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1 **Trophic ecology of piscivorous Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus* (L.)) in subarctic lakes with**
2 **contrasting food-web structures**

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21

22

23 **Abstract** The trophic ecology of piscivorous Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus* (L.); charr) in the
24 food webs of large subarctic lakes is not well understood. We assessed charr diets, parasites,
25 growth, maturity, and stable isotope ratios in Fennoscandian subarctic lakes dominated by
26 monomorphic or polymorphic whitefish (*Coregonus lavaretus* (L.)) populations. Charr density
27 was low in all lakes, except in profundal habitats. Charr shifted to piscivory at small size (16–25
28 cm total length) and consumed a range of prey fish sizes (2–25 cm). Cannibalism was observed
29 in a few individuals from one monomorphic whitefish lake. Charr matured at 37–51 cm (5–8
30 years old), grew to 52–74 cm maximum observed length and 47–83 cm asymptotic length. Charr
31 increased total area of convex hull and core stable isotopic diversity area of the fish community
32 by 51–98% and 44–51% in monomorphic whitefish lakes, but only 8–11% and 7–10% in
33 polymorphic whitefish lakes. The difference was due to increasing food-chain length in
34 monomorphic whitefish lakes, whereas reliance on littoral carbon did not change. Charr were the
35 top piscivores in monomorphic whitefish lakes, but played a less important role in polymorphic
36 whitefish lakes, which contained a more diverse predator fauna.

37 **Keywords:** diet; food-chain length; polymorphism; predation; stable isotopes; whitefish
38 morphs

39 **Introduction**

40 Piscivorous fish play a pivotal role in lake food webs by influencing behavioral decisions of
41 individual prey, size structure of prey populations and ecosystem-level energy flows (Ferrari et
42 al., 2009; Gallagher et al., 2017). They may exert direct top-down, as well as indirect behavioral
43 control of prey populations, with subsequent cascading effects on lake food webs (Kahilainen et
44 al., 2009; Jensen et al., 2015; Thomas et al., 2017). In addition, the high mobility of top
45 consumers is important for food webs as it allows pelagic and benthic food-web compartments
46 to be linked (Vander Zanden & Vadeboncouer, 2002; Eloranta et al., 2015a). Large subarctic
47 lakes are fueled by both benthic and pelagic energetic pathways associated with specialist species
48 or morphs, and they could be especially valuable systems for assessing the role of top predators
49 in food webs. The ecology and role of large piscivorous Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus* (L.)) in
50 community and food-web processes in different types of subarctic lakes has remained poorly
51 studied. This likely reflects a limited number of Scandinavian lakes supporting large-bodied
52 piscivorous Arctic charr, as is the case with large piscivorous (ferox) brown trout (*Salmo trutta*
53 L.) (Campbell, 1979). For example, only a few lakes in subarctic Finnish Lapland contain large-
54 bodied Arctic charr populations (Seppovaara, 1969).

55
56 Arctic charr is the world's northernmost freshwater fish, being well adapted to cold water, and
57 dominant in freshwater ecosystems with low species diversity throughout the Arctic (Klemetsen,
58 et al., 2003; Elliott & Elliott, 2010). Arctic charr are highly plastic, utilizing contrasting habitats
59 and forming distinct freshwater, river, or anadromous populations, as well as polymorphic
60 populations throughout their core distribution area (Klemetsen, 2013). However, Arctic charr are
61 sensitive to impaired water quality and increased resource competition with other fishes, making
62 them highly vulnerable to climate warming, increasing productivity, and interactions with
63 invasive species (Lehtonen 1998; Elliott & Elliott 2010; Rolls et al., 2017). In this respect, large
64 multispecies subarctic lakes at the edge of the species' core distribution area may provide insights

65 into the current role of Arctic charr in these systems and aid the evaluation of the food-web level
66 consequences of local extinction.

67
68 To adequately assess the role of top predators in specific food webs, predator ecology must be
69 considered in the context of the relative abundance of prey and their size distribution (e.g. Jensen
70 et al., 2008). Despite the development of modern stable isotope, fatty acid, and DNA bar-coding
71 methods, stomach content analyses remain crucial for quantifying the diet and ontogenetic diet
72 shifts of the large predatory fish (Nielsen et al., 2018). A combined approach using both stable
73 isotopes and diet allows for quantification of the trophic location of target species in a food web,
74 as well as the relative abundance of prey fish in the diet, the number of prey fish in stomachs,
75 and prey size for estimating the predation window for different prey species (Clark & Levy,
76 1988; Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2003; Hrabik et al., 2006). Moreover, such detailed knowledge of
77 prey species consumed is key for understanding food-borne parasite infections in predators
78 (Hammar, 2000; Henriksen et al., 2016; Hammar et al., 2018). Due to the complementary nature
79 of different analyses of resource use, application of multiple methods is the best approach for
80 achieving a deeper understanding of predator-prey interactions, community structure, and energy
81 flows in lake ecosystems.

82
83 Combined use of stable carbon and nitrogen isotopes and stomach content analyses have been
84 especially useful in subarctic lakes, where these methods provide good resolution of
85 differentiation between benthic and pelagic energetic pathways (Eloranta et al., 2010, 2015a).
86 Furthermore, stable isotopes can be effectively used to separate invertebrate baselines from all
87 three principal habitats (littoral, pelagic and profundal) in large and deep subarctic lakes (Harrod
88 et al., 2010). The relatively low number of species in subarctic lakes facilitates the stable isotope
89 assessment of species or morph niches, in addition to community and food-web size (Thomas et
90 al., 2016, 2017). Small subarctic lakes are generally driven by energy derived from benthic algae

91 (e.g. Sierszen et al., 2003; Karlsson & Byström, 2005). This is reflected in high littoral reliance
92 of Arctic charr in small lakes, whereas the species increases use of pelagic habitats and prey in
93 larger lakes (Eloranta et al., 2015a). The relatively narrow dietary and isotopic niche of deep-
94 water (profundal) Arctic charr is expected to result from strong interspecific resource competition
95 in multispecies lakes, and is potentially further reinforced by the cold-water preference of Arctic
96 charr (Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2002; Sandlund et al., 2016; Hammar et al., 2018).

97
98 Subarctic Fennoscandian lakes with multiple piscivore and forage fish species provide excellent
99 opportunities to study the role of Arctic charr in food webs. Large lakes (>10 km² in Finnish
100 Lapland) are deep enough to contain distinct littoral, pelagic, and profundal habitats, each of
101 which is dominated by coregonid fishes providing prey for piscivores such as Arctic charr
102 (Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2003; Thomas et al., 2017). Whitefish (*Coregonus lavaretus* (L.)) are
103 ubiquitous in the region and they have commonly diverged into benthic and pelagic morphs
104 (Harrod et al., 2010). A few larger lakes have up to four whitefish morphs (Kahilainen et al.,
105 2014; Thomas et al., 2016; Kahilainen et al., 2017). The occurrence of monomorphic and
106 polymorphic whitefish lakes in the same region provides an opportunity to assess the importance
107 of Arctic charr in different kinds of food webs. Besides whitefish, several other putative
108 competitor fish species from both the invertebrate-feeding and piscivorous foraging guilds
109 coexist with Arctic charr (Thomas et al., 2017).

