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1 **Designing a global assessment of climate change on inland fishes and fisheries: knowns and needs**

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87 **Abstract (150-250 words)**

88

89 To date, there are few comprehensive assessments of how climate change affects inland finfish, fisheries, and
90 aquaculture at a global scale, but one is necessary to identify research needs and commonalities across regions and
91 to help guide decision making and funding priorities. Broadly, the consequences of climate change on inland fishes
92 will impact global food security, the livelihoods of people who depend on inland capture and recreational fisheries.
93 However, understanding how climate change will affect inland fishes and fisheries has lagged behind marine
94 assessments. Building from a North American inland fish assessment, we convened an expert panel from seven
95 countries to provide a first-step to a framework for determining how to approach an assessment of how climate
96 change may affect inland fishes, capture fisheries, and aquaculture globally. Starting with the small group helped
97 frame the key questions (e.g., who is the audience? What is the best approach and spatial scale?). Data gaps
98 identified by the group include: the tolerances of inland fisheries to changes in temperature, stream flows, salinity,
99 and other environmental factors linked to climate change, and the adaptive capacity of fishes and fisheries to adjust
100 to these changes. These questions are difficult to address, but long-term and large-scale datasets are becoming more
101 readily available as a means to test hypotheses related to climate change. We hope this perspective will help
102 researchers and decision makers identify research priorities and provide a framework to help sustain inland fish
103 populations and fisheries for the diversity of users around the globe.

104

105 **Key words: 4-6 key words** climate change, freshwater, inland, livelihoods, food security, recreational fishing

106 **Introduction**

107 There are few syntheses of how climate change may affect inland fishes and fisheries (defined as those
108 found in lakes, rivers, streams, canals, reservoirs, and other land-locked waters including diadromous species; FAO
109 2014a) at a global scale. A recent review of how inland fishes and fisheries are impacted by climate change in the
110 U.S. and Canada was conducted (Hunt et al. 2016; Paukert et al. 2016a; Whitney et al. 2016; Lynch et al. 2016b) but
111 these issues focused on maintaining biodiversity and recreational fishing, and not on many of the pressing issues for
112 developing countries and other regions. Conversely, many fisheries are often focused on food security with limited
113 recreational fisheries, and/or limited assessment or accurate reporting (Cooke et al. 2016a).

114 Inland fishes and capture fisheries and aquaculture are an important component of global fish production.
115 They accounted for over 35% of reported global fisheries production in 2014 (FAO 2016) and potentially account
116 for over 40% of global production when just considering finfish (Lynch et al. 2016a). While climate change will
117 substantially affect both freshwater and marine systems (IPCC 2014), many assessments of fishes responses to
118 climate change focus on marine or estuarine fishes (e.g., Roessig et al. 2004). Much of the climate change work for
119 inland fishes has focused on species-specific responses (e.g., Kovach et al. 2016), or on developed countries (e.g.,
120 Whitney et al. 2016; Lynch et al. 2016b) with little research on inland waters in Mediterranean and tropical biomes
121 (Comte et al. 2013). It is uncertain how lessons learned from these efforts on freshwater community responses to
122 climate change would transfer to a broader geographic scope, including the developing nations of the tropics. At a
123 minimum, such an effort at scaling up would require identification of the different management priorities and value
124 driving the need for sustainable inland fisheries (Cooke et al. 2016a). However, a global assessment is likely to need
125 a diversity of approaches (for fish and fisheries), with specific approaches tailored to the geographic region and
126 sector of interest. Nevertheless, certain broadly applicable generalities likely exist when assessing how inland
127 fisheries are likely to respond to climate change.

128 An expert panel workshop was convened to provide a first-step to define a framework for how to approach
129 the very challenging task of an assessment of how climate change may affect inland fishes, capture fisheries, and
130 aquaculture. Our intention was not to identify a specific process that would encompass all the values and sectors on
131 inland fishes, fisheries, and aquaculture, but to identify common concerns and themes across sectors and regions. In
132 North America and other industrialized countries, maintaining biodiversity and recreational fishing are the primary
133 drivers for fisheries management and conservation (Hunt et al. 2016); however, in other regions, food security and
134 human livelihoods are the major factors driving the need for sustainable inland fisheries (Cooke et al. 2016b).
135 Therefore, our panel had expertise on sustainable fisheries in various regions of the world, fish population dynamics,
136 recreational fisheries, biodiversity, and climate change.

137 Assessing how climate change may affect inland fishes, capture fisheries, and aquaculture is a very
138 complex issue with multiple facets. The group identified three themes that broadly encompass the most important
139 values of inland fisheries on a global scale: food security, livelihoods, and recreational fishing. Other values that are
140 embedded in these three themes are important when considering the effect of climate change on inland fishes and
141 fisheries. For example, cultural norms may determine who is allowed to fish in a village and thus may affect the
142 livelihoods of fishers (Coulthard 2008). If fish abundance declines due to climate change, villagers that are not
143 allowed to fish may be more resilient to climate change than fishers whose livelihoods depend on sustainable
144 fisheries. Changes in climate may be pathways for increased fish contaminants through temperature-contaminants
145 interactions (Noyes et al. 2009), which may in turn affect food security. Our perspective seeks to identify an
146 organizational approach for conducting a critical evaluation of existing literature and expert opinion (i.e., an
147 assessment) of climate change impacts on inland fishes, fisheries, and aquaculture so we can identify data gaps and
148 research needs, as well as commonalities and differences across regions or sections so policy makers can learn from
149 others with similar concerns. The ultimate goal of this process is to help agencies and organizations prioritize
150 actions and funding to ensure sustainable inland fisheries resources through adaptive management in the face of a
151 changing climate. Our approach is built around three broad themes of food security, livelihoods, and recreational
152 fishing.

