

1 **Food habit variability of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) along the U.S. west coast**

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3 Douglas L. Draper<sup>1</sup>

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5 <sup>1</sup>Fishery Resource Analysis and Monitoring Division, Northwest Fisheries Science Center, National Oceanic and  
6 Atmospheric Administration, 2032 SE OSU Drive, Newport, OR 97365, USA

7  
8 **Abstract**

9 A diet study of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) was undertaken to provide current  
10 information on their food habits and predator-prey relationships in the California Current  
11 Ecosystem. Arrowtooth flounder stomachs (n=573) were collected between 2013 and 2018 from  
12 397 trawls during the Northwest Fisheries Science Center's west coast groundfish bottom trawl  
13 survey. A total of 357 stomachs (62.3%) contained prey, which revealed a highly piscivorous diet  
14 across all lengths examined (14 – 77 cm) and described a regionalized and opportunistic feeding  
15 behavior. Increased predator length correlated both with an increase in percentage of fish prey  
16 consumed and an increase in depth of capture. Smaller (< 43 cm) and shallower (≤ 183 m)  
17 arrowtooth flounder consumed a relatively high percentage of euphausiids and shrimp, while larger  
18 arrowtooth flounder (≥ 43 cm) captured at greater depths (> 183 m) consumed more fish and fewer  
19 shrimp and euphausiids. Arrowtooth flounder diet varied by geographic area, likely resulting from  
20 regional differences in prey availability. North of the mean latitude of capture (44.45°N), Pacific  
21 hake (*Merluccius productus*) and Pacific herring (*Clupea pallasii*) were the predominant fish in  
22 arrowtooth flounder diets, while arrowtooth flounder caught south of the mean latitude consumed  
23 mostly Pacific hake and rockfishes (Scorpaenidae). Unidentified teleost fish contributed much to  
24 the diet across all size, depth, and latitude ranges.

25  
26 **Keywords:** *Atheresthes stomias*, diet analysis, food habits, California Current Ecosystem,  
27 multivariate analysis

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29  
30 E-mail: douglas.draper@noaa.gov

## 32 **1. Introduction**

33 Identifying trophic relationships is fundamental to understanding ecosystem dynamics, and  
34 directives for movement towards ecosystem-based fisheries management (EBFM) have elevated  
35 the need for food web analyses (Field and Francis, 2006; Gaichas et al., 2010; Heymans et al.,  
36 2016). Increasingly, EBFM tools such as ecosystem models and management strategy methods are  
37 implemented to complement stock assessments and to better manage commercially important  
38 groundfish species (Gaichas et al., 2010; Kaplan et al., 2013; Collie et al., 2016). Important  
39 components of an effective EBFM approach include detailed knowledge of predator-prey  
40 relationships and integrated trophic-inclusive or food-web models (Kaplan et al., 2013; Koehn,  
41 2016; Livingston, et al., 2017; Tam et al., 2017). This management approach has led to a critical  
42 need for diet information that provides high resolution of prey taxa (Pacific Fisheries Management  
43 Council (PFMC), 2018). However, the diets of many of the groundfish species managed under the  
44 PFMC's Groundfish Fishery Management Plan (FMP) remain largely understudied and lack  
45 substantive data.

46 The primary goal of this study was to provide detailed and updated information on the feeding  
47 habits of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*; hereafter ATF) throughout its latitudinal and  
48 depth ranges within the California Current Ecosystem (CCE). ATF is an abundant predatory  
49 groundfish reported to be opportunistic and piscivorous, but is also known to feed on invertebrates,  
50 particularly euphausiids and shrimps (Yang et al., 2006; Knoth and Foy, 2008; Love, 2011). Since  
51 ATF have a wide geographic range, with increasing abundance from central California north to  
52 the Bering Sea (Love, 2011; Keller et al., 2013; Sampson et al., 2017), they experience varying  
53 degrees of dietary overlap and competition for prey with other top consumers in their habitats  
54 (Yang, 1995; Buckley et al., 1999; Barnes et al., 2018). Previous research provided information  
55 on the diet of ATF from multiple regions in the northeastern Pacific Ocean (Gotshall, 1969; Yang  
56 and Livingston, 1986; Yang, 1995; Buckley et al., 1999; Lang et al., 2000; Yang et al., 2006),  
57 although recent studies were primarily in Alaskan waters. In the northern extent of their range,  
58 they are noted for feeding on commercially important walleye pollock (*Gadus chalcogrammus*)  
59 (Yang and Livingston, 1986; Lang et al., 2000), while further south along the west coast of North  
60 America their main prey consisted of Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*; hereafter hake) and  
61 clupeids, namely Pacific herring (*Clupea pallasii*; hereafter herring) (Gotshall, 1969; Buckley et  
62 al., 1999). Since historical data for ATF diet within the CCE date from 1992 or earlier, there is a  
63 gap in our understanding of how the variability in diet of ATF might have changed over the last  
64 several decades. In an effort to fill this knowledge gap, detailed diet composition and multivariate  
65 statistics using recent (2013-2018) data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric  
66 Administration (NOAA) Northwest Fisheries Science Center's (NWFSC) west coast groundfish  
67 bottom trawl survey is presented here.

68 Describing groundfish diets and trophic relationships has become increasingly important for  
69 EBFM, particularly against a background of a changing climate. Along the U.S. west coast, these  
70 changes include the recent appearance of anomalous warm water episodes such as 'the Blob'  
71 (Bond et al., 2015; Cavole et al., 2016), as well as natural oceanographic fluctuations linked to the  
72 El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), the North Pacific Gyre Oscillation (NPGO), and the Pacific  
73 Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (Mantua et al., 1997; Chavez et al., 2003; Di Lorenzo et al., 2008;  
74 Wolter and Timlin, 2011; Santora et al., 2017a). Trophic interactions can also vary in response to  
75 anthropogenic activities, such as fishing pressure and ocean acidification (Santora et al., 2017a;  
76 Doyle et al., 2018). These combined environmental and anthropogenic effects can influence and  
77 alter local and regional ecosystems, impacting key prey species for groundfishes (Chavez et al.,

78 2003; Santora et al., 2017b). Changes in primary productivity or shifts in the distribution and  
79 abundance of higher trophic-level predators also have consequences on the location, abundance,  
80 and mortality of important prey items (euphausiids, shrimp, and forage fishes) for groundfishes in  
81 the northeast Pacific Ocean (Dufault et al., 2009; Kaplan et al., 2013).

82 Updating trophic information for ATF with current data for species-specific food habits, and  
83 regional prey variability, will potentially provide new insight into this species' adaptability, help  
84 identify potential threats to their local, regional and coast-wide populations, and improve our  
85 understanding of predator-prey interactions in the CCE food web to support future EBFM efforts.

## 86 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 87 *2.1. Trawl survey and study area*

88 The NWFSC has conducted annual bottom trawl surveys of the continental shelf and slope waters  
89 from the U.S.-Canada (48.5°N) to the U.S.-Mexico (32.5°N) borders since 2003. The survey  
90 samples depths from 55-1280 m, divided into three depth strata (55-183 m, 184-549 m, and 550-  
91 1280 m), using a stratified-random sampling design (Keller et al., 2012, 2017). Four chartered,  
92 commercial trawlers (20-28m length) annually sample between mid-May and mid-October,  
93 conducting 15 min tows at a target speed of 4.07 ( $\pm 0.93$ ) km hr<sup>-1</sup> (2.2  $\pm 0.5$  knots) during daylight  
94 hours from sunrise to sunset. The trawl survey utilizes an Aberdeen-style trawl net with a 3.8-cm  
95 mesh codend liner, 25.9 m headrope, and 31.7 m footrope, designed to operate in strict compliance  
96 with protocols established for NMFS bottom trawl surveys (Stauffer, 2004). All fish captured  
97 during the survey hauls are sorted and identified to species, or the lowest taxonomic category  
98 possible. Randomly selected subsamples of fish are counted and measured for total length.  
99 Invertebrates are also sorted and identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level. At a minimum,  
100 all contents of each haul are weighed and counted. A more detailed description of all trawl survey  
101 protocols appears in Keller et al. (2017).

### 102 *2.2. Biological samples*

103 ATF stomachs were collected from May through October in 2013, 2014, 2016, and 2018 during  
104 annual bottom trawl surveys conducted by the NWFSC (Fig. 1). Stomachs were collected from  
105 subsamples randomly selected to measure length and determine sex. All fish with signs of net  
106 feeding (partially or recently ingested prey with no detected level of digestion) or regurgitation  
107 (i.e., extruding stomach, or prey in the gills, mouth, or throat) were excluded from stomach  
108 collections. Length-based size bins and a limited collection of two stomachs per haul were used to  
109 optimize the size range and maximize spatial coverage. Although rare, opportunistic samples were  
110 occasionally collected to fill gaps in size, spatial, and temporal ranges. Total length, weight, and  
111 sex for each fish selected for stomach removal were recorded at sea, along with trawl station  
112 information, including capture location and depth.

113 Stomachs were excised, placed into individual cloth bags, and preserved in 10% buffered  
114 formalin at sea. Samples were subsequently rinsed with fresh water and stored in 70% ethanol  
115 when returned to the laboratory at the conclusion of each survey pass. In the laboratory, stomach  
116 contents were removed, blotted dry, and identified to the lowest possible taxonomic classification  
117 using a Leica MZ75 dissecting stereo microscope. Ohaus Scout Pro portable precision electronic  
118 balance scales with 200 g and 400 g capacities were used to weigh individual prey items to the  
119 nearest hundredth gram (0.01 g) damp weight. Due to advanced levels of digestion, prey were  
120 often difficult to enumerate, therefore prey counts were not included in analyses.

