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1 **Review and Meta-Analysis of the Environmental Biology**

2 **and Potential Invasiveness of a Poorly-Studied Cyprinid,**

3 **the Ide *Leuciscus idus***

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34 **Abstract**

35 The ide *Leuciscus idus* is a large-bodied cyprinid native to freshwaters around the Baltic, Black,
36 Caspian and North seas. Historically an important commercial species, the ide is exploited in
37 recreational fisheries and as an ornamental fish, and is subject to translocation and stocking
38 events. The ide is less well-studied than many European cyprinids and relatively little is known
39 of the risks it poses to native species and ecosystems where introduced. The present review and
40 meta-analysis examine available data on the ide environmental biology to provide an
41 assessment of its potential invasiveness. A long-lived, omnivorous species, the ide is a habitat
42 generalist that inhabits lowland rivers and nutrient rich lakes, but also some brackish waters
43 where it is facultatively anadromous. The ide displays variable age and length at maturity and
44 asymptotic growth in body length, can be highly productive and migratory, and can withstand
45 variable environmental conditions. Despite several attributes that should facilitate acclimation
46 of the ide to novel environments, the species has established relatively few self-sustaining
47 populations outside its native range, and is therefore not considered to be invasive. As
48 introductions are likely to continue, this propagule pressure could lead to the development of
49 invasive non-native populations in some locations.

50 **Keywords**

51 Morphology; distribution; diet; habitat use; growth; reproduction; parasites; non-native
52 species; environmental impact

53 **1 Introduction**

54 Translocations and introductions of freshwater fish species have a long history in Europe (Copp
55 et al. 2005). Some of these species, such as the ide *Leuciscus idus*, have received relatively
56 little scientific study in both their native and introduced ranges (e.g. Brabrand 1985; Kulíšková
57 et al. 2009; Rohtla et al. 2015a). This is despite the ide domestication and increased use in
58 restoration aquaculture (e.g. Krejszeff et al. 2009; Kupren et al. 2010). Historically a species
59 of economic importance (e.g. Järvalt et al. 2003; Ståhlberg and Svanberg 2011), commercial
60 fisheries for ide have existed in the rivers Ob and Irtysh of East Siberia (Berg 1949; Zhuravlev
61 and Solovov 1984), as well as in some parts of the Baltic Sea, where angling for anadromous
62 populations is still common (Järvalt et al. 2003; Skovrind et al. 2016). The current economic
63 importance of ide in North America (e.g. Mandrak et al. 2014; Howeth et al. 2016) and in some
64 European countries relates to the species' use as a garden pond fish (Vooren 1972; Lever 1977;
65 Copp et al. 2005; Hanel et al. 2011; Harzevili et al. 2012) and as a sport fish for recreational
66 angling (Järvalt et al. 2003), including the ornamental varieties (Hickley and Chare 2004)
67 known as blue orfe and golden orfe (Smith 1995). The name 'ide' is from Swedish *id*, originally
68 referring to its bright colour. According to 'Svensk ordbok' (<http://svenska.se>) it is old
69 Swedish/old Norse and can be dated to 1459–1460 (medieval accountancy documents from
70 Stockholm). Its likely original meaning was *glödande* (glowing) or *strålende* (radiant).

71 Although the ide has been introduced to several parts of the world (e.g. North America, New
72 Zealand, UK, and non-native parts of continental Europe), making it a potentially invasive
73 species, there remains a paucity of information regarding the ide potential threat to native
74 species and ecosystems. In fact, with such poorly-studied species, non-native species risk
75 assessments tend to be characterised by elevated uncertainty (Hill 2009; Humair et al. 2014).
76 To mitigate this, extensive reviews of available past and current literature, from both peer-
77 reviewed and 'grey' sources, have proved useful to inform the risk analysis process of less

78 well-studied species (e.g. Copp et al. 2009a, 2016). Following this approach, the aim of the
79 present study was to carry out a review and meta-analysis of available data and information on
80 the environmental biology of ide, encompassing the species' morphology, distribution, habitat
81 use, ontogeny and growth, reproduction, diet, predators, and parasites and pathogens under
82 natural conditions. The present study thus excludes all literature that covers the use of ide in
83 aquaculture, except for those documents that have a direct bearing on its environmental
84 biology. The present review concludes with a general discussion on the species' potential
85 invasiveness and consequential threat to native species and ecosystems.

86 **2 Review**

87 **2.1 Morphology**

88 The genus *Leuciscus* is one of several genera of the family Cyprinidae in Eurasia. The ide has
89 a streamlined body, with a wide head, blunt snout, and terminal mouth. The dimensions and
90 position of the fins indicate that ide is mainly a still-water species, though this preference for
91 lentic waters appears to hold for juvenile individuals, as sub-adults show a preference for water
92 velocities up to 0.8 m s^{-1} , with no such preference demonstrated by adults (Scholten et al.
93 2003). Dorsal and ventral fins are almost opposite to each other, with the anal fin having a
94 straight or slightly concave hind edge. The dorsal fin usually has three unbranched and eight
95 branched rays, though specimens from the rivers Ob, Kama and Yenisei (Siberia) and from
96 Lake Võrtsjärv (Estonia) have been reported to have 7–9 branched rays (Berg 1949; Järvalt et
97 al. 2003). The pectoral fins have one unbranched and 16–17 branched rays, whereas the
98 respective numbers in the ventral and anal fins are two and eight, and three and 8–12,
99 respectively (Järvalt et al. 2003). In male ide, the first unbranched ray of the pectoral fin is
100 much thicker than in females (Järvalt et al. 2003) and all fins are olive-grey or reddish in colour
101 (Tadajewska 2000; Järvalt et al. 2003). Pharyngeal teeth are in two rows (3.5–5.3, rarely 2.5–
102 5.2) and hooked at the top (Järvalt et al. 2003). Eyes are slightly yellow, the back is green to

103 blackish grey, sides are silvery, and the belly is white. During the spawning period, nuptial
104 tubercles are present on the head and body of both sexes, but to a lesser extent on females
105 (Järvalt et al. 2003). The number of scales of the lateral line varies moderately between
106 populations, ranging from 51 to 65 (Veld 1969; Järvalt et al. 2003). The number of gill rakers
107 and vertebrae is usually 10–15 and 45–48, respectively (Järvalt et al. 2003).

108 There has been little study of the geographical variability in ide morphology. Xantic
109 varieties (*L. idus* aberr. *orfus*) have been reared in Europe since the 18th century, perhaps
110 resulting from intentional selection of mutated individuals (Berg 1949). Currently, the
111 ornamental varieties of ide, golden and blue orfe are reared in Belgium, the Netherlands, New
112 Zealand, Germany, Italy, and the USA (Koopmans and van Emmerik 2006), with imports to
113 the UK in 2000–2004 coming from the latter three countries (Copp et al. 2007). Specimens of
114 golden and blue orfe tend not to differ from the wild form in terms of life-history traits, but
115 may exhibit some variation in the proportions of their body shape (Witkowski et al. 1997).

116 **2.2 Distribution**

117 The native distribution of ide encompasses the river basins that drain into the Baltic, Black,
118 Caspian, White, Barents, Kara, and Laptev seas, extending from the River Rhine basin in the
119 west to Sweden and Finland in the north, to the River Lena basin in the east, and to the Alps
120 and the northern parts of the Black and Caspian seas basins in the south (Fig. 1). The ide is also
121 a common species in the brackish Baltic, Caspian, and Azov seas (Järvalt et al. 2003;
122 Bogutskaya and Naseka 2006). Genetic research on ide is limited to few studies of population
123 structure and demographic history, which have demonstrated higher levels of differentiation
124 amongst freshwater relative to anadromous populations (Wolter et al. 2003; Barinova et al.
125 2004; Zhigileva et al. 2010; Skovrind et al. 2016).

126 The ide has been introduced into some European countries outside its native Eurasian range
127 (Fig. 1), however its native status in some countries remains contentious. For example, in
128 France, Spain, the Netherlands, and Britain the ide is listed as having been introduced with
129 successfully established self-sustaining populations (Holčík 1991; Elvira 2001). In the case of
130 France (Keith et al. 2011), the ide may be native to eastern waters that drain into the Rhine
131 basin, while the ornamental variety ‘ide rouge’ has been introduced elsewhere (Spillmann
132 1961). At least two Dutch sources refer to the ide as being native to the Netherlands (i.e.
133 Koopmans and van Emmerik 2006; Schiphouwer et al. 2014), which includes the River Rhine
134 (Leuven et al. 2011). Undated specimens of ide in the collection of the Muséum National
135 d'Histoire Naturelle de Paris are attributed to the Rhine and two of its tributaries in France, the
136 rivers Moselle and Ill (Pascal et al. 2003). A similar incertitude exists for the Iberian Peninsula,
137 where the ide was previously listed amongst fish species introduced to France but not found in
138 Iberia (Clavero and García-Berthou 2006). Here, the ide was however subsequently reported
139 to have been introduced in the 2000s (Leunda 2010) and is a well-known vector for non-native
140 fish introductions to open waters (Chan et al. 2019). Although previously reported as present
141 in Italy (Copp et al. 2005), a recent re-evaluation found this not to be the case (P. Bianco,
142 personal communication). Greater certainty exists for the UK, where an initial introduction in
143 1874 to lakes at Woburn Abbey (Bedfordshire, England), followed by reports in 1879 of the
144 species in the wild, is well documented (Wheeler and Maitland 1973; Lever 1977). During this
145 era of ‘acclimation societies’ (mid-19th to early 20th centuries), introductions of fish for
146 ornamental purposes, such as pumpkinseed *Lepomis gibbosus*, golden orfe and bitterling
147 *Rhodeus amarus*, occurred both in England (Copp et al. 2007) and elsewhere (Copp et al.
148 2005), including ponds of aristocratic estates of the Russian Empire beginning in 1902
149 (Virbickas 2000). Subsequent introductions of the ide, especially golden and blue orfe, for
150 angling have occurred into water bodies throughout most of England and Wales (Wheeler and

151 Maitland 1973; Hickley and Chare 2004), where the ide is now present in ponds and water
152 courses (Copp et al. 2006, 2007).

153 Introductions of the ide to non-native locations have also occurred within its native range
154 (cf. translocations). For example, in Slovakia golden orfe was introduced to a natural alpine
155 lake (*Štrbské Pleso*), which is located at 1346 m a.s.l. in the High Tatra mountains (Balon and
156 Žitňan 1964). This introduction occurred in the 1930s or early 1940s, and the population still
157 thrives in this lake despite unfavourable conditions of cold water and ice cover lasting for
158 almost six months a year. Introductions outside of Europe include North America and New
159 Zealand. Ide was initially introduced to the USA in 1877 and has since been recorded in at least
160 22 states, including golden orfe in garden ponds and aquaculture facilities of California (Dill
161 and Cordone 1997). Despite a long history of introductions in the USA, a paucity of confirmed,
162 recent records of established populations in that country suggests that most of these
163 introductions have been unsuccessful. With the record being poor and contradictory (Nico et
164 al. 2020), there is high uncertainty about the current status and distribution of ide in the USA.
165 In Canada, there are currently no reported wild populations. Furthermore, the ide is not
166 currently known to occur in the Great Lakes region, though occurrence records for the species
167 do exist from all of the Great Lakes states except for Michigan and Wisconsin (Nico et al.
168 2020). Further, in the mid-1980s golden orfe was introduced to several ponds north of
169 Auckland in New Zealand, and earlier reports indicated that the species may have established
170 self-sustaining populations in these small ponds or lakes (Chadderton 2003), though its range
171 was believed to be highly localised (McDowall 2000). Despite extensive surveys (B. David,
172 personal communication), there have been no recent confirmed reports on the continued
173 presence of ide in New Zealand (Collier and Grainger 2015).

174 **2.3 Habitat use**

175 The ide is a benthopelagic, rheophilic, and potamodromous species that can occupy a wide
176 range of habitats from various freshwater body types to brackish waters. Its habitat is described
177 as a general preference for deep, clean, and cool water of rivers and lakes (Wheeler 1978;
178 Witeska et al. 2014), including large, flow-through, nutrient-rich lakes (Cala 1970; Virbickas
179 2000; Järvalt et al. 2003; Winter and Fredrich 2003; Kulíšková et al. 2009). In the rivers Eg
180 and Uur (Mongolia), ide habitat was described as consisting of slow water velocities in the
181 water column over gravel substratum (Mercado-Silva et al. 2008). The ide is also known to
182 inhabit and feed in brackish estuaries as well as in the Baltic and Caspian seas, where it is
183 commonly found at salinities < 8 (Müller and Berg 1982; Järvalt et al. 2003; Bogutskaya and
184 Naseka 2006). Brackish water ide can usually withstand salinities up to 15 (van Beek 1999),
185 with extreme examples of populations from the Öresund Strait (Sweden) and Zuiderzee
186 (Netherlands), where salinities can temporarily reach even 20 (Veld 1969; Cala 1970). Finally,
187 sudden influxes of saline waters into these habitats are often responsible for mass kills (Carl
188 2012).

189 The ide uses a variety of habitats during different seasons and life history stages, tending to
190 inhabit rivers and flood plains in the early spring to spawn, and shallower littoral or shoreline
191 habitats as larvae and juveniles (e.g. Grift et al. 2003). During the winter, the ide typically
192 retreats to deep holes or refuges in lakes or in the lower stretches of rivers (McDowall 2000).
193 When feeding, the ide seeks out “deep quiet embayments and oxbows, especially where the
194 bottom is overgrown with soft submerged macrophytes” (Dulmaa 1999). In the rehabilitated
195 sections of the River Rhine flood plain, juvenile ide were restricted to shallow areas (< 1 m
196 deep) of various water velocities ($0\text{--}0.40 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) with little (1–5%) inundated terrestrial
197 vegetation cover (Grift et al. 2003). Disappearance of these habitats, caused by river regulation,

198 canalisation, and embankments, is thought to be the limiting factor for growth and survival
199 during the early ontogeny of rheophilic cyprinids (Grift et al. 2003).

200 Given the broad native range of the ide (cf. Section 2.2: *Distribution*), the species tolerates
201 a wide range of temperatures, though the preferred temperature range is 4–20 °C, with
202 minimum and maximum tolerated temperature of near 0 °C and 35 °C, respectively (Leuven et
203 al. 2011). Laboratory studies of upper lethal temperatures for ide under controlled conditions
204 revealed an ability of embryos, larvae, and juveniles to acclimatise to and tolerate increasing
205 water temperatures (Florez 1972a; Kupren et al. 2010). A general lethal/stress range of 24–
206 27 °C has been reported for this species (Lehtonen 1996).

