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11	Assessing the diet of North American Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar L.) off the
12	West Greenland coast using gut content and stable isotope analyses
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- 3334 ABSTRACT

35 Investigations on marine feeding of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar L.) in the Northwest Atlantic 36 are limited compared with the Northeast Atlantic. Climate-induced changes to food webs in 37 Atlantic salmon feeding areas have been noted, alongside increased mortality despite a cessation 38 of most marine fisheries. Since forage efficiency may be hampering survival, it was important to 39 address this knowledge gap. Atlantic salmon were sampled at three sites on the West Greenland 40 coast (Sisimiut, Nuuk and Qagortog) between 2009-2011. Gut content and stable isotope 41 analyses were combined to assess spatial and temporal differences in feeding. Capelin (Mallotus 42 villosus) dominated the diet at Nuuk and Qaqortoq, while boreoatlantic armhook squid (Gonatus 43 *fabricii*) was the dominant prey at Sisimiut. Hyperiid amphipods (*Themisto* spp.) and sand lance 44 (Ammodytes spp.) were also important. Significant differences were found among sites for both 45 gut contents and stable isotope analyses, with fewer differences evident temporally. Dietary 46 differences were also evident across larger scales, with little overlap demonstrated with 47 Northeast Atlantic diets and the emergence of boreoatlantic armhook squid as an important prev 48 item over time. Atlantic salmon diets are frequently anchored on one or two prey items, on which 49 they appear to specialise, but they will diversify to consume other available pelagic prey. Thus, 50 Atlantic salmon are an opportunistic, generalist predator within the pelagic food web. The 51 variability evident in diet suggests that the limited data available are insufficient to appropriately 52 understand potential vulnerabilities that the species may have to ecosystem changes, and suggest 53 further research is needed.

54

55 KEY WORDS

56 Atlantic salmon, gut contents, stable isotopes, temporal and spatial diet variability

57 INTRODUCTION

Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) have considerable commercial, conservation, recreation and
subsistence value as farmed, hatchery-produced and wild populations (Hindar *et al.*, 2011).
While the ecology of this species in the freshwater environment is relatively well studied, aspects

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of the marine phase of its life-history are much less well understood (Webb *et al.*, 2006). The need to better understand the ecology of Atlantic salmon during its marine residency is particularly important given that marine mortality is currently high and multi-sea-winter (MSW) abundances are declining across their range even though most marine fisheries for Atlantic salmon have been closed or reduced (ICES, 2015).

66 Reductions in Atlantic salmon marine survival and growth have been associated with changes in climate and the associated changes in the physical (temperature) and biological (prey 67 68 abundance) characteristics of the environment (Todd et al., 2008; Rikardsen and Dempson, 2011; Friedland et al., 2014). Warmer temperatures combined with climate-driven environmental 69 70 variation may have resulted in reduced foraging efficiency, thereby contributing to declines in 71 abundance and productivity (Mills et al., 2013). For example, European Atlantic salmon smolt to 72 adult recruitment appears to be linked to forage abundance that affects post-smolt growth during 73 their first summer at sea (Friedland et al., 2009). Studies from both Europe (e.g. Friedland et al., 74 2000; Peyronnet et al., 2007; McCarthy et al., 2008) and North America (e.g. Friedland and 75 Reddin, 2000; Friedland et al., 2003, 2005, 2014) have provided evidence of associations 76 between Atlantic salmon growth and recruitment and marine climate conditions. The specifics of 77 the linkages between climatic influences and Atlantic salmon growth and survival at sea remain 78 unclear (Dempson et al., 2010). Both direct and indirect effects have been noted (Friedland et al., 79 2000, 2006, 2009), with indirect effects likely being driven by the quantity and quality of prey 80 available (Todd et al., 2008; Mills et al., 2013; Renkawitz et al., 2015).

81 While the diet of adult Atlantic salmon at sea in the Northeast Atlantic has been studied 82 relatively recently (e.g. Hansson et al., 2001; Jacobsen and Hansen, 2001; Salminen et al., 2001; 83 Rikardsen et al., 2004; Hvidsten et al., 2009), there have been few contemporary diet studies in 84 the Northwest Atlantic (Reddin, 1985; Sheehan et al., 2012a; Renkawitz et al., 2015) since the 85 1960s and 1970s (Templeman, 1967, 1968; Lear, 1972, 1980). Further complicating our 86 understanding of climate-related influences on Atlantic salmon diets, and their consequences, are 87 the known differences in marine feeding patterns among Atlantic salmon in the marine 88 environment (Dempson et al., 2010).

The lack of recent information is particularly important as, over the last 40 years, the Northwest Atlantic has undergone a number of oceanographic changes that have altered the marine food web on which migrating Atlantic salmon rely. For example, capelin (*Mallotus* 92 villosus), a previously important prey item for Atlantic salmon (Templeman, 1967, 1968; Lear, 93 1972, 1980), have undergone large declines in abundance and distributional shifts in the 94 Labrador Sea/West Greenland area since the 1990s. These shifts have been linked to 95 environmental change and possible trophic cascades (Nakashima, 1996; Livingston and 96 Tjelmeland, 2000; Carscadden et al., 2001, 2002). As a consequence, Dempson et al. (2002) 97 noted a dietary shift in Labrador Arctic charr (Salvelinus alpinus) and (Renkawitz et al. 2015) 98 have reported changes in capelin quality (notably size and energy density) which may have had 99 an effect on Atlantic salmon foraging success.

100 Differences in Atlantic salmon feeding patterns are also evident at various spatial scales. 101 Studies utilising stable isotope analysis (SIA) have demonstrated differences in feeding between 102 European and North American populations, and among populations in North America as noted 103 by Sinnatamby et al. (2009) and Dempson et al (2010). The spatial differences parallel the 104 differential responses in recruitment of the continental stock complexes to long-term 105 environmental change as embodied in the Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (Friedland et al. 106 2014). Feeding differences may arise as a result of the variable availability of prev items 107 (Satterfield and Finney 2002). Indeed, generalist predators in marine ecosystems, such as 108 Atlantic salmon, often have broad diets and are thought to switch to feeding on more abundant 109 prey items as they become available (Sissenwine et al. 1982; Overholtz et al. 2000; Kaeriyama et 110 al. 2004). Atlantic salmon are known to feed opportunistically and to use a wide array of 111 invertebrate and fish prey items (Lear 1972; Jacobsen and Hansen 2001). Generalist feeding 112 when coupled with opportunistic feeding results in both the spatial and temporal variability in 113 feeding patterns inferred by long-term isotopic studies of Atlantic salmon scales (Sinnatamby et 114 al., 2009)

