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- 34 **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 Qaqortoq) 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 prey 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. **ABSTRACT**
 **Environmental communities of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar L.) in the Northwest Atlantic

So are limited, communal with the Northeast Atlantic. Climate-induced changes to food webs in

Atlantic salmon feeding**

54

55 **KEY WORDS**

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

57 **INTRODUCTION**

58 Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) have considerable commercial, conservation, recreation and 59 subsistence value as farmed, hatchery-produced and wild populations (Hindar *et al*., 2011).

61 of the marine phase of its life-history are much less well understood (Webb *et al*., 2006). The 62 need to better understand the ecology of Atlantic salmon during its marine residency is 63 particularly important given that marine mortality is currently high and multi-sea-winter (MSW) 64 abundances are declining across their range even though most marine fisheries for Atlantic 65 salmon have been closed or reduced (ICES, 2015).

66 Reductions in Atlantic salmon marine survival and growth have been associated with 67 changes in climate and the associated changes in the physical (temperature) and biological (prey 68 abundance) characteristics of the environment (Todd *et al*., 2008; Rikardsen and Dempson, 69 2011; Friedland *et al*., 2014). Warmer temperatures combined with climate-driven environmental 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). 65 salmon have been closed or reduced (ICES, 2015).

Repactions in Atlantic salmon marine survival and growth have been associated with

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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).

89 The lack of recent information is particularly important as, over the last 40 years, the 90 Northwest Atlantic has undergone a number of oceanographic changes that have altered the 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 prey 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) 193 Tielmeland 2002: Carscadden et al., 2001. 2002). As a consequence, Dempson et al. (2002)
197 noted a dietary shift in Labrador Arctic chart (*Sabelinus alpinus*) and (Renkavitz et al. 2015)
198 have reported eftanges

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 prey 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

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. 127 Strategy.

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- **MATERIALS AND METHODS**
- *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

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.

162 To assess contemporary spatial and temporal differences in feeding, diet overlap was 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. 184 Renkawitz *et al* (2015). Prey items were sorted and identified to the lowest possible taxonomic Author Manuscript

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178 *Gut content analysis (GCA):*

179 Atlantic salmon stomachs were submerged in warm water until malleable (if frozen) or rinsed 180 with freshwater (if formalin preserved). The stomachs were weighed, cut open, and the contents 181 washed into a small 0.5 mm sieve. The stomachs were then examined for evidence of 182 regurgitation upon capture (i.e. presence of regurgitated food items in the gills, relatively large, 183 distended stomachs, with thin walls and little internal ridging) following protocols described in

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 overlap 189 (Schoener, 1970):

190
$$
\alpha = 1 - 0.5 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |p_{\chi i} - p_{\chi i}| \right)
$$

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):

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

197 where p_i is the proportion of the observations of taxon i, and s is the number of prey items. H' 198 was calculated for each site in each year, and comparisons were made between these values 199 using the t-based statistic outlined in Hutcheson (1970) to assess whether there were significant

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 208 discrimination between the niche use of different individuals versus the average of the 209 population as a whole. The method allows for the identification of generalist (feeding broadly on 210 a number of prey items), specialist (consuming mainly one or two prey items, 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* 200

200 spatial and temporal and temporal and temporal and temporal and temporal and temporal of providing temporal differences in the difference of spatial and temporal overlap if a was greater than or equal to 0.6 (Wal

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 222 contribution, with those prey items being eaten occasionally by most of the individuals within 223 the population (Gabler and Amundsen, 2010).

224

225 *Stable isotope analysis (SIA)*

226 Dorsal muscle samples were collected from Atlantic salmon during on-site processing and were 227 frozen (-20 \degree C) before being shipped to the University of Waterloo (Ontario, Canada) for further 228 analyses. Samples were dried in either a drying oven at 55 \degree C or a freeze dryer at -55 \degree C for 48 229 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 233 ± 0.2 ‰ ($\delta^{13}C$) and ± 0.3 ‰ ($\delta^{15}N$) at the Environmental Isotope Laboratory, University of 234 Waterloo. Measurement accuracy was established through the repeat analysis of internal 235 laboratory standards calibrated against International Atomic Energy Agency standards CH6 for 236 carbon and N1 and N2 for nitrogen. Analytical precision was additionally assessed by the repeat 237 analysis of one in ten samples. Results are expressed in conventional delta notation (δ) relative to 238 Peedee Belemnite limestone for δ^{13} C (Craig, 1957) and atmospheric nitrogen for δ^{15} N (Mariotti, 239 1983). 218 Polume in the bottom better determined as the material of the material method on the polume in the bottom right to the top left denotes niche width contribution, with points plotting in the top left denotes niche widt

