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1	Fish diversity in European lakes: geographical predictors dominate over
2	anthropogenic pressures
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41 42 43	42	Running head: Fish assemblages along climatic and human pressure gradients
44 45 46	43	
47 48 49	44	Keywords: Fish assemblage, species richness, eutrophication, hydromorphology,
50 51 52	45	biogeography
52 53 54	46	
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49 Summary

1. We aimed to distinguish the relative contributions of natural and anthropogenic local factors on patterns of fish diversity in European lakes at different geographical scales. 2. We compiled data from standardized fish monitoring using multi-mesh benthic gill nets and on lake morphometry, and geographical, climatic and anthropogenic pressure variables from 1632 lakes in 11 European countries. By means of regression trees we determined those natural and anthropogenic factors and their thresholds that best predicted local fish diversity, density and mean size. Generalized linear models were used to assess the influence of anthropogenic factors at smaller geographical and morphometric scales. 3. Local fish species richness and diversity were related mainly to morphometric and (bio)geographical/climatic variables. Larger and deeper lakes in warm areas tended to be the most species rich and diverse. Fish density was related mainly to anthropogenically driven productivity but also was sensitive to geographical/climatic factors. Thus, warmer and shallower lower-altitude European lakes, which are usually more eutrophic, had higher fish densities than cold and deeper higher-altitude lakes. Fish size increased with altitude and declined with increasing seasonality and temperature.

4. After controlling for the natural factors, productivity had a positive effect on fish speciesrichness and diversity, whereas it negatively influenced fish size.

5. Our results suggest that macroecological patterns of lake fish diversity across Europe are
best predicted by natural factors. The contribution of anthropogenic factors to fish diversity
was evident only via by the effect of eutrophication at smaller geographical scales, whereas
no effect could be found from hydromorphological pressures. From an applied perspective,

1 2	72	these results suggest that bioassessment and biodiversity evaluation might be most effective	ly
3 4 5	73	conducted and interpreted locally, where anthropogenic effects on biodiversity become mor	e
6 7	74	visible. At a macroecological scale, the strong effect of environmental temperature on most	
8 9	75	components of fish diversity suggests future changes in fish diversity as a consequence of	
10 11 12	76	climate change.	
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57 58 59	92	Introduction	
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94	Freshwater ecosystems hold an estimated 12% of the world's animal species and the
95	biodiversity of these habitats is declining at an alarming and unprecedented rate due to
96	anthropogenic activities (Abramovitz, 1996; Johnson, Revenga & Echeverria, 2001; Sala et
97	al., 2000). Determining the processes responsible for modifying of biodiversity patterns is a
98	crucial issue for conservation strategies in the face of current and future global and regional
99	anthropogenic impacts (Kerr, Kharouba & Currie, 2007). However, there has been
100	surprisingly little effort to distinguish the effects of natural and anthropogenic factors on
101	macroecological patterns of freshwater diversity, because most studies focus on understanding
102	'natural' processes alone, disregarding the potential problems caused by the addition of
103	current anthropogenic effects (La Sorte, 2006). Particularly, in densely-populated regions
104	such as Europe, where aquatic systems are greatly affected by humans (Abramovitz, 1996;
105	EEA, 2010), anthropogenic factors may well override the well-known effects of natural
106	gradients on local and regional aquatic diversity.
107	Lakes, being natural relatively isolated ecosystems, can be considered as biogeographical
108	islands and are thus ideal for studying the macroecological effects of local and regional
109	processes on assemblage composition (Heino, 2011). For example, regional fish species
110	richness generally declines from the tropics to the poles (Abell et al., 2008), but is modulated
111	by historical effects on biogeography in European lakes (Griffiths, 2006; Jeppesen et al. 2010)
112	that sometimes interact with climate. Similarly, richness and endemism of riverine fish faunas

- 113 were higher in the Mediterranean regions than in Central, Eastern and Northern Europe
- 114 (Reyjol et al., 2007). These studies point to a strong effect of regional factors on the
- 115 composition of European fish assemblages.

Lake morphometry (area and depth) is considered the most important natural factor influencing local fish assemblage composition (Jeppesen *et al.*, 2000; Olin *et al.*, 2002; Mehner et al., 2005, 2007). Many studies have shown that local fish species richness in lakes is strongly linked to area, probably as a result of a higher complexity and stability of habitats in large lakes (e.g. MacArthur & Wilson, 1967; Barbour & Brown, 1974). In a study covering a wide latitudinal gradient in northeastern USA, lake morphometry even overrode the effect of regional processes on fish richness (Allen et al., 1999). In contrast, few studies have addressed the effect of anthropogenic factors on local fish diversity. Fish species richness was unimodally or positively related to anthropogenically increased productivity in Danish (Jeppesen et al., 2000) and Finnish lakes (Olin et al., 2002), respectively, and lake productivity was an important predictor of fish abundance and biomass in German lakes (Mehner et al. 2005).

The mean size of fish is another component of diversity which interacts with species richness and density (Magurran, 2004). Natural predictors of the life history traits of fish, such as body size, are primarily climatic factors and there is increasing evidence that the mean body size of fish declines with increasing mean annual temperature (Griffiths, 2006; Teixeira-de Mello et al., 2009; Jeppesen et al., 2010). Simultaneously, anthropogenically enhanced productivity causes a decline in the mean size of fish, caused by density-dependent growth in highly productive lakes (Jeppesen et al., 2000). In addition to cultural eutrophication, hydromorphological alterations, explotation as fisheries and the use of lakes for recreation have been found to impact significantly fish species richness, density and body size (e.g. Jennings et al., 1999; Allan et al., 2005).

Studies on fish diversity in lakes suggest that there is presumably no single factor that
simultaneously predicts diversity, size and density of fish across large spatial gradients.

