

1 Feeding ecology of broadbill swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) in the California Current

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24 **Abstract**

25 The feeding ecology of broadbill swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) in the California Current was
26 described based on analysis of stomach contents collected by federal fishery observers aboard
27 commercial drift gillnet boats from 2007 to 2014. Prey were identified to the lowest taxonomic level
28 and diet composition was analyzed using univariate and multivariate methods. Of 299 swordfish
29 sampled (74 to 245 cm eye-to-fork length), 292 non-empty stomachs contained remains from 60 prey

30 taxa. Diet consisted mainly of cephalopods but also included epipelagic and mesopelagic teleosts.
31 Jumbo squid (*Dosidicus gigas*) and *Gonatopsis borealis* were the most important prey based on the
32 geometric index of importance. Swordfish diet varied with body size, location and year. Jumbo squid,
33 *Gonatus* spp. and Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*) were more important for larger swordfish,
34 reflecting the ability of larger specimens to catch large prey. Jumbo squid, *Gonatus* spp. and market
35 squid (*Doryteuthis opalescens*) were more important in swordfish diet in inshore waters, while *G.*
36 *borealis* and Pacific hake predominated offshore. Jumbo squid was more important from 2007-2010
37 than in 2011-2014, with Pacific hake the most important prey item in the latter period. Diet variation
38 by area and year probably reflects differences in swordfish preference, prey availability, prey
39 distribution, and prey abundance. The range expansion of jumbo squid that occurred during the first
40 decade of this century may particularly explain their prominence in swordfish diet from 2007-2010.
41 Some factors that may influence dietary variation in swordfish were identified. Standardization could
42 make future studies more comparable for conservation monitoring purposes.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Broadbill swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*, hereafter swordfish) are the most widely distributed
46 billfish and occur worldwide in tropical, subtropical and temperate waters from around 50°N to 50°S
47 [1-3]. They co-occur in the California Current Large Marine Ecosystem (CCLME), with several other
48 upper trophic-level predators such as sharks and dolphins [4, 5]. Swordfish are productive predators,
49 filling a similar ecosystem role to other large pelagic marine species, including other billfish species,
50 sharks, tunas and dolphins [6]. Swordfish command a high economic value in both commercial and
51 recreational fisheries in all oceans of the world [4]. In the CCLME, swordfish are landed in both the
52 U.S.A. and Mexico. In the U.S.A., they are the primary target of the drift gillnet (DGN) fishery that

53 operates mainly in the U.S. waters of the Southern California Bight (SCB). Swordfish are also landed
54 in the historic harpoon fishery, and more recently in the deep-set buoy gear fishery that was developed
55 as a low-bycatch method to target swordfish during daylight hours [7-9].

56 The swordfish population in the North Pacific is assessed as two stocks, divided by a boundary
57 extending from Baja California (25°N x 110°W) to 165°W at the Equator [10, 11]. These are the
58 Western and Central North Pacific Ocean (WCNPO) stock and the Eastern Pacific Ocean (EPO) stock
59 [3, 12, 13]. The most recent stock assessment indicated that the WCNPO stock, which is the source of
60 the DGN fleet swordfish catch, was neither overfished nor experiencing overfishing [13].

61 Swordfish are well adapted for survival in a wide range of water temperatures from 5°C to
62 27°C; however, they are generally found in areas with sea surface temperatures (SST) above 13°C
63 [14]. They are highly fecund and do not seem to have discrete spawning grounds or seasons [15].
64 Swordfish migration patterns have not been described in peer-reviewed publications, although tag
65 release and recapture data indicate an eastward movement from the central Pacific, north of Hawaii,
66 towards the U.S. West Coast [4]. Swordfish tend to concentrate near underwater features, like
67 seamounts and banks, and near oceanographic boundaries where sharp gradients of temperature and
68 salinity exist [1], such as convergence zones and strong thermoclines [16]. These regions are known
69 for having a relatively high abundance of forage species [17, 18]. Swordfish aggregate along these
70 productive thermal boundaries between cold upwelled water and warmer water masses to forage [16,
71 19] and do not travel far during the first year of life [20].

72 Further insights into foraging come from information on vertical movement patterns.
73 Swordfish display diurnal vertical migration, diving below the deep scattering layer by day and
74 returning to shallower depths by night. Daytime depth distribution is hence more variable, including
75 periods of basking behavior when swordfish are visibly present at the ocean surface, compared to a

76 narrow depth range at night when it is concentrated near the surface [21-23]. During dives, swordfish
77 can reach depths of up to 1000 m, indicating a tolerance of low water temperatures (c. 5°C).

78 Like other billfish, swordfish have a number of adaptations that enhance foraging ability. They
79 use their large bill to incapacitate and kill prey [1, 24]. Though they swim relatively fast, their large
80 size limits maneuverability [25]. Partial endothermy and large eyes enhance foraging at depth [26].

81 Swordfish have also evolved a specialized muscle that functions as a brain heater. This
82 mechanism allows them to function in cold water, which is essential to a fast-swimming predator that
83 generally hunts on the cooler side of boundaries between oceanic water masses [1, 26-28].

84 Endothermy also has energy costs, suggesting that swordfish may have higher energy needs than
85 otherwise similar heterothermic species [24]. Thus, they need to catch more energy-rich prey or
86 consume a greater quantity of prey than would be necessary if they were ectothermic.

87 Although they can use their sword to subdue prey items for easier consumption [29],
88 swordfish lack teeth and ingest their food whole, physically limiting the size of prey they can handle.
89 By contrast, sharks use their sharp teeth to tear and consume very large prey piecemeal. The
90 combination of large size, endothermy, and the lack of slicing teeth possibly places swordfish closer
91 to dolphins rather than sharks in terms of foraging ecology. Swordfish diets and prey composition
92 have been found to vary by ecosystem. In some regions, swordfish diets presented a prevalence of
93 teleosts, while in others cephalopods were most prominent. In a few areas, a similar proportion of
94 both prey item groups were observed (Table 1). Several studies considered only the cephalopod
95 portion of the swordfish diet and, therefore, are not listed in Table 1 [30-34].

96

97

98

99 **Table 1.** Proportion of teleosts and cephalopods, by area, in diet of swordfish based on published
 100 studies. ‘*’ = highest proportion; W=Western; N=North E=Eastern; S=Southern; Teleo=teleosts;
 101 Ceph=cephalopods.

Area	Teleo	Ceph	Authors
W. N. Atlantic	*	*	[29], [35-48] [49, 50]
E. N. Atlantic	*	*	[51-53] [54, 55]
E. Central Atlantic	*	*	[56, 57]
E. Tropical Atlantic		*	[58]
Tropical Atlantic	*		[59]
W. Equatorial Indian Ocean	*		[60]
E. N. Pacific (Channel Islands, California)	*		[61]
E. N. Pacific (Baja California)	*	*	[62] [63]
Central N. Pacific (Hawaii)		*	[64]
E. Pacific (Chile)	*	*	[65-69] [70]
E. Pacific (Ecuador)		*	[71, 72]
S. Pacific	*		[73]
W. N. Pacific		*	[74]
E. Mediterranean Sea		*	[75]
S. Aegean Sea	*		[76]
E. Australia		*	[77]

102
 103 Southern California is a foraging ground within the CCLME where swordfish from various
 104 regions of the eastern and central north Pacific aggregate. While the CCLME is known to be an
 105 important foraging ground for swordfish during certain times of year, the feeding habits of swordfish

106 in this region are not well documented, especially in recent years. To date, there have been two
107 extensive studies of swordfish feedings habits in the CCLME [62, 63] as well as a few other less
108 comprehensive studies [61, 78, 79]. This study aims to expand our knowledge of the feeding ecology
109 of swordfish in the CCLME by analyzing the: (1) relative importance of different prey types; and (2)
110 dietary variation inter-annually, by sub-period (within years), by area, and in relation to body size.
111 The findings of this study can serve to inform the development of alternative approaches to better
112 manage this economically and ecologically important species.

113

114 **Methods**

115 **Sampling at sea**

116 Federal fishery observers aboard DGN vessels collected swordfish stomachs during the 2007-
117 2014 fishing seasons. The DGN vessels operate within the U.S. EEZ, primarily in the SCB from
118 August 15 through January 31. Because the season spans two calendar years, ‘year’ for this study
119 refers to the fishing season, e.g., 2007 refers to August 2007 through January 2008. Sets are
120 conducted using 1.8 km long drift gillnets extending from roughly 12 m to 100 m below the surface.
121 DGN boats are active at night, setting nets within one hour before sunset and hauling in within one
122 hour after sunrise for an average net-soaking time of approximately 12 hours. Hauling can then take 4
123 to 6 hours.

124 Stomach samples were excised at sea, the oesophageal and pyloric ends secured with plastic
125 cinch ties, and the stomachs then bagged, labeled and frozen. Additional data recorded at sea included
126 set and haul-back times, water depth, SST, date, location and fish size.