110
111 Here, we used a large dataset from three pairs of subarctic lakes in northern Fennoscandia hosting
112 contrasting multispecies fish communities. Two lakes have Arctic charr and monomorphic
113 whitefish, two lakes have Arctic charr and polymorphic whitefish, and two lakes have non-Arctic
114 charr piscivores with mono- and polymorphic whitefish (Thomas et al., 2017). Here, we addressed
115 two broad objectives: the first was to evaluate the general role of Arctic charr in different types
116 of whitefish dominated lake food webs (based on habitat, diet, prey size, parasites, growth and

117 maturation), and the second was to compare stable isotope food-web metrics in lakes with and
118 without Arctic charr. Specifically, we tested two predictions: (1) the diet, life-history traits and
119 parasite load of Arctic charr will reflect their position as apex predators in subarctic lake food
120 webs and (2) as Arctic charr are located at the top of the food chain, their presence will increase
121 the overall size of the food-web as estimated with stable isotope analyses.

122

123 **Methods**

124 Study lakes

125 All six oligotrophic, clear-water, subarctic study lakes are located in Finnish Lapland (Fig. 1,
126 Table 1). Arctic charr (hereafter charr) inhabit Lakes Kilpisjärvi, Rahajärvi, Muddusjärvi and
127 Inarijärvi, but not Lakes Vuontisjärvi and Paadarjärvi (hereafter shortened without "lake" or
128 "järvi", the Finnish word for lake), which were used as controls for food-web analyses. Charr
129 naturally reproduce in four charr lakes, but are currently supplemented by stocking in Inari, and
130 have been stocked historically in Muddus and Raha. In the latter two lakes, stocked charr were
131 relatively easy to exclude from analyses based on their large size, deteriorated fins and adipose
132 fin-clipping. In Inari, charr are stocked mainly in their first year of life (0+; circa 5-8 cm of total
133 length) and cannot be as easily identified as adults. Thus our data may contain stocked
134 individuals. All six lakes are multispecies systems dominated by coregonid fishes (Kahilainen et
135 al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). Kilpis, Raha and Vuontis have only a single whitefish morph,
136 whereas Muddus, Inari, and Paadar contain four sympatric morphs (Thomas et al., 2017).
137 Monomorphic lakes only support populations of the large sparsely rakered (LSR) whitefish that
138 use all principal habitat types, including littoral, pelagic and profundal zones (Harrod et al.,
139 2010). In lakes with polymorphic whitefish, LSR whitefish use littoral habitat, small sparsely
140 rakered (SSR) whitefish use the profundal zone, whereas the densely rakered (DR) and large
141 densely rakered (LDR) whitefish use the pelagic zone as their main foraging habitat (Kahilainen

142 et al., 2014, Thomas et al., 2016; Kahilainen et al., 2017). The non-native pelagic planktivorous
143 coregonid, vendace (*Coregonus albula* L.) has been stocked in Inari and Raha, where it currently
144 forms a part of the pelagic fish community (Kahilainen et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2016). In
145 Inari, piscivorous lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush* Mitchill) and land-locked salmon (*Salmo*
146 *salar* m. sebago L.) have been introduced and currently make a relatively limited contribution to
147 the fish community (Eloranta et al., 2015b). In all study lakes, whitefish are an important prey
148 for piscivorous fish (Thomas et al., 2017).

149

150 Sampling of fish and invertebrates

151 Due to the low abundance of charr in most study lakes, we combined data from open water
152 season sampling over several years and used multiple gears to increase sample sizes (see Table
153 1 and 2 for details of sampling gear, years and efforts). Sampling of the entire fish community
154 was conducted with gill-net series comprised of eight 30 m long and 1.8 m high nets with knot-
155 to-knot mesh sizes of 12, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 45 and 60 mm (Table 1). This method generally
156 captures fish with total length range of 9-65 cm. Predatory fish samples were supplemented by
157 large-mesh gill net series composed of five 5 m high and 60 m long nets with knot-to-knot mesh
158 sizes of 35, 40, 45, 50 and 55 mm (Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2002; Table 2). Gill-nets were set in
159 littoral, pelagic and profundal habitats in the evening and lifted the following morning with total
160 soak times of ~12 hours. Fish were immediately killed after removal from the gill-net with a
161 sharp blow to the head that caused immediate unconsciousness followed by death. The gill-net
162 catch was held on ice and later processed in the laboratory.

163 Benthic invertebrates were sampled with an Ekman grab (area 272 cm²) along a transect from
164 lake shore areas (1 m depth) towards the deepest areas. Profundal sampling was limited to 40 m
165 depth, except in Vuontis, where the deepest point of the lake was 30 m (Table 1). Each sampling
166 depth (1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20, 30 and 40 m) included three replicates located around 10 m apart.

167 Samples were immediately sieved through a 500 μm mesh and remaining animals and sediment
168 were stored in a plastic bucket filled with water. In the field laboratory, benthic animals were
169 sorted to the lowest feasible taxonomic level (varying from species to genus). Sorted samples
170 were stored frozen ($-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) in 2 ml plastic tubes. Zooplankton were sampled by vertical hauls
171 through the uppermost 20 m of the water column using a plankton net (diameter = 25 cm, mesh
172 size = 50 μm). This sampling station was located near the deepest sampling point of the benthic
173 transect so as to collect pelagic plankton at their main distribution depths. Zooplankton samples
174 were first stored in a one-liter bucket and then transported to the laboratory for further sieving
175 through a 50 μm mesh to remove extra lake water. Remaining samples consisting of both
176 cladocerans and copepods were stored in 2 ml plastic tubes and frozen at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

177

178 Fish processing

179 Each fish was identified to species: whitefish were identified to morph based on differences in
180 body, head, and gill raker characteristics (see next paragraph). Total length ($\pm 1\text{ mm}$) and blotted
181 wet mass ($\pm 0.1\text{ g}$) were recorded. From subsamples of fish (target sample size of 30 individuals
182 per species), a piece of white muscle tissue posterior to the dorsal fin was dissected, stored in a
183 2 ml plastic tube and frozen at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for stable isotope analysis (SIA). The body cavity of charr
184 was also opened to determine sex and maturity (0 = immature, 1 = mature). Sagittal otoliths were
185 removed from charr for age estimation done by examining whole otoliths submerged in distilled
186 water under a microscope. Stomach contents of charr were quantified using a modified points
187 method (Swynnerton & Worthington, 1940), where stomach fullness was first visually classified
188 from 0 (empty) to 10 (maximum full). Prey items were then identified to the lowest feasible
189 taxonomic level and their relative contribution to total fullness was visually estimated. For
190 undeteriorated prey fish, total length was estimated ($\pm 1\text{ mm}$).

191 We identified whitefish morphs whenever possible: intermediate-sized SSR whitefish have a
192 pronounced downward pointing snout and low number of short and bent gill rakers; large-sized
193 LSR whitefish have a downward pointing mouth and intermediate number of short gill rakers;
194 large-sized LDR have a slightly pointed head, longer upper jaw and high number of relatively
195 long gill rakers; and small-sized DR whitefish have a pointed head, equal jaw length and high
196 number of long gill rakers (Kahilainen & Østbye, 2006; Harrod et al., 2010; Kahilainen et al.,
197 2017). Unlike whitefish, vendace have a longer lower jaw and very high number of longer and
198 finer gill rakers (Kahilainen et al., 2011).

199 The charr shift to piscivory was calculated by excluding data from empty stomachs and coding
200 prey containing stomachs as either 0 (only invertebrates) or 1 (fish or fish and invertebrates). In
201 addition, the normal Levins' B dietary breadth index (Levins, 1968), mean stomach fullness, and
202 number of empty stomachs were reported for each charr population. Finally, *Diphyllbothrium*
203 spp. cysts from the oesophagus and stomach wall of charr were counted from Inari, Kilpis and
204 Raha. This copepod-transmitted parasite is capable of being re-established from planktivorous
205 prey fish to charr, and thus their abundance is correlated with the intensity of piscivory (Hammar,
206 2000; Henriksen et al., 2016). For parasites, we calculated the mean infection intensity
207 (abundance as cysts/individual) and prevalence of infection (percentage of host individuals
208 infected).

