

Article (refereed) - postprint

Arranz, Ignasi; Mehner, Thomas; Benejam, Lluís; Argillier, Christine; Holmgren, Kerstin; Jeppesen, Erik; Lauridsen, Torben L.; Volta, Pietro; Winfield, Ian J.; Brucet, Sandra. 2016. **Density-dependent effects as key drivers of intraspecific size structure of six abundant fish species in lakes across Europe** [in special issue: Size-based approaches in aquatic ecology and fisheries science: a symposium in honour of Rob Peters]. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 73 (4). 519-534.
[10.1139/cjfas-2014-0508](https://doi.org/10.1139/cjfas-2014-0508)

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1 **Density-dependent effects as key drivers of intraspecific size structure of six**
2 **abundant fish species in lakes across Europe**

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30 **ABSTRACT**

31 We studied fish size structure by using mean size, size diversity and the slope of linear size spectra of six
32 common European fish species and compared whether these variables responded to the same large-
33 scale continental gradients. We also included relative estimates of abundance (catch per unit effort,
34 CPUE) as an indicator of density-dependent effects in order to assess whether they also modify the size
35 structure of fish populations. We found differences in the strength of main predictors of size structure
36 between the six species, but the direction of the response was relatively similar and consistent for most
37 of the size metrics. Mean body size was negatively related to temperature, for perch, roach and ruffe.
38 Lake productivity (expressed as total phosphorus concentration) and lake depth were also predictors of
39 size structure for four out of six species. Moreover, we found a strong density dependence of size
40 structure for all species, resulting in lower mean body size and size diversity and steeper size spectra
41 slopes. This suggests that density dependence is a key driver of fish size structure.

42 **Key words:** environmental gradient, density-dependent effect, size structure, fish life history

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49 Introduction

50 Size structure has traditionally been used for elucidating trophic interactions and patterns of energy
51 transfer through trophic levels (Jennings et al. 2002; Woodward et al. 2005; Trebilco et al. 2013). Recent
52 studies have revealed variation in the size structure of fish communities across continental gradients
53 induced by climate-related variables as well as variations in taxonomic composition (Mims and Olden
54 2012; Emmrich et al. 2014).

55 Besides temperature, productivity of local systems also modifies fish community size structure
56 (Jeppesen et al. 2000; Bruce et al. 2013). In Northern temperate regions, the shift in fish size structure
57 along the productivity gradient is reflected in part by changes in species composition from nutrient-rich
58 lakes being dominated by cyprinids to more nutrient-poor lakes dominated by percids or salmonids
59 (Persson et al. 1988; Bergman 1991), but also by intra- and interspecific competition and perhaps
60 reduced predation by piscivores (Persson et al., 1998; Jeppesen et al. 2000; Bruce et al. 2013). Lake
61 morphometry (area and depth) also influences the shape of the size structure of fish communities
62 (Holmgren and Appelberg 2000; Emmrich et al. 2014) due to its strong impact on structural complexity,
63 niche availability and temperature. The ecosystem size rules predict that the shape of body size
64 distributions will change because of the increase of number of trophic levels (Vander Zanden et al. 1999)
65 and the higher abundance of predatory fish species (Allen et al. 2006). As such, high habitat diversity is
66 more likely to exhibit a higher abundance of large fish and a wider range of size classes (Holmgren and
67 Appelberg 2000; Emmrich et al. 2011).

68 Variation in the size structure of selected species over large geographical gradients has occasionally
69 been demonstrated (e.g. in Europe, Heibo et al. 2005; Blanck and Lamouroux 2007; or in North America,
70 Knouft 2004). For example, at a continental scale, Eurasian perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) populations follow
71 the temperature-size rule (Bergmann 1847) with fish body size being smaller in the warmer lakes (Heibo

72 et al. 2005; Jeppesen et al. 2012). This pattern has repeatedly been found for the size structure of entire
73 fish communities (Edeline et al. 2013; Bruce et al. 2013; Emmrich et al. 2014), but it is not universal at
74 the species level (Belk and Houston 2002).

75 Variations in fish density typically induce substantial changes in the growth rates of individuals, triggered
76 by food resource or habitat availability (Byström and García-Berthou 1999). Dietary shifts are
77 furthermore expected to result from strong size-dependent intraspecific interactions (Persson 1987) and
78 may lead to stunted populations (Ylikarjula et al. 2000). However, most previous work on size structure
79 at the species level has been based on a few lakes or dynamical models, while potential density-
80 dependent effects on the size structure of fish species over large-scale gradients have not yet been
81 evaluated.

82 We analysed the size structure of six common freshwater fish species by measuring mean size, size
83 diversity and the slope of linear size spectra in several hundred European lakes. Our objective was to
84 assess which environmental variables influenced the variation in size structure of the selected fish
85 species at continental scale. We hypothesised that the changes in size structure for all species in
86 response to local temperature, productivity and lake morphometry would be consistent with those
87 found for the community-wide variation in fish size structure (Emmrich et al. 2014). Since fish density
88 modifies the availability of food resources, which affects fish growth rates, we hypothesised that
89 density-dependent effects would also contribute to shifts in species-specific size structures by
90 decreasing mean body size, size diversity and size spectra slopes when density increases. We therefore
91 included relative estimates of abundance (catch per unit effort, CPUE) as an approximation of density
92 dependence to explore potential modifications in size structure, and hence life history, caused by fish
93 density in the lakes.

94

95 **Material and methods**

96 **Dataset**

97 We used the dataset from the EU project WISER (Water bodies in Europe: Integrative Systems to assess
98 Ecological status and Recovery) created during a European intercalibration process with 1632 lakes,
99 considering exclusively, though, the lakes based on the same systematic approach with complete fish
100 assemblage and limnological information (Bruçet et al. 2013). Individual body-size information was only
101 available on a subset of 356 lakes (317 natural lakes and 39 reservoirs) covering nine European
102 ecoregions (Illies 1978) and eight countries along a latitudinal gradient between 41.96 and 69.69°N and
103 a longitudinal gradient between 10.17 and 31.30°E (Fig. 1).

104 In cases of multiple sampling years (mainly Swedish lakes), we always selected the data from the most
105 recent sampling campaign. In addition, we obtained corresponding information on 19 reservoirs from
106 the Ebro River basin in Spain, which were sampled following the same standardised procedure (CEN
107 2005) (reports from *Confederación Hidrográfica del Ebro*, CHE 2008-2012); the data were, therefore,
108 comparable with the European lakes included in the WISER project. In summary, our dataset
109 encompassed a total of 375 European lakes and reservoirs from nine countries and ten ecoregions along
110 a latitudinal gradient between 40.81 and 69.69°N (Fig. 1).

111 **Sampling**

112 All fish were caught in accordance with the European standard (CEN 2005) during late summer and early
113 autumn by using benthic multi-mesh gillnets (type NORDEN: length 30 m; height 1.5 m; 12 panels of 2.5
114 m each with mesh sizes between 5.0 and 55 mm knot to knot in a geometric series). These different
115 mesh sizes allow catching of a wide range of fish sizes and can be used to estimate the size structure of
116 fish populations in a cost-effective way (Appelberg et al. 1995; CEN 2005). The number of nets to be

117 used is determined by lake morphology (area and depth) and these nets were set randomly in all depth
118 strata of the lakes. All nets were left for approximately 12 hours overnight due to the fact that gillnet
119 catch is highly dependent on fish activity (Prchalová et al. 2009). To ensure comparable individual body
120 size measurements and fish densities, the total fishing effort per lake (number of nets) was standardised
121 by lake area and maximum depth according to CEN 14757 (2005). Fish catches were expressed as lake-
122 specific catch per unit effort (CPUE) and were standardised by calculating the average number of fish
123 caught per net and night in each lake. We used four lakes sampled for more than 20 years to estimate
124 the inter-annual variability (and hence uncertainty) of CPUE values (unpublished data). CPUE of the
125 three species found in these lakes, perch, roach (*Rutilus rutilus*), and ruffe (*Gymnocephalus cernuus*),
126 showed relatively low variability (CPUE averages \pm SD 19.71 \pm 14.48, 8.34 \pm 3.07 and 0.73 \pm 0.32, in the lake
127 with highest variability for perch, roach and ruffe, respectively). The exception was perch population in
128 the lake with at the highest latitude for which one-year-old individuals dominated the catches in 1997.
129 Perch populations in lakes far north at the latitudinal edges of their distribution areas are the most
130 outstanding exceptions from low between-year variation (Holmgren 2013). Fish species were identified,
131 counted and individually measured to determine total length (TL, nearest cm) and fresh body mass (FM,
132 nearest g). For all Swedish lakes, FM was estimated by length-mass relationships from lakes in other
133 countries at the same latitudinal range. For German lakes, the sampling protocol was divided into two
134 different periods: autumn (late August to early October) and the subsequent spring (Mehner et al.
135 2005). The catches from both periods were summed up. For more details see Bruçet et al. (2013).