127

128 **Processing in the laboratory**

129 Stomachs were thawed, tamped with absorbent paper to remove excess water, and weighed
130 full. Contents were then removed and the empty stomach lining weighed to obtain overall contents
131 weight. Solid material and slurry were rinsed and sorted using a series of mesh screen sieves with
132 mesh sizes 9.5 mm, 1.4 mm, and 0.5 mm for ease of rinsing mid-sized food boluses without losing
133 some of the smallest items, such as fish otoliths. Degree of prey digestion was estimated using a six-
134 point scale as follows: (1) Fresh: head, body, skin and most fins intact though some individuals may
135 be in pieces (i.e., sliced on capture); (2) Intermediate: body and most flesh intact; fins, scales and

136 some or all cephalopod skin may be digested; (3) Intact skeleton from head to hypural plate or
137 body/mantle/carapace intact, or easily reconstructed to obtain standard length measurements; (4)
138 Unmeasurable body parts only: hard parts cannot be reassembled to obtain standard measurements,
139 but higher taxon or species group still identifiable; (5) Digested but identifiable to a higher taxonomic
140 level (e.g., family); and (6) Fully digested unidentifiable material; slurry. Prey items were then
141 separated, identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level using taxonomic keys, enumerated,
142 measured and weighed. Fish otoliths and the upper and lower squid beaks were counted in pairs when
143 possible, with the highest count representing the minimum number present. These numbers were
144 added to the numbers of intact prey. Weights were grouped by taxon (not individually), while lengths
145 of all intact individuals within a taxon were measured. Weight of a taxon was the weight of the
146 undigested and partially digested items found in the stomach and not based on back-calculations of
147 weight at the time of ingestion from measurements of hard parts. This approach was chosen because
148 substantial amounts of undigested food remains were found and it is commonly used in studies of fish
149 stomach contents [80]. A consequence of this approach is that prey eaten longer ago contribute less to
150 the weight.

151 Partial remains comprising only large chunks (i.e., fist size or greater) or pieces of fish in
152 digestive state 1 or 2 were considered to be the result of swordfish feeding on prey caught in the
153 driftnet and therefore were discarded from the analysis.

154 Genetic analyses were used to identify diet items that could not be identified visually. Tissue
155 samples for DNA extraction were taken from the interior of the sample to minimize cross
156 contamination with other prey. DNA was extracted using a DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen)
157 following the manufacture's protocols. The "Barcode" region of the mitochondrial cytochrome c
158 oxidase I (COI) gene was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) following [81], using their

159 COI-3 primer set with M13 tails. No template negative controls were run for each PCR batch to
160 monitor for potential DNA contamination of reagents. PCR products were sequenced using BigDye v
161 3.1 dye terminator chemistry (Life Technologies), using the sequencing primers M13F(-21) and
162 M13R(-27) following manufacturers' protocols. Aligned and edited sequences were entered into the
163 BOLD v4 [82] and matches greater than 98% identity to a single taxon were considered to be the
164 correct species assignment for the prey item.

165 Secondary prey items (prey of prey) were discarded when found associated with the stomachs
166 of fresh prey (e.g., euphausiids in the stomachs of Pacific hake). In other cases, the presence of
167 secondary prey cannot be ruled out. This is a common issue in diet analysis but is generally
168 considered to have only minor consequences for the estimated biomass of different prey categories
169 [62, 83].

170

171 **Data analysis**

172 Randomized cumulative curves depicting the relationship between number of prey taxa
173 detected and sample size (rarefaction curves) were constructed using the Vegan package [84] in R
174 statistical software [85] to determine the extent to which the sample size characterize the diet [86-90].
175 For this analysis, the order in which stomach contents were analyzed was randomized 100 times and
176 the mean (± 2 standard deviations) number of prey taxa observed was plotted against the number of
177 stomachs examined. A curve approaching an asymptote with low variability indicates that the number
178 of stomachs examined is sufficient to characterize the diet [86]. To complement this visual approach,
179 a method proposed by [91] was used to assess whether the curve had reached an asymptote.
180 Specifically, a straight line was fitted to the rightmost 4 points of the species accumulation curve. If
181 the slope did not differ significantly from zero, then the species accumulation curve was inferred to

182 have reached an asymptote. For constructing such cumulative prey curves, [91] lumped prey into
183 higher-level taxonomic categories (e.g., crustaceans, teleosts, polychaetes). By contrast, we used the
184 lowest taxonomic level to which prey had been identified, making it much less likely that the curves
185 would reach an asymptote and assuring that the curves gave a more reliable picture of the adequacy of
186 sample size to fully describe diet. Prey identified to species as well as unidentified categories were all
187 included in the analysis. In general, if the proportion of unidentified prey species in the diet is low, the
188 rarefaction curve tends to be a good guide to how many samples are required to sufficiently
189 characterize diet. If the proportion of unidentified species is high, confidence in the curve will be
190 lower, but it can remain a helpful tool.

191 The importance of each prey type was summarized using three standard Relative Measures of
192 Prey Quantities (RMPQs): percent frequency of occurrence (%F); percent composition by number
193 (%N); and percent composition by weight (%W) [80, 83, 92, 93]. Stomachs which were empty or
194 contained only slurry and/or detritus were not considered when calculating percentages. Two
195 combined dietary indices (in both cases expressed both in original form and as percentages) were also
196 used to rank prey taxon importance, namely the geometric index of importance (GII) and percentage
197 GII (%GII) [94], and the index of relative importance (IRI) and percentage IRI (%IRI) [92]. These are
198 useful indices to rank prey importance since they take into account both numerical and weight-based
199 importance to the diet. Some authors favor GII [95-97] and others favor IRI [98-100], while some
200 doubt the merits of all such combined indices (see [83] and references therein). Here, each method
201 was used to examine only the ranking of prey types, because the two combined index values are not
202 directly comparable.

203 The GII, in its simplified form, is calculated as:

204

$$GII_j = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n V_i \right)_j}{\sqrt{n}}$$

205 where GII_j = index value for the j -th prey category, V_i = the magnitude of the vector for the i -th
206 RMPQ of the j -th prey category, and n = the number of RMPQs used in the analysis (in this case 3,
207 since we used %W, %N and %F).

208 The % GII_j converts GII_j values to a percentage scale:

209

$$\%GII_j = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n V_i \right)_j}{n}$$

210 The IRI for the j -th prey category is calculated as:

211

$$IRI_j = (\%N_j + \%W_j) * \%F_j$$

212 The IRI value was also converted to a percentage, which is arguably more useful for comparisons
213 among studies [101]:

214

$$\%IRI_j = 100 IRI_j / \sum_{j=1}^n IRI_j$$

215 To analyze overall variation in swordfish diet in relation to body size, fishing area (within the
216 SCB and beyond the SCB areas) and year, samples were categorized into groups: (1) ‘Small’ (< 165
217 cm) and ‘Large’ (\geq 165 cm) size categories, based on eye-to-fork length (EFL), with the cut-off
218 chosen to produce similar samples sizes for each group; (2) ‘Within SCB’ (east of 120° 30’W) and
219 ‘Beyond SCB’ (west of 120° 30’W) (this longitude approximately separates the waters in the SCB
220 where the northward flowing California Counter Current influences nearshore oceanography and the
221 more offshore waters affected by the California Current as it moves southward); and (3) ‘Year’ was

222 assigned based on the DGN fishing season, August 15 through January 31, such that all specimens
223 collected in a single fishing season were assigned the year of the season's start date.

224 Differences in diet across size-, area- and year-groups were quantified and their statistical
225 significance estimated using bootstrap simulations. In each case of the six most important prey items
226 overall, 1000 bootstrap replicates of GII values for both groups were generated (e.g., GII for jumbo
227 squid in stomachs of (A) small and (B) large fish) and, for each replicate, it was noted whether GII
228 was higher in the first subgroup or in the second subgroup. If the GII value in A was higher than the
229 GII value in B in more than 95% of replicates, we argue that the species is significantly more
230 important in the diet of group A than in the diet of group B (and vice versa). All measures were
231 calculated using R statistical software [85]. No index value was estimated if the sample size was less
232 than 10, since small samples are known to produce biased values [102].

233 To summarize relationships between diet composition in terms of the importance of different
234 prey items (response variables) and potential explanatory factors, redundancy analysis (RDA) was used,
235 as implemented in Brodgar 2.7.4 (www.brodgar.com). Rare prey taxa that were found in less than 4
236 stomachs were removed prior to this analysis. The swordfish sample comprised 289 individuals (samples
237 with food and EFL available) and the effects of 7 explanatory variables were considered: area (east and
238 west of 120°30'W), time period (2007, 2008-2010, 2011-2014), half-year (August 15 through November
239 7 and November 8 through January 31), predator size (EFL) and SST (which was available for each haul
240 and was measured at the beginning of the set). Years were grouped to avoid an excessive number of
241 explanatory variables in relation to the sample size and to retain reasonable sample sizes per group.
242 Categorical variables were replaced by “dummy” variables. That is, a variable with X categories is
243 replaced by X-1 binary (0-1) variables, each signifying that the original categorical variable takes or does
244 not take a particular value. In all analyses, only X-1 binary variables are entered because once the value

245 of all these is specified the value of the last one is already known. Data were transformed using Chord
246 distance [103-105], a method that allows assignment of a low weighting to rare prey species.

