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| Title | Evaluation of the predictability of fishing forecasts using information theory |
| Author(s) | Baba, Shinya; Matsuishi, Takashi |
| Citation | Fisheries Science, 80(3), 427-434 https://doi.org/10.1007/s12562-014-0736-8 |
| Issue Date | 2014-05 |
| Doc URL | http://hdl.handle.net/2115/58420 |
| Rights | The original publication is available at www.springerlink.com |
| Type | article (author version) |
| File Information | baba2014_HUSCAP-6.pdf |



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1 **Evaluation of the predictability of fishing forecasts using**
2 **information theory**

3

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16

17 **Abstract**

18

19 The catch forecast is important for fisheries activities. Previous research has tried to improve the forecast
20 accuracy. However the forecast accuracy does not directly correspond to the forecast benefit and an inaccurate
21 forecast could be more beneficial than accurate one. Herein as part of the forecast utility, predictability was
22 evaluated using information theory. Mutual information MI was used as index of predictability. MI denotes a
23 reduction in uncertainty when a forecast is taken into account. Adding this, hit ratio HR and relative entropy R
24 were used as consistency indices. HR denotes a frequency that the predicted values consist with the actual
25 values, and R denotes the distance of the probability distribution between the actual and forecasted fishing
26 conditions. As an application, the long-term change-ratio forecasts in 1972–2009 ($n=36$), short-term
27 change-ratio forecasts ($n=34$), and short-term level forecasts ($n=33$) in 2004–2009 of Pacific saury *Cololabis*
28 *saira* fishery were evaluated. The order of MI , HR , and R varied between these forecasts, indicating that forecast
29 predictability and consistency do not correspond. Monitoring multiple indices would improve forecasting
30 systems.

31

32 **Keywords** fishing forecast, forecast evaluation, information theory, mutual information, Pacific saury, relative
33 entropy

34

35 **Introduction**

36

37 One of the main goals of fishery investigations is to forecast fish stock level and provide recommendations to
38 control fishing operations [1]. Studies of the recruitment forecast have been on-going for more than a century
39 [2], and many empirical researches has been reported [3-6].

40 The catch forecast is widely used for fishery activities, including the efficient utilization of resources
41 and planning of fishing operations [7, 8]. Previous researches on catch forecast has been tried to improve the
42 accuracy; that is, the predicted forecast consists with the actual values. Accuracy could be described as indices
43 of consistency [e.g., hit ratio (*HR*) [9] or mean absolute error (*MAE*) [10]], and has been well researched as a
44 criterion for the goodness of forecast.

45 On the other hand, accuracy does not directly correspond to beneficial forecast [11]. For example, the
46 population forecast of a marine resource with a small population fluctuation could easily be accurate. Moreover,
47 if a too wide forecast statement such as “the catch of this year will be between one ton and one billion tons”
48 absolutely hit but obviously unbeneficial. Thus, an accurate forecast does not necessarily mean a beneficial
49 forecast. Conversely, an inaccurate forecast could be more beneficial than accurate one. Hence, the
50 improvement of the forecasts should aim for a beneficial forecast rather than an accurate forecast. Previous
51 works rarely refer to forecast criterion except accuracy, and the exceptional examples [8] were effective only for
52 specific cases.

53 In the current research, predictability was defined as the extent of difference between prior probability

54 distributions and forecasted probability distributions, followed to DelSole [12]. By using this definition, a
55 forecast statement “probability of becoming the catch will be between one ton and one billion tons is 100%” is
56 regarded as no predictability forecast. Obviously prior probability distribution is as follows

$$\begin{cases} p(\text{Catch} < 1) & = 0.0 \\ p(1 \leq \text{Catch} \leq 1000000000) & = 1.0 \\ p(1000000000 < \text{Catch}) & = 0.0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

57 where $p()$ is probability. When the forecast “the catch of this year will be between one ton and one billion tons”
58 is taken into account, forecasted probability distribution are exactly equal to the prior distribution. Therefore this
59 forecast has not got any predictability. When a forecast predicted a result unobvious situation, predictability of
60 forecast is high.