136 **Fish species selected**

137 Species selection was hierarchically guided by the following requirements: (1) the species had to be
138 present in a representative number of lakes (minimum 20 lakes, Table 1); (2) their presence should
139 encompass a sufficiently widespread area (minimum five ecoregions, Table 1). Accordingly, six species

140 were chosen (Table 1): the percids perch, ruffe and zander (*Sander lucioperca*), and the cyprinids roach,
141 common bream (*Abramis brama*) and white bream (*Blicca bjoerkna*). Perch and zander are typically
142 piscivorous fish, and both undergo size-related ontogenetic niche shifts. Ruffe, common bream and
143 white bream feed on cladocerans, copepods and benthic macroinvertebrates such as midge larvae
144 (Chironomidae) or mussels (Nagelkerke and Sibbing 1996; Volta et al. 2013). Roach is a typical
145 omnivorous feeder with a diet mainly based on zooplankton, plant material and detritus (Bergman and
146 Greenberg 1994; García-Berthou 1999). Despite their presence in many lakes, we did not consider
147 typical pelagic species such as bleak (*Alburnus alburnus*) and vendace (*Coregonus albula*) because these
148 are not quantitatively well represented in benthic gillnet catches (Emmrich et al. 2012). To ensure a
149 reliable representation of each selected species, we included only lakes with at least 25 measured
150 individuals, which corresponds to an approximate 30% error of size diversity estimation.

151 **Size metrics corresponding to size structure**

152 Three size metrics were calculated from the measurements of individual fish body size for each
153 population: geometric mean body size, the slope of linear size spectrum (both based on fish mass), and
154 size diversity (based on fish length). We combined metrics for fish mass and length to ensure that the
155 response of fish size structure along gradients is adequately captured.

156 Mean body size expressed as geometric mean mass is a general descriptor for assessing interspecific
157 gradients in the size structure of fish communities (Emmrich et al. 2011, 2014). Size diversity was
158 calculated following a nonparametric methodology of Quintana et al. (2008), which is an analogue of the
159 Shannon diversity index but adapted for continuous variables (herein fish total length). For size diversity,
160 we used fish total lengths because our earlier work showed a significant response of length diversity to
161 environmental gradients (Emmrich et al. 2011). The index was computed using individual size
162 measurements (Bruçet et al. 2006; Quintana et al. 2008) for each lake following an integral formula:

$$(1) \quad \mu_2(x) = - \int_0^{\infty} \rho_x(x) \log_2 p_x(x) dx$$

163 Where μ_2 is the Shannon size diversity index and ρ_x is the probability density function (pdf; function
164 that describes the relative likelihood for a random variable to take on a given value) that an organism
165 belongs to a certain size class. The most appropriate approach to calculate the pdf is by using a non-
166 parametric Kernel estimation (Quintana et al. 2008). A kernel estimation is essentially a pdf, usually
167 symmetric, whose dispersion is controlled by a bandwidth parameter. The estimator is a sum of kernel
168 functions centered at the samples points, which can be applicable for most size distributions. Before
169 computing size diversity, the data is double standardised to 1) make the size data adimensional and 2)
170 make size data comparable with other studies whose samples are measured with different units, such as
171 length, weight or volume, without altering the results (Quintana et al. 2008). Size diversity integrates the
172 range of the size classes and the evenness, that is, the equitability of frequency across the size range; in
173 the same way as the Shannon diversity integrates the species composition and species relative
174 abundances. The single-value index condenses many different aspects of other size metrics into a single
175 comparable value (Bruce et al. 2006, 2010; Emmrich et al. 2011). Furthermore, size diversity is easy to
176 interpret since the concept of diversity has been well established. Low size diversity values imply high
177 accumulation of abundance within a specific size range, whereas high values mean similar proportions
178 of the different sizes along the size distribution. Negative values of size diversity may be found since the
179 method uses a continuous pdf for the probability estimation, and probability densities above one may
180 occur (Quintana et al. 2008).

181 The linear size spectrum was calculated as the regression between \log_2 midpoint of size classes (axis x)
182 and \log_2 total numbers per size class (axis y). The slope of the linear size spectrum is usually described by
183 a decreasing linear function in fish numbers as midpoint size class increases. Steeper slopes from the
184 linear size spectrum reflect high proportions of small fish, whereas flatter (less negative) slopes indicate

185 a high proportion of large fish (Emmrich et al. 2011). The number of size classes varied between the
186 species (Table 1) but always followed a \log_2 scale (1st class: $2^2=4$ g to $2^3=8$ g, 2nd class: $2^3=8$ to $2^4=16$ g,
187 etc.). Multimesh gillnets have been shown to describe well the size structure of populations of perch
188 and roach despite underestimation of the proportion of fish smaller than 6-8 cm TL (Prchalova et al.
189 2009). Hence, 1 to 4 g fish (i.e. fish in the first year of life) were underrepresented in our catches. These
190 small fish easily detect the wall of netting of the smallest mesh size and thus avoid it (Prchalová et al.
191 2009). Also, they tend to swim more slowly than larger fish and the probability of catching them is
192 proportional to body length (Rudstam et al. 1984). Accordingly, the few small fishes (<4 g) caught were
193 grouped in the first size class ($2^2=4$ g). Intermediate empty size classes were filled with zeroes. Although
194 there is some debate about the most appropriate way to deal with intermediate empty size classes
195 (Loder et al. 1997; Gómez-Canchong et al. 2013), we considered our approach appropriate for
196 comparison of large-scale patterns in the slope of the linear size spectrum. Furthermore, the frequency
197 of zero infilling for each of the species was less than 5% (less than 20% of the lakes had at least one
198 intermediate empty bin for each species), with the exception of zander for which 17.7% of intermediate
199 classes were filled by zeros (74% of the lakes had at least one intermediate empty size bin). Zander had
200 more empty bins because more size classes were covered (size range of 11 classes, Table 1) than e.g. in
201 ruffe (size range of 5 classes, Table 1).

202

203 **Predictors of size structure**

204 From a large set of predictors characterising lake geographical position, morphometry and productivity,
205 we retained six variables but excluded others that were most strongly correlated with the retained
206 predictors (Spearman's rank correlation $r_s > 0.6$ or $r_s < -0.6$) (Emmrich et al. 2011).

207 We used four environmental and morphometric predictors (Table A1): (1) total phosphorus
208 concentration (hereafter TP, $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) as a surrogate of lake productivity, (2) maximum depth (m) and (3)
209 lake area (ha). We excluded geographical position and instead used direct local climate data expressed
210 as (4) maximum monthly mean air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), which was calculated using the climate CRU
211 (Climatic Research Unit) model proposed by New et al. (2002). This specific model can obtain a spatial
212 resolution of 10' latitude/longitude and takes into account elevational differences between stations
213 (New et al. 2002). Previous studies have successfully used air temperature instead of indirect
214 temperature approximations based on geographical locations (Argillier et al. 2013; Brucet et al. 2013;
215 Emmrich et al. 2014).

216 Furthermore, two biotic predictors were included. We used the CPUEs as indicators of fish density to
217 infer their effects on size structure and assumed that high densities are approximations for low
218 individual resource availability and strong competition. However, because resource similarity is usually
219 stronger between individuals of the same species than between species, we split CPUE as a surrogate of
220 density dependence into (5) the intraspecific density-dependent effect (CPUE of the focal species,
221 hereafter, CPUE_{intra}) and (6) the interspecific density-dependent effect (sum of CPUE of the other five
222 potentially competing species, hereafter CPUE_{inter}). The sum of the six species in each lake was $82.2 \pm$
223 29.9% (SD) of total CPUE, and hence intra- and interspecific CPUE covered the large majority of total fish
224 available and the potential competition effects. No species in our list are strict feeding specialists and
225 most of them undergo ontogenetic niche/diet shifts (see Persson and Hansson 1999 for perch, common
226 bream and roach). Accordingly, all species were considered to compete for the same food resources, at
227 least during some part of their life. Finally, we did not consider predation effects on size structure
228 because earlier work in a subset of lakes has indicated an only limited effect of fish predation on fish
229 prey density and average size (Mehner 2010).

230 **Statistical analyses**

231 Some fish populations were characterised by unimodal (hump-shaped) or multimodal size distributions
232 (two or more distinct peaks) and hence deviated from linear size spectra. We only included linear slopes
233 for which their significance was $p < 0.10$. The two other size metrics (mean size and size diversity) were
234 calculated for all lakes. We graphically represented the cumulative frequency distribution of sizes for the
235 six species by using the total numbers per size class across all lakes (see Fig. A1).