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1 2	140	Natural factors and anthropogenic pressures may strongly interact in determining the local
3 4 5	141	fish assemblage in lakes. In the face of the freshwater biodiversity crisis (Dudgeon et al.,
6 7	142	2006; Vörösmarty et al. 2010), it is therefore important to estimate the relative contribution of
8 9	143	natural and anthropogenic factors on the macroecological patterns of fish diversity in lakes.
10 11 12	144	However, to do this, large datasets are needed which have to be obtained by systematic
13 14	145	sampling including fish species, density and size. Furthermore, the lakes included should
15 16	146	cover broad geographical, climatic and morphometric gradients, and data on local
17 18 19	147	anthropogenic pressures should be of sufficient precision.
20 21	148	Here we compiled a fish database consisting of standardized, multi-mesh sized gill-net
22		,,
23 24	149	catches from 1632 lakes from 11 European countries covering a wide latitudinal and
25 26	150	longitudinal gradient. The lakes also represent a wide range of morphometric and
27 28 20	151	environmental variables/stressors. Our overall aim was to assess whether current
30 31	152	anthropogenic pressures have already changed large-scale macroecological patterns of fish
32 33	153	diversity in European lakes. Specifically, we addressed the following questions: (1) Are local
34 35 36	154	fish species richness and diversity in European lakes primarily determined by the latitudinal
37 38	155	and morphometric gradients, or has the effect of locally enhanced productivity by human-
39 40	156	induced eutrophication disrupted these macroecological patterns? (2) Alternatively, is the
41 42 43	157	effect of anthropogenic pressures on biodiversity visible only at smaller geographical scales?
44 45	158	(3) Is the average size of fish primarily determined by environmental temperature, or has
46 47 48	159	anthropogenic disturbance replaced the dominant effect of temperature? (4) Is the density of
49 50	160	fish in lakes related primarily to productivity, or can other predictors explain a part of the
51 52	161	variability observed over large spatial gradients?
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164 Methods

165 Data set

We used a fish database including 1632 European lakes sampled from 1993 to 2009. The database was created as part of a Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC Intercalibration exercise, supplemented by additional data from the authors. The database included 11 countries and covered a latitudinal gradient between 41.96 and 69.69° N (maximum distance between lakes of 3083 km) and a longitudinal gradient between -10.17 and 31.30° E (maximum distance between lakes of 3395 km) (Fig. 1). All lakes were sampled from June to September with Nordic benthic multi-mesh gill nets largely in accordance with the European standard (CEN 14757, 2005; Appelberg et al., 1995). Benthic gill nets (12 mesh sizes between 5.0 and 55 mm in a geometric series, each panel being 2.5 m long and 1.5 m high) were set in a random stratified sampling design in the benthic habitat. Nets were generally set for a 12-16 h period from before dusk and lifted after dawn. The total fishing effort per lake (number of benthic nets) was standardized by lake area and maximum depth according to CEN 14757 (2005). The sampling procedure employed in the German lakes differed slightly from the standard protocol, as the sampling was were split, with the first half of the effort (number of nets) set during late summer and early autumn and the second half set during the subsequent spring (Mehner et al., 2005). In that case, a sampling campaign is the sum of two sampling periods. The dataset (n = 1632 lakes) contained only lakes with pH>6, to exclude the structuring effect of acidification on fish assemblages, which otherwise might obscure the effects of the main anthropogenic pressures assessed in this study, i.e. eutrophication and hydromorphological degradation. This was needed as a large part of the Nordic data were from lakes recovering from acidification.

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2	188	Descriptors of fish assemblages
4 5	189	Species richness was calculated as the total number of fish species collected in a lake.
6 7	190	Shannon-Wiener diversity (H) was calculated according to Shannon & Wiener (1949) in
8 9 10	191	Pielou (1969). Fish density was expressed as catch per unit effort, determined as the number
11 12	192	per unit effort (NPUE, number of fish) and the biomass per unit effort (BPUE, wet mass of
13 14 15	193	fish), standardized with respect to gill-net area (m^2) and fishing duration (h). Shannon-Wiener
16 17	194	diversity was calculated from both fish numbers (H_{NPUE}) and biomass (H_{BPUE}). The
18 19	195	biomass:number ratio (BPUE:NPUE) was estimated as a proxy of the average fish body size
20 21 22	196	and hereafter called body size.
23 24 25	197	
26 27 28	198	Environmental and anthropogenic pressure variables
29 30	199	Lake area (km ²), altitude (m) and maximum depth (Z_{max}) were extracted from the national
31 32 33	200	databases (Table 1). Climatic data were obtained from the climate CRU model (New et al.,
34 35	201	2002). The amplitude of temperature (T_{amp}) (proxy for seasonality) was calculated as the
36 37 38	202	difference between mean temperature (T_{mean}) in July and January.
39 40	203	The anthropogenic pressures considered are listed in Table 1. Enhanced in-lake
41 42 43	204	productivity (eutrophication) was estimated by annual mean TP ($\mu g L^{-1}$), and land use and
44 45	205	population density in the catchment. Total phosphorus (TP) was measured as the mean of a
46 47	206	minimum of four samples taken in a single year (one for each season) for all lakes (except a
48 49 50	207	small number of Swedish lakes for which we selected TP data for another year matching the
51 52	208	last fish sampling campaign as closely as possible). Land use was estimated as the percentage
53 54 55	209	of natural and agricultural land cover in the lake catchment using Corine Land Cover. For a
55 56 57	210	subset of the lakes, population density in the catchment was assessed according to expert
58 59 60	211	judgment on a four-step scale (low, medium, high and very high) (Table 1). Morphometric

212 modification was estimated as the percentage of shoreline bank modified according to expert
213 judgment and in application of the Lake Habitat Survey (Rowan *et al.*, 2006) on a ranked
214 scale (five classes, from 1 no modification, to 5, highly modified).
215
216 Statistical analysis

We applied a two-step approach. First, we conducted regression tree analyses to explore
which factors dominate in the prediction of fish diversity (richness, diversity, size, density) in
the lakes. Second, for those fish descriptors that were influenced mainly by natural factors
according to the regression tree analysis, we controlled for the dominant effects of these
factors and then tested explicitly for the effects of anthropogenic factors by applying
Generalized Linear Models (GLM). We log₁₀-transformed all variables except pH, richness
and diversity.