209

210 Stable isotope analysis

211 Frozen fish and invertebrate samples were freeze-dried for 48 hours at -50°C or oven dried for
212 48 hours at 60°C . Samples were then ground to a fine powder, weighed (0.5–1.0 mg) and
213 encapsulated in tin cups. Carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) stable isotope ratios were measured
214 using an elemental analyzer connected to an isotope flow mass spectrometer at Max Planck
215 Institute for Limnology (Germany), University of Jyväskylä (Finland), University of New

216 Brunswick (SINLAB; Canada), or University of California Davis (SIF; US). All laboratories
217 used their own internal laboratory standards, calibrated with international standards, Vienna
218 PeeDee Belemnite for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and atmospheric nitrogen for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Analytical precision at all
219 laboratories was $<0.3\text{ ‰}$ for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ based on repeated analyses of internal standards.
220 Charr may have a high lipid content in subarctic lakes (Kahilainen et al., 2016; Thomas et al.,
221 2016), so we arithmetically lipid-corrected carbon values using elemental C:N values (Kiljunen
222 et al., 2006).

223

224 Statistical analysis

225 *Prediction 1:* The trophic ecology of charr was assessed using biological metrics. A non-linear
226 von Bertalanffy growth model was used to estimate growth rate and asymptotic length (von
227 Bertalanffy, 1938). Probit regression was used to estimate length and age at 50% maturity, and
228 the size at which charr shifted to piscivory. Differences in mean sizes of prey in charr stomachs
229 were tested with ANOVA, followed by pairwise comparisons with Tukey's HSD tests. Statistical
230 significance was set to $P < 0.05$. Analyses were conducted using SYSTAT 11.0 (Systat Software
231 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

232 *Prediction 2:* The position and role of charr in lake food webs were assessed using stable
233 isotopes. Previously published stable isotope-based food-web data were reanalyzed (Thomas et
234 al., 2017). Inter-lake variation in stable isotope data was removed by transforming $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
235 into littoral reliance and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values into trophic position estimates using littoral benthic
236 macroinvertebrates and pelagic zooplankton as isotopic end-members and baselines (Karlsson &
237 Byström, 2005). Layman metrics, including littoral reliance (LR) range, trophic position (TP)
238 range, total area of convex hull (TA), mean distance to centroid (CD), mean nearest neighbor
239 distance (NND), and standard deviation of nearest neighbor distance (SDNND), and the core
240 stable isotopic diversity area of the fish community (SEAc) were used to assess how community-

241 level isotopic metrics differed between lakes with and without charr (Layman et al., 2007;
242 Jackson et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2016). Food-web analyses were conducted using the Stable
243 Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R (SIBER; Jackson et al., 2011) package version 3.4.1 (R
244 Development Core Team, 2017).

245

246

247 **Results**

248 Prediction 1: Population structure and biometrics data

249 Charr density was relatively low in all study lakes and ranged from 0.1% in Muddus to 7.6% in
250 Inari (Table 1). The profundal zone was the most important feeding habitat for charr (54.5–
251 100%), and charr were absent from the pelagic zone catches, except in Kilpis, where 2.5% of all
252 charr were captured from pelagic habitats (Table 2). Charr in all lakes attained a large size, with
253 maximum observed total length ranging from 51.5 to 74.3 cm (Table 2). Mean total length and
254 mass of charr were larger in Kilpis (42.6 cm, 1163 g) than in the other charr lakes, whereas the
255 lowest mean age was observed in Inari (Table 2). Asymptotic length ranged 46.8–83.4 cm and
256 growth rate (k) ranged 0.11–0.46, respectively (Table 2). Size at sexual maturity followed the
257 same pattern as asymptotic length: charr in Raha and Muddus reached maturity at a smaller size
258 than conspecifics in Inari and Kilpis (Table 2). Age at sexual maturity was higher in Kilpis and
259 Raha with monomorphic whitefish than Muddus and Inari with polymorphic whitefish. Charr
260 shifted to piscivory at a length of 15.9–24.8 cm and the smallest individual fish (11.2 cm) with
261 fish prey in its stomach was found in Inari (Table 2). Mean prey length differed among lakes
262 (ANOVA, $F_{3,318} = 15.8$, $p < 0.05$), and was larger in Muddus (12.4 cm) than in the other lakes
263 (Tukey's HSD tests, $p < 0.05$). Prey length ranged 1.9–25.2 cm. The smallest prey were
264 ninespined stickleback (*Pungitius pungitius* (L.)), whereas the largest were LSR whitefish (Table
265 2).

266 Fish prey contributed significantly to diets of charr of all sizes (Table 3), with coregonid fishes
267 being important prey for charr. In monomorphic whitefish lakes, small piscivorous charr initially
268 consumed small-bodied fish, such as alpine bullhead, *Cottus poecilopus* Heckel, (Kilpis) or
269 ninespined stickleback, (Raha), and later shifted to larger sized LSR whitefish (Tables 2 and 3).
270 Cannibalism was only observed in Kilpis, where four charr had consumed conspecifics. In lakes
271 with polymorphic whitefish populations, piscivorous charr shifted diets from ninespined
272 sticklebacks to pelagic coregonids, vendace or DR whitefish (Inari), or as in Muddus fed directly
273 on DR whitefish throughout life (Tables 2 and 3). Preference for specific fish prey led to
274 relatively low dietary breadth (Levins B) that generally decreased with length, especially in Kilpis
275 and Raha that had monomorphic whitefish where large charr preyed heavily on LSR whitefish
276 (Table 3). Abundance and prevalence of *Diphyllbothrium* spp. cysts in charr increased with
277 size. The trend was more pronounced in Kilpis and Raha with monomorphic whitefish than in
278 Inari with polymorphic whitefish (Table 3).

279

280 Prediction 2: Stable isotopes and food webs

281 Charr occupied the highest trophic position in all lakes, with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ranging from 10‰ to
282 12‰, and with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging from -27‰ to -24‰ (Fig. 2; Table 4). In Kilpis and Raha
283 (charr and monomorphic whitefish), charr were clearly the sole top predators, whereas in Inari
284 and Muddus (charr with polymorphic whitefish) other piscivores shared the high trophic position
285 with charr (Fig. 2). In the two control lakes without charr (Vuontis and Paadar), brown trout,
286 pike, and burbot were at the top positions in the food web, with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values varying between 8‰
287 and 10‰, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranging from -27‰ to -24‰. Mean littoral reliance (LR) of charr
288 ranged from 30% to 60%, while estimated trophic position (TP) ranged from 3.8 to 4.4, but
289 estimates did not differ between mono- or polymorphic whitefish lakes (Fig. 3).

290 Inclusion of charr increased food-chain length by 17.5–50.5% in monomorphic whitefish lakes
291 and by 2.2–13.9% in polymorphic whitefish lakes, whereas littoral reliance was not affected by
292 charr inclusion in any lake (Fig. 3, Table 5). The total fish community area (TA) increased by
293 51–97.6% and the core stable isotopic diversity area of fish community (SEAc) increased by
294 44.4–50.6% in lakes with monomorphic whitefish, but only 8.1–10.9% and 6.7–9.5% in lakes
295 with polymorphic whitefish, when charr were included in the fish community (Table 5).
296 Inclusion of charr also increased mean distance to centroid (CD) in all lakes, whereas mean
297 nearest neighbor distance (NND) increased in lakes with monomorphic whitefish and decreased
298 in lakes with polymorphic whitefish populations (Table 5). Lakes without charr (Vuontis and
299 Paadar) had variable TA and SEAc, but did not have food-chain lengths as long as lakes with
300 charr (Fig. 3, Table 5).

