studies of stocks, species or higher taxonomic
374 levels of fishes based on their otolith shapes (Reig-Bolaño et al. 2010a; Benzinou et al. 2013;
375 Zhang et al. 2016; Mapp et al. 2017).

376 These findings suggest that ML algorithms are a good alternative to traditional classifiers and
377 can help to improve the accuracy of routine fish stock discrimination using the shape of the
378 otolith. Although SVM achieved the highest accuracy in this study, we strongly advise to test
379 a range of statistical classifiers in discrimination studies, because the selection of the best
380 performing algorithm can be case-specific, and depends e.g., on the number of classes,
381 similarity between groups, or type and number of variables in the dataset (Fernández-Delgado
382 et al. 2014).

383 Caution is however warranted. The proposed benchmark of different statistical classifiers
384 should be conducted only in systems with well-defined units. The ability of ML classifiers to
385 find structures and clusters in the data needs to be considered with caution. Application of the
386 ML algorithms for the discrimination of fish groups, where training baselines are not
387 validated (e.g., by genetics or by sampling spawning individuals in their respective spawning
388 area), may potentially lead to confusing results and recognition of subgroups, which may not
389 represent the real biological or management units. The practical problems of managing natural
390 resources with poorly defined units continue to be an important issue (Geffen 2009). For these
391 reasons, the definition of robust baselines for the training of classification algorithms is a
392 crucial point in the development of operational discrimination systems (Cadrin et al. 2014;
393 Hüsey et al. 2016; Schade et al. 2019).

394

395 4.4 Study limitations and future implications

396 In this study, a simple approach was applied, using only Fourier descriptors of otolith shapes
397 as predictors of fish stock affiliation. The focus was exclusively on the differences of
398 statistical classifier accuracies on the length-normalized descriptors of otolith shape (Hüsey et
399 al. 2016). However, incorporation of other potentially informative variables, such as shape
400 indices or routinely collected information on length-at-age, and sex of individual fish can

401 further improve the predictive abilities of classification algorithms (Burke et al. 2008; Mapp
402 et al. 2017). Further, alternatives to reconstruct the otolith shape like wavelet transformation
403 or curvature scale space representation should be reconsidered. Fourier descriptors focusing
404 on periodic phenomena (Harbitz and Albert 2015) might be more suited for cod otoliths that
405 are almost elliptical. For more complex otolith shapes with very localized landmarks, like
406 herring otoliths, wavelet transformation could be better-suited (Sadighzadeh et al. 2014).
407 Besides otolith shapes, ML algorithms were already used successfully in other stock
408 discrimination fields, e.g., population genetics (Guinand et al. 2002), otolith microchemistry
409 (Mercier et al. 2011), hydroacoustics (Robotham et al. 2010) or parasitology (Perdiguero-
410 Alonso et al. 2008), even though the application is still rare.

411 In our study, the analysis of Fourier power spectrum indicated that 13 harmonics were needed
412 to explain 99% of the variance in the otolith shape both for cod and herring. Interestingly,
413 high accuracy for the cod assignment was already obtained with only 5 to 6 harmonics,
414 suggesting that additional higher-frequency harmonics do not incorporate much information
415 for the discrimination of these stocks. These results are in line with the analysis of variable
416 importance which showed that lower-rank descriptors (D5, D1 - describing a global form of
417 otoliths) were the most powerful predictors in all models. The broadly applied practice to
418 include only a certain subset of harmonics (e.g., first N harmonics needed to describe 99% of
419 shape variance) may not be optimal in the context of classification model performance. For
420 fish species with simple otolith shapes, a reduced number of Fourier harmonics may be
421 advantageous. Conversely, the inclusion of a larger number of harmonics in classification
422 systems developed for species with more complex otolith structures, like herring, can help to
423 achieve a better quality of classification models. In our study, a steady improvement of model
424 accuracy with increasing number of harmonics was observed for SVM and RF, trained on the
425 herring dataset. In the case of increasing dimensionality, the ML algorithms clearly