247 To examine the relationship between the importance of individual prey types and the various
248 explanatory variables, Generalized Additive Modelling (GAM) was used. GAM is an extension of the
249 regression-based statistical modelling approach that is suitable when the response variable is not
250 (necessarily) normally distributed and there is no reason to expect linear relationships between response
251 and explanatory variables. In linear regression, the slope values (regression coefficients) quantify the
252 relationships between the response variable and each of the explanatory variables, while GAM uses
253 “smoothing” functions to capture these relationships. The default smoothing function used in the GAM
254 function in the *mgcv* package in R [106] (and also used in Brodgar statistical software) is the thin plate
255 regression spline. The complexity of the resulting curve is normally determined by the fitting routine
256 (“cross-validation”) but can be restricted by the user, and is summarized in the “degrees of freedom”,
257 with high values indicating more complex curves. If the degrees of freedom of a smoother are equal to or
258 close to 1, this implies an approximately linear function. When applying GAM, it is necessary to
259 consider the distribution of the response variable, which is likely to depend on the nature of the variable
260 studied. In this study, the data are in the form of prey counts for the main prey species. Some prey
261 occurred in large numbers and the distribution of the number of prey per stomach is likely to be strongly
262 right-skewed, hence a negative binomial distribution was used. The number of knots, *k*, was limited to 4
263 to avoid overfitting in the case of explanatory variables for which relatively simple relationships would
264 be expected, e.g., body size. The forwards selection method was used for model fitting. To avoid the
265 model misspecification, the optimal GAM model was validated by checking for influential data points
266 and looking for patterns in the distribution of residuals [107, 108]. GAMs were fitted using count data
267 for all of the top seven ranked prey items (based on GII).

268 **Results**

269 **Sample composition**

270 A total of 299 broadbill swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) stomachs were collected during 103
271 observed DGN trips in the CCLME (Fig 1). Samples were collected from 2007-2014 throughout the
272 CCLME but especially in the southeast, where the fishing is mainly concentrated. SST at the time of
273 sample collection ranged from 14.3°C to 21.9°C (mean 17.9°C). Swordfish ranged in size from 74 to 245
274 cm EFL (Fig 2). [109] provided median body size at sexual maturity (L_{50}) for males (102 cm \pm 2.5 (95
275 % CI) cm EFL) and females (144 \pm 2.8 cm EFL). Based on these estimates, almost all the animals in this
276 study were above the typical size at maturity for males and a majority were above the typical size at
277 maturity for females; as noted above, sex was not determined. Of the 299 swordfish stomachs examined,
278 292 contained food remains belonging to 60 different prey taxa overall. Ninety-one percent of the food
279 items were in an advanced state of digestion (stages 4 and 5).

280

281 **Fig 1.** Collection areas of swordfish used for diet analysis. Number of samples is indicated by
282 greyscale in the legend. Map shows the northern part of the CCLME that extends to the tip of Baja
283 California.

284

285 **Fig 2.** Length-frequency distribution of swordfish sampled in the diet study. $N=295$. *Arrows* indicate
286 typical sizes at maturity for males and females [109]. Eye-to-fork length is measured in cm. (Size was
287 not determined for 4 individuals of the 299 sampled).

288

289

290

291 **Sample size sufficiency**

292 The cumulative prey curve did not reach an asymptote for the swordfish stomachs analyzed
293 (Fig 3). The terminal portion of the curve (4 last points) had a slope that differed significantly from
294 zero ($p = 0.0009$). Nevertheless, the fact that the curve starts to asymptote indicates that the majority
295 of prey taxa present in the diet of the swordfish (at the temporal and spatial scale of the present study)
296 are likely to be represented in these analyses.

297

298 **Fig 3.** Cumulative prey curve (rarefaction curve) for swordfish (prey identified at the lowest possible
299 taxonomic level).

300

301 **Indices of prey importance**

302 Table 2 lists each of the RMPQs for all prey found, as well as the calculated GII, %GII, IRI
303 and %IRI values. Rankings of prey taxa based on GII and IRI were nearly identical. Jumbo squid
304 (*Dosidicus gigas*) was the most important prey item by weight, number and according to the two
305 combined indices. The boreopacific gonate squid (*Gonatopsis borealis*) was the second most
306 important prey according to GII and IRI, and the most important by frequency of occurrence. Other
307 important squid prey included *Abraliopsis* sp., *Gonatus* spp. and market squid (*Doryteuthis*
308 *opalescens*). Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*) was the highest ranked teleost prey species, ranked
309 sixth by GII. Swordfish also preyed on barracudinas (Paralepididae), several species of coastal pelagic
310 fishes (jack mackerel *Trachurus symmetricus*, Pacific sardine *Sardinops sagax*, Pacific saury
311 *Cololabis saira*, northern anchovy *Engraulis mordax*), luvar (*Luvarus imperialis*), king-of-the-salmon
312 (*Trachipterus altivelis*), halfmoon (*Medialuna californiensis*) and seven species of the family

313 Myctophidae (Table 2). Cuts and punctures were apparent on several of prey items.

314

315 **Table 2.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*) in the CCLME.

316 A total of 299 stomachs (292 containing food and 7 without food) was examined. Prey items are

317 shown in order of decreasing GII value. *W* = weight (g) for the given prey taxon, %*W* is the same

318 value expressed as a percentage of the total weight summed across all prey taxa, *N* = number of prey

319 individuals, *F* = frequency of occurrence (number of stomachs in which the prey taxon occurred), %*F*

320 = frequency of occurrence expressed as a percentage of the number of (non-empty) stomachs

321 examined; GII = geometric index of importance $(\%W + \%N + \%F) / \sqrt{3}$; IRI = index of relative

322 importance $(\%W + \%N) * \%F$.

323

Prey Taxon	<i>W</i> (g)	% <i>W</i>	<i>N</i>	% <i>N</i>	<i>F</i>	% <i>F</i>	GI	%GI	IRI	%IRI
Jumbo squid, <i>Dosidicus gigas</i>	131892.7	53.27	1061	20.23	173	59.25	76.64	44.25	4354.96	56.47
Boreopacific gonate squid, <i>Gonatopsis borealis</i>	19949.8	8.06	884	16.86	182	62.33	50.37	29.08	1552.94	20.14
<i>Abraliopsis</i> sp.	45.1	0.02	464	8.85	117	40.07	28.25	16.31	355.26	4.61
<i>Gonatus</i> spp.	181.6	0.07	299	5.70	110	37.67	25.08	14.48	217.56	2.82
Market squid, <i>Doryteuthis opalescens</i>	1447.6	0.58	538	10.26	88	30.14	23.66	13.66	326.81	4.24
Pacific hake, <i>Merluccius productus</i>	36360.1	14.69	331	6.31	49	16.78	21.81	12.59	352.37	4.57
Duckbill barracudina, <i>Magnisudis atlantica</i>	4568.6	1.85	218	4.16	84	28.77	20.07	11.59	172.67	2.24
Unidentified Teleostei	2316.9	0.94	119	2.27	65	22.26	14.70	8.49	71.35	0.93
Chubby pearleye, <i>Rosenblattichthys volucris</i>	810.6	0.33	166	3.17	49	16.78	11.71	6.76	58.61	0.76
Jack mackerel, <i>Trachurus symmetricus</i>	6668.2	2.69	72	1.37	28	9.59	7.88	4.55	38.99	0.51
<i>Nansenia</i> spp.	510.9	0.21	124	2.36	32	10.96	7.81	4.51	28.17	0.37
<i>Onychoteuthis borealijaponica</i>	656.6	0.27	60	1.14	35	11.99	7.73	4.47	16.89	0.22
Slender barracudina, <i>Lestidiops ringens</i>	330.0	0.13	92	1.75	29	9.93	6.82	3.94	18.75	0.24
Pacific pomfret, <i>Brama japonica</i>	5241.6	2.12	41	0.78	24	8.22	6.42	3.71	23.83	0.31
Pacific sardine, <i>Sardinops sagax</i>	1823.1	0.74	77	1.47	26	8.90	6.41	3.70	19.63	0.25
Luvar, <i>Luvarus imperialis</i>	19258.5	7.78	18	0.34	7	2.40	6.07	3.51	19.47	0.25
Pacific saury, <i>Cololabis saira</i>	1366.8	0.55	76	1.45	21	7.19	5.31	3.06	14.39	0.19
Unidentified Scopelarchidae	476.9	0.19	86	1.64	20	6.85	5.01	2.89	12.55	0.16
Cock-eyed squid, <i>Histioteuthis heteropsis</i>	1312.2	0.53	52	0.99	18	6.16	4.44	2.56	9.38	0.12