207 Despite having broad temperature and salinity tolerance, the ide is intolerant of low
208 dissolved oxygen concentrations, such as in heavily polluted or eutrophic and turbid waters,
209 with significant mortality of larvae and juveniles at oxygen concentrations < 2 mg L⁻¹ (Florez
210 1972b). Increasing turbidity can result in larger-scale ide movements, possibly due to reduced
211 foraging efficiency of this visually-oriented predator (Kulíšková et al. 2009), and could be a
212 contributing factor to declines or reduced abundance in ide populations at heavily polluted or
213 eutrophic sites in various regions across the species' European range (e.g. Anttila 1973;
214 Penczak and Koszalinska 1993; Kulíšková et al. 2009; Skovrind et al. 2016). The sensitivity
215 and intolerance of ide to pollution has led to suggestions of the species being used as a
216 bioindicator with regard to water quality (reviewed in Witeska et al. 2014).

217 The ide is a migratory (potamodromous) species, undergoing annual upstream spawning
218 migrations in early spring (Ciolac 2004), although in the Baltic Sea and nearshore freshwater
219 river basins it is facultatively anadromous, mostly spawning in fresh (Cala 1970; Eriksson and
220 Müller 1982; Rohtla et al. 2015a) and possibly brackish waters (Erm et al. 1970). After
221 spawning, the adults return to their feeding grounds and later to overwintering habitats in
222 deeper waters from where they move very little (e.g. Kulíšková et al. 2009). Early larval stages

223 are subject to downstream drift (e.g. Zitek et al. 2004a, 2004b), and can represent a major
224 proportion of the larvae found in freshwater tidal estuaries (Scheffel and Schirmer 1991) – a
225 relatively common phenomenon of many European riverine fish species (Pavlov 1994). There
226 are few studies that have examined the habitat use and migratory behaviour of wild ide
227 inhabiting fresh (Winter and Fredrich 2003; Kulíšková et al. 2009) and brackish waters (Cala
228 1970; Eriksson and Müller 1982; Rohtla et al. 2015a).

229 Although ide is often considered to have a limited home range, it can undertake relatively
230 short migrations (Järvalt et al. 2003) with movements up to 278 km and a mean linear home
231 range of 53.5 km, as reported in the Netherlands (de Leeuw and Winter 2006, 2008). For
232 example, upstream migrations have been documented through fish ladders (Lelek and
233 Libosvárský 1960), though in the cited case the ide represented only 1% of the fish observed.
234 Genetic analyses have suggested that in a 120 km stretch of the River Elbe, the resident ide
235 stock could be considered as a single panmictic unit, emphasising the high migration capacity
236 of the species' populations that inhabit the large lowland rivers of central Europe, especially
237 during the spawning period (Wolter et al. 2003). Indeed, great variability in home range area
238 and spawning migration distance, with co-existing highly mobile and mainly sedentary
239 individuals, have been reported for individual adult ide in the middle reaches of the rivers Elbe
240 (Germany) and Vecht (Netherlands) (Winter and Fredrich 2003). Spawning-site fidelity has
241 been detected in all tagged ide in the River Vecht, whereas individuals in the River Elbe moved
242 between 60 and 90 km downstream for spawning and tended to use new spawning sites each
243 year (Winter and Fredrich 2003). Variability in spawning migration patterns observed in
244 different regions across the native range of ide reflect differences in river conditions and may
245 indicate a degree of spawning site plasticity (Kulíšková et al. 2009). In the rivers Elbe and
246 Vecht, differences were also observed in the autumnal upstream migrations to wintering
247 habitats (Winter and Fredrich 2003). A similar study carried out on the upper reaches of the

248 River Elbe found that turbidity significantly increased diurnal movement and home range area,
249 with spawning migrations of 3–100 km always followed by return migrations to the initial
250 tagging location (Kulíšková et al. 2009) – a pattern that is uncommon for most other migratory
251 cyprinids (Smith 1991).

252 In fresh waters, ide movement and dispersal appear to be limited by water retention
253 structures. For example, movement distances of ide in the weir-regulated Meuse River in the
254 Netherlands were shorter than those in free-flowing rivers, and few individuals were observed
255 to migrate further upstream in rivers with fishways at the weirs and hydropower stations (de
256 Leeuw and Winter 2008). The impediment that these structures exert on spawning migrations
257 is one of the mechanisms attributed to population declines of ide and other rheophilic cyprinids
258 in northern Europe (Peňáz and Jurajda 1996; Povž 1996; Schiemer et al. 2004).

259 Spawning runs of anadromous ide in the vicinity of Øresund Strait (Baltic Sea) may extend
260 up to 50 km inland within the River Kävlinge, Sweden (Cala 1970). Also, the few Baltic Sea
261 re-captures of ide tagged in a small river near Umeå (Sweden) were all widely distributed along
262 the coast, suggesting that individuals can cover considerable distances in brackish waters
263 (Johnson 1982). Furthermore, an analysis of the genomic structure of ide populations in the
264 western Baltic Sea region suggested that ide can migrate not only along the coastline, but that
265 they may also cover significant distances (e.g. up to 55 km) across deeper waters of the Baltic
266 Sea (Skovrind et al. 2016). On the Estonian coast of the brackish eastern part of the Baltic Sea
267 (salinity ~4–7), 72% of the sampled ide had hatched in semi-enclosed, brackish bays that are
268 flushed with fresh water during spring spawning, with only 28% of the individuals hatched in
269 truly lotic environments (Rohtla et al. 2015a). The young-of-year (YoY) of anadromous Baltic
270 ide migrate to the sea during the first two months of life (Rohtla et al. 2015a) or after one year
271 in fresh water (Cala 1970). This difference in age at emigration most likely reflects acclimation
272 to different adult rearing salinities, as migration to higher salinities requires larger body sizes

273 in order to withstand increases in osmotic pressure. Following their migration to the sea,
274 juvenile ide subsequently perform annual non-spawning freshwater migrations together with
275 the spawning adults in the spring (Rohtla et al. 2015a).

276 **2.4 Ontogeny and growth**

277 *2.4.1 Early development and growth*

278 The eggs of ide are quite sensitive to environmental perturbations during their initial days of
279 development, with survival as low as 15% in lotic conditions, which drops even further to 1%
280 in lentic conditions with abundant vegetation (Pliszka 1953). Growth rates of ide larvae are
281 amongst the highest in cyprinids, with relative weight gain being rapid during the first year of
282 life and then decreasing with age (Zhukov 1965; Rohtla et al. 2015b). A laboratory study on
283 early ontogeny suggested the presence of eleven different stages in the post-hatch embryonic,
284 larval, and juvenile periods (Kupren et al. 2015). Standard lengths (SL) of ide free embryos at
285 hatching and at two and six months post-hatch are 5–6 mm, 16–24 mm, and 45–57 mm,
286 respectively (Cala 1970; Koblickaya 1981; Järvalt et al. 2003). In earthen aquaculture ponds in
287 Flanders (Belgium), mean SL of YoY fish reared on natural foods at the end of the growth
288 season was 88 mm at densities between 200 and 500 kg ha⁻¹. In low density ponds (i.e. 6.9–
289 12.5 kg ha⁻¹), SL after the first growth season was up to 187 mm (Verreycken 1998). Further,
290 in the River Kävlinge (Sweden), growth of YoY ide has been recorded to end in November
291 (Cala 1970).

292 Somatic growth rates are relatively fast up to sexual maturation, after which they decrease,
293 with annual growth increments becoming minimal after age 10 years (Rohtla et al. 2015b).
294 This makes body length/weight a poor predictor of age in larger individuals (Cala 1970; Rohtla
295 et al. 2015b), with otolith weight being a more robust (indirect) parameter (Rohtla et al. 2015b).
296 There are no reported differences in growth rate between male and female ide (Cala 1970; Erm
297 and Kangur 1985). The largest recorded SL is 665 mm (Witkowski et al. 1997) and total body

298 mass 5.2 kg (Finnish Fishing Journal 1973). Total body mass for ide rarely exceeds 3.0 kg in
299 the Baltic Sea and its tributary basins (Cala 1970; Järvalt et al. 2003; M. Rohtla, unpublished
300 data).

301 *2.4.2 Age and growth*

302 Age of ide has historically been estimated from scale annuli (Cala 1970; Järvalt et al. 2003),
303 though otolith thin sections have recently been used (Rohtla et al. 2015b). The formation of
304 scales commences at 18–21 mm SL when ide are 40 to 50 days old (Ristkok 1970; Cala 1971a).
305 If accurate (annulus-based) age estimates are desired, then stained otolith thin sections have
306 been recommended over scales, especially when dealing with older individuals, with the only
307 disadvantage being represented by the destructiveness of the method (i.e. otolith extraction
308 requires sacrifice of the fish: Rohtla et al. 2015b; see also Vilizzi 2018). The maximum
309 recorded age for ide is 29 years (Rohtla et al. 2015b), with mean age of (anadromous) spawning
310 stocks usually ranging 6–11 years (Cala 1970; Erm and Kangur 1985; Rohtla et al. 2015b). The
311 oldest specimens of ide from the River Danube and its tributaries in Slovakia were nine years
312 old, although 1–3 year old juveniles dominated in populations from various habitats, including
313 the main channel, side arms and tributaries, backwaters, and/or small isolated oxbows (Balon
314 1962). The oldest golden orfe in the introduced population of Štrbské Pleso Lake was 11 years
315 old (Balon and Žitňan 1964).

316 Based on length-at-age data from the native and introduced ranges of ide (Tables A1 and
317 A2; see also Appendix: *Age and growth modelling*), global growth in body length is asymptotic
318 with an estimated $SL_{\infty} = 422.4$ mm (Table 1), and is characterised by large variation within
319 year classes (Fig. 2a) – noting that only recently have ide individuals been aged over 15 years
320 (i.e. up to 29: Nicolaisen 1996; Rohtla et al. 2015b). Lotic populations achieve a larger size
321 relative to lentic ones (Fig. 2b), and the same occurs in arid relative to continental and
322 temperate climates (Fig. 2c), whereas under cold climates asymptotic size decreases

323 progressively in areas with warm, temperate and cold summers (Fig. 2d). Condition factor for
324 ide has been reported to vary from 0.46 to 3.51 (Table 2). The reported total length-weight
325 relationship parameters for ide are provided in Table 3.

326 **2.5 Reproduction**

327 *2.5.1 Sexual maturation, gonad development, and fecundity*

328 In Europe, age at maturity varies with increasing latitude from 1 to 10 years (Table 4). Males
329 usually mature one year earlier than females (Cala 1971b; Balon 1962; Koopmans and van
330 Emmerik 2006), though no differences in age at maturity have been observed among sexes in
331 Estonia (Oolu 1970; Haberman et al. 1973). Also, gonads of older and larger ide tend to ripen
332 earlier in the season than gonads of smaller fish or first-time spawners (Cala 1971b). The cycle
333 of male gonad development in Lake Võrtsjärv (Estonia) commences in July and reaches its
334 final stage by October/November, when the gonado-somatic index (GSI) is between 1.2% and
335 1.8%, increasing with body size. Males can render milt prior to spawning and continue to
336 produce milt for relatively long periods (Cala 1971b; Järvalt et al. 2003). In females, ovaries
337 are located only in the dorsal area of the body cavity, apparently associated with the swim
338 bladder by connective tissue. In juveniles, immature ovaries are cylindrical, but with age
339 become dorso-ventrally slightly flattened. When sexual maturity is reached, the ovaries extend
340 into the proximal direction of the abdominal cavity. The entire body cavity of spawning ide,
341 except for the space occupied by internal organs, is then filled by the ovaries (Cala 1971c).

342 Ovary development in the ide commences in July of the year prior to spawning and reaches
343 its final level by October/November when GSI can be between 15% and 30%, increasing with
344 body size (Cala 1971b; Järvalt et al. 2003). In female ide from the River Danube (at Paks,
345 Szödliget, and Dunakiliti in Hungary), GSI in March was 7%, increasing to 15.6% in early
346 May, decreasing to 10% in late May, and then to < 1% in July and August, and increased again
347 to about 6% in September–November (Lefler et al. 2008). Two weeks before the onset of

348 spawning, the ovaries of ripening females contain three types of developing eggs (Cala 1971c):
349 unripe (diameter = 0.1–0.5 mm, to be spawned in subsequent years), ripening (0.5–1.3 mm),
350 and ripe (1.3–1.85 mm). In the River Danube, the transition of oocytes from the stage of
351 primary growth to cortical alveoli in ide was observed in July–August, with vitellogenesis
352 initiated already in August–September (Lefler et al. 2008). In March, the ovaries ide from the
353 River Danube contained oocytes in the stage of vitellogenesis only, whereas in July no
354 vitellogenic oocytes were present, and oocytes in the stage of primary growth were much more
355 numerous than those at the stage of cortical alveoli. In September, only a few oocytes in the
356 stage of cortical alveoli were present, with those in primary growth and vitellogenesis being
357 almost equal. In October, oocytes in the stage of cortical alveoli remained low, with
358 vitellogenic oocytes being predominant (Lefler et al. 2008).

359 The diameter of mature eggs varies from 1.4–2.3 mm (Table 5), and egg size does not appear
360 to depend on female size (Järvalt et al. 2003). Ide of age 4 years from Lake Mosag (Poland)
361 produced smaller eggs (1.28 mm) than 5–9 year-old conspecifics (1.44–1.57 mm) (Targońska
362 et al. 2012). The oldest individuals in the population either produced the highest percentage of
363 both dead embryos during incubation and morphological abnormalities in hatched larvae, or
364 they failed to produce eggs at all (Targońska et al. 2012).

365 Absolute fecundity of female ide is highly variable (Table 5) and most likely depends on
366 growth rate, size at maturity, life-history type, and/or geographic origin. The most distinct
367 increase in absolute fecundity is observed between the fourth and seventh year of life
368 (Targońska et al. 2012). In the River Kävlinge (Sweden), absolute fecundity was better
369 correlated with body mass rather than body length, ovary weight or age (Cala 1971b). Relative
370 fecundity (per gram of eviscerated weight) was 65–124 eggs in Lake Võrtsjärv, Estonia (Pihu
371 1960), and 153–182 eggs in the rivers Nasva and Kasari (Erm and Kangur 1985).