121 Prey items were aggregated by individual species (e.g., hake) or family (e.g., clupeids,  
122 rockfish, euphausiids, and pandalids) for abundant prey ( $\geq 3\%$  frequency of occurrence (FO)),

123 grouped into higher taxonomic categories (other shrimp, flatfish, and other fish) for less frequent  
124 prey taxa (< 3% FO), or excluded if < 3% FO and prey could not be further consolidated into larger  
125 groups (cephalopods, other prey, and miscellaneous). Unidentified teleosts, mainly fish bones,  
126 scales, and/or fish too digested to be accurately identified to higher taxa, were an important portion  
127 of the overall diet and therefore included as a separate prey group. Empty stomachs were  
128 quantified, but omitted from any further analyses. Lengths were measured and recorded for intact  
129 prey, although were not used in this study, as were metrics for stomach fullness, level of digestion,  
130 and parasite load.

### 131 2.3. Statistical analyses

132 Diet data for each fish were summarized by the following gravimetric and occurrence indices  
133 (Hyslop, 1980): percent by weight,

$$134 \quad \% W_i = [W_i / \sum_{i=1}^n W_i] \times 100 \quad (1)$$

135 where  $n$  is the total number of prey taxa observed (individual or grouped),  $W_i$  is weight in grams  
136 for prey taxa  $i$ , divided by the summed weight for all prey taxa included in the study; and percent  
137 frequency of occurrence,

$$138 \quad \% FO = (N_i / N_s) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

139 where  $N_i$  is the number of stomachs containing an individual prey taxa  $i$ , and  $N_s$  is the total number  
140 of stomachs with contents examined. To determine if sample size was sufficiently large, species  
141 accumulation curves (Ferry and Cailliet, 1996) were generated for both individual prey at the  
142 lowest taxa and higher taxonomic groups, using sample-based rarefaction of randomly selected  
143 stomach samples with 999 permutations (Fig. S1). The slope ( $b$ ) of the linear regression through  
144 the final five sample points of the curve was used to assess if an acceptable asymptote was reached  
145 ( $b \leq 0.05$ ; Bizzarro et al., 2007).

146 The final diet matrix for statistical analysis consisted of nine major prey groups: clupeids,  
147 euphausiids, hake, other fish, pandalid shrimp, other shrimp (including unidentified shrimp which  
148 could include pandalids), flatfish, rockfish, and unidentified teleosts (which could include other  
149 listed fish groups). An environmental matrix, composed of continuous and categorical variables  
150 (year, depth, latitude, longitude, and fish length and weight), and *a priori*-specified binned  
151 groupings (<30, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and >60 cm length bins; <100, 100-199, 200-299, 300-399,  
152 and >400 m depth bins; and <39, 39-41, 41-43, 43-45, 45-47, and >47 °N latitude bins) based upon  
153 historical groundfish bottom trawl survey catch data, were generated to measure prey differences  
154 along spatial and ontogenetic boundaries. Sexes were pooled for analyses since fish gender was  
155 not parameterized in the sample collection design.

156 Multivariate analyses were conducted using relativized weight of stomach contents whereby  
157 each value was proportioned by the total weight. Permutational analysis of variance  
158 (PERMANOVA; Anderson, 2001, 2017) utilizing a Bray-Curtis distance matrix was used with  
159 999 permutations to determine whether significant prey differences existed with regard to year and  
160 the *a priori* binned variables. Year was excluded as a variable from this analysis due to  
161 inconsistency in the stomach collections between years.

162 A non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS; Kruskal, 1964; McCune and Grace, 2002)  
163 ordination also using a Bray-Curtis distance matrix (Bray and Curtis, 1957; McCune and Grace,  
164 2002) was conducted to visually represent diet variability within different spatial and ontogenetic

165 bounds (Bosley et al., 2014). 95% confidence ellipses were additionally plotted to convey diet  
166 differences in multivariate space between the categorical groups.

167 An indicator species analysis (ISA; Dufrene and Legendre, 1997) was employed using 9,999  
168 iterations to distinguish if any prey items were significantly associated with a particular *a priori*  
169 group. Mean length (43 cm), mean latitude (44.45 °N), depth strata (modified from Keller et al.,  
170 2017) to include only two depth strata:  $\leq 183$  m and  $> 183$  m), and latitude and depth strata  
171 combined were also compared. All analyses were conducted using R programming software,  
172 version 3.5.1 (R Core Team, 2018), with *vegan* (NMDS, PERMANOVA; Oksanen et al., 2018),  
173 and *labdsv* (ISA; Roberts, 2019) packages.

### 174 **3. Results**

175 Stomachs from 573 ATF were analyzed for this study, 357 (62%) of which contained prey.  
176 Ranging in size from 14.0 cm to 77.0 cm and depths from 61 m to 541 m, the shallower fish tended  
177 to be smaller while the deeper fish were larger (Table S1). Prey accumulation curves showed  
178 sample numbers were sufficient for both the lowest identified taxon and at the higher taxonomic  
179 groups (Fig. S1).

180 ATF primarily consumed teleost fish across the size range collected, in all areas and depths  
181 encompassed by this study. Fishes and unidentified fish remains occurred in nearly 75% of  
182 stomachs with contents, and accounted for over 97% of the overall total diet weight (Table 1).  
183 Among the fish prey identified to species, hake (44% W), clupeids (18%), and flatfish (15%) made  
184 up the most significant portion of ATF diet. Rockfishes (10%) also contributed a considerable  
185 amount to the total diet, with only greenstriped rockfish (*Sebastes elongatus*) and shortbelly  
186 rockfish (*S. jordani*) identifiable to species. Other fish prey represented only a small percentage  
187 (2%) of the total diet. Unidentified teleost fish comprised a substantial proportion of the total diet  
188 by frequency of occurrence (28%), but not by weight (7%) due to frequent occurrences of only  
189 bones and/or scales in stomachs. Where possible, otoliths and scales were used to identify fish  
190 remains to taxonomic family or species.

191 Shrimp and euphausiids occurred in stomachs with high frequency (17% FO and 19% FO  
192 respectively), but because of their small sizes each only accounted for minimal weight (Table 1).

193 Cephalopods were included in initial % W and % FO calculations for diet composition, but  
194 with low % W and % FO were excluded from subsequent analyses, as were other prey and  
195 miscellaneous unidentifiable, highly digested, and inorganic materials (e.g. pebbles, sand) present  
196 at very low percent weight (Table 1). Collectively, invertebrates only accounted for a small part  
197 of the total overall diet of arrowtooth flounder, but a significant portion by frequency.

198 Variability in diet composition was observed among the discrete size classes (Fig. 2). Despite  
199 piscivory throughout the size classes examined here, a noticeable ontogenetic shift from a diet with  
200 frequent euphausiid and shrimp predation to one of almost exclusive piscivory occurred around  
201 the mean predator length (43 cm). The diet of the smallest size class of ATF comprised the largest  
202 proportion of invertebrates (euphausiids and shrimp) by weight and frequency. Euphausiids and  
203 shrimp accounted for less than one percent by weight of the total diet for the two largest size bins  
204 combined, but still had a relatively high rate of occurrence. For fish prey, clupeids remained the  
205 largest prey group by weight for each of the smallest three size classes, while hake was the  
206 dominant prey of the two largest size bins. The distribution and frequency of ATF prey groups by  
207 predator length is shown in Fig. S2. Of note were the occurrences of engraulids and osmerids  
208 identified only from stomach contents of ATF  $< 35$  cm. There were also several instances of  
209 young-of-the-year (YOY) hake found in stomachs collected from smaller ATF in shallower depths.  
210 This suggests the smaller and shallower predators fully utilized these small forage fishes where

211 available. However, as high numbers of fish prey were necessarily described as unidentified teleost  
212 fish due to advanced levels of digestion, they could potentially be under-represented in the overall  
213 diets of both small and large ATF.

214 Diet proportions by weight and frequency of occurrence showed similar patterns when  
215 analyzed using 100-m depth intervals (Fig. 2). Clupeids, flatfish, other fish (mostly anchovy and  
216 smelt), euphausiids, and shrimp comprised a larger proportion of ATF diet at shallower depths,  
217 whereas hake and rockfish were a proportionately larger part of their diet at greater depths.  
218 Shallower ATF were typically smaller in size, and more than twice as likely to feed upon shrimp  
219 and euphausiids. The higher number of larger ATF present in the deeper stratum tended to prey on  
220 fish considerably more than those in the shallower stratum. Flatfishes were a major prey  
221 component of ATF diet along the west coast, and were the dominant prey in the shallowest depth  
222 bin, accounting for well over half of the total diet weight. Large and small ATF, both shallow and  
223 deep, had substantial proportions of flatfish in their diet, which indicated flatfishes form an integral  
224 portion ATF diet composition throughout their size and spatial ranges. In mid-depths, clupeids  
225 and flatfish each made up about one-third of the diet by weight, but euphausiids and shrimp prey  
226 comprised over half of all prey occurrences. For those ATF found at deeper depths, rockfish, and  
227 hake especially, contributed the highest proportions to the diet. The distribution and frequency of  
228 ATF prey groups by depth is shown in Fig. S3.