154 **Food security**

155 Food security is among the greatest global concerns (Godfray et al. 2010). Globally, over 4.5 billion people
156 rely on fishes for at least 15% of their average animal protein intake (Béné et al. 2015). Low-income food-deficit
157 countries account for 80% of the total reported harvest from inland capture fisheries (Kapetsky 2003) with 90% of
158 inland capture fisheries used for human consumption (Welcomme et al. 2010). In Bangladesh and Cambodia, inland
159 fisheries account for approximately 60% and 79% of animal protein consumed, respectively (Belton and Thilsted
160 2014). If a region relies heavily on one food source (e.g., fish, livestock, rice), it is vulnerable to food insecurity as
161 threats to that particular food source arise (e.g., climate change, human land use) potentially increasing the number

162 of people at risk of hunger (Schmidhuber and Tubiello 2007). In Africa, one-third (2.7 million tonnes) of total
163 capture fisheries production comes from inland waters (FAO 2014b). Tanzania is one of the greatest inland fisheries
164 nations in Africa, ranking in the top ten countries of the world for inland capture fisheries (FAO 2014b). The
165 country shares three great lakes (Victoria, Tanganyika, and Nyasa/Malawi/Niassa) and supports numerous people by
166 providing fishes for their protein, employment, income, foreign earnings, and revenue to the country (FAO 2007).
167 Therefore, the risk of food insecurity for those who rely upon fisheries is significant.

168 As global change impacts inland fisheries worldwide, human populations, especially in developing
169 countries, may be increasingly threatened by food insecurity (Marx 2015). Increasing temperatures, change in
170 streamflow patterns, and salinity intrusion will affect inland fisheries and aquaculture, but the effects may vary
171 across regions and species. Climate change may affect species composition, production, yield, and distribution, as
172 well as drive prevalence of diseases and colonization of invasive species. Climate change may have some positive
173 effects as warmer temperatures and growing seasons may increase fish production for both capture fisheries and
174 aquaculture (Bander 2007); however, if a fish's thermal optimum is exceeded, it may be more susceptible to
175 decreased cardiorespiratory performance, compromised immune function, and altered patterns of individual
176 reproductive investment (Whitney et al. 2016).

177 These impacts have already affected some of the important inland water bodies with substantial fisheries.
178 In Lake Victoria, about 85% of the water entering the lake comes from precipitation with the remainder from rivers,
179 and rising temperatures and changing precipitation patterns have resulted in fluctuating water levels, which, along
180 with other stressors including hydropower, lead to destruction of breeding grounds in shallow waters, alteration of
181 fish life cycles, changes in size of fish populations, and changes in biodiversity. Other African great lakes are also
182 likely impacted, but how they may be affected remains unclear. Seasonal monsoon patterns may change, and the
183 consequences of that change, such as altered mixing and stratification, is currently unclear (MacIntyre 2012), but
184 might affect primary productivity, fish spawning periods, success of larvae, and the overall fish production in the
185 region (FAO 2010). Fish nursery areas may also be affected as inshore vegetation, which supports high fish
186 diversity, transitions to exposed, dry, and rocky habitats which tend to be far less productive. Understanding how
187 climate change affects African great lakes and other systems fisheries, ecology, fish production, and the local
188 communities is needed to understand impacts on food security.

189 **Livelihoods**

191 Inland fisheries contribute greatly to livelihoods by providing income generation, employment, and, in
192 cases where other employment opportunities are lost, a safety net or fallback option (Smith et al. 2005; Welcomme
193 et al. 2010; Youn et al. 2014). Employment can be from fishing-related activities, such as fish processing and
194 selling. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) estimates there are 4.5 million fishers
195 worldwide, and women comprise an estimated 54% of the workforce (Welcomme et al. 2010); however, this number
196 is considered a gross underestimation considering other estimates of inland fishers in just eight countries in
197 Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand, Cambodia, and Vietnam) exceeds this global
198 FAO metric (Coates 2002; Béné et al. 2003).

199 Inland fisheries' livelihoods are important around the world. In the Lower Mekong River Basin, inland
200 fishes and fisheries are a critical component of the economy and culture with 4.4 million tonnes from capture
201 fisheries and aquaculture production totaling an estimated value of \$17 billion per year (Nam et al. 2015). In
202 particular, the Mekong River delta is the most productive area for aquaculture and fisheries in Viet Nam (Wilder and
203 Nguyen 2002). For example, striped catfish *Pangasianodon hypophthalmus* production has now exceeded 1 million
204 tonnes with a value of over US\$ 2 billion and supports the livelihoods of 180,000 to 200,000 people (Halls and
205 Johns 2013). In China, inland fisheries have a net worth of more than 550 billion Chinese Yuan from freshwater
206 aquaculture and commercial fishing (about \$US83 billion annually; MOA 2015) and support about 10 million
207 people (MOA 2015). In the Lower Mississippi River Basin of the United States, the catfish industry processed
208 136,500 tonnes in 2014 with most production in southern states such as Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and
209 Louisiana (Hanson and Sites 2015). Therefore, inland fishes and fisheries contribute substantially to the livelihoods
210 of many people and cultures, and thus the effects of climate change on fishes and fisheries are a critical employment
211 concern.

212 Climate change impacts stemming from altered temperature and precipitation patterns may directly and
213 indirectly affect livelihoods by changes in fish production, growth, survival, availability and diversity (Cochrane et
214 al. 2009; Chen et al. 2016). Ninety percent of inland fisheries occur in Africa and Asia (Cochrane et al. 2009), where
215 temperature increases are expected to exceed the global annual mean warming (Christensen et al. 2007). In China,
216 ponds and lakes, where a majority of inland fisheries occur, may be strongly affected by climate change, especially
217 drought and warming (Yu 2009; Yang et al. 2016), and models that incorporate precipitation in the driest month,

218 temperature annual range, and annual mean temperature can be used to predict fish assemblages in Chinese lakes
219 (Guo et al. 2015). In Viet Nam, river flows upstream of the Mekong River delta in the dry season 2015-2016 were
220 at historic lows due to an El Nino year, and these events are projected to become more frequent and stronger (Kiem
221 et al. 2008). Likewise, sea level rises (coupled with decreasing sediment supply to the Mekong River delta
222 stemming from trapping at upstream hydropower impoundments) have also caused an influx of salt water into main
223 channels (P. Hoa, unpublished data). Therefore, neglecting to recognize the important contributions of inland
224 fisheries to livelihoods in light of climate change, will increase the difficulty in supporting those livelihoods,
225 especially in rural communities (FAO 2014b; Cooke et al. 2016a).
226

