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Fish diversity in European lakes: geographical predictors dominate over anthropogenic pressures

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## 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 species richness 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,79
these results suggest that bioassessment and biodiversity evaluation might be most effectively conducted and interpreted locally, where anthropogenic effects on biodiversity become more visible. At a macroecological scale, the strong effect of environmental temperature on most components of fish diversity suggests future changes in fish diversity as a consequence of climate change.

## Introduction

Freshwater ecosystems hold an estimated $12 \%$ of the world's animal species and the biodiversity of these habitats is declining at an alarming and unprecedented rate due to anthropogenic activities (Abramovitz, 1996; Johnson, Revenga \& Echeverria, 2001; Sala et al., 2000). Determining the processes responsible for modifying of biodiversity patterns is a crucial issue for conservation strategies in the face of current and future global and regional anthropogenic impacts (Kerr, Kharouba \& Currie, 2007). However, there has been surprisingly little effort to distinguish the effects of natural and anthropogenic factors on macroecological patterns of freshwater diversity, because most studies focus on understanding 'natural' processes alone, disregarding the potential problems caused by the addition of current anthropogenic effects (La Sorte, 2006). Particularly, in densely-populated regions such as Europe, where aquatic systems are greatly affected by humans (Abramovitz, 1996; EEA, 2010), anthropogenic factors may well override the well-known effects of natural gradients on local and regional aquatic diversity.

Lakes, being natural relatively isolated ecosystems, can be considered as biogeographical islands and are thus ideal for studying the macroecological effects of local and regional processes on assemblage composition (Heino, 2011). For example, regional fish species richness generally declines from the tropics to the poles (Abell et al., 2008), but is modulated by historical effects on biogeography in European lakes (Griffiths, 2006; Jeppesen et al. 2010) that sometimes interact with climate. Similarly, richness and endemism of riverine fish faunas were higher in the Mediterranean regions than in Central, Eastern and Northern Europe (Reyjol et al., 2007). These studies point to a strong effect of regional factors on the 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; Teixeirade 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.

Natural factors and anthropogenic pressures may strongly interact in determining the local fish assemblage in lakes. In the face of the freshwater biodiversity crisis (Dudgeon et al., 2006; Vörösmarty et al. 2010), it is therefore important to estimate the relative contribution of natural and anthropogenic factors on the macroecological patterns of fish diversity in lakes. However, to do this, large datasets are needed which have to be obtained by systematic sampling including fish species, density and size. Furthermore, the lakes included should cover broad geographical, climatic and morphometric gradients, and data on local anthropogenic pressures should be of sufficient precision.

Here we compiled a fish database consisting of standardized, multi-mesh sized gill-net catches from 1632 lakes from 11 European countries covering a wide latitudinal and longitudinal gradient. The lakes also represent a wide range of morphometric and environmental variables/stressors. Our overall aim was to assess whether current anthropogenic pressures have already changed large-scale macroecological patterns of fish diversity in European lakes. Specifically, we addressed the following questions: (1) Are local fish species richness and diversity in European lakes primarily determined by the latitudinal and morphometric gradients, or has the effect of locally enhanced productivity by humaninduced eutrophication disrupted these macroecological patterns? (2) Alternatively, is the effect of anthropogenic pressures on biodiversity visible only at smaller geographical scales? (3) Is the average size of fish primarily determined by environmental temperature, or has anthropogenic disturbance replaced the dominant effect of temperature? (4) Is the density of fish in lakes related primarily to productivity, or can other predictors explain a part of the variability observed over large spatial gradients?

## Methods

## 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 $69.69^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$ (maximum distance between lakes of 3083 km ) and a longitudinal gradient between -10.17 and $31.30^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$ (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 ( $\mathrm{n}=1632$ lakes) contained only lakes with $\mathrm{pH}>6$, 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.

## Descriptors of fish assemblages

Species richness was calculated as the total number of fish species collected in a lake. Shannon-Wiener diversity (H) was calculated according to Shannon \& Wiener (1949) in Pielou (1969). Fish density was expressed as catch per unit effort, determined as the number per unit effort (NPUE, number of fish) and the biomass per unit effort (BPUE, wet mass of fish), standardized with respect to gill-net area $\left(\mathrm{m}^{2}\right)$ and fishing duration (h). Shannon-Wiener diversity was calculated from both fish numbers $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}\right)$ and biomass $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}\right)$. The biomass:number ratio (BPUE:NPUE) was estimated as a proxy of the average fish body size and hereafter called body size.