Regression tree analyses were performed to trace the relationship between the natural and anthropogenic variables (predictors) and fish diversity descriptors (responses) and to identify thresholds of the predictor variables best discriminating the resulting fish assemblage structure. Regression trees are a binary partitioning approach whereby a dataset is progressively split into subsets that most significantly reduce the variability of the response variable. This type of regression gives a clear picture of the structure of the data and provides a highly intuitive insight into the kinds of interactions between variables (Crawley, 2002). It simultaneously handles categorical and continuous data, is insensitive to outliers and multicollinearity (Breiman et al., 1984; De'ath, 2007), and is therefore highly suitable for the complex dataset we have accumulated here. Regression trees can also accommodate missing data in predictor variables by using other independent variables, known as surrogates, that best agree (i.e. classify the same subjects in the same way) with the original splitting variable

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236 (Breiman *et al.*, 1984). Surrogates are selected by the algorithm according to their 237 performance in the percentage of agreement in the allocation of cases to the two groups. To 238 avoid over-fitting, we 'pruned' the tree using a 10-fold cross-validation and the one standard 239 error (1-SE) rule (Breiman et al., 1984). A 10-fold cross-validation test consists in splitting 240 the data, constructing a new model from a subset of samples and then testing the predictive 241 accuracy of those sample(s) not included in its construction (Breiman et al., 1984; Bahn & 242 McGill, 2007). In more detail, the data were divided in 10 parts and one part was omitted. The 243 tree was then estimated using 90% of the data and the omitted 10% were used to obtain a 244 prediction error. This process was then repeated by omitting each of the 10 datasets in turn. 245 We chose the 1-SE rule to estimate the best tree because this method usually results in smaller 246 trees than suggested by the minimum cross-validated error, but with minimal increase in the 247 estimated error rate (at most <1SE) (Breiman et al., 1984; Déath & Fabricius, 2000). 248 We ran a separate regression tree for each of the six descriptors of fish diversity. Categorical 249 predictors (Table 1) were included as nominal variables. We excluded highly redundant 250 predictors from regression tree analyses (Table 2). Hence, since minimum temperature (T_{min}), 251 T_{mean} and T_{amp} co-varied strongly (Table 2; average Spearman's $r_s=0.9$), we subsequently 252 included only T_{max} and T_{amp}. The percentages of natural and agricultural land cover were also 253 strongly negatively correlated (r_s =-0.9), so we included only the latter in the analyses. 254 Longitude was strongly correlated with T_{amp} ($r_s=0.7$) and with precipitation ($r_s=0.7$) and was 255 therefore also excluded. Alternative splits (i.e. splits that had as many correct classifications 256 as the original splitting variable) and surrogate variables were examined to obtain a more 257 complete understanding of the dependencies and relationships within the data (Déath & 258 Fabricius, 2000). Thus, we inspected strongly competing alternative splits to test whether the 259 resulting tree could better explain the data. Finally, when a variable with missing data was

selected, we checked to ensure that data were evenly distributed across response and predictorvariables.

Since the initial database was dominated by Swedish lakes (Fig. 1), and this geographical bias could have influenced the results, we split the lakes into three categories (regions) based on latitude and four based on longitude and sub-sampled an equal number of lakes from each of the 12 sub-regions. Next, we re-ran regression tree analyses using this unbiased dataset (in total 272 lakes). Thereby, we significantly reduced the proportion of missing values for productivity variables (100% and 84% of data available for TP and percentage of agricultural land cover, respectively). Subsequently, we compared the results of these two approaches. For those fish descriptors that were influenced mainly by natural factors according to regression tree analysis, we ran Generalized Linear Models (GLM; McCullagh & Nelder 1989) for each of the two subsets defined by the primary splits of regression trees and by using anthropogenic pressures as predictors. Thus, if for example a fish descriptor was mainly influenced by T_{max} , we took the two T_{max} categories defined by the primary tree split and calculated GLMs within each tree category. We compared the models with main effects of two anthropogenic predictors (TP and % agriculture) and their interaction by using the Akaike Information Criterion corrected (AICc). We used a Poisson error distribution and a logarithmic link function for richness variable and Normal error distribution and identity link function for diversity and body size variables. Regression tree analyses were performed in "R" version 2.9.1 (Development Core Team, 2009) using the Brodgar v. 2.7.2 statistical package (Highland Statistics Ltd., Newburgh,

281 UK). GLMs were performed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., 1989-2006).

Results

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In the regression tree analysis of species richness, the primary split was defined by lake area, which was positively related to richness. Surrogate variables of lake area were maximum depth (Z_{max}) and latitude (positively and negatively related to fish richness, respectively). Lakes were further divided according to T_{max} , which in total contributed almost as much explanatory power as lake area (Table 3; Fig. 2). Surrogate variables for the three nodes related to T_{max} were precipitation, latitude and altitude, indicating a relationship between T_{max} and the geographical gradients.

Shannon-Wiener diversity based both on fish numbers (H_{NPUE}) and biomass (H_{BPUE}) was primarily affected by T_{max} , with both altitude and latitude as surrogate variables (Table 3). For H_{NPUE}, a second split divided the lakes above and below the temperature threshold according to their area with surrogate Z_{max} . For H_{BPUE} , T_{max} and area again defined the second and third nodes, respectively (Table 3; Fig. 2).