236 General linear models (GLM) were used to identify which predictors were significantly related to the size
237 metrics of the six species. The six predictor variables mentioned above were \log_{10} transformed to meet
238 assumption of normality. Shapiro-Wilk tests and quartile-quartile plots indicated that the transformed
239 variables closely followed normal distributions. We also included the interaction between density-
240 dependent effects and productivity and lake depth (i.e. $\text{CPUE}_{\text{intra}} * \text{TP}$, $\text{CPUE}_{\text{intra}} * \text{Depth}$, $\text{CPUE}_{\text{inter}} * \text{TP}$
241 and $\text{CPUE}_{\text{inter}} * \text{Depth}$) because the latter two variables may influence the density-dependent effects on
242 fish size (i.e. in deeper lakes the effect of $\text{CPUE}_{\text{intra}}$ on fish size may be less intense than in shallow lakes
243 because coexistence of all size classes is facilitated by the large pelagic volume). The response variables
244 were mean body size, size diversity and the slope of linear size spectra. The level of significance for GLM
245 was established at 95% (0.05). Using GLM, we searched for the most parsimonious model by an
246 automatic stepwise backward selection of one predictor variable at a time, following the lowest Akaike's
247 information criterion (AIC) (Akaike 1974). The most parsimonious model was the combination of
248 variables having the strongest impact on outcomes. To account for moderate robustness of the stepwise
249 selection of variables, we further applied ANOVA to compare the most parsimonious final model (i.e. the
250 one with lowest AIC) with the next best model that included one more predictor. We used standardised
251 regression beta coefficients and the percentage of variance explained to compare the relative strength
252 of each significant predictor for each of the size metrics (Table 2). Multicollinearity can inflate the

253 variance amongst the selected predictors in the model. To identify which predictor was highly correlated
254 with the remaining ones, we examined the variance inflation factor (VIF) values. They were <2 in all
255 analyses, indicating a low degree of multicollinearity (Belsley, Kuh & Welsch 1980). We also included a
256 measure of model fitting to explain the deviance in percentage (Table 2). Residual partial plots for each
257 significant variable were then drawn to show the relationship between the predictor and the response
258 variables. All statistical analyses were conducted using package “MASS” (version 7.3; Venables and
259 Ripley 2002), “car” (version 2.0; Fox and Weisberg 2011), “QuantPsy” (version 1.5; Fletcher 2012) and
260 “BiodiversityR” (version 2.4-4; Kindt and Coe 2005) from the software R (version 3.0.2; R Development
261 Core Team 2008).

262 **Results**

263 **General patterns of occurrence and size structure**

264 The temperature range at which fish were found was relatively similar for all species across the
265 European lakes, the widest being recorded for roach and the narrowest for common bream (Table A1).
266 The depth of the lakes in which the species were present was also similar, but the TP and lake area
267 ranges differed among species (Table A1).

268 Zander had the highest number of size classes, from the smallest (1st class, 4-8 g) to the largest size class
269 (11th class, 4096-8192 g), whereas ruffe sizes covered only five classes (maximum 5th class, 64-128 g).

270 The proportion of lakes in which fish populations exhibited linear size spectra was relatively high for
271 perch (62.9%), ruffe (46.9%) and white bream (41.7%). In contrast, non-linear ($p>0.10$) size distributions
272 dominated in common bream, zander and roach populations (non-significant slopes in 76%, 75% and
273 68% of the lakes, respectively).

274 **Size structure predicted by environmental variables**

275 Mean body size of perch, roach and ruffe significantly decreased with increasing maximum
276 temperatures (Table 2, Fig. A2). The slope of linear size spectra for zander was also negatively related to
277 temperature, indicating a relative increase of small sizes in warmer lakes (e.g. Lake Figari from France
278 23.1 °C; Table 2, Fig. A3). In contrast, the size diversity of white bream and roach showed a positive
279 relationship with temperature, suggesting that a wider range of size classes occurred at warmer
280 temperatures (Table 2, Fig. A4).

281 Lake productivity (TP) affected size metrics for five out of the six species (Table 2, Appendices 3, 4 and
282 5). The mean size of ruffe, white bream and common bream, as well as the slope of the linear spectra of
283 ruffe and white bream, increased in highly productive lakes (e.g. Lake Audomarois from France $561 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$),
284 whereas the mean size of perch decreased with productivity. The size diversity of perch and roach
285 was negatively related to TP, indicating a narrower size range in highly productive lakes.

286 Size metrics were also influenced by lake depth and lake area. Size diversity increased with lake depth
287 for three species, and the slope of the linear spectra increased with depth for zander, indicating a flatter
288 size spectrum in deeper lakes (Table 2, Fig. A3). The slope of the linear spectra for perch became
289 significantly steeper with increasing lake area (Table 2, Fig. A3). There were some relationships with lake
290 area, with smaller sizes being observed for ruffe and perch and larger sizes for white bream in larger
291 lakes (Table 2, Appendices 3, 4 and 5).

292 **Size structure predicted by density-dependent effects**

293 There was a strong density-dependent effect on the variation in size structure for all species (Table 2,
294 Fig. 2 and Appendices 3 and 5). Particularly, lower mean size and steeper slopes (i.e. greater relative
295 abundance of small-sized individuals) occurred at higher CPUE_{intra} for five and four, respectively, out of
296 the six species (Table 2). Additionally, a negative response of size diversity to CPUE_{intra} was found for
297 three species (Appendices 3 and 5). In contrast, there was a weaker and less consistent effect for

298 CPUEinter (mean beta coefficients for CPUEintra and CPUEinter: 0.53 and 0.31, respectively). The mean
299 body size of perch and ruffe and the slope of the linear spectra of ruffe and zander responded negatively
300 to CPUEinter (Table 2, Appendices 3 and 4). In contrast, CPUEinter positively affected roach size diversity
301 and the slope of linear size spectra, suggesting a wider size range and flatter slopes at higher abundance
302 of the other five coexisting fish species (Table 2, Fig. A4). Finally, interactions terms were not significant
303 ($p>0.05$) except the interactions CPUEintra*TP and CPUEintra*Depth for the size diversity of perch
304 ($p\leq 0.001$ and $p\leq 0.01$, respectively).

305 **Discussion**

306 Our results showed some difference in main predictors and response strength (Table 2) to continental
307 environmental gradients between the six common fish species in European lakes, but the direction of
308 the response was relatively similar and consistent for most of the size metrics. For example,
309 temperature variations across Europe induced the same response for five of the six species, with fish
310 size declining at higher temperatures. Furthermore, productivity and lake depth were predictors of size
311 structure, whereas lake area had little effect on the size metrics. Overall, however, the potential
312 intraspecific density-dependent effect was the strongest and most consistent predictor of the variation
313 in the size structure of fish populations (Table 2).

314 Temperature affected the size metrics for perch, roach, ruffe, white bream and zander. These results are
315 in accordance with the Bergmann (1847) and Atkinson (1994) rules explaining that ectothermic animals
316 developing at higher temperature are relatively smaller as adults. However, temperature showed a
317 weaker effect as a predictor of population size structure compared with the effect that it had on the size
318 structure of the whole fish assemblage (Emmrich et al. 2014). Probably, the temperature effect is
319 masked by the strong density-dependent effect which has not been considered in the community-wide
320 analyses. Thus, our results suggest that, at least at species level, it is important to take into account

321 density-dependent effects when studying the influence of temperature on fish size structure. Mean size
322 of roach decreased at higher temperatures, but size diversity increased (Appendices 3 and 5). Studies in
323 Swedish lakes have shown that roach populations may attain > 20 cm and > 100 g already in their 4th
324 growth season in southern Sweden, whereas they often need at least twice as long to reach such size
325 further north (Jeppesen et al. 2010; Holmgren 2013). Likewise, in France, in warmer lakes and reservoirs,
326 high proportions of large roach often occur in the catches. These large roach have reached an anti-
327 predation window and are no longer available for most of the carnivorous species such as pike (*Esox*
328 *lucius*), pikeperch or perch (Wysujack and Mehner 2002; Schlumberger and Elie 2008).

329 Lake productivity (TP) mainly affected the size structure of perch, roach and ruffe and the congeneric
330 species, i.e. common bream and white bream. At the community level, Jeppesen et al. (2000) and Bruce
331 et al. (2013) have found a decrease in the mean body size of fish in lakes with increasing TP. Our results
332 at species level partially contrast these findings since the mean body size of perch decreased, whereas
333 the mean body size of white and common bream and ruffe, and the proportion of large individuals of
334 ruffe and white bream, increased in highly productive lakes. The differing species responses may be due
335 to their different feeding strategies. Perch is a visual hunter depending on good light conditions, and
336 hence perch feeding rates may decrease at higher productivity and algal turbidity. In contrast, the other
337 species are successful predators in turbid waters (Bergman 1991; Lammens et al. 1992). Studies on both
338 bream species (Olin et al. 2002) and on ruffe (Persson et al. 1991) showed that these species dominated
339 the catches at enhanced TP concentrations. There was a negative response of the size diversity of perch
340 and roach to lake productivity as shown by low size diversity in the highly productive Lake Bordeaux
341 ($561 \mu\text{g TP L}^{-1}$) and Lake Schwielochsee ($260 \mu\text{g TP L}^{-1}$). Roach can be both a prey and a competitor for
342 perch (Persson 1988). Thus, the decrease in mean body size of perch with increasing productivity can be
343 related to competition between small juvenile perch and roach, reducing both juvenile and adult growth
344 and thereby the number of size classes of both species.