240 A high percentage of tissue samples (72.2 %) had C:N values > 4, which is indicative of 241 high lipid content and could potentially affect the interpretation of $\delta^{13}C$ by increasing 242 measurement variability (Logan *et al*., 2008; Jardine *et al*. 2013). Therefore, lipid corrected 243 values $(\delta^{13}C')$ were obtained following Fry (2002), as recommended by Abrantes *et al.* (2012). To address possible ontogenetic differences in feeding, regressions were run between mean $\delta^{15}N$

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 $α = 0.05$. 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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- 261 **RESULTS**

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 %) 264 at Qaqortoq (Table 1). The mean size of sampled fish did not vary among years (ANOVA *F2,1022* $265 = 0.615$, $p = 0.541$) (Table 1). Of the total number captured, 940 (90.9 %) were one-sea-winter 266 (1SW) fish, 45 (4.4 %) were 2SW fish, 22 (2.1 %) 3SW fish or older (one 4SW fish), and 27 (2.6 267 %) were of unknown sea age. Regressions of mean $\delta^{15}N$ using mean size or age as the dependent 268 variable were not significant ($r^2 = 0.040$, $F_{1,7} = 0.298$, $p = 0.602$ and $r^2 = 0.085$, $F_{1,7} = 0.653$, $p =$ 269 0.446 respectively), and so all fish were grouped for subsequent analyses. 274 In the stable were not significant $(v^2 = 0.040, F_1, r = 0.0828, F_0, r = 0.085, F_0, r = 0.085, F_0, r = 0.085$. There are the sites of the site of the sites. Capelin was the s

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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

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 Qaqortoq 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 283 the sites in all years (all pair-wise comparison $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, Schoener's index of 284 dietary overlap indicated that diets at Sisimiut did not overlap with the other two sites, with the 285 exception of Qaqortoq in 2010 (Table 2). In contrast Nuuk and Qaqortoq diets overlapped in all 286 years.

287 The range of variation observed in dorsal muscle tissue lipid corrected carbon (δ^{13} C') and 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 290 terms of spatial comparisons, there were no consistent differences in the $\delta^{13}C'$ or $\delta^{15}N$ samples 291 from the different sites over the three years of study (Table 3, Fig. 6). Significant differences 292 were found among years ($p \le 0.003$) and sites ($p \le 0.049$) when separate two-way ANOVAs 293 were run for δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N. The significant year-site interaction for both δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N 294 indicated that differences among sites depended on the year being analysed. Spatial Tukey's 295 HSD *post hoc* tests indicated that there were significant δ^{13} C' differences among sites across all 296 years, and no differences among sites for $\delta^{15}N$, with the exception of 2011 (Table 3). The r² for 297 the two-way ANOVAs were low (0.169 and 0.085) for δ^{13} C' and δ^{15} N respectively, and 298 indicated that differences among sites combined had poor explanator (19.2 in and the execption of 2010 when consumption of other fish (19.2 squid (24.6 %) ranked second, respectively. The diversity of consumption of o

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 Qaqortoq to $\alpha = 0.198$ at Nuuk (Table 4). However, when aggregated prey 305 categories were used (i.e. fish, crustacea, squid) for the contemporary prey data greater similarity 306 between diets was observed (α = 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 prey item 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 Qaqortoq, 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 Qaqortoq (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 Qaqortoq). 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' Σ 323 0.626). At Qaqortoq dietary overlap was high in 2009 and 2011 but was reduced in 2010 324 compared to any of the other years (Schoener's \leq 0.589). 331 (6.6 %) and 2010 differences are small number of Atlantic salmon form in the American specialistic salmon specialised on capelinatised on the Atlantic salmon specialised on capelina and the Atlantic salmon specialised

325 Temporal variation was evident in the SIA data, with significant differences for δ^{13} C' and 326 δ^{15} N found using a two-way ANOVA ($p \le 0.003$). Temporal Tukey's HSD *post hoc* tests 327 indicated significant SIA differences among years at all sites with a significant interaction effect, 328 with the exception of the Nuuk δ^{13} C' (Table 3). Comparisons among contemporary site-specific 329 and historical (1968-70) diet information obtained from similar areas along the West Greenland 330 coast indicated a significant temporal difference (Table 4) only at Sisimiut (Schoener's α = 331 0.418).