372 2.5.2 *Reproductive behaviour*

373 Spawning in ide occurs during one clear seasonal peak per year in the early spring (Lefler et
374 al. 2008). Depending on location, this can occur anytime between February through June
375 (Vriese et al. 1994; Dulmaa 1999; de Leeuw and Winter 2008; Witeska et al. 2014) and is
376 triggered by increasing water temperatures. A similar time frame has been reported for
377 locations of the River Danube in Hungary (Lefler et al. 2008). In the Ural and west and central
378 Siberia regions (Russia), Estonia, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, and Sweden, spawning takes place
379 between the beginning of March and the beginning of June at water temperatures of 4 °C to
380 13 °C (Ereshchenko 1956; Zhukov 1965; Cala 1970; Zhuravlev and Solovov 1984; Virbickas
381 2000; Järvalt et al. 2003; Petlina and Romanov 2004).

382 Spawning usually commences a few days after ice break-up and generally lasts only 3–9
383 days under stable temperatures (Cala 1970; Zhuravlev and Solovov 1984; Järvalt et al. 2003).
384 Males reach the spawning grounds earlier and depart later than females (Cala 1970). Sex ratio
385 during spawning can be slightly in favour of either females or males, but usually does not
386 significantly deviate from a 1:1 ratio as in the Baltic Sea (Cala 1970; Oolu 1970; Erm and
387 Kangur 1985). A ratio of 1:3.67 (F:M) has been documented in fresh waters of Serbia (Lujić et
388 al. 2013). Larger individuals usually spawn first (Cala 1970), with spawning occurring in the
389 vegetated and marshy zones of lakes (Popov et al. 2005) or in river backwaters and flood plains
390 (Zhukov 1965; Petlina and Romanov 2004). Spawning habitat requirements include water
391 velocities of 0–60 cm s⁻¹ at depths of 0–100 cm over substrata that can contain stones, coarse
392 gravel, fine and coarse sand (Vriese et al. 1994), but also pebbles covered with algae, flooded
393 grass, and plants associated with sand (Mann 1996). Spawning in the flooded shallow regions
394 of lakes and rivers usually occurs at depths of 0.5–1.0 m, mainly on dead vegetation (Haberman
395 et al. 1973; Zhuravlev and Solovov 1984; Erm and Kangur 1985). In the brackish coastal waters
396 of Estonia, spawning occurs on algae (e.g. *Chara* sp.) or sandy/stony bottom (Oolu 1970; Erm

397 and Kangur 1985). Spawning occurs during both day and night (Cala 1970; Petlina and
398 Romanov 2004). Adhesive eggs attach to vegetation, gravel or other substrata (Cowx and
399 Welcomme 1998). Ide do not guard their eggs once laid, and the duration of the embryonic
400 development depends on ambient water temperatures and lasts about two weeks at 10–12 °C
401 (Järvalt et al. 2003). The hatched embryos stick to macrophytes and start active swimming
402 shortly before absorption of the yolk sac at 6.1–6.9 mm SL (Järvalt et al. 2003). The nursery
403 habitat of ide has been described as having velocities of 0–10 cm s⁻¹ at depths of 0–100 cm
404 (Vriese et al. 1994).

405 Reproductive success in ide depends on water temperature and level during spring
406 spawning. Springs without steep drops in water temperature, accompanied by high and stable
407 water levels throughout the season, usually result in successful spawning events (Cala 1970;
408 Florez 1972a; Järvalt et al. 2003). Preferred temperatures for spawning are variable depending
409 on location, though ide typically require cooler waters. For example, although a preferred
410 temperature range of 15.7–19 °C for spawning has been reported (Kupren et al. 2010),
411 temperatures above 16 °C may result in reduced ovulation success (Targońska et al. 2011).
412 Variability in preferred spawning temperatures indicates that ide is highly plastic in spawning
413 requirements (Kucharczyk et al. 2008; Winter and Fredrich 2003). Deficiency in oxygen levels
414 (e.g. due to pollution) during early development (cf. eggs and larvae), along with predation,
415 can also affect spawning success (Cala 1970, Florez 1972b).

416 Where they co-occur, ide can occasionally hybridise with common bream *Abramis brama*,
417 asp *Leuciscus aspius*, common carp *Cyprinus carpio*, dace *Leuciscus leuciscus*, roach *Rutilus*
418 *rutilus*, and rudd *Scardinius erythrophthalmus* (Schwartz 1972, 1981; Kopiejewska et al. 2003;
419 Yadrenkina 2003; Witkowski et al. 2015). It is not clear whether these hybridisations have had
420 negative impacts on parental species in the wild.

421 **2.6 Diet**

422 The ide is generally described as omnivorous (Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985; Järvalt et al. 2003),
423 though occasionally as herbivorous (Winfield and Nelson 1991), with a stable isotope study
424 conducted in Lake Baikal (Siberia) suggesting that in the littoral zone the species is both
425 detritivorous and planktivorous (Katzenberg and Weber 1999). The range of food items
426 encompasses molluscs, crustaceans, bryozoans, insects, fish eggs and larvae, as well as age 0+
427 and 1+ juveniles of cyprinids, higher plants (macrophytes), seeds, detritus, rotifers, algae, and
428 insect larvae (Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985; Rask 1989). These studies all suggest a broad and
429 opportunistic diet, encompassing both animal and plant taxa (Table A3) and varying according
430 to ontogeny and season (Cala 1970), with the shift to plants apparently influenced strongly by
431 the intensity of inter- and intra-specific interactions and by the availability of animal prey
432 (Brabrand 1985).

433 The onset of exogenous feeding in ide larvae is at 6.1–6.9 mm SL in the wild (Petlina and
434 Romanov 2004) and at 6.5–7.2 mm SL under controlled (laboratory) conditions (Kupren et al.
435 2015). Larvae of 8.9–16.2 mm SL were found to feed on zooplankton and benthic
436 invertebrates, whereas juveniles (20.3–28.4 mm SL) fed on insects and plant material (Petlina
437 and Romanov 2004; Zygmunt 1999), and in Lake Võrtsjärv (Estonia) YoY ide mainly
438 consumed Trichoptera, Ephemeroptera, and Chironomidae (Järvalt et al. 2003). Sub-adults and
439 adults feed on plant material and benthic invertebrates, with larger individuals also preying on
440 fishes (Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985; Rask 1989; Järvalt et al. 2003), including juvenile bighead
441 carp *Hypophthalmichthys nobilis*, roach, and common bleak *Alburnus alburnus* (Sanft 2015).
442 In the River Kasari (Estonia), the diet of adult ide comprised *Asellus* sp., Trichoptera, Diptera,
443 Coleoptera, and Chironomidae larvae (Järvalt et al. 2003). In the River Yenisei (Siberia), the
444 main prey item of adults was represented by Mollusca (Dolgin 2009), whereas in the upper
445 River Ob (Siberia), prey items included Coleoptera, Trichoptera, Odonata, and Chironomidae

446 (Zhuravlev and Solovov 1984). In the upper River Volga basin, Dreissenid mussels are
447 important food items for benthophagous fish species, including ide, the latter having been found
448 to consume the largest-sized mussels amongst fish in the region (Shcherbina and Buckler
449 2006). In the brackish coastal waters of Estonia, smaller ide mainly feed on Ostracoda,
450 Amphipoda, and small snails, whereas larger specimens feed mostly on clams and the
451 crustacean *Saduria entomon*. Occasionally, small fishes such as ninespine stickleback
452 *Pungitius pungitius* and eggs and young of whitefish *Coregonus lavaretus* are also consumed
453 (Oolu 1970; Järvalt et al. 2003).

454 Seasonal changes in the diet of ide vary according to prey availability (Tyutakov 1956;
455 Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985). For example, in Lake Kurgaldzhin (Kazakhstan), sub-adults and
456 adults mainly preyed upon *Gammarus* sp. (53%) in spring, whereas macrophytes represented
457 only 5% of the biomass intake in spring, which increased to 95% in summer, and with
458 Chironomidae becoming important in autumn (Tyutakov 1956). In the River Kävlinge
459 (Sweden), plant material (such as *Lemna minor* and *Potamogeton* sp.) and seeds were also
460 mainly eaten in summer and early autumn (Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985). Fish eggs were present
461 in the diet in May only, and YoY fishes in October and November (Brabrand 1985). In winter,
462 ide do not stop feeding (Järvalt et al. 2003), with Oligochaeta representing a main winter dietary
463 item in the River Kävlinge (Cala 1970). In mesotrophic lakes of southeast Norway,
464 consumption of macrophytes by ide increased when animal food supply was scarce (Braband
465 1985). In that study, ide was observed to feed upon various marsh plants (e.g. water horsetail
466 *Equisetum fluviatile*) as well as upon clasping pondweed *Potamogeton perfoliatus* in shallow
467 littoral areas of the lakes. Also, diet shift to plants appeared to be strongly influenced by the
468 supply of animal food items and the intensity of interspecific competition with roach.

469 The ide is a visually-oriented feeder and consequently experiences reduced foraging success
470 where turbidity is high (i.e. visibility is low) (Kulíšková et al. 2009). In addition, the ide is

471 considered to be a hearing specialist (cf. ostariophysian fishes), such that hearing may also play
472 a role in prey localisation (Schuijf et al. 1977).

473 **2.7 Predators**

474 All ontogenetic stages of ide are susceptible to some level of predation. The eggs and larvae of
475 ide are heavily predated by threespine stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, even driving the
476 local extinction of ide populations in Norway (Nicolaisen 1996). Juvenile ide are susceptible
477 to predation by piscivorous species of fish including pikeperch *Sander lucioperca* and northern
478 pike *Esox lucius* (Ciesla and Kaczkowski 2004), and the Amur catfish *Silurus asotus* also has
479 been listed as a predator of ide (www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/77315). In the River Lena
480 (Siberia), the absence of ide in some stretches was postulated to be the result of a high density
481 of predators, dominated by the taimen *Hucho taimen* – a large salmonid native to the region
482 (Holčík 1984). It has also been suggested that predation by brown trout *Salmo trutta* was likely
483 responsible for the decreases of ide abundance following stream water quality improvement
484 (Eklöv et al. 1998). The ide is most likely to be predated at small size (i.e. as juveniles), whereas
485 larger individuals reach a size refuge from gape-limited predators (Diekmann et al. 2005).
486 Finally, northern pike can reportedly prey on both juvenile and adult stages of ide
487 (www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/77315).

488 The ide is also susceptible to predation by piscivorous birds such as great cormorant
489 *Phalacrocorax carbo sinensis* and osprey *Pandion haliaetus*. In Norway, ide are vulnerable to
490 predation by ospreys, as evidenced by the significant proportion (i.e. 32%) of ide in the diet of
491 these birds in some locations (Swenson 1979). Cormorant predation on ide has been observed
492 in Estonia (Vetemaa et al. 2010), the Netherlands (Veldkamp 1995), and the Czech Republic
493 (Kortan et al. 2008), where fishpond losses of ide were attributed to cormorant predators.
494 Maximum prey size of cormorants is ~1 kg and, since most adult ide typically weigh >1 kg,

495 adult ide might escape predation by cormorants in Estonian coastal waters (Vetemaa et al.
496 2010).

497 **2.8 Pathogens and parasites**

498 Spring Viraemia of Carp (SVC) is the most serious viral disease to which ide are susceptible
499 (Dixon et al. 1994), and this is regarded as a notifiable disease by the Office International des
500 Epizooties (OIE). Transmission of SVC is usually through introduction of fish infected with
501 the virus. In recent years, the emerging disease koi herpesvirus CyHV-3 (KHV) has spread
502 worldwide, causing significant mortalities amongst common carp and its ornamental varieties,
503 and has also been designated as notifiable by the OIE. Whilst ide do not appear to be susceptible
504 to infection with KHV, Bergmann et al. (2009) isolated the virus from healthy individuals,
505 suggesting that ide may develop carrier status if exposed to this virus. Also, mortalities of
506 cyprinid species caused by a virus with a close serological relationship to pike fry rhabdovirus
507 (PFR) have been reported (Way et al. 2003). Although the ide was not amongst the affected
508 species, it is likely that it is susceptible to this virus, as suggested by experimentally infected
509 ornamental varieties of ide with PFR-80560 (Haenen and Davidse 1993). Bacterial diseases of
510 ide are considered to be non-species specific and include *Flexibacter columnaris* and
511 *Aeromonas punctata* (De Charleroy et al. 1993), even though little information exists on
512 mortalities of wild ide caused by bacteria.

513 The ide can be infected by a wide range of mainly generalist parasites that infect cyprinids
514 and other freshwater fish species (Table A4). The taxonomic diversity of the parasitofauna is
515 high, partly because ide acts as a host to marine parasites e.g. *Hysterothylacium aduncum* and
516 *Pseudoterranova decipiens* (Palm et al. 1999) due to its tolerance of brackish water
517 environments (Järvalt et al. 2003). In addition, the diversity of indirectly transmitted parasites
518 that use intermediate hosts such as molluscs and fish reflects the broad dietary spectrum of ide
519 (Järvalt et al. 2003). The species richness of certain groups, particularly protists, platyhelminths

520 and nematode larvae, may not be accurate since the records of many ide parasites are by
521 morphological identification, which can be unreliable without molecular confirmation. Ide
522 have the potential to act as a source of parasitic infection, but no more than other cyprinid
523 species. The ide can harbour high numbers of directly transmitted parasites, such as the
524 crustacean *Ergasilus sieboldi*, which can cause pathology in wild fish populations (Alston and
525 Lewis 1994). The ide also acts as an intermediate host for parasites of veterinary and medical
526 importance such as the liver fluke *Opisthorchis felineus* (Izumova 1987) and the highly
527 pathogenic eel swimbladder nematode *Anguillicoloides crassus* (Thomas and Ollevier 1992).
528 Most notably, wild ide in Norway were reported to be infected with *Spironucleus vortens*
529 (Sterud and Poynton 2002), suggesting that ide could potentially constitute a threat as a
530 reservoir for spironucleosis, which is highly pathogenic to cultured fish. The common
531 ectoparasites *Argulus foliaceus* and *Piscicola geometra* can act as mechanical vectors of SVC
532 (Ahne 1985) which has been isolated from ide (Dixon et al. 1994).