345 Lake morphometry (area and depth) affected the size structure of almost all species, but the strength of
346 the response was relatively weak for all size metrics. Our results demonstrated that lake depth is a
347 better predictor than lake area of the variation in size structure. Size diversity showed a consistent
348 response to lake depth and area, and populations with large fish were found in deeper and larger lakes.
349 However, the morphometric variables seem to be poor predictors of the shifts in slopes of linear size
350 spectra. A (positive) correlation between lake depth and slope of the linear size spectra was found only
351 for zander and a negative one only for perch. Zander is the largest species in our study and greater
352 proportions of large individuals were found in larger lakes, probably as a result of higher niche
353 availability, reducing competition and providing habitats to more different age (size) classes (Persson
354 1983).

355 Besides abiotic predictors, we found strong density dependence of size structure for almost all species,
356 which corroborates the substantial changes in growth rates when fish compete for food resources
357 (Byström and García-Berthou 1999). However, interspecific density-dependent effects were weaker
358 predictors than the intraspecific density-dependent effects (Table 2). According to our results,
359 disproportionately more small than large fish are added at higher population densities, as reflected by
360 lower mean body size, fewer size classes (i.e. lower size diversity) and steeper slopes (i.e. higher
361 proportions of small fish). An exception is the pattern of roach populations whose size diversity and
362 slope of linear spectra responded positively to the interspecific density, indicating wider size
363 distributions and greater proportions of larger individuals when roach coexist with one or more of the
364 other five species. Large roach coexisting with many competitors (i.e., high CPUE_{inter}) were found
365 primarily in shallow productive lakes. In these lakes, growth of roach is stimulated by utilisation of
366 unique diet components, mainly cyanobacteria and detritus, which cannot be used by other competing
367 species such as perch (Persson and Greenberg 1990; Bergman and Greenberg 1994). Because density
368 and growth rates in fish are usually negatively correlated (Lorenzen and Enberg 2001), the positive

369 correlation between CPUE_{inter} and the size metrics of roach may in turn suggest a decrease of growth
370 rates and hence recruitment of the competing species that exploit the same resource less efficiently (in
371 our study reflected by a reduction in the mean body size of perch and ruffe). Although we do not have
372 the age structure of each population to corroborate recruitment dynamics, our result is similar to those
373 from an empirical experiment with roach, perch and ruffe (Bergman and Greenberg 1994), showing
374 decreased abundance of perch because they were competitively sandwiched between planktivorous
375 (i.e. roach) and benthivorous (i.e. ruffe) species. Our analysis included only one year of survey in each
376 lake and thus did not capture the inter-annual recruitment variability that may affect the size structure.
377 Some European studies give examples of high between-year fluctuations of recruitment on perch
378 (Tolonen et al 2003) or roach and other cyprinids (e.g. Mills & Mann 1995; Kahl et al. 2008). In contrast,
379 studies of Swedish lakes from which results of multiple years of sampling are available indicated a
380 relatively low between-year variation in recruitment for perch and roach (Holmgren 2013; Holmgren
381 2014). As an example, the mean size of the dominant species perch, roach and ruffe sampled for more
382 than twenty years in four Swedish lakes show relatively low variability, which may reflect a relatively
383 constant annual recruitment, except for perch at the highest latitude in the dataset (Lake Jutsajaure, Fig.
384 A5). On the other hand, our study expands a large-scale data set and recruitment variability may be
385 integrated in part with the latitudinal gradient.

386 The increased abundance of small size classes at higher population densities may reflect a decline in
387 growth rates (stunted growth) at high fish densities. Stunted growth of fish population as a result of
388 density-dependent effects is a common phenomenon (Sandheinrich and Hubert 1984; Ylikarjula et al.
389 2000), which may contribute to the overall pattern observed in our analysis. This is theoretically
390 included in both the Beverton-Holt (1957) and Ricker (1954) stock recruitment curves predicting lower
391 recruitment when fish reproduction exceeds the carrying capacity of the system. If stunted populations
392 exhibit extremely slow growth and early maturity in lakes with higher fish densities, then a systematic

393 downward shift of slopes is plausible. An example is the temporal study of the vendace population in a
394 Swedish lake (Hamrin and Persson 1986) where stunting of older age classes was ascribed to
395 competitive superiority of small fish relative to larger conspecifics due to their lower metabolic
396 requirements and foraging energetics. Alternatively, the density dependence of the slopes of linear size
397 spectra may be considered a mathematical artifact. Normally, there is a negative correlation between
398 the intercept and the slope of linear size spectra (Gómez-Canchong et al. 2013) and the intercept
399 strongly correlates with the total abundance of fish (Sprules and Munawar 1986). Therefore, higher
400 abundances may result in steeper slopes. However, it has to be mentioned that mean size (as based on
401 fish mass) and size diversity (as based on fish length) also showed density-dependent effects, which
402 suggests that steeper slopes at higher densities represent ecological effects.

403 We found weakly important, but significant interactions between $CPUE_{intra} * TP$ and $CPUE_{intra} * Depth$ as
404 predictors of size diversity, but only in perch. The interactions suggest that the negative effect of density
405 on size diversity of perch was strongest in shallow lakes at high TP in which perch is outcompeted by the
406 large roach because the availability of benthic diet for perch is low (Persson and Greenberg, 1990). In
407 turn, perch grow better in deep lakes at low TP because availability of benthic macroinvertebrates as
408 preferred diet of perch of intermediate size is high under these conditions (Persson 1983). These results
409 show that lake morphometry, productivity, fish density and growth can be strongly linked in some
410 species. Nevertheless, significant interactions of CPUE with TP and lake depth were found only for one
411 size metric and one fish species.

412 The present study is the first to compare congruence in intraspecific variability in the size structure of
413 European fish species along a continental gradient, and our results indicate that density-dependent
414 effects are a key driver of fish size structure. However, more research is needed to unravel the variation
415 in the slope of linear size spectra in relation to density dependence, for example by studying the

416 temporal evolution of the slope in lakes showing interannual variations in fish densities. In contrast,
417 substantial differences in the size structure of populations between lakes were only marginally affected
418 by environmental variables, except for temperature. Our study indicates that the size structure of the
419 selected species cannot be used as unequivocal indicator of environmental changes, which contrasts the
420 consistency at community level found by Emmrich et al. (2014). Unfortunately, the intraspecific
421 variation in size structure cannot be directly translated into a defined life history strategy along the
422 triangular scheme (Winemiller and Rose 1992), which contrasts the review by Heibo et al. (2005) for
423 perch populations. Therefore, finding approaches which approximate life history from size variables also
424 routinely measured in fish monitoring may be a major step to improve the programmes for managing
425 and monitoring inland waters in the face of the ongoing global climate change.

426 **Acknowledgments**

427 This work was partially supported by the WISER project (Water bodies in Europe: Integrative Systems to
428 assess Ecological status and Recovery) funded by the European Union under the 7th Framework
429 Programme, Theme 6 (Environment including Climate Change, contract no. 226273). Data from Spanish
430 reservoirs were obtained through projects funded by Confederación Hidrográfica del Ebro (CHE). We
431 thank Thomas Boll for efficiently providing the environmental variables for some of the lakes. We also
432 thank the lecturer and the participants in the workshop “Scientific Writing” at the Leibniz-institute of
433 Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries for helpful discussions at an early stage of the manuscript. KH
434 was supported by the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency (Dnr 10/179) and the Swedish Agency
435 for Marine and Water Management through a contract for the research programme WATERS. EJ, CA and
436 TLL were further supported by the MARS project (Managing Aquatic ecosystems and water Resources
437 under multiple Stress) funded under the 7th EU Framework Programme, Theme 6 (Environment
438 including Climate Change, contract no. 603378). SB’s contribution was supported by the Marie Curie

439 Intra European Fellowship no. 330249 (CLIMBING). We are grateful to three anonymous reviewers, the
440 Editor, Brian Shutter and Henrique Giacomini for valuable suggestions.

