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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.

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## 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  $\mu_2$  is the Shannon size diversity index and  $\rho_x$  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<sub>intra</sub>) and (6) the interspecific density-dependent effect (sum of CPUE of the other five  
222 potentially competing species, hereafter CPUE<sub>inter</sub>). 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 (1<sup>st</sup> class, 4-8 g) to the largest size class  
269 (11<sup>th</sup> class, 4096-8192 g), whereas ruffe sizes covered only five classes (maximum 5<sup>th</sup> 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 Audouin 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<sub>intra</sub> for five and four, respectively, out of  
296 the six species (Table 2). Additionally, a negative response of size diversity to CPUE<sub>intra</sub> 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<sub>inter</sub>) 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<sub>inter</sub> 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  
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441

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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 ( $\mu$ )  $\pm$  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 (%)
<b>MEAN SIZE</b>							
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
<b>SLOPE</b>							
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

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

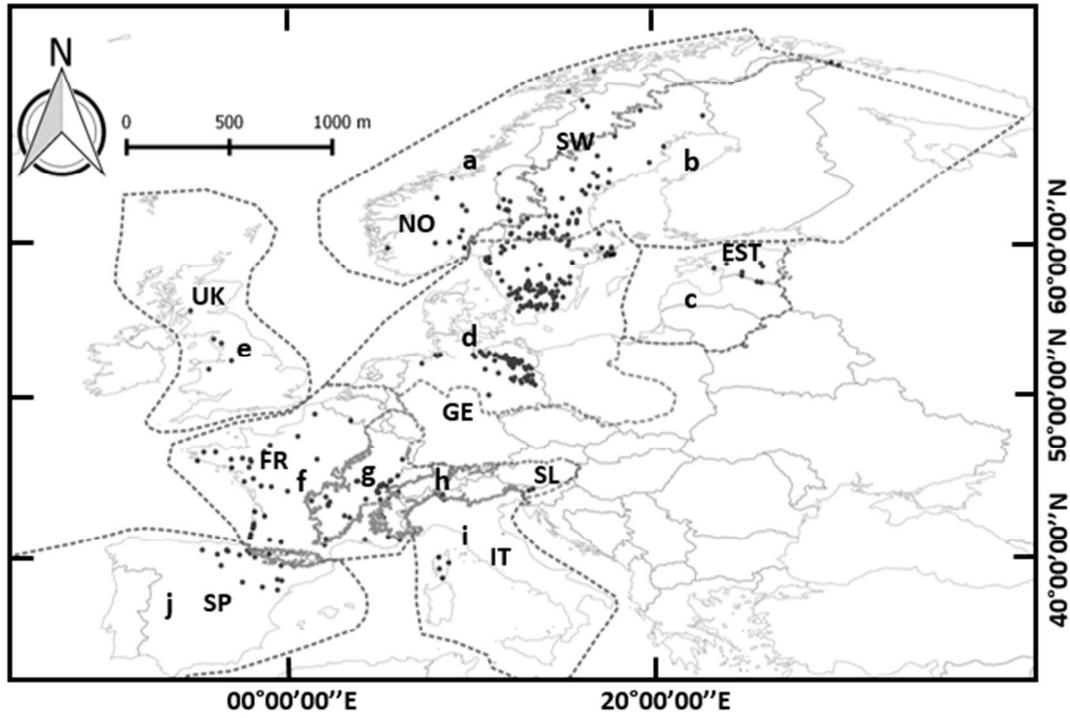
663 **Figure 1.** Geographical distribution of study lakes across nine European countries: Estonia (EST), France  
664 (FR), Italy (IT), Germany (GE), Norway (NO), Slovenia (SL), Spain (SP), Sweden (SW), UK. Ten ecoregions  
665 according to Illies (1978) were separated by dotted lines: (a) Borealic 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.