533 **2.9 Threats, conservation and commercial importance**

534 In rivers across Europe, the ide and other rheophilic cyprinids have experienced declines and
535 in several cases are considered vulnerable or endangered (review in Grift 2001; see also Winter
536 and Fredrich 2003). Within its native range, the ide continues to be threatened by human-
537 mediated impacts such as pollution and eutrophication (Müller 1982; Kulíšková et al. 2009),
538 water retention structures and habitat destruction in rivers (Peňáz and Jurajda 1996; Scholten
539 et al. 2003; Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016), habitat modifications in brackish waters (Veld
540 1969), non-native species introductions (Zhuravlev and Solovov 1984; Petlina and Romanov
541 2004), and overfishing (Erm and Kangur 1985). Changes in future climate might also pose a
542 threat, with the species being predicted to suffer from reduced temperature compatibility in its
543 introduced range of England and Wales (Britton et al. 2010). As a result of all these pressures,
544 there is a growing interest in ide aquaculture, particularly in Poland, for the purpose of

545 restocking to supplement declining natural populations (Kucharczyk et al. 2008; Kupren et al.
546 2010). This interest in ide aquaculture is, at least partly, economical as it is derived from current
547 fisheries regulations that force angling associations to stock ide to all water bodies.
548 Interestingly, following the impoundment of the River Warta (Poland), ide was one of the most
549 abundant fish species in the most degraded section of this river, probably due to the absence of
550 large rheophilic fishes (Kruk 2007), hence demonstrating that in some locations ide can prevail
551 under conditions of environmental perturbation and weak competition. Counter-intuitively,
552 long-term stream water quality improvement in southern Sweden has resulted in considerable
553 decline of ide abundance whilst facilitating increases in brown trout *Salmo trutta* abundance
554 (Eklöv et al. 1998). Whereas, no difference in ide presence has been reported for the River
555 Rhine despite water quality and habitat improvements between 1980–1990 and 2000–2010
556 (Fedorenkova et al. 2013).

557 Relatively fast growth rates and large body size make ide a desirable target for commercial
558 and especially recreational fisheries, and as a consequence it is a popular sport fish across
559 Europe (Järvalt et al. 2003; Hickley and Chare 2004; Harzevili et al. 2012). The peak of the
560 commercial importance of ide dates to the 1920–30s in countries such as Estonia and the
561 Netherlands, whereas little is known about the current importance, stock status, and
562 conservation of this species in most other countries. Notably, the ide is currently marked as of
563 ‘Least Concern’ in the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species
564 (www.iucnredlist.org/species/11884/3312021), although it is classified as being ‘Vulnerable’
565 to ‘Endangered’ in a number of countries across Europe.

566 In Belgium, the ide is considered an important fish for recreational angling, with ongoing
567 re-stocking programmes in Flemish rivers since the 1990s (1–5 tons yr⁻¹ since 2000), which
568 however have not (yet) resulted in increased abundances (Flemish Freshwater Fish Monitoring
569 Network: H. Verreycken, unpublished data). In Flanders, where the species is currently marked

570 as ‘Vulnerable’ according to the Flemish IUCN Red List (Verreycken et al. 2014), there is a
571 closed angling season for ide from April 16 through May 31. Also, a minimum angling size of
572 25 cm (total length: TL) is in force in Wallonia, but not anymore in Flanders.

573 In Estonia, the ide has historically been an important commercial species with catches of
574 freshwater resident (mainly lakes Peipsi and Võrtsjärv) and anadromous individuals peaking
575 in the 1920–30s and in the 1980s at 54 and 177 tons yr⁻¹, respectively (Järvalt et al. 2003).
576 Currently, catches of 3–5 tons yr⁻¹ are reported from coastal waters (www.agri.ee). Overfishing
577 during the spawning runs has been the main factor responsible for the collapse of anadromous
578 ide stocks in the country (Erm and Kangur 1985). To protect ide stocks in the sea and coastal
579 rivers, a legal minimum size of 38 cm (TL) and several no-fishing zones have been established.
580 Despite these measures and an almost complete cessation of commercial fishing for ide, most
581 stocks in the coastal sea have not yet recovered from the collapse (Eschbaum et al. 2016). A
582 relatively steep increase in the numbers of juvenile ide has been recorded in recent years
583 (Eschbaum et al. 2016), suggesting that successful spawning seasons, albeit irregular, can result
584 in high densities of sub-adults. Ide is a popular sport fish in Estonia, and recreational anglers
585 from all over the country travel to West Estonia to target anadromous ide from the Baltic Sea
586 during its spawning migration into rivers and semi-closed bays. The number of different
587 anadromous spawning stocks is unknown, but the most abundant runs occur in Hiiumaa Island
588 (Käina Bay and Kõrgessaare region) and in Matsalu and Saunja bays. No re-stocking of ide is
589 currently conducted in Estonia. In the Estonian Red List of Threatened Species, ide is currently
590 marked as ‘Data deficient’ (<http://elurikkus.ut.ee>).

591 In Finland, ide used to be a popular species for household use, but it has fallen into disfavour
592 along with the general decrease in appreciation of cyprinids for human consumption. Some ide
593 are still caught for the market in the Archipelago Sea and the Gulf of Finland as well as in
594 estuaries of the northern Gulf of Bothnia. Ide stocks have been declining locally owing to

595 eutrophication, dam building, and water level regulation, and some stocks have even vanished
596 as a result of water acidification. In the Finnish Red List of Threatened Species, ide is currently
597 marked as ‘Least concern’.

598 In Latvia, ide is a common species in coastal waters, but populations are small and the
599 number of rivers inhabited by the species has declined from ~76 to ~40 (Birzaks et al. 2011).
600 Landings of ide have decreased in the traditional fishing areas of the coastal waters of the Gulf
601 of Riga (western Latvia), where a minimum legal size of 30 cm (TL) has been established. In
602 the Latvian Red List of Threatened Species, ide is currently not listed (J. Birzaks, personal
603 communication).

604 Albeit rare in coastal waters of Lithuania, ide is still common and relatively abundant in the
605 Curonian Lagoon and in the largest rivers of the country, namely the Nemunas and Neris
606 (Virbickas 2000; Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016). Similar to Estonia, a substantial increase in
607 the numbers of juvenile ide has been recorded in the River Nemunas and Curonian Lagoon in
608 recent years, although in other rivers ide abundance has remained unchanged or has decreased
609 (Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016). In the River Nemunas, the relative abundance of ide juveniles
610 varied from 1.1% to 2.9% in 2015 (Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016), and in the Curonian Lagoon
611 juveniles comprised 3.1–6.7% of the entire juvenile fish community of the shore area in 2012
612 (Repečka et. al. 2012). Ide has never been commercially important in Lithuania, and until the
613 1980s annual landings rarely exceeded 4 tons yr⁻¹ (mean 2.5 tons). Landings of ide dramatically
614 decreased in the 1990s to 0.2–0.3 tons yr⁻¹ and even further at the beginning of the 21st century,
615 with mean landings being at just 33 kg yr⁻¹ (Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016). Some signs of
616 recovery were observed in 2015, when commercial catches suddenly increased to 419 kg
617 (Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016), possibly as a consequence of a recently-documented recovery
618 in juvenile ide abundance. Similar to Latvia, a minimum legal size of 30 cm (TL) has been
619 enforced in Lithuania, even though ide is not enlisted in the Lithuanian Red List of Threatened

620 Species. In 2016, a study proposing an ide re-stocking programme for inland water bodies with
621 extinct or nearly extinct ide populations was accepted by the Fisheries Department of The
622 Ministry of Agriculture of the Republic of Lithuania (Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016), and state-
623 supported ide re-stocking started in 2017 with 516,000 YoY individuals released in 2020.

624 In the Netherlands, considerable quantities of ide were once caught in the brackish water
625 zones of the former Zuiderzee (Veld 1969), but following construction of the Afsluitdijk (or
626 Enclosure Dam), the resulting gradual transition from fresh to salt water of the IJssel estuary
627 (northwestern Netherland) coincided with a decrease in ide catches in Lake IJssel from 6.7 tons
628 in 1935 to 2 tons in 1940 (Veld 1969). Ide is included in the Fisheries Act, which specifies the
629 permitted landing sizes and quantities for all listed species. A closed season for angling exists
630 from April 1 through May 31, but with no minimum angling size. As in Flanders, ide is listed
631 as ‘Vulnerable’ in the IUCN Red List for the Netherlands (de Leeuw et al. 2005), but is not
632 included in the new Red List anymore (Spikmans and Kranenborg 2016). Also, ide is not
633 included in the Annexes of the Habitats Directive or the Dutch Flora and Fauna Law.

634 In Poland, the ide is considered an important angling species (Witkowski et al. 1997), with
635 a minimum legal size of 25 cm (TL). The maximum permitted daily catch is 5 kg in fresh
636 waters and 10 kg in marine waters. Levels of total allowable commercial catches in rivers,
637 reservoirs and lakes are established individually for each water body (or river stretch). In 2018,
638 the commercial catches of ide reached almost 1.56 tons, amounting to 0.7% of total inland
639 fishery landings of all fish species. Recreational catches are much higher and amounted to
640 31.36 tons in 2017 (Wołos et al. 2020). The only restriction applied to marine commercial
641 fisheries dealt with a minimum legal size of 25 cm (TL) in the ‘western internal waters’ (the
642 Szczecin and Kamieński Lagoons). According to the Fishing Monitoring Centre in Gdynia, no
643 ide was recorded in official commercial fishery statistics from marine areas of Poland between
644 2004 and 2019 (including the Szczecin and Vistula Lagoons). This might be explained by low

numbers of fish in the environment as well as not reporting ide in the catches by fishers, although some specimens might have been classified as ‘other freshwater fishes’ or as roach. Additionally, between 2015 and 2017 the catches from fishers’ boats shorter than 8 m were exempted from the obligation of reporting, and individual recreational fishery in Polish marine waters does not have to report catches at all. The Poland Inland Fishery Act imposes an obligation to re-stock rivers with fish including the ide, but for inspection authorities the origin of fish is not taken into consideration. In 2018, 6,135,000 yolk-sac larvae with 14,482 kg of autumn juveniles (1,266 kg age 1+ and 37,232 kg age 2+) and 140 kg of mature fish were released to rivers and open lakes (Mickiewicz et al. 2020). In the Gulf of Gdansk, where the ide was caught by anglers in the vicinity of Gdynia in the 1960s (M. Skóra, unpublished data), the ide must have been more abundant in the past but is now a rare species (Skóra 1996). Between 2005 and 2007, the share of ide numbers and mass in the catches at the mouth of the coastal River Reda amounted to less than 0.01% and 0.04%, respectively (Skóra 2015). The ide is very rare also in the Vistula Lagoon, where in 2001 and 2012 the proportion in fyke nets and nordic gill nets was 0.05% and < 0.01%, respectively (Nermer et al. 2012). A similar situation was observed in the Szczecin Lagoon, where the percent of ide in fyke-net and gill-net catches amounted to ~0.12% and ~0.04%, respectively (Wawrzyniak et al. 2017). In the Międzyodrze wetlands (the 28 km stretch of the most downstream part of the lower River Odra), the ide is considered a common species. Between 1952 and 2002, mean catches of the ide reached 915 kg annually and amounted to 0.62% of the total catch in that area (Neja 2011). For some inland rivers, a considerable increase in both abundance and biomass has been observed in recent decades (Kruk et al. 2017; Penczak et al. 2017). According to the Polish Red List of Fishes (Witkowski et al. 2009), the ide is of ‘Least concern’ in inland waters, but ‘Vulnerable’ in the coastal rivers of the Baltic Sea.

669 In Slovakia, the ide used to be a relatively important fish species for freshwater commercial
670 fisheries in the 1950s, representing 7.9% (~22 tons) of the total catch of the State Fishery in
671 1955–1958 (Balon 1962). In that period, ide was considered the most popular cyprinid species
672 after common carp, and it also contributed considerably to overall catches of recreational
673 anglers. Nevertheless, large-scale monitoring data for 2011 and 2020 suggest that ide
674 populations have declined in most Slovak rivers (V. Kováč, unpublished data), except for the
675 Danube, where it still represents a relatively abundant fish species (Bammer et al. 2015).

676 In Sweden, the ide is rarely captured in different monitoring areas across the country, but
677 there does not seem to have been any overall decline since 2001. Therefore, the ide is currently
678 not included in the Swedish Red List of Threatened Species. In the commercial coastal fishery,
679 the species' catches are very low and without any identifiable trend since 1999.

680 **3 Potential invasiveness and ecological impacts in non-native regions**

681 Owing to its relatively high growth rate and large body size (Rohtla et al. 2015b), the ide is an
682 attractive species for introductions outside its native range, being a popular ornamental fish
683 and a target species for anglers in many countries (e.g. Järvalt et al. 2003; Hickley and Chare
684 2004). Once introduced, the ide has so far not demonstrated itself to be invasive (e.g. in the
685 USA, New Zealand, England). That is, despite repeated introductions outside of its native
686 range, there is little evidence that the species has established self-sustaining populations or
687 spread elsewhere. Indeed, the ide has been described as 'local and rare' (Maitland 1972),
688 though present in seven of the nine regions of England (Copp et al. 2007). A lack of
689 demonstrated invasive nature and the importance of ide as an ornamental species are the
690 reasons why it was not included in legislation for regulating non-native fishes in England &
691 Wales, namely the Import of Live Fish Act 1980 and related orders (Copp et al. 2007).
692 Nonetheless, the ide possesses many attributes associated with species that can acclimate to
693 novel environments, specifically omnivory, longevity, and habitat plasticity (e.g. Cala 1970;

694 Rohtla et al. 2015a, b). Furthermore, the scientific literature is devoid of studies, and even
695 claims, of adverse impacts of ide on native species and ecosystems in locations where it has
696 been introduced (www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/77315).

697 The potential impacts of ide in its introduced range include competition and disease
698 transmission, though of these impacts the most difficult to demonstrate is likely to be
699 competition. The most probable competitors would presumably be other bottom-feeding
700 species, especially other cyprinids with functional similarity (e.g. dace and chub *Squalius*
701 *cephalus*). The ide can host infectious agents (SVC) or act as carrier (KHV) of viral diseases
702 and parasites (see Section 2.8: *Parasites and pathogens*), and therefore stocked ide can act as
703 a vector for the infection of local fish populations. For example, *Ergasilus sieboldi* is a common
704 parasite of ide in its native range (Sobecka et al. 2004; Rusinek 2007), but *E. sieboldi* is usually
705 non-native to the locations where the ide has been introduced, such as in England (Kennedy
706 1975). Furthermore, ide can be the paratenic host for *Anguillicoloides crassus* (Thomas and
707 Ollevier 1992), which means that careless translocations of infected ide can potentially
708 introduce this swim-bladder parasite to regions where this species was previously not present.
709 The ide is generally an omnivorous feeder of most abundant food items, and its diet shifts
710 largely with ontogeny, seasonality and food availability (e.g. Cala 1970; Brabrand 1985; Järvalt
711 et al. 2003). Recent outdoor experimental studies to test for non-native fish competition with
712 native fishes found limited and potentially unimportant changes in the diet and trophic position
713 in native fishes following the introduction of omnivorous introduced fishes, specifically
714 pumpkinseed (Copp et al. 2017) and sunbleak *Leucaspis delineatus* (Bašić et al. 2018). As
715 such, further study is needed to determine whether non-native ide exerts competitive pressure
716 on native fishes under natural or near-natural conditions.