Feeding ecology of broadbill swordfish

Pacific mackerel, <i>Scomber japonicus</i>	2180.7	0.88	66	1.26	16	5.48	4.40	2.54	11.72	0.15
Sunbeam lampfish, <i>Lampadena urophaos</i>	201.9	0.08	42	0.80	18	6.16	4.07	2.35	5.44	0.07
King-of-the-salmon, <i>Trachipterus altivelis</i>	5577.4	2.25	25	0.48	13	4.45	3.86	2.39	10.59	0.16
Flower vase jewell squid, <i>Histioteuthis dofleini</i>	560.1	0.23	25	0.48	15	5.14	3.37	1.95	3.61	0.05
Unidentified Eucarida	5.5	<0.01	154	2.94	6	2.05	2.88	1.67	6.04	0.08
Unidentified Teuthoidea	202.0	0.08	15	0.29	12	4.11	2.58	1.49	1.51	0.02
Spotted barracudina, <i>Arctozenus risso</i>	67.9	0.03	14	0.27	8	2.74	1.75	1.01	0.81	0.01
<i>Histioteuthis</i> spp.	56.7	0.02	9	0.17	8	2.74	1.69	0.98	0.53	0.01
<i>Argonauta</i> sp.	13.1	0.01	8	0.15	8	2.74	1.67	0.97	0.43	0.01
Striped mullet, <i>Mugil cephalus</i>	1737.8	0.70	8	0.15	4	1.37	1.28	0.74	1.17	0.02
<i>Octopoteuthis</i> sp.	2.1	<0.01	6	0.11	6	2.05	1.25	0.72	0.24	<0.01
Bigfin lampfish, <i>Symbolophorus californiensis</i>	5.4	<0.01	7	0.13	5	1.71	1.07	0.62	0.23	<0.01
Sharpchin barracudina, <i>Stemonosudis macrura</i>	8.8	<0.01	8	0.15	4	1.37	0.88	0.51	0.21	<0.01
<i>Cranchia scabra</i>	4.5	<0.01	5	0.10	4	1.37	0.85	0.49	0.13	<0.01
Mexican lampfish, <i>Triphoturus mexicanus</i>	<0.1	<0.01	4	0.08	4	1.37	0.83	0.49	0.10	<0.01
Paralepididae, Barracudinas	111.3	0.04	7	0.13	3	2.40	1.49	0.86	0.43	0.01
Unidentified Euphausiidae	3.0	<0.01	6	0.11	3	2.05	1.25	0.72	0.24	<0.01
Robust clubhook squid, <i>Onykia robusta</i>	43.3	0.02	4	0.08	3	1.37	0.85	0.49	0.13	<0.01
Northern anchovy, <i>Engraulis mordax</i>	1.6	<0.01	4	0.08	3	1.37	0.84	0.49	0.11	<0.01
California smoothtongue, <i>Leuroglossus stilbius</i>	<0.1	<0.01	4	0.08	3	1.37	0.83	0.49	0.10	<0.01
Unidentified Tunicata	3.5	<0.01	3	0.06	3	1.03	0.63	0.37	0.06	<0.01
Smalleye squaretail, <i>Tetragonurus cuvieri</i>	161.9	0.07	3	0.06	2	1.03	0.66	0.39	0.13	<0.01
<i>Onychoteuthis</i> sp.	<0.1	<0.01	4	0.08	2	1.37	0.83	0.49	0.10	<0.01
<i>Japetella</i> sp.	<0.1	<0.01	4	0.08	2	1.37	0.83	0.49	0.10	<0.01
Splitnose rockfish, <i>Sebastes diploproa</i>	924.2	0.37	2	0.04	1	0.68	0.63	0.36	0.28	<0.01
Northern lampfish, <i>Stenobranchius leucopsarus</i>	<0.1	<0.01	2	0.04	2	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
<i>Octopus rubescens</i>	<0.1	<0.01	2	0.04	2	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
<i>Chiroteuthis calyx</i>	<0.1	<0.01	2	0.04	2	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
Albacore, <i>Thunnus alalunga</i>	371.6	0.15	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.30	0.17	0.06	<0.01
<i>Sebastes</i> spp.	3.0	<0.01	8	0.15	1	2.74	1.67	0.97	0.42	0.01
Halfmoon, <i>Medialuna californiensis</i>	81.0	0.03	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.23	0.13	0.02	<0.01
Dogtooth lampfish, <i>Ceratoscopelus townsendi</i>	1.5	<0.01	2	0.04	1	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
Shortbelly rockfish, <i>Sebastes jordani</i>	0.4	<0.01	2	0.04	1	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
<i>Leachia dislocata</i>	<0.1	<0.01	2	0.04	1	0.68	0.42	0.24	0.03	<0.01
Pacific bonito, <i>Sarda chiliensis</i>	25.8	0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01
<i>Auxis</i> sp.	4.7	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01
<i>Mastigoteuthis dentata</i>	<0.1	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01
<i>Octopus</i> spp.	<0.1	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01
California flashlightfish, <i>Protomyctophum crockeri</i>	<0.1	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01

Feeding ecology of broadbill swordfish

California headlightfish, <i>Diaphus theta</i>	<0.1	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01
Unidentified Isopoda	<0.1	<0.01	1	0.02	1	0.34	0.21	0.12	0.01	<0.01

324

325

326 In general, both large and small swordfish fed on similar prey but some differences were
 327 apparent. Based on GII results, jumbo squid was the most important prey item followed by the *G.*
 328 *borealis*, and *Abraliopsis* sp., in both size classes. However, northern anchovy was found only in
 329 stomachs of the small size group while luvar was eaten only by large swordfish (Table S1 and S2).
 330 Jumbo squid, *Gonatus* spp., and Pacific hake were significantly more important in larger swordfish
 331 than smaller swordfish (Table S3).

332 A comparison of the GII results by area indicated that jumbo squid and *G. borealis* were the
 333 two most important prey of swordfish in both areas. The third ranked species were *Abraliopsis* sp.
 334 within the SCB, and Pacific hake beyond the SCB. Striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*), northern anchovy
 335 and *Sebastes* spp. were recorded only within the SCB (Table S4 and S5). Jumbo squid, *Gonatus* spp.
 336 and market squid were significantly more important within the SCB than beyond the SCB, while *G.*
 337 *borealis* and Pacific hake were significantly more important beyond the SCB (Table S6).

338 Between-year comparisons showed that jumbo squid was the first ranked prey, followed by *G.*
 339 *borealis*, in 2007, 2008, 2010, 2012 and 2013. The importance of jumbo squid, *G. borealis*, *Gonatus*
 340 spp., market squid and Pacific hake in the diet all varied significantly between years over the study
 341 period (Table S15). In 2009, *G. borealis* was the most important prey followed by jumbo squid. In
 342 2011 and 2014, Pacific hake ranked first followed by *G. borealis*. Pacific hake was not present in the
 343 samples from 2008 through 2010. *Abraliopsis* sp. was important overall (ranked third) but was not
 344 present in 2012. *Gonatus* spp. ranked fourth overall but was not present in the diet in 2011 (Table S7-
 345 S14).

346 **Redundancy Analysis (RDA)**

347 Explanatory variables related to fish length (EFL), area, year and half-year, all significantly
348 affected the overall pattern of variation in diet (numerical importance of prey) in swordfish (Table 3).
349 Diet was significantly different (versus other years) in 2007 and 2011-2014. The set of explanatory
350 variables used explained 6 % of the overall variation in prey counts, with RDA axes 1 and 2
351 accounting for 36.9 % and 23.1 % of this variation respectively. The first two RDA axes thus explain
352 around 3.8 % of variation in prey counts, i.e., although significant temporal, spatial and size-related
353 variation in diet has been demonstrated, the majority of observed dietary variation remains
354 unexplained.

355
356 **Table 3.** Results of redundancy analysis (RDA) of variation in diet composition of swordfish (based
357 on prey numbers). Values of F and associated probability (p -value) are tabulated for two sets of model
358 runs. The variable ‘year’ (fishing season) was divided into three categories (2007, 2008-2010 and
359 2011-2014) and converted into three (0,1) dummy variables. Since the category may be identified
360 once the values of two of the dummy variables have been defined, all three dummy variables cannot
361 be included in the same run of the model. Left: model runs excluding 2011-2014. Right: model runs
362 excluding 2007. (EFL = eye to fork length, Area = east and west of 120°30’W, Half-year = August
363 15th through November 7th and November 8th through January 31st).