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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<sub>intra</sub> and CPUE<sub>inter</sub>). CPUE<sub>intra</sub>, CPUE of the focal species; CPUE<sub>inter</sub>, sum of CPUE of the other  
672 five potentially competing species. For perch, roach, white bream and common bream: *Slope vs*  
673 *CPUE<sub>intra</sub>*. For ruffe: *Mean Size vs CPUE<sub>inter</sub>*. For zander: *Size Diversity vs CPUE<sub>intra</sub>*.

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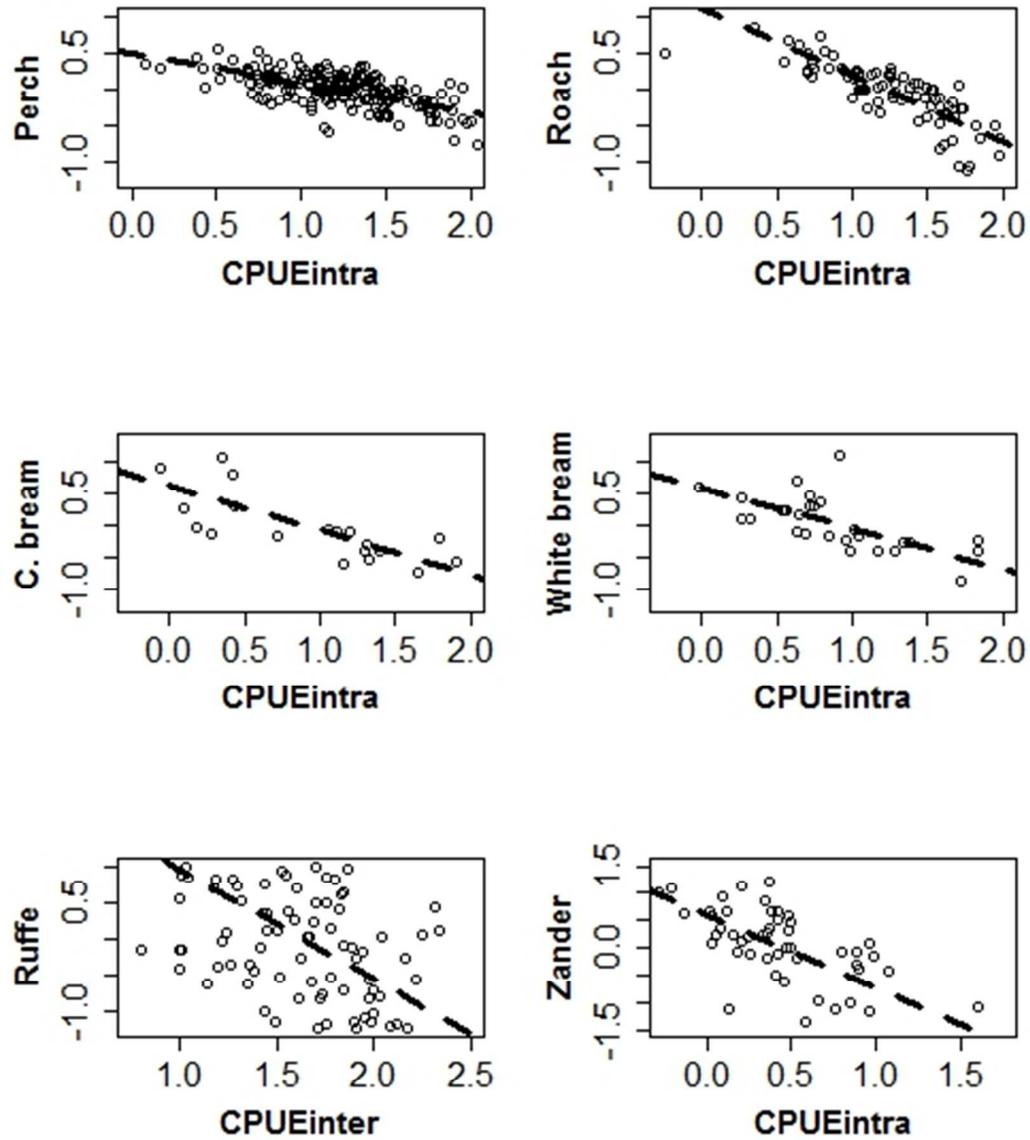
675 Figure 1.