The density of fish was primarily predicted by productivity (in-lake TP concentration) (Table 3, Fig. 2), with thresholds of 23.7 μ g L⁻¹ (number) and 20 μ g L⁻¹ (biomass). Surrogate variables for TP were altitude and pH, which were negatively and positively related to fish densitiy, respectively. A second node was defined by T_{max} for fish number and by Z_{max} for fish biomass. The interaction between TP and temperature in predicting fish numbers is shown in Fig. 3: for the same TP concentration, more fish numbers were found in warmer lakes (T_{max} $>15^{\circ}$ C). Fish body size was predicted by altitude, with T_{max} as a surrogate. A second split divided lower-altitude lakes according to their T_{amp} (Table 3; Fig. 2).

Additional regression trees were trained using a geographically unbiased dataset (i.e. subsampling a similar proportion of lakes in three latitude and four longitude categories leaving
272 lakes in total). The results were similar to those obtained from the whole database
suggesting that the strong dominance of Scandinavian lakes in the large dataset did not

influence the main conclusions. However, the variance explained increased for each regression tree, except for fish richness and H_{CPUE} (that remained similar; Table 4). The only differences occurred for fish species richness, which was mainly related to T_{max} and explained 30% of the variance for the model, and for body size, which was mainly positively related to precipitation. Nevertheless, lake area appeared at the second split for fish richness explaining 10% of the variance. The main surrogate variable for the first split was the percentage of agricultural land cover for all fish descriptors, except for fish size and number for which Tamp and latitude were the main surrogates, respectively. Generalized linear models showed that fish descriptors (richness, diversity and body size) were in all cases significantly affected by anthropogenic factors (TP and percentage of agricultural land cover) when accounting for the dominant effects of natural predictors, as found in the regression tree (Table 5; Fig. 4). The AICc indicated that TP was the main anthropogenic factor explaining changes in richness, H_{NPUE}, H_{BPUE} and body size, except for richness in small lakes and fish body size in higher altitude lakes for which the percentage of agriculture land cover was more significant than TP (Table 5). Both factors were positively related to fish species richness and diversity, but negatively related to body size (Fig. 4). Discussion Our study of patterns of fish diversity in European lakes, based on probably the most comprehensive and large-scaled dataset ever produced in lakes, suggests that several of the well-documented statistical correlations between local fish diversity and natural gradients are still intact. Local species richness was strongly related to lake morphometry and environmental temperature, whereas average fish size and Shannon-Wiener diversity were

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1 2	332	determined primarily by environmental temperature related to altitudinal and latitudinal
3 4 5	333	gradients. Furthermore, the geographical gradients found in our analyses agree with a
6 7	334	previous study of fish species richness in lakes at European scale that reported a decline in
8 9	335	regional species richness in the northern and western regions due to influence of
10 11 12	336	biogeographical aspects, such as barriers and glaciation events (Griffiths, 2006).
13 14	337	Primary productivity, as a measure of the amount of energy available at a base of the food
15 16	338	webs, is presumably one of the major determinants of species richness and diversity (e.g.
17 18 19	339	Currie, 1991), and primary productivity is strongly related to the TP-concentration in lakes.
20 21	340	The increased energy available, and the greater food web complexity in more productive
22 23	341	lakes, allow more species to coexist (Gaston, 2000). Here, we showed that agriculture in the
24 25 26	342	catchment was the primary surrogate of natural predictors when using a geographically
27 28	343	unbiased dataset (i.e. where Mediterranean and Scandinavian lake samples were more
29 30 31	344	balanced), suggesting that anthropogenic stressors may have modified natural
32 33	345	macroecological gradients of fish diversity in lakes. Similarly, when taking into account the
34 35	346	most important geographical, climatic and morphometric differences between the lakes, both
36 37 38	347	enhanced TP concentration and agriculture in the catchment contributed significantly to an
39 40	348	increase in fish species richness and diversity. Thus, the anthropogenic effects on biodiversity
41 42 42	349	become more visible at smaller geographical and morphometric scales whereas they are less
43 44 45	350	obvious across larger spatial extents. This suggests that, even though global or continental
46 47	351	bioassessment and evaluation of biodiversity is needed, they might be most effectively
48 49 50	352	analysed and interpreted at smaller geographical scales (Heino, 2013).
50 51 52	353	Our results corroborate those of earlier studies covering smaller geographical gradients which
53 54	354	revealed that the response of fish assemblages to changing productivity varies considerably
55 56 57	355	depending on lake morphometry and fish species composition (Olin et al., 2002; Mehner et
58 59	356	al., 2005, 2007). A dominant effect of lake morphometry over those induced by
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357 anthropogenic descriptors was also found for broad-scale richness of benthic 358 macroinvertebrates, birds, and zooplankton (Allen *et al.*, 1999). In turn, productivity was the 359 main positive determinant of fish density in our study (Fig. 5), corroborating earlier studies on 360 lake fish assemblages covering smaller geographical and trophic gradients (Jeppesen *et al.*, 361 2000; Olin et al., 2002) and studies on zooplankton biomass at European scale (Gyllström et *al.*, 2005). According to our results, a TP concentration of around 20-25 μ g L⁻¹ represents a 362 363 threshold for a significant increase in lake fish numbers and biomass. 364 Our regression tree approach also detected some effects, hitherto poorly described, of 365 temperature and lake morphometry on fish density. Thus, warmer and lower-altitude 366 European lakes, which are usually more eutrophic, had higher fish density than cold and 367 higher-altitude European lakes (Fig. 5). The temperature-related effects on fish density(both 368 due to latitudinal or altitudinal differences) may act independently of lake trophic status since. 369 for a similar TP concentration, we found generally a greater number of fish numbers in warm 370 than in cold lakes. So far, similar findings had been found only for fish biomass in a 371 comparative study of shallow subtropical and temperate lakes, showing a twofold higher fish 372 biomass per unit of TP in the warmer subtropical lakes (Teixeira-de Mello et al., 2010). 373 With regard to fish body size, geographical and climatic factors remained the dominant 374 predictors, but the effect of anthropogenic factors emerged when geographical differences 375 between the lakes were taken into account. Most importantly, fish body size was larger in 376 high-altitude than low-altitude lakes, and declined with increasing temperature (Fig. 5). These 377 findings agree with previous studies on fish (Blanck & Lamouroux, 2007; Jeppesen et al., 378 2010) and invertebrates [e.g. beetles, Vamosi & Vamosi (2007); zooplankton, Gillooly & 379 Dodson (2000)] and support the predictions of the metabolic theory of ecology (Brown et al.,