717 There is contrasting information on the sensitivity of ide to environmental perturbations.
718 Habitat improvements that have been conducted following environmental perturbation have

719 had positive (Kruk et al. 2017), neutral (Fedorenkova et al. 2013), or even negative (Eklöv et
720 al. 1998) effects on ide abundance. For example, in the River Warta (Poland), ide responded
721 rather positively to perturbations, prevailing even when other large rheophilic species were
722 absent (Kruk 2007). The latter should be considered as a rare example, as ide populations
723 mostly suffer under environmental perturbations (e.g. Müller 1982; Scholten et al. 2003;
724 Bukelskis and Kesminas 2016; M. Rohtla, personal observations), which would potentially
725 limit population growth and subsequent invasiveness. Under controlled laboratory conditions,
726 early life stages of ide have demonstrated good acclimatisation and tolerance to increasing
727 water temperatures (Florez 1972a; Kupren et al. 2010). The latter suggests that ide may be
728 adaptable to climate change-driven increases in temperature, but this does probably not give
729 an advantage to ide compared to other cyprinids since they have similar temperature tolerances.
730 For example, the abundance of vimba *Vimba vimba* has increased tremendously in the Baltic
731 Sea of late, whereas the numbers of ide have increased only slightly.

732 Once a localised breeding population of ide has successfully established itself in a novel
733 environment, the species' demonstrated long-distance movements in its native range indicate
734 that it can potentially disperse to a wide geographical area (Winter and Fredrich 2003;
735 Kulíšková et al. 2009; Rohtla et al. 2015a). This means that new regions can be colonised
736 relatively rapidly in a given water course, but evidence for this is lacking. Furthermore, as the
737 salinity tolerance of ide is relatively high (van Beek 1999; Skovrind et al. 2016), there is also
738 some potential for colonising new, closely-located water courses through marine and brackish
739 water pathways when suitable conditions are present (e.g. during large riverine runoff).
740 Although the possibility of such events is largely unknown, it may be most plausible in regions
741 where salinity levels are projected to decrease due to climate change (e.g. Durack et al. 2012).
742 As the ide can also be relatively long-lived (Rohtla et al. 2015b), introduced populations could
743 potentially withstand the occasional environmental perturbations that hinder successful

744 reproduction in a given year, as in the case of tench *Tinca tinca* introduced to Ireland
745 (O'Maoileidigh and Bracken 1989) and of native populations in England (Copp 1997). The
746 potential risks of ide hybridising with native species is likely to be restricted to closely-related
747 native cyprinids (Kopiejewska et al. 2003; Yadrenkina 2003; Witkowski et al. 2015).

748 In summary, virtually all aspects of the environmental biology of introduced ide require
749 further study, though some initial information is available for native populations on migratory
750 behaviours, diet, diseases, growth, and potential hybridisation with native species. Existing
751 evidence suggests that the ide does not appear to pose an elevated risk of being invasive where
752 introduced outside its native range in Europe. Further afield, the ide may become invasive,
753 such has been observed with another European cyprinid, namely the rudd in North America
754 (e.g. Guinan et al. 2015). In an initial invasiveness risk screening for England & Wales, the ide
755 attracted an intermediate mean risk score of 20, which placed it at the lowest extent of the ‘high
756 risk’ score range for that region (Copp et al. 2009b; Britton et al. 2010). A similar mean score
757 (20.2) and risk ranking was reported for Iberia (Almeida et al. 2013), and a lower score (14.0),
758 albeit still considered as high risk, for Scotland (Vilizzi et al. 2019). Very early on, some North
759 American sources (see Nico et al. 2020) recommended against introductions of the ide to
760 California. Despite these concerns, there has been little study of ide in North America (Nico et
761 al. 2020). There have been, however, reports of benign diseases being imported to the USA
762 from Germany (McAllister et al. 1985). The lack of evidence for demonstrated impacts may
763 appear to corroborate these risk screening outcomes, but this lack of evidence is due to a general
764 lack of study of the impacts of ide rather than from the absence of impacts. As introductions of
765 the ide are likely to continue, given its angling popularity and use as an ornamental species,
766 this propagule pressure could lead to the development of invasive populations in some non-
767 native locations. The fact that the species is not considered likely to be affected by climate
768 warming (Lehtonen 1996; Britton et al. 2010) could be viewed as either advantageous or

769 disadvantageous, depending upon whether or not the risk assessment area is likely to
770 experience a warmer climate in future decades.

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1619 **Tables**

1620 **Table 1.** Growth of ide *Leuciscus idus* as modelled by the von Bertalanffy Growth Function. For each ‘best-fit’
 1621 model, parameter estimates are provided including SE (standard errors) and 95% lower and upper confidence
 1622 intervals (LCI and UCI, respectively). SL_{∞} = asymptotic standard length (mm); K = Brody’s growth coefficient
 1623 ($years^{-1}$); t_0 = age of fish at 0 mm SL. n = number of mean LAA values (see Table A3); N = number of populations.
 1624 Statistically significant parameters in bold. Climate classes and types as defined in Appendix Table S1 in
 1625 Electronic Supplementary Material. See also Fig. 2a–d.

Parameter	Estimate	SE	LCI	UCI	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Global ($n = 733, N = 87$)						
SL_{∞}	422.4	9.2	405.0	442.6	45.66	< 0.001
K	0.17	0.01	0.15	0.18	17.68	< 0.001
t_0	0.06	0.10	-0.15	0.24	0.53	0.571
Habitat (Lentic: $n = 263, N = 29$; Lotic: $n = 470, N = 58$)						
$SL_{\infty_{\text{Lentic}}}$	399.1	9.3	382.1	419.5	42.89	< 0.001
$SL_{\infty_{\text{Lotic}}}$	495.1	24.3	454.7	543.6	20.36	< 0.001
K_{Lentic}	0.19	0.01	0.16	0.21	15.42	< 0.001
K_{Lotic}	0.12	0.01	0.10	0.14	10.69	< 0.001
t_0	-0.07	0.11	-0.29	0.12	-0.64	0.522
Climate class (B: $n = 11, N = 2$; C: $n = 298, N = 42$; D: $n = 339, N = 33$)						
$SL_{\infty_{\text{B}}}$	524.1	34.2	458.8	592.4	15.32	< 0.001
$SL_{\infty_{\text{C}}}$	390.0	10.2	371.6	410.5	38.06	< 0.001
$SL_{\infty_{\text{D}}}$	420.9	9.0	404.8	438.9	47.76	< 0.001
K	0.17	0.01	0.15	0.19	16.83	< 0.001
t_0	0.06	0.10	-0.14	0.25	0.62	0.534
Climate type D (Dfa: $n = 7, N = 1$; Dfb: $n = 222, N = 23$; Dfc: $n = 110, N = 9$)						
$SL_{\infty_{\text{Dfa}}}$	497.9	29.2	442.0	555.9	17.07	< 0.001
$SL_{\infty_{\text{Dfb}}}$	439.8	8.3	424.9	455.9	52.96	< 0.001
$SL_{\infty_{\text{Dfc}}}$	383.4	7.9	368.9	399.0	48.31	< 0.001
K	0.18	0.01	0.16	0.20	18.86	< 0.001
t_0	0.25	0.10	0.04	0.43	2.44	0.015

Table 2. Condition factor K for ide at various native range locations. Decimal points as per source study.

Water body	Country	Mean	Min	Max	Reference
River Nasva	Estonia	1.50	1.29	1.65	Kangur (1963)
River Dvina	Belarus	2.38	2.00	2.75	Zhukov (1965)
River Dnieper	Belarus	2.18	1.71	2.47	Zhukov (1965)
River Nemunas	Belarus	2.09	1.76	2.50	Zhukov (1965)
(Several)	Estonia	2.1	1.57	3.51	Ristkok (1974)
(Several)	Estonia	—	1.6	2.2	Järvalt (1981)
River Ob	Russia	2.04	1.79	2.36	Zhuravlev and Solovov (1984)
Lake Barselvann (1994)	Norway	1.16	—	—	Simonsen (2000)
Lake Barselvann (2000)	Norway	1.18	0.79	1.47	Simonsen (2000)
(Several)	Croatia	1.060	1.050	1.070	Treer et al. (2009)
Kopački Rit Nature Park	Croatia	1.211	0.888	1.44	Jelkić et al. (2010)
Yser, Meuse and Scheldt basins	Belgium	1.08	0.46	1.85	<i>Hoc opus</i>

Table 3. Total length-weight relationship ($W = aTL^b$) parameters for ide at various native range locations.

Water body	Country	Length		<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	Reference
Lake Chany	Russia	SL	cm	0.0054	3.396	Tyurin (1927) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
River Volkhov	Russia	SL	cm	0.0071	3.259	Tyurin (1927) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
River Volga	Russia	SL	cm	0.01574	2.444	Gundrizer (1958) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
Western Siberia	Russia	TL	cm	0.01760	3.066	Gundrizer (1958) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
Western Siberia	Russia	TL	cm	0.0040	3.468	Gundrizer (1958) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
River Enisey	Russia	TL	cm	0.02940	2.878	Podlesnyi (1958) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
River Kävlinge	Sweden	TL	mm	0.0037	3.339	Cala 1970
River Danube sidearm Žofín	Slovakia	SL	mm	0.0004	2.864	Naiksatam (1976) <i>fide</i> Hensel (2015)
Rivulet Bystřice	Czechia	SL	mm	0.0112	3.1422	Hanel (1984)
(Unspecified)	Finland	TL	cm	0.01185	2.878	Koli (1990) <i>fide</i> Froese and Pauly (2019)
(Several)	Netherlands	na	na	0.003489	3.3630	Klein Breteler and de Laak (2003)
Lake Sailimu	China	SL	mm	0.0087	3.3999	Fan and Quan (2008)
(Several)	Croatia	TL	cm	0.0092	3.048	Treer et al. (2008)
River Ergis	China	TL	cm	0.017	3.099	Huo et al. (2011)
Flanders	Belgium	TL	cm	0.0054	3.256	Verreycken et al. (2011)
Lower River Irtysh	Russia	SL	cm	0.0212	3.0269	Liberman and Chemagin (2017)

Table 4. Age (years) and SL (mm) at maturity for ide at various native range locations.

Water body	Country	Age	SL	Reference
Baltic Sea, Lake Sarvalaxträsket, River Porvoonjoki	Finland	8–10	–	Segerstråle (1933)
River Volga (delta area)	Russia	3	–	Berg (1949)
River Volga (middle reaches)	Russia	4–8	–	Lukin and Shteynfel'd (1949)
(Unspecified)	France	3	–	Dottrens (1952) <i>fide</i> Spillmann (1961)
River Turgai, River Irgiz	Kazakhstan	2–4	–	Sidorova (1959)
River Danube	Slovakia	1	–	Balon (1962)
River Kama	Russia	4–5	–	Zhukov (1965)
Baltic Sea	Estonia	6–7	300–350	Oolu (1970)
River Kävlinge	Sweden	6–8	271–373	Cala (1971b)
Lake Võrtsjärv	Estonia	5–7	260–300	Haberman et al. (1973)
Lokka Reservoir	Finland	6–7	–	Mutenia (1978) <i>fide</i> Siriwardena (2008)
Lake Ugiy	Mongolia	5–6	267–283	Dulmaa (1999)
River Nemunas	Lithuania, Belarus	4–5	~250	Vechkanov (2000); Virbickas (2000)
(Unspecified)	Poland	3–4	–	Witeska et al. (2014)

1631

Table 5. Reported mature egg size (mm) and absolute fecundity (AF) for ide at various native and introduced (UK) locations.

Water body	Country	Egg size	AF	Reference
(Unspecified)	France	2.5	–	Dottrens (1952) <i>fide</i> Spillmann (1961)
Lake Võrtsjärv	Estonia	1.4–1.8	16,820–108,300	Pihu (1960)
(Unspecified)	Romania	–	15,000–125,000	Bănărescu (1964)
River Kävlinge	Sweden	1.4–2.1	42,279–263,412	Cala (1971b, c)
River Ob (upper reaches)	Russia	1.5–1.8	36,722–167,772	Zhuravlev and Solovov (1984)
River Kasari, River Nasva	Estonia	–	213,700–247,200	Erm and Kangur (1985)
(Unspecified)	UK	–	39,000–114,000	Maitland and Campbell (1992)
River Orhon	Mongolia	–	70,300–173,600	Dulmaa (1999)
River Nemunas	Lithuania	1.9–2.3	35,000–150,000	Virbickas (2000)
(Unspecified)	France	2.5	60,000–160,000	Keith and Allardi (2001)
River Dnieper	Russia	–	39,000–114,000	Berg (1964)
(Unspecified)	France	1.9–2.3	–	Keith et al. (2011)

1633

1634 **Figure legends**

1635 **Fig. 1** Native (grey) and introduced (red) distributional ranges of ide *Leuciscus idus* in Europe.

1636 Adapted from Freyhof and Kottelat (2008) and updated with information from Cala (1970),

1637 Järvalt et al. (2003) and Bogutskaya and Naseka (2006).

1638 **Fig. 2** Growth in length of ide at the global scale as described by the von Bertalanffy growth

1639 function (VBGF) fitted to: (a) global dataset, (b) habitat, (c) Köppen-Geiger climate class and

1640 (d) climate type D. In the scatterplots, each point represents a single mean length-at-age value

1641 (see Table S3) and the shaded area for each curve indicates 95% bootstrapped confidence

1642 intervals. Points in the scatterplots (except for the global fit) are slightly jittered to improve

1643 visibility. Parameters in Table 1.

1644 **Appendix**

1645 ***Age and growth modelling***

1646 Data on ide growth were retrieved from both primary and secondary (cf. *fide*) literature sources.
1647 A necessary condition for inclusion of a literature source was that it provided mean length-at-
1648 age (LAA) values for the population under study. Whenever mean LAA values were provided
1649 for only one or a few age classes (e.g. as representative of the population from which fish were
1650 sampled), these were still included into the global database for the sake of completeness (cf.
1651 Vilizzi and Copp 2017). For these analyses (and in other relevant parts of the present study),
1652 LAA data originally given as total length (TL, mm) were converted to standard length (SL,
1653 mm) using the formula $SL = -0.36 + 0.863TL$ (M. Rohtla, unpublished data).