Variable	F -statistics	p -value	F -statistics	p -value
EFL	4.117	0.005	4.254	0.005
Area	3.896	0.005	3.895	0.005
2007	3.383	0.005		
Half-year	2.025	0.005	2.123	0.005
2011-2014			5.016	0.005
2008-2010	3.568	0.005	1.042	0.415
SST	0.758	0.785	0.758	0.815

364

365 Generalized Additive Models (GAMs)

366 To investigate sources of variation in the importance of individual prey taxa, binomial GAMs
 367 were fitted for presence/absence of each the seven most important prey taxa, as ranked by GII. For
 368 jumbo squid, the final model contained significant effects of SST, EFL and year (Table 4). The
 369 presence of jumbo squid in swordfish stomachs was highest with SST around 21.5°C, it showed a
 370 linear increase with increasing swordfish length, and it was lowest in 2009 and highest in 2007 (Fig
 371 4a). The final model for *G. borealis* contained effects of year and area (Table 4). The presence of *G.*
 372 *borealis* in swordfish stomachs was highest in 2009 and lowest around 2012 (Fig 4b), and was higher
 373 beyond the SCB area than within.

374
 375 **Table 4.** Effect of explanatory variables on the presence of the main prey taxa in swordfish diet (form
 376 and direction of the relationship and statistical significance). The first row for each species-variable
 377 combination contains the estimated degrees of freedom (edf) in the case of smoothers. The second
 378 row indicates the probability. Only significant effects, retained in the final models, are shown.
 379 Swordfish body length was measured as eye-to-fork length (EFL, cm). DE = deviance explained, AIC
 380 = value of the Akaike Information Criterion. Blank cells indicate non-significant effects that were
 381 dropped during model selection. 1st = first half of year, 2nd = second half of year; IN=within the SCB,
 382 OFF = beyond the SCB subregion.

383

Swordfish	EFL	Year	SST	Half-year	Area	DE	AIC
Jumbo squid	1.0 (+) P<0.0001	2.9 (U) P<0.0001	2.5 (+) P<0.0001			25.0	1073.6
<i>Gonatopsis borealis</i>		2.9 (∩) P<0.0001			OFF>IN P=0.0105	14.5	963.97
<i>Abraliopsis</i> sp.	1.0 (+) P=0.0468	2.9 (∩) P=0.0031				9.8	727.51
<i>Gonatus</i> spp.		2.8 (U) P=0.0058		1 st >2 nd P=0.0049		13.4	632.83

Market squid		2.8 (∩)		IN>OFF	21.6	683.98
		P<0.0001		P=0.0050		
Pacific hake	2.7 (+)	2.0 (+)			26.6	355.48
	P=0.0183	P=0.0004				
Duckbill barracudina		2.9 (∩)	2 nd >1 st	OFF>IN	20.7	496.50
		P=0.0002	P=0.0097	P=0.0053		

384

385 For *Abraliopsis* sp., the final model contained effects of year and length (Fig 4c). The presence
 386 of *Abraliopsis* sp. in swordfish stomachs was lowest in 2014 and highest in 2012, and showed a linear
 387 increase with increasing swordfish length (Fig 4c). For *Gonatus* spp. the final model contained effects
 388 of year and half-year (Table 4). The presence of *Gonatus* spp. in swordfish stomachs was highest
 389 around 2008-2009 and 2014 and was lowest in 2012 (Fig 4d). Numbers of *Gonatus* spp. were higher
 390 in the first half-year (August 15 through November 7) than in the second (Table 4).

391 For market squid, the final model contained effects of year and area (Table 4). The presence of
 392 market squid in swordfish stomachs was highest in 2010 (Fig 4e) and was higher within the SCB area
 393 than beyond it. For Pacific hake, the final model contained effects of year and length (Table 4). The
 394 presence of Pacific hake in swordfish stomachs was highest in 2012 and showed a positive
 395 relationship with fish length at lengths between around 125 and 150 cm (Fig 4f). For duckbill
 396 barracudina, the final model contained effects of year, area, and half-year (Table 4). The presence of
 397 duckbill barracudina in swordfish stomachs was highest in 2009 (Fig 4g). It was greater beyond the
 398 SCB area and during the second half of the fishing season (November 8 through January 31).

399

400 **Fig 4.** GAM smoothing curves fitted to partial effects of explanatory variables on the presence of 7
 401 prey taxa in the stomach of swordfish. EFL = eye-to-fork length. Dashed lines represent 95%
 402 confidence intervals around the main effects.

403

404 **Discussion**

405 Swordfish display several notable adaptations that might be expected to influence their
406 selection of prey items among the range of species present in the CCLME. Swordfish have cranial
407 endothermy [27], with brain temperature elevated by up to 10°C-15°C above the temperature of the
408 surrounding water when swimming [25], resulting in superior vision. Warming the brain and eyes
409 may allow swordfish to remain active and responsive, increasing their visual threshold throughout the
410 wide range of temperatures encountered in their vertical and migratory movements, permitting
411 exploitation of different environments and prey [25]. The use of the “sword” for immobilizing or
412 killing prey has been reported in past studies [29, 41, 46, 50] and a number of prey items in this study
413 showed signs of being slashed, punctured or cut. The “sword” has a similar hunting function as the
414 thresher’s tail [110] and can be used to stun fish [111]. Adult swordfish are toothless [112] and
415 swallow their prey whole. Interactions between whales and billfish have been occasionally observed
416 [113] and records of fractured swords embedded in whales can be found in the literature [114-118]
417 but there is no evidence of billfish feeding attacks on whales.

418 Vertical movements allow pelagic predators to extend their prey base or access different
419 resources. In marine ecosystems, diel changes in distribution or behavior of predators are frequently
420 in tune with diel changes in prey distribution, such as vertical migration of organisms associated with
421 the deep scattering layer (DSL) [119]. The diurnal vertical distribution of swordfish is region-specific
422 and likely influenced by both abiotic (temperature, thermocline depth, dissolved oxygen) and biotic
423 factors (prey abundance and distribution, body temperature) [21]. Swordfish can feed at great depths
424 during diurnal vertical migrations [26] and can feed during both day and night within the DSL [120].
425 Electronic tagging studies on swordfish in the CCLME show that these predators are capable of

426 exhibiting highly variable movements during the day but are consistently found within the upper
427 mixed layer at night [21, 23]. These movements are consistent with those of the DSL.

428 Results of the present study indicate that swordfish fed mainly on cephalopods and teleosts,
429 the most important prey taxa being jumbo squid (*Dosidicus gigas*), *Gonatopsis borealis* and
430 *Abraliopsis* sp., while teleosts included both epipelagic and mesopelagic species. Results are thus in
431 broad agreement with those from several studies of this species in other regions [34, 50, 55, 62, 63,
432 75, 77], although the relative importance of fish and cephalopods varies between different areas (see
433 Table 1).

434 Jumbo squid was an important prey item for swordfish in the CCLME, as was also the case for
435 several shark species (for mako, blue and bigeye thresher) in the area [5]. This finding is likely linked
436 to the range expansion of jumbo squid that started around 2002 in the CCLME. These cephalopods,
437 rarely found in the CCLME previously, greatly extended their range in the eastern North Pacific
438 Ocean during a period characterized by ocean-scale warming, regional cooling, and the decline of
439 tuna and billfish populations throughout the Pacific [121, 122]. Jumbo squid belong to the
440 Ommastrephidae, a family of largely pelagic squids that includes several species that support
441 important commercial squid fisheries around the world [123]. Ommastrephids, in general, have been
442 described as the most important cephalopod prey for swordfish in other regions of the world [29, 46,
443 47, 49, 50, 52, 54, 56, 58, 62, 64, 75] in both coastal and pelagic ecosystems.

444 Of the squids eaten by swordfish, while ommastrephids, gonatids and onychoteuthids, are
445 mainly epipelagic and all are powerful swimmers, the histioteuthids are predominantly mesopelagic
446 drifters [63], indicating that swordfish can feed in different environments. Since swordfish detect their
447 prey visually [26], swordfish may more easily catch fast-swimming, medium to large cephalopods
448 than small, slow-moving prey [63].

449 Pacific hake was, overall, the most important teleost species in the diet, based on ranking by
450 GII, followed by duckbill barracudina. Scombrids were also present in the diet. Merlucciids,
451 paralepidids, and scombrids have been described as important fish prey species of swordfish in a
452 number of other studies in different areas [29, 46, 47, 50, 52, 56, 61, 62]. All are abundant species in
453 coastal pelagic ecosystems where swordfish are usually caught. Seven species of Myctophidae, two
454 species of Scopelarchidae and one species of Bathylagidae were present in this study, indicating that
455 swordfish forage frequently in mesopelagic waters.

456 A number of the most important swordfish prey species are found in or associated with the
457 DSL, including jumbo squid, *G. borealis* and *Gonatus* spp. squids, barracudinas, and Pacific hake
458 [124-130]. Other important prey, like *Abraliopsis* sp. and market squid, are more epipelagic. The
459 range of prey species eaten, in terms of both prey size and prey habitat, suggests that swordfish have
460 quite flexible foraging strategies.