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- 630

631 **Table 1.** Occurrences, countries and ecoregions where the six fish species were sampled. Total
 632 occurrence represents the lakes with at least 25 individuals per species in the catch. The slope subset is
 633 comprised of those lakes for which the significance of the linear regression of size spectra was $p < 0.1$.
 634 Mean body size (cm), slope of linear spectra and size diversity (μ) \pm standard deviation are given in
 635 brackets showing minimum and maximum values. Size range: the maximum number of \log_2 size classes.
 636 Nine countries: (ES) Estonia, (FR) France, (IT) Italy, (GE) Germany, (NO) Norway, (SL) Slovenia, (SP) Spain,
 637 (SW) Sweden, (UK) UK. Ten ecoregions ordered from north to south: (a) Borealic Uplands, (b)
 638 Fennoscandian Shield, (c) Baltic Province, (d) Central Plains, (e) Great Britain, (f) Western Plains, (g)
 639 Western Highlands, (h) Alps, (i) Italy Corsica Malta, (j) Iberian Peninsula.

Common name	Total occurrences	Countries	Ecoregions	Mean body size	Size diversity	Slope subset	Slope	Size range
Perch	321	ES,FR,IT,GE,NO,SL,SW,UK	a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i	12.05 \pm 2.85 (4.83-21.3)	1.56 \pm 0.51 (-0.47-2.71)	202	-0.60 \pm 0.38 (-1.65-0.81)	9
Roach	282	ES,FR,IT,GE,NO,SL,SP,SW,UK	a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j	13.58 \pm 2.76 (7.05-25)	1.47 \pm 0.51 (-0.50-2.52)	91	-0.41 \pm 0.54 (-2.16-1.37)	8
Ruffe	115	ES,FR,GE, SW,UK	b, c, d, e, g, h, i, j	8.17 \pm 1.34 (5.07-12.45)	0.98 \pm 0.48 (-0.67-1.84)	54	-2.16 \pm 1.26 (-6.36-0.03)	5
Common bream	83	ES,FR,GE,SW	b, c, d, f, g	17.11 \pm 5.76 (6.93-31.29)	1.95 \pm 0.59 (0.05-2.90)	20	-0.14 \pm 0.36 (-1.19-0.62)	10
White bream	72	ES,FR,GE, SP,SW	b, d, f, g, j	13.22 \pm 2.83 (8.69-20.75)	1.65 \pm 0.44 (0.60-2.61)	30	-0.37 \pm 0.50 (-1.69-0.78)	10
Zander	51	FR,IT,GE, SP,SW	d, f, g, h, i	17.62 \pm 7.61 (5.13-35.88)	1.89 \pm 0.80 (-0.30-3.11)	13	-0.21 \pm 0.33 (-0.92-0.60)	11

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642 **Table 2.** Relative strength for each predictor represented by the beta coefficients with their positive or
 643 negative trends and the predicted variance (%) (in brackets) For each species, significant predictors
 644 selected by the automatic stepwise model are given. A measure of model fitting is also shown: predicted
 645 deviance (%). Max.T. (maximum temperature, °C) and TP (total phosphorus, $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). CPUEintra
 646 (intraspecific density-dependent effect) and CPUEinter (interspecific density-dependent effect). No
 647 asterisk: $P>0.05$; *: $P<0.05$; **: $P<0.01$; ***: $P<0.001$

Common name	Max. T. (°C)	TP ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Area (ha)	Depth (m)	CPUEintra	CPUEinter	Predicted variance (%)
MEAN SIZE							
Perch	-0.29***(15.92)	-0.09*(4.63)		-0.11*(<1)	-0.32***(13.95)	-0.29***(14.85)	50.12
Roach	-0.11*(4.45)				-0.54***(26.38)		30.83
Ruffe	-0.26**(7.19)	0.34***(7.35)	-0.26*(4.50)			-0.43***(9.85)	28.89
Common bream		0.30*(3.19)			-0.56***(18.52)		21.71
White bream		0.45***(13.54)	0.32*(7.00)		-0.28*(3.63)		24.17
Zander					-0.38***(26.84)		26.84
SLOPE							
Perch			-0.14**(4.01)		-0.59***(38.26)		42.27
Roach					-0.83***(47.26)	0.2*(7.64)	54.90
Ruffe		0.41**(11.00)				-0.42**(11.00)	22.00
Common bream					-0.88**(43.63)		43.63
White		0.58**(13.15)			-0.65***(27.12)		40.27

bream											
Zander	-0.54**	(13.75)		0.56**	(23.68)	-0.41**	(51.51)	88.94			
SIZE DIVERSITY											
Perch		-0.17*	(2.45)	0.13*	(2.69)	-0.33***	(10.27)	15.41			
Roach	0.19**	(2.40)	-0.18**	(3.56)	0.13*	(4.72)	0.26***	(8.05)	0.12*	(<1)	19.67
Ruffe					0.51***	(27.59)		27.59			
Common bream						-0.28***	(8.00)	8.00			
White bream	0.28**	(10.15)						10.15			
Zander						-0.75***	(55.88)	55.88			
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662 **Figures**

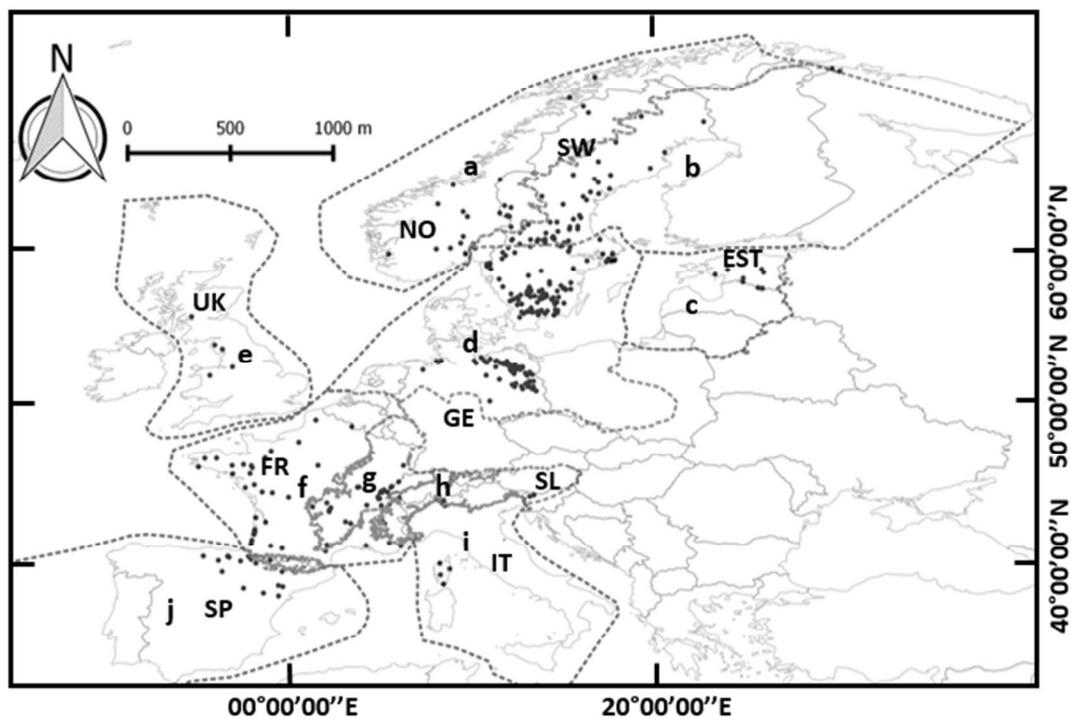
663 **Figure 1.** Geographical distribution of study lakes across nine European countries: Estonia (EST), France
664 (FR), Italy (IT), Germany (GE), Norway (NO), Slovenia (SL), Spain (SP), Sweden (SW), UK. Ten ecoregions
665 according to Illies (1978) were separated by dotted lines: (a) Borealic Uplands, (b) Fennoscandian Shield,
666 (c) Baltic Province, (d) Central Plains, (e) Great Britain, (f) Western Plains, (g) Western Highlands, (h)
667 Alps, (i) Italy Corsica Malta, (j) Iberian Peninsula.

668

669 **Figure 2.** Significant partial residual plots selected according to the highest beta coefficients in density-
670 dependent effects. Y axis represents size metrics and x axis the density-dependent predictor (i.e.
671 CPUE_{intra} and CPUE_{inter}). CPUE_{intra}, CPUE of the focal species; CPUE_{inter}, sum of CPUE of the other
672 five potentially competing species. For perch, roach, white bream and common bream: *Slope vs*
673 *CPUE_{intra}*. For ruffe: *Mean Size vs CPUE_{inter}*. For zander: *Size Diversity vs CPUE_{intra}*.