115 The intent of this paper is to examine small- and large-scale spatial and temporal 116 differences in marine feeding of Atlantic salmon and investigate generalist feeding strategies. 117 While recent work by Renkawitz et al. (2015) has begun to address issues of localized 118 geographic variation in prev consumption and longer term changes in the energy density of key 119 prey items, notably capelin, questions remain regarding the heterogeneity of diets at broader 120 spatial and temporal scales for fish of known continental origin. Accordingly, we also expand on 121 Renkawitz et al. (2015) by focusing solely on salmon of North American origin to examine 122 temporal and spatial dietary variability using both short-term (gut contents) and long-term (stable 123 isotopes) data. Specifically, the study sought to test the hypotheses that: (1) contemporary diets 124 are spatially heterogeneous both within regions (e.g. West Greenland) and on the broader 125 oceanic scale (e.g. West Greenland vs eastern Atlantic); (2) diets are temporally dependent, 126 varying through time at similar locations, and (3) diets are reflective of a generalist feeding

- 127 strategy. 128 129 . 130 131 **JUUS(** 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146
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148 MATERIALS AND METHODS

149 Sampling methods

150 Atlantic salmon were caught by local fishers using gillnets at three sites (Qaqortoq, Nuuk and

151 Sisimiut), located along a ~875 km section of the West Greenland coast in August-October

152 2009-2011 (Fig. 1). The fish were sampled as part of the North Atlantic Salmon Conservation

153 Organisation's (NASCO) Salmon at Sea (SALSEA) Greenland initiative, and were dissected on

154 location (Sheehan et al., 2012b). Stomachs were removed for gut content analysis (GCA). Nine 155 of every ten stomachs were cut open and the contents preserved in a mixture of 10% neutral 156 buffered formalin and buffered tap water. The remaining stomachs (one of ten) were placed 157 whole into a freezer bag and frozen (-20 °C). Atlantic salmon scales were removed from an area 158 dorsal to the lateral line and posterior to the dorsal fin to assess age (Power, 1987). A sample of 159 adipose fin was removed for genetic analysis to assign samples to their respective North 160 American or European continent of origin (King et al., 2001; Sheehan et al. 2010). Only North 161 American origin Atlantic salmon were used in the current investigation.

To assess contemporary spatial and temporal differences in feeding, diet overlap was 162 163 compared among the three different years and sites. Data from West Greenland were further 164 compared with dietary information provided for wild adult Atlantic salmon captured from the 165 Northeast Atlantic (Fig. 1) off the Faroe Islands (Jacobsen and Hansen, 2001). Contemporary 166 data were also compared with data collected off the West Greenland coast in 1968-1970 in the 167 same seasons and locations (Lear, 1972, 1980), to examine dietary overlap between 168 contemporary and historical feeding in the Northwest Atlantic. The data collected by Lear (1972, 169 1980) pertaining to West Greenland were separated into International Commission for the 170 Northwest Atlantic Fisheries (now Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization, NAFO) fishing 171 zones along the West Greenland coast (Halliday and Pinhorn, 1990). This allowed for 172 comparisons between the contemporary sites and the associated NAFO zones. In addition, West 173 Greenland GCA data from the whole of the historical study were compared with contemporary 174 Northeast Atlantic gut contents data. Both the historical Northwest Atlantic and contemporary 175 Northeast Atlantic data were assessed by identifying prey species down to the lowest possible 176 taxanomic level, allowing for comparison between the data.

177

178 Gut content analysis (GCA):

Atlantic salmon stomachs were submerged in warm water until malleable (if frozen) or rinsed with freshwater (if formalin preserved). The stomachs were weighed, cut open, and the contents washed into a small 0.5 mm sieve. The stomachs were then examined for evidence of regurgitation upon capture (i.e. presence of regurgitated food items in the gills, relatively large, distended stomachs, with thin walls and little internal ridging) following protocols described in Renkawitz *et al* (2015). Prey items were sorted and identified to the lowest possible taxonomic 185 level, before being counted and weighed to assess mass (g). Resulting abundance data were 186 calculated using prey mass for the item in question relative to the mass of all prey within the 187 stomachs (Cortés, 1997).

188 GCA data (prey mass) were examined using Schoener's index of dietary overlap189 (Schoener, 1970):

190

$$\alpha = 1 - 0.5 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |p_{\chi i} - p_{y i}| \right)$$

191 where $p_{\chi i}$ is the proportion of prey item i in the diet of grouping x, p_{yi} is the proportion of prey 192 item i in the diet of grouping y, and n is the number of different prey items. The index was used 193 to investigate the degree of spatial and temporal overlap in marine feeding, with significant 194 overlap if α was greater than or equal to 0.6 (Wallace, 1981).

195 The diversity of prey items within the GCA data were examined using the entropy 196 concept entailed in the Shannon-Wiener diversity index (Shannon, 1948):

$$\mathbf{H}' = -\sum_{i=1}^{s} p_i \ln p_i$$

where p_i is the proportion of the observations of taxon i, and s is the number of prey items. H' was calculated for each site in each year, and comparisons were made between these values using the t-based statistic outlined in Hutcheson (1970) to assess whether there were significant spatial and temporal differences in dietary diversity.

201 Data obtained from the GCA were also used in the identification of differences in 202 Atlantic salmon feeding strategies among sites using a two-dimensional graphical method to 203 examine the percentage prey-specific abundance and percentage frequency of occurrence of the 204 different prey items, following methods described in Amundsen et al. (1996), hereafter referred 205 to as Amundsen analyses. Prey-specific abundance is the percentage a prey item comprises of all 206 prey items in only those predators in a population where the prey item occurs (Amundsen *et al.*, 207 1996). The use of prey-specific abundance, as opposed to just prey abundance, permits discrimination between the niche use of different individuals versus the average of the 208 209 population as a whole. The method allows for the identification of generalist (feeding broadly on 210 a number of previtems), specialist (consuming mainly one or two previtems, with limited intake 211 of others), and specialist within a generalist population (some individuals within a population 212 specialise on different prey items, while others show generalist feeding behaviour) feeding 213 strategies, depending on where a prey items plots on the Amundsen analysis graph (Amundsen et

214 al., 1996, Gabler and Amundsen, 2010). The vertical axis denotes specialisation and 215 generalisation (see Figs. 2-4 for an example), with specialists plotting in the top of the graph 216 (Gabler and Amundsen, 2010). The diagonal axis from the bottom left to the top right denotes 217 prey item importance, with dominant prey items plotting in the top right and rare prey items 218 plotting in the bottom left (Gabler and Amundsen, 2010). The diagonal axis from the bottom 219 right to the top left denotes niche width contribution, with points plotting in the top left 220 indicating a high between-phenotype contribution, with specialisation by subgroups of the 221 predator population. Points plotting in the bottom right indicate a high within-phenotype contribution, with those prev items being eaten occasionally by most of the individuals within 222 223 the population (Gabler and Amundsen, 2010).

224

225 Stable isotope analysis (SIA)

Dorsal muscle samples were collected from Atlantic salmon during on-site processing and were frozen (-20 °C) before being shipped to the University of Waterloo (Ontario, Canada) for further analyses. Samples were dried in either a drying oven at 55 °C or a freeze dryer at -55 °C for 48 hours, before being ground and homogenised using a pestle and mortar.