426 outperform traditional classifiers due to their ability to integrate information from many
427 variables without the high risk of overfitting (Breiman 2001; Ben-Hur et al. 2008).
428 Improvement of the ML models accuracy can also be obtained by the elimination of non-
429 informative variables during the model building (e.g., Smoliński 2019). Furthermore,
430 heterogeneous ensemble techniques combining predictions of different model types could also
431 be applied to improve the classification of fish stocks. Such an approach could help to
432 minimize model-specific errors in class predictions and to obtain a more robust assignment of
433 the fish origin.

434 The ability of SVM and other ML algorithms to model complex and non-linear patterns
435 without any assumptions is of great importance in many biological applications (Noble 2006).
436 Therefore, the variable transformations are not needed for the application of these algorithms,
437 which make the pre-processing more straightforward and faster. Moreover, variables with
438 non-normal distribution (typically required for the traditional parametric models) do not need
439 to be excluded after an unsuccessful transformation, preventing from the loss of information
440 potentially valuable for the discrimination of fish groups (Mercier et al. 2011).

441 Future operationalization of developing stock discrimination methods needs profound
442 analyses of the level of temporal variability of within- and between-group differences,
443 particularly in otolith shapes. The presented results are based on the samples collected within
444 a short period of time, limiting the influence of the year-classes and long-term environmental
445 effects on otolith shape. However, if the temporally stable character of fish otolith shapes can
446 be confirmed for particular stocks, it may enable continuous enlargement of databases. In
447 consequence, better performance of ML algorithms can be achieved, because their
448 classification accuracy typically boosts with increasing size of training datasets.

449

450 **4.5 Conclusions**

451 Our study emphasized the potential for applying novel ML algorithms to improve the
452 accuracy of classification systems based on the otolith shape of fish. We recommend
453 conducting comparisons of different statistical classifiers in systems of well-identified stock
454 structures using validated baselines. When temporal mixing of different fish stocks or stock
455 components occurs, as with Baltic cod and herring in the Northeast Atlantic, possible
456 improvements of stock discrimination processes by modern classifiers may be of great
457 importance. More accurate assignment of fish individuals may help to more precisely estimate
458 the contribution of different fish stocks within the mixing areas and in consequence, provide a
459 more reliable quantitative basis for annual stock assessments and scientific advice.

460

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473

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673 **Figures**

674

675 Fig. 1. Distribution of sampling locations of cod and herring. The shape and color of the
676 points indicate the fish species and stock component, respectively. Size of the point shows the
677 number of fish analyzed from the given location. The map was created based on the layer of
678 ICES statistical areas (ICES 2019c).

679

680 Fig. 2. Cumulative Fourier power (PF_c) calculated for cod and herring showing examples of
681 reconstructions of otolith outline with different numbers of harmonics. The box represents the
682 interquartile range (IQR) with the median (midline) and the first and third quantiles at the
683 bottom and top of the box, respectively. Lower and upper whiskers are restricted to 1.5 x IQR
684 and black dots represent outliers.

685

686 Fig. 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) conducted on the Fourier coefficients of otolith
687 shape for cod (a) and herring (b). The levels of variance explained by the first PCA axes are
688 shown on the axes. The morphospace plotted over the observations represents theoretical
689 shapes reconstructed based on the PCA scores.

690

691 Fig. 4. Classification accuracy of different statistical models based on different numbers of
692 Fourier harmonics of otolith shapes. Lines represent median accuracy, shades 10th and 90th
693 percentile. Models in the legend were arranged according to the median accuracy of
694 classification on the dataset with highest number of harmonics.

695

Fig. 5. Variable (Fourier descriptors) relative importance obtained for cod (a) and herring (b)
from otolith shape classification models.