229 A clear pattern of prey variability also emerged based on analysis of latitudinal differences  
230 (Fig. 2). Clupeids were predominant in the northernmost latitude bin but decreased in the southern  
231 latitude bins. The high incidence of clupeids, namely herring, in stomachs collected in the northern  
232 part of the survey area, both in shallow and deep waters, indicated potential greater availability of  
233 herring as prey in more northern latitudes. Herring decreased in diet frequency farther south, likely  
234 becoming less available compared to other prey. Hake, most predominant in the middle latitudes,  
235 also accounted for over one-third of the diet by weight in the northernmost latitude bin, while no  
236 hake were found in stomachs collected from the southernmost area. Rockfish were rare in the  
237 northernmost latitude bin, but predominant in the southernmost bins. Shrimp, mainly pandalids,  
238 were most prevalent in the 41-43°N bin and the 45-47°N bin. No pandalids occurred in ATF  
239 stomach contents collected south of 41.5°N. However, crangon and other shrimp species still  
240 occurred, although not to the extent as further north. Euphausiids were consumed throughout the  
241 latitudinal range examined in this study, but their presence in stomach contents notably decreased  
242 from north to south. Rockfishes and flatfishes were more important components of ATF diets, by  
243 both % W and % FO, in the south compared to the north, while clupeids, and to a lesser extent  
244 euphausiids, had greater importance further north. The distribution and frequency of ATF prey  
245 groups by latitude is shown in Fig. S4. Spatial distributions of ATF prey group densities, based  
246 upon haul-specific frequency of occurrence, are shown in Fig. S5.

247 With respect to inter-annual variability among prey groups, the preponderance of hake prey,  
248 by weight, was observed in all collection years except 2014, when clupeids contributed the most  
249 weight (Fig. 2). Notable was the absence of clupeid prey in 2013, as well as minimal flatfish and  
250 rockfish occurrences the same year, which might be attributed to the limited sample numbers that  
251 year, or identification constraints due to advanced digestion levels. The highest % FO of  
252 euphausiids occurred in 2013, although the total number of stomachs containing euphausiid prey  
253 was slightly higher in 2014, again likely due to higher overall sample numbers that year. Other  
254 fish and shrimp were fairly consistent diet contributors in most sampled years.

255 PERMANOVA results confirmed statistically significant associations between prey and the  
256 binned variables, despite low  $R^2$  values (Table 2). The highest variance explained among the

257 singular variables was with respect to latitude ( $R^2 = 0.0504$ ), while among the interactive variables  
258 the variance explained was highest when latitude, depth, and length were all considered ( $R^2 =$   
259  $0.0783$ ).

260 NMDS ordination resulted in a 2-dimensional solution (stress = 0.067) after 20 iterations that  
261 correlated to ontogenetic and environmental vectors (Table S2). The wide distribution of points  
262 reinforced the generalist diet habits of ATF, and confidence ellipses of each predator group  
263 visually compared dietary trends with respect to the ontogenetic and spatial variables, supporting  
264 the PERMANOVA results (Fig. 3). While considerable diet overlap among different groups was  
265 apparent, there were significant differences as diets generally transitioned in ordination space from  
266 euphausiids and shrimp to stronger associations with fish prey, namely hake and rockfish, as  
267 predator length and depth increased. Flatfish prey were an exception with respect to depth; the  
268 majority were found in stomachs collected from the shallower depths. Latitude also showed a  
269 significant change in diet; stomachs collected from more southern ATF had a higher degree of  
270 rockfish association while hake was predominant in the mid-latitudes. Contour plots further  
271 illustrated these dietary differences and patterns of association with respect to length, latitude, and  
272 depth (Fig. 4).

273 ISA results indicated several prey groups had significant associations with the ontogenetic and  
274 spatial grouping variables (Table 3). For example, using mean length as the grouping variable,  
275 euphausiids and pandalids were highly significant ( $p < 0.005$ ) indicator prey for smaller ATF,  
276 while hake and rockfish were highly significant indicators for larger ATF. Euphausiids and hake  
277 were strong indicators for 2013. Latitude also exhibited a high association with certain prey,  
278 especially concerning clupeid consumption in the north, and rockfish consumption in the south.  
279 Clupeids were significant prey for ATF found north of the mean latitude of capture, while rockfish  
280 were significant for the southern group. Additionally, several prey groups were strongly associated  
281 with depth strata; however, no highly significant prey indicators were found with respect to binned  
282 depths.

#### 283 **4. Discussion**

284 ATF food habits as described here were consistent with their characterization as opportunistic  
285 predators feeding predominantly upon schooling fishes, some euphausiids and shrimp (Buckley et  
286 al., 1999; Lang et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2006; Knoth and Foy, 2008). The majority of their diet  
287 consisted of pelagic or semi-pelagic prey, supporting prior research indicating ATF along the west  
288 coast are mainly pelagic predators and trend towards increased piscivory with increasing size  
289 (Yang and Livingston, 1986; Yang, 1995; Buckley et al., 1999; Lang et al., 2005; Yang et al.,  
290 2006; Knoth and Foy, 2008).

291 Diets of predators are largely dependent upon the geographic availability and size of prey  
292 (Mittelbach and Persson, 1998; Brodeur et al., 2014), and as predators of different lengths may  
293 inhabit the same habitat at any given time, significant differences in diet composition can be  
294 attributed to their size and the accessibility of certain prey (Portner et al., 2020). Since a larger  
295 mouth-gape size occurs with increasing predator size, allowing for the ingestion of increasingly  
296 larger prey to meet the higher energy needs of larger predators (Mittelbach and Persson, 1998;  
297 Doyle et al., 2018), it follows that larger ATF, with their larger mouths, were able to feed upon  
298 larger prey.

299 Although results presented here were limited to mainly during summer months, they could  
300 provide some insight into the availability and abundance of prey (Ng et al., 2021), especially as  
301 spatial and temporal variation in diets often mimic changes in prey density (Buckley et al., 2016;  
302 Buckley and Whitehouse, 2017). Since an increase in herring abundance with an increase in

303 latitude has previously been described (Thompson et al., 2017), and the highest contributions of  
304 herring to diet composition were shown here in the higher latitudes, it appears indicative of the  
305 greater availability of herring as prey in more northern latitudes, and underscores the  
306 characterization of ATF as opportunistic feeders.

307 Euphausiids had a significant diet presence in 2013, possibly attributed to a higher abundance  
308 of euphausiids during that year (Wells, et al., 2013; Leising, et al., 2014; Brodeur et al., 2019).  
309 Euphausiids are abundant during nutrient-rich upwelling conditions normally associated with  
310 cooler water (PFMC, 2008), and 2013 was the last cold water period recorded with moderate to  
311 strong upwelling among the years of this study (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/teleconnections/pdo/>;  
312 <http://www.o3d.org/npgo/>). These cooler conditions preceded an anomalous marine heat wave that  
313 began in the winter of 2013-2014 (Leising, et al., 2014, 2015; Bond et al., 2015; Cavole et al.,  
314 2016; Gentemann et al., 2017; Peterson et al., 2017).

315 The prevalence of rockfish prey in ATF stomachs collected at the southern extent of their  
316 survey range further demonstrates the opportunistic food habits of these upper trophic-level  
317 flatfish. Notably, the highest concentration of rockfish prey found in the ATF stomachs collected  
318 during the study period occurred in and around the Greater Farallones and the Cordell Bank  
319 National Marine Sanctuaries (<https://farallones.noaa.gov>; <https://cordellbank.noaa.gov>).  
320 Combined, these marine areas extend from around Pt. Arena down to San Francisco Bay, and are  
321 known to be highly productive marine environments with an abundance of rockfish species  
322 (Marks, et al., 2015; Graiff and Lipski, 2020).

323 The majority of shrimp prey were found in stomachs collected in the mid- to northern latitudes  
324 of the survey range (Fig. 4). This is approximately where pandalid abundance, especially that of  
325 *Pandalus jordani*, decreases from its maximum density off central Oregon (Dahlstrom, 1970), and  
326 just north of where ATF abundance begins to decline (Bradburn et al, 2011; Keller et al, 2013).  
327 This decline in abundance could potentially be linked to prominent topographical features along  
328 the U.S. west coast, such as Cape Mendocino (40.4°N), Point Arena (39.0°N), and Point Reyes  
329 (38.0°N), which influence ocean currents and wind patterns (Magnell et al., 1990; Largier et al.,  
330 1993), potentially influencing many forage species (Friedman et al. 2018). Pandalid distribution  
331 and abundance may also be affected by changes in seasonal environmental events south of Cape  
332 Mendocino (Hannah, 2011), potentially pushing pandalids slightly more northward in recent years,  
333 and decreasing their availability to ATF as a food resource in the southernmost part of their range.

334 Walleye pollock is an abundant fish species found in Alaskan waters and the predominant prey  
335 by weight of arrowtooth flounder inhabiting that region (Yang and Livingston, 1986; Yang and  
336 Nelson, 2000; Yang et al., 2006; Knoth and Foy, 2008). Similarly, hake is the most abundant  
337 groundfish along the U.S. west coast (Hamel et al., 2015; Berger et al., 2019), and was the  
338 predominant prey by weight of ATF found in this study. Hake then, at least with respect to ATF  
339 predation, could be considered the trophic counterpart to walleye pollock in lower latitudes of the  
340 northeast Pacific Ocean. Also, as Hollowed et al. (2000) described the importance of ATF  
341 predation to the natural mortality of walleye pollock in the Gulf of Alaska (GOA) ecosystem, it is  
342 probable that ATF fill a similar niche with respect to hake in the CCE, and perhaps ATF predation  
343 plays a key role in influencing gadid population dynamics in the CCE as was shown in the GOA  
344 (Gaichas et al., 2011). Recent work has linked higher recruitment of age-0 hake in the CCE to  
345 periods with high arrowtooth flounder biomass, which likely results from increased arrowtooth  
346 flounder predation on older (age-2+) hake and reduced mortality due to cannibalism on age-0 and  
347 age-1 juvenile fish (Vestfals, unpublished data).