301

302 **Discussion**

303 Our results showed that charr shifted to piscivory at small size, grew to large asymptotic length,
304 matured late, almost exclusively consumed fish prey, and fed on a wide range of prey sizes. The
305 monomorphic whitefish lakes seemed to have more directed energy flow and based on diet,
306 parasite and stable isotope results had food chains linking invertebrates to LSR whitefish to charr.
307 Comparisons of the total area of the convex hull and the core stable isotopic diversity area of the
308 fish community demonstrated that charr increased the overall isotopic area of the fish community
309 by increasing food-chain length, especially in monomorphic whitefish lakes where charr was
310 clearly the top consumer. In polymorphic whitefish lakes hosting many piscivores, the food-web
311 structuring effects of charr were less pronounced.

312

313

314 Charr as a part of diverse fish communities

315 Charr populations studied here had relatively low densities, and mainly inhabited deep profundal
316 habitats. All the fish communities examined here were dominated by coregonid fishes, which
317 contributed more than 60% (numerical abundance) of the fish catch. Whitefish was the most
318 abundant coregonid, which is a well-known resource competitor for charr due to its more
319 efficient zooplanktivory (Svärdson, 1976; Sandlund et al., 2010; Jensen et al., 2017). In Muddus
320 and Inari, whitefish have diverged into morphs spanning across littoral, pelagic, and profundal
321 zones, thereby reducing invertebrate prey resources (Kahilainen et al., 2017). Resource
322 competition of juvenile charr with polymorphic whitefish for both pelagic and benthic
323 invertebrates is likely intense in these lakes, at least during summer months. However, lakes of
324 this size typically support a more a diverse range of prey species of vary body size, further
325 complicating trophic interactions. This may open an avenue for a small proportion of charr to
326 make a shift to piscivory, ultimately allowing them to prey on their whitefish competitors, further
327 increasing the complexity of interactions between the two species in these systems. In addition,
328 large lakes are generally cold-water environments, where charr may benefit compared to
329 whitefish due to its better growth potential at low temperatures (Siikavuopio et al., 2010). We
330 acknowledge that in small lakes with limited habitat and prey availability, whitefish introductions
331 can be deleterious to charr populations (Svärdson, 1976). In three of the charr lakes, littoral
332 habitats had abundant populations of Eurasian perch (*Perca fluviatilis* L.) and grayling
333 (*Thymallus thymallus* (L.)), which are both likely resource competitors for juvenile charr
334 (Eloranta et al., 2011; Sandlund et al., 2010, 2016). Furthermore, pelagic and littoral habitats,
335 especially in polymorphic lakes, contained piscivorous brown trout that are direct competitors
336 for large charr (Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2002; Thomas et al., 2017). All charr lakes also hosted
337 pike (*Esox lucius* L.) and burbot (*Lota lota* (L.)) that potentially prey on charr (Svärdson, 1976,
338 Byström et al., 2007; Knudsen et al., 2010). Obviously the high resource competition and

339 predation regimes may have contributed to low charr density in the littoral and pelagic zones,
340 and induced a shift by charr to profundal habitats in these lakes.

341

342 Prediction 1: Large-bodied charr as a piscivore in multispecies fish communities

343 Availability of several small-bodied prey fishes likely facilitated the population-level shift of
344 charr to piscivory at 15–25 cm total length. This length at the shift to piscivory is within the range
345 found in other charr lakes, as well as those found in other piscivorous salmonids (L’Abee-Lund
346 et al., 1992; Amundsen, 1994; Mittelbach & Persson, 1998). The shift to piscivory in all studied
347 char lakes was associated with fast growth, large maximum size, and late maturation age. In charr
348 lakes, especially in Kilpis, charr growth and maturation size were more similar to the situation
349 found in warmer lakes at lower latitudes, where charr rely on vendace and smelt (*Osmerus*
350 *eperlanus* L.) as principal prey resources (Hammar, 2014; Hammar et al., 2018). These prey
351 species were not present or native in our subarctic study lakes, in which whitefish was an
352 important food source for all populations. While the mean prey size was typically <10 cm, some
353 fish consumed larger prey (up to 25 cm), which were typically whitefish as has been observed in
354 previous studies of charr diet in multispecies lakes (Amundsen 1994; Hammar, 2014; Hammar
355 et al., 2018).

356

357 Small charr preferred small-bodied prey fish, such as alpine bullhead and ninespined stickleback.
358 Based on charr diets, these species are potentially abundant in lakes, but their abundance cannot
359 be assessed from gill net catches due to their small size, slow swimming speed, and low
360 catchability (Malinen et al., 2014). At a larger size, charr used the most available prey fish,
361 namely coregonid fishes (Eloranta et al., 2015b). The pelagic density of coregonid prey ranged
362 from 80 LSR whitefish per hectare in Kilpis up to 670 DR whitefish per hectare in Muddus
363 (Malinen et al., 2014). In Inari and Raha, pelagic prey-fish density, vendace, whitefish, and their

364 hybrids, reached 390 per hectare in both lakes (Kahilainen et al., 2011; Malinen et al., 2014;
365 Thomas et al., 2016). Prey selection of the most abundant prey in multispecies lakes is typical
366 for charr (Amundsen, 1994; Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2002; Hammar et al., 2018). However,
367 because charr preferred benthic habitat in all lakes, pelagic prey fish density may not directly
368 reflect benthic prey availability, especially of benthic LSR whitefish that could be better assessed
369 using gill net CPUE (Malinen et al. 2014). While cannibalism by charr is common, especially in
370 small lakes with low species diversity, cannibalism was only observed in Kilpis, perhaps because
371 other prey species are generally more abundant and profitable to feed on in multispecies lakes
372 (Amundsen, 1994; Kahilainen & Lehtonen, 2003; Eloranta et al., 2015a). Strict selection of one
373 or two abundant prey species was also evident based on the generally narrow dietary breadth of
374 charr.

375

376 A strong preference for LSR whitefish prey in monomorphic whitefish systems was also
377 indicated by rapidly increasing numbers of *Diphyllobothrium* spp. cysts in the stomach wall of
378 piscivorous charr. This parasite can re-establish infections in salmonid top predators after being
379 ingested in its original coregonid host (Hammar, 2000; Henriksen et al., 2016). Parasite
380 abundance was higher in charr foraging on monomorphic LSR whitefish in Kilpis and Raha (this
381 study, Kahilainen et al., 2011; Hayden et al. 2014), as compared to Inari, where charr fed on a
382 larger variety of prey fishes. This reflects a more direct energy flow from copepods to LSR
383 whitefish, and finally to charr, in monomorphic whitefish systems, as compared to the case in
384 polymorphic whitefish lakes that have more complex prey fish communities and food-web
385 structures. From a parasite transmission point of view, generalist monomorphic whitefish provide
386 a straight pathway to the next trophic level through charr, whereas in polymorphic systems,
387 several potential intermediate hosts are available, so the probability of parasites encountering a
388 final avian host (gulls and divers) is likely lower. Specialist zooplanktivores in polymorphic

389 whitefish lakes, such as pelagic whitefish morphs and vendace, could also be more resistant to
390 *Diphyllbothrium* spp. infections because their parasite abundance and prevalence was generally
391 much lower than observed for LSR whitefish in monomorphic lakes (Kahilainen et al. 2011;
392 Hayden et al., 2014).