Tables

Table 1. Summary of analyzed samples including fish species, stocks, components, capture years, sample size (N), mean total fish length (TL) \pm standard deviation (SD), mean and range of age. *Due to age reading difficulties of eastern Baltic cod (EBC), age was only determined for western Baltic cod (WBC) captured in SD22 and SD23. NA= not available.

Species	Stock	Component	Years	N	Mean TL \pm SD [cm]	Mean age	Age range
Cod	EBC		2015, 2016	243	43.11 \pm 5.24	NA	NA
Cod	WBC		2015, 2016	264	47.71 \pm 9.86	2.89*	1-6*
Herring	WBSS	CSS	2006, 2012, 2017	157	29.25 \pm 1.40	5.40	5-6
Herring	NSS	NSS	2018	207	31.08 \pm 1.63	5.20	5-6
Herring	CBH	CBNC	2017	170	19.39 \pm 1.81	5.51	5-6
Herring	WBSS	GB	2018	238	27.63 \pm 1.32	5.28	5-6

Table 2. Comparison of algorithm accuracies for cod (a) and herring (b). Dataset for the comparison was built on 13 harmonics (accounting for 99% variance of the otolith shape). Estimates of the difference (% accuracy) are reported in the upper diagonals, while p-values (with Bonferroni adjustment) for the hypothesis of no difference are reported in the lower diagonals.

a) cod	LDA	QDA	KNN	CART	RF	SVM
LDA		6.63	7.29	12.18	3.50	-0.90
QDA	< 0.001		0.66	5.55	-3.13	-7.53
KNN	< 0.001	0.0689		4.88	-3.79	-8.20
CART	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-8.67	-13.08
RF	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-4.41
SVM	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
b) herring	LDA	QDA	KNN	CART	RF	SVM
LDA		-4.69	-0.48	8.80	-2.96	-11.20
QDA	< 0.001		4.21	13.49	1.73	-6.50
KNN	0.204	< 0.001		9.28	-2.48	-10.71
CART	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-11.76	-19.99
RF	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-8.24
SVM	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	

Table 3. Cross-validated (4-fold, repeated 100 times) confusion matrix obtained for cod and herring stocks with the best classifier (support vector machines) on Fourier descriptors of otolith shape. Entries are percentual average cell counts across resamples. Average accuracy (sum of diagonal cells): cod = 79.54; herring = 74.13.

Prediction	Reference					
	EBC	WBC	CSS	NSS	CBNC	GB
EBC	38.0	10.5				
WBC	9.9	41.6				
CSS			10.7	0.9	0.7	6.3
NSS			0.9	23.1	2.2	0.8
CBNC			0.4	2.3	17.7	1.1
GB			8.4	0.4	1.4	22.6