348 It has been suggested that ATF move to deeper water as they grow and mature (Zimmerman  
349 and Goddard, 1996; Blood et al., 2007), and hake are also known to display diurnal vertical  
350 migration and tend to aggregate further northward and deeper offshore as they mature (Ressler et  
351 al., 2007; Hamel et al., 2015). Results here illustrated a high prevalence of hake in stomachs  
352 collected from both larger ATF and those from greater depths, which indicated a potential  
353 correlation between ATF ontogeny and hake life history. Since hake have been shown to prey  
354 considerably upon euphausiids (Buckley and Livingston, 1997; Buckley et al., 1999; Hamel et al.,  
355 2015), and could show increased growth as euphausiid density increases with upwelling (Hamel  
356 et al., 2015), the significance of hake prey found in ATF stomachs in 2013 could be associated  
357 with the significance of euphausiid prey that same year. Additionally, the highest % W and % FO  
358 of hake prey and the highest % FO of euphausiid prey both occurred in stomachs collected in 2013,  
359 underscoring the opportunistic behavior and adaptive feeding capability of ATF as a high-level  
360 predator and the important functional role it plays in the CCE.

361 ATF are considered among the highest trophic level flatfish in the CCE, along with Pacific  
362 halibut (*Hippoglossus stenolepis*) and petrale sole (*Eopsetta jordani*; Sampson et al., 2017), thus  
363 their trophic influence on the ecosystem as a high-level predator is likely significant (Gaichas et  
364 al., 2011). By incorporating this diet and predator-prey information into estimates of natural  
365 mortality, an important parameter used in stock assessments, estimates of distribution and  
366 abundance, as well as harvest level projections, become more precautionary and sustainable  
367 (Pikitch et al., 2012). Evaluating these predator-prey relationships not only enhances management  
368 decisions of commercially important groundfish by improving population estimates, but also  
369 allows for a better accounting of forage species populations and their influences on overall  
370 ecosystem health. (Gaichas et al., 2010).

## 371 **5. Conclusion**

372 This study provided comprehensive stomach contents and multivariate analysis of ATF diet along  
373 the U.S. West Coast, and confirmed previous research suggesting that ATF is an opportunistic and  
374 highly piscivorous feeder. However, variability in arrowtooth flounder diet during the winter  
375 months could be a worthwhile inclusion in future studies, as diets may vary seasonally (Reum and  
376 Essington, 2008), and an underlying limitation of this study was the survey duration being confined  
377 to mostly the summer months, from mid-May to mid-October, each year. Also, analyzing prey  
378 composition through stomach contents alone necessitates numerous collections over long periods  
379 of time to obtain a more complete description of diet, but space and time constraints might lead to  
380 inadequate sample numbers, potentially underestimating the importance of prey low in abundance  
381 but high in nutritional value. Therefore comparisons of different time series of diet data, such as  
382 results here with that of Buckley et al. (1999), while challenging across various measurement  
383 indices, would improve understanding of long-term changes in populations and enhance  
384 sustainable ecosystem management strategies.

385 Identifying carbon and nitrogen stable-isotope (S-I) ratios of consumers and prey will also  
386 provide additional trophic information (Peterson and Fry, 1987), while combining stomach  
387 contents analyses with analyses of these S-I ratios would provide an effective and more  
388 comprehensive method to evaluate diets, predation mortality, and the trophic relationships among  
389 species which overlap spatially and temporally. Studies focused on comparing food-web  
390 interactions, dietary overlap, and competition, while incorporating S-I analyses to produce time-  
391 integrated descriptions of diet and food sources, are warranted for further consideration.

392 This research provided updated quantitative diet information of a high trophic level predator  
393 in the CCE. Dietary influences of size, as well as of depth and latitude, were reflected in the

394 variability of prey found in ATF stomach contents. The high percentage weight of fish such as  
395 herring, and particularly of Pacific hake and rockfish in the larger fish, indicated a shift to higher  
396 energy resources as ATF grew larger. Spatio-temporal variability of prey resources also had a  
397 direct impact on arrowtooth food habits, as oceanographic fluctuations and geographic boundaries  
398 continue to influence prey composition and availability. These additional, and perhaps indirect,  
399 influences on diets and trophic interactions may be shown through correlating environmental  
400 effects (Brodeur and Pearcy, 1992), and should be included in further research. Diets of many  
401 demersal fish managed under the PFMC's FMP are poorly studied and most current assessments  
402 list diet studies as an area of critical research needed for future assessments (Bizzarro et al., 2017;  
403 PFMC, 2018), with significant influence of predation metrics on natural mortality estimation.  
404 Examining diets of predators would also provide essential information on forage species and prey  
405 abundance (Brodeur et al., 2014; Ng et al., 2021). Future research encompassing food habits and  
406 prey composition of fishes, S-I, the extent of spatial and temporal prey variability, linking local  
407 and basin-scale climate indices (PDO, NPGO, Multivariate ENSO Index (MEI)) characterizing  
408 environmental variability (temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll, salinity, etc.), will support  
409 fully-developed ecosystem-based management strategies, and lead to a better understanding of the  
410 ecological role of groundfish in the CCE.

411

#### 412 **Acknowledgements**

413 The author is indebted to the captains and crew of the chartered fishing vessels the F/V Excalibur,  
414 the F/V Last Straw, the F/V Ms. Julie, and the F/V Noah's Ark for their knowledge and at-sea  
415 assistance. Thanks and recognition to the West Coast Groundfish Bottom Trawl Survey Team (K.  
416 Bosley, J. Buchanan, A. Chappell, P. Frey, J. Harms, M. Head, D. Kamikawa, L. Lam, and V.  
417 Simon) for their skill and dedication in collecting high quality data for the groundfish survey and  
418 fisheries management. Thanks also to all NWFSC personnel, contractors and additional volunteers  
419 who staffed the survey between 2013 and 2018. Additional thanks and gratitude to Aimee Keller  
420 for support and guidance, Dan Kamikawa for assisting with prey species identifications, Katelyn  
421 Bosley for statistical advice, Cathleen Vestfals, Keith Bosley, Ric Brodeur, Jonathan Reum, and  
422 the anonymous reviewer whose comments and suggestions helped to improve this manuscript  
423 immeasurably.

424

425 The author declares that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
426 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. This research  
427 did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-  
428 profit sectors. Any mention of trade names does not imply endorsement by the author, or by NOAA  
429 or any of its sub-agencies.

430

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<b>Prey categories</b>	<b>Weight</b>	<b>% W</b>	<b>% FO</b>
<b><i>Merluccius productus</i> (Pacific hake)</b>	<b>3662.89</b>	<b>44.48</b>	<b>10.08</b>
<b>Clupeid</b>	<b>1500.72</b>	<b>18.24</b>	<b>11.20</b>
<i>Clupea pallasii</i> (Pacific herring)	1446.27	17.56	9.52
Clupeidae (unidentified clupeid)	54.45	0.66	1.68
<b>Flatfish</b>	<b>1246.3</b>	<b>15.13</b>	<b>12.89</b>
<i>Citharichthys sordidus</i> (Pacific sanddab)	338.04	4.11	1.96
<i>Citharichthys</i> sp. (unidentified sanddab)	1.95	0.02	0.28
<i>Glyptocephalus zachirus</i> (rex sole)	246.93	3.00	1.40
<i>Lysopsetta exilis</i> (slender sole)	389.05	4.72	4.76
<i>Microstomus pacificus</i> (Dover sole)	179.88	2.18	0.56
Pleuronectiformes (unidentified flatfish)	90.45	1.10	3.92
<b>Rockfish</b>	<b>866.14</b>	<b>10.52</b>	<b>9.52</b>
<i>Sebastes elongatus</i> (greenstriped rockfish)	88.51	1.07	0.28
<i>Sebastes jordani</i> (shortbelly rockfish)	78.31	0.95	1.12
<i>Sebastes</i> sp. (unidentified rockfish)	699.32	8.49	8.12
<b>Other Fish</b>	<b>151.14</b>	<b>1.84</b>	<b>3.08</b>
<i>Allosmerus elongates</i> (whitebait smelt)	5.27	0.06	0.28
<i>Engraulis mordax</i> (northern anchovy)	67.65	0.82	0.84
Osmeridae (unidentified osmerid)	4.49	0.05	0.28
<i>Radulinus asprellus</i> (slim sculpin)	1.92	0.02	0.28
<i>Squalus suckleyi</i> (Pacific spiny dogfish)	14.56	0.18	0.28
<i>Thaleichthys pacificus</i> (eulachon)	20.89	0.25	0.28
Zoarcidae (unidentified eelpout)	36.36	0.44	0.84
<b>Teleost (unidentified fish)</b>	<b>602.9</b>	<b>7.32</b>	<b>28.01</b>
<b>Euphausiid</b>	<b>85.63</b>	<b>1.04</b>	<b>18.77</b>
<i>Euphausia pacifica</i> (North Pacific krill)	33.49	0.41	5.04
Euphausiacea (unidentified euphausiid)	33.64	0.41	8.68
<i>Thysanoessa spinifera</i>	18.5	0.22	5.04

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Table 1. Weight (g), percent weight (% W), and percent frequency of occurrence (% FO) of prey items found in arrowtooth flounder stomachs (n=357) collected during the west coast groundfish bottom trawl survey. Totals by prey category appear in bold. Asterisks indicate values < 0.01. Cephalopod, Other prey, and Miscellaneous groups were excluded from any further analyses.