61 The amount of information [13] could be an index of the forecast predictability. Shannon quantified
62 information as a reduction in uncertainty. If a forecast predicts an obvious situation, it does not contain any
63 information because the uncertainty is not reduced. By using information theory, the forecast predictability can
64 simply be quantified. Adding this, information theory can quantify difference of probability distribution, so
65 information theory can be used as not only as predictability index but also as consistency index. Information
66 indices would contribute to improved forecasts.

67 The Pacific saury *Cololabis saira* fishing forecast can easily distinguish between true and false
68 forecasts due to the rich datasets. By comparing each index for several Pacific saury fishing forecasts, the
69 difference between forecast accuracy and forecast information can be described quantitatively.

70 On this basis, the purpose of the current study was to apply the evaluation of the predictability to the
71 fishing forecasts. Consistency indices were also calculated and compared to the predictability. The procedure to

72 improve forecasts were proposed and discussed based on the results.

73 **Materials and methods**

74

75 Information entropy, conditional entropy and mutual information

76

77 Predictability and consistency indices for three types of forecasts of Pacific saury were calculated to evaluate the
78 forecasts. All scores are applicable to quantitative forecasts but were described for categorical forecast because
79 of the easy understanding for the readers.

80 As an index of the predictability, mutual information (*MI*) [13, 14] was calculated. *MI* is described by
81 information entropy $H(A)$ [13] and conditional entropy $H(A|F)$ [13].

82 In the current research, information entropy was calculated as

$$H(A) = -\sum_{j=1}^3 p(a_j) \log p(a_j) \quad (2)$$

83 The notations were defined in Table 1. A was actual fishing condition ($a_j \in A$). (a_1, a_2, a_3) were defined as
84 (“actual increasing”, “actual stable”, “actual decreasing”) for the change-ratio forecast, or (“actual large”,
85 “actual medium”, “actual small”) for the level forecast respectively (Table 1).

86 $H(A)$ was the entropy of actual fishing condition A . When $p(a_j)$ was naught, $p(a_j) \log p(a_j)$ was
87 assumed to be naught. In the current study, the base of the logarithm was set to two and the entropy is expressed
88 in the unit “bits”, following traditional information theory [13]. Information entropy is high when uncertainty is
89 high. When the actual fishing condition does not have any uncertainty, in other words $H(A)$ equals to naught, it
90 is not necessary to use a forecast.

91 In the current research, conditional entropy was calculated as

$$H(A|F) = -\sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 p(a_j, f_i) \log p(a_j | f_i) \quad (3)$$

92 where F was forecasted fishing condition ($f_i \in F$). (f_1, f_2, f_3) were defined as (“forecast increasing”, “forecast
 93 stable”, “forecast decreasing”) for the change-ratio forecast, and (“forecast large”, “forecast medium”, “forecast
 94 small”) for the level forecast respectively (Table 1). $p(a_j, f_i)$ and $p(a_j | f_i)$ were the joint probability and
 95 conditional probability, respectively. $H(A|F)$ was the conditional entropy of the actual fishing condition A and
 96 fishing forecast F . Conditional entropy indicated the uncertainty of the actual fishing condition subject to a
 97 given fishing forecast. If the conditional entropy of a forecast was equal to the information entropy of the actual
 98 fishing condition, this forecast had not got any information because this forecast did not decrease the
 99 uncertainty.

100 In the current research, MI was calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} MI &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 p(a_j, f_i) \log \left[\frac{p(a_j, f_i)}{p(a_j)p(f_i)} \right] \\ &= -\sum_{i=1}^3 p(a_j) \log p(a_j) + \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 p(a_j, f_i) \log p(a_j | f_i) \\ &= H(A) - H(A|F) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

101 MI was the reduction in the uncertainty of the actual fishing condition caused by a forecast. In other words, MI
 102 measures the entropy difference between the prior and forecasted fishing condition. Therefore, MI can be an
 103 index of the predictability [12]. When MI was high, the prediction procedure had got a high predictability [15].

104 MI is symmetry for A and F . Therefore, the following equation is equivalent to equation (4).

$$MI = H(F) - H(F | A) \quad (5)$$

105 However, it would be recommended to use equation (4). Object of the interest would be actual fishing condition
 106 for fishers. Equation (4) described change of uncertainty of actual fishing condition directly. In the current
 107 research, conditional entropy $H(A|F)$ which used in equation (4) was used.