## Environmental and anthropogenic pressure variables

Lake area $\left(\mathrm{km}^{2}\right)$, altitude $(\mathrm{m})$ and maximum depth $\left(\mathrm{Z}_{\max }\right)$ were extracted from the national databases (Table 1). Climatic data were obtained from the climate CRU model (New et al., 2002). The amplitude of temperature ( $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}$ ) (proxy for seasonality) was calculated as the difference between mean temperature ( $\mathrm{T}_{\text {mean }}$ ) in July and January.

The anthropogenic pressures considered are listed in Table 1. Enhanced in-lake productivity (eutrophication) was estimated by annual mean $\mathrm{TP}\left(\mu \mathrm{g} \mathrm{L}^{-1}\right)$, and land use and population density in the catchment. Total phosphorus (TP) was measured as the mean of a minimum of four samples taken in a single year (one for each season) for all lakes (except a small number of Swedish lakes for which we selected TP data for another year matching the last fish sampling campaign as closely as possible). Land use was estimated as the percentage of natural and agricultural land cover in the lake catchment using Corine Land Cover. For a subset of the lakes, population density in the catchment was assessed according to expert judgment on a four-step scale (low, medium, high and very high) (Table 1). Morphometric
modification was estimated as the percentage of shoreline bank modified according to expert judgment and in application of the Lake Habitat Survey (Rowan et al., 2006) on a ranked scale (five classes, from 1 no modification, to 5 , highly modified).

## 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 $\log _{10}$-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
(Breiman et al., 1984). Surrogates are selected by the algorithm according to their performance in the percentage of agreement in the allocation of cases to the two groups. To avoid over-fitting, we 'pruned' the tree using a 10 -fold cross-validation and the one standard error (1-SE) rule (Breiman et al., 1984). A 10-fold cross-validation test consists in splitting the data, constructing a new model from a subset of samples and then testing the predictive accuracy of those sample(s) not included in its construction (Breiman et al., 1984; Bahn \& McGill, 2007). In more detail, the data were divided in 10 parts and one part was omitted. The tree was then estimated using $90 \%$ of the data and the omitted $10 \%$ were used to obtain a prediction error. This process was then repeated by omitting each of the 10 datasets in turn. We chose the 1-SE rule to estimate the best tree because this method usually results in smaller trees than suggested by the minimum cross-validated error, but with minimal increase in the estimated error rate (at most <1SE) (Breiman et al., 1984; Déath \& Fabricius, 2000).

We ran a separate regression tree for each of the six descriptors of fish diversity. Categorical predictors (Table 1) were included as nominal variables. We excluded highly redundant predictors from regression tree analyses (Table 2). Hence, since minimum temperature ( $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{min}}$ ), $\mathrm{T}_{\text {mean }}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}$ co-varied strongly (Table 2; average Spearman's $r_{s}=0.9$ ), we subsequently included only $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\text {amp }}$. The percentages of natural and agricultural land cover were also strongly negatively correlated $\left(r_{s}=-0.9\right)$, so we included only the latter in the analyses.

Longitude was strongly correlated with $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}\left(r_{s}=0.7\right)$ and with precipitation $\left(r_{s}=0.7\right)$ and was therefore also excluded. Alternative splits (i.e. splits that had as many correct classifications as the original splitting variable) and surrogate variables were examined to obtain a more complete understanding of the dependencies and relationships within the data (Déath \& Fabricius, 2000). Thus, we inspected strongly competing alternative splits to test whether the 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 predictor variables.

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 $\mathrm{T}_{\text {max }}$, we took the two $\mathrm{T}_{\text {max }}$ 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, UK). GLMs were performed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS Inc., 1989-2006).