<b>Prey categories</b>	<b>Weight</b>	<b>% W</b>	<b>% FO</b>
<b>Pandalid</b>	<b>78.74</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>8.40</b>
Pandalidae (unidentified pandalid shrimp)	3.44	0.04	1.40
<i>Pandalus jordani</i> (ocean shrimp)	75.3	0.91	7.00
<b>Other Shrimp</b>	<b>20.42</b>	<b>0.25</b>	<b>8.40</b>
Crangonidae (unidentified crangon)	0.07	*	0.28
Dendrobrachiata (unidentified shrimp)	11.49	0.14	5.04
<i>Lissocrangon stylirostris</i> (smooth crangon)	0.38	*	0.28
<i>Neocrangon communis</i> (twospine crangon)	1.09	0.01	0.56
<i>Neognathophausia ingens</i> (giant red mysid)	0.73	0.01	0.28
<i>Pasiphaea pacifica</i> (Pacific glass shrimp)	5.75	0.07	1.40
<i>Spirontocaris holmesi</i> (slender bladed shrimp)	0.81	0.01	0.28
<i>Spirontocaris sica</i> (offshore blade shrimp)	0.1	*	0.28
<b>Cephalopod</b>	<b>5.39</b>	<b>0.07</b>	<b>0.84</b>
<i>Abraliopsis felis</i>	0.98	0.01	0.28
<i>Doryteuthis opalescens</i> (California market squid)	4.4	0.05	0.28
Teuthida (unidentified squid)	0.01	*	0.28
<b>Other prey</b>	<b>12.14</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>2.24</b>
Echinacea (unidentified sea urchin)	4.48	0.05	0.56
Isopoda (unidentified isopod)	0.11	*	0.56
<i>Luidia foliolata</i> (flat mud star)	0.93	0.01	0.28
<i>Strongylocentrotus fragilis</i> (fragile sea urchin)	6.62	0.08	0.84
<b>Miscellaneous</b>	<b>2.28</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>4.20</b>
Gelatinous digested material	0.67	0.01	2.24
Miscellaneous (unidentified material)	1.1	0.01	0.56
Mud/Sand/Pebble/Rock	0.47	0.01	0.56
Unidentified digested organic material	0.04	*	0.84

809

810 Table 1 continued. Weight (g), percent weight (% W), and percent frequency of occurrence (% FO) of prey items found in arrowtooth  
811 flounder stomachs (n=357) collected during the west coast groundfish bottom trawl survey. Totals by prey category appear in bold.

812 Asterisks indicate values < 0.01. Cephalopod, Other prey, and Miscellaneous groups were excluded from any further analyses.

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<b>Grouping variable</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>SSqs</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Pseudo-<i>F</i></b>	<b><i>P</i> (999 permutations)</b>
Latitude	5	7.278	0.0504	3.8852	0.001*
Depth	4	5.697	0.0394	3.8010	0.001*
Length	4	3.245	0.0225	2.1655	0.001*
Latitude x Depth	19	9.056	0.0627	1.2721	0.015*
Latitude x Length	18	6.854	0.0474	1.0163	0.429
Depth x Length	14	5.881	0.0407	1.1211	0.188
Latitude x Depth x Length	22	11.318	0.0783	1.3730	0.004*
Residuals	254	95.167	0.6586		
Total	340	144.497	1.0000		

814

815 Table 2. Results of PERMANOVA analysis of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities in prey for categorical  
816 binned groupings of arrowtooth flounder; Df = degrees of freedom; SSqs = sum of squares; R<sup>2</sup> =  
817 explained variance; Pseudo-*F* = *F* value; *P* = significance value by permutation. Values with an  
818 asterisk indicate statistical significance at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

819

820 **Figure captions**

821

822 **Figure 1** Trawl locations during the west coast groundfish bottom trawl surveys from which  
823 arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) stomach samples (n=573) were collected. Colors  
824 represent different collection years and symbol size represents the number of samples collected at  
825 each trawl station. Isobaths of the minimum (55 m) and maximum (1280 m) depth extent of the  
826 groundfish bottom trawl survey (Keller et al., 2017) are also shown.

827 **Figure 2** Stacked barplots of diet proportions by weight (top) and frequency of occurrence  
828 (bottom) of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) prey categories by collection year (left),  
829 size (middle-left), latitude (middle-right), and depth (right). Stomach sample size (n) is shown  
830 above each bin.

831 **Figure 3** NMDS ordinations of diet data (stress = 0.067,  $R^2 = 0.987$ ) with 95% confidence ellipses  
832 showing diet variability and ordination spread of prey categories; (A) multivariate spread of  
833 individual sample points with overlay of environmental vectors; (B) variability by predator length,  
834 (C) variability by depth, and (D) variability by latitude.

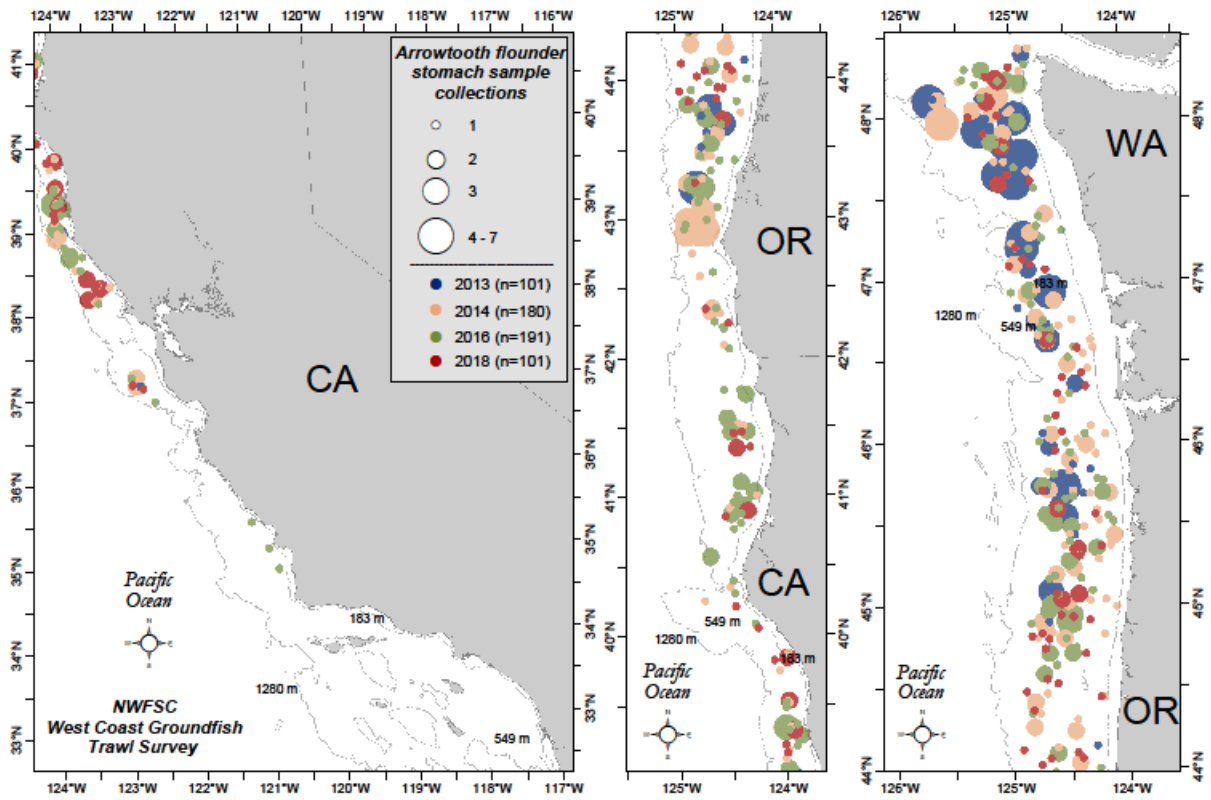
835 **Figure 4** NMDS ordination plots with individual sample points and overlay of the multivariate  
836 spread of prey categories showing diet variability with respect to environmental vectors and  
837 contours of (A) depth, (B) latitude, and (C) length.