1654 The latitude and longitude of the water body where each ide population was sampled were
1655 recorded, except for those ‘large’ rivers for which no specific indication was provided of the
1656 sampling location(s). Sections of rivers or sampling locations therein were considered as
1657 separate water bodies (cf. ide populations). The distributional range of ide was then categorised
1658 as either ‘native’ or ‘non-native’ (Fig. 1). For each water body, the corresponding habitat was
1659 labelled as either ‘lentic’ (natural lakes and man-made reservoirs) or ‘lotic’ (water courses).
1660 Based on the waterbody latitude and longitude, the corresponding Köppen-Geiger climate class
1661 and type (Peel et al. 2007) were identified with reference to a regular 0.5 degree
1662 latitude/longitude grid for the period 1951–2000 (Kottek et al. 2006: <http://koeppen-geiger.vu-wien.ac.at/data/Koeppen-Geiger-ASCII.zip>).
1663

1664 Growth models were based on the Beverton-Holt parameterisation of the von Bertalanffy
1665 growth function (VBGF: Ricker 1975):

$$1666 SL = SL_{\infty} (1 - e^{(-K(age - t_0))})$$

1667 where SL_{∞} is the asymptotic SL, K the instantaneous growth rate or Brody’s growth
1668 coefficient (years^{-1}), and t_0 the age of the fish at 0 mm SL. Following Vilizzi & Copp (2017),

1669 VBGF-based comparisons in growth of ide populations between ranges, habitats, climates
1670 classes and climate D types (see Table A1) were made by fitting eight models in total: i) a
1671 general model with separate parameter estimates for each population; ii) three models with one
1672 parameter in common amongst populations; iii) three models with two parameters in common
1673 amongst populations; and iv) one common model with the same parameter estimates for all
1674 populations. Both the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian Information
1675 Criterion (BIC) were computed to select the best-fitting model, with preference given to BIC
1676 in case of major disparity of outcomes for reasons of model parsimony (i.e. fewer parameters),
1677 otherwise to AIC for ‘biological meaningfulness’ (Burnham and Anderson 2003). Fitting of
1678 growth models was in R x64 v3.6.3 (R Development Core Team 2020) using packages FSA
1679 and nlstools (Ogle 2016) with 1000 bootstrap confidence interval estimates of the parameters
1680 (and with additional code written by LV).

1681 **Appendix Tables**

1682 **Table A1** Water bodies for which length-at-age data for ide were retrieved. For each water body, the country, latitude, longitude, species' 1683 distributional range, habitat and Köppen-Geiger climate class and type are provided (after Peel et al. 2007). Class: B = Arid; C = Temperate; D = 1684 Continental. Type: BSk = (Arid) Steppe – Cold; Cfa = (Temperate) Without dry season – Hot summer; Cfb = (Temperate) Without dry season – 1685 Warm summer; Dfa = (Continental) Without dry season – Hot summer; Dfb = (Continental) Without dry season – Warm summer; Dfc = (Continental) 1686 Without dry season – Cold summer.

ID	Water body	Country	Lat	Lon	Range	Habitat	Climate	
							Class	Type
1	Baltic Sea (Orrengrund)	Finland	60°16'N	26°26'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
2	Baltic Sea (Pellinki)	Finland	60°13'N	25°52'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
3	Baltic Sea (Väinameri)	Estonia	58°87'N	23°28'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
4	Kamskoe Reservoir	Russia	55°12'N	49°16'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
5	Kráľová Reservoir	Slovakia	48°12'N	17°48'E	Native	Lentic	C	Cfb
6	Kremenchuk Reservoir	Ukraine	49°16'N	32°38'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
7	Kuybyshev Reservoir	Russia	53°46'N	48°55'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
8	Lake Arresø	Denmark	56°00'N	12°04'E	Native	Lentic	C	Cfb
9	Lake Barselvann	Norway	58°10'N	08°08'E	Non-native	Lentic	C	Cfb
10	Lake Chany	Russia	54°50'N	77°40'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
11	Lake Dzhalangash	Kazakhstan	48°83'N	62°01'E	Native	Lentic	B	BSk
12	Lake Ilmen	Russia	58°16'N	31°17'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
13	Lake Kamyš-Samarské	Kazakhstan	51°14'N	51°22'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfa
14	Lake Långelmävesi	Finland	61°34'N	24°25'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfc
15	Lake Peipus	Estonia	58°41'N	27°29'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
16	Lake Sarvalaxträsket	Finland	60°44'N	26°12'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
17	Lake Sayram	China	44°36'N	81°12'E	Non-native	Lentic	D	Dfb
18	Lake Skårvatnet	Norway	60°24'N	06°13'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfc
19	Lake Štrbské Pleso	Slovakia	49°07'N	20°03'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfc

ID	Water body	Country	Lat	Lon	Range	Habitat	Climate	
							Class	Type
20	Lake Suzhargan	Kazakhstan	49°46'N	63°38'E	Native	Lentic	B	BSk
21	Lake Tarankol	Kazakhstan	53°71'N	67°79'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
22	Lake Võrtsjärv	Estonia	58°17'N	26°02'E	Native	Lentic	D	Dfb
23	Laytham Park ponds	United Kingdom	53°86'N	00°87'W	Non-native	Lentic	C	Cfb
24	Mietkowski Lake	Poland	50°57'N	16°37'E	Native	Lentic	C	Cfb
25	Pond near Rusovce (Bratislava)	Slovakia	48°08'N	17°06'E	Native	Lentic	C	Cfb
26	Pond near Vlčie hrdlo (Bratislava)	Slovakia	48°08'N	17°06'E	Native	Lentic	C	Cfb
27	River Barbarka	Poland	51°13'N	20°02'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
28	River Czarna Konecka	Poland	51°18'N	19°54'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
29	River Czarna Taraska	Poland	51°06'N	20°21'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
30	River Danube	Slovakia	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
31	River Danube (Břeclav)	Czechia	48°45'N	16°52'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
32	River Danube (Koviljsko-Petrovaradinski Rit)	Serbia	45°14'N	20°01'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfa
33	River Danube (Kravany)	Slovakia	48°59'N	20°12'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
34	River Danube (Lake Lion)	Slovakia	47°46'N	17°43'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
35	River Danube (Little Danube near Bratislava)	Slovakia	48°08'N	17°06'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
36	River Danube (Little Danube near Kolárovo)	Slovakia	47°55'N	17°59'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
37	River Danube (Little Danube, Kanál Asód)	Slovakia	47°53'N	18°00'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
38	River Danube (Medved'ov)	Slovakia	47°47'N	17°39'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
39	River Danube (Štúrovo)	Slovakia	47°47'N	18°43'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
40	River Danube (Žitava)	Slovakia	47°50'N	18°07'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
41	River Danube (Žofín branch)	Czechia	50°04'N	14°24'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
42	River Daugava	Belarus	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
43	River Dnieper	Belarus	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
44	River Drzewiczka	Poland	51°35'N	20°34'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
45	River Hron	Slovakia	47°49'N	18°45'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
46	River Hron (Kalná, Železovce, Vozokany)	Slovakia	48°19'N	18°24'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb

ID	Water body	Country	Lat	Lon	Range	Habitat	Climate	
							Class	Type
47	River Hron (Pohronský)	Slovakia	47°58'N	18°39'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
48	River Hron (Revištské Podzámčie and Žiar)	Slovakia	48°31'N	18°43'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
49	River Ilych (Sar"yudin)	Russia	62°40'N	57°46'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfc
50	River Irtysh (lower reaches)	Russia	58°11'N	68°15'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfc
51	River Kama	Russia	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
52	River Karakol	Kyrgyzstan	42°48'N	78°39'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfc
53	River Kasari	Estonia	58°43'N	23°59'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
54	River Kävlinge	Sweden	55°43'N	12°59'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
55	River Łuciąża	Poland	51°22'N	19°51'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
56	River Nasva	Estonia	58°12'N	22°23'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
57	River Nemunas (BY)	Belarus	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
58	River Nemunas (LT)	Lithuania	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
59	River Numedalslågen	Norway	59°29'N	09°55'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
60	River Ob	Russia	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
61	River Ob (upper reaches)	Russia	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
62	River Pilica	Poland	51°51'N	21°16'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
63	River Porvoonjoki	Finland	60°23'N	25°40'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
64	River Thaya	Czechia	48°37'N	16°56'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
65	River Vakh	Russia	60°48'N	76°42'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfc
66	River Volga (Kamskoe)	Russia	53°46'N	48°55'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
67	River Volga (middle reaches)	Russia	—	—	Native	Lotic	—	—
68	River Volga (mouth of River Sviyaga)	Russia	53°46'N	48°55'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
69	River Volga (Nizhny)	Russia	56°19'N	44°00'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb
70	River Wąglanka	Poland	51°22'N	20°17'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
71	River Wolbórka	Poland	51°32'N	20°03'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
72	River Žitava	Slovakia	47°51'N	18°08'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb
73	Rivers in Łódź region	Poland	51°40'N	19°26'E	Native	Lotic	C	Cfb

ID	Water body	Country	Lat	Lon	Range	Habitat	Climate	
							Class	Type
74	Rivulet Bystřice	Czechia	49°38'N	18°43'E	Native	Lotic	D	Dfb

Table A2 Mean length-at-age (standard length: SL, mm) values for ide. Source references in footnote.

ID	Estimated age (years)																												Reference		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29		
1	36	71	101	135	169	193	240	272																							(45)
2	43	85	117	150	185	220	262	286	325																					(45)	
3	53	106	147		292	322	340	345	365	390	387	410		402	384	399		405	424	400		383	383	376	418	364	386	412	(39)		
4	86	130	174	221	249	268	294	321	348	366	393	417	450	450																(54)	
5	84	160	224	282	344																									(22)	
6		191	234	277	322	345	364	386	406																				(5)		
7	35	114	137	226																										(1)	
7		237	251	282	300	346	363	391	401	425	440																		(40)		
8	51	85	119	153	178	210	235	253																						(34)	
9*	204	245	306	314	310																									(48)	
10		156	204	233	276	283	290																							(37)	
11	92	163	210	242	249																									(47)	
12	88	139	180	217	256	292	325																							(9)	
13	105	169	208	239	272	315	334																							(46)	
14	22	53	94	160	183	219	258	282	316	327	341	354	368																(4)		
15	72	140	190	232	265																									(38)	
16	43	85	121	159	194	230	268	302	326	342	356	369	379	383															(45)		
17		138	174	249	298																									(13)	
18**	41	94	120	146	164	181	191	215	232	248	262	277	290	302	312	325	328	344	361	374	379	389	394						(32)		
18	44	93	154	202	240	257	273	291	305	323	338	356	375	385	385	391													(32)		
19	50	104	149	202	240	283	314	336	351	363	378	380																	(3)		
19	66	100	134	164	198	233	262	279	293	311	327	340	348	352															(31)		
20	105	185	249	279	302	321																							(47)		
21	93	167	233	283	320	346	366																						(20)		
22	105		277	290	310	332	340	357	366	360		380																(15)			

23	174 169 179 196 239 202	(55)
24	50 96 148 208 275 391 385 409	(21)
25	51 77 93	(24)
26	62 84	(24)
27	91 122 236 232	(55)
28	93 107 155 169 196 225 255 276 295 315 345 364	(55)
29	198	(55)
30	136 182 215 256 268 316 328 356	(43)
31	51 94 145 184 214 248 285	(35)
32	120 145 181 253	(26)
33	56 132 173 193	(2)
34	50	(2)
35	64 95 111 172 261 319 338	(31)
36	70 136 177 233 279 323 340	(2)
36	57 142 218 257 300 323 340	(2)
37	59 97 134 248 259 297	(43)
37	49 85 120 166 200 218 240 247 302	(49)
37	69 105 148 179 208 235 256 271 289 297	(49)
38	80 127 173 187 186	(2)
38	72 152 238 280 311	(2)
38	51 119 161 174 217 250	(2)
39	57 138 201 233 253 270 288 305 327	(2)
40	60 135 181 218 250	(2)
41	60 82 105 132 157 192 198 227 251 305	(30)
42	53 104 153 200 245 286 338 378 413	(52)
43	59 118 169 211 255 293 355 383	(52)
44	105 167 201 275 279 316 405	(55)
45	71 134 167 193 220 293	(43)
46	36 62 107 136 175 183 195	(6)
46	78 113 145 168 197 216	(41)

47	71 103 134 167 193 220 249 271 293	(44)
48	29 58 85 117 152 175 206 228 253 288 297	(6)
48	68 95 126 158 174 214 242 262 290 314	(41)
49	41 85 125 169 212 252 292 326 355	(33)
50	136 197 231 251 287 310 291 324 324	(25)
51	58 102 141 174 207 238 268	(28)
52	52 95 134 180 222 242 255	(10)
53	148 191 298 354 374 387 404 417 438 447 468 485	(12)
54	69 142 204 260 299 333 359 377 394 401 414	(7)
54	55 127 180 247 375 378 399 412 416	(8)
55	143 176 173 195 235 257 298 315 337 360 390 355	(55)
56	312 346 368 388 405 422 434 458	(11)
57	52 104 153 198 244 270	(51)
58	65 100 150 200 270 315 360 365 390 410 420 428 455 460	(38)
59	114 158 199 230 250 265 275 284 334	(17)
60	195 259 304 344 368 383 403 437	(50)
60	160 190 195 207	(50)
61	73 138 177 209 257 298 320 349 368	(53)
62	103 142 190 196 220 255 283 306 327 349 382	(55)
63	46 91 132 174 211 243 277 304 332 350 363 375 386	(45)
64	58 99 153 201 249 282 330 338 352	(18)
65	50 99 133 163 198 234 260	(29)
66	58 108 156 220 250 303 340 376 390 396 409 423	(36)
67	61 112 157 200 223 253 289 309 328 346 378 394	(50)
68	48 94 142 183 223 257 276 288 313 345	(27)
69	115 139 179 213 232 257 278 319 331 344 359 383 416	(14)
70	186 210	(55)
71	420	(55)
72	36 60 84 103 124 143 165 189 195 233 246 259 280 315 326	(23)
72	63 117 153 193 224 245 265 295 321 332	(42)

73	156 223 264 265 318 327 351 331 380	460	(19)
74	60 103 138 172 216 256 296 324 335 345 360		(16)