380 2004). Our results suggested a decrease in fish body size with enhanced eutrophication, which

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	381	is in accordance with previous local studies of fish and zooplankton (Jeppesen et al. 2000).
	382	This decrease in fish body size with eutrophication was more obvious in higher altitude lakes,
	383	which are naturally more oligotrophic than those at lower altitudes, and suggests that, in the
)	384	former, fish assemblages may be more sensitive to changes in lake productivity.
2	385	In our study, body size was also associated with the amplitude of temperature and
3 	386	precipitation, variables that are both highly correlated with longitude. The results suggest that
,) ,	387	lakes in Eastern Europe, normally exhibiting greater variations in temperature, and higher
3	388	summer temperatures, tend to have smaller fish. Supporting this argument, Carlson, Olsen &
) >	389	Vøllestad (2008) found that small body size could be an advantage for fish inhabiting strongly
- 3 4	390	seasonal environments. The positive relationship between fish density and air temperature,
5	391	and smaller fish in warmer lakes, agrees with the results of cross-comparisons of fish
3	392	populations in Europe. They showed that fish species from lower latitudes are typically
) 	393	smaller, grow faster, mature earlier, and have shorter life spans and allocate less energy (as
2	394	gonadosomatic index) to reproduction than populations and species at higher latitudes
+ 5 6	395	(Griffiths, 2006; Blanck & Lamouroux, 2007; Jeppesen et al., 2010). Such changes are
, , }	396	evident even in the same species along a latitudinal gradient (Blanck & Lamouroux, 2007;
))	397	Jeppesen <i>et al.</i> , 2010).
2 3	398	Overall, our results indicated that larger and deeper lakes in warmer areas were the richest
5	399	and most diverse in fish species (Fig. 5). The positive relationship between richness and lake

area, depth or volume might reflect a greater environmental stability in large and deep lakes
than in small and shallow lakes (Jeppesen *et al.*, 2000; Irz, Argillier & Oberdorff, 2004; Volta *et al.*, 2011) and increased habitat heterogeneity favouring the coexistence of more species
(MacArthur & Wilson, 1967).

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404 Differences in maximum temperature made a similar contribution to fish species richness 405 as did lake area. Similarly, diversity indices were mainly influenced by maximum temperature 406 which agrees with a recent model, supported by terrestrial, freshwater, and marine taxa data, 407 that quantifies the role of biochemical kinetics in generating biodiversity (Allen, Brown & 408 Gillooly, 2002). According to this model, environmental temperature, through its effects on 409 individual metabolic rates, influences the rates of genetic divergence among populations and 410 rates of speciation in communities. In our analysis, lake altitude appeared as the main 411 surrogate for the maximum temperature in the fish diversity regression trees. The effects of 412 altitude on fish diversity can probably be attributed to its direct barrier effects on colonization 413 and its indirect effects due to collinearity with temperature, which is in accordance with the 414 findings in a previous study of lakes in China (Zhao et al., 2006). 415 Apart from eutrophication, we did not find any effect of anthropogenic alterations, such as 416 hydrological and morphometric degradation, on fish diversity in lakes. This result agrees with 417 a previous study in German lakes (Mehner *et al.*, 2005). In contrast to our findings, previous 418 studies restricted to North American lakes, in which lake shores were sampled by 419 electrofishing (e.g. Jennings et al., 1999; Schindler, Geib & Williams, 2000), have shown that 420 fish richness declines in response to shoreline modifications and that the strength of the 421 changes depends on the complexity of the artificially created habitats (Jennings et al., 1999). 422 The weak effect of hydromorphological pressures on fish diversity in European may be 423 attributable to the fact that, in some cases, our measures were based on expert judgment, 424 which might be too coarse to detect subtle impacts. It could also be attributed to the fact that 425 the respective information was available only for a small subset of lakes. Nevertheless, when 426 the same analyses were carried out using only these lakes where the information was 427 available, the main variables determining the fish diversity descriptors did not change.