674

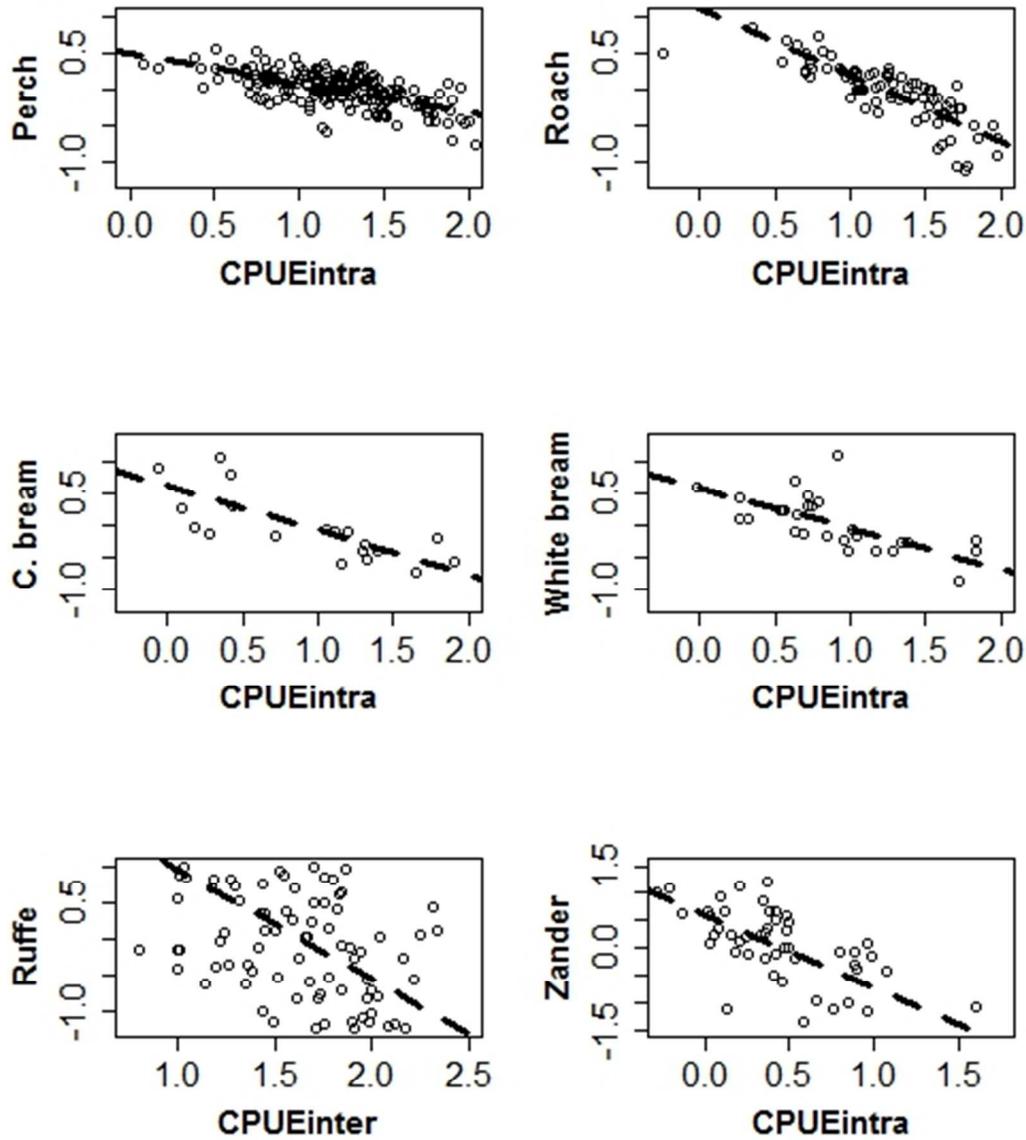
675 Figure 1.



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678 Figure 2.



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Appendix

Table A1. Minimum, maximum and arithmetic mean (in brackets) of all environmental predictors for each species. Max.T. is maximum temperature (°C) and TP is total phosphorus ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$).

Common name	Max.T. (°C)	TP ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Area (ha)	Depth (m)
Perch	11.1-23.1 (16.15)	1-330 (25.72)	0.02-113 (3.11)	1-190 (20.53)
Roach	12.1-24.6 (16.5)	1-561 (33.27)	0.06-6478 (35.71)	1-135 (18.88)
Ruffe	13.3-21.2 (17.03)	2-330 (44.39)	0.06-113 (5.57)	1.2-190 (23.12)
Common bream	14.2-21.9 (17.59)	3-561 (44.09)	0.24-113 (5.24)	1.2-100 (14.48)
White bream	14.6-23.1 (17.83)	2-561 (76.17)	0.36-927 (31.53)	1.2-69.5 (16.01)
Zander	14.5-24.6 (18.76)	6-330 (82.8)	0.42-1178 (99.02)	1.2-100 (16.99)

Figure A1. Frequency distributions based on all individuals for each species for all lakes accumulated together. X axes represented fresh mass by a log2 scale and y axes represent the relative frequencies (%) for each size class. Note the different scales on the y axis.