227 **Recreational fishing**

228 Recreational fishing, defined as fishing without the primary objective of subsistence or commercial trade
229 (FAO 2012), is a popular activity around the globe (Cooke and Cowx 2004). On most industrialized continents such
230 as Europe, North America, and Australia, recreational fisheries represent the primary fisheries sector in inland
231 waters (Arlinghaus et al. 2002; FAO 2012). Inland fishes and recreational fisheries in the United States (U.S.)
232 contribute over \$US26 billion annually, making them a very important part of the U.S. economy (USFWS - USCB
233 2011). Recreational fisheries provide substantial additional value because they can also boost other tourism
234 industries (reviewed in Cooke et al. 2016a). For example, recreational fisheries substantially increased revenue for
235 dining and lodging services in China (Yu 2009; Yang et al. 2016). Even in emerging economies, inland recreational
236 fisheries are expanding due to angling tourism and increasing domestic participation (e.g., Brazil: Freire et al. 2012;
237 India: Gupta et al. 2015). In some jurisdictions, recreational fisheries are intensively managed based on stock
238 enhancement programs to achieve diverse objectives such as creation of trophy fisheries or to provide harvestable
239 fishes within a target size range (FAO 2012; Cooke et al. 2016a).

240 For these intensively managed recreational fisheries, climate change has the potential to alter the ability of
241 managers to achieve their objectives (Paukert et al. 2016a). Climate change impacts fish physiology (Whitney et al.
242 2016), populations and communities (Lynch et al. 2016b), and the decisions of recreational anglers (Hunt et al.
243 2016). These changes are often linked to changes in water temperature and stream flows, causing drought and
244 increased salinity from saltwater intrusions in some inland systems. However, even in developed countries such as
245 the U.S. and Canada, there are few *documented* cases of how climate change affects inland fishes; those that do exist
246 primarily link to distribution and phenology (Lynch et al. 2016b). In developing countries where there is less
247 management capacity targeted towards the recreational sector, the potential consequences are difficult to predict. In
248 addition, there is also little research on how climate change may affect the recreational fishers through changes to
249 fishes and fish habitats, changes to fishing opportunities (e.g., increased air temperature reducing ice cover at
250 northern latitudes, which will extend the open-water fishing season and effort), and changes in government
251 mitigation and adaption strategies (e.g., energy policies that may increase fuel prices so fishing trips are more
252 expensive; Hunt et al. 2016). What is clear is that the recreational sector active in inland waters will have to adapt in
253 the face of global change. What that adaptation will look like requires knowledge of how inland waters around the
254 globe will be altered by climate change and progressive thinking about how recreational fisheries can adapt to
255 continue to provide maximum benefits to anglers and more broadly to society.
256

257 **Structuring a global assessment**

258 *Need*

259 To address the need for a global assessment of climate change on inland fishes and fisheries, we convened
260 a scoping meeting of experts from around the world to discuss the needs, challenges, and future research directions
261 with the objective of developing a framework for assessing climate change effects on inland fishes and fisheries at a
262 global scale. We followed a similar approach to a recent North American assessment on the effects of climate
263 change on inland fisheries (see Paukert et al. 2016b). We invited participants from seven countries representing
264 academics and agency personnel. This team was selected based on reputation and publication record in inland
265 fisheries assessment and/or climate change and met on 21 May 2016 in Busan, South Korea. Our goal was to have
266 an initial small meeting to determine the feasibility of a global assessment and make recommendations if we
267 identified a viable approach forward. Some of the questions we wanted the group to answer were:

- 268 • What is the biggest challenge to developing a global inland fisheries assessment?
- 269 • What are the best approaches to determine an assessment?
- 270 • What are the research needs to achieve a comprehensive assessment?

271
272 The potential effects of climate change on inland fishes, fisheries, and aquaculture do not just affect inland
273 fishes themselves but upscale through the food and market chains to food security, livelihoods, and recreational

274 fisheries. Consequently, these issues need to be integrated into local, national, regional, and global development
275 initiatives and debates relating to food security, such as those embedded in the Sustainable Development Goals (UN
276 2016). There is, thus, a clear mandate to raise the importance and value of inland fishes and fisheries in the political
277 arena (in terms of contribution to livelihoods and social and economic perspectives) (Cooke et al. 2013; Cooke et al.
278 2016a), and the conservation and recreational services they deliver (Cowx et al. 2010). It is also critical to predict
279 and anticipate the nature and magnitude of potential impacts of climate change on food production and recreational
280 services. Working with the industries concerned is necessary to develop innovative adaptation and mitigation
281 strategies to enhance resilience to perceived threats, and to facilitate access to opportunities (e.g., the ‘blue-growth’
282 agenda).

283 To achieve this, there is a need to engage with other aquatic resource and food production sectors and the public
284 at large, and understand the motives and drivers of these sectors in an effort to optimize use of what could be
285 potentially limiting water resources in the future (Cooke et al. 2013). It is important that inland fishes and fisheries
286 are represented in river basin planning and management, and included in the emerging scientific dialogue around
287 concepts, such as ecosystem services (Table 1) and ecosystem-based management (Beard et al. 2011; Cowx and
288 Portocarrero Aya 2011), to maintaining the functional ecosystems for fisheries (Brummett et al. 2013).