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678 Figure 2.



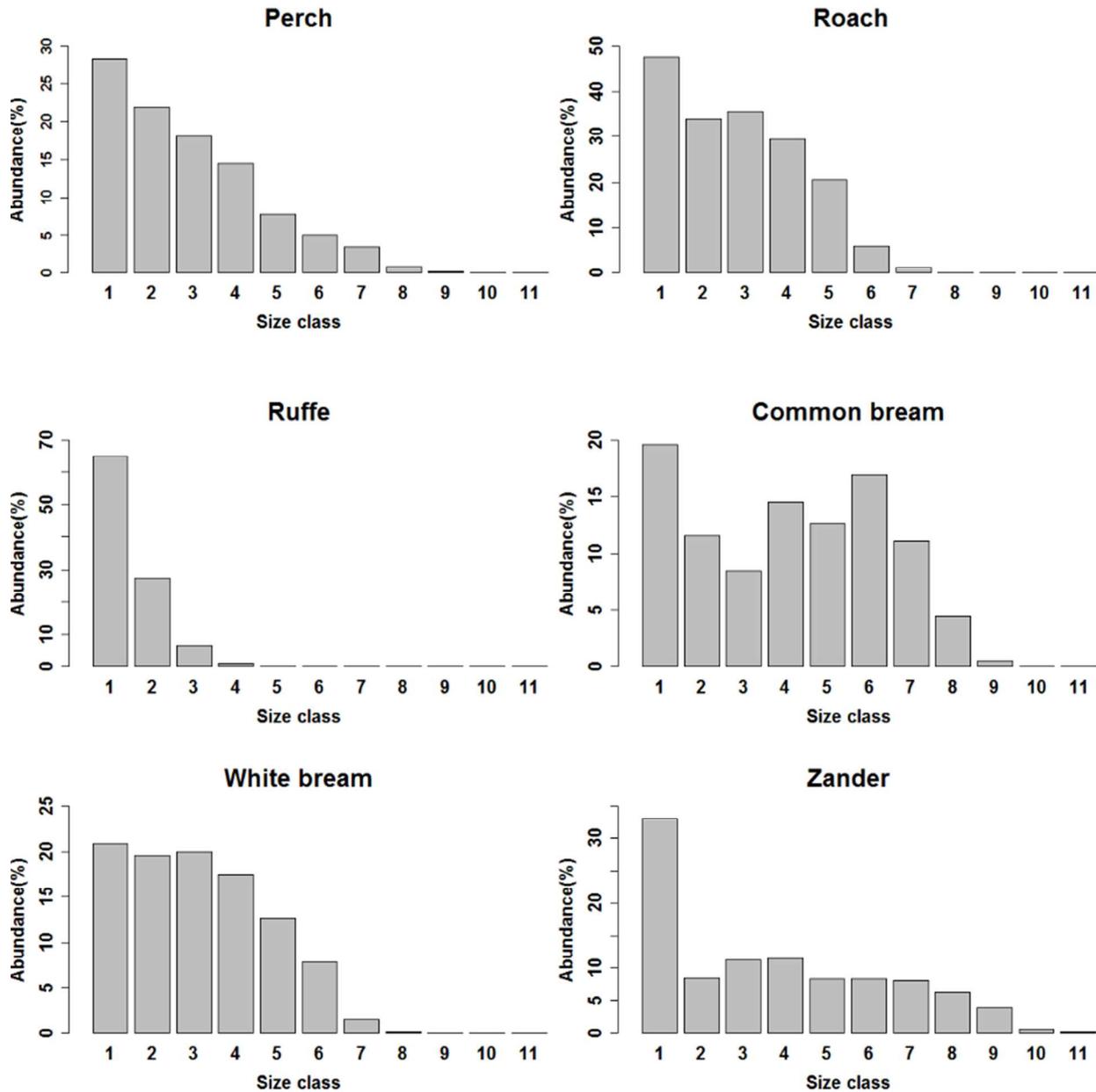
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## Appendix