332

333 *Feeding behaviour*

334 The Amundsen analyses indicated that North American Atlantic salmon feeding at West 335 Greenland engaged in mixed dietary strategies. At Nuuk and Qaqortoq dietary specialisation on 336 capelin predominated (Figs 2-4, panels b and c), with the exception of Qaqortoq in 2010 where

338 Sisimiut, generalist feeding strategies were observed, with the exception of 2011, when a 339 strategy specialising on boreoatlantic armhook squid was used (Fig. 4, panel a). Within the 340 generalist feeding exhibited at Sisimiut in 2009 and 2010, specialisation by some individuals on 341 boreoatlantic armhook squid was noted (Figs. 2-3, panel a). The analyses indicated that prey 342 items other than capelin and boreoatlantic armhook squid were included in Atlantic salmon diet 343 in all sites and years as part of a generalist feeding strategy, as these prey items plotted in the 344 bottom half of the graphs (Figs. 2-4).

345 There was also an indication of inter-annual differences in Atlantic salmon diet based on 346 the Amundsen analysis. In 2009 and 2011, hyperiid amphipods occurred often as part of a 347 generalist diet, although Atlantic salmon did not specialise on them (Figs. 2 and 4). In contrast, 348 in 2010 hyperiid amphipods featured rarely, having both low percent occurrence and percent 349 prey-specific abundance (Fig. 3). In 2010 boreoatlantic armhook squid increased in dietary 350 importance at Nuuk and Qaqortoq and decreased in prey-specific abundance at Sisimiut, with 351 specialisation by some individuals on the prey occurring at all three sites (Fig. 3).

352

353 **DISCUSSIC**

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. 342 **Elems other dum capelin and borocoatlantic armhook squid were included in Atlantic salmon diet
343 in all sites and years as part of a generalist feeding strategy, as these prey items plotted in the
345 prevalence of**

365

366 *Spatial variation in Atlantic salmon diet*

367 Spatial differences at the regional scale in Atlantic salmon feeding patterns were driven by the

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 371 freshened by the input of glacial meltwater from the Greenlandic fjords (Aagaard and Carmack, 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 377 armhook squid. Additionally, the location of spawning grounds and juvenile dispersal via ocean 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 prey items 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). 373

and variation in baseline and variation in the shallow bottom coastal areas off Sisimiti (Myers *et dk.2007*; Ribergand *et al.*, 2010). In contrast, at Nuok and Qaqortoq the prevalence of

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393 Views regarding the pattern of spatial differences varied depending on the temporal scale 394 of the analysis, with short-term gut content analyses highlighting regional differences in the 395 distribution and availability of prey, particularly at Sisimiut. In contrast, SIA data, which 396 incorporate dietary assimilation signals over a period of months, noted statistically significant 397 absolute differences among sites in δ^{13} C' across all three years, and among sites in the $\delta^{15}N$ data 398 in 2011. Such differences could be related to differential inshore and offshore feeding for δ^{13} C',

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. 404 itssue turnoser is responsible for these differences, as dorsal muscle tissue in Atlantic schmon
405 smolts has been shown to have a half-change period of 0.64-2.39 months for carbon (Jardine et
406 at , 2004) and \approx

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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

431 warm, saline Irminger Water mass along the West Greenland coast was also higher than normal 432 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 442 widely across the Northwest Atlantic (Rikardsen and Dempson, 2011; Mills *et al*., 2013). 443 Statistical testing of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ ' values indicated significant longer-term temporal variation, 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 ²⁶ in Atlantic salmon diet occurs around the main prey items on which
435 in Atlantic salmon diet occurs around the main prey items on which
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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*) (Dwyer *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 prey 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).

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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 prey 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*., 487 1998). Nevertheless, the $\delta^{15}N$ values of Atlantic salmon are comparatively low compared to 488 other marine piscivorous fish found along the West Greenland coast (Linnebjerg *et al*., 2016), 2001 and the abundance and the abundance a

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471 *Feeding behaviour*

417 Atlanti suggesting that Atlantic salmon also rely on lower trophic level prey.

490 European Atlantic salmon have recently been returning to their natal rivers in poor 491 condition, which has been linked to climate change and recent ocean surface warming (Todd *et* 492 *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 501 prey bases, as shown by the rise of boreoatlantic armhook squid consumption at Sisimiut, the 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. Manuscript

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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 prey 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.

524 The spatial and temporal variability evident in this study imply that the limited dietary 525 studies completed to date cannot be used to characterize Atlantic salmon vulnerabilities to 526 changes in prey composition in either space or time for an ecosystem as broad and heterogeneous 527 as the North Atlantic, particularly in a period of ecosystem change. Additionally, while Atlantic 528 salmon have the capacity to switch prey and adjust to changing prey-bases (i.e., the 529 contemporary rise in boreoatlantic armhook squid consumption), the implications of such dietary 530 variation remain unknown. While studies such as this provide an improved baseline for 531 furthering our understanding of Atlantic salmon feeding dynamics, they do not yet provide a 532 mechanistic description of linkages between a varying prey base and differences within and 533 among Atlantic salmon in condition, survival and/or trophic position. Accordingly, studies which 534 better document spatial and temporal dietary variation and link differences in the relative 535 availability and quality of prey items to Atlantic salmon survival and growth at sea are required 536 before definitive conclusions can be drawn about the trophic effects of oceanic regime change on 537 Atlantic salmon.