289 With the expert panel, we discussed and suggested the following considerations of scale, approach, and
290 challenges for a global assessment:

291 292 *Scale*

293 Climate change is a global phenomenon, and Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
294 predictions (2014) suggest changes in precipitation and temperature around the world. However, consequent effects
295 on fishes and fisheries are influenced by localized landscape factors, such as elevational gradients, coastal effects,
296 large inland water bodies, and rain shadows, resulting in regional climate patterns (Daly 2006; Wiens and Bachelet
297 2010). Ecoregions encompass areas of the landscape, including freshwater habitats, with geographically distinct
298 assemblages of species and broadly similar environmental factors such as geology, vegetation, and regional climate
299 (Abell et al. 2008). Regional downscaling models provide valuable insights into the predicted meteorological
300 changes but translating these into impacts on aquatic ecosystems, and ultimately fishes and fisheries, is fraught with
301 uncertainty at each step in the modelling process. The main problem is that individual watersheds have specific
302 hydrologic and ecosystem characteristics and these function in different ways. Additionally, other competing uses
303 for water make any direct linkages to fish response more complex.

304 Consequently, to determine any likely impact on inland fishes and fisheries, there is a need to define the
305 scale over which any assessment is undertaken. This needs to be feasible in terms of a knowledge base of ecosystem
306 biodiversity and functioning of the target system, but also appropriate in terms of the uncertainty associated with
307 climate downscaling models to provide defensible predictions. In addition, the availability of biological data is
308 highly variable globally. At the scale of individual watersheds, states, provinces, and occasionally entire countries,
309 comprehensive species inventories exist and biological data sets may also be available. Yet, many regions,
310 particularly in developing countries and the tropics, lack such information (Williams 1996; Dudgeon et al. 2006;
311 Darwall et al. 2008). Where regional datasets exist, their harmonization into comparable formats requires major
312 investments to support the entities organizing the information as well as cooperation from the data providers
313 (Midway et al. 2016; Whittier et al. 2016). The use of these datasets for any future assessments requires a spatial
314 framework that distinguishes water bodies in a common manner (e.g., National River Spatial Dataset; Wang et al.
315 2016). For global assessment, such a spatial framework should span political boundaries within continents and
316 ensure characterization of all fresh waters of interest.

317 Working at the regional scale will likely be inaccurate from the ecosystem perspective because of the high
318 potential diversity between river basins across single regions, whereas working at the individual river basin scale
319 will be impractical. We therefore suggest to undertake any assessment at the freshwater ecoregion level (e.g., Abell
320 et al. 2008; <http://www.feow.org/globalmap>; Orians 1993; Olson and Folke 2001). Such ecoregions are well defined
321 in freshwater conservation management and account for differences in fish distributions based on evolutionary
322 history and ecological boundaries. In addition, species responses to changing climate may vary by region (Paukert et
323 al. 2016b), and climate scenarios developed for ecoregions must capture those variables that will lead most directly
324 to changes in water temperature, precipitation, and phenology associated with regional fishes of interest (e.g.,
325 Sievert et al. 2016). There may be problems, however, arising within large river basins, such as the Mekong, where
326 the river is broken down into several ecoregions where each can potentially influence those upstream and
327 downstream in the watershed, especially where long-distance migrating fishes contribute significantly to the
328 fisheries. Consequently, under these circumstances, it may be necessary to combine or relate ecoregions to

329 understand the full impacts of climate change on the hydrologic and limnologic characteristics and associated effects
330 on inland fishes and fisheries.

331 *Approach*

332 Climate change sciences are fraught with uncertainty, even more so when translating into impacts on
333 aquatic ecosystems. Many empirical models have been developed to assess the impact of climate change on
334 ecosystems and biota, but many are based on direct relationships between temperature and hydrologic variables and
335 rarely account for uncertainty or adaptation to changing conditions. They also do not explore the exposure of
336 fisheries and aquaculture to climate change effects or consider the sensitivity of these sectors to climate and other
337 elements of global change, thus indicating the scale of the potential problem.

338 For a global assessment of climate change impacts on inland fishes and fisheries, we recommend utilizing
339 an emerging approach, risk and vulnerability assessments, where the vulnerability to a hazard (i.e., climate change)
340 is broken down into exposure, sensitivity, and adaptive capacity (Foden et al. 2013). The principal advantage of
341 these assessments is that they can incorporate both qualitative and quantitative knowledge. Such assessments
342 originate in work by the IPCC (2001) and have been applied to marine fisheries globally (Cheung et al. 2013;
343 Cheung et al. 2016). As a first step, a series of stakeholder-informed conceptual models are needed exploring how
344 the main components of risk (assessment and management) from climate change impact the inland fisheries sector
345 (commercial, subsistence, and recreational). These should analyze: (i) the threats or change likely to cause a specific
346 event (e.g., losses or change in a particularly fishery) as well as (ii) prevention measures limiting the severity of the
347 event, then identify (iii) the consequences of the event occurring, and (iv) mitigation measures that can minimizing
348 those consequences. Cause-effect (consequence) tools such as the Eco-evidence
349 (<http://www.toolkit.net.au/tools/eco-evidence>) or Bowtie tools (Cromier et al. 2013), can be used to support this
350 assessment.

351 Such assessment requires engagement with all stakeholders to determine the likely impacts and
352 consequences to food security and livelihoods. This will require inputs from a wide range of end users (e.g., fishers,
353 fishing communities, policy makers) and incorporate both data-rich and data-poor scenarios, coupled with expert
354 opinion. Embedded within this framework should be vulnerability assessment of species, populations, communities,
355 ecosystems, and the people dependent on the fisheries resources.

356 *Identified challenges to a climate change and inland fishes assessment*

357 Physiological and population data are essential for identifying inland fishes and fisheries vulnerable to
358 changes in climate to facilitate their conservation and management (Paukert et al. 2016b), and to aid in managing
359 expectations and needs of people who depend on fisheries resources (Paukert et al. 2016a). Fisheries census data
360 over large spatial extents are critical for first identifying habitats supporting species threatened by current stressors,
361 such as anthropogenic land use and overfishing, and for identifying those habitats that are vulnerable based on their
362 ability to support species with changes in climate. More detailed biological data, including information on
363 population size structure, growth rates, and life histories, are also necessary for conducting regional analyses to
364 elucidate associations between fishes and key climate drivers so that results can be extrapolated to similar habitats
365 that may lack such information.