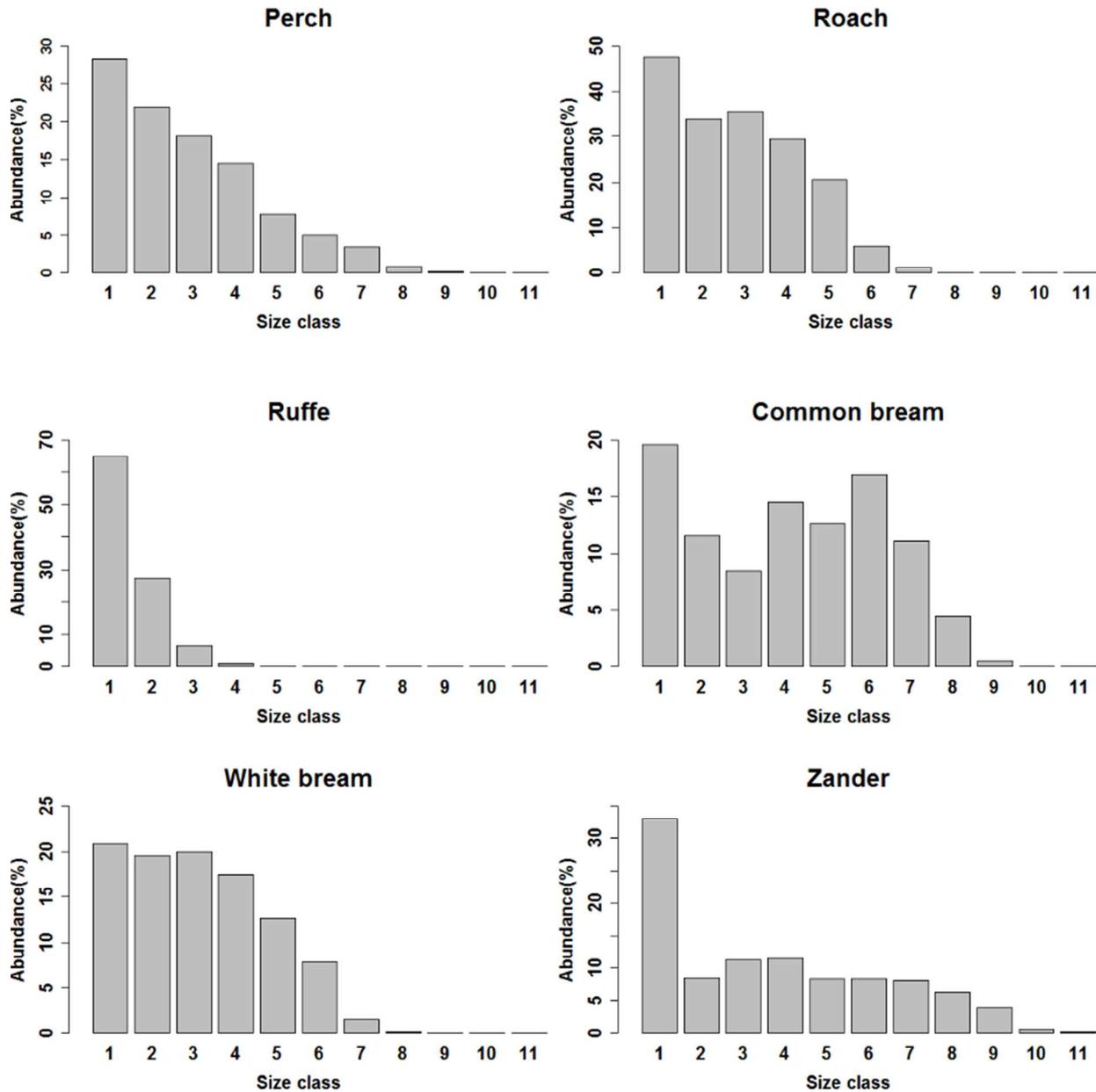
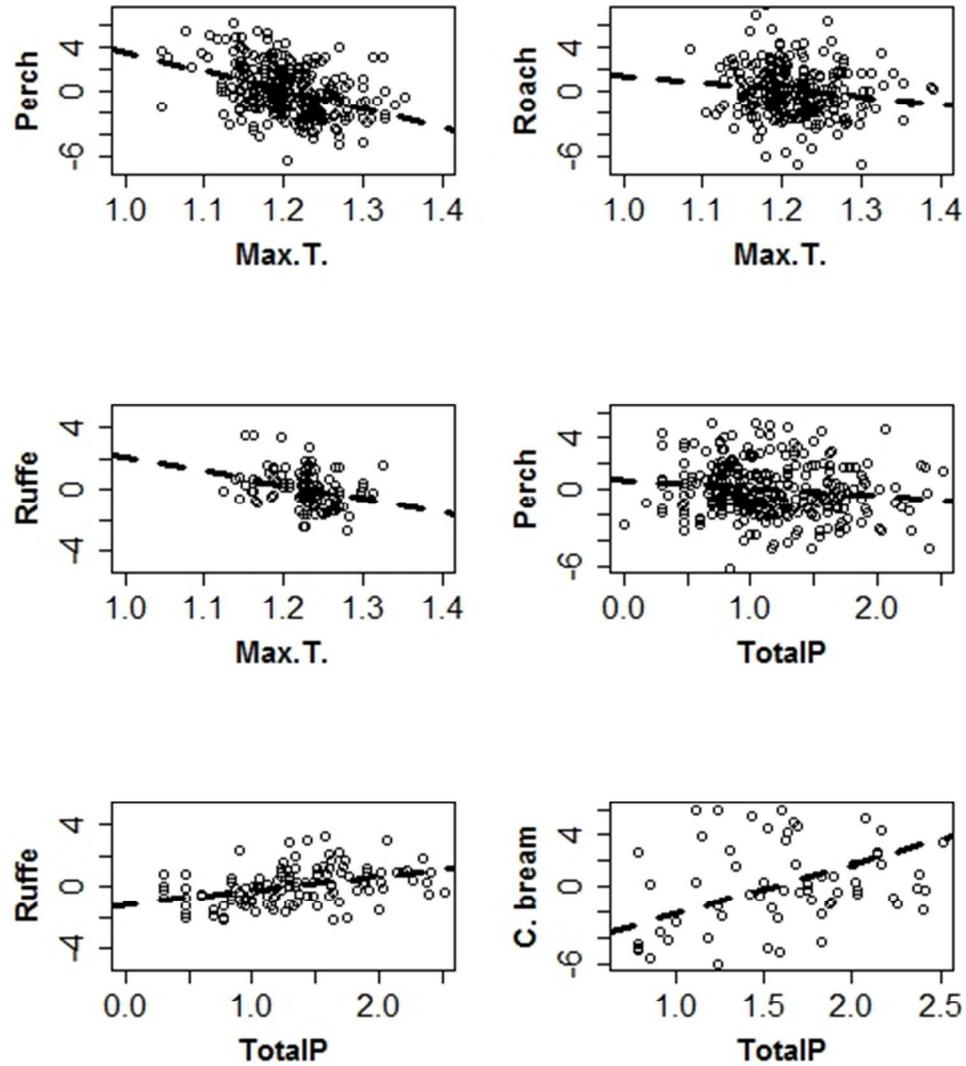
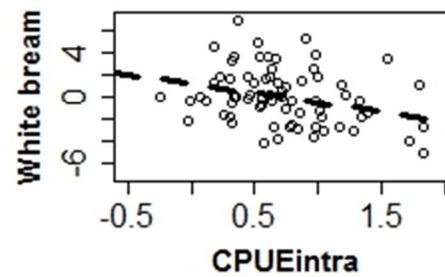
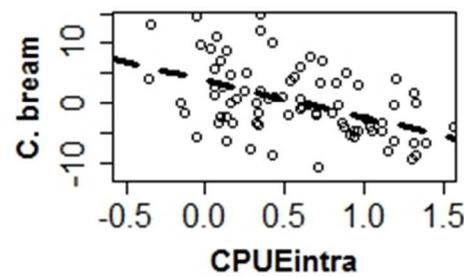
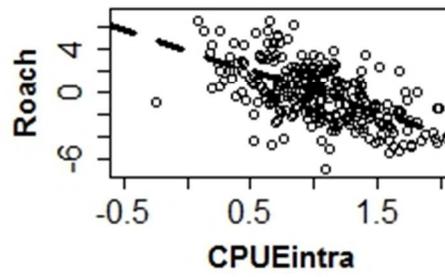
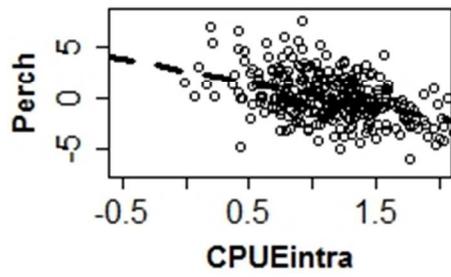
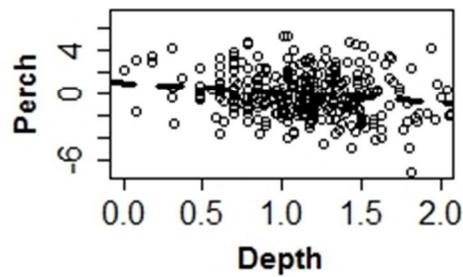
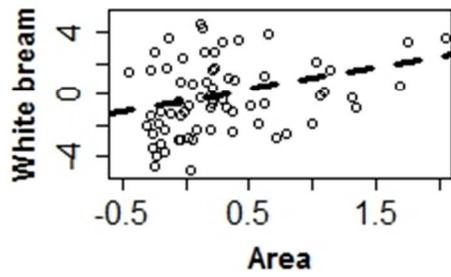
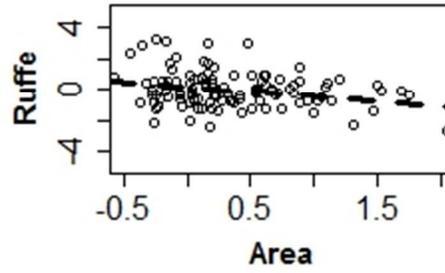
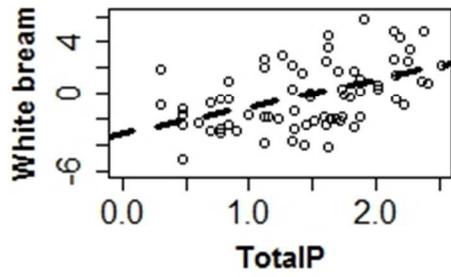


Figure A2. Partial residual plots for each species between the size metric mean body size (y axis) and the climatic, morphometric, productivity and density-dependent predictors (x axis) included in the final model.





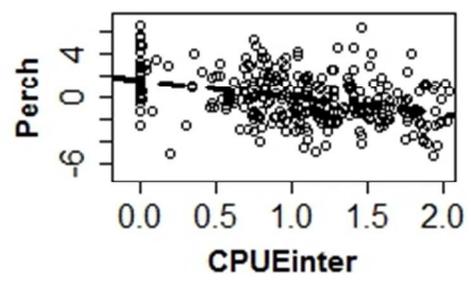
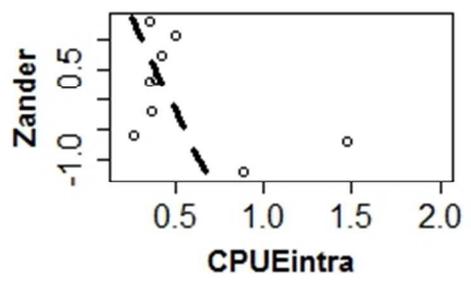


Figure A3. Partial residual plots for each species between the size metric slope (y axis) and the climatic, morphometric, productivity and density-dependent predictors (x axis) included in the final model.