230 All stable isotope analyses were completed on a Delta Plus Continuous Flow Stable 231 Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan, Bremen, Germany) coupled to a Carlo Erba 232 elemental analyzer (CHNS-O EA1108, Carlo Erba, Milan, Italy) with an analytical precision of $\pm 0.2 \%$ (δ^{13} C) and $\pm 0.3 \%$ (δ^{15} N) at the Environmental Isotope Laboratory, University of 233 234 Waterloo. Measurement accuracy was established through the repeat analysis of internal 235 laboratory standards calibrated against International Atomic Energy Agency standards CH6 for carbon and N1 and N2 for nitrogen. Analytical precision was additionally assessed by the repeat 236 237 analysis of one in ten samples. Results are expressed in conventional delta notation (δ) relative to Peedee Belemnite limestone for δ^{13} C (Craig, 1957) and atmospheric nitrogen for δ^{15} N (Mariotti, 238 239 1983).

A high percentage of tissue samples (72.2 %) had C:N values > 4, which is indicative of high lipid content and could potentially affect the interpretation of δ^{13} C by increasing measurement variability (Logan *et al.*, 2008; Jardine *et al.* 2013). Therefore, lipid corrected values (δ^{13} C') were obtained following Fry (2002), as recommended by Abrantes *et al.* (2012). To address possible ontogenetic differences in feeding, regressions were run between mean δ^{15} N 245 (as an indicator of trophic level) and mean size and age at each site for each year. All statistical 246 tests were run using SPSS version 17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). The data were assessed for 247 assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance using the Shapiro-Wilk and Levene's 248 tests, respectively, and were found to meet these assumptions (Zar, 2010). Maximal Type I error 249 for statistical testing was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. Comparisons to assess temporal and spatial differences 250 in the stable isotope data were made using a two-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's post hoc 251 HSD test adjusted for unequal sample sizes (Spjotvoll and Stoline, 1973; Zar, 2010).

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RESULTS 261

262 Between 2009-2011, 1034 Atlantic salmon of North American origin were sampled for dietary 263 analyses, of which 227 (22.0 %) were caught at Sisimiut, 515 (49.8 %) at Nuuk and 292 (28.2 %) at Qaqortoq (Table 1). The mean size of sampled fish did not vary among years (ANOVA $F_{2,1022}$ 264 = 0.615, p = 0.541) (Table 1). Of the total number captured, 940 (90.9 %) were one-sea-winter 265 (1SW) fish, 45 (4.4 %) were 2SW fish, 22 (2.1 %) 3SW fish or older (one 4SW fish), and 27 (2.6 266 %) were of unknown sea age. Regressions of mean δ^{15} N using mean size or age as the dependent 267 variable were not significant ($r^2 = 0.040$, $F_{L7} = 0.298$, p = 0.602 and $r^2 = 0.085$, $F_{L7} = 0.653$, p = 0.040268 269 0.446 respectively), and so all fish were grouped for subsequent analyses.

270

271 Spatial variation in Atlantic salmon diet

272 Four main prey items accounted 85 % of the food consumed by Atlantic salmon at West

273 Greenland: capelin, hyperiid amphipods (*Themisto* spp.), juvenile boreoatlantic armhook squid

274 (Gonatus fabricii) and sand lance (Ammodytes spp.) (Fig. 5). However, there were significant

275 differences among the sites. Capelin was the dominant prey item at Nuuk and Qaqortoq, making 276 up between 43.4 % and 63.1 % by mass (g) of the gut contents at these two sites. At Sisimiut, 277 boreoatlantic armhook squid replaced capelin as the most prevalent species in all three years, but 278 varied in dominance from a high of 44.5 % in 2011 to a low of 28.5 % in 2010. Capelin or sand 279 lance were second in consumption prevalence at Sisimiut (11.3 - 28.6 %), whereas at Nuuk and 280 Qagortog the second most consumed prey item tended to be hyperiid amphipods (18.5 - 38.1 %) 281 with the exception of 2010 when consumption of other fish (19.2 %) and boreoatlantic armhook 282 squid (24.6%) ranked second, respectively. The diversity of consumed prey items varied among the sites in all years (all pair-wise comparison p < 0.001). Furthermore, Schoener's index of 283 dietary overlap indicated that diets at Sisimiut did not overlap with the other two sites, with the 284 285 exception of Qagortog in 2010 (Table 2). In contrast Nuuk and Qagortog diets overlapped in all 286 years.

The range of variation observed in dorsal muscle tissue lipid corrected carbon (δ^{13} C') and 287 288 nitrogen isotope values, respectively, was 5.23 ‰ and 5.42 ‰, with the means from all three 289 sites ranging, respectively, from -20.5 ‰ to -19.9 ‰ and 11.3 ‰ to 11.9 ‰ (Table 3, Fig. 6). In terms of spatial comparisons, there were no consistent differences in the δ^{13} C' or δ^{15} N samples 290 291 from the different sites over the three years of study (Table 3, Fig. 6). Significant differences were found among years ($p \le 0.003$) and sites ($p \le 0.049$) when separate two-way ANOVAs 292 were run for δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N. The significant year-site interaction for both δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N 293 294 indicated that differences among sites depended on the year being analysed. Spatial Tukey's HSD *post hoc* tests indicated that there were significant δ^{13} C' differences among sites across all 295 years, and no differences among sites for δ^{15} N, with the exception of 2011 (Table 3). The r² for 296 the two-way ANOVAs were low (0.169 and 0.085) for δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N respectively, and 297 298 indicated that year and site combined had poor explanatory power.

299 Contemporary spatial comparisons indicated significant differences in feeding patterns 300 between Atlantic salmon sampled off the West Greenland coast and in the Northeast Atlantic. 301 When compared with contemporary adult Atlantic salmon diet data from the Northeast Atlantic 302 as published by Jacobsen and Hansen (2001), the contemporary diet from the West Greenland 303 coast produced Schoener's Index values that demonstrated a lack of dietary overlap, ranging 304 from $\alpha = 0.132$ at Qagortog to $\alpha = 0.198$ at Nuuk (Table 4). However, when aggregated prev 305 categories were used (i.e. fish, crustacea, squid) for the contemporary prey data greater similarity 306 between diets was observed ($\alpha = 0.889$).