366 Data necessary for a global assessment of inland waters should include information characterizing
367 distributions of species throughout rivers, lakes, and wetlands, with preferable data sets including those that
368 characterize species abundances and assemblage compositions to understand overall community dynamics. Also
369 important are datasets which characterize physiological constraints of individual species, which may be the ultimate
370 drivers of changes in assemblage composition that would occur with changes in climate (see Wikelski and Cooke
371 2006; Pörtner and Farrell 2008; Whitney et al. 2016). Such understanding, coupled with large-scale inventories of
372 species distributions, can be used to anticipate range shifts and novel species interactions that may occur with
373 climate-induced changes in habitats (e.g., temperature, hydrology, water quality; Comte and Grenouillet 2013;
374 Whitney et al. 2016). Efforts to prioritize the acquisition of biological data for global assessment should target data
375 from a diversity of inland water bodies globally, including ecologically unique habitats occurring across a broad
376 range of climatic conditions, as well as data from habitats supporting culturally and economically important
377 fisheries.

378 Fresh water is a shared resource. Water challenges (i.e., too much, too little, too dirty) are recognized to
379 have global implications. Many sectors rely upon water and, in some cases, the limited availability of water leads to
380 tough decisions. Though inland fishes and fisheries play important roles in providing food security, human well-
381 being, and ecosystem productivity, this sector is often underappreciated in water resource planning because
382 valuation is difficult and governance is complex, unclear, or non-existent (Lynch et al. 2016a). Additionally, inland
383

385 fisheries are an economically small sector and, in most cases, the value of inland fisheries will never be the main
386 driver of decision making. Management of sustainable inland water systems requires making informed choices
387 emphasizing those services that will provide sustainable benefits for humans while maintaining well-functioning
388 ecological systems (Cooke et al. 2016a).

389 **Future directions**

391 *Identified research needs*

393 Our expert panel developed a list of priority research needs for inland fishes, fisheries, and aquaculture
394 related to climate change. These ratings were separated by theme (food security, livelihoods, and recreational
395 fishing) as each theme may have different priorities. The expert panel was then asked to identify priority research
396 needs. The group, by consensus, selected 13 different needs within five categories: thermal or flow tolerances, fish
397 population responses, fishers and other users (e.g., fish farmers), production, and geographic scope. Each expert was
398 asked to rank each of the 13 priority needs as low (1) medium (2) or high (3) for each theme (Figure 1).

399 Several patterns emerged from this exercise. The most important information needs for food security were
400 related to fishers and other users, and fish population responses to climate change (mean rank >2.4). In general, how
401 users of fishes will respond to drought and how fishing communities may cope with changes in fish production and
402 how fish population size may change with climate were priority needs for food security. In contrast to other themes,
403 fish responses to thermal and hydrologic regimes (mean rank <2.4) were not important for food security.

404 Understanding fisher response to climate was a high priority need for livelihoods (mean rank >2.6),
405 followed closely by how fish production may respond to climate. More specifically, understanding how saltwater
406 intrusion (in coastal areas) may affect production systems was important for livelihoods. In general, fish tolerances
407 to thermal and hydrologic regimes were relatively low priority (mean rank of 2.0 to 2.4), although understanding the
408 adaptive capacity of fishes to respond to these changes in hydrology and temperature was the greatest need in the
409 thermal/flow responses category for livelihoods (mean rank of 2.6).

410 The priority needs for recreational fisheries differed markedly from the livelihoods and food security
411 themes with regards to thermal and flow tolerances and fish production. Priority needs related to thermal and flow
412 tolerances of fishes were typically ranked high for recreational fisheries (mean rank of 2.6 to 2.8). However, fish
413 population responses were also ranked high for this theme (mean rank of 2.4 to 2.6). Quantifying the linkage
414 between production, floodplains, and climate, and understanding how saltwater intrusion may affect fish production
415 or impact recreational fishing were ranked the lowest of any data gap (mean rank of 1.1 to 1.5).

416 Across all themes, our expert panel identified a need to have better geographic representation in research,
417 regardless of data gaps (Figure 1). Below, we expand on several high priority research themes identified in Figure 1:
418 adaptive capacity, dynamic energy and temperature budgets, environmental variables (beyond temperature), and
419 large datasets.

421 *Account for adaptive capacity*

422 A relatively consistent priority need was to understand a fish's adaptive capacity to respond to thermal and
423 hydrologic changes. Quantifying the ability of inland fishes to adapt to novel environmental conditions will be an
424 essential component to any assessment of how inland fisheries will respond to climate change (Huey et al. 2012;
425 Foden et al. 2013). However, research into the adaptive capacity of inland fishes to changing environmental
426 conditions has lagged well behind that for terrestrial and marine organisms (Heino et al. 2009). Although inland
427 fishes may have the ability to adapt to changing hydrology and temperature conditions (Eliason et al. 2011), we have
428 little information on some of the most basic metrics such as maximum thermal and flow tolerances. This basic
429 information is often limited for many economically and socially valuable species, and can be nonexistent for other
430 species because of their lack of perceived value and conservation significance. For example, even in a relatively
431 small region like the state of Missouri, U.S., at least 25% of the wadeable stream fish species are lacking thermal or
432 flow tolerances data (Sievrt et al. 2016).