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559 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

560 The authors acknowledge the help of Greenland Institute of Natural Resources and the fishers in 561 Greenland who provided samples. Funding support for the samplers was provided by the 562 Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (United Kingdom (England and Wales)), 563 Fisheries and Oceans Canada (Ottawa (Canada)), Inland Fisheries Ireland and the Marine 564 Institute (Republic of Ireland), Marine Scotland (United Kingdom (Scotland)) and The National 565 Oceanic and Atmospheric Association (NOAA) Fisheries Service (USA). Funding support for 566 the analytical work was variously provided by NASCO's International Atlantic Salmon Research 567 Board, Fisheries and Oceans Canada, the National Marine Fisheries Service and a Natural 568 Sciences and Engineering Research Council (NSERC) Discovery Grant to MP. Gut contents of 569 the formalin-preserved stomachs were analysed under supervised contract by Normandeau 570 Associates, Inc., (Falmouth, MA. USA). Fisheries and Oceans Canada (Newfoundland and 571 Labrador Region (Canada)) provided ageing support. NOAA Fisheries Service provided funding 572 to the U. S. Geological Survey Leetown Science Center for genetic processing and continent of 573 origin analysis. Edits on this manuscript were generously provided by N. Sinnatamby. 5859 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

5569 **Circulant who provided** samples. Funding support for the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (United Fisheries and Oceans Canada (Ottawa (Canada)), Inland 1

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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.

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.

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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	

Table 3. Mean \pm s.e. of $\delta^{13}C'$ and $\delta^{15}N$ 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	$\mathbf n$	$\delta^{13}C'$ (%0)	$\delta^{15}N$ (%o)	Site	Year	$\mathbf n$	$\delta^{13}C'$ (%0)	$\delta^{15}N$ (%o)
2009	Sisimiut	75	$-20.35 \pm 0.05^{\rm A}$	11.64 ± 0.08 ^A	Sisimiut	2009	75	-20.35 ± 0.05^1	11.64 ± 0.08 ^T
	Nuuk	193	$-20.28 \pm 0.04^{\rm A}$	$11.49 \pm 0.04^{\text{A}}$		2010	73	-19.98 ± 0.04^2	11.47 ± 0.06^1
	Qaqortoq	102	$-19.93 \pm 0.04^{\rm B}$	$11.65 \pm 0.07^{\rm A}$		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	$-19.98 \pm 0.04^{\rm A}$	$11.47 \pm 0.06^{\rm A}$	Nuuk	2009	193	-20.28 ± 0.04^1	11.49 ± 0.04^1
	Nuuk	163	$-20.33 \pm 0.03^{\rm B}$	$11.38 \pm 0.04^{\text{A}}$		2010	163	-20.33 ± 0.03^1	11.38 ± 0.04^1
	Qaqortoq	58	$-20.15 \pm 0.04^{\circ}$	$11.28 \pm 0.09^{\rm A}$		2011	159	-20.27 ± 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	79	-20.02 ± 0.04 ^A	$11.88 \pm 0.06^{\rm B}$	Qaqortoq	2009	102	-19.93 ± 0.04^1	11.65 ± 0.07^2
	Nuuk COL	159	$-20.27 \pm 0.02^{\rm B}$	$11.87 \pm 0.05^{\rm B}$		2010	58	-20.15 ± 0.04^2	11.28 ± 0.09^1
	Qaqortoq	132	$-20.49 \pm 0.02^{\circ}$	$11.66 \pm 0.05^{\text{A}}$		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	227	$-20.12 \pm 0.03^{\rm A}$	$11.67 \pm 0.04^{\rm A}$	All sites	2009	370	-20.19 ± 0.03^1	11.57 ± 0.03^2

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.

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.

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Figure 1. Map of the West
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Figure 2. Results of the *A*
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boreoatlantic armhook square (dash). The top right quad
Amundsen et al., (1996)).
Figure

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) Qagortog 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 **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. obtained.

Clash). The top right quadrant reflects specialist feeding, the top

within a generalist population feeding, and the bottom quadrants

Amundsen et al., (1996)).

Figure 5. Proportion (mass) of prey taxa (capeli

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

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