## Results

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 $\left(\mathrm{Z}_{\text {max }}\right)$ and latitude (positively and negatively related to fish richness, respectively). Lakes were further divided according to $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{max}}$, 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 $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}\right)$ and biomass $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}\right)$ was primarily affected by $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$, with both altitude and latitude as surrogate variables (Table 3). For $\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}$, a second split divided the lakes above and below the temperature threshold according to their area with surrogate $\mathrm{Z}_{\text {max }}$. For $\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}, \mathrm{T}_{\text {max }}$ 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 $23.7 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~L}^{-1}$ (number) and $20 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~L}^{-1}$ (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 $\left(\mathrm{T}_{\max }\right.$ $>15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ). Fish body size was predicted by altitude, with $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ as a surrogate. A second split divided lower-altitude lakes according to their $\mathrm{T}_{\text {amp }}$ (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 $\mathrm{H}_{\text {CPUE }}$ (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 $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}$ 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, $\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}, \mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$ 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
determined primarily by environmental temperature related to altitudinal and latitudinal gradients. Furthermore, the geographical gradients found in our analyses agree with a previous study of fish species richness in lakes at European scale that reported a decline in regional species richness in the northern and western regions due to influence of biogeographical aspects, such as barriers and glaciation events (Griffiths, 2006).

Primary productivity, as a measure of the amount of energy available at a base of the food webs, is presumably one of the major determinants of species richness and diversity (e.g. Currie, 1991), and primary productivity is strongly related to the TP-concentration in lakes. The increased energy available, and the greater food web complexity in more productive lakes, allow more species to coexist (Gaston, 2000). Here, we showed that agriculture in the catchment was the primary surrogate of natural predictors when using a geographically unbiased dataset (i.e. where Mediterranean and Scandinavian lake samples were more balanced), suggesting that anthropogenic stressors may have modified natural macroecological gradients of fish diversity in lakes. Similarly, when taking into account the most important geographical, climatic and morphometric differences between the lakes, both enhanced TP concentration and agriculture in the catchment contributed significantly to an increase in fish species richness and diversity. Thus, the anthropogenic effects on biodiversity become more visible at smaller geographical and morphometric scales whereas they are less obvious across larger spatial extents. This suggests that, even though global or continental bioassessment and evaluation of biodiversity is needed, they might be most effectively analysed and interpreted at smaller geographical scales (Heino, 2013).

Our results corroborate those of earlier studies covering smaller geographical gradients which revealed that the response of fish assemblages to changing productivity varies considerably depending on lake morphometry and fish species composition (Olin et al., 2002; Mehner et al., 2005, 2007). A dominant effect of lake morphometry over those induced by
anthropogenic descriptors was also found for broad-scale richness of benthic
macroinvertebrates, birds, and zooplankton (Allen et al., 1999). In turn, productivity was the main positive determinant of fish density in our study (Fig. 5), corroborating earlier studies on lake fish assemblages covering smaller geographical and trophic gradients (Jeppesen et al., 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 $20-25 \mu \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~L}^{-1}$ represents a threshold for a significant increase in lake fish numbers and biomass.

Our regression tree approach also detected some effects, hitherto poorly described, of temperature and lake morphometry on fish density. Thus, warmer and lower-altitude European lakes, which are usually more eutrophic, had higher fish density than cold and higher-altitude European lakes (Fig. 5). The temperature-related effects on fish density(both due to latitudinal or altitudinal differences) may act independently of lake trophic status since, for a similar TP concentration, we found generally a greater number of fish numbers in warm than in cold lakes. So far, similar findings had been found only for fish biomass in a comparative study of shallow subtropical and temperate lakes, showing a twofold higher fish biomass per unit of TP in the warmer subtropical lakes (Teixeira-de Mello et al., 2010).

With regard to fish body size, geographical and climatic factors remained the dominant predictors, but the effect of anthropogenic factors emerged when geographical differences between the lakes were taken into account. Most importantly, fish body size was larger in high-altitude than low-altitude lakes, and declined with increasing temperature (Fig. 5). These findings agree with previous studies on fish (Blanck \& Lamouroux, 2007; Jeppesen et al., 2010) and invertebrates [e.g. beetles, Vamosi \& Vamosi (2007);zooplankton, Gillooly \& Dodson (2000)] and support the predictions of the metabolic theory of ecology (Brown et al., 2004). Our results suggested a decrease in fish body size with enhanced eutrophication, which
is in accordance with previous local studies of fish and zooplankton (Jeppesen et al. 2000).
This decrease in fish body size with eutrophication was more obvious in higher altitude lakes, which are naturally more oligotrophic than those at lower altitudes, and suggests that, in the former, fish assemblages may be more sensitive to changes in lake productivity.