393

394

395 Prediction 2: The role of piscivorous charr in lake food webs

396 Stable isotopes indicated that charr were the only, or among the main top consumers, in all charr
397 lakes. In lakes with monomorphic whitefish, inclusion of charr clearly increased total area and
398 core isotopic diversity area of the whole fish community relative to Muddus and Inari with
399 polymorphic whitefish populations. The latter lakes had many other predators (e.g. brown trout,
400 burbot, pike, and lake trout) with similar trophic positions to charr, and as a result exclusion of
401 charr did not substantially alter the isotopic niche areas of these fish communities. The difference
402 between lake types was also evident from contrasting patterns of nearest-neighbor distances that
403 were higher in lakes with monomorphic whitefish than in lakes with polymorphic whitefish. This
404 indicates that polymorphic lakes not only have more piscivorous species sharing the top
405 consumer position with charr, but also a wider array of prey fish (species or ecomorphs). Simpler
406 monomorphic whitefish lakes therefore seem to have more direct food chains than those in
407 polymorphic whitefish systems. Food-chain length was also generally shorter in lakes without
408 charr. For example, Vuontis (monomorphic whitefish population) has many predators (pike,
409 burbot and brown trout) sharing the top consumer position, and thus energy flow is less direct.
410 In contrast, Paadar (polymorphic whitefish) showed less consistent patterns of piscivores, the
411 overall food-web shape was more horizontal than vertical, and there were multiple energy flow
412 pathways.

413 Our food-web data suggest that the role of large charr as top consumer varies in different lake
414 types. The role as apex predator seems to be most pronounced in Kilpis and Raha, which are both
415 deep lakes with simple prey fish communities dominated by monomorphic LSR whitefish. These
416 lakes have limited littoral foraging or spawning habitat available for competing piscivores such
417 as pike and brown trout. Top-down regulation by charr is likely strong in both lakes, inducing
418 strong fluctuations of LSR whitefish populations (Kahilainen et al., 2011; Hayden et al., 2014).
419 Piscivory by cold-water adapted charr, can be an important source of mortality in late winter and
420 spring when they are more active than their main prey, i.e. LSR whitefish (Siikavuopio et al.
421 2010). The deep and cold subarctic lakes with monomorphic whitefish have zooplankton
422 communities dominated by copepods, and sheltered soft-sediment habitats harboring abundant
423 benthic macroinvertebrate sources are scarce. Such lake ecosystems reduce the opportunities for
424 morph divergence (Harrod et al. 2010; Hayden et al. 2014). These low diversity conditions have
425 resulted in more direct energy flow in the food web. They are also prone to population
426 fluctuations across different trophic levels (copepods, LSR whitefish, charr and parasites),
427 making them highly unstable over time as is typical for many Arctic ecosystems (e.g. Hanski et
428 al. 1991; Jepsen et al. 2008). In contrast, higher diversity systems, such as lakes with polymorphic
429 whitefish, have more links and various energy flow pathways to top consumers, making them
430 less prone to fluctuations (MacArthur, 1955; Hutchinson, 1959; Polis & Strong, 1996). Lakes
431 with polymorphic whitefish are associated with a more diverse piscivore fish assemblages within
432 which individuals commonly attain large body-sizes, suggesting that ecological speciation by
433 whitefish has food-web consequences (Thomas et al. 2017). Potentially, the divergence of prey
434 could promote the divergence of predators (Brodersen et al., 2018), but testing this assumption
435 would require considerable research, particularly in large lakes with high habitat availability.

436

437 Climate change implications and future of large charr

438 Climate warming is occurring markedly faster in subarctic and Arctic regions than the global
439 average (Rolls et al., 2017). Climate change is associated with increased nutrient inputs to lakes
440 from surrounding catchments, and invasions by new warm- and turbid-water adapted species
441 have been related to probable local extinction of charr (Hayden et al., 2017). Such invasions are
442 likely important in both high and low diversity systems because the addition of new key species,
443 like vendace, can have considerable ecosystem-level consequences (Bøhn et al. 2008; Kahilainen
444 et al. 2011; Thomas et al. 2016). Increased lake temperature and productivity are also expected
445 to reduce oxygen concentrations in the profundal zone, thereby further squeezing the niche space
446 of charr (Lehtonen, 1996; Guzzo et al., 2017). In addition, polymorphic fish populations are
447 especially susceptible to eutrophication and new species invasions that often lead to local
448 extinction via reverse speciation (Taylor et al., 2006; Vonlanthen et al., 2012; Bhat et al., 2014).
449 All these combined stressors could change the oligotrophic top-down controlled lake ecosystems
450 with long food-chains to bottom-up controlled systems with shorter food chains where fish
451 communities are exclusively dominated by abundant, small-sized, warm-adapted non-salmonid
452 species (Hayden et. al., 2017).

453

454 Conclusions

455 Large piscivorous charr are important apex predators in multispecies subarctic communities.
456 They have an especially important functional role in the species-poor lakes with simple food
457 webs, which are often dominated by monomorphic whitefish. In these lakes, exclusion of charr
458 reduced the stable isotopic area of the fish community by reducing the food-chain length,
459 whereas such effects were less pronounced in systems with more diverse fish fauna (polymorphic
460 whitefish lakes). However, more detailed long-term studies in both lake types are needed for a
461 detailed assessment of the top-down role of charr in whitefish dominated systems. Assessments
462 of how divergence of one species affects other trophic levels, including potential divergence, are

463 also needed. The overall low abundance of charr in the fish communities studied here suggests
464 that management control of new stressors, such as land-use change, introductions or the invasions
465 of new species will be needed to maintain the remaining large-bodied charr populations in
466 subarctic Scandinavia. Moreover, understanding the role of charr in subarctic lakes at present
467 may help to better predict how such systems could change if charr were to become locally extinct
468 as a result of climate change or other anthropogenic factors.

469

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481

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668 Table 1. Lake type (mono-WF=monomorphic whitefish, poly-WF=polymorphic whitefish),
669 location, morphological properties, water chemistry and numerical proportion of different fish
670 species present in the study lakes, based on multi-mesh (12-60 mm) gill net catches (height 1.8
671 m) in the three major habitats in each lake. Fishing effort refers to the number of sampling
672 occasions with two gill net series (1.8 m high and 5 m high). Compensation depth refers to the
673 water column depth, where 1% of surface light was maintained, denoting the border between the
674 littoral and profundal zones. Percentage of profundal is the proportion of this habitat to the total
675 lake surface area. The abbreviations for whitefish morphs are: LSR=large sparsely rakered
676 whitefish, DR=densely rakered whitefish, LDR= large densely rakered whitefish, and
677 SSR=small sparsely rakered whitefish. Minus sign (-) refers to absence and plus sign (+) presence
678 of species in the lake, based on all used fishing methods and stomach content analyses. Note that
679 Vuontis and Paadar are not inhabited by charr.