433 However, there is also a compelling need for research to address the demographic consequences of
434 changing environmental conditions. For example, while research has addressed the capacity for acclimation to upper
435 thermal tolerance limits (i.e., Critical Thermal Maximum; CTmax) in response to warming temperatures within
436 fishes, these studies typically occurred over short time spans (i.e., weeks) and involved relatively rapid changes in
437 temperature (Peck et al. 2009). In addition, much of the current body of work on climate change impacts on fishes is
438 that experimental exposure levels tend to be stable (e.g., temperatures held at 25°C for 3 months), which may fail to
439 reflect the reality experienced in the wild where temperature can vary even on a diel basis or over fine spatial scales
440 (Terblanche et al. 2007; Westhoff and Paukert 2014). Hence, these experimental challenges are not overly realistic

441 and therefore it is challenging to extrapolate results to the long-term creep of climate change. Nevertheless, these
442 kinds of meso-term thermal challenge experiments represent some of the best available empirical data.
443 Unfortunately, these experiments typically fall short of making a mechanistic linkage between measured variables,
444 such as temperature, specific oxygen consumption rates (a proxy for scope for aerobic activity), and demographic
445 responses such changes in age specific growth rate, fecundity, or gamete quantity or quality. Failure to use realistic
446 thermal scenarios that incorporate diel and seasonal heterogeneity (see Terblanche et al. 2007; Terblanche et al.
447 2011; Huey et al. 2012), changes in phenology, and also simulate extreme events (e.g., Donaldson et al. 2008 for
448 cold shock) will limit our ability to predict the consequences of climate change on inland fishes. As such, these
449 represent significant research priorities.

450 Accurately quantifying capacity for adaptation to new conditions is only a part of the knowledge base
451 needed for assessing how inland fish species will respond to climate change. For example, Stillman (2003) identified
452 how close an organism's upper thermal tolerance limit is to existing high temperatures as a critical consideration of
453 thermal adaptation ability and its vulnerability to warming temperatures. Therefore, a detailed knowledge of current
454 temperature norms and organismal upper tolerance levels would be essential to assessments of vulnerability and
455 adaptive capacity. Thermal tolerances and physiological adaptation vary depending on whether animals are provided
456 with stable or dynamic temperatures (Beitinger and Bennett 1999; Beitinger et al. 2000; Angilletta 2009).

457 Further complicating matters is the growing body of evidence that individual-based differences within
458 populations combined with the potential presence of population-specific local adaptation to prevailing conditions
459 may render extrapolation of limited empirical datasets to broad generalizations suspect (Newton et al. 2010; Norin et
460 al. 2016). Vulnerability of species to climate change is often linked to life history traits (e.g., Chessman 2013;
461 Sievert et al. 2016). Given that we cannot measure adaptive capacity of every individual or fish species, measuring
462 these metrics for different thermal guilds may be a suitable alternative (e.g., Comte and Grenouillet 2013).
463 Therefore, a generalization in any assessment of the climate change impact on inland fisheries is a challenge given
464 the dichotomy in the adaptive capacity between temperate and tropical species, with tropical species likely more
465 susceptible to deleterious impacts because of narrower thermal tolerances (Janzen 1967; Deutsch et al. 2008).

466 *Model dynamic temperature / energy budgets*

467 Understanding the energy budgets of fishes is a critical step to determine how inland fisheries respond to
468 climate. For inland fisheries, water temperature is the 'master factor' governing energy-demanding metabolic
469 processes (Brett 1971), in addition to distribution and dispersal of individuals. Therefore, climate-change induced
470 alteration to the thermal characteristics of inland waters will presumably affect the ways in which fishes obtain,
471 allocate, and expend energy (reviewed in Whitney et al. 2016), influencing individual fitness and population
472 productivity (Rijnsdorp et al. 2009; Pörtner and Peck 2010). Fish energetics have been studied for decades (Brett
473 and Groves 1979; Tytler and Calow 1985), leading to the development of a number of bioenergetics modeling
474 approaches (Ney 1993; Petersen and Paukert 2005) and species-specific bioenergetics models (e.g., Kitchell et al.
475 1977; Rice and Cochran 1984). Contemporary bioenergetics modeling approaches, such as "dynamic energy
476 budgets" (DEB), provide opportunities for exploring climate change impacts on fisheries because they can be
477 integrated with individual-based models for predicting climate change impacts (Martin et al. 2012; see Freitas et al.
478 2010 for a marine fish example).

480 *Expand beyond temperature*

481 Fisheries response to increasing temperatures in inland habitats has been the focus of the majority of
482 climate change and inland fisheries studies to date on fish phenological, demographic, and distributional changes,
483 particularly in coldwater fishes (e.g., salmonids; Comte et al. 2013; Lynch et al. 2016b). In addition to increasing
484 temperatures, climate change can alter drought duration, flow variability, and precipitation patterns, which also
485 influence fish populations (Krabbenhoft et al. 2014; Ward et al. 2015) and may be coupled with the emergence of
486 "no-analog" communities (Huey et al. 2012; Urban et al. 2012). Although climate-induced changes in stream flow
487 have been a commonly studied to determine climate change effects on trout (*Oncorhynchus* and *Salmo* species)
488 globally, many other species, other climate change mechanisms, and geographic regions are not well represented in
489 the literature (Kovach et al. 2016).

491 In North America, only five documented studies identified between 1985 and 2015 focused on climate
492 variables other than temperature (e.g., precipitation, flow variability, and ice cover) to assess climate change effects
493 on inland fisheries (Lynch et al. 2016b). There is also a paucity of information on the potential complex and variable
494 fisheries responses to climate change, including fish community structure, susceptibility of fishes to diseases, and
495 novel interactions among species (Lynch et al. 2016b). Similarly, only two studies on North American inland

496 fisheries examined changes to fish diversity and species interactions in response to climate change (Moore et al.
497 1995; Muhlfeld et al. 2014).

498 Recent climate and inland fishes syntheses revealed biases towards certain geographic areas, such as the
499 Northern Hemisphere and temperate regions, and a lack of information for most of the globe, especially high needs
500 areas, such as Asia and Africa (Cochrane et al. 2009; Comte et al. 2013; Kovach et al. 2016). Much is still unknown
501 in terms of the complex and nuanced ways in which fisheries may respond to climate change globally and the effects
502 of lesser studied climate variables on inland fishes and fisheries. Therefore, a need exists to further augment our
503 understanding of climate change effects on inland fishes and fisheries to expand beyond studying temperature
504 effects on fish distributions, phenology, and growth to including other relevant climate variables and potential
505 fisheries responses at more geographically representative scales globally.