307

308 Temporal variation in Atlantic salmon diet

309 Temporal variation was evident in the GCA data over the study period (Fig. 5). Capelin was the 310 most prevalent previtem in all three years at Nuuk and Qaqortoq, making up a minimum of 43.4 311 % of the diet at the two sites, and was the second most important prey item at Sisimiut in 2009 312 (28.6 %) and 2010 (22.6 %). At Sisimiut, boreoatlantic armhook squid were the most important 313 prey item in all three years, making up a minimum of 28.5 % of the diet. Hyperiid amphipods 314 tended to be the second most important item at Nuuk and Qagortog, but in 2010 were almost 315 completely absent from the diet ≤ 0.3 %) in both locations and were replaced by other fish at 316 Nuuk (19.2 %) and boreoatlantic armhook squid at Qagortog (24.6 %). Similar notable changes 317 in prey consumption in 2010 were evident at Sisimiut where sand lance consumption rose from 318 5.2-7.8 % of the diet in 2009 and 2011 to become the second most heavily exploited prey (25.2 319 %). Over time the diversity of consumed prey items varied among all years at Nuuk and 320 Oagortog). At Sisimiut 2010 differed from 2009 and 2011, with 2009 and 2011 showing no 321 difference in the diversity of consumed prey items (p = 0.494). Although dietary diversity varied 322 in time (Table 5), overlap between the years remained high at Sisimiut and Nuuk (Schoener'≥ 0.626). At Qagortoq dietary overlap was high in 2009 and 2011 but was reduced in 2010 323 compared to any of the other years (Schoener's ≤ 0.589). 324

Temporal variation was evident in the SIA data, with significant differences for δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N found using a two-way ANOVA ($p \le 0.003$). Temporal Tukey's HSD *post hoc* tests indicated significant SIA differences among years at all sites with a significant interaction effect, with the exception of the Nuuk δ^{13} C' (Table 3). Comparisons among contemporary site-specific and historical (1968-70) diet information obtained from similar areas along the West Greenland coast indicated a significant temporal difference (Table 4) only at Sisimiut (Schoener's $\alpha =$ 0.418).

332

333 *Feeding behaviour*

The Amundsen analyses indicated that North American Atlantic salmon feeding at West Greenland engaged in mixed dietary strategies. At Nuuk and Qaqortoq dietary specialisation on capelin predominated (Figs 2-4, panels b and c), with the exception of Qaqortoq in 2010 where only a small number of Atlantic salmon specialised on capelin (Fig. 3, panel c). In contrast, at Sisimiut, generalist feeding strategies were observed, with the exception of 2011, when a strategy specialising on boreoatlantic armhook squid was used (Fig. 4, panel a). Within the generalist feeding exhibited at Sisimiut in 2009 and 2010, specialisation by some individuals on boreoatlantic armhook squid was noted (Figs. 2-3, panel a). The analyses indicated that prey items other than capelin and boreoatlantic armhook squid were included in Atlantic salmon diet in all sites and years as part of a generalist feeding strategy, as these prey items plotted in the bottom half of the graphs (Figs. 2-4).

There was also an indication of inter-annual differences in Atlantic salmon diet based on the Amundsen analysis. In 2009 and 2011, hyperiid amphipods occurred often as part of a generalist diet, although Atlantic salmon did not specialise on them (Figs. 2 and 4). In contrast, in 2010 hyperiid amphipods featured rarely, having both low percent occurrence and percent prey-specific abundance (Fig. 3). In 2010 boreoatlantic armhook squid increased in dietary importance at Nuuk and Qaqortoq and decreased in prey-specific abundance at Sisimiut, with specialisation by some individuals on the prey occurring at all three sites (Fig. 3).

352

353 **DISCUSSION**

354 Comparisons of Atlantic salmon diets of fish sampled along the West Greenland coast showed 355 varying degrees of spatial and temporal heterogeneity. Consistent with the hypothesis of spatial 356 dietary variability, significant differences were found at both regional and oceanic scales. Gut 357 contents and stable isotope values varied among sites, and the diets of Atlantic salmon feeding at 358 West Greenland differed from those sampled in the Northeast Atlantic. The temporal variation 359 hypothesis was substantiated only at a single site, as a result of the shift in the relative 360 abundances of boreoatlantic armhook squid and capelin. Finally, the prevalence of feeding 361 strategies varied by site and included both specialists and generalists, although all prey items 362 were part of the pelagic food web. Thus, when considered collectively, Atlantic salmon along the 363 West Greenland coast should be considered as an opportunistic generalist predator within the 364 pelagic food web, and thus able to adapt their feeding strategies to local conditions.

365

366 Spatial variation in Atlantic salmon diet

367 Spatial differences at the regional scale in Atlantic salmon feeding patterns were driven by the 368 prevalence of boreoatlantic armhook squid in the diet of Sisimiut fish. Boreoatlantic armhook 369 squid favour warmer temperatures and more saline waters (Golikov et al., 2013). The juvenile 370 boreoatlantic armhook squid on which the fish are feeding inhabit surface waters cooled and freshened by the input of glacial meltwater from the Greenlandic fjords (Aagaard and Carmack, 371 372 1989). The adults are typically found at deeper depths (Bjørke, 2001; Golikov et al., 2013) and 373 favour the warmer, saline Irminger waters in the shallow bottom coastal areas off Sisimiut 374 (Myers et al. 2007; Ribergaard et al., 2010). In contrast, at Nuuk and Qaqortoq the prevalence of 375 cooler, less saline waters associated with the prevailing pattern of ocean currents (Buch et al., 376 2004; Stein 2004; Ribergaard, 2010, 2011, 2012) yields waters less suited to boreoatlantic armhook souid. Additionally, the location of spawning grounds and juvenile dispersal via ocean 377 378 currents may explain the geographical variation in the boreoatlantic armhook squid appearance 379 in diet (Piatowski and Wieland, 1993; Zumholtz and Frandsen, 2006; Gardiner and Dick, 2010).

380 The intrusion of warm bottom waters, as noted for the Barents and Kara Seas, can 381 facilitate temperature-dependent local range expansion, particularly for mesopelagic-dwelling 382 maturing adults (Golikov et al., 2013), with the linkages between cephalopod distributional 383 ranges and climate being clear (Golikov et al., 2013). Boreoatlantic armhook squid have 384 historically been found in Atlantic salmon diets farther south in the Labrador Sea (Templeman, 385 1967, 1968; Lear 1972). Climate-driven warming may have facilitated range expansion along the 386 West Greenland coast, resulting in the spatially and temporally dependent increases in prey 387 relative abundance. Significant differences in the diversity of the previtems in Atlantic salmon 388 diet among sites suggest Atlantic salmon are primarily focusing on one or two prey items, 389 although they will diversify to consume a wide variety of prey items when they are available. 390 Such regional differences in salmonid marine feeding have been observed in juvenile Chinook 391 salmon (Oncorhynchus tshawytscha) along the Pacific coast of North America (Hertz et al., 392 2015).