461

462 **Dietary variation in swordfish**

463 The importance of several prey taxa varied in relation to swordfish body size, location, year
464 and, in some cases, differed between the first and second half of the fishing season. Jumbo squid,
465 *Gonatus* spp. and Pacific hake were all more important as prey for larger swordfish than for smaller
466 ones. At least in part, this may reflect the ability of larger swordfish to catch and eat large prey. These
467 results differ from those of [62] who did not find variability in diet by size in swordfish off western
468 Baja California.

469 Jumbo squid, *Gonatus* spp. and market squid were more important inshore (within the SCB)
470 while *G. borealis* and Pacific hake were more important offshore (beyond the SCB). These

471 differences probably reflect prey availability but more information is needed on distribution of
472 cephalopods and fish to confirm this.

473 Significant between-year variation in diet was also apparent. In general, this may reflect long-
474 term variation in swordfish preference, prey availability, prey distribution, and prey abundance, but
475 could also be related to changes in fishing locations. According to GII results, jumbo squid was more
476 important in swordfish diet from 2007-2010 than in 2011-2014, with Pacific hake being the most
477 important prey item in the latter period. However, GAM analysis shows a peak in jumbo squid for
478 2012, suggesting this species increased in dietary importance after 2010, once other factors are taken
479 into account. These results likely relate to the range expansion of jumbo squid that occurred during
480 the first decade of the 2000s and the subsequent decline to lower levels in 2010 in the CCLME [131].
481 A prolonged decline of jumbo squid landings was observed also in the Gulf of California after El
482 Niño (2009-2010) and was associated with chronic low-wind stress and decreased chlorophyll a
483 [132].

484 *G. borealis*, *Gonatus* spp. and market squid were most important from 2008-2010, a period
485 which included both (cold) La Niña conditions in 2008 and a (warm) El Niño event in 2010. The
486 increased incidence of market squid in swordfish diet coincided with a high abundance of market
487 squid in both midwater trawl surveys and in landings [133]. The commercial squid fishery in
488 California targets spawning aggregations 1–3 km from the shore, around the Channel Islands and near
489 coastal canyons. Catches are highly influenced by El Niño events [134, 135]. The cooler water during
490 the La Niña years may have favored higher abundance and therefore higher catches in market squid
491 [136].

492 Northern anchovy is a monitored species under the Pacific Fishery Management Council's
493 Coastal Pelagic Species fishery management plan. It was only found in three stomachs in this study,

494 inside the SCB in 2007 and 2008. [61] examined the stomach contents of 15 swordfish caught near
495 the Southern California Channel Island in fall/winter of 1980 and found that northern anchovy
496 accounted for over 40% of IRI. These differences may be attributed to variations in anchovy
497 abundance over the years. Anchovy were present in higher numbers in the California Current prior to
498 1990 with a peak in catches around 1980 [137]. Catch estimates show that, starting around 2009 to
499 2013, northern anchovy biomass dropped to low levels [138]. Analysis of northern anchovy stock size
500 from 1951–2011 suggested that the population was near an all-time low from 2009–2011 [139], and
501 subsequent analysis suggested that the population remained low through 2015 [140]. More recent
502 minimum abundance estimates based on acoustic trawl surveys indicate the combined biomass of the
503 Northern and Central stocks rebounded to a range from 0.5 to 1.1 million metric tons in 2018 and
504 2019 [141, 142].

505 Pacific sardine (the abundance of which until recently was believed to vary inversely with that
506 of anchovy) [143-145] was not present in the diet in 2007 and sardine %F was low for other years of
507 the study. These results are possibly related to the low sardine biomass during the study period [146],
508 but they could be explained also by limited swordfish preference for sardine. [62] reported a low %F
509 for sardine in the diet of swordfish from northern Baja California in 1992-1993, a period when sardine
510 biomass was higher in the area.

511 Future diet studies on swordfish in the CCLME would benefit from more information on prey
512 distribution and abundance (and thus their availability to swordfish) and on the size distribution of
513 available and consumed prey. This would potentially allow elucidation of (multivariate) functional
514 responses (i.e., how numbers of a prey species in the diet relate to its abundance and the abundance of
515 other prey species) [147]. The present study would have benefited from a larger sample size since the
516 rarefaction curve (for number of prey species detected versus sample size) did not reach an asymptote.

517 Samples used in this study were collected during the fall/winter period and were fisheries-dependent
518 so information on the diet at other times of the year is lacking. Results are also potentially influenced
519 by the distribution and targeting of fisheries effort and catch. While additional studies are warranted,
520 this study provides the most comprehensive view of swordfish diets in the CCLME to date, allowing
521 for comparisons of diet in relation to size, year and area.

522

523 **Supporting information**

524 **Table S1.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish (EFL < 165 cm) in the California
525 Current. A total of 148 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing
526 GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

527 **Table S2.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish (EFL \geq 165 cm) in the California
528 Current. A total of 140 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing
529 GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

530 **Table S3.** Comparison of GII for the main prey species between small and medium broadbill
531 swordfish. Values of mean GII, bootstrapped 95% CIs and % bootstrap runs in which each prey type
532 was in the smaller of two size categories of swordfish. If more than 95% (or fewer than 5%) of runs
533 show the prey type was more important in the smaller size category of swordfish than in the larger
534 category, we consider the difference to be significant. S = small (EFL < 165 cm), M = medium (EFL
535 \geq 165 cm). These results are generally consistent with inferences from non-overlap of 95% CIs.

536 **Table S4.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish within the SCB subregion. A total
537 of 199 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing GII value. See
538 methods for description of the measured values.

539 **Table S5.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish beyond the SCB subregion. A
540 total of 93 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing GII value.
541 See methods for description of the measured values.

542 **Table S6.** Comparison of GII for the main prey species between broadbill swordfish within and
543 beyond the SCB region. Values of mean GII, bootstrapped 95% CIs and % bootstrap runs in which
544 each prey type was in each of two categories of swordfish. If more than 95% (or fewer than 5%) of
545 runs show the prey type was more important in one region than the other, we consider the difference
546 to be significant. East = within the SCB subregion, West = beyond the SCB subregion. These results
547 are generally consistent with inferences from non-overlap of 95% CIs.

548 **Table S7.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2007 in the California
549 Current. A total of 47 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing
550 GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

551 **Table S8.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2008 in the California
552 Current. A total of 16 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing
553 GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

554 **Table S9.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2009 in the California
555 Current. A total of 37 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by decreasing
556 GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

557 **Table S10.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2010 in the
558 California Current. A total of 12 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by
559 decreasing GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

560 **Table S11.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2011 in the
561 California Current. A total of 54 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by
562 decreasing GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

563 **Table S12.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2012 in the
564 California Current. A total of 36 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by
565 decreasing GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

566 **Table S13.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2013 in the
567 California Current. A total of 56 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by
568 decreasing GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

569 **Table S14.** Quantitative prey composition of the broadbill swordfish during year 2014 in the
570 California Current. A total of 34 stomachs containing food was examined. Prey items are shown by
571 decreasing GII value. See methods for description of the measured values.

572 **Table S15.** Comparison of GII for the main prey species for broadbill swordfish by year group.
573 Values of mean GII, bootstrapped 95% CIs and % bootstrap runs in which each prey type was in each
574 of two categories of swordfish. If more than 95% (or fewer than 5%) of runs show the prey type was
575 more important in one year than the other, we consider the difference to be significant. Y1 = Year1
576 (2007), Y2 = Year2 (2008-2010), Y3 = Year3 (2011-2014). These results are generally consistent
577 with inferences from non-overlap of 95% CIs.