108

109 Hit ratio

110

111 The hit ratio HR and relative entropy R [14] were calculated as consistency indices. HR described the accuracy
 112 of a forecast, and was defined as the probability that a forecast consists with the actual level or the actual change
 113 ratio. It was calculated as

$$HR = p(a_1, f_1) + p(a_2, f_2) + p(a_3, f_3) \quad (6)$$

114

115 Relative entropy

116

117 In the current research, relative entropy R was calculated as

$$R = \sum_{k=1}^3 p(a_k) \log \frac{p(a_k)}{p(f_k)} \quad (7)$$

118 When $p(a_k)$ was naught, $p(a_k) \log[p(a_k)/p(f_k)]$ was defined as naught, but when $p(f_k)$ was naught,
 119 $p(a_k) \log[p(a_k)/p(f_k)]$ was defined as infinity. R is also called as Kullback-Leibler divergence [16]. Generally,

120 R is always non-negative and is naught if and only if two distributions are equivalence. Therefore, R indicates
121 the extent of distance between two probability distributions [14]. For example, Akaike's Information Criterion
122 (AIC) [17] used R for comparing between true probability distribution and probability distribution made by
123 statistical models.

124 In the current study, R was used as an index of the consistency of the probability distribution of the
125 actual and forecasted fishing condition, measuring the distance between them. For example, although "actual
126 large" frequently occurs in the actual fishing condition, if a forecast frequently predicts "forecast small", then R
127 will be high.

128 In the current study, MI was calculated as an index of predictability, and HR and R were calculated as
129 consistency indices. MI measured the reduction in the uncertainty using a forecast. HR measured the consistency
130 of the forecast with the actual fishing conditions. R measured the extent of the distance between the probability
131 distribution of the actual and forecasted fishing conditions.

132 Additionally, $H(A)$ and $H(A|F)$ were used as subsidiary indices. $H(A)$ was an index of the uncertainty
133 in the actual fishing condition. $H(A|F)$ indicated the uncertainty of the actual fishing condition subject to a given
134 fishing forecast.

135

136 Numerical example

137

138 For the understanding of the characters of the indices, four illustrative example data sets were provided in Tables

139 2, and the calculated indices were shown in Table 3. The first data set (Table 2a) was an example of a good
140 forecast, which had got high *HR* and *MI*, and a low *R* value. The second data set (Table 2b) was an example of
141 bad forecast where *MI* and *HR* were low. This forecast had got little information and was inaccurate. The third
142 data set (Table 2c) had got highest *MI* and a fairly high *HR* than Table 2b, but was a poor forecast. In this
143 situation, “Actual 3” occurred when “Forecast 1” was posted, and “Actual 1” occurred when “Forecast 3” was
144 posted. It would be difficult to make appropriate decisions in this situation. Although the forecast did not hit,
145 theoretically it had got a high *MI* because it was sure that “Forecast 1” was the sign of “Actual 3”. It had got
146 worst *R* which could be an important index to evaluate forecasts in this situation.

147 The fourth data set (Table 2d) was an example of a spuriously good forecast. This forecast had got
148 highest *HR*, but was clearly inefficient because $H(A)$ was naught. If the current situation was defined as

$$\begin{cases} \text{Forecast 1} = \{ \text{Catch} \mid \text{Catch} < 1 \} \\ \text{Forecast 2} = \{ \text{Catch} \mid 1 \leq \text{Catch} \leq 1000000000 \} \\ \text{Forecast 3} = \{ \text{Catch} \mid 1000000000 < \text{Catch} \} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

149 there was no room for failure. In the current situation, if a forecaster continued to predict “Forecast 2”, *HR*
150 becomes 100%. However, this forecast lacked information and *MI* was naught.

151

152 Fishing forecast

153

154 In the current study, Pacific saury fishing forecasts were evaluated as an application. The Pacific saury fishing
155 forecast is essential information for the saury fisheries industry in Japan, and has been conducted for more than
156 50 years [18]. Since the unit price of Pacific saury is unstable corresponding mainly to the daily catch in the

157 landing port, it is important to forecast the fish abundance to prevent an excessive catch and to stabilize the unit
158 price[7].