Views regarding the pattern of spatial differences varied depending on the temporal scale of the analysis, with short-term gut content analyses highlighting regional differences in the distribution and availability of prey, particularly at Sisimiut. In contrast, SIA data, which incorporate dietary assimilation signals over a period of months, noted statistically significant absolute differences among sites in δ^{13} C' across all three years, and among sites in the δ^{15} N data in 2011. Such differences could be related to differential inshore and offshore feeding for δ^{13} C', and variation in baseline δ^{15} N along the West Greenland coast due to the impact of different 400 water masses mixing, changes in open water period, or temperature (Hansen et al., 2012). Spatial 401 variations in potential sea surface temperature, as well as variations in the presence and mixing 402 of water masses along the West Greenland coast (particularly Polar Water, Irminger Water and 403 Modified Irminger Water) have been reported (Ribergaard, 2010, 2011, 2012). It is unlikely that 404 tissue turnover is responsible for these differences, as dorsal muscle tissue in Atlantic salmon 405 smolts has been shown to have a half-change period of 0.64-2.39 months for carbon (Jardine et 406 al., 2004) and ~ 4 months for nitrogen (Trueman et al., 2005). As marine feeding adults are 407 growing rapidly, the half-change period is likely shorter than this (Rikardsen and Dempson, 408 2011). Atlantic salmon diet is, therefore, suggested to be spatially variable across the period of 409 marine residency, with diet differences evident along the West Greenland coast and as the fish 410 undergo seasonal migration across the Northwest Atlantic (Reddin, 1988).

411 Comparison of Atlantic salmon diet off the West Greenland coast to that in the Northeast 412 Atlantic demonstrated a lack of significant overlap. However, diet in both regions was 413 characterized by a broad reliance on forage fish, crustaceans and squid, as demonstrated by 414 significant overlap when higher taxonomic groupings were compared (Jacobsen and Hansen, 415 2001). A reliance on forage fish like capelin, sand lance, barracudinas and lanternfish is 416 profitable for Atlantic salmon, as these prey items are more energetically beneficial to them 417 when compared to cephalopods and crustaceans, with higher energy densities and lipid contents 418 (Lawson et al., 1998; Rikardsen and Dempson 2011). Atlantic salmon are therefore 419 demonstrating the local adaptability expected of generalist, opportunistic feeders (Pianka, 1988). 420 Differences in consumed prey species between the Northeast and Northwest Atlantic may reflect 421 differences in local food webs, the proportion of inshore versus offshore feeding, and/or area-422 specific temperatures.

423

424 *Temporal variation in Atlantic salmon diet*

425 Unlike spatial variation, short-term temporal variation in Atlantic salmon diet appears to be more 426 stable, with most temporal comparisons showing significant dietary overlap. However, Atlantic 427 salmon diet in 2010 showed an increase in boreoatlantic armhook squid and a decrease in 428 hyperiid amphipods at Nuuk and Qaqortoq, which could be due to an exceptionally negative 429 North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) that year. This led to high midwater and bottom temperatures 430 at the most southerly sites, particularly offshore (Ribergaard, 2011). The spatial extent of the 431 warm, saline Irminger Water mass along the West Greenland coast was also higher than normal432 in 2010 (Ribergaard, 2011).

433 Despite the high degree of dietary overlap among years, there were significant 434 differences in diversity among all but one year at one site (2010 at Sisimiut), suggesting variation 435 in Atlantic salmon diet occurs around the main prey items on which the diet is anchored. The 436 high usage of only a couple of prey items by Atlantic salmon despite consuming a wide variety 437 of prey (as demonstrated by significant differences in diet diversity among years) has been 438 previously noted in diet studies, and is consistent with an opportunistic feeding method and 439 optimal foraging theory (Rikardsen and Dempson, 2011; Renkawitz et al., 2015). Such a dietary 440 strategy is necessary for Atlantic salmon, as the abundance and energy density of the prey items 441 varies both spatially and temporally, and is something to which they must adapt as they range widely across the Northwest Atlantic (Rikardsen and Dempson, 2011; Mills et al., 2013). 442 Statistical testing of δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C' values indicated significant longer-term temporal variation, 443 444 potentially due to these variations in prey items among years, as well as interannual differences 445 in inshore-offshore feeding (Rikardsen and Dempson 2011; Hansen et al., 2012). It is also 446 possible that physical oceanic differences among years such as temperature, the type of water 447 masses present at each site, and changes in the open water period are responsible for stable 448 isotope variation (Hansen et al., 2012). Climate-induced variation in prey resources has been 449 similarly suggested as the reason for inter-annual variation in the diet of Pacific salmon 450 (Oncorhynchus spp.) in the Gulf of Alaska (Kaeriyama et al., 2004).

451 In terms of broader time scales, the historical diet of Atlantic salmon in the Northwest 452 Atlantic is more heavily biased towards fish than the contemporary diet (Fig. 7), while the 453 contemporary diet features more hyperiid amphipods and boreoatlantic armhook squid, with 454 Schoener's indices indicating significant differences in overlap only for Sisimiut (Lear, 1972, 455 1980). Such variation has been noted in Pacific salmon species, with Brodeur et al. (2007) 456 demonstrating both small- and large-scale temporal differences in the diet of juvenile coho 457 salmon (O. kisutch). Since the historical data were collected, atmospheric and oceanographic 458 changes in the Arctic and Northwest Atlantic have led to changes in the biogeography of the 459 region (Myers et al. 2007; Greene et al., 2008; Wassman et al., 2011; Buren et al., 2014). Of 460 primary note was a reduction in abundance and changes in the distribution of capelin in the mid-461 1990s (Bundy et al., 2009; Dwyer et al. 2010; Buren et al. 2014). Similar dietary changes have

462 been seen in other Northwest Atlantic fish species, notably Greenland halibut (Reinhardtius 463 hippoglossoides) (Dwver et al., 2010), Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua) (Sherwood et al., 2007) and 464 Arctic charr (Dempson et al. 2002). Furthermore, Renkawitz et al. (2015) demonstrated that 465 capelin size and energy density have decreased in the Northwest Atlantic since the early 1990s. 466 A reduction in the abundance and quality of capelin, combined with an increase in other poorer 467 quality prev could explain poor Atlantic salmon marine survival. For example, Renkawitz et al. 468 (2015) noted that when faced with poor prey quality, Atlantic salmon may have to expend more 469 energy foraging, thus limiting the energy available for growth and maturation, and increasing 470 mortality (the "junkfood hypothesis", Österblom et al., 2008).

471

472 *Feeding behaviour*

473 Atlantic salmon demonstrate mixed dietary strategies, with selective feeding on capelin at the 474 two southern sites and more generalist feeding at Sisimiut, with some individuals specialising on 475 boreoatlantic armhook squid. Such specialisation is likely only seasonal because of the large 476 variation in potential prey items encountered by Atlantic salmon across their migratory range 477 (Templeman, 1967, 1968). Seasonal variation in diet has been noted by Jacobsen and Hansen 478 (2001), who found differences in the diet of Atlantic salmon feeding off the Faroe Islands in 479 autumn and winter. It is therefore likely that there is short-term temporal variation in 480 specialisation by Atlantic salmon, with the extent of this variation differing among sites, and 481 with individuals choosing their feeding strategies according to the relative availability of prey 482 items. Without knowing the composition of the prey-base in the environment, however, 483 specialisation on capelin and boreoatlantic armhook squid as the result of selective feeding 484 cannot be ruled out. A preference for capelin and boreoatlantic armhook squid over other prev 485 items would be energetically beneficial for Atlantic salmon, as these prey items are the most 486 energy dense and their use would be in keeping with optimal foraging theory (Lawson et al., 1998). Nevertheless, the δ^{15} N values of Atlantic salmon are comparatively low compared to 487 488 other marine piscivorous fish found along the West Greenland coast (Linnebjerg et al., 2016), 489 suggesting that Atlantic salmon also rely on lower trophic level prey.