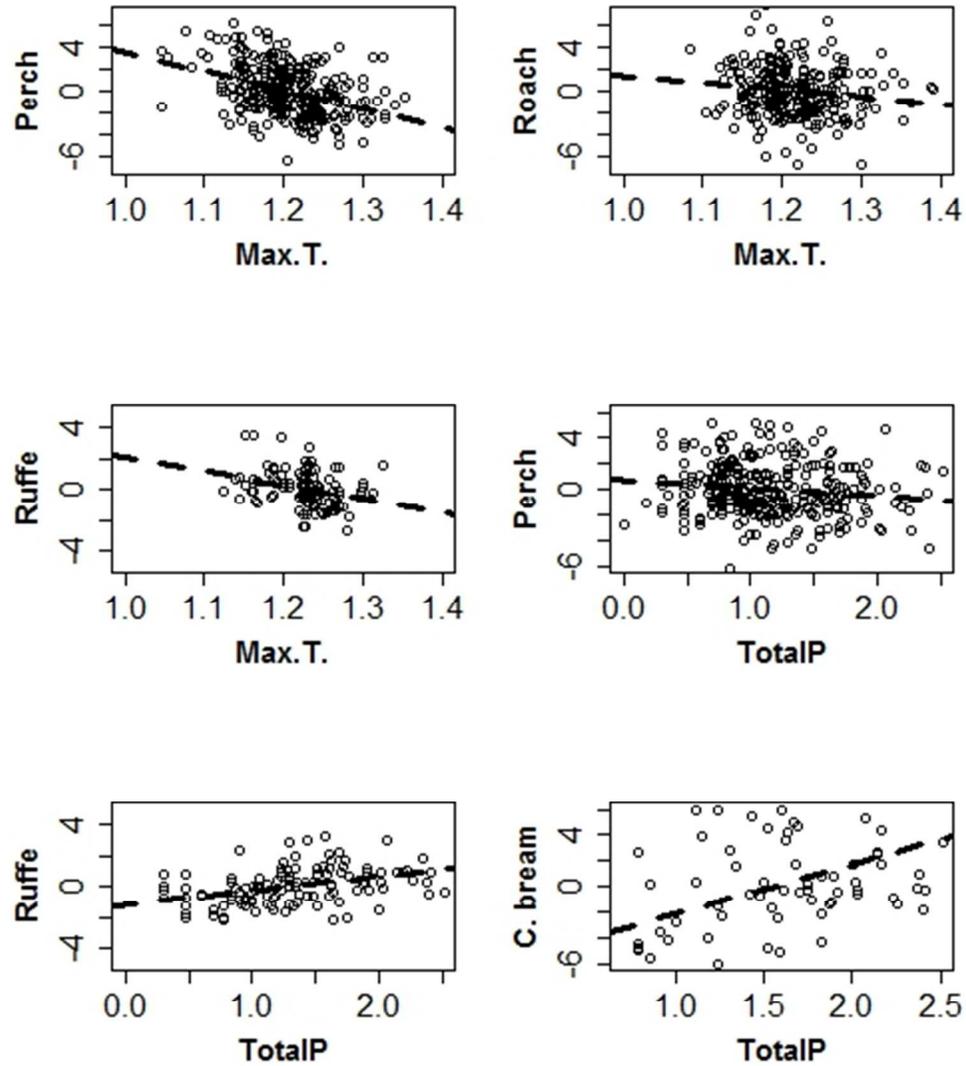
**Table A1.** Minimum, maximum and arithmetic mean (in brackets) of all environmental predictors for each species. Max.T. is maximum temperature (°C) and TP is total phosphorus ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ).