1688 References: ¹Autko (1958) *fide* Sayfullin and Shakirova (2014); ²Balon (1962); ³Balon and Žitňan (1964); ⁴Brofeldt (1917) *fide* Segestråle (1933); ⁵Brujenko et al.
 1689 (1974); ⁶Čajka (1975) *fide* Hensel (2015); ⁷Cala (1970); ⁸Cala (1971b); ⁹Domrachev and Pravdin (1926); ¹⁰Dukravets et al. (2001); ¹¹Erm and Kangur (1985); ¹²Erm
 1690 et al. (2002); ¹³Fan and Quan (2008); ¹⁴Golovko (1973) *fide* Sayfullin and Shakirova (2014); ¹⁵Haberman et al. (1973); ¹⁶Hanel (1984); ¹⁷Heggenes (1983);
 1691 ¹⁸Hochman (1956); ¹⁹Jakubowski and Penczak (1970); ²⁰Jereščenko (1959) *fide* Balon (1962); ²¹Klescz (2008); ²²Kovrižnych et al. (1986) *fide* Hensel (2015);
 1692 ²³Krišofík (1961) *fide* Hensel (2015); ²⁴Krupka (1972) *fide* Hensel (2015); ²⁵Liberman and Chemagin (2017); ²⁶Lujić et al. (2013); ²⁷Lukin (1934) *fide* Sayfullin
 1693 and Shakirova (2014); ²⁸Menshikov and Bukiriev (1934) *fide* Balon (1962); ²⁹Muromova (1930) *fide* Balon (1962); ³⁰Naiksatam (1976) *fide* Hensel (2015);
 1694 ³¹Nevický (1992) *fide* Hensel (2015); ³²Nicolaisen (1996); ³³Nikolsky et al. (1947); ³⁴Otterstrøm (1930) *fide* Segestråle (1933); ³⁵Peňáz (1961); ³⁶Platonova (1958)
 1695 *fide* Sayfullin and Shakirova (2014); ³⁷Popov et al. (2005); ³⁸Probatov (1929) *fide* Balon (1962); ³⁹Rohtla et al. (2015b); ⁴⁰Sayfullin and Shakirova (2014); ⁴²Sedlár
 1696 (1966) *fide* Hensel (2015); ⁴³Sedlár (1989) *fide* Hensel (2015); ⁴⁴Sedlár et al. (1985) *fide* Hensel (2015); ⁴⁵Segestråle (1933); ⁴⁶Serov (1959); ⁴⁷Sidorova (1959);
 1697 ⁴⁸Simonsen (2000); ⁴⁹Šindláryová (1965) *fide* Hensel (2015); ⁵⁰Svetovidova (1949) *fide* Balon (1962); ⁵¹Zhukov (1958) *fide* Balon (1962); ⁵²Zhukov (1965);
 1698 ⁵³Zhuravlev and Solovov (1984); ⁵⁴Zinov'ev (1965) *fide* Sayfullin and Shakirova (2014); ⁵⁵*Hoc opus.*

1699 * Golden orfe escaped or translocated from a nearby amusement park pond.

1700 ** Golden orfe sympatric with wild ide.

Table A3 List of taxa encountered in the natural diet of ide. ns = taxa not specified. Source references in footnote.

Kingdom/Phylum	Class	Scientific name or lowest taxon	Reference(s)
Protista			
Euglenozoa	Kinetoplastea	<i>Bodo edax</i>	(17)
		<i>Polyoecta dumosa</i>	(17)
Ciliata	Oligotrichida	<i>Tintinnidum fluviatile</i>	(17)
	Peritrichia	<i>Carchesium polypinum</i>	(17)
		<i>Zoothamnium</i> sp.	(17)
	Prostomatida	<i>Prorodon ovum</i>	(17)
	Nassulida	<i>Nassula elegans</i>	(17)
	Cyrtophorida	<i>Chilodonella cucullulus</i>	(17)
	Hymenostomata	<i>Colpidium colpoda</i>	(17)
		<i>Colpidium cucullus</i>	(17)
Protozoa <i>incertae sedis</i>	Protozoa <i>incertae sedis</i>	<i>Cercobodo cometa</i>	(17)
Animalia			
Rotifera	ns	ns	(1)
	Bdelloida	<i>Rotaria neptunia</i>	(17)
	Monogononta	<i>Anuraeopsis fissa</i>	(17)
		<i>Asplanchna priodonta</i>	(17)
		<i>Brachionus calyciflorus</i>	(17)
		<i>Brachionus diversicornis</i>	(17)
		<i>Keratella cochlearis</i>	(17)
		<i>Keratella quadrata</i>	(17)
		<i>Lecane bulla</i>	(17)
		<i>Lecane luna</i>	(17)
		<i>Trichocerca rousseleti</i>	(17)
		<i>Trichocerca pygocera</i>	(17)
		<i>Polyarthra major</i>	(17)
		<i>Polyarthra minor</i>	(17)
Annelida	Clitellata	ns	(1, 6)
		Lumbricidae	(2, 8)
Arthropoda	Branchiopoda	ns	(1, 8)
		<i>Bosmina coregoni</i>	(17)
		<i>Bosmina longirostris</i>	(17)
		<i>Chydorus sphaericus</i>	(17)
		<i>Daphnia cucullata</i>	(17)
		<i>Pleuroxus uncinatus</i>	(17)
		<i>Polyphemus pediculus</i>	(17)
	Ostracoda	ns	(1, 17)
	Maxillopoda	<i>Canthocampus</i> sp.	(17)
		<i>Cyclops strenuus</i>	(17)
		<i>Cyclops</i> sp. (one species?)	(1, 2, 8)
		<i>Diaptomus</i> sp. (one species?)	(2)
		<i>Mesocyclops</i> sp.	(17)
	Malacostraca	<i>Asellus</i> spp. (<i>aquaticus</i>)	(1, 4, 9)

Kingdom/Phylum	Class	Scientific name or lowest taxon	Reference(s)
		<i>Gammarus</i> spp.	(1, 4, 11)
		<i>Saduria entomon</i>	(4, 11)
	Arachnida	<i>Hydrachnidiae</i>	(1)
	Insecta	<i>Corixa</i> spp.	(1, 8)
		<i>Dysticus</i> spp.	(9)
		<i>Ephemeroptera</i> (nymph)	(1, 6)
		<i>Ephemera vulgata</i> (nymph)	(5)
		<i>Naucoris cimicoides</i>	(8)
		<i>Pentatoma rufipes</i>	(5)
		<i>Plea minutissima</i>	(8)
		<i>Tabanus</i> spp.	(9)
		<i>Trichoptera</i> (larva)	(1, 5, 12)
		Coleoptera (larva, imago)	(1, 8, 12)
		Lepidoptera (larva)	(8)
		Odonata (nymph)	(1, 12)
		<i>Phryganea</i> spp.	(9)
		<i>Ceratopogonidae</i> (larva)	(1)
		Chironomidae (larva, pupa, imago)	(1, 2, 5, 8, 9, 11, 12, 17)
		Simuliidae (larva, pupa)	(1)
Mollusca	Gastropoda	<i>Acroloxus lacustris</i>	(1)
		<i>Anisus vortex</i>	(1)
		<i>Bathyomphalus contortus</i>	(1)
		<i>Bithynia leachii</i>	(1)
		<i>Bithynia tentaculata</i>	(1, 11)
		<i>Bithynia</i> spp.	(4)
		<i>Gyraulus</i> spp.	(1)
		<i>Hydrobia</i> spp.	(1, 2, 10, 11)
		<i>Lymnaea</i> spp.	(1, 4, 8)
		<i>Physa fontinalis</i>	(1)
		<i>Planorbis carinatus</i>	(1)
		<i>Radix baltica</i>	(10)
		<i>Theodoxus fluviatilis</i>	(10, 11)
		<i>Viviparus fasciatus</i>	(1)
		<i>Valvata macrostoma</i>	(1)
		<i>Valvata piscinalis</i>	(1)
	Bivalvia	<i>Cardium</i> sp. (one species?)	(4)
		<i>Cerastoderma glaucum</i>	(11)
		<i>Dreissena polymorpha</i>	(12)
		<i>Dreissena bugensis</i>	(12)
		<i>Macoma baltica</i>	(10)
		<i>Mya arenaria</i>	(11)
		<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	(1, 4, 7, 10)
		<i>Tellina</i> sp. (one species?)	(4)
Chordata	Actinopterygii	<i>Alburnus alburnus</i>	(13)
		<i>Coregonus albula</i>	(3)

Kingdom/Phylum	Class	Scientific name or lowest taxon	Reference(s)
		<i>Coregonus lavaretus</i> (egg, juvenile)	(10)
		<i>Hoploptalmichthys nobilis</i> (juvenile)	(14)
		<i>Leuciscus idus</i> (egg, juvenile)	(1)
		<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>	(3)
		<i>Perca fluviatilis</i> (juvenile)	(1)
		<i>Pungitius platygaster</i>	(8)
		<i>Pungitius pungitius</i>	(10)
		<i>Rutilus rutilus</i> (juvenile)	(1)
Plantae			
Chlorophyta	Chlorophyceae	<i>Cladophora</i>	(1)
Charophyta	Charophyceae	<i>Characeae</i>	(3)
Equisetophyta	Equisetopsida	<i>Equisetum fluviatile</i>	(15)
Magnoliophyta	Monocots	<i>Carex</i> spp. (seeds)	(1)
		<i>Lemma minor</i>	(1)
		<i>Potamogeton perfoliatus</i>	(15)
		<i>Potamogeton</i> spp.	(1)
	Nymphaeales	<i>Nymphaea alba</i> (seeds)	(1)

1702 References: ¹Cala (1970); ²Collett (1905) *fide* Cala (1970); ³Huitfeldt-Kaas (1917) *fide* Cala (1970); ⁴Jääskeläinen
 1703 (1917, 1921) *fide* Cala (1970); ⁵Mühlen and Schneider (1920) *fide* Järvalt et al. (2003); ⁶Berg (1949); ⁷Segerstråle
 1704 (1933); ⁸Popescu et al. (1960) *fide* Cala (1970); ⁹Martinson (1980) *fide* Järvalt et al. (2003); ¹⁰Oulu (1970); ¹¹Erm
 1705 and Kangur (1985); ¹²Shcherbina and Buckler (2006); ¹³Froese and Pauly (2019); ¹⁴Sanft (2015); ¹⁵Braband
 1706 (1985); ¹⁶Zhuravlev and Solovov (1984); ¹⁷Zygmunt (1999).

1707 **Table A4** Eukaryotic parasites of ide. Taxonomy follows the World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS) database, except for Crustacea taxonomy which follows
 1708 the World of Copepods database (www.marinespecies.org/copepoda/). Some taxa have been revised, so valid and verified species names are used in the list which
 1709 may be different from the original record. Subgenera are not given. Data on host specificity and geographical distribution is sourced from the Host-Parasite
 1710 Database of the Natural History Museum, London (www.nhm.ac.uk/research-curation/scientific-resources/taxonomy-systematics/host-parasites/database/search.jsp), recent literature in Web of Science (www.apps.webofknowledge.com/) and the World of Copepods database. The listed metazoan
 1711 parasites (except Cnidaria) occur as adults, trematode metacercariae (m) and nematode larvae (l). Most records are based on morphology, which is not a reliable
 1712 method of identification for some species, particularly where parasites occur as metacercariae and larvae. Parasites are generalists in the fish host unless described
 1713 as specialist. Some records are specified for Cyprinidae (*). Distribution data refers to any stage of the specified parasite in any of its hosts. Geographical data is
 1714 subject to reporting bias. Source references in footnote.
 1715

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
Protists			
Phylum: Ciliophora			
Class: Oligohymenophorea			
<i>Apiosoma baninae</i>	Epistylididae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Apiosoma olae</i>	Epistylididae	Rare specialist	(1)
<i>Apiosoma piscicola</i>	Epistylididae	Widespread	(1, 17)
<i>Ichthyophthirius multifiliis</i>	Ichthyophthiriidae	Widespread	(1, 17, 37)
<i>Paratrichodina incissa</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Trichodina domerguei</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(17)
<i>Trichodina esocis</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trichodina mutabilis</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trichodina nemachili</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Trichodina nigra</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trichodina pediculus</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trichodina rectangli</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(1, 18)
<i>Trichodina reticulata</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trichodina rostrata</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(1)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Trichodinella subtilis</i>	Trichodinidae	Eurasia	(17)
<i>Tripartiella copiosa</i>	Trichodinidae	Widespread	(1, 5, 35)
Class: Phyllopharyngea			
<i>Chilodonella hexasticha</i> and <i>Chilodonella piscicola</i> (require molecular analysis for discrimination)	Chilodonellidae	Widespread	(1, 5)
Phylum: Euglenozoa	Molecular data does not support currently recognised families.		
Class: Kinetoplastea			
<i>Cryptobia branchialis</i>	Cryptobiidae	Widespread	(1, 5)
<i>Ichthyobodo necator</i> species complex	Bodonidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trypanosoma carassii</i>	Trypanosomatidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Trypanosoma inexpectata</i>	Trypanosomatidae	Specialist, Volga River basin	(1)
<i>Trypanosoma schulmani</i>	Trypanosomatidae	Eurasia	(1)
Phylum: Metamonada			
Class: Trepomonadea			
<i>Spironucleus vortens</i>	Hexamitidae	Widespread	(38)
Phylum: Oomycota			
Class: Peronosporea			
<i>Saprolegnia</i> sp.	Saprolegniaceae	Widespread	(5)
Fungi			
Phylum: Microsporidia			
Class: Microsporea			
<i>Ichthyosporidium hertwigi</i>	Ichthyosporidiidae	Widespread	(5)
<i>Ichthyosporidium hoferi</i>	Ichthyosporidiidae	Widespread	(5)
Animalia			
Phylum: Cnidaria			