Parameter	Kilpis	Raha	Muddus	Inari	Vuontis	Paadar
Lake type	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and poly-WF	Charr and poly-WF	No charr, mono-WF	No charr, poly-WF
Location	69°00'N, 20°49'E	68°45'N, 27°17'E	69°00'N, 26°50'E	68°58'N, 27°40'E	69°01'N 27°04'E	68°52'N, 26°35'E
Area (km ²)	37	23	48	32*	11	21
Altitude (m a.s.l.)	473	132	146	118	151	144
Max depth (m)	57	46	73	40*	31	56
Mean depth (m)	19.4	14.1	8.5	14.5	6.5	11.7
Tot P (µg l ⁻¹)*	3	4	4	5	5	7
Tot N (µg l ⁻¹)*	100	100	160	150	180	160
Compensation depth (m)	10	9	7	8	12	5
Percentage profundal (%)	71	57	41	40	20	62
Fishing effort (1.8 m net series)	69	18	30	14	14	42
Fishing effort (5 m net series)	47	18	329	27	23	10
Arctic charr (%)	4.3	3.3	0.1	7.6	-	-
LSR whitefish (%)	88.8	57.7	15.3	10.5	90.4	22.7
DR whitefish (%)	-	-	49.8	13.1	-	43.7
SSR whitefish (%)	-	-	15.6	30.4	-	22.0
LDR whitefish (%)	-	-	2.5	1.8	-	2.0
Vendace (%)	-	9.6	-	24.3	-	-
Perch (%)	-	26.8	14.2	10.9	8.7	5.6
Brown trout (%)	1.4	0.5	1.1	1.0	0.2	1.4
Burbot (%)	3.4	1.4	0.6	0.2	0.2	1.8
Pike (%)	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.1
Grayling (%)	0.9	0.2	0.1	+	0.1	0.5
Minnow (%)	0.8	+	+	+	+	0.1
Alpine bullhead (%)	0.3	-	-	-	-	-
Ninespined stickleback (%)	-	+	+	+	+	+
Threespined stickleback (%)	-	+	+	+	+	+
Lake trout (%)	-	-	-	+	-	-
Landlocked salmon (%)	-	-	-	+	-	-

680 *area and max depth of sampled site are from Nanguvuono bay.

681

682 Table 2. Biological metrics of charr (mean \pm 95% CL). Lake type (mono-WF=monomorphic
 683 whitefish, poly-WF=polymorphic whitefish), sample size, proportion of females, size and
 684 condition, capture habitat of charr samples, von Bertalanffy growth modelling results, sexual
 685 maturation, total length at shift to piscivory, range of prey total length and mean total lengths.

Parameter	Kilpis	Raha	Muddus	Inari
Lake type	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and poly-WF	Charr and poly-WF
Sampling years	2002, 2005, 2006, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012	2005	1999-2002, 2004-2007, 2011	2009-2010
Number of charr	159	66	164	108
Mean total length (cm)	42.6 \pm 2.5	33.3 \pm 2.5	39.1 \pm 1.1	29.9 \pm 3.1
Total length range (cm)	13-74.3	13.6-51.5	15-59.3	11.2-70
Mean weight (g)	1163.3 \pm 187.4	401.3 \pm 74.5	576.5 \pm 49.6	545.9 \pm 139.6
Weight range (g)	14.2-5525	16.3-1296.6	23-2368.4	9.7-4234
Mean age (years)	6.8 \pm 0.3	7.5 \pm 0.7	6.7 \pm 0.2	4.1 \pm 0.5
Age range (years)	1-12	2-13	3-9	1-9
Profundal (%)	84.9	98.3	54.5	100
Littoral (%)	12.6	1.7	45.5	0
Pelagic (%)	2.5	0	0	0
Growth rate (k; vonBertalanffy)	0.14 \pm 0.01	0.22 \pm 0.01	0.46 \pm 0.02	0.11 \pm 0.01
Asymptotic length (L_{∞})	83.4 \pm 1.7	46.8 \pm 0.9	48.8 \pm 0.5	79.4 \pm 3.4
t_0	1.32	0.9	3.0	-0.54
Age at sexual maturity (50%)	8.3 \pm 0.9	8.6 \pm 1.6	5.9 \pm 0.3	6.7 \pm 1
Length at sexual maturity (50%)	50.8 \pm 2.5	37.2 \pm 4.8	36.6 \pm 1.1	43.9 \pm 4.7
Shift to piscivory length (50%)	15.9 \pm 5.6	24.8 \pm 3.6	17.6 \pm 6.1	16.5 \pm 5.8
Length range of charr with fish prey in their stomachs (cm)	15.0-70.4	19.7-51.5	16.2-51.0	11.2-54
Mean prey length (cm)	9.4 \pm 0.9	9.6 \pm 1.4	12.4 \pm 0.6	7.6 \pm 1.6
Range of prey size (cm)	1.9-25.2	2.5-18.1	5.5-24	1.9-17.2
Mean number of fish in stomach	2.8 \pm 0.9	2.5 \pm 0.6	2.1 \pm 0.4	2.2 \pm 1.0
Number of fish in stomach range	0-21	0-9	0-8	0-21
<i>Coregonus</i> sp. (mean \pm 95%CL;range)	-	11.1 \pm 3.1;6.5-17;	12.5 \pm 1.2;5.5-21;	13.5 \pm 1.8; 7-17.2
LSR whitefish	12.1 \pm 1.1;5.6-25.2	12.7 \pm 1.4;6.5-19	13.9 \pm 3.6;7-24 12.2 \pm 0.6;4-	-
DR whitefish	-	-	15.1	10.5 7.8 \pm 1.3;6.2-
Vendace	-	10.7 \pm 4.3;8-15	-	14.5
Ninespined stickleback	-	3.2 \pm 0.3;2.5-4.7	-	2.8 \pm 0.3;1.9-4.5
Alpine bullhead	5.0 \pm 0.3;1.9-7 12.9 \pm 1.9;11.3-	-	-	-
Arctic charr	15.2	-	-	-
Burbot	18.1	-	5.5	-
Perch	-	-	11	-

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687 Table 3. The proportion (%) of different prey categories in the diet of different total length
688 categories (cm) of charr in the study lakes. Abbreviations: BMI=benthic macroinvertebrates,
689 LSR=large sparsely rakered, DR=densely rakered, Levins B= Levins dietary breadth, empty (%)
690 = proportion of empty stomachs, SF=stomach fullness (scale 0=empty, 10=maximum full),
691 n=number of studied stomachs, *Diphyllbothrium* cysts=mean number of cysts in stomach wall,
692 prevalence=proportion of individuals infected. Please note that in Muddus, *Diphyllbothrium*
693 spp. parasites were not counted. Kilpis and Raha have charr and monomorphic whitefish,
694 whereas Muddus and Inari have charr and polymorphic whitefish.

Prey category and diet related calculations	Kilpis			Raha			Muddus			Inari		
	<20	20-39	>40	<20	20-39	>40	<20	20-39	>40	<20	20-39	>40
Zooplankton	37.3	0	0	53.4	6.4	0	13.3	0	0	15.4	0.9	0
BMI	11.5	3.4	0.6	18.9	9.5	0.6	6.7	3.2	0.4	38.7	4.6	0.2
Vendace	0	0	0	0	6.4	3.9	0	0	0	0	34.7	30.0
Unidentified fish	7.7	11.7	4.6	0	2.1	8.4	0	0.9	0	9.4	22.7	5.4
Perch	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.1	0	0	0
LSR whitefish	14.5	61.3	69.7	0	46.0	68.8	0	4.5	10.6	0	0	0
<i>Coregonus</i> spp.	0	0	0	0	23.2	18.2	13.3	40.6	26.8	0	34.7	57.9
Ninespined stickleback	0	0	0	27.7	6.4	0	0	0	0	36.4	2.3	0
DR whitefish	0	0	0	0	0	0	66.7	50.9	60.3	0	0	6.4
Burbot	0	0	4.2	0	0	0	0	0	0.8	0	0	0
Alpine bullhead	29.0	9.2	19.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Arctic charr	0	14.3	1.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Proportion of fish (%)	51.3	96.6	99.4	27.7	84.1	99.4	80	96.8	99.6	45.9	94.4	99.8
Levins B	3.8	2.4	1.9	2.5	3.5	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.2	3.2	3.4	2.3
Empty (%)	22.7	25.6	54.2	16.7	5.1	0	0	34.7	37.4	14.9	38.1	60
mean SF	2.8	2.8	2.1	3.9	4.8	5.1	3.8	3.0	3.2	2.8	2.1	1.2
n	22	43	94	12	39	15	4	75	83	47	21	40
<i>Diphyllbothrium</i> cysts	4.2	49	95.8	0.4	23	38.2	-	-	-	0	4.8	15.6
Prevalence (%)	54.6	100	100	41.7	87.2	100	-	-	-	0	42.9	92.5

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702 Table 4. Sample sizes of different fish species used in stable isotope analyses.