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841 Fig 1

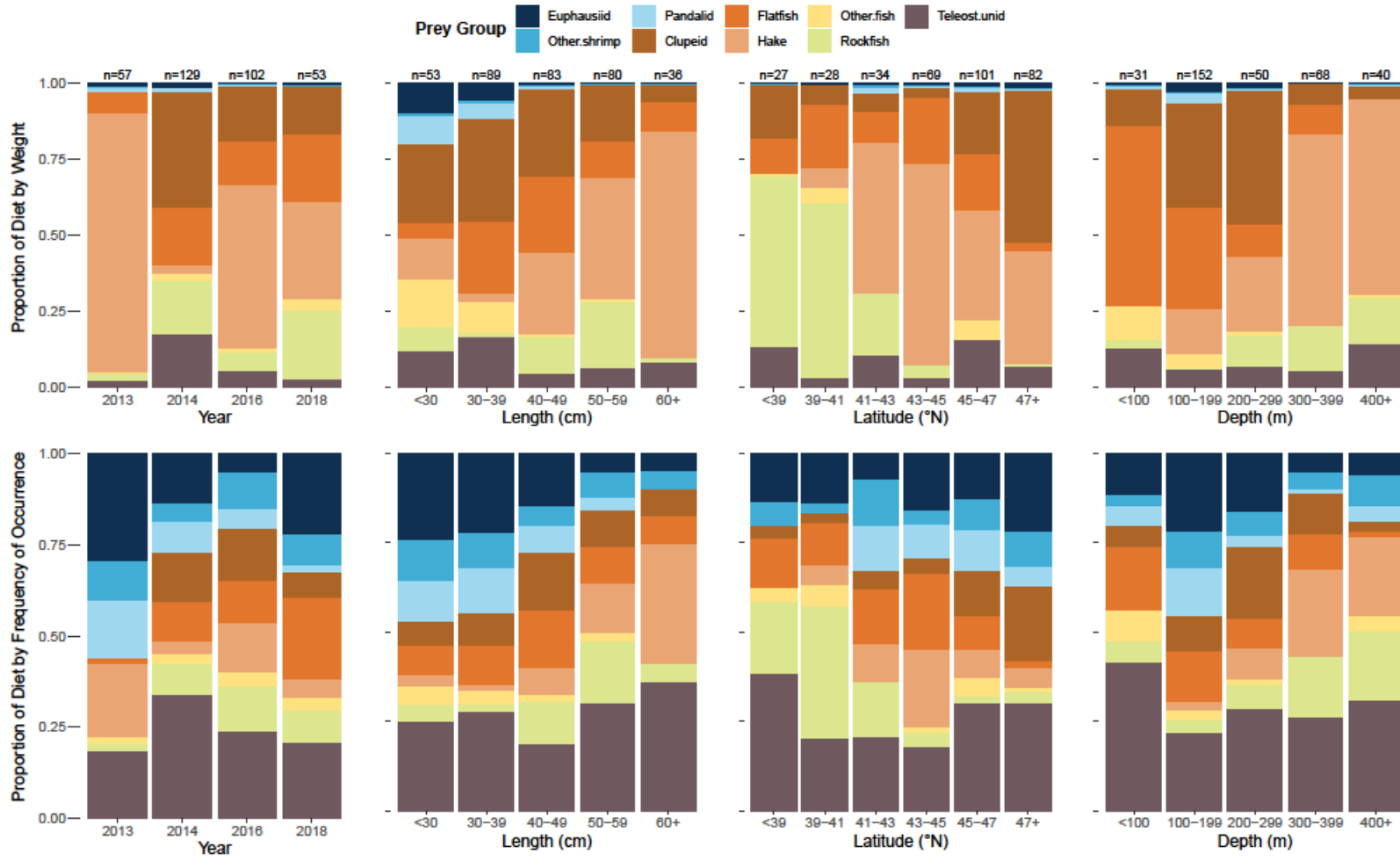


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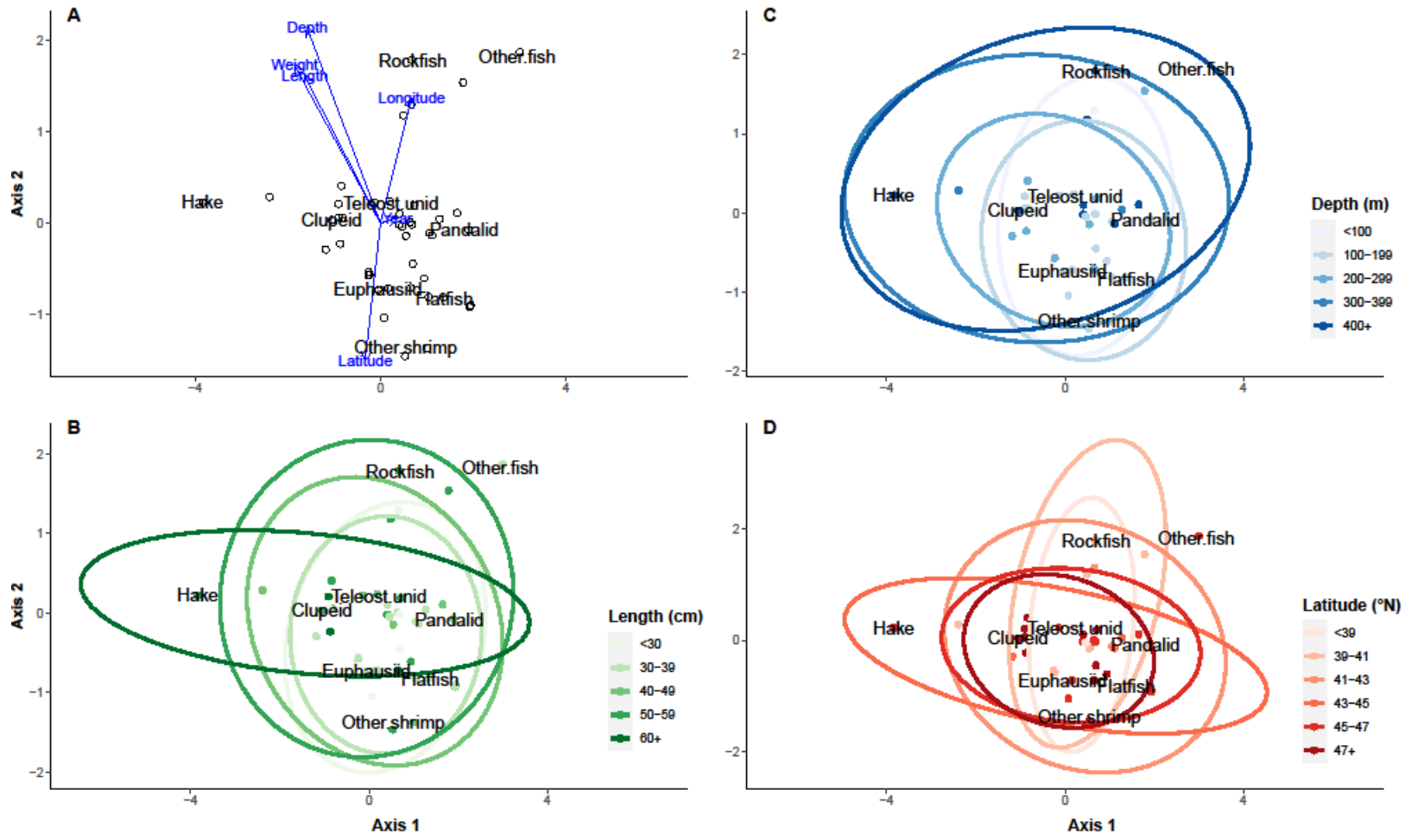
844 Fig 2



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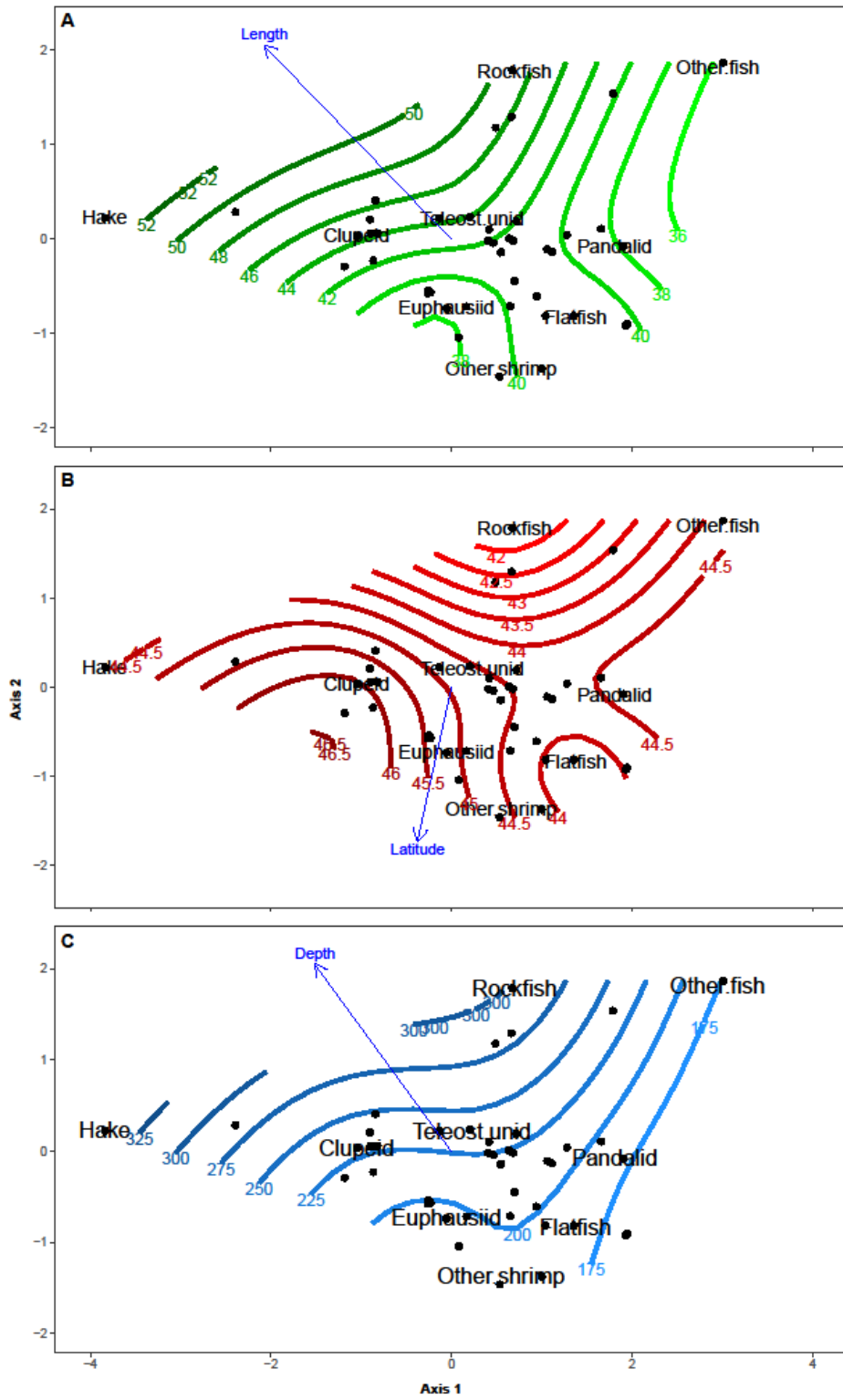
847 Fig 3