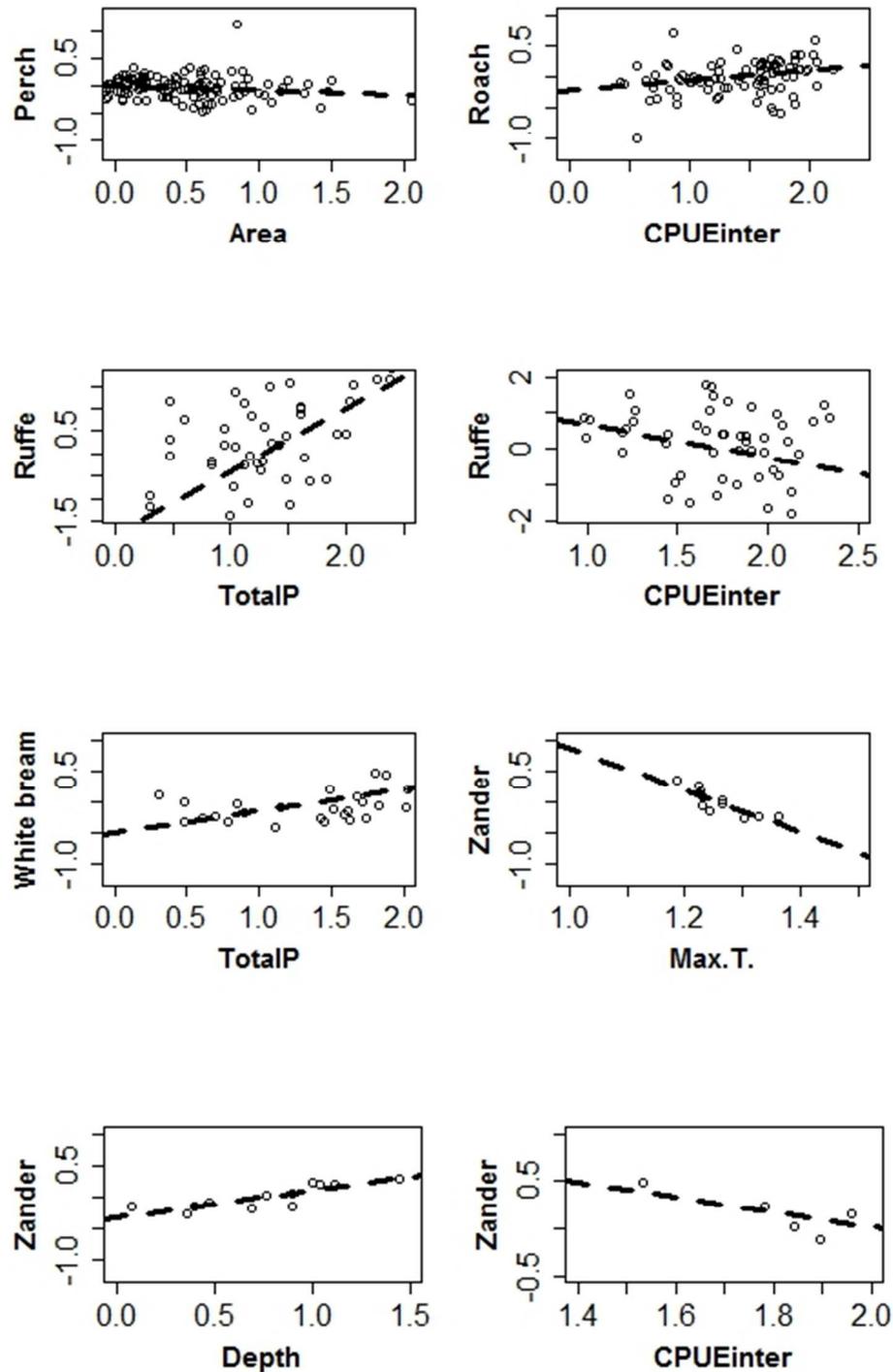
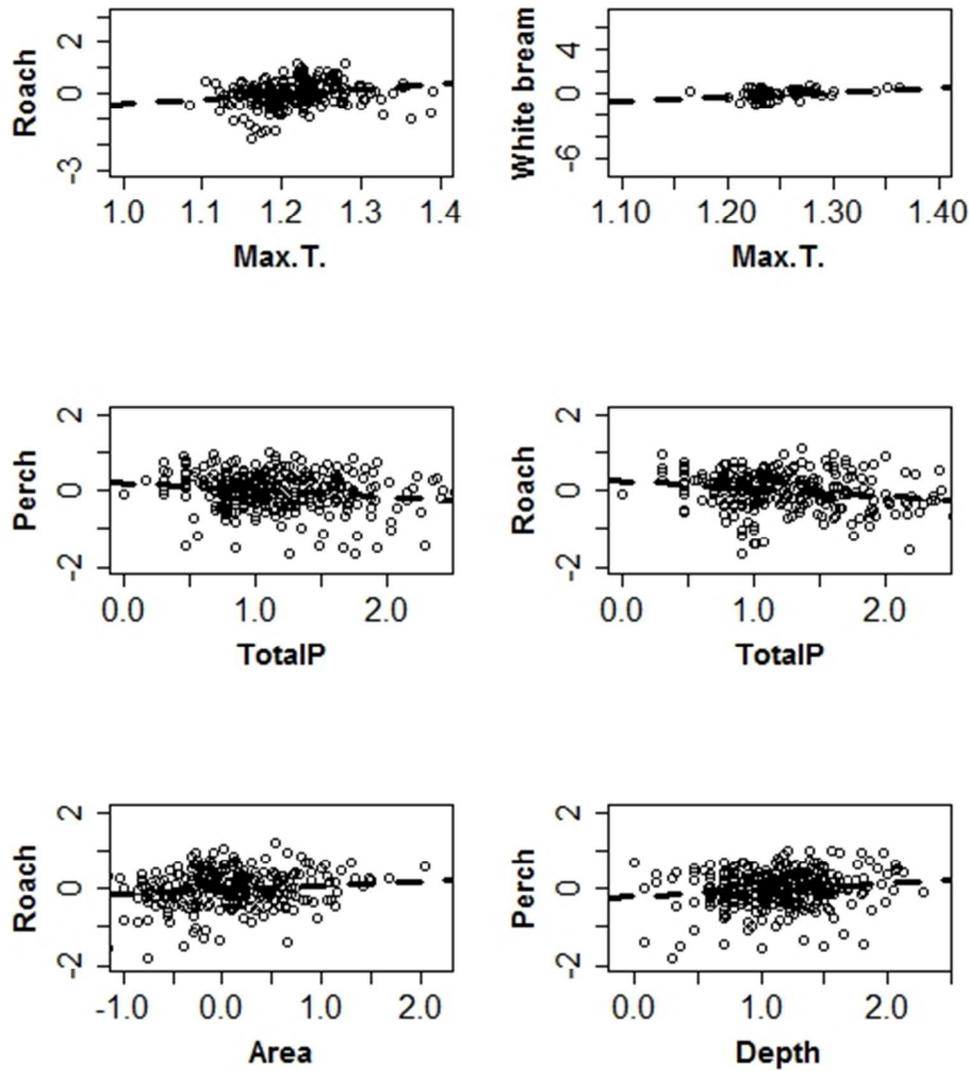


Figure A4. Partial residual plots for each species between the size metric diversity (y axis) and the climatic, morphometric, productivity and density-dependent predictors (x axis) included in the final model.



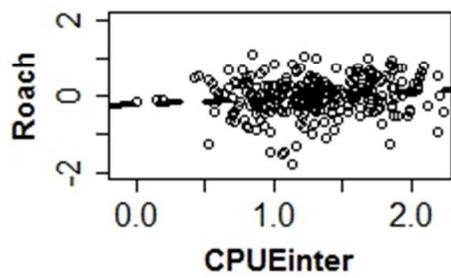
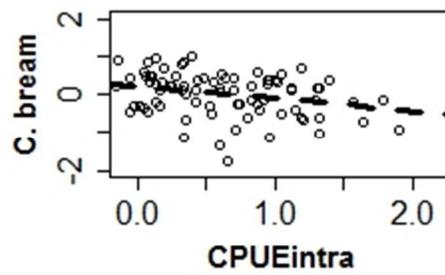
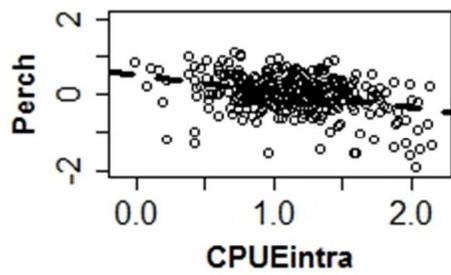
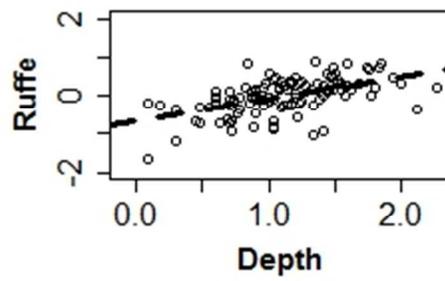
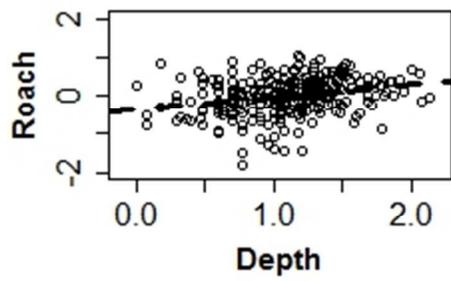


Figure A5. Between-year variation of the geometric mean length (mm) for perch, roach and ruffe in some Swedish lakes. X axis is the mean length expressed in mm and Y axis is the sampling year.