Species	Kilpis	Raha	Muddus	Inari	Vuontis	Paadar
Lake type	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and mono-WF	Charr and poly-WF	Charr and poly-WF	No charr and mono-WF	No charr and poly-WF
Alpine bullhead	17	–	–	–	–	–
Arctic charr	30	30	14	30	–	–
Brown trout	21	30	30	30	19	30
Burbot	30	13	20	30	21	9
Grayling	26	–	23	27	8	7
Lake trout	–	–	–	30	–	–
Minnow	12	–	–	–	–	–
Ninespined stickleback	–	–	–	30	5	9
Perch	–	30	30	30	30	30
Pike	30	6	30	25	28	3
DR whitefish	–	–	30	30	–	30
LDR whitefish	–	–	30	30	–	30
LSR whitefish	120	105	30	30	80	30
SSR whitefish	–	–	30	30	–	30
Vendace	–	30	–	30	–	–
Total sample size	286	244	267	382	191	208

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704 Table 5: Food-web metrics derived from stable isotope data (Layman et al. 2007, Jackson et al. 2011) including trophic position (TP) range, littoral
705 reliance (LR) range, total convex hull area (TA), mean distance to centroid (CD), mean nearest neighbor distance (NND) and standard deviation of
706 mean nearest neighbor distance (SDNND) and core stable isotopic diversity area of fish community (SEAc). In charr lakes, we included values to
707 represent estimates including (Charr) and discounting charr (No charr) and the resulting proportional difference in values (%). Kilpis and Raha host
708 charr and monomorphic whitefish populations, in contrast to Inari and Muddus which host charr and polymorphic whitefish populations. Vuontis
709 (monomorphic whitefish) and Paadar (polymorphic whitefish) are lakes lacking charr and are presented as control lakes.

710

Metric	Kilpis			Raha			Inari			Muddus			Vuontis	Paadar
	No charr	Charr	Δ%	No charr	Charr	Δ%	No charr	Charr	Δ%	No Charr	Charr	Δ%	No Charr	No Charr
TP range	0.75	1.12	50.5	0.74	0.87	17.5	1.22	1.25	2.2	0.97	1.10	13.9	1.04	0.54
LR range	0.55	0.55	0.0	0.40	0.40	0.0	0.67	0.67	0.0	0.57	0.57	0.0	0.45	0.83
TA	0.21	0.32	51.0	0.10	0.19	97.6	0.48	0.52	8.1	0.33	0.36	10.9	0.23	0.27
CD	0.25	0.33	34.9	0.28	0.31	10.9	0.35	0.38	8.6	0.35	0.39	12.0	0.42	0.35
NND	0.18	0.20	8.6	0.15	0.16	9.1	0.18	0.17	-6.9	0.18	0.16	-11.5	0.18	0.22
SDNND	0.15	0.14	-6.9	0.07	0.07	6.6	0.11	0.07	-35.4	0.12	0.10	-12.7	0.14	0.09
SEAc	0.16	0.23	44.4	0.09	0.14	50.6	0.25	0.27	6.7	0.22	0.24	9.5	0.20	0.24

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715 **Figure captions**

716

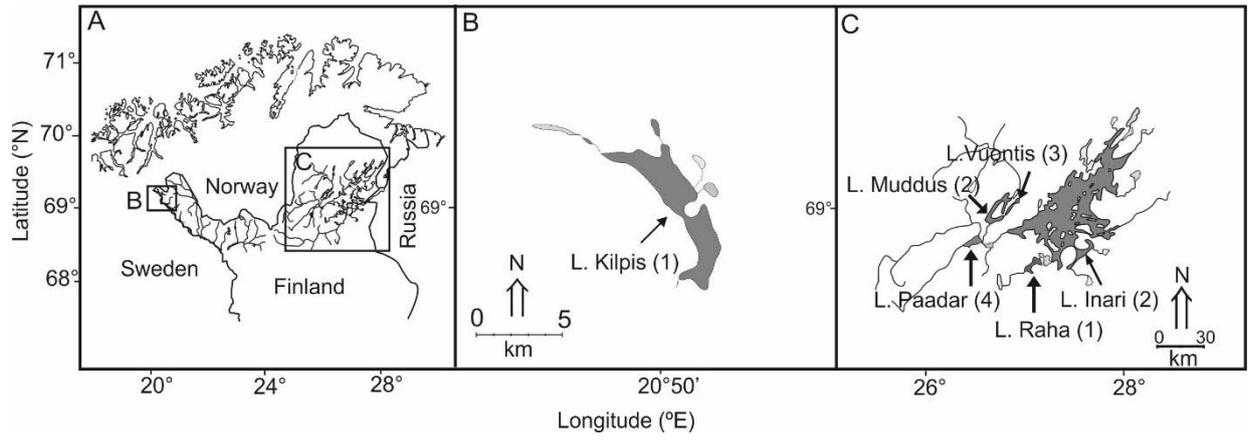
717 Figure 1. Map of northern Fennoscandian (A) showing the location of study lakes in western (B)
718 and eastern (C) Finnish Lapland. The number in the parentheses after lake name refers to type of
719 fish population: 1 = charr and monomorphic whitefish populations, 2 = charr and polymorphic
720 whitefish populations, 3 = no charr and monomorphic whitefish populations and 4 = no charr
721 and polymorphic whitefish populations.

722 Figure 2. Stable isotope bi-plot data showing mean \pm SD values of the littoral benthic
723 macroinvertebrates (LBMI), zooplankton (ZPL) and profundal benthic macroinvertebrates
724 (PBMI). Ellipses show the core isotopic area of different fish species and are presented with
725 abbreviations: AC=Arctic charr, LT=lake trout, P=pike, B=burbot, BT=brown trout, PE=perch,
726 G=grayling, SB=ninespined stickleback, AB=alpine bullhead, V=vendace, M=minnow,
727 LSR=large sparsely rakered whitefish, LDR=large densely rakered whitefish, SSR=small
728 sparsely rakered whitefish, DR= densely rakered whitefish. Kilpis and Raha have charr and
729 monomorphic whitefish, Muddus and Inari have charr and polymorphic whitefish and control
730 lakes Vuontis (monomorphic whitefish) and Paadar (polymorphic whitefish) do not have charr
731 in the fish community.

732 Figure 3. Stable isotopic diversity of the fish communities based on total area (convex hull) and
733 core area (ellipse) with (black line) or without (gray line) including the data for charr. Each point
734 represents the mean value for one fish species. Kilpis and Raha have charr with monomorphic
735 whitefish, but Muddus and Inari have charr with polymorphic whitefish. Please note that Vuontis
736 (monomorphic whitefish) and Paadar (polymorphic whitefish) are not inhabited by charr and
737 presented as control lakes.

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742 Figure 1.