506
507 *Build from existing, long-term datasets*

508 Understanding the effects of climate change on inland fishes and fisheries benefits greatly from the use of
509 long-term data sets (where available). The value of long-term datasets has been long appreciated. Over 25 years ago,
510 Elliott (1990) remarked on their value for both fundamental and applied freshwater studies and noted the low
511 statistical power of short-term studies to detect subtle effects arising from a range of environmental problems
512 including climate change. Elliott (1990) indicated that long-term studies require very substantial commitments of
513 funding, staffing, and facilities and there is always a danger that long-term investigations may fall into unproductive
514 complacency, for which the appropriate remedy is regular scrutiny and analysis. These characteristics persist to the
515 present day in which lake and other inland aquatic ecosystems have become more complex as a result of a range of
516 interacting multiple stressors including climate change, eutrophication, and species introductions (Maberly and
517 Elliott 2012).

518 However, long-term monitoring is a critical element to understand fishes and fisheries responses to climate
519 change (Paukert et al. 2016a). In the U.S., the Long Term Ecological Research Network (www.lternet.edu) was
520 created in 1980 with the specific remit to conduct research at the temporal scale of decades and the spatial scale of
521 large geographical areas. This far-sighted initiative was followed in 1993 by the founding of the International Long-
522 term Ecological Research Network (www.ilternet.ceh.ac.uk) which consists of networks of scientists from around
523 the world, including the Long Term Ecological Research Network, engaged in long-term, site-based, ecological and
524 socioeconomic research. Although the outputs of these networks have been diverse and voluminous, as recently
525 illustrated by Maass and Equihua (2015), a detailed inspection (see listings within the above websites) reveals that
526 inland fishes and fisheries feature infrequently (e.g., Comte and Grenouillet 2013).

527 An effective and efficient global assessment of climate change impacts on inland fishes and fisheries
528 requires, with some urgency, that we build from these existing largely non-fish datasets and add extensive fish
529 datasets held by a range of fishes and fisheries researchers and managers around the world. Some of these combined
530 datasets already occur but vary by region. In Europe, standardized reporting is required by countries held to the
531 European Union Water Framework Directive ([http://ec.europa.eu/environment/water/water-
532 framework/info/intro_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/environment/water/water-framework/info/intro_en.htm)), a stream fish diversity and biomass dataset is available from thousands of locations
533 across the European Union (Logez et al. 2013), and a corresponding but smaller dataset has recently been provided
534 for lakes (Mehner et al. 2017). In the U.S., stream fish abundances from across the contiguous U.S. have been
535 compiled in support of the National Fish Habitat Partnership; these data were voluntarily provided by state and
536 federal programs and synthesized into a comprehensive and comparable data layer for use in a current condition
537 assessment of fish habitats (<http://assessment.fishhabitat.org/>). At a global scale, the Global Freshwater Biodiversity
538 Atlas (<http://atlas.freshwaterbiodiversity.eu/>) is an unprecedented effort to conduct a global accounting of fishes and
539 other taxa supported by freshwaters. The atlas includes maps and data sources of varying resolutions providing
540 spatial characterizations of fishes and other aquatic organisms globally. These and other large-scale data sets can
541 serve as sources of data as well as models for development of integrated data sets for assessing fish response to
542 climate change. However, there is still a strong need for datasets from other regions of the world. In addition, there
543 is a need to collect these new data wherever possible using standard methods (Bonar et al. 2017).

544 545 **Conclusions**

546 Several opportunities and research needs were identified throughout the workshop process. Our expert
547 panel included many researchers who, not surprisingly, agreed that more research is needed. Incorporating other
548 stakeholders that include more decisions makers and information users in subsequent steps of an assessment will
549 help couch the research priorities with decision makers that may have better understanding of funding mechanisms
550 for the research, or how to best leverage limited resources to achieve the greatest effect, such as using existing data
551 to answer questions related to climate change.

552 We have more opportunities now because of the substantial amount of existing, long-term datasets
553 available, such as the International Long Term Ecological Research Network. However, we still have challenges to
554 determine the energy budgets of fishes, particularly under dynamic temperature regimes, and the adaptive capacity
555 of these fishes to potentially absorb these climate-driven changes. Coupling these concerns with the lack of
556 understanding on how abiotic factors other than temperature may affect fishes (Staudt et al. 2013), how climate
557 change may affect fishes through the food web and other pathways (Lynch et al. 2016), the response of the human
558 users (e.g., Hunt et al. 2016), and how these responses may differ among regions indicates we need more
559 information to help governing bodies and users of inland fishes better adapt to climate change.

560 Our expert panel concluded that an assessment of the effects of climate change on inland fishes and
561 fisheries at a global scale will be challenging because of the diversity of inland fishery resources and varied regional
562 uses worldwide, coupled with the diversity of inland fisheries and their differential responses to climate change. In
563 addition, the broad themes of food security, livelihood, and recreational fishing encompass multiple sub-themes such
564 as the importance of cultural or societal norms related to fisher livelihoods, or how contaminant-temperature
565 interactions may affect fishes and thus food security and human health. However, identifying key issues relating to
566 climate change and inland fishes, fisheries, and aquaculture is a critical step to help researchers and management
567 agencies understand the potential impacts of climate change and will guide future research and the development of
568 adaptation strategies in the face of climate change. Our approach, starting with a small team of experts, to this large
569 and complex problem can help guide efforts that may initially seem overwhelming or too challenging.

570 Many large-scale assessments of climate change involve modeling future trends of various metrics (e.g.,
571 Lobell et al. 2008; Bellard et al. 2012), or have addressed specific regions like the U.S. (Grimm et al. 2013) or,
572 slightly more broadly, North America (Paukert et al. 2016b). Our proposed framework primarily focused on the
573 logistics and organization of the assessment because, unlike other large-scale assessments, we have very limited data
574 that were collected specifically for the purpose of measuring the impact of climate change. Any approach needs to
575 be flexible to provide for the vastly different inland fishery issues in highly diverse regions with varying social and
576 economic drivers, coupled with the lack of understanding or reporting of data that may be relevant to the effects of
577 climate change on inland fisheries.