159 In the current study, three types of Pacific saury fishing forecasts were used. The first was a
160 change-ratio forecast for a short period, and was abbreviated as “(a) short-term change-ratio forecast”. A
161 change-ratio forecast only predicted the change in catch, but not the amount of the actual catch. The second was
162 “(b) short-term level forecast”. A level forecast predicted the amount of fish caught. Both the (a) short-term
163 change-ratio and (b) short-term level forecasts were provided by Tohoku National Fisheries Research Institute
164 (TNFRI) and Japan Fisheries Information Service Centre (JAFIC). Short-term forecasts predicted the fishing
165 conditions in the East Hokkaido area, Sanriku area, and Joban area. The current study used the ten-day forecasts
166 off East Hokkaido from 2002–2009, because of the richness of the data sets. Short-term forecasts were
167 determined by the consensus of researchers through a comprehensive review of the results of several numerical
168 models [19].

169 In the forecast contents, "prospects", "outline of forecast", "overview of fishing condition" were
170 described. In the current study, "outline of forecast" was used as the forecast result. Level or change ratio of the
171 actual catch was defined by the "overview of fishing condition", and was used for the evaluation. The forecast in
172 2002 and 2003 were omitted, because the content did not include the description of conditions, and the forecasts
173 cannot be evaluated. Since the level or change ratio of the forecast and/or actual catch cannot be determined
174 from the content, some forecasts in 2004–2009 were omitted (Table S1). Consequently, sample sizes of (a)
175 short-term change-ratio and (b) short-term level forecasts were different ($n=34$ and 33 , respectively).

176 The third type was the long-term fishing forecast for Pacific saury in the north western Pacific Ocean
177 for 1972–2009. The forecast results for 1972–87 were from a list of fishing forecasts [9], whereas the results for
178 1988–2009 were from the annual report of the research meeting on saury stock (1990–2011) [20-22]. Since this
179 type of forecast only contained the yearly change ratio, it was abbreviated as “(c) long-term change-ratio
180 forecast”. The current study used the long-term change-ratio forecasts published in August. The long-term
181 change-ratio forecast predicts the fishing conditions from August to December. This forecast was created by
182 compiling the results of the study conducted by TNFRI and other institutions. The forecast method was not
183 explicitly described. In particular, this forecast was decided not by statistical modelling but by consensus. Even
184 in these situations, the indices used in the current study can be calculated.

185 The actual fisheries conditions were determined using the fish abundance index, which was the
186 accumulation of the mean catch per haul for a 30-minute grid over a ten-day period [22]. Due to the lack of
187 actual fisheries conditions data in 1996, the forecasts were evaluated only for 1972–1995 and 1998–2009 ($n=36$).
188 Following to the Hokkaido Research Organization, Central Fisheries Research Institute (HRO, Central Fisheries
189 Research Institute: <http://www.fishexp.hro.or.jp/exp/central/kanri/SigenHyoka/index.asp>, “accessed 13
190 December 2013”), three options (increasing, stable, decreasing) were defined from the change ratio of
191 abundance index CR_j as

$$CR_j = \frac{|Y_{j+1} - Y_j|}{Y_j} \quad (9)$$

192 where Y_j was the actual fish abundance index in year j . \overline{CR}_j was calculated as

$$\overline{CR}_j = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{20} \sum_{l=1972}^{1991} CR_l & \text{for } j = 1972, \dots, 1991 \\ \frac{1}{20} \sum_{l=j-20}^{j-1} CR_l & \text{for } j = 1992, \dots, 2009 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

193 Due to the lack of datasets, the mean abundance indices of 1972-1991 were used in substitution for actual past
 194 fishing condition before 1991. The options were defined based on the following criteria:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{increasing : } & CR_j > k\overline{CR}_j \text{ and } Y_{j+1} > Y_j \\ \text{stable : } & CR_j \leq k\overline{CR}_j \\ \text{decreasing : } & CR_j > k\overline{CR}_j \text{ and } Y_{j+1} < Y_j \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

195 Parameter k was set to 0.4 which was equivalent to the verification result in the annual report of the research
 196 meeting on saury resource such as the “fishing condition was same as forecasted result” and “fishing condition
 197 was different from the forecast results” [23-29]. All of the verification results in the current study consisted with
 198 past verification results, except for the option in 2008 [28].