428 Therefore, the opposite outcomes between European and North-American studies suggest

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1 2	429	that: (1) fish in European lakes are less sensitive or are more resilient to these anthropogenic
3 4 5	430	pressures, or (2) the impact of these pressures is obscured by the effect of strong biological
6 7	431	interactions, such as predation and competition, in European lakes, or that (3) a strong effect
8 9	432	is only seen if a certain degree of pressure intensity is exceeded which was not the case for the
10 11 12	433	lakes included here. Additionally, (4) we cannot exclude the possibility of an effect of
13 14	434	hydromorphological pressures on some others traits that were measured in North American
15 16 17	435	fish but were not measured in our study (e.g. small cyprinids). Furthermore, gillnet sampling
17 18 19	436	may not be the most effective method to document the effects of hydromorphological
20 21	437	pressures, since these pressures may mostly influence shoreline fish assemblages, which are
22 23 24	438	more reliably monitored by electrofishing (Diekmann et al., 2005; Erős et al., 2009). It is
24 25 26	439	highly likely that all these explanations strongly interact in causing the differing response of
27 28	440	temperate fish diversity to anthropogenic stressors between Europe and North America. The
29 30 31	441	regional fish diversity in Europe is highly depauperate compared to North America, mainly as
32 33	442	a consequence of the relative importance of historical processes such as glaciations (Tonn et
34 35	443	al., 1990, Griffiths, 2006). Therefore, the dominant fish species in Europe are less specialized,
36 37 38	444	have broader niches, and a more flexible life history than their American counterparts (Tonn
39 40	445	et al., 1990), making them less vulnerable to the effects of anthropogenic stressors. In turn,
41 42	446	the fish diversity in European lakes is less variable, and hence less sensitive to local
43 44 45	447	predictors, than is found in similar studies of North-American fish assemblages. Nevertheless,
46 47	448	we cannot exclude that pelagic gillnet data used in this study could have led to an
48 49	449	underestimation of fish richness and thus may not adequately represent total lake diversity
50 51 52	450	(Erős <i>et al.</i> , 2009).
53 54 55	451	Some models, particularly those obtained using the whole dataset, explained a low

percentage of the variance (e.g. 20% for body size) indicating that their predictive ability may

be limited and thus conclusions should be carefully drawn. However, when cross-validating

454 by using smaller, more balanced training sets, better models were overall obtained, which455 allows for more robust ecological insights.

In conclusion, our results indicate that most components of lake fish diversity at a European scale are still mainly determined by natural factors. Some effects of anthropogenic stressors on fish diversity became particularly obvious when subsets of lakes with similar natural environmental factors were evaluated. In contrast, fish numbers and biomass responded to anthropogenically enhanced productivity even at a macroecological (here European) scale. From an applied perspective, these findings have important implications for unravelling the causes of freshwater biodiversity loss and for the development of fish-based systems for assessing the ecological status of lakes (i.e. in the implementation of the European Water Framework Directive, WFD). Our results confirm that (1) fish densities are sensitive to some anthropogenic pressures, which must be considered when developing biotic indicators, and (2) geographical and morphometric factors should be accounted for when attempting to quantify the effects of anthropogenic factors on fish diversity at large geographical scales (Argillier et al., 2013, Irz et al., 2007). This agrees with the WFD requirement of setting reference conditions for subsets of lakes defined by geography and morphometry (e.g. European Commission, 2010; Brucet et al., 2013). Our results also suggest that (3) temperature differences, mainly related to geographical gradients and lake morphometry, strongly predict most components of fish diversity, emphasizing the importance of temperature in determining broad-scale patterns of fish diversity in European lakes. Therefore, subtle changes of fish diversity in lakes may be early indicators of the effects of global warming, a process that presumably has only started to become visible.

477 Acknowledgments

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Table 1. Fish descriptors and explanatory variables analysed, their minima, means and 655

maxima. The percentage of lakes for each level of the categorical variables is also shown 656

657 (from 1, less pressure to 5, more pressure). n, number of lakes; H_{NPUE}, diversity based on fish

- 658 number ; H_{BPUE}, diversity based on fish biomass.
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12 13	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. deviation	n	
15Fish descriptors						
16Fish number (number fish net $m^{-2} h^{-1}$)	0.09	< 0.01	1.69	0.13	1632	
¹⁷ Fish biomass (g fish net $m^{-2} h^{-1}$)	3.20	0.01	29.09	3.04	1632	
¹⁸ Richness	5.23	1	17	2.80	1632	
19 20HNPUE	1.20	0	2.78	0.59	1632	
20 Hard 20 20 Hard 20	1.49	0	2.99	0.65	1632	
22Body size (BPUE:NPUE; g WW)	55.79	0.76	981.56	68.47	1632	
²⁴ Lake morphometry						
2 Calcake area (km ²)	2.55	0.02	116.51	8.36	1629	
27Maximum depth (m)	13.71	0.20	137	13.36	1591	
28Mean depth (m)	4.69	0.07	97.00	5.29	1259	
29						
³⁰ ₂₄ Climate						
³¹ ₃₂ Sum of precipitation (mm)	738.3	423.6	3173.6	254.5	1632	
33Mean temperature (°C)	5.65	-3.83	14.33	2.83	1632	
34Minimum temperature (°C)	-3.60	-16.80	8.00	4.54	1632	
³⁵ Maximum temperature (°C)	15.34	6.80	23.10	1.77	1632	
³⁶ ₃₇ Amplitude temperature (°C)	18.90	8.40	30.10	3.88	1632	
38						
39Location						
40Latitude (°)	57.4109	41.9697	69.6972	4.28	1632	
⁴¹ Longitude (°)	1.3000	-10.1763	31.3019	7.43	1632	
$^{42}_{43}$ Altitude (m)	186.6	-1.00	1739	206.6	1593	
44						
45Pressures (continuous)						
46 _{pH}	7.09	6.00	9.95	0.78	1214	
⁴⁷ Total phosphorus ($\mu g L^{-1}$)	40.1	1.0	3334.0	128.6	918	
$_{AO}^{48}$ Percentage agriculture land cover (%)	22.7	0	100	27.5	727	
50Percentage natural land cover (%)	72.0	0	100	30.2	732	
51Percentage of shoreline bank modified	17.2	0	100	25.4	111	
52						
53			Percentage of	of lakes		
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56Pressures (categorical)

57Population density class 58Morphometric pressures (shoreline 59

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707	Table 2. Correlation matrix of the environmental and anthropogenic pressure variables.
708	Spearman's r_s values above the diagonal and the corresponding <i>P</i> -values below the diagonal.
709	Values over 0.7 and variables not included in the detailed regression tree analysis with all
710	pressures are given in grey background. Lat (Latitude), Long (Longitude), T_{max} (maximum
711	temperature), T_{min} (minimum temperature), T_{mean} (mean temperature), T_{amp} (amplitude of
712	temperature), Precip (Precipitation), Altit (Altitude), TP (total phosphorus), Z _{max} (maximum
713	depth), %agric (percentage of agricultural land cover), %nat (percentage of agricultural land
714	cover).