578

579

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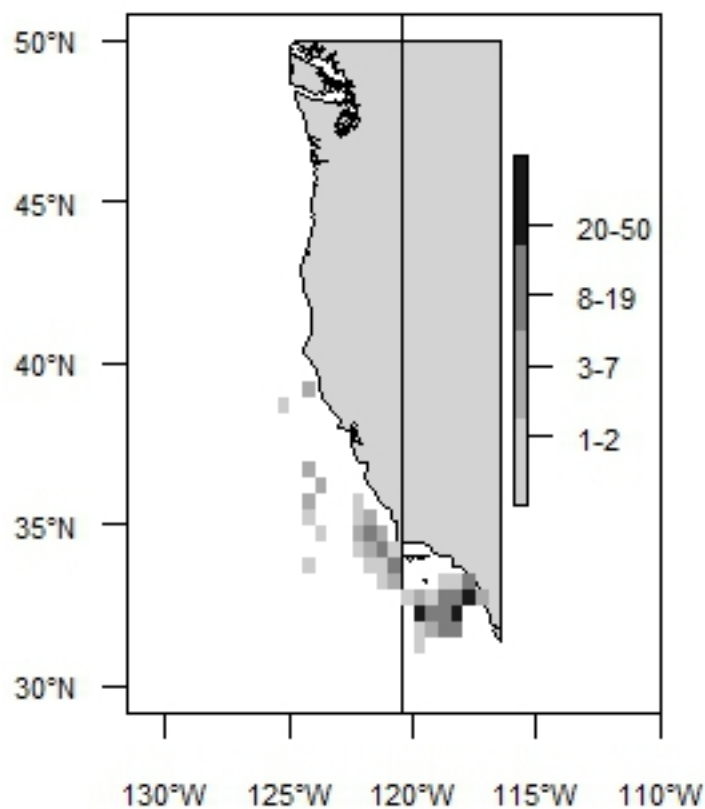
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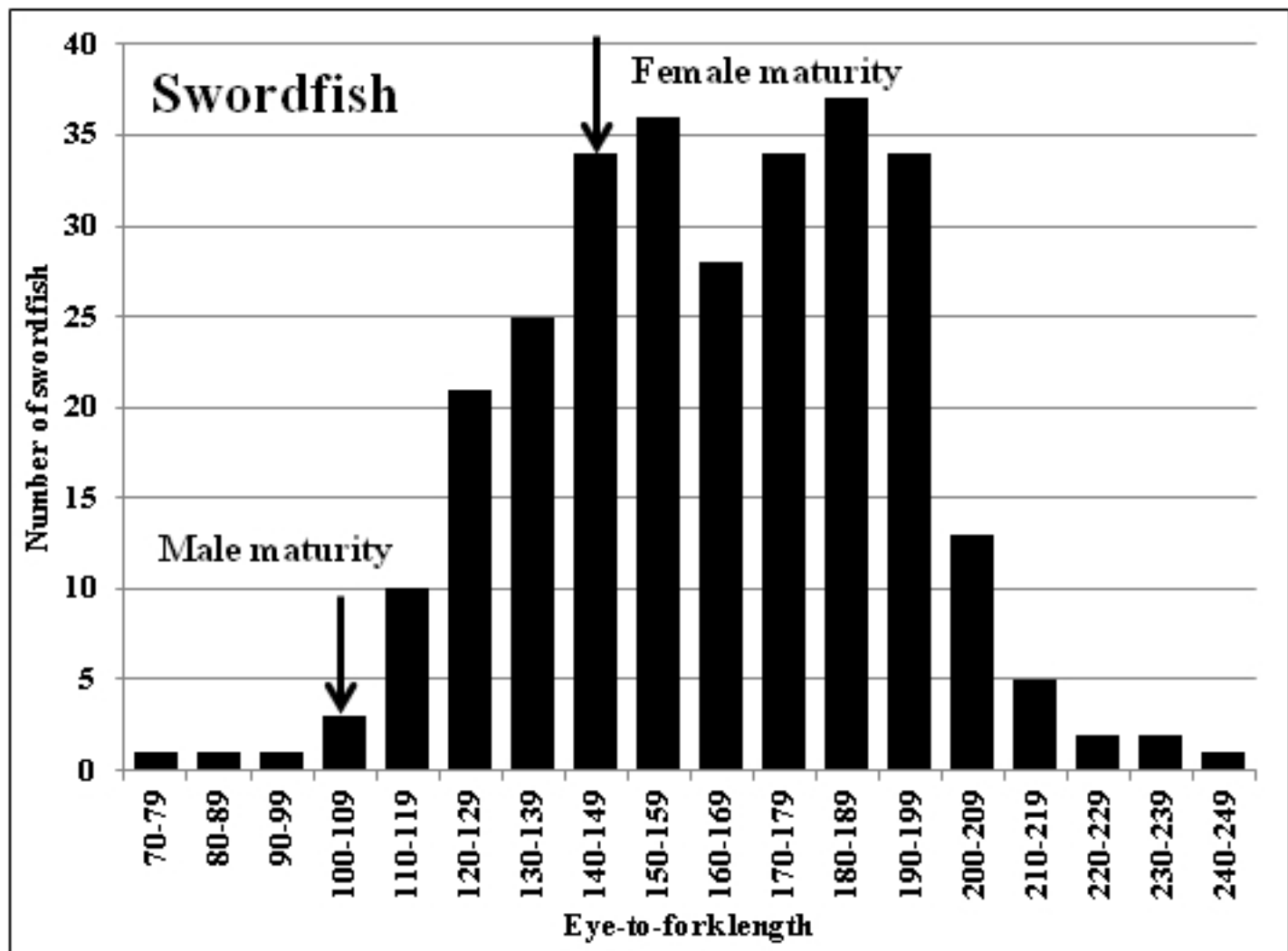
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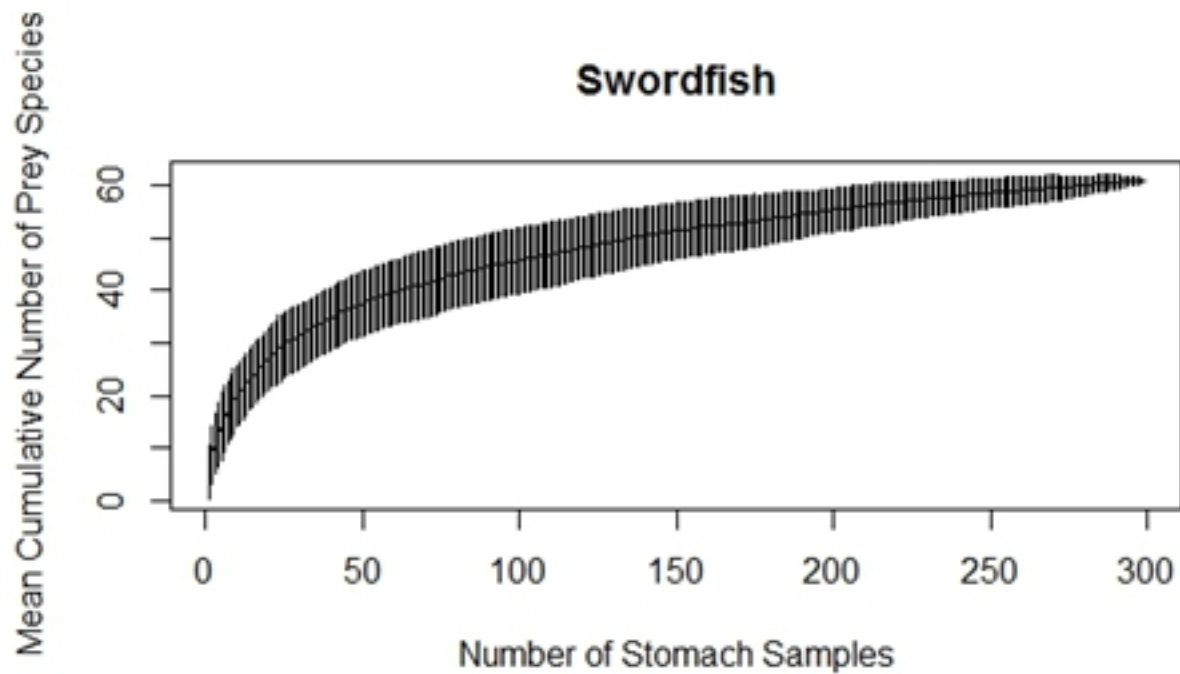


Figure

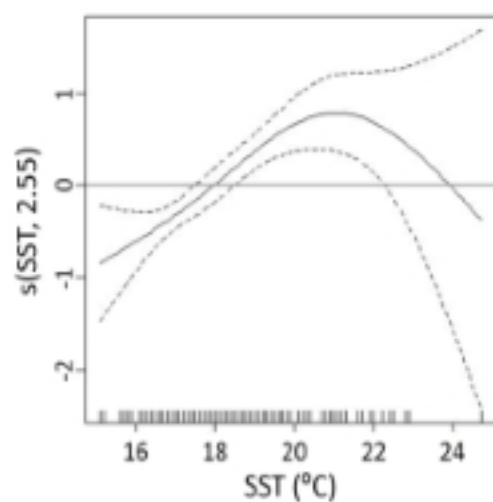
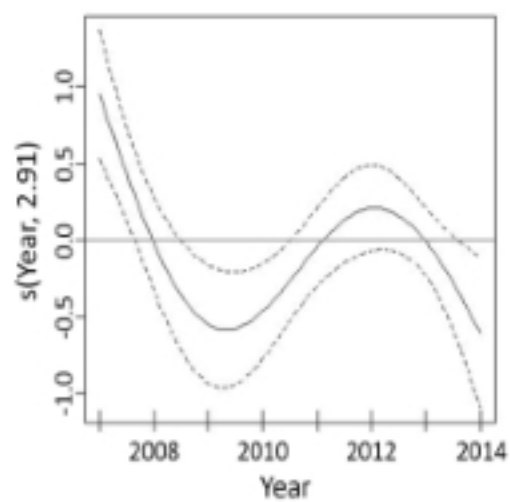
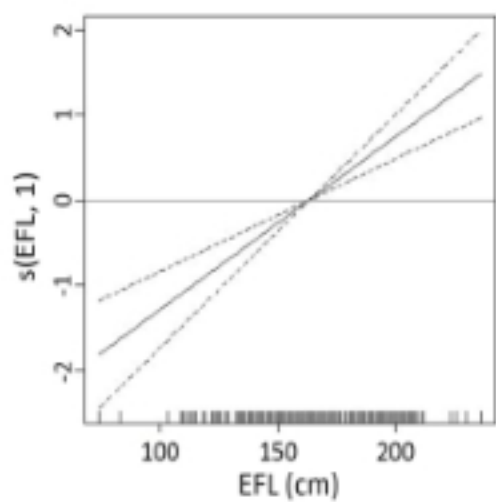