199 In the long-term fishing forecast, some forecasts (see Table S2) were level forecasts instead of
 200 change-ratio forecasts and level forecasts were transformed into change-ratio forecasts. The fishing condition
 201 level was also defined according to HRO, Central Fisheries Research Institute (HRO, Central Fisheries

202 Research Institute:

203 <http://www.fishexp.hro.or.jp/exp/central/kanri/SigenHyoka/index.asp>, “accessed 13 December 2013”) as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{large : } & \frac{Y_j}{\overline{Y}_j} - 1 > k \\ \text{medium : } & \left| \frac{Y_j}{\overline{Y}_j} - 1 \right| \leq k \\ \text{small : } & \frac{Y_j}{\overline{Y}_j} - 1 < -k \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

204 where

$$\bar{Y}_j = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{20} \sum_{l=1972}^{1991} Y_l & \text{for } j = 1972, \dots, 1991 \\ \frac{1}{20} \sum_{l=j-20}^{j-1} Y_l & \text{for } j = 1992, \dots, 2009 \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

205 Parameter k was also set to 0.4, which was the default value of HRO, Central Fisheries Research Institute (HRO,
 206 Central Fisheries Research Institute: <http://www.fishexp.hro.or.jp/exp/central/kanri/SigenHyoka/index.asp>,
 207 “accessed 13 December 2013”). If actual condition in the previous year was “low level” and forecast in next
 208 year was “forecast medium” or “forecast large”, the forecast were transformed “forecast increase”, and vice
 209 versa. The current definition was different from equation (11) because of the lack of quantitative criterion for
 210 transformation.

211 The fishing condition was divided into three options: “(1) large”, “(2) medium”, and “(3) small” or
 212 “(1) increasing”, “(2) stable”, and “(3) decreasing”. To evaluate each forecast, the probability distributions of
 213 forecasts (Table 1) were created by normalizing the contingency table, whose total value equals one.

214

215 **Results**

216

217 Table 4 shows the probability distributions of the actual fishing conditions and the fishing forecasts for the (a)
218 short-term change ratio, (b) short-term level, and (c) long-term change ratio. In the (b) short-term level forecast
219 (Table 4b), the forecast marginal probability was exactly the same for the three options (one third for increasing,
220 stable, and decreasing). However, in (a) short-term change ratio and (c) long-term change-ratio forecasts (Tables
221 4a, c), “forecast decreasing” was much frequently appeared than the other two options.

222 Table 5 shows the results of the three forecasts evaluations according to the information indices $H(A)$,
223 $H(A|F)$, MI , and R as well as accuracy index HR . The order of HR was: (a) short-term change ratio > (c)
224 long-term change ratio \approx (b) short-term level. Since $H(A)$ was fairly close among them, the variance in MI was
225 mainly due to that of $H(A|F)$. The order of MI was: (a) short-term change ratio > (b) short-term level > (c)
226 long-term change ratio. The worst R value was appeared in (c) long-term change-ratio forecast, indicating that
227 the (c) long-term change-ratio forecast had got the largest gap between the probability distributions of the
228 forecasted and actual fishing conditions.

229

230

231 **Discussion**

232

233 The order of HR , MI and R sometimes differed for the three types of forecasts. The (a) short-term change ratio
234 had got the highest value in both HR and MI but was not the best in R . Comparing to the (b) short-term level
235 forecast and the (c) long-term change-ratio forecast, the (b) short-term level forecast was worse in HR but better
236 in MI . The (b) short-term level was best in R , worst in HR but was fair predictable measured by MI .