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
Class: Myxozoa			
<i>Chloromyxum cristatum</i>	Chloromyxidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 18)
<i>Chloromyxum fluviatile</i>	Chloromyxidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 37)
<i>Chloromyxum legeri</i>	Chloromyxidae	Eurasia	(17)
<i>Henneguya cutanea</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Henneguya zschokkei</i>	Myxobolidae	Widespread	(18)
<i>Myxidium macrocapsulare</i>	Myxidiidae	Widespread	(1, 17)
<i>Myxidium rhodei</i>	Myxidiidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 35)
<i>Myxobilatus legeri</i>	Myxobilatidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus albovae</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus alvarezae</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(4)
<i>Myxobolus bramae</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus carassii</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 35)
<i>Myxobolus cycloides</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus dispar</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 37)
<i>Myxobolus dogieli</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus donecae</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus dujardini</i>	Myxobolidae	Widespread	(1, 13, 17, 18)
<i>Myxobolus elegans</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 11)
<i>Myxobolus ellipsoïdes</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus exiguum</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 20)
<i>Myxobolus gigas</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus improvisus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus intimus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(4)
<i>Myxobolus kubanicus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(5)
<i>Myxobolus kuleminae</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus macrocapsularis</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus muelleri</i>	Myxobolidae	Widespread	(1, 17, 20, 35, 37)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Myxobolus muelleriformis</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus multiplicatus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 18)
<i>Myxobolus musculi</i>	Myxobolidae	Widespread	(1)
<i>Myxobolus nemetzeki</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 20)
<i>Myxobolus obesus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Myxobolus oviformis</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus permagnus</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus pseudodispar</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Myxobolus strelkovi</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Thelohanellus fuhrmanni</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1)
<i>Thelohanellus oculileucisci</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 19, 37)
<i>Thelohanellus pyriformis</i>	Myxobolidae	Eurasia	(1, 17)
<i>Zschokkella nova</i>	Myxidiidae	Eurasia	(1, 17, 35, 37)
<i>Zschokkella striata</i>	Myxidiidae	Eurasia	(5)
Phylum: Platyhelminthes			
Class: Cestoda			
<i>Caryophyllaeides fennica</i>	Lytocestidae	Eurasia	(3, 6, 17, 20, 24, 28, 40)
<i>Caryophyllaeus brachycollis</i>	Caryophyllaeidae	Eurasia	(3, 6, 12, 28)
<i>Caryophyllaeus laticeps</i>	Caryophyllaeidae	Eurasia	(3, 6, 17, 24, 28, 37)
<i>Ligula intestinalis</i>	Diphyllobothriidae	Widespread	(3, 17)
<i>Proteocephalus torulosus</i>	Proteocephalidae	Widespread	(3, 14, 17, 18, 40)
<i>Schistocephalus solidus</i>	Diphyllobothriidae	Widespread	(13)
<i>Schizocotyleacheilognathi</i>	Bothrioccephalidae	Widespread	(3)
<i>Triaenophorus nodulosus</i> (l)	Triaenophoridae	Widespread	(3, 6, 17, 18)
Class: Monogenea			
<i>Dactylogyrus alatus</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 7, 16, 26, 30)
<i>Dactylogyrus crucifer</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(12, 24)
<i>Dactylogyrus fallax</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 20, 30)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Dactylogyrus haplogenoides</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(6)
<i>Dactylogyrus micracanthus</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 7, 16, 30)
<i>Dactylogyrus nasalis</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2)
<i>Dactylogyrus ramulosus</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 6, 7, 17, 20, 26, 30)
<i>Dactylogyrus robustus</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 6, 7, 17, 30)
<i>Dactylogyrus similis</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 20, 24)
<i>Dactylogyrus sphyrna</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(12, 24)
<i>Dactylogyrus tuba</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 6, 7, 12, 14, 16, 17, 20, 24, 30, 35, 37)
<i>Dactylogyrus vistulae</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(26)
<i>Dactylogyrus yinwenyingae</i>	Dactylogyridae	Eurasia	(2, 20, 30)
<i>Diplozoon paradoxum</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(9, 17, 24)
<i>Gyrodactylus carassii</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(6, 10, 30)
<i>Gyrodactylus decorus</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(36)
<i>Gyrodactylus laevis</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(30)
<i>Gyrodactylus leucisci</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(31)
<i>Gyrodactylus mediuss</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Widespread	(17)
<i>Gyrodactylus prostae</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(2, 6, 7, 9, 12, 17, 18, 20, 24, 30, 35, 37)
<i>Gyrodactylus scardiniensis</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(7)
<i>Gyrodactylus tulensis</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(10, 30)
<i>Gyrodactylus vimbi</i>	Gyrodactylidae	Eurasia	(30, 31)
<i>Paradiplozoon albuni</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(2, 20, 30)
<i>Paradiplozoon bliccae</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(9, 35)
<i>Paradiplozoon homoiion</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(2, 17, 30)
<i>Paradiplozoon leucisci</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(7)
<i>Paradiplozoon megan</i>	Diplozoidae	Eurasia	(2, 6, 7, 14, 17, 30, 35)
Class: Trematoda			
<i>Allocreadium dogieli</i>	Allocreadiidae	Eurasia	(3)
<i>Allocreadium isoporum</i>	Allocreadiidae	Eurasia	(17, 20, 25, 33, 34, 37, 40)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Allocreadium transversale</i>	Allocreadiidae	Eurasia	(3)
<i>Apharyngostrigea cornu</i> (m)	Strigeidae	Widespread	(3*)
<i>Apophallus muehlingi</i> (m)	Heterophyidae	Eurasia	(6, 14, 24)
<i>Aspidogaster limacoides</i>	Aspidogastridae	Widespread	(17, 40)
<i>Asymphylodora imitans</i>	Lissorchiidae	Eurasia	(3, 25)
<i>Asymphylodora kubanica</i>	Lissorchiidae	Eurasia	(25, 35)
<i>Asymphylodora markewitschi</i>	Lissorchiidae	Eurasia	(3, 13, 17, 22, 35, 40)
<i>Asymphylodora parasquamosa</i>	Lissorchiidae	Eurasia	(3, 25, 32)
<i>Asymphylodora tincae</i>	Lissorchiidae	Eurasia	(17, 25)
<i>Bolbophorus confusus</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Eurasia	(3*)
<i>Bucephalus polymorphus</i>	Bucephalidae	Eurasia	(3*, 17, 22)
<i>Bunocotyle cingulata</i>	Hemiruridae	Eurasia	(17)
<i>Bunodera luciopercae</i>	Allocreadiidae	Widespread	(40)
<i>Diplostomum chromatophorum</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Eurasia	(21)
<i>Diplostomum commutatum</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Eurasia	(3*)
<i>Diplostomum helveticum</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Eurasia	(3*)
<i>Diplostomum mergi</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Widespread	(3*)
<i>Diplostomum spathaceum</i> (m) (Some records may be <i>Diplostomum pseudospathaceum</i> which is morphologically similar)	Diplostomidae	Widespread	(3, 17, 18, 20, 24)
<i>Hystericomorpha triloba</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Widespread	(3, 17)
<i>Ichthyocotylurus erraticus</i> (m)	Strigeidae	Widespread	(3)
<i>Ichthyocotylurus pileatus</i> (m)	Strigeidae	Widespread	(3, 17, 21, 24)
<i>Ichthyocotylurus platycephalus</i> (m)	Strigeidae	Widespread	(3, 17, 20, 21, 33, 35)
<i>Icthyocotylurus variegatus</i> (m)	Strigeidae	Eurasia	(3, 37)
<i>Mesostephanus appendiculatoides</i> (m)	Cyathocotylidae	Widespread	(3*)
<i>Metorchis bilis</i> (m)	Opisthorchiidae	Eurasia	(3*)
<i>Metorchis xanthosomus</i> (m)	Opisthorchiidae	Eurasia	(3*)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Metagonimus yokogawai</i> (m)	Heterophyidae	Eurasia	(3, 17, 22, 24)
<i>Nicolla skrjabini</i>	Opecoelidae	Eurasia	(24,25)
<i>Opisthorchis felineus</i> (m)	Opisthorchiidae	Eurasia	(3, 17, 21)
<i>Palaeorchis incognitus</i>	Lissorchidae	Eurasia	(3, 24)
<i>Paracoenogonimus ovatus</i> (m)	Cyathocotylidae	Eurasia	(3*, 14, 17, 20, 21, 24, 35)
<i>Phyllodistomum folium</i>	Gorgoderidae	Eurasia	(3, 17, 21, 22)
<i>Phyllodistomum macrocotyle</i>	Gorgoderidae	Eurasia	(17)
<i>Plagioporus angusticolle</i>	Opecoelidae	Eurasia	(20)
<i>Posthodiplostomum cuticola</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Widespread	(3, 17, 20, 22, 24, 35)
<i>Pseudamphistomum truncatum</i> (m)	Opisthorchidae	Eurasia	(3*)
<i>Rhipidocotyle campanula</i> (m)	Bucephalidae	Eurasia	(3, 6, 21, 22, 24, 37)
<i>Rhipidocotyle fennica</i> (m)	Bucephalidae	Eurasia	(37)
<i>Sanguinicola armatus</i>	Aporocotylidae	Eurasia (one record in USA)	(22)
<i>Sanguinicola volgensis</i>	Aporocotylidae	Eurasia	(3, 14, 17, 35)
<i>Sphaerostoma bramae</i>	Opecoelidae	Eurasia	(3, 17, 18, 20, 27)
<i>Sphaerostoma globiporum</i>	Opecoelidae	Eurasia	(3*, 21, 22, 24, 40)
<i>Sphaerostoma minus</i>	Opecoelidae	Rare specialist, Curonian Lagoon	(3)
<i>Tylodelphys clavata</i> (m)	Diplostomidae	Widespread	(3*, 14, 18, 20, 22, 24, 33, 35)
Phylum: Nematoda			
Class: Chromadorea			
<i>Anguillicoloides crassus</i> (l)	Anguillicolidae	Adult is eel specialist, widespread	(39)
<i>Anisakis simplex</i> (l)	Anisakidae	Widespread	(35)
<i>Camallanus lacustris</i>	Camallanidae	Widespread	(3, 40)
<i>Camallanus truncatus</i>	Camallanidae	Widespread	(40)
<i>Cucullanus dogieli</i>	Cucullanidae	Eurasia	(3, 23)
<i>Cucullanus heterochrous</i>	Cucullanidae	Eurasia	(20)
<i>Desmidocercella numidica</i> (l)	Desmidocercidae	Widespread	(3*)
<i>Gnathostoma hispidum</i> (l)	Gnathostomatidae	Eurasia	(3*)

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Hysterothylacium aduncum</i> (l)	Raphidascarididae	Widespread	(27)
<i>Molnaria intestinalis</i>	Skrjabilanidae	Eurasia	(23)
<i>Philometra ovata</i>	Philometridae	Eurasia	(3, 17)
<i>Philometra rischta</i>	Philometridae	Eurasia	(6, 17, 24, 35)
<i>Pseudoterranova decipiens</i> (l)	Anisakidae	Widespread	(27)
<i>Raphidascaris acus</i> (l)	Raphidascarididae	Widespread	(8, 17, 20, 23, 37, 40)
<i>Rhabdochona denudata</i>	Rhabdochonidae	Eurasia	(3, 8, 17)
<i>Spiroxys contorta</i> (l)	Gnathostomatidae	Widespread	(23, 24)
<i>Streptocara crassicauda</i>	Acuariidae	Widespread	(35)
Class: Enoplea			
<i>Diocophyme renale</i> (l)	Diocophymidae	Widespread	(23)
<i>Eustrongylides excisus</i> (l)	Diocophymidae	Eurasia	(23)
<i>Pseudocapillaria tomentosa</i>	Capillariidae	Widespread	(20, 23, 40)
<i>Schulmanela petruschewskii</i>	Capillariidae	Eurasia	(23)
Phylum: Acanthocephala			
Class: Palaecanthocephala			
<i>Acanthocephalus anguillae</i>	Echinorhynchidae	Eurasia	(8, 12, 14, 17, 18, 20, 35, 37, 40)
<i>Acanthocephalus clavula</i>	Echinorhynchidae	Eurasia	(17, 18)
<i>Acanthocephalus gracilacanthus</i>	Echinorhynchidae	Eurasia	(29, 33)
<i>Acanthocephalus lucii</i>	Echinorhynchidae	Eurasia	(6, 8, 35)
<i>Corynosoma semerme</i> (l)	Polymorphidae	Widespread	(20)
<i>Echinorhynchus salmonis</i>	Echinorhynchidae	Widespread	(18)
<i>Neoechinorhynchus rutili</i>	Neoechinorhynchidae	Widespread	(3, 6, 8, 17, 18, 35)
<i>Pomphorhynchus laevis</i> (Some records may be <i>Pomphorhynchus tereticollis</i> which is morphologically similar)	Pomphorhynchidae	Eurasia	(3, 6, 12, 17, 20)
Phylum: Annelida			
Class: Clitellata			

Taxonomic groups/species	Family	Geographical distribution	Reference(s)
<i>Hemiclepsis marginata</i>	Glossophoniidae	Eurasia	(3, 17, 35)
<i>Piscicola geometra</i>	Piscicolidae	Widespread	(3, 17, 18, 24, 35)
Phylum: Mollusca			
Class: Bivalvia			
Glochidia larvae	Margaritiferidae Unionidae	Widespread	(14, 17, 24, 35, 37)
Phylum: Arthropoda (Crustacea)			
Class: Hexanauplia			
<i>Caligus lacustris</i>	Caligidae	Eurasia	(5)
<i>Ergasilus briani</i>	Ergasilidae	Eurasia	(3, 5, 17, 20)
<i>Ergasilus sieboldi</i>	Ergasilidae	Eurasia	(5, 14, 17, 20, 24, 33, 35, 37)
<i>Lamproglena pulchella</i>	Lernaeidae	Eurasia	(3, 5, 17, 20, 24)
<i>Lernaea cyprinacea</i>	Lernaeidae	Widespread	(5)
<i>Tracheliastes polycolpus</i>	Lernaeopodidae	Palearctic	(5, 14, 17, 18, 20, 24, 35, 37)
Class: Ichthyostreptida			
<i>Argulus coregoni</i>	Argulidae	Widespread	(5, 24)
<i>Argulus foliaceus</i>	Argulidae	Eurasia	(3, 5, 17, 24, 35, 37)

1716 ¹Bauer (1984); ²Bauer (1985); ³Bauer (1987); ⁴Cech et al. (2012); ⁵de Charleroy et al. (1993); ⁶Djikanovic et al. (2012); ⁷Dorovskikh (1997); ⁸Dorovskikh (1999);
 1717 ⁹Dzika (2008); ¹⁰Ergens (1988); ¹¹Eszterbauer (2002); ¹²Gelnar et al. (1994); ¹³Grabda (1971); ¹⁴Grabda-Kazubska and Pilecka-Rapacz (1987); ¹⁵Grabda-Kazubska
 1718 and Okulewicz (2005); ¹⁶Hao et al. (2014); ¹⁷Izyumova (1987); ¹⁸Järvalt et al. (2003); ¹⁹Jeżewski and Kamara (1999); ²⁰Kirjušina and Vismanis (2007); ²¹Liberman
 1719 (2020); ²²Molnar (1969); ²³Moravec (1994); ²⁴Moravec (2001); ²⁵Niewiadomska (2003); ²⁶Ondračkova et al. (2004); ²⁷Palm et al. (1999); ²⁸Pojmańska (1991);
 1720 ²⁹Popiolek (2016); ³⁰Pugachev et al. (2009); ³¹Rautskis (1988); ³²Rokicki (2004); ³³Rolbiecki (2003); ³⁴Rusinek (2007); ³⁵Sobecka et al. (2004); ³⁶Sterud (1999);
 1721 ³⁷Sterud and Appleby (1997); ³⁸Sterud and Poynton (2002); ³⁹Thomas and Ollevier (1992); ⁴⁰Zhokhov (2003).