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850 Fig 4



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853 **Supplemental tables and figures**

854

Year	Size (cm)	Depth strata		% Non-empty	
		Stratum 1	Stratum 2	Stratum 1	Stratum 2
2013 (n=101)	< 30	18	1	33.0	0.0
	30-39	9	8	88.9	25.0
	40-49	9	15	66.7	73.3
	50-59	5	15	60.0	73.3
	≥ 60	1	20	0.0	75.0
2014 (n=180)	< 30	40	2	82.5	100.0
	30-39	22	19	68.2	78.9
	40-49	15	19	93.3	68.4
	50-59	7	36	71.4	72.2
	≥ 60	2	18	50.0	44.4
2016 (n=191)	< 30	10	4	60.0	0.0
	30-39	38	20	60.5	60.0
	40-49	21	29	52.4	58.6
	50-59	14	33	50.0	57.6
	≥ 60	2	20	50.0	45.0
2018 (n=101)	< 30	6	1	83.3	100.0
	30-39	23	6	60.7	33.3
	40-49	14	13	57.1	53.8
	50-59	6	17	66.7	52.9
	≥ 60	3	12	66.7	50.0

855

856 Table S1. Arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) stomach collections by year, size class (< 30  
857 cm, 30-39 cm, 40-49 cm, 50-59 cm, and ≥ 60 cm), and depth strata (Stratum 1 is 55-183 m,  
858 Stratum 2 is > 183 m). The percentage of non-empty stomachs is also shown for each collection  
859 category.

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	<b>Axis 1</b>	<b>Axis 2</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>P</b>
Year	0.80021	0.59971	0.0063	0.332
Depth	-0.59304	0.80517	0.1521	0.001*
Length	-0.71056	0.70364	0.1132	0.001*
Weight	-0.73026	0.68317	0.1379	0.001*
Latitude	-0.21316	-0.97702	0.0509	0.001*
Longitude	0.44138	0.89732	0.0496	0.002*

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Table S2. Correlation of environmental and ontogenetic variables to non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination axes of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) diet data (999 permutations); R<sup>2</sup> = explained variance; P = significance value by permutation. Values with an asterisk indicate statistical significance at  $P \leq 0.05$ .

868 **Supplemental figure captions**

869

870 **Figure S1** Species accumulation curves (solid line) of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*)  
871 prey groups; the upper panel shows all individual prey taxa ( $b = 0.0485$ ), the lower panel shows  
872 all aggregated prey groups including cephalopod, other prey, and miscellaneous categories ( $b =$   
873  $0.0033$ ); shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.

874 **Figure S2** Distribution of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) prey groups by predator  
875 length, ordered by increasing predator mean size. The vertical dashed line denotes the mean length  
876 of arrowtooth flounder from which stomachs were collected and containing specific prey group.

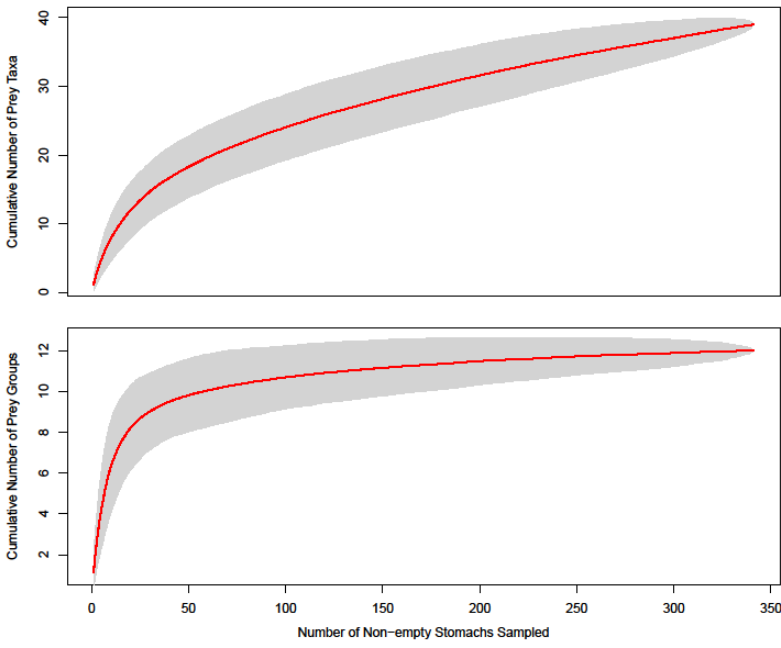
877 **Figure S3** Distribution of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) prey groups by predator  
878 depth, ordered by increasing mean depth. The vertical dashed line denotes the mean depth of  
879 arrowtooth flounder from which stomachs were collected and containing specific prey group.

880 **Figure S4** Distribution of arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) prey groups by predator  
881 latitude, ordered by decreasing mean latitude. The vertical dashed line denotes the mean latitude  
882 of arrowtooth flounder from which stomachs were collected and containing specific prey group.

883 **Figure S5** Prey density distribution map of location-specific frequency of occurrence (%FO) for  
884 arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) stomach samples for all collection years combined.