237 To investigate the impact of the excess of “forecast decreasing”, Table 6 shows the information
238 entropy $H(A|f_i)$ and marginal probability $P(f_i)$ for each option. $H(A|f_i)$ represented the uncertainty of the actual
239 fishing condition for each option (i.e., such as “forecast increasing/large”, “forecast stable/medium”, and
240 “forecast decreasing/small”). For the (a) short-term change-ratio forecast, $H(A|f_i)$ were relatively small (less than
241 one) regardless of the forecast option. Although “forecast decreasing” was frequently forecasted as $P(f_i) = 0.529$,
242 the overall uncertainty for a given forecast $H(A|F)$ was as small as 0.869 because $H(A|f_i)$ was as small as 0.764.
243 R was small and less than half of the (c) long-term change-ratio forecast. Therefore, “forecast decreasing” in the
244 (a) short-term change-ratio forecast was not excessive, despite of the frequent posting of “forecast decreasing”.
245 In the (b) short-term level forecast, although $H(A|f_i)$ for “forecast medium” was high, $P(f_i)$ for each forecasted
246 option (large, medium, and small) was balanced, which led a moderate overall uncertainty of 1.242 (Table 6).
247 R was quite small as 0.027 which indicated that small bias were there. In the (c) long-term change-ratio forecast,
248 $H(A|F)$, was the highest, because $H(A|f_i)$ of “forecast decreasing” was high and too often posted. R was worst
249 (0.139) because it posted “forecast decreasing” in excess. Consequently, reducing the frequency bias of

250 “forecast decreasing” will improve the forecast performance.

251 Since 2001, mid-water trawling survey had been conducted prior to the fishing season, and the
252 amount of data available for the forecast had been increased [22]. Consequently, the accuracy and predictability
253 of the (c) long-term change-ratio forecast had improved. Table 7 shows the probability distribution of the actual
254 fishing conditions and fishing forecasts for the (c) long-term change-ratio forecasts, calculated by dividing the
255 long-term data into two data sets; 1972–2000 and 2001–2009. Table 8 shows the indices calculated from the two
256 data sets as well as one pooled data set. Although the sample size of the 2001–2009 data set was much smaller
257 ($n=9$), *HR*, *MI*, and *R* all showed drastic improvements, mainly because of the reduction of the bias toward
258 “forecast decreasing”.

259 The current method is applicable for quantitative forecasts. Although the current study only employed
260 three categorical forecasts, such as “low, medium, and high” or “declining, stable, and increasing”, information
261 indices can be calculated for a forecast with more categories, as long as the probability distribution can be
262 obtained. For quantitative data, information entropy also can be described, and mutual information can be
263 estimated [30].

264 It would be recommended to use various indices to evaluate comprehensive forecast skill because
265 each index has a limited aspect. If the order of indices is different, forecast characteristic can be described.
266 When, all of the score is good, this is a good forecast (Table 2a). If *HR* is low but *MI* is high, this forecast could
267 be perversity forecast (Table 2c). Conversely, when *HR* is high but *MI* is low, this forecast may predict obvious
268 situations (Table 2d). If only *R* is good and other indices are low, the forecast would hardly provide benefit for

269 fishers. However, if only R is bad, the forecast would be perverse, such as “forecast increase” indicating “actual
270 decrease” (Table 2c). Even if comprehensive forecast skill can not be defined clearly, predictability may add
271 new viewpoint to evaluation using only accuracy.

272 One of the advantages of the current method is the wide applicability. Since it requires simple
273 information indices with few assumptions, it can be applied as long as the probability distribution can be
274 obtained. It does not require statistical models, and is easily calculated by using simple equations.

275 The current study addressed the lack of forecast evaluations in previous works, and provided new
276 evaluation indices. Although these indices are not directly applicable to decision-making for the next action,
277 they may assist better decision indirectly by selecting good forecasting system.

278 From the results herein, the following guidelines were proposed to create a useful forecast procedure.
279 Firstly, it is recommended to calculate $H(A)$ before making a forecast. When $H(A)$ is quite small, it is better to
280 increase the precision of the forecast option, increasing number of forecasting categories. Secondly, it is highly
281 recommended that HR should be monitored in the beginning of the yearly forecast. After a certain years
282 forecasts, the distribution of the actual and forecasted options should be monitored to optimize R . Lastly, $H(A|F)$
283 and MI should be monitored for evaluating forecast uncertainty and forecast predictability.

284 Creating a perfect forecast is nearly impossible. However, monitoring various indices of the forecast
285 will help the improvement of forecasting systems in the limited data.

286

287 **Acknowledgements**

288 We would like to thank Satoshi Suyama and Kazuyoshi Watanabe and Emmanuel Andrew Sweke for their

289 helpful comments.