Figure

Swordfish

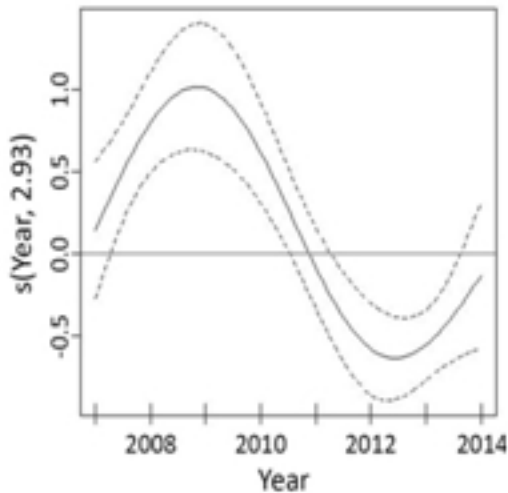


Figure



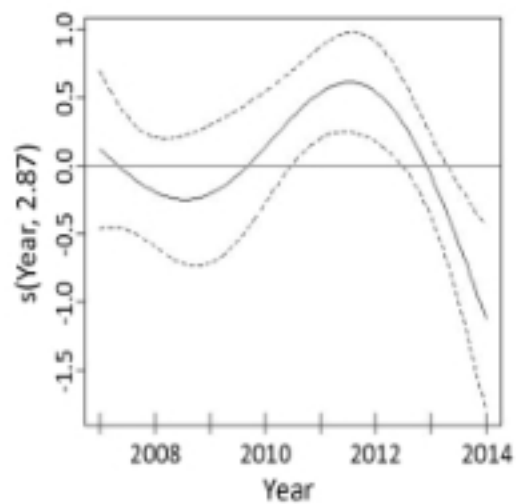
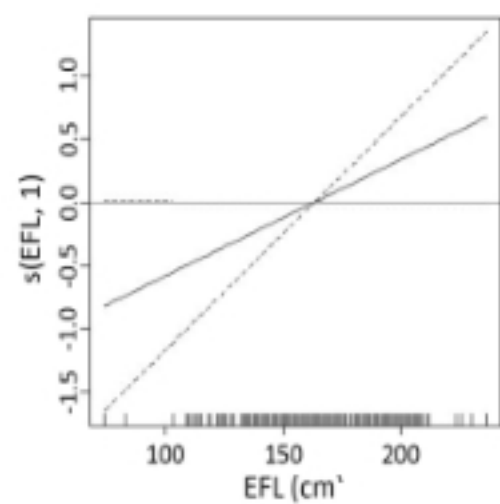
a. Jumbo squid

Figure



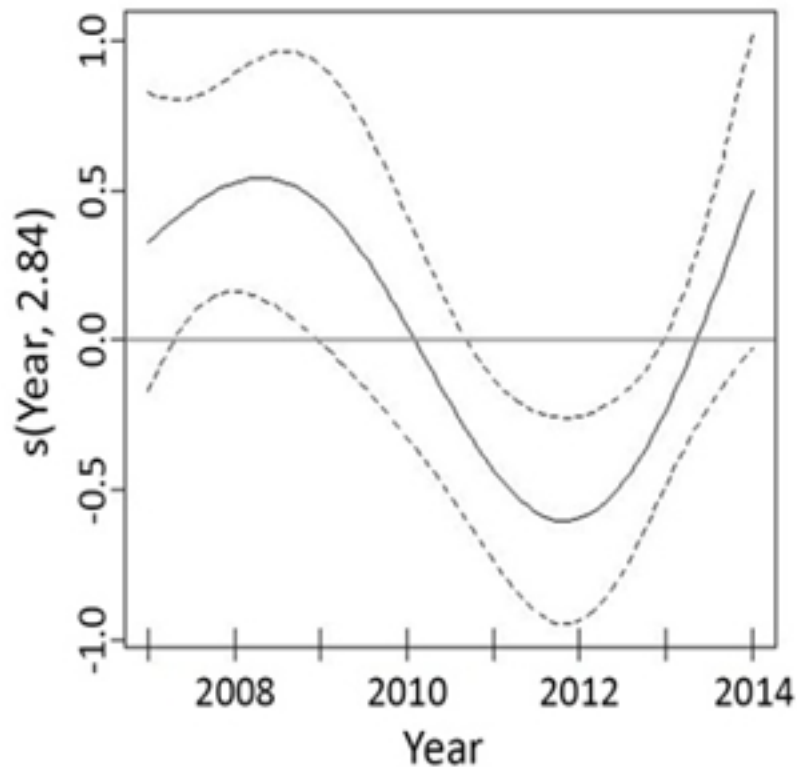
b. Gonatopsis borealis

Figure



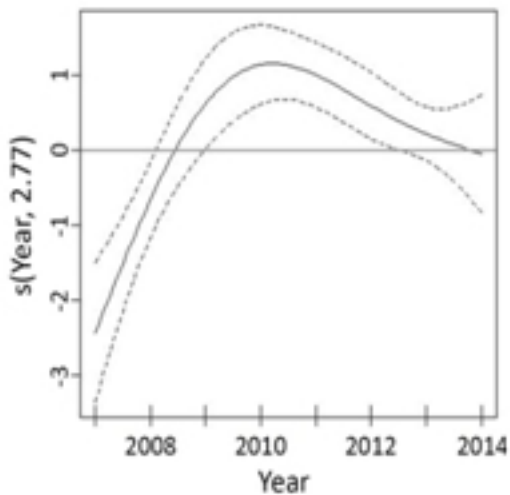
c. Abraliopsis sp.

Figure



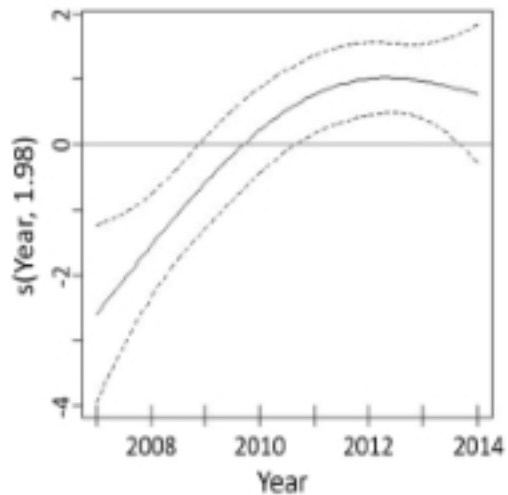
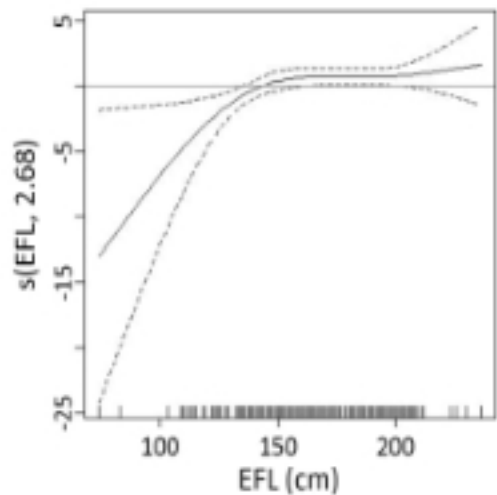
d. Gonatus spp.

Figure



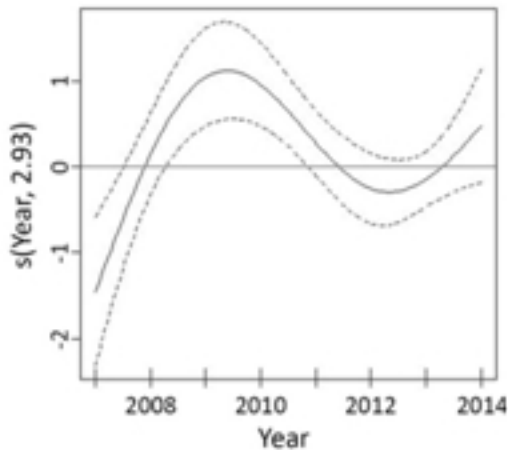
e. Market squid

Figure



f. Pacific hake

Figure



g. Duckbill barracudina

Figure