23 24		Lat	Long	T _{max}	$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{min}}$	T _{mean}	T_{amp}	Precip	Altit	area	ТР	Z_{max}	%agric	%nat	pН
25	Lat		0.646	-0.486	-0.950	-0.935	0.691	-0.310	0.367	-0.013	-0.382	-0.107	-0.619	0.619	-0.452
20 27	Long	< 0.001		0.011	-0.664	-0.607	0.723	-0.718	0.055	-0.021	-0.245	-0.073	-0.397	0.359	-0.341
28	T _{max}	< 0.001	0.657		0.487	0.603	-0.269	-0.298	-0.580	0.063	0.369	-0.104	0.428	-0.422	0.337
30	$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{min}}$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		0.981	-0.929	0.325	-0.499	-0.012	0.422	-0.114	0.603	-0.554	0.438
31	T _{mean}	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.858	0.236	-0.566	0.016	0.444	-0.105	0.655	-0.602	0.494
32 33	T _{amp}	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.457	0.344	0.057	-0.349	0.123	-0.477	0.432	-0.303
34 35	Precip	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		0.228	-0.004	-0.005	0.132	0.134	-0.108	-0.021
36	Altit	< 0.001	0.028	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.046	-0.473	0.215	-0.474	0.493	-0.444
37 38	area	0.594	0.390	0.011	0.614	0.519	0.021	0.877	0.066		-0.071	0.411	0.107	-0.047	0.182
39	ТР	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.881	< 0.001	0.032		-0.440	0.568	-0.603	0.423
40 41	Z _{max}	< 0.001	0.004	< 0.001	0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.223	0.259	0.041
42	%agric	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.004	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.912	0.663
43 44	%nat	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.003	< 0.001	0.206	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001		-0.656
45	pН	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.472	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.157	< 0.001	< 0.001	
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727 Table 3. Results of regression tree analysis (n = 1632 lakes) for each fish assemblage 728 descriptor. Main variables, thresholds defining each node and percentage of variance 729 explained are listed. For each node main surrogate variables (i.e. those with maximum 730 agreement) are shown in brackets (first two main surrogates for the node explaining the 731 highest variance and the first one for the rest of the nodes). Fish number (NPUE), fish 732 biomass (BPUE), diversity based on fish number (H_{NPUE}), diversity based on fish biomass 733 (H_{BPUE}), and body size. TP (total phosphorus), T_{max} (maximum temperature), T_{amp} (amplitude of 734 temperature), Z_{max} (maximum depth). 735

23				Regression	n Tree		
24 25 26 27		Richness	H _{NPUE}	H _{BPUE}	Body size	NPUE	BPUE
28 Tot 29 exp	tal Variance plained	45%	30%	31%	20%	33%	25%
31 No 32 33	de 1	area (Z _{max} , latitude)	T _{max} (altitude, latitude)	T _{max} (altitude, latitude)	altitude (T _{max})	TP (altitude, pH)	TP (altitude, pH)
34 35	Threshold	0.68km ²	15.7°C	15.7°C	484.2m	$23.7 \mu g L^{-1}$	$20.0 \mu g L^{-1}$
36 37 38	Variance explained	22%	14%	16%	11%	20%	20%
39 No 40	de 2	T _{max} (precipitation)	area (Z _{max})	T _{max} (altitude)	(-)T _{amp} (precipitation)	T _{max} (latitude)	(-)Z _{max} (area)
41 42 43	Threshold	16.0°C	0.67km ²	13.6°C	16.4°C	15.3°C	6.9m
44 45 46	Variance explained	5%	7%	7%	9%	6%	3%
47Noo 48 49	de 3	T _{max} (latitude)	area (Z _{max})	area (precipitation)		(-)altitude (latitude)	altitude (T _{amp})
50 51	Threshold	16.0°C	0.50 km^2	0.31km ²		108.4	53 m
52 53 54	Variance explained	14%	6%	5%		3%	2%
55 _{No0} 56 57	de 4	T _{max} (altitude)	(-)altitude (T _{max})	area (Z _{max})		T _{max} (altitude)	
58 59 60	Threshold	13.6°C	248.3m	0.67km ²		12.4°C	

1 2 3	Variance explained	4%	3%	3%	2%	
4 5 N 6	ode 5				 (-)Z _{max} (area)	
/ 8 0	Threshold				 14.8m	
9 10 11 12—	Variance explained				 2%	
13 14—						
15 16 17 18	736 737 738 739					
19 20	740 741					
21 22 23	742 743					
24 25 26	744 745 746					
27 28 29	747 748					
30 31 32	749 750 751					
33 34 35	752 753 754					
30 37 38 39	755 756					
40 41 42	757 758 759					
43 44 45	760 761					
46 47 48	762 763 764					
49 50 51	765 766					
52 53 54	767 768 769					
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772	Table 4. Results	of regression	tree analysis for	r each fish	assemblage	descriptor	using a
		0	5		0	1	0

reduced dataset where lakes where evenly distributed among three latitude and four longitude

774 categories (n = 272 lakes). The variables defining the first node and their thresholds are listed.

775 Main surrogate variable is given in brackets. Fish number (NPUE), fish biomass (BPUE),

776 diversity based on fish number (H_{NPUE}), diversity based on fish biomass (H_{BPUE}), and body

size. TP (total phosphorus), T_{max} (maximum temperature), T_{amp} (amplitude of temperature), Z_{max}

778 (maximum depth).