290

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356 **Table 1** Probability distribution of the fishing forecast and the actual fishing condition

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | $p(F)$ |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------|
| | Actual 1 | Actual 2 | Actual 3 | |
| Forecast 1 | $p(a_1, f_1)$ | $p(a_2, f_1)$ | $p(a_3, f_1)$ | $p(f_1)$ |
| Forecast 2 | $p(a_1, f_2)$ | $p(a_2, f_2)$ | $p(a_3, f_2)$ | $p(f_2)$ |
| Forecast 3 | $p(a_1, f_3)$ | $p(a_2, f_3)$ | $p(a_3, f_3)$ | $p(f_3)$ |
| $p(A)$ | $p(a_1)$ | $p(a_2)$ | $p(a_3)$ | 1 |

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358 **Table 2** Sample data sets of the probability distribution of the fishing forecast and the actual fishing condition

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360 (a) Example 1: Good forecast

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | $p(F)$ |
|---------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|--------|
| | Actual 1 | Actual 2 | Actual 3 | |
| Forecast 1 | 0.4 | 0.05 | 0 | 0.45 |
| Forecast 2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0 | 0.4 |
| Forecast 3 | 0 | 0.05 | 0.1 | 0.15 |
| $p(A)$ | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 1 |

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362 (b) Example 2: Bad forecast

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | $p(F)$ |
|---------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|--------|
| | Actual 1 | Actual 2 | Actual 3 | |
| Forecast 1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| Forecast 2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0 | 0.3 |
| Forecast 3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| $p(A)$ | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 1 |

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366 (c) Example 3: Forecast of perversity

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | $p(F)$ |
|---------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|--------|
| | Actual 1 | Actual 2 | Actual 3 | |
| Forecast 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Forecast 2 | 0 | 0.5 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Forecast 3 | 0.4 | 0 | 0 | 0.4 |
| $p(A)$ | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.1 | 1 |

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368 (d) Example 4: Spurious good forecast

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | $p(F)$ |
|---------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|--------|
| | Actual 1 | Actual 2 | Actual 3 | |
| Forecast 1 | 0 | 0.01 | 0 | 0.01 |
| Forecast 2 | 0 | 0.98 | 0 | 0.98 |
| Forecast 3 | 0 | 0.01 | 0 | 0.01 |
| $p(A)$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |

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371 **Table 3** Result of evaluation of numerical example

| | Ex.1 | Ex.2 | Ex.3 | Ex.4 |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| HR | 0.800 (2) | 0.400 (4) | 0.500 (3) | 0.980 (1) |
| $H(A)$ | 1.361 (2) | 1.522 (1) | 1.361 (2) | 0 (3) |
| $H(A F)$ | 0.689 (2) | 1.351 (3) | 0 (1) | 0 (1) |
| MI | 0.672 (2) | 0.171 (3) | 1.361 (1) | 0 (4) |
| R | 0.018 (1) | 0.132 (3) | 0.600 (4) | 0.029 (2) |

372 HR : hit ratio, $H(A)$: information entropy of actual fishing condition, $H(A|F)$: conditional entropy, MI : mutual
373 information, R : relative entropy. Numbers in parentheses denote the ascending order of goodness of the four
374 sample forecasts. HR , $H(A)$ and MI are descending orders, and $H(A|F)$ and R is ascending orders.

375 **Table 4** Probability of the fishing forecast and the actual fishing condition of three types of forecasts

376 (a) Short-term change-ratio forecast $n=34$

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | Total |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------|
| | Actual increasing | Actual stable | Actual decreasing | |
| Forecast increasing | 0.206 | 0.029 | 0.029 | 0.265 |
| Forecast stable | 0.088 | 0.118 | 0 | 0.206 |
| Forecast decreasing | 0.118 | 0 | 0.412 | 0.529 |
| Total | 0.412 | 0.147 | 0.441 | 1 |

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378 (b) Short-term level forecast $n=33$

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | Total |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|--------------|-------|
| | Actual large | Actual medium | Actual small | |
| Forecasted large | 0.212 | 0.061 | 0.061 | 0.334 |
| Forecasted medium | 0.091 | 0.121 | 0.121 | 0.333 |
| Forecasted small | 0 | 0.091 | 0.242 | 0.333 |
| Total | 0.303 | 0.273 | 0.424 | 1 |

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382 (c) Long-term change-ratio forecast $n=36$