In our study, body size was also associated with the amplitude of temperature and precipitation, variables that are both highly correlated with longitude. The results suggest that lakes in Eastern Europe, normally exhibiting greater variations in temperature, and higher summer temperatures, tend to have smaller fish. Supporting this argument, Carlson, Olsen \& Vøllestad (2008) found that small body size could be an advantage for fish inhabiting strongly seasonal environments. The positive relationship between fish density and air temperature, and smaller fish in warmer lakes, agrees with the results of cross-comparisons of fish populations in Europe. They showed that fish species from lower latitudes are typically smaller, grow faster, mature earlier, and have shorter life spans and allocate less energy (as gonadosomatic index) to reproduction than populations and species at higher latitudes (Griffiths, 2006; Blanck \& Lamouroux, 2007; Jeppesen et al., 2010). Such changes are evident even in the same species along a latitudinal gradient (Blanck \& Lamouroux, 2007; Jeppesen et al., 2010).

Overall, our results indicated that larger and deeper lakes in warmer areas were the richest 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).

Differences in maximum temperature made a similar contribution to fish species richness as did lake area. Similarly, diversity indices were mainly influenced by maximum temperature which agrees with a recent model, supported by terrestrial, freshwater, and marine taxa data, that quantifies the role of biochemical kinetics in generating biodiversity (Allen, Brown \& Gillooly, 2002). According to this model, environmental temperature, through its effects on individual metabolic rates, influences the rates of genetic divergence among populations and rates of speciation in communities. In our analysis, lake altitude appeared as the main surrogate for the maximum temperature in the fish diversity regression trees. The effects of altitude on fish diversity can probably be attributed to its direct barrier effects on colonization and its indirect effects due to collinearity with temperature, which is in accordance with the findings in a previous study of lakes in China (Zhao et al., 2006).

Apart from eutrophication, we did not find any effect of anthropogenic alterations, such as hydrological and morphometric degradation, on fish diversity in lakes. This result agrees with a previous study in German lakes (Mehner et al., 2005). In contrast to our findings, previous studies restricted to North American lakes, in which lake shores were sampled by electrofishing (e.g. Jennings et al., 1999; Schindler, Geib \& Williams, 2000), have shown that fish richness declines in response to shoreline modifications and that the strength of the changes depends on the complexity of the artificially created habitats (Jennings et al., 1999). The weak effect of hydromorphological pressures on fish diversity in European may be attributable to the fact that, in some cases, our measures were based on expert judgment, which might be too coarse to detect subtle impacts. It could also be attributed to the fact that the respective information was available only for a small subset of lakes. Nevertheless, when the same analyses were carried out using only these lakes where the information was available, the main variables determining the fish diversity descriptors did not change. Therefore, the opposite outcomes between European and North-American studies suggest
that: (1) fish in European lakes are less sensitive or are more resilient to these anthropogenic pressures, or (2) the impact of these pressures is obscured by the effect of strong biological interactions, such as predation and competition, in European lakes, or that (3) a strong effect is only seen if a certain degree of pressure intensity is exceeded which was not the case for the lakes included here. Additionally, (4) we cannot exclude the possibility of an effect of hydromorphological pressures on some others traits that were measured in North American fish but were not measured in our study (e.g. small cyprinids). Furthermore, gillnet sampling may not be the most effective method to document the effects of hydromorphological pressures, since these pressures may mostly influence shoreline fish assemblages, which are more reliably monitored by electrofishing (Diekmann et al., 2005; Erős et al., 2009). It is highly likely that all these explanations strongly interact in causing the differing response of temperate fish diversity to anthropogenic stressors between Europe and North America. The regional fish diversity in Europe is highly depauperate compared to North America, mainly as a consequence of the relative importance of historical processes such as glaciations (Tonn et al., 1990, Griffiths, 2006). Therefore, the dominant fish species in Europe are less specialized, have broader niches, and a more flexible life history than their American counterparts (Tonn et al., 1990), making them less vulnerable to the effects of anthropogenic stressors. In turn, the fish diversity in European lakes is less variable, and hence less sensitive to local predictors, than is found in similar studies of North-American fish assemblages. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude that pelagic gillnet data used in this study could have led to an underestimation of fish richness and thus may not adequately represent total lake diversity (Erős et al., 2009).