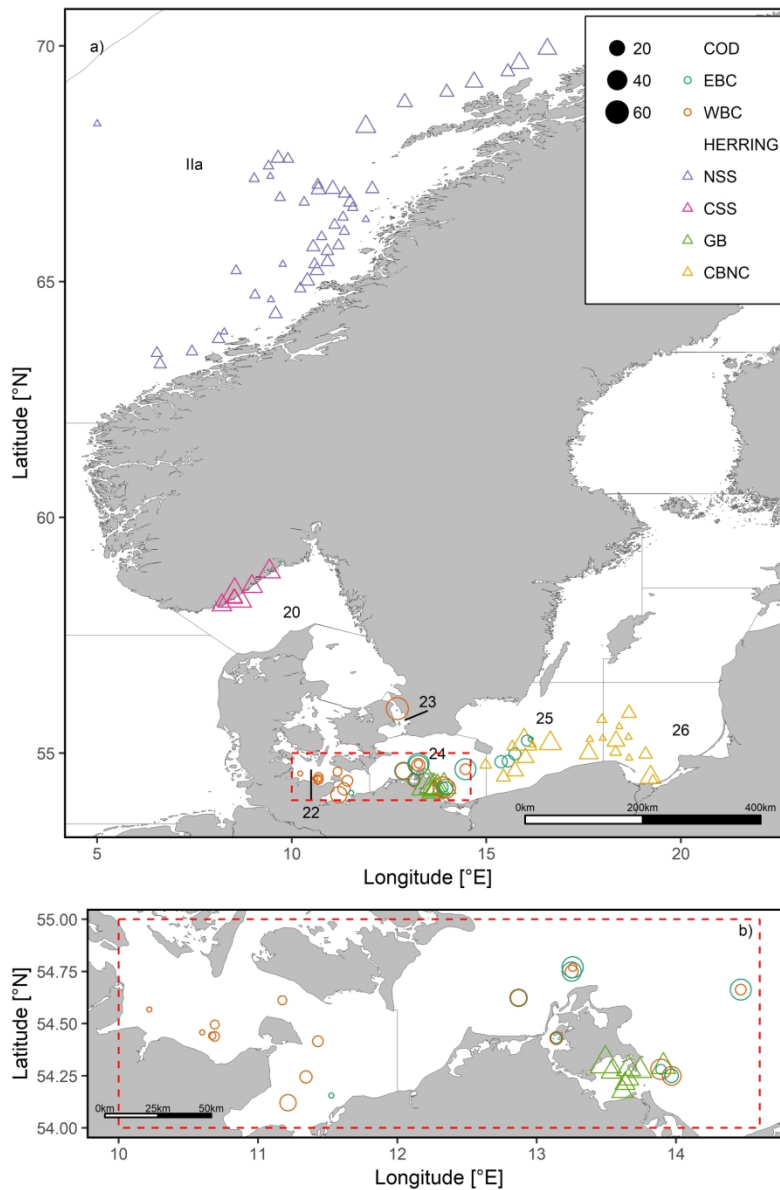


Fig. 1. Distribution of sampling locations of cod and herring. The shape and color of the points indicate the fish species and stock component, respectively. Size of the point shows the number of fish analyzed from the given location. The map was created based on the layer of ICES statistical areas (ICES 2019c).

152x228mm (300 x 300 DPI)