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | Total |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------|
| | Actual increasing | Actual stable | Actual decreasing | |
| Forecast increasing | 0.166 | 0.028 | 0.028 | 0.222 |
| Forecast stable | 0.083 | 0.167 | 0.028 | 0.278 |
| Forecast decreasing | 0.139 | 0.111 | 0.250 | 0.500 |
| Total | 0.389 | 0.306 | 0.306 | 1 |

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388 **Table 5** Results of evaluation of three types Pacific saury fishing forecasts

| | (a) Short-term change ratio | (b) Short-term level | (c) Long-term change ratio |
|---------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>HR</i> | 0.735 (1) | 0.576 (3) | 0.583 (2) |
| <i>H(A)</i> | 1.455 (3) | 1.558 (2) | 1.575 (1) |
| <i>H(A F)</i> | 0.869 (1) | 1.242 (2) | 1.343 (3) |
| <i>MI</i> | 0.586 (1) | 0.316 (2) | 0.232 (3) |
| <i>R</i> | 0.075 (2) | 0.027 (1) | 0.139 (3) |

389 *HR*: hit ratio, *H(A)*: information entropy of actual fishing condition, *H(A|F)*: conditional entropy, *MI*: mutual
 390 information, and *R*: relative entropy. Numbers in parentheses denote the ascending order of goodness of the
 391 three forecasts. *HR*, *H(A)* and *MI* are descending orders, *H(A|F)* and *R* is ascending orders.

392

393 **Table 6** Information entropy of each option, information indices, and marginal probabilities

| | (a) Short-term | | (b) Short-term | | (c) Long-term | |
|----------------------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|---------------|----------|
| | change ratio | | Level | | change ratio | |
| | $H(A f_i)$ | $P(f_i)$ | $H(A f_i)$ | $P(f_i)$ | $H(A f_i)$ | $P(f_i)$ |
| Forecast increasing /large | 0.986 | 0.265 | 1.309 | 0.334 | 1.061 | 0.222 |
| Forecast stable /medium | 0.985 | 0.206 | 1.573 | 0.333 | 1.295 | 0.278 |
| Forecast decreasing /small | 0.764 | 0.529 | 0.845 | 0.333 | 1.496 | 0.500 |
| $H(A F)$ | 0.869 (1) | | 1.242 (2) | | 1.343 (3) | |
| R | 0.075 (2) | | 0.027 (1) | | 0.139 (3) | |

394 $H(A|f_i)$: information entropy for each change ratio/level. $P(f_i)$: the marginal probability of the forecast for each
395 change ratio/level. $H(A|F)$: the conditional entropy(weighted mean of H). R : relative entropy. Numbers in
396 parentheses denote the ascending order of the three forecasts.

397

398 **Table 7** Probabilities of the fishing forecast and the actual fishing condition

399 (a) Long-term change-ratio forecast in 1972-2000, $n=27$

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | Total |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------|
| | Actual increasing | Actual stable | Actual decreasing | |
| Forecast increasing | 0.112 | 0.037 | 0 | 0.149 |
| Forecast stable | 0.074 | 0.185 | 0.037 | 0.296 |
| Forecast decreasing | 0.185 | 0.111 | 0.259 | 0.555 |
| Total | 0.371 | 0.333 | 0.296 | 1 |

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401 (b) Long-term change-ratio forecast in 2001-2009, $n=9$

| Fishing forecast | Actual fishing condition | | | Total |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------|
| | Actual increasing | Actual stable | Actual decreasing | |
| Forecast increasing | 0.333 | 0 | 0.111 | 0.444 |
| Forecast stable | 0.111 | 0.111 | 0 | 0.222 |
| Forecast decreasing | 0 | 0.111 | 0.222 | 0.333 |
| Total | 0.444 | 0.222 | 0.333 | 1 |

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404 **Table 8** Hit ratio (HR) and information indices for the long-term change-ratio forecast

| | 1972-2009 | 1972-2000 | 2001-2009 |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| HR | 0.583 | 0.556 | 0.667 |
| $H(A)$ | 1.575 | 1.579 | 1.530 |
| $H(A F)$ | 1.343 | 1.342 | 0.889 |
| MI | 0.232 | 0.237 | 0.642 |
| R | 0.139 | 0.278 | 0 |
| n | 36 | 27 | 9 |

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