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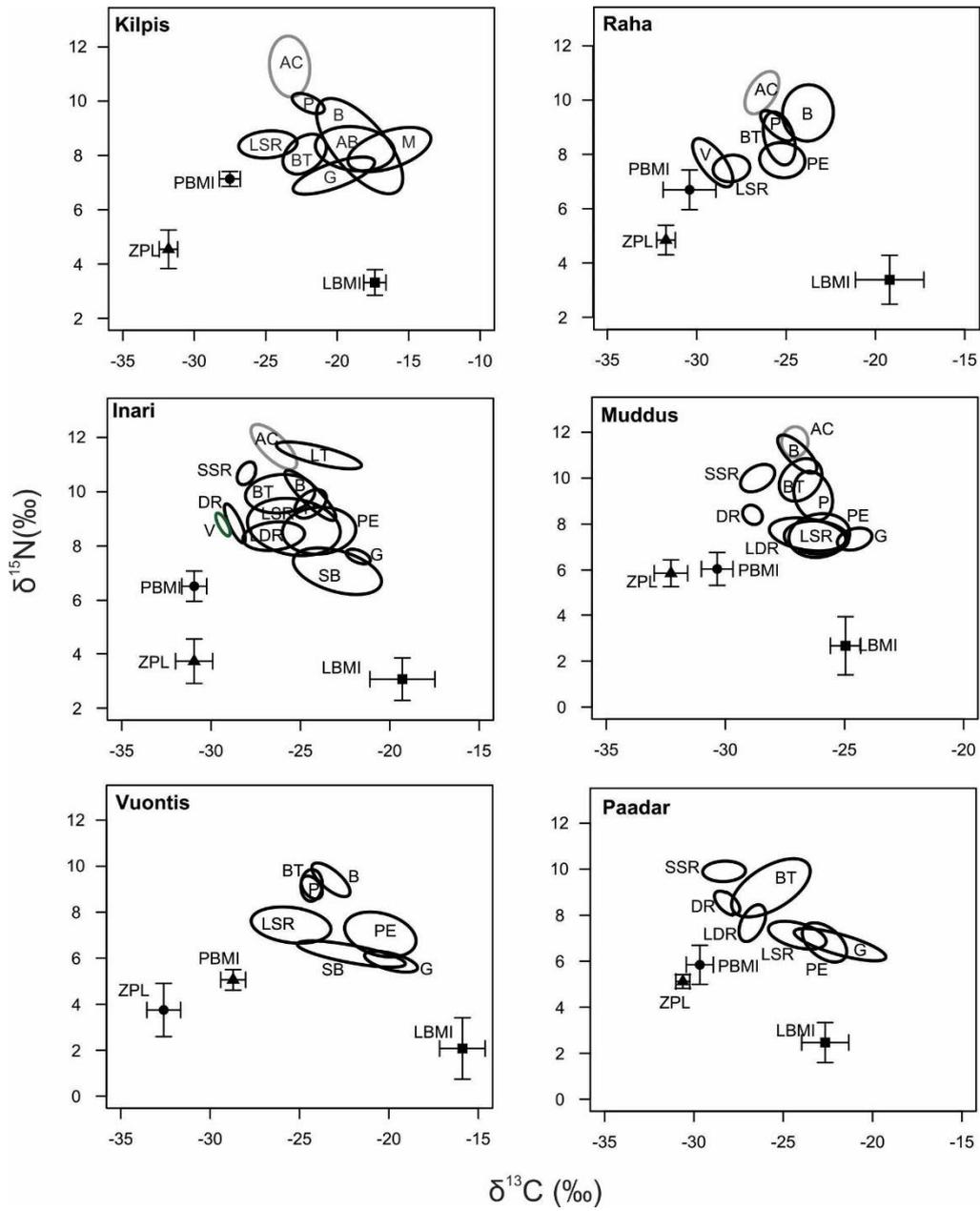
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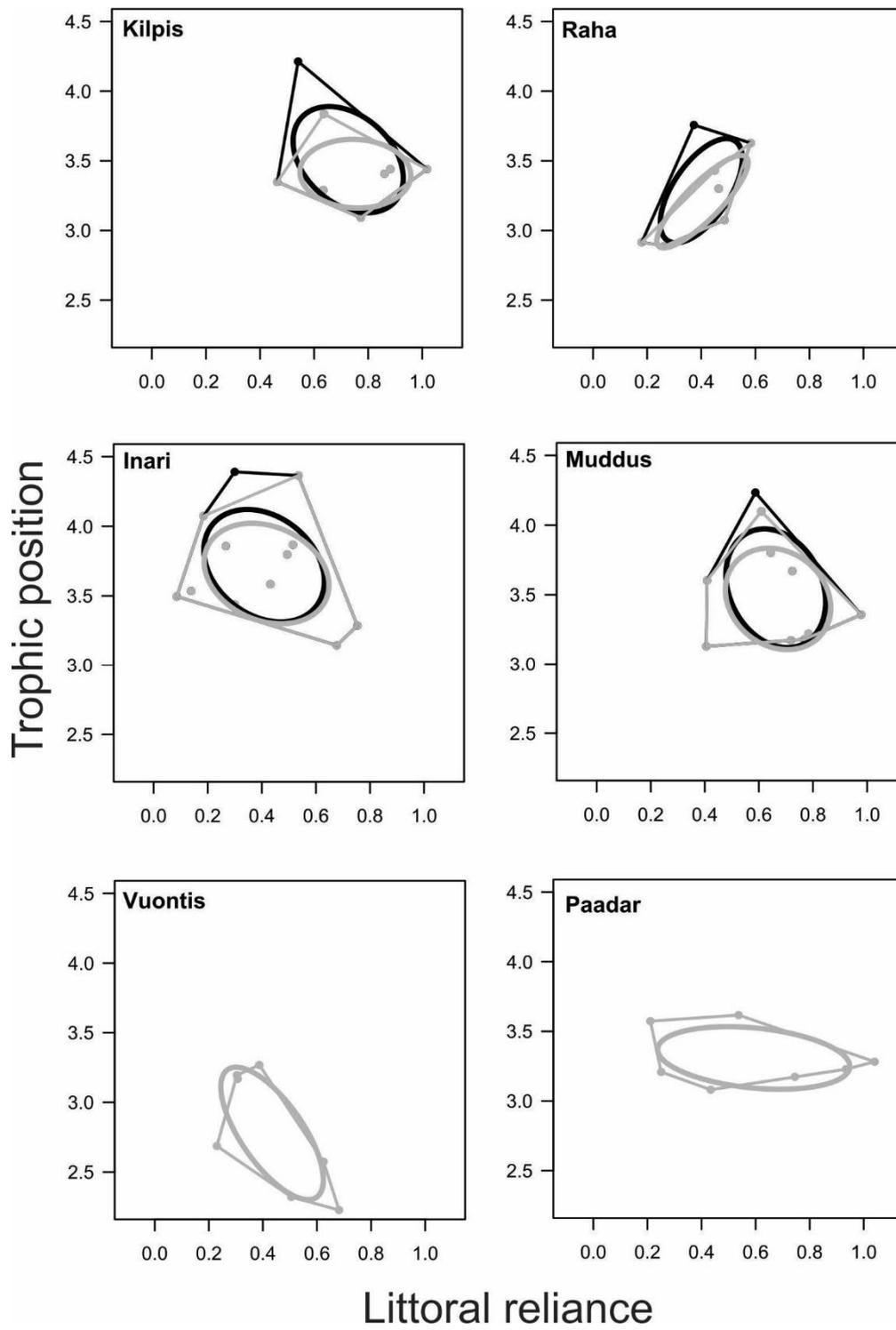
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750 Figure 2.



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752 Figure 3.