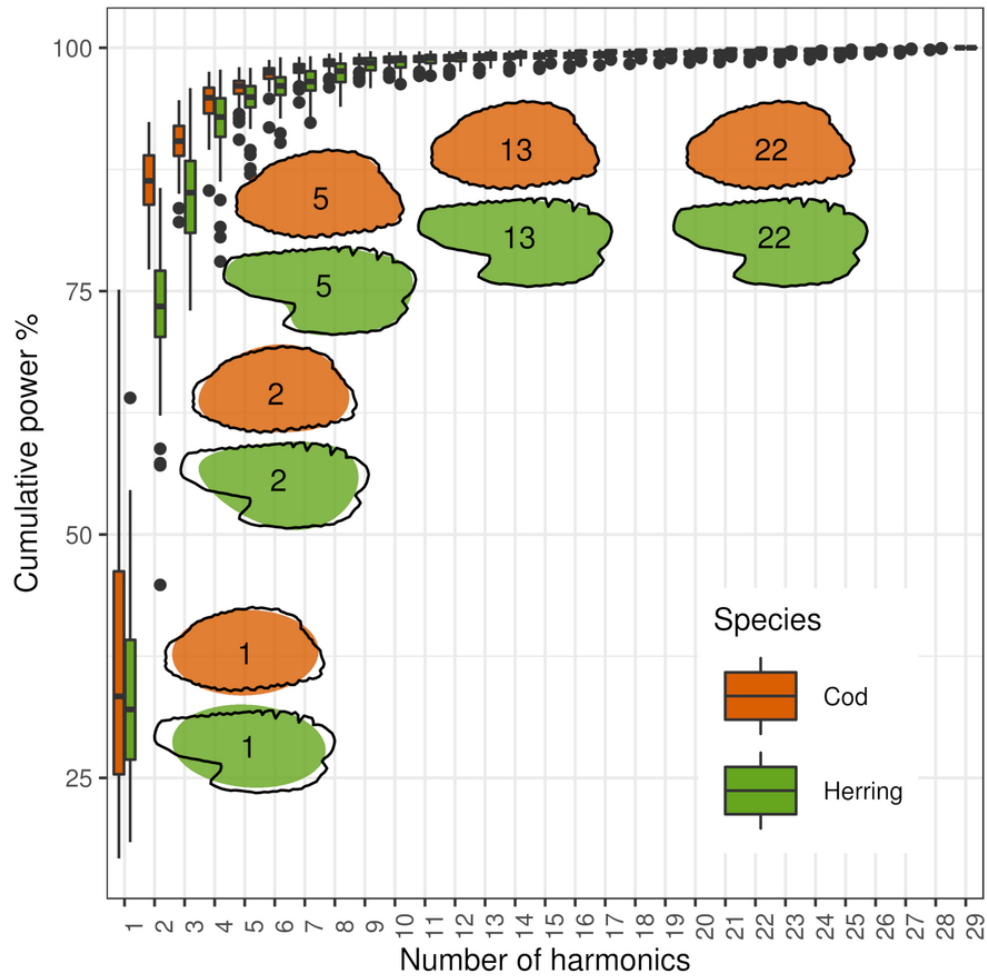


Fig. 2. Cumulative Fourier power (PF_C) calculated for cod and herring showing examples of reconstructions of otolith outline with different numbers of harmonics. The box represents the interquartile range (IQR) with the median (midline) and the first and third quartiles at the bottom and top of the box, respectively. Lower and upper whiskers are restricted to 1.5 x IQR and black dots represent outliers.

76x76mm (300 x 300 DPI)