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

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by using smaller, more balanced training sets, better models were overall obtained, which 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.

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Chin's lok

Table 1. Fish descriptors and explanatory variables analysed, their minima, means and maxima. The percentage of lakes for each level of the categorical variables is also shown (from 1, less pressure to 5 , more pressure). n, number of lakes; $\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}$, diversity based on fish number ; $\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$, diversity based on fish biomass.
12
13
14
15 Fish descriptors

16Fish number (number fish net $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~h}^{-1}$ )

| 0.09 | $<0.01$ | 1.69 | 0.13 | 1632 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3.20 | 0.01 | 29.09 | 3.04 | 1632 |
| 5.23 | 1 | 17 | 2.80 | 1632 |
| 1.20 | 0 | 2.78 | 0.59 | 1632 |
| 1.49 | 0 | 2.99 | 0.65 | 1632 |
| 55.79 | 0.76 | 981.56 | 68.47 | 1632 |

17Fish biomass ( g fish net $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~h}^{-1}$ )
${ }^{18}$ Richness
${ }_{20}^{19} \mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}$
${ }_{21} \mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$
22Body size (BPUE:NPUE; g WW)
23
${ }_{25}^{24}$ Lake morphometry
${ }_{26}^{25}$ Lake area $\left(\mathrm{km}^{2}\right)$
27 Maximum depth (m)
28Mean depth (m)
29
${ }_{31}^{30}$ Climate
${ }_{32} \mathrm{Sum}$ of precipitation (mm)
33 Mean temperature $\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$
34Minimum temperature $\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$
35 Maximum temperature $\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$
${ }_{37}^{36}$ Amplitude temperature $\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$
38
39Location

| 40Latitude $\left(^{\circ}\right.$ ) | 57.4109 | 41.9697 | 69.6972 | 4.28 | 1632 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{41}$ Longitude ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) | 1.3000 | -10.1763 | 31.3019 | 7.43 | 1632 |  |
| ${ }_{43}^{42}$ Altitude (m) | 186.6 | -1.00 | 1739 | 206.6 | 1593 |  |
| 44 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 45Pressures (continuous) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $46^{\mathrm{pH}}$ | 7.09 | 6.00 | 9.95 | 0.78 | 1214 |  |
| ${ }^{4}$ Total phosphorus ( $\mu \mathrm{g} \mathrm{L}{ }^{-1}$ ) | 40.1 | 1.0 | 3334.0 | 128.6 | 918 |  |
| ${ }_{49}^{48}$ Percentage agriculture land cover (\%) | 22.7 | 0 | 100 | 27.5 | 727 |  |
| ${ }_{50}$ Percentage natural land cover (\%) | 72.0 | 0 | 100 | 30.2 | 732 |  |
| 51Percentage of shoreline bank modified 52 | 17.2 | 0 | 100 | 25.4 | 111 |  |
| 53 54 | Percentage of lakes |  |  |  |  |  |
| 55 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | n |
| 56Pressures (categorical) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 57Population density class | 2.8 | 73.1 | 11.2 | 1.0 | -- | 718 |
| ${ }_{59}^{58}$ Morphometric pressures (shoreline | 36.9 | 2.0 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 668 |

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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 $P$-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), $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ (maximum

711 temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\min }$ (minimum temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\text {mean }}$ (mean temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}$ (amplitude of 712 temperature), Precip (Precipitation), Altit (Altitude), TP (total phosphorus), $\mathrm{Z}_{\max }$ (maximum

713 depth), \%agric (percentage of agricultural land cover), \%nat (percentage of agricultural land 714 cover).