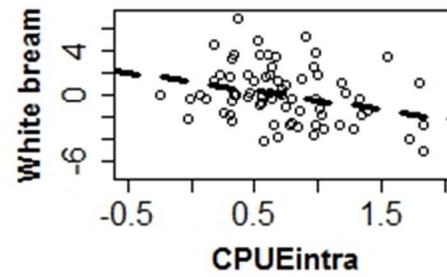
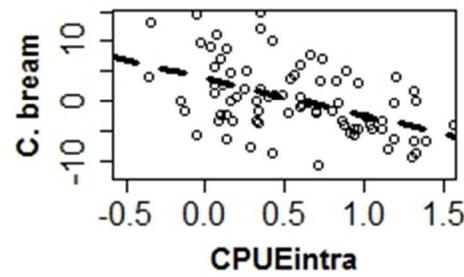
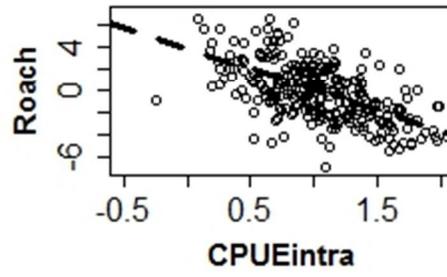
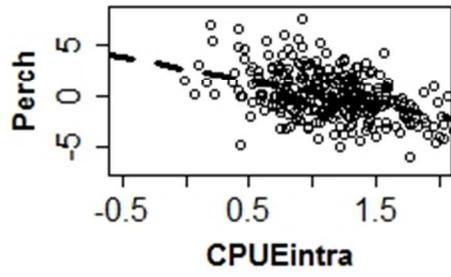
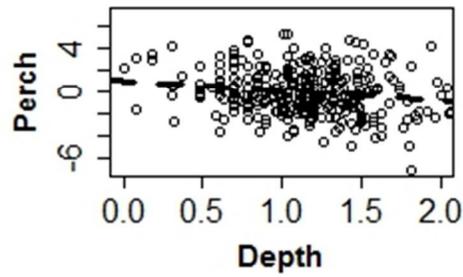
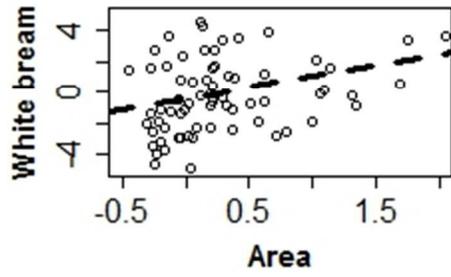
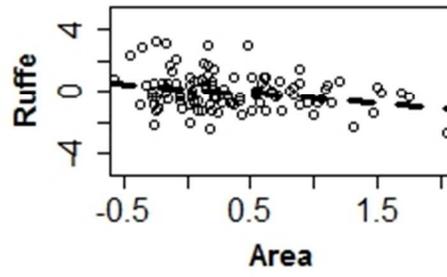
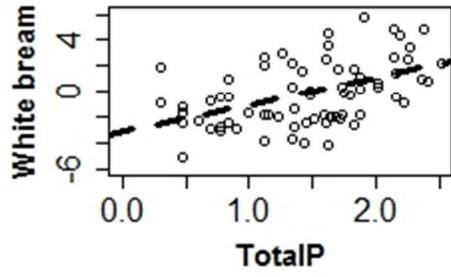
Common name	Max.T. (°C)	TP ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )	Area (ha)	Depth (m)
<b>Perch</b>	11.1-23.1 (16.15)	1-330 (25.72)	0.02-113 (3.11)	1-190 (20.53)
<b>Roach</b>	12.1-24.6 (16.5)	1-561 (33.27)	0.06-6478 (35.71)	1-135 (18.88)
<b>Ruffe</b>	13.3-21.2 (17.03)	2-330 (44.39)	0.06-113 (5.57)	1.2-190 (23.12)
<b>Common bream</b>	14.2-21.9 (17.59)	3-561 (44.09)	0.24-113 (5.24)	1.2-100 (14.48)
<b>White bream</b>	14.6-23.1 (17.83)	2-561 (76.17)	0.36-927 (31.53)	1.2-69.5 (16.01)
<b>Zander</b>	14.5-24.6 (18.76)	6-330 (82.8)	0.42-1478 (99.02)	1.2-100 (16.99)