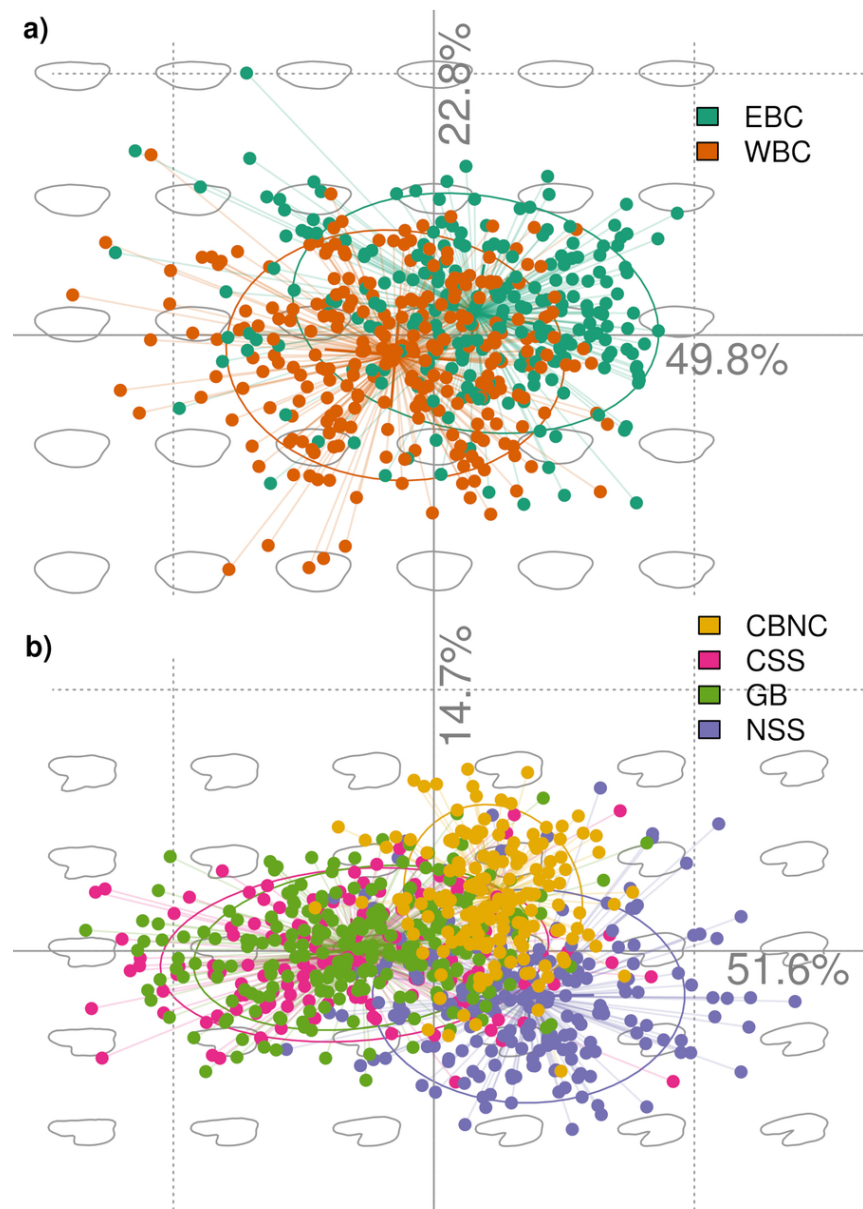


Fig. 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) conducted on the Fourier coefficients of otolith shape for cod (a) and herring (b). The levels of variance explained by the first PCA axes are shown on the axes. The morphospace plotted over the observations represents theoretical shapes reconstructed based on the PCA scores.

76x106mm (300 x 300 DPI)