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| 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 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 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 |
| $\mathrm{~T}_{\max }$ | $<0.001$ | 0.657 | -- | 0.487 | 0.603 | -0.269 | -0.298 | -0.580 | 0.063 | 0.369 | -0.104 | 0.428 | -0.422 | 0.337 |
| $\mathrm{~T}_{\text {min }}$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- | 0.981 | -0.929 | 0.325 | -0.499 | -0.012 | 0.422 | -0.114 | 0.603 | -0.554 | 0.438 |
| $\mathrm{~T}_{\text {mean }}$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- | -0.858 | 0.236 | -0.566 | 0.016 | 0.444 | -0.105 | 0.655 | -0.602 | 0.494 |
| $\mathrm{~T}_{\text {amp }}$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- | -0.457 | 0.344 | 0.057 | -0.349 | 0.123 | -0.477 | 0.432 | -0.303 |
| 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 |
| 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 |
| 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 |
| TP | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | 0.881 | $<0.001$ | 0.032 | -- | -0.440 | 0.568 | -0.603 | 0.423 |
| Z | $<0.001$ | 0.004 | $<0.001$ | 0.001 | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- | -0.223 | 0.259 | 0.041 |
| magric | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | 0.004 | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- | -0.912 | 0.663 |
| $\%$ 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 |
| pH | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | 0.472 | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | 0.157 | $<0.001$ | $<0.001$ | -- |

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28 Total Variance
29 explained
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31Node
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28 Total Variance 30 31 Node 1
1
Threshold
Variance
explained

727 Table 3. Results of regression tree analysis ( $\mathrm{n}=1632$ lakes) for each fish assemblage descriptor. Main variables, thresholds defining each node and percentage of variance explained are listed. For each node main surrogate variables (i.e. those with maximum agreement) are shown in brackets (first two main surrogates for the node explaining the highest variance and the first one for the rest of the nodes). Fish number (NPUE), fish biomass (BPUE), diversity based on fish number ( $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{NPUE}}$ ), diversity based on fish biomass ( $\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$ ), and body size. TP (total phosphorus), $\mathrm{T}_{\text {max }}$ (maximum temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\text {amp }}$ (amplitude of temperature), $\mathrm{Z}_{\text {max }}$ (maximum depth).

## Regression Tree

2
Threshold


Variance explained

3
Threshold
$\underset{\text { (latitude) }}{\mathrm{T}_{\max }}$
$16.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { area } \\
\left(\mathrm{Z}_{\max }\right) \\
0.50 \mathrm{~km}^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

Variance
explained

$$
14 \%
$$

| $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ |
| :---: |
| (altitude) |

$13.6^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
(-)altitude
$\left(\mathrm{T}_{\max }\right)$
248.3 m

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { area } \\
\left(\mathrm{Z}_{\max }\right) \\
0.67 \mathrm{~km}^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

area
(precipitation)
$0.31 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$
$5 \%$
area
$\left(\mathrm{Z}_{\max }\right)$
$0.67 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$

| (-)altitude |
| :---: |
| (latitude) |

108.4
$3 \%$

$\mathrm{~T}_{\max }$
(altitude)
$12.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$


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| 14 |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 15 | 736 |

$16 \quad 737$
$17 \quad 738$
$18 \quad 739$
$19 \quad 740$

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742
$23 \quad 743$
$24 \quad 744$
$25 \quad 745$
$26 \quad 746$
27
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$29 \quad 748$
$30 \quad 749$
$31 \quad 750$
32751
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## 37

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## 52

## 22

 2324 25 27 otal variance $29 x p l a i n e d$ 28

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Table 4. Results of regression tree analysis for each fish assemblage descriptor using a reduced dataset where lakes where evenly distributed among three latitude and four longitude categories ( $\mathrm{n}=272$ lakes). The variables defining the first node and their thresholds are listed. Main surrogate variable is given in brackets. Fish number (NPUE), fish biomass (BPUE), diversity based on fish number $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}\right)$, diversity based on fish biomass $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{BPUE}}\right)$, and body size. TP (total phosphorus), $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ (maximum temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\text {amp }}$ (amplitude of temperature), $\mathrm{Z}_{\max }$ (maximum depth).