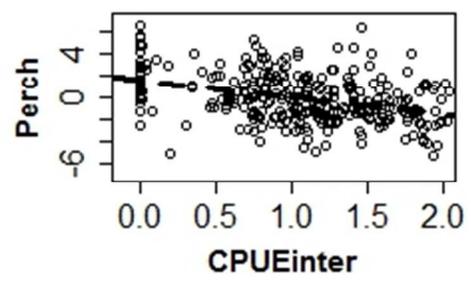
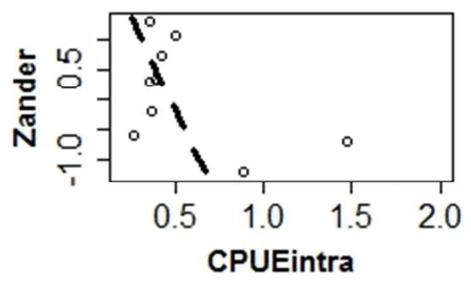
**Figure A1.** Frequency distributions based on all individuals for each species for all lakes accumulated together. X axes represented fresh mass by a log2 scale and y axes represent the relative frequencies (%) for each size class. Note the different scales on the y axis.



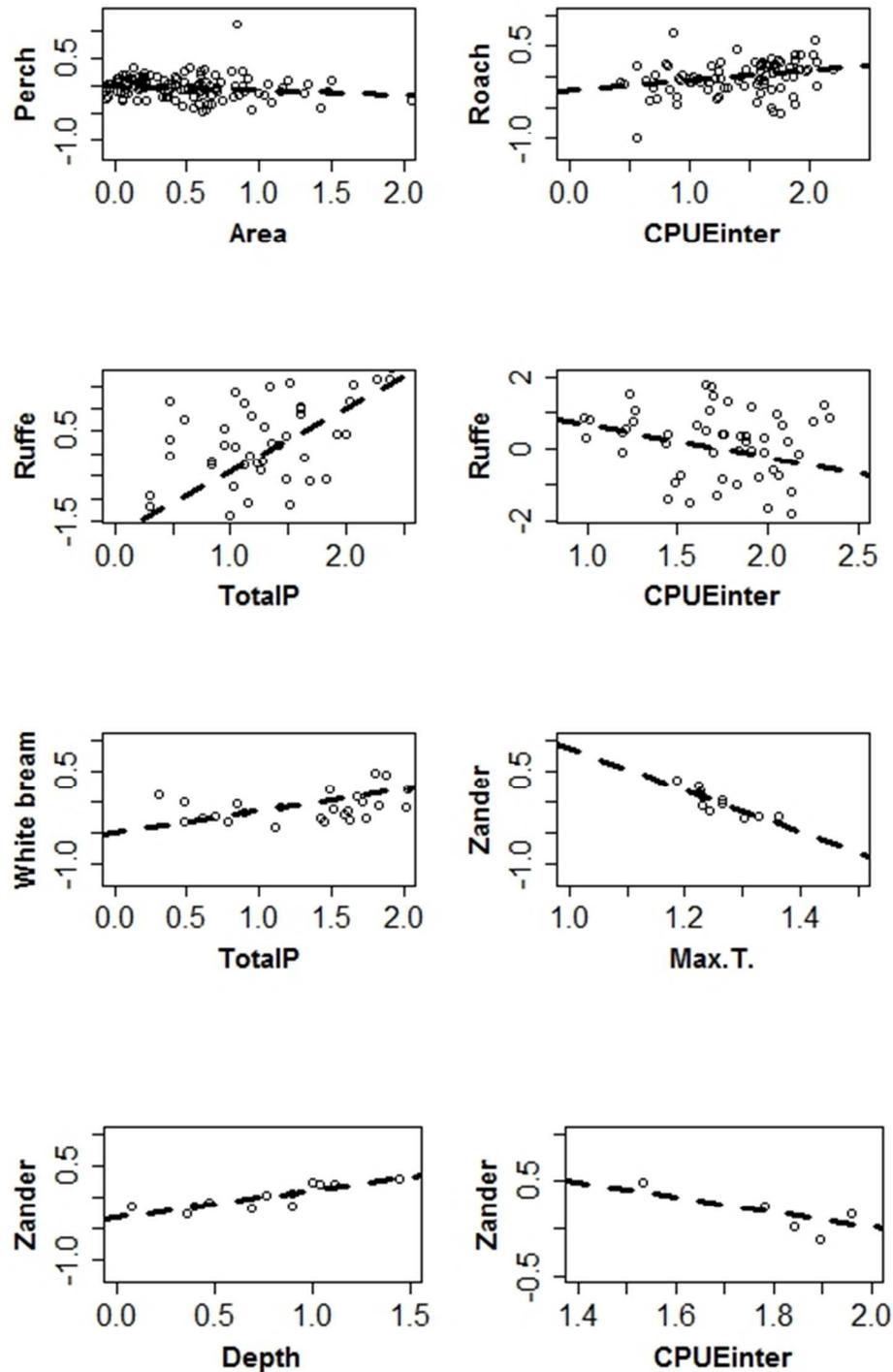
**Figure A2.** Partial residual plots for each species between the size metric mean body size (y axis) and the climatic, morphometric, productivity and density-dependent predictors (x axis) included in the final model.