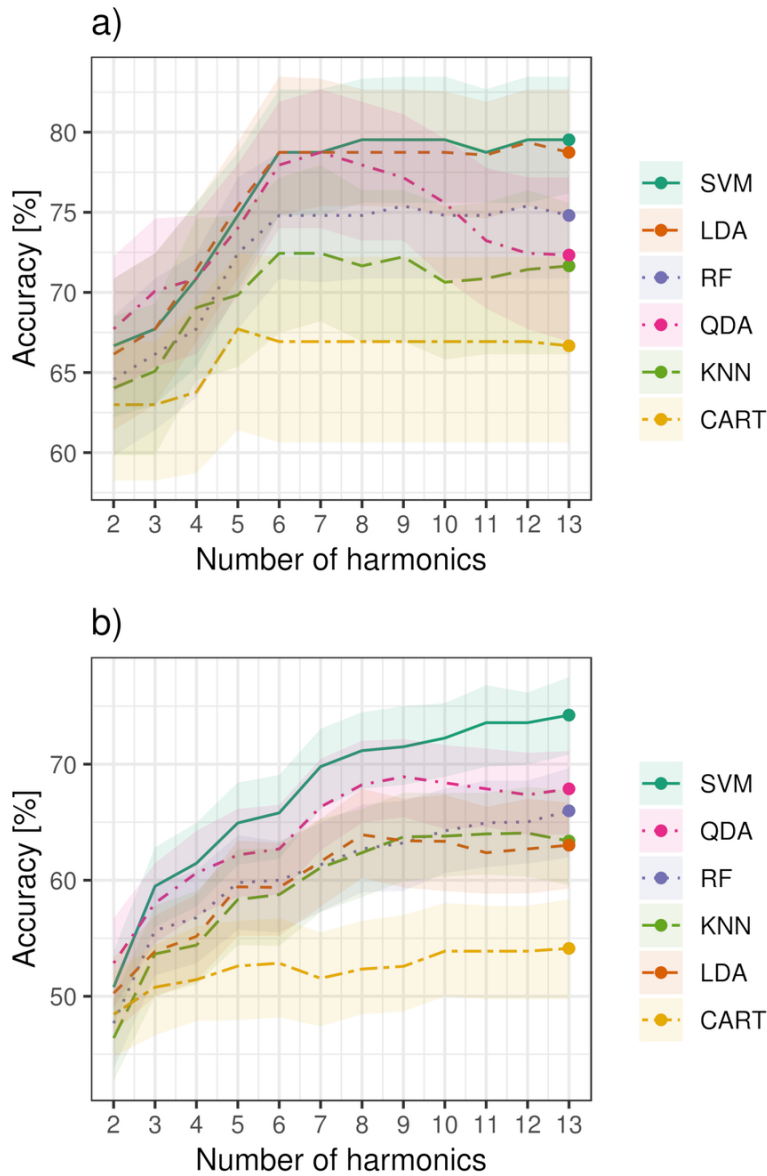


Fig. 4. Classification accuracy of different statistical models based on different numbers of Fourier harmonics of otolith shapes. Lines represent median accuracy, shades 10th and 90th percentile. Models in the legend were arranged according to the median accuracy of classification on the dataset with highest number of harmonics.

76x114mm (300 x 300 DPI)

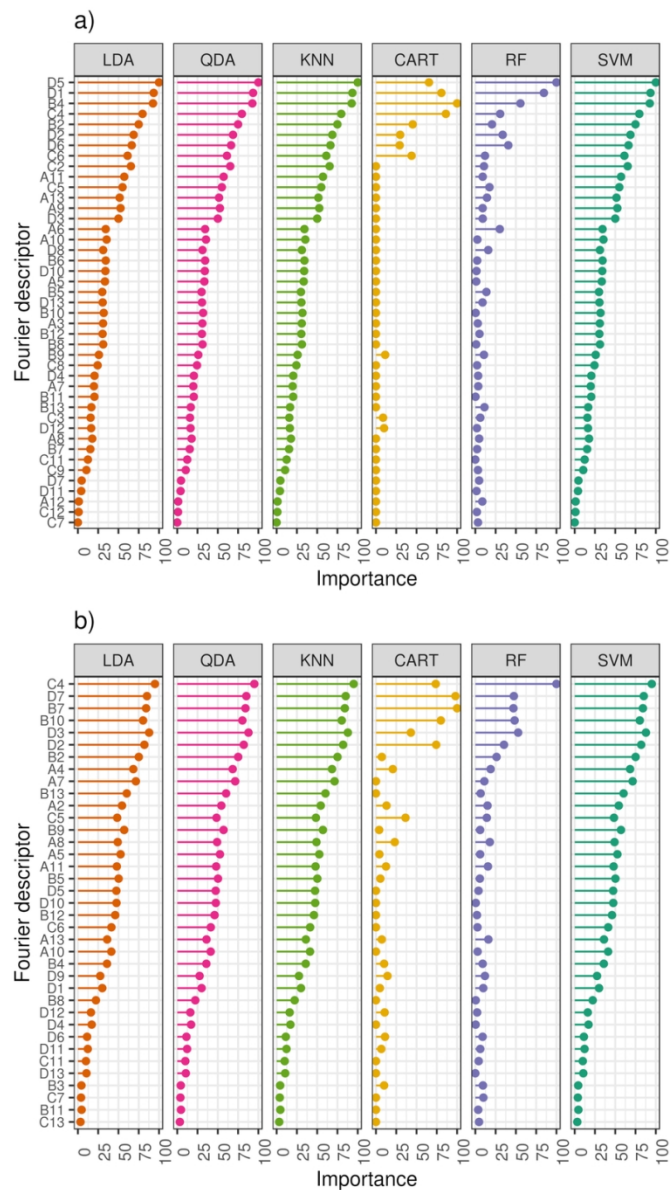


Fig. 5. Variable (Fourier descriptors) relative importance obtained for cod (a) and herring (b) from otolith shape classification models.

76x137mm (300 x 300 DPI)