885

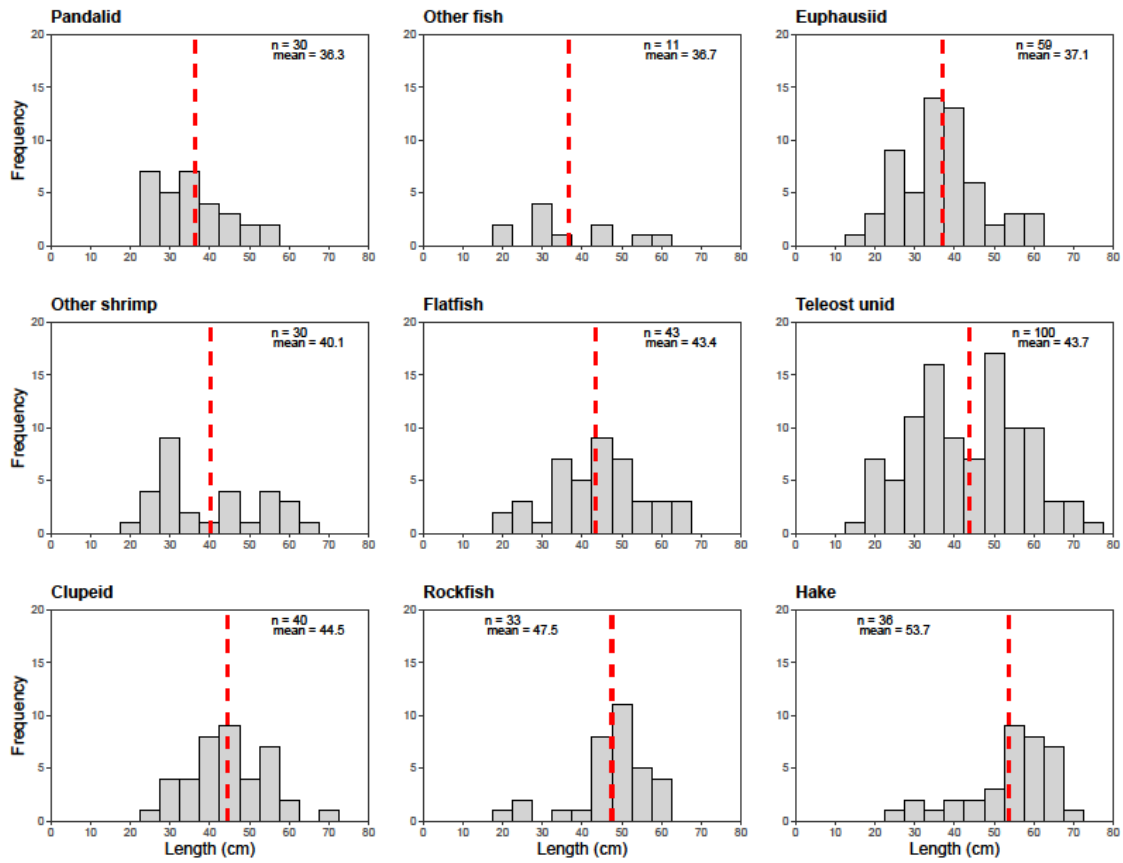
886 Fig S1



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889 Fig S2

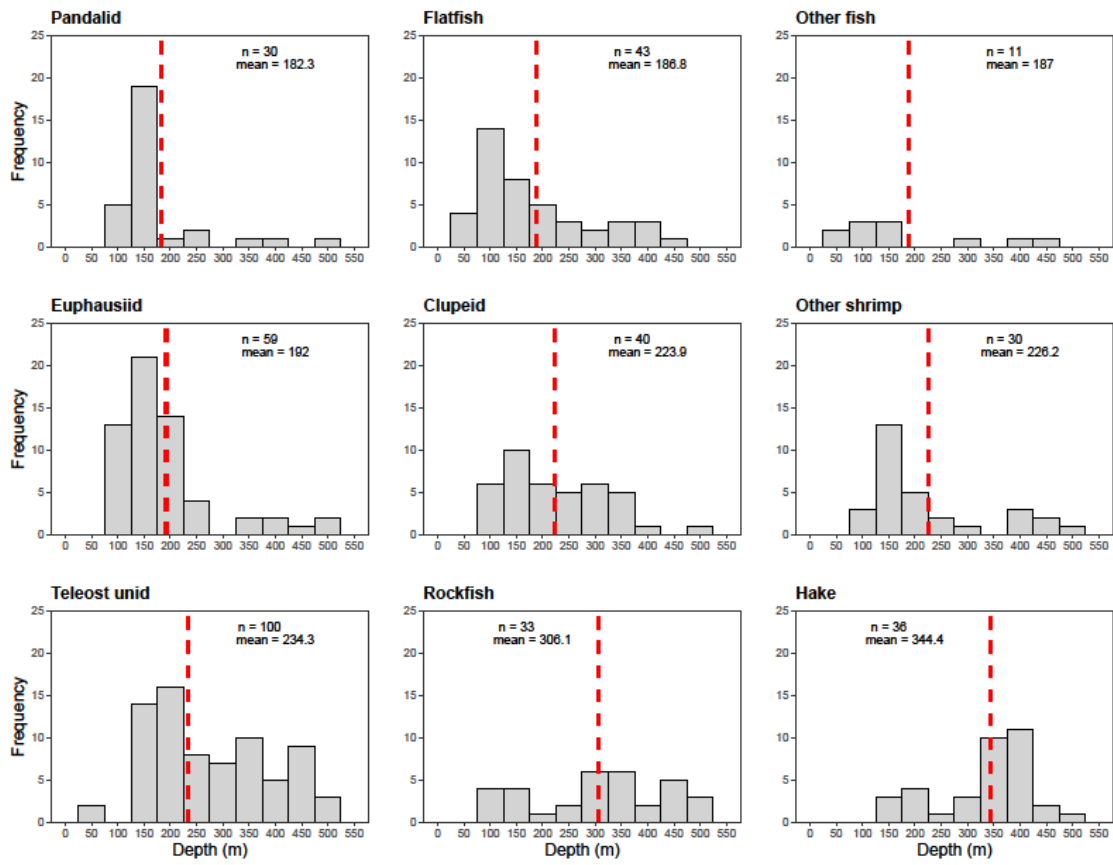


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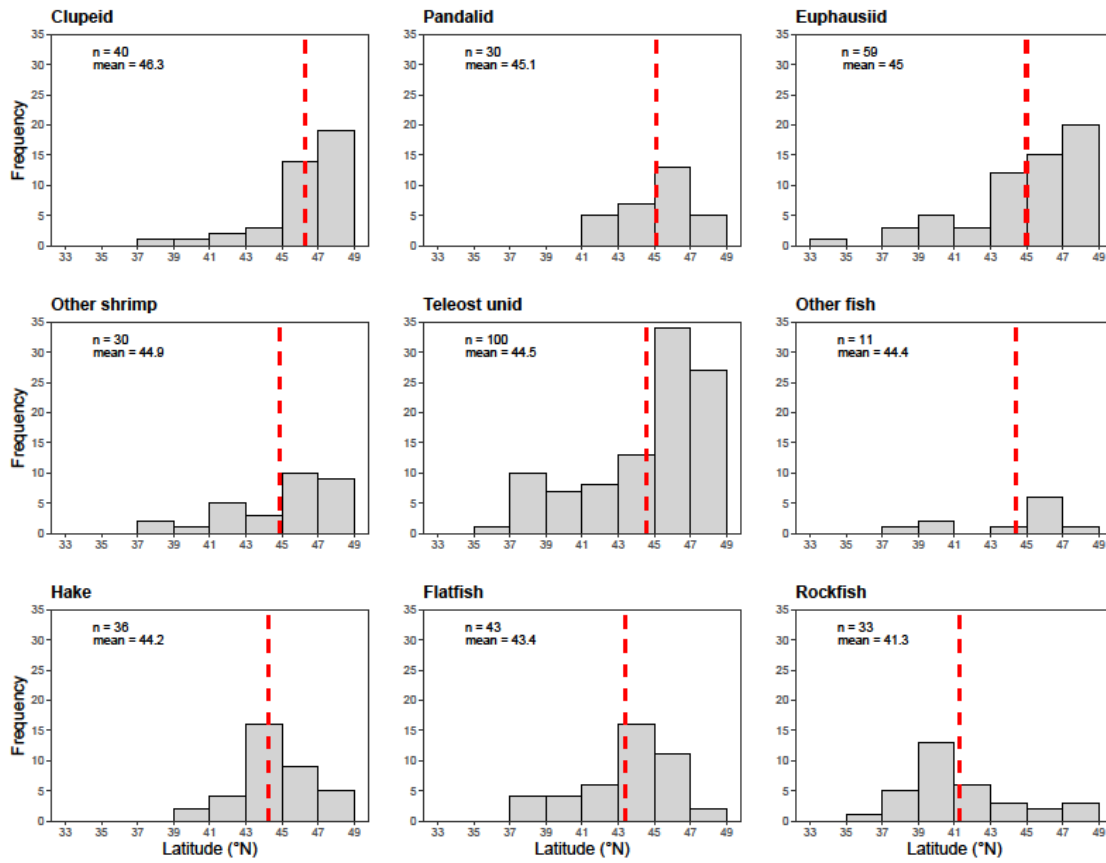
892 Fig S3



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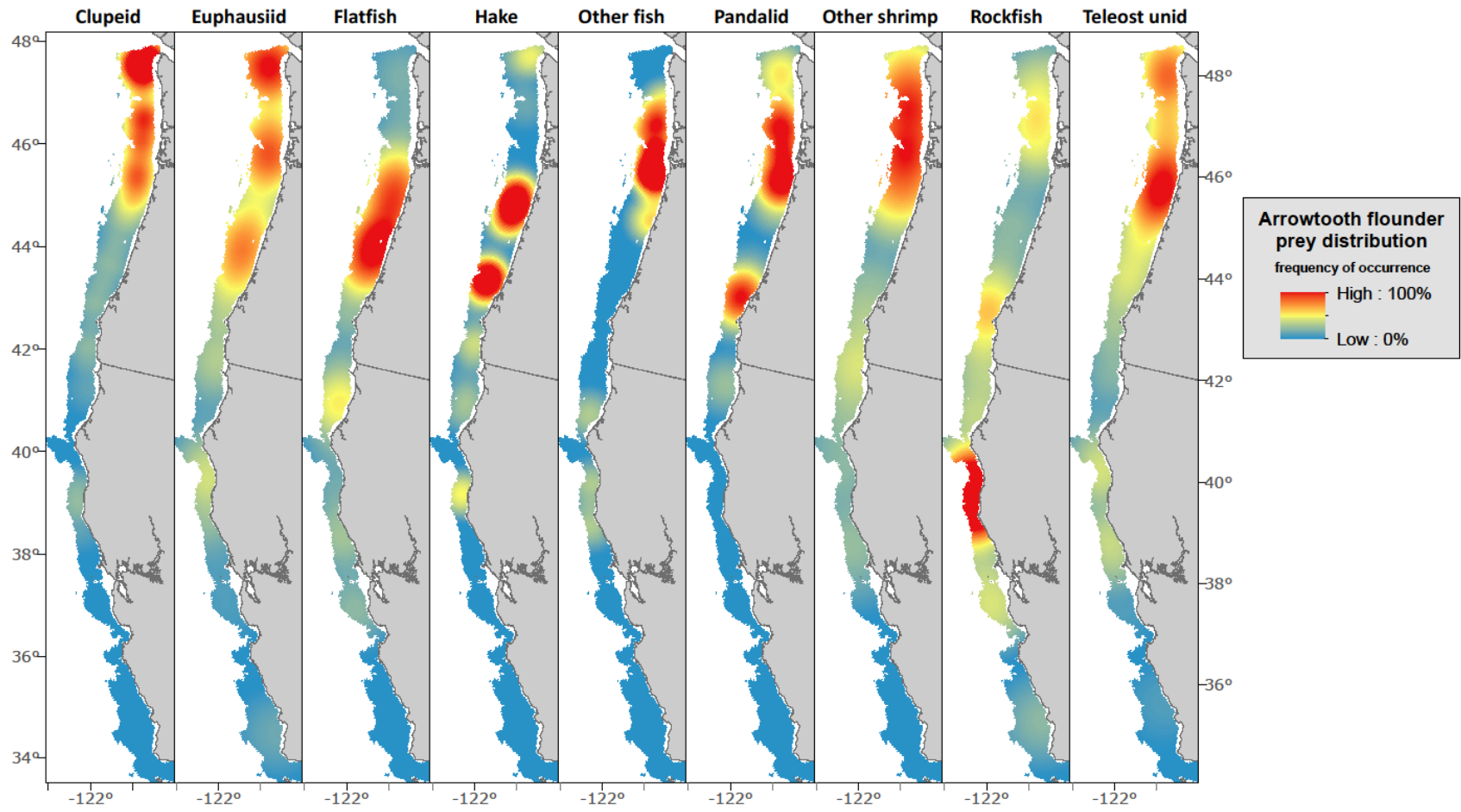
895 Fig S4



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898 Fig S5



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