19 20				Regression Tr	ee		
21 22							
23 24		Richness	H _{NPUE}	H _{BPUE}	Body size	NPUE	BPUE
25 26 01 2 6 x p	tal variance blained	40%	28%	39%	37%	46%	32%
28 2 900 30	de 1	T _{max} (agriculture)	T _{max} (agriculture)	T _{max} (agriculture)	Precipitation (T _{amp})	TP (_{latitude})	TP (agriculture)
31 32 33	Variance explained	30%	22%	22%	20%	27%	23%
34 35	Threshold	15.0°C	15.0°C	15.0 °C	668.34 mm	20.1µgL ⁻¹	17.6µgL ⁻¹
36 37 38 30	780 781 782						

- 53 794 54 795
- 55 796

798Table 5. Results of Generalized Linear Models on the effect of anthropogenic factors on fish799diversity. Each fish descriptor variable was split into two data sets following the first node of800the regression tree analysis (see Table 3). Each data set was tested for one (TP or percentage801of agricultural land cover) or both anthropogenic factors together. The top-ranked models802(lowest AICc) are highlighted in bold. Richness (species number), diversity based on fish803number (H_{NPUE}), diversity based on fish biomass (H_{BPUE}), TP (total phosphorus), %804agriculture (percentage of agricultural land cover).

Variable	data set	Factor	AICc	P value
Richness	small lakes	lg TP	2484.14	0.539
	$< 0.68 \text{ km}^2$	lg % agriculture	1783.59	0.001
		lg TP	6846.64	0.972
		lg % agriculture		0.233
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		0.230
	large lakes	lg TP	2983.26	0.036
	$> 0.68 \text{ km}^2$	lg % agriculture	6620.03	0.011
		lg TP	45166.61	0.561
		lg % agriculture		0.159
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		0.428
H _{NPUE}	cold lakes	lg TP	1374.94	<0.001
	< 15.7 °C	lg % agriculture	1949.45	< 0.001
		lg TP	8437.30	< 0.001
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		< 0.001
	warm lakes	lg TP	989.13	<0.001
	> 15.7 °C	lg % agriculture	2467.83	< 0.001
		lg TP		< 0.001
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		< 0.001
H _{BPUE}	cold lakes	lg TP	1475.74	<0.001
	< 15.7 °C	lg % agriculture	1997.03	< 0.001
		lg TP	8439.77	< 0.001
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		< 0.001
	warm lakes	lg TP	1011.18	<0.001
	> 15.7 °C	lg % agriculture	2490.04	< 0.001
		lg TP		< 0.001
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		< 0.001
Body size	lower altitude	lg TP	8542.74	<0.001
	< 484.2 m a.s.l.	lg % agriculture	8568.76	< 0.001
		lg TP	28169.67	< 0.001
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001
		lg TP * lg % agriculture		< 0.001
			-	

	higher altitude	lg TP	902.08	< 0.001	
	> 484.2 m a.s.l.	lg % agriculture	566.88	<0.001	
		lg TP		< 0.001	
		lg % agriculture		< 0.001	
806		ig ip * ig % agricultur	e	<0.001	
307					
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811	FIGURE LEGENDS				
812					
813	Figure 1. Geographical distr	ribution of the 1632 lake	es across 11 Eu	uropean count	ries (black
814	circles) and balanced datase	t with 272 lakes (white	triangles).		
815					
816	Figure 2. Regression trees o	f fish assemblage descr	iptors for 1632	2 European lak	tes. The higher
817	a variable in the tree, the mo	ore important it is for dif	ferentiating fi	sh assemblage	descriptors.
818	Each node of the tree is dese	cribed by the splitting va	ariable. The lo	nger the line,	the higher the
819	variance explained by the sp	olitting variable. Each le	eaf is labelled	with the mean	rating and the
820	number of observations in the	he group (in parentheses	s). For surroga	te variables an	id explained
821	variance see Table 3. Fish n	umber (NPUE; number	fish net m ⁻² h	¹), fish biomas	ss (BPUE; g
822	fish net $m^{-2} h^{-1}$), diversity ba	ased on fish number (H_N)	NPUE), diversity	v based on fish	biomass
823	(H_{BPUE}) , and body size (BPU	UE:NPUE ratio; g wet w	veight). TP (to	tal phosphorus	s), T _{max}
824	(maximum temperature), T _a	mp (amplitude of temper	rature), Z _{max} (n	naximum dept	h).
825					
826	Figure 3. Box-plot showing	the abundance of fish (NPUE) in diff	erent TP (total	phosphorus)
827	classes ($\mu g L^{-1}$) for two lake	e categories defined by t	he regression	tree in Table 3	cold lakes
828	$(T_{max} < 15^{\circ}C)$ and warm lak	tes (T _{max} >15°C). Minin	num and maxin	mum number o	of lakes within
829	box-plots are one and 91, re	spectively for cold lake	s, and 26 and	166, respective	ely for warm
830	lakes. T _{max} (maximum tempo	erature).			

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1 2	831	
3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21	832	Figure 4. Effects of total phosphorus and agricultural land cover on fish descriptors (see Table
	833	5 for statistical results). Estimated marginal means (Generalized linear models) for each fish
	834	descriptor are shown. Fish diversity based on fish number (H _{NPUE}), diversity based on fish
	835	biomass (H _{BPUE}).
	836	
	837	Figure 5. Scheme showing changes (increase and decrease) for each fish assemblage
	838	descriptor in European lakes. Main variables driving changes in each descriptor are given in
	839	bold.
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Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3

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65x54mm (300 x 300 DPI)





210x276mm (300 x 300 DPI)



41x21mm (300 x 300 DPI)