European Atlantic salmon have recently been returning to their natal rivers in poor condition, which has been linked to climate change and recent ocean surface warming (Todd *et al.*, 2008; Beaugrand and Reid, 2012). Climate-induced changes in the phenology of prey items

493 and range shifts of prey have led to regime changes in the marine food webs that European 494 Atlantic salmon use (Cushing, 1990; Todd et al., 2008; Rikardsen and Dempson, 2011; 495 Beaugrand and Reid, 2012). Regime change has been noted in the Northwest Atlantic (Greene et 496 al., 2008), with links made to poor Atlantic salmon marine survival (Mills et al., 2013; Friedland 497 et al., 2014). However, it is evident from this study that the variability inherent in the diet of such 498 an opportunistic predator means that currently available spatial and temporal marine diet data are 499 limited in their ability to adequately characterise Atlantic salmon vulnerability to oceanic regime 500 changes. Thus, while Atlantic salmon have the capacity to switch prey and adjust to changing prev bases, as shown by the rise of boreoatlantic armhook squid consumption at Sisimiut, the 501 502 implications of prey switching for growth, survival and ultimately for reproduction are not 503 known. Further complicating our ability to understand the implications of dietary variation for 504 abundance and survival will be the effect of other niche constraints, particularly temperature 505 (Freidland *et al.*, 2000, 2005). Studies have shown Atlantic salmon tend to occupy a narrow 3.9 – 506 9.7 °C range within the marine environment (e.g., Minke-Martin et al., 2015). Thus, interactions 507 between feeding and temperature may also be reflected in differences among individuals in 508 growth.

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513 CONCLUSIONS

514 Data from this study provide evidence for spatial and temporal variation in the diet of Atlantic 515 salmon at regional and oceanic scales. Diets tend to be anchored on one or two prey items from 516 which individuals diversify widely to consume a variety of forage fishes, crustaceans and 517 molluscs as available (Rikardsen and Dempson 2011), with local variation in prey availability 518 likely triggering changes in diet. Comparisons of diets as completed here suggest that 519 independent of space, time and/or Atlantic salmon life-stage there are a restricted set of prev 520 items on which Atlantic salmon feed, and it is common to find only a few that account for the 521 majority of gut contents at any one time. Accordingly, the species should be viewed as a 522 generalist, opportunistic feeder within the pelagic food web, able to exploit a wide variety of 523 prey.

The spatial and temporal variability evident in this study imply that the limited dietary studies completed to date cannot be used to characterize Atlantic salmon vulnerabilities to changes in prey composition in either space or time for an ecosystem as broad and heterogeneous as the North Atlantic, particularly in a period of ecosystem change. Additionally, while Atlantic salmon have the capacity to switch prey and adjust to changing prey-bases (i.e., the contemporary rise in boreoatlantic armhook squid consumption), the implications of such dietary variation remain unknown. While studies such as this provide an improved baseline for furthering our understanding of Atlantic salmon feeding dynamics, they do not yet provide a mechanistic description of linkages between a varying prey base and differences within and among Atlantic salmon in condition, survival and/or trophic position. Accordingly, studies which better document spatial and temporal dietary variation and link differences in the relative availability and quality of prey items to Atlantic salmon survival and growth at sea are required before definitive conclusions can be drawn about the trophic effects of oceanic regime change on Atlantic salmon.

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Year	Site	n	% empty	Fork length	Sampling dates
			stomachs	(mm)	~~~·····
2009	Sisimiut	75	5.33	659.6 ± 5.5	3 rd September-3 rd October
	Nuuk	193	8.81	662.4 ± 4.0	17 th August-15 th October
	Qaqortoq	102	17.64	690.1 ± 9.2	19 th August-7 th September
	TOTAL	370	10.54	667.4 ± 3.2	17 th August-15 th October
2010	Sisimiut	73	1.37	668.8 ± 4.2	26 th August-4 th October
	Nuuk	163	4.29	663.2 ± 2.9	24 th August-1 st November
	Qaqortoq	58	6.90	683.8 ± 4.9	18 th August-14 th September
	TOTAL	294	4.08	$668.4 \pm 2.$	24 th August-1 st November
2011	Sisimiut	79	2.53	661.2 ± 7.5	2 nd September-26 th September
	Nuuk	159	0.63	661.8 ± 2.9	29 th August-28 th September
-	Qaqortoq	132	3.79	693.2 ± 5.0	22 nd August-13 th September
	TOTAL	370	2.16	672.9 ± 2.8	22 nd August-28 th September
All years	Sisimiut	227	3.08	663.2 ± 3.4	26 th August-4 th October
	Nuuk	515	4.85	662.5 ± 1.9	17 th August-1 st November
	Qaqortoq	292	9.25	690.4 ± 3.8	18 th August-14 th September
	TOTAL	1034	5.71	669.8 ± 1.6	17 th August-1 st November
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Table 1. Total number, percentage of empty stomachs and mean fork length \pm s.e. of Atlantic salmon of North American origin caught at three different sites off the West Greenland coast from 2009-2011, and the dates over which sampling occurred.

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Table 2. Schoener's index of dietary overlap calculated for determining significant differences in spatial feeding patterns of Atlantic salmon of North American origin caught at three different sites off the West Greenland coast. Comparisons which overlapped significantly (>0.60) are given in bold type.

Spatial comparisons	2009	2010	2011	All years
Nuuk vs Sisimiut	0.489	0.510	0.528	0.533
Nuuk vs Qaqortoq	0.801	0.633	0.786	0.891
Sisimiut vs Qaqortoq	0.558	0.674	0.446	0.533
<u> </u>				

Table 3. Mean \pm s.e. of δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N values from Atlantic salmon of North American origin caught at three different sites off the West Greenland coast from 2009-2011. Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test results from an ANOVA using site or year as a fixed factor are shown as superscripts, with homogenous subsets of sites and years shown, respectively, as letters and numbers.