Regression Tree

|  | Richness | $\mathbf{H}_{\text {NPUE }}$ | $\mathbf{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$ | Body size | NPUE | BPUE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| xplained |  |  |  |  |  |  |

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

| Variable | data set | Factor | AICc | $P$ value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Richness | $\begin{aligned} & \text { small lakes } \\ & <0.68 \mathrm{~km}^{2} \end{aligned}$ | $\lg$ TP | 2484.14 | 0.539 |
|  |  | lg \% agriculture | 1783.59 | 0.001 |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP | 6846.64 | 0.972 |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | 0.233 |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | 0.230 |
|  | large lakes$>0.68 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ | $\lg$ TP | 2983.26 | 0.036 |
|  |  | lg \% agriculture | 6620.03 | 0.011 |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP | 45166.61 | 0.561 |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | 0.159 |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | 0.428 |
| $\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}$ | cold lakes$<15.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | lg TP | 1374.94 | <0.001 |
|  |  | $\lg$ \% agriculture | 1949.45 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP | 8437.30 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { warm lakes } \\ & >15.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \end{aligned}$ | $\operatorname{lg~TP}$ | 989.13 | <0.001 |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture | 2467.83 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP |  | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
| $\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$ | cold lakes$<15.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | $\lg$ TP | 1475.74 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture | 1997.03 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP | 8439.77 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  | warm lakes$>15.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | $\operatorname{lg~TP}$ | 1011.18 | <0.001 |
|  |  | $\lg$ \% 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 |
|  | $<484.2 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l. | $\lg \%$ agriculture | 8568.76 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg$ TP | 28169.67 | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |
|  |  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | $<0.001$ |


| higher altitude | $\lg$ TP | 902.08 | $<0.001$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $>484.2 \mathrm{~m}$ a.s.l . | lg \% agriculture | 566.88 | <0.001 |
|  | $\lg \mathrm{TP}$ |  | $<0.001$ |
|  | $\lg$ \% agriculture |  | <0.001 |
|  | $\lg \mathrm{TP} * \lg \%$ agriculture |  | <0.001 |

## FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Geographical distribution of the 1632 lakes across 11 European countries (black circles) and balanced dataset with 272 lakes (white triangles).

Figure 2. Regression trees of fish assemblage descriptors for 1632 European lakes. The higher a variable in the tree, the more important it is for differentiating fish assemblage descriptors. Each node of the tree is described by the splitting variable. The longer the line, the higher the variance explained by the splitting variable. Each leaf is labelled with the mean rating and the number of observations in the group (in parentheses). For surrogate variables and explained variance see Table 3. Fish number (NPUE; number fish net $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~h}^{-1}$ ), fish biomass (BPUE; g fish net $\mathrm{m}^{-2} \mathrm{~h}^{-1}$ ), diversity based on fish number $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}\right)$, diversity based on fish biomass ( $\mathrm{H}_{\text {BPUE }}$ ), and body size (BPUE:NPUE ratio; g wet weight). TP (total phosphorus), $\mathrm{T}_{\max }$ (maximum temperature), $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{amp}}$ (amplitude of temperature), $\mathrm{Z}_{\max }$ (maximum depth).

Figure 3. Box-plot showing the abundance of fish (NPUE) in different TP (total phosphorus) classes $\left(\mu \mathrm{g} \mathrm{L}^{-1}\right)$ for two lake categories defined by the regression tree in Table 3: cold lakes $\left(\mathrm{T}_{\max }<15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ and warm lakes $\left(\mathrm{T}_{\max }>15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$. Minimum and maximum number of lakes within box-plots are one and 91, respectively for cold lakes, and 26 and 166, respectively for warm lakes. $\mathrm{T}_{\text {max }}$ (maximum temperature).





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Figure 4. Effects of total phosphorus and agricultural land cover on fish descriptors (see Table 5 for statistical results). Estimated marginal means (Generalized linear models) for each fish descriptor are shown. Fish diversity based on fish number $\left(\mathrm{H}_{\text {NPUE }}\right)$, diversity based on fish biomass ( $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{BPUE}}$ ).

Figure 5. Scheme showing changes (increase and decrease) for each fish assemblage descriptor in European lakes. Main variables driving changes in each descriptor are given in bold.


Figure 1



Figure 3


Figure 4


Figure 5

$160 \times 129 \mathrm{~mm}(287 \times 287$ DPI)

$215 \times 290 \mathrm{~mm}(300 \times 300$ DPI)

$65 \times 54 \mathrm{~mm}(300 \times 300$ DPI)

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$210 \times 276 \mathrm{~mm}(300 \times 300$ DPI)

$41 \times 21 \mathrm{~mm}(300 \times 300$ DPI)


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