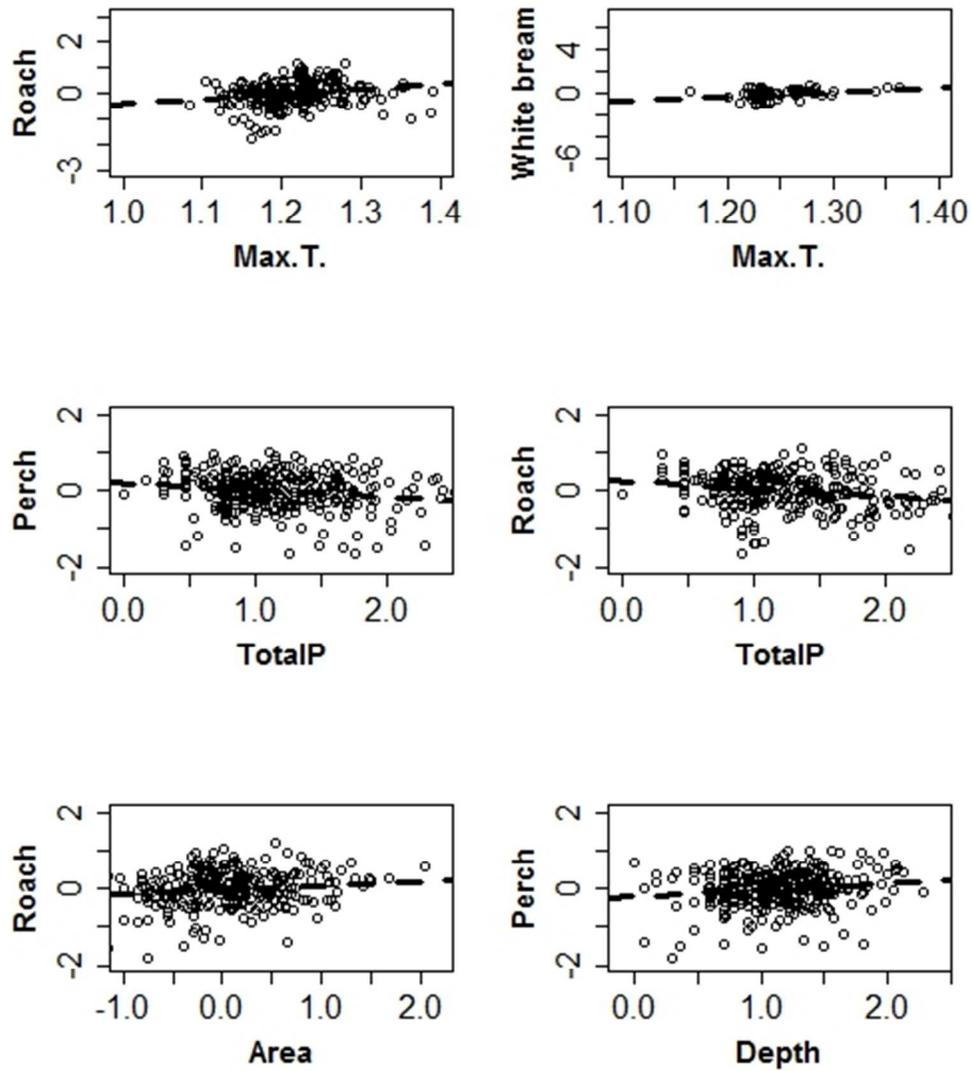


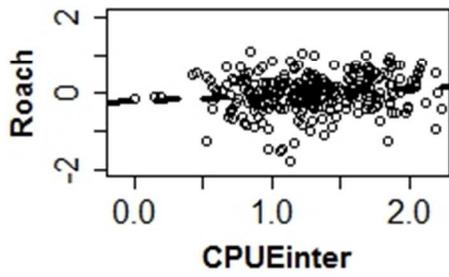
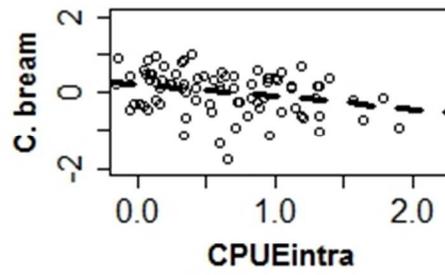
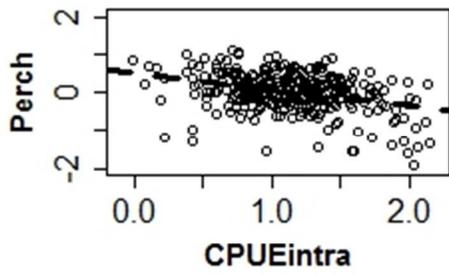
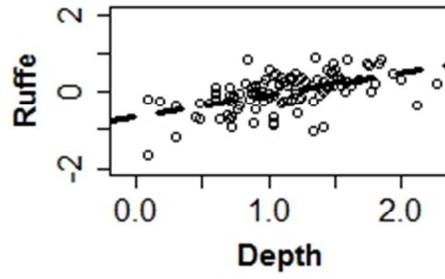
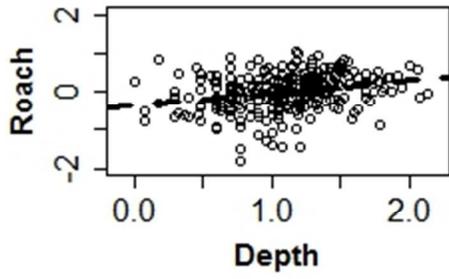


**Figure A3.** Partial residual plots for each species between the size metric slope (y axis) and the climatic, morphometric, productivity and density-dependent predictors (x axis) included in the final model.



**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.