Spatial Tukey HSD post hoc results					Temporal Tukey HSD post hoc results					
Year	Site	n	δ ¹³ C' (‰)	δ^{15} N (‰)	Site	Year	n	δ ¹³ C' (‰)	δ^{15} N (‰)	
2009	Sisimiut	75	-20.35 ± 0.05^{A}	$11.64 \pm 0.08^{\rm A}$	Sisimiut	2009	75	-20.35 ± 0.05^{1}	11.64 ± 0.08^1	
	Nuuk	193	$\textbf{-20.28} \pm 0.04^{A}$	$11.49\pm0.04^{\rm A}$		2010	73	-19.98 ± 0.04^2	11.47 ± 0.06^1	
	Qaqortoq	102	$\textbf{-19.93}\pm0.04^{B}$	$11.65\pm0.07^{\rm A}$		2011	79	-20.02 ± 0.04^2	11.88 ± 0.06^2	
	TOTAL	370	-20.19 ± 0.03	11.57 ± 0.03		TOTAL	227	-20.12 ± 0.03	11.67 ± 0.04	
2010	Sisimiut	73	$\textbf{-19.98} \pm 0.04^A$	$11.47\pm0.06^{\rm A}$	Nuuk	2009	193	-20.28 ± 0.04^{1}	11.49 ± 0.04^{1}	
	Nuuk	163	-20.33 ± 0.03^{B}	$11.38\pm0.04^{\rm A}$		2010	163	$\textbf{-20.33} \pm 0.03^1$	11.38 ± 0.04^1	
	Qaqortoq	58	$\textbf{-20.15} \pm 0.04^{C}$	$11.28\pm0.09^{\rm A}$		2011	159	$\textbf{-20.27} \pm 0.02^1$	11.87 ± 0.05^2	
	TOTAL	294	-20.21 ± 0.02	11.39 ± 0.03		TOTAL	515	-20.29 ± 0.02	11.57 ± 0.03	
2011	Sisimiut Nuuk	79 159	$\begin{array}{c} -20.02 \pm 0.04^{A} \\ -20.27 \pm 0.02^{B} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.88 \pm 0.06^{B} \\ 11.87 \pm 0.05^{B} \end{array}$	Qaqortoq	2009 2010	102 58	-19.93 ± 0.04^{1} -20.15 ± 0.04^{2}	$\begin{array}{c} 11.65 \pm 0.07^2 \\ 11.28 \pm 0.09^1 \end{array}$	
	Qaqortoq	132	$-20.49 \pm 0.02^{\rm C}$	$11.66\pm0.05^{\rm A}$		2011	132	-20.49 ± 0.02^3	11.66 ± 0.05^2	
	TOTAL	370	-20.29 ± 0.02	11.80 ± 0.03		TOTAL	292	-20.23 ± 0.02	11.58 ± 0.04	
All years	Sisimiut Nuuk	227 515	$\begin{array}{l} -20.12 \pm 0.03^{A} \\ -20.29 \pm 0.02^{B} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 11.67 \pm 0.04^{\rm A} \\ 11.57 \pm 0.03^{\rm A} \end{array}$	All sites	2009 2010	370 294	$\begin{array}{l} -20.19 \pm 0.03^{1} \\ -20.21 \pm 0.02^{1} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 11.57 \pm 0.03^2 \\ 11.39 \pm 0.03^1 \end{array}$	

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Qaqortoq TOTAL	292 1034	$\begin{array}{l} -20.23 \pm 0.02^{B} \\ -20.23 \pm 0.01 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} 11.58 \pm 0.04^{\rm A} \\ 11.60 \pm 0.02 \end{array}$	2011 TOTAL	370 1034	$-20.29 \pm 0.02^2 \\ -20.23 \pm 0.01$	11.80 ± 0.03^{3} 11.60 ± 0.02
TOTAL	1034	-20.23 ± 0.01	11.60 ± 0.02	TOTAL	1034	-20.23 ± 0.01	11.60 ± 0.02
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Table 4. Schoener's index of dietary overlap calculated for contemporary data from the Northwest and Northeast Atlantic, and historical data from the Northwest Atlantic. Comparisons which overlapped significantly (> 0.60) are given in bold type.

Comparison	Schoener's Index
Contemporary NE vs Contemporary NW (Sisimiut)	0.171
Contemporary NE vs Contemporary NW (Nuuk)	0.198
Contemporary NE vs Contemporary NW (Qaqortoq)	0.132
Historical NW vs Contemporary NW (Sisimiut)	0.418
Historical NW vs Contemporary NW (Nuuk)	0.640
Historical NW vs Contemporary NW (Qaqortoq)	0.623

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Table 5. Schoener's index of dietary overlap calculated for determining significant differences in spatial feeding patterns Atlantic salmon of North American origin caught at three different sites off the West Greenland coast. Comparisons which overlapped significantly (> 0.60) are given in bold type.

Temporal comparisons	Sisimiut	Nuuk	Qaqortoq	All sites
2009 vs 2010	0.626	0.619	0.589	0.715
2009 vs 2011	0.908	0.791	0.860	0.903
2010 vs 2011	0.673	0.674	0.489	0.785

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Map of the West Greenland sites where Atlantic salmon were sampled in 2009-2011, and the area in the Northeast Atlantic where Atlantic salmon were sampled (Jacobsen and Hanson, 2001).

Figure 2. Results of the Amundsen analysis for A) Sisimiut, B) Nuuk, C) Qaqortoq and D) all sites in 2009. Capelin (diamond), hyperiid amphipods (square), sand lance (triangle), boreoatlantic armhook squid (cross), other fish (circle), other crustaceans (plus) and other items (dash). The top right quadrant reflects specialist feeding, the top left quadrant reflects specialist within a generalist population feeding, and the bottom quadrants reflect generalist feeding (from Amundsen et al., (1996)).

Figure 3. Results of the Amundsen analysis for A) Sisimiut, B) Nuuk, C) Qaqortoq and D) all sites in 2010. Capelin (diamond), hyperiid amphipods (square), sand lance (triangle), boreoatlantic armhook squid (cross), other fish (circle), other crustaceans (plus) and other items (dash). The top right quadrant reflects specialist feeding, the top left quadrant reflects specialist within a generalist population feeding, and the bottom quadrants reflect generalist feeding (from Amundsen et al., (1996)).

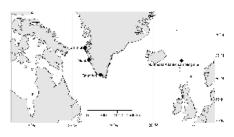
Figure 4. Results of the Amundsen analysis for A) Sisimiut, B) Nuuk, C) Qaqortoq and D) all sites in 2011. Capelin (diamond), hyperiid amphipods (square), sand lance (triangle), boreoatlantic armhook squid (cross), other fish (circle), other crustaceans (plus) and other items (dash). The top right quadrant reflects specialist feeding, the top left quadrant reflects specialist within a generalist population feeding, and the bottom quadrants reflect generalist feeding (from Amundsen et al., (1996)).

Figure 5. Proportion (mass) of prey taxa (capelin (black), hyperiid amphipods (vertical stripes), sand lance (dark grey), boreoatlantic armhook squid (brick), other fish (light grey), other crustaceans (black hatching) and other items (white)) of Atlantic salmon of North American origin caught at three sites off the West Greenland coast (Sisimiut, Nuuk, Qaqortoq and all sites) over three years A) 2009, B) 2010, C) 2011.

Figure 6. Boxplots of West Greenland Atlantic salmon A) δ^{13} C' and B) δ^{15} N isotope values for each site in 2009 (dark grey bars), 2010 (light grey bars) and 2011 (white bars). Boxes represent the interquartile range while the whiskers represent the largest and smallest values within 1.5 times the interquartile range. The line across the boxes represents the median, with circles representing outliers.

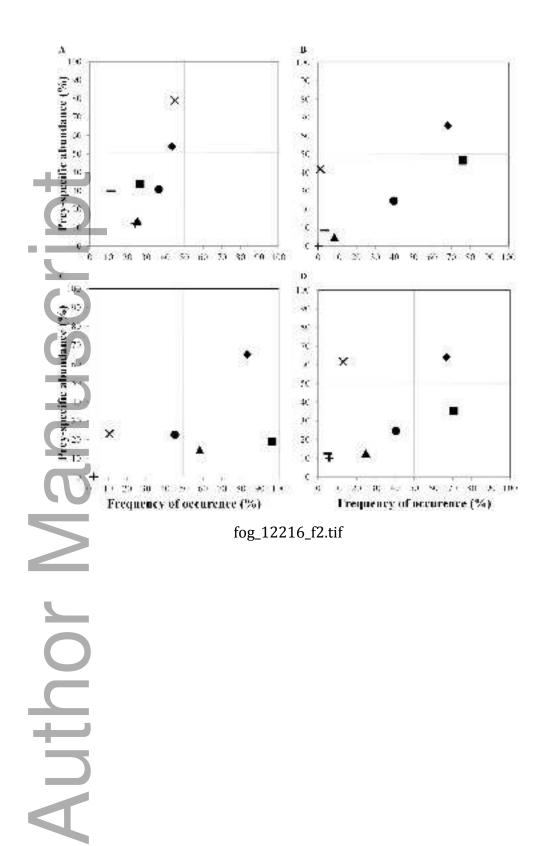
Figure 7. Proportion (mass) of prey taxa (capelin (black), sand lance (vertical stripes), other fish (dark grey), amphipods (brick), euphausiids (light grey), and other invertebrates (white)) of Atlantic salmon caught in the three NAFO fishing zones off the West Greenland coast associated with Sisimiut, Nuuk and Qaqortoq, and all three zones combined.

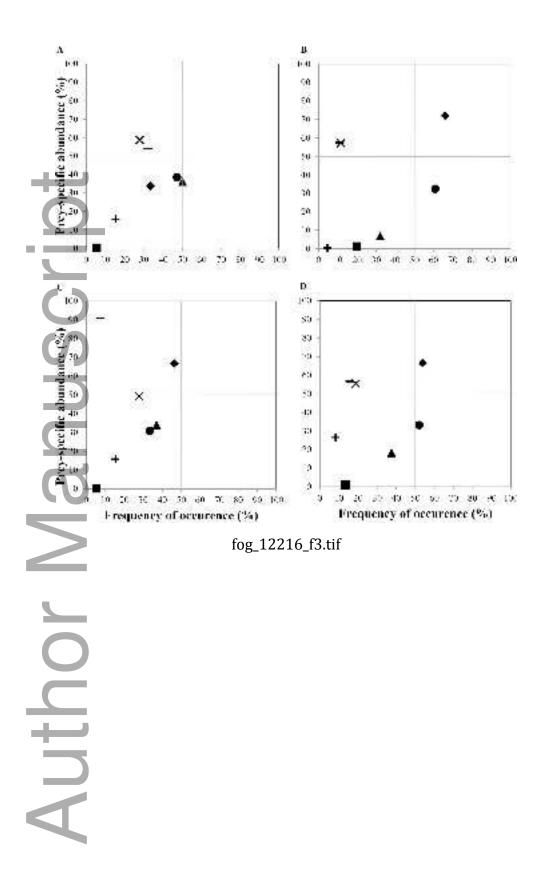
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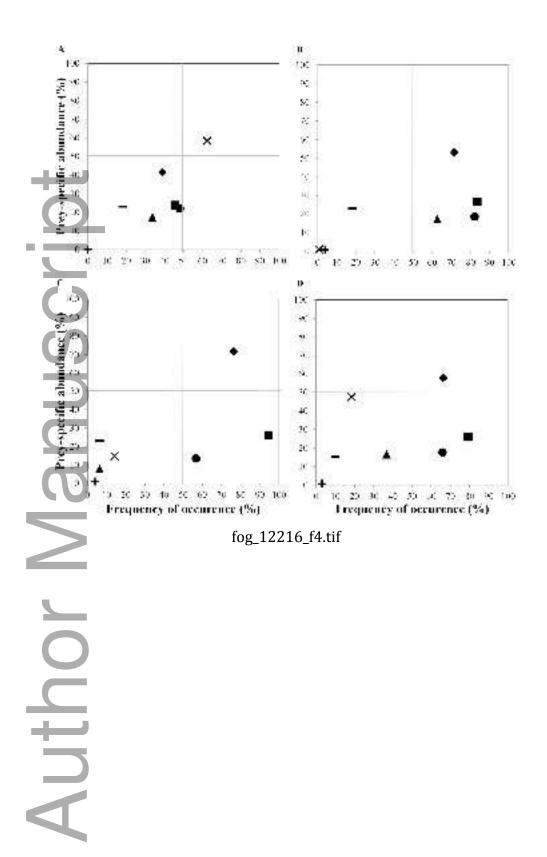


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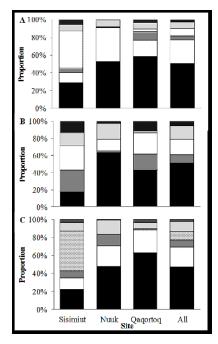
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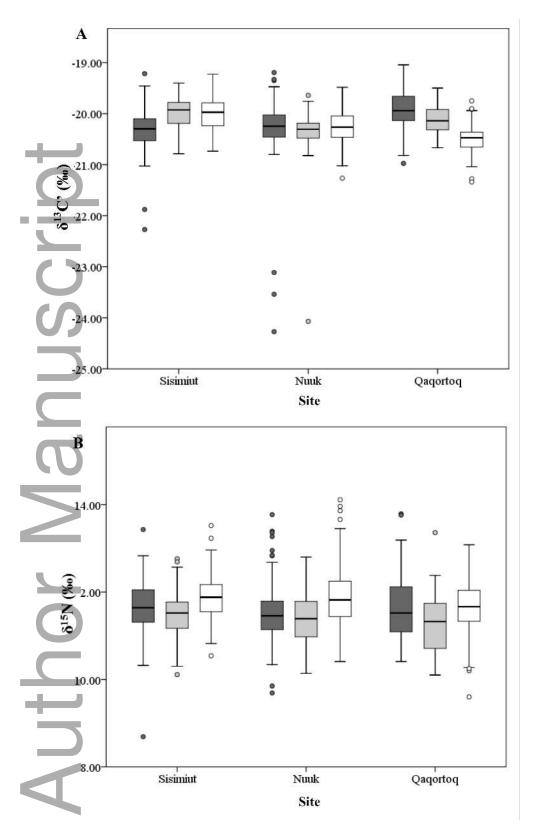




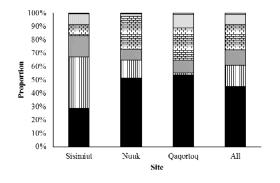
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