578 Our recommendation to address a large, complex issue like climate change and inland fisheries is to start
579 small with a focused group before expanding to tackle the entire issue. A suggested framework for developing a
580 very large and complex assessment could include the following aspects:

- 581 • Start small, with a team you that you have confidence in;
- 582 • Identify your target audience (decision makers? scientists?);
- 583 • Incorporate multiple pathways for information (e.g., local fishermen, scientists, indigenous people, fishing
584 communities, managers);
- 585 • Use different methods and spatial scales to capture regionally diverse issues and a variety of stakeholders
586 (e.g., long term data, literature review, expert panels)—using one approach may miss critical needs.

587
588
589 Our expert team summarized that fish production is a key issue for global food security, livelihoods, and
590 recreational fishing. More specifically, research quantifying the linkage between climate and production and how
591 fishing communities may cope with changes in fish production caused by climate change is critical (Figure 1). With
592 fishes making up the largest single source of animal protein for humans at a global scale (Béné et al. 2015),
593 understanding the impact of climate change on these systems is of critical importance. Fisheries resources provide
594 different benefits and value to communities depending on geographic location, cultural values, and income
595 generation opportunities. However, there remains a need to understand the benefits of the varied uses to each
596 community to better manage fisheries for sustainable use into the future.

597 Although our work has highlighted some challenges and different priority research needs (Figure 1) to
598 conduct an assessment of climate change on inland fisheries at a global scale, one positive aspect of this work is that
599 there is a shared vision for fisheries sustainability worldwide, even if the purpose to maintain sustainability may be
600 different. Different regions may focus more on food security (e.g., China, Tanzania, Viet Nam) or biodiversity or
601 recreational fisheries (e.g., U. S.), but all regions identified the need to understand how climate change will affect
602 inland fishes and fisheries. A global assessment of climate change and inland fisheries will, indeed, be very
603 challenging but is vitally necessary. We hope that our initial process and results summarized here can build on
604 existing efforts (e.g., Paukert et al. 2016b) and may help others in the development of a more formal assessment that
605 includes more stakeholders and panel members. Ultimately, we hope that this work will help agencies, NGOs,
606 communities, and other users and regulators of inland fishes and fisheries adapt to a changing climate.

607

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620
621 **Conflict of Interest:**

622 none

623 **References**

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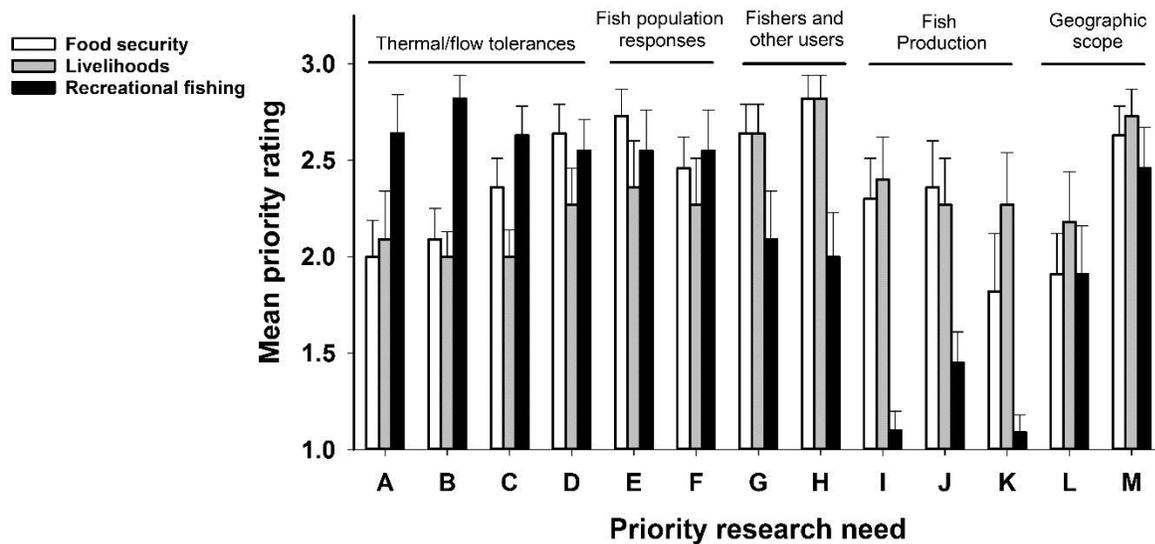
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860 **Table 1.** The range of provisioning, regulating, supporting and cultural services provided by functional aquatic
861 ecosystems (after Brummett et al. 2013). Different aquatic ecosystems will provide some or all of these.
862

Ecosystem service	Examples
Cultural	Scientific discovery, spiritual, ceremonial, recreation (including ecotourism), aesthetic
Provisioning	Foods, fisheries, crops, water, construction materials, medicines, clothing materials, hydropower and biomass fuels
Regulating	Climate, floods, carbon sequestration, nutrient balance, water filtration
Supporting	Nutrient cycling, photosynthesis, soil formation

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867 **Fig. 1.** Mean rating (1=low, 2=medium, 3=high) of priority research needs by theme for a global assessment on the
 868 effects of climate change on inland fishes developed from an expert panel workshop (see text). Errors bars represent
 869 one standard error. Priority needs are A) Maximum thermal tolerance, B) Response to dynamic temperature (not
 870 just maximum), C) Response to hydrologic changes, D) Adaptive capacity to respond to changes in temperature and
 871 flow, E) Understand fish population size so change caused by climate can be measured, F) Individual fish and
 872 population-level responses to climate change (e.g., growth), G) Response of users to drought and extreme events, H)
 873 Understand how fishing communities may cope with changes in fish production, I) Quantifying the linkages of
 874 aquaculture production to floods in floodplain areas, J) Understand the influence of saltwater intrusion of fish
 875 communities/production, K) Developing successful production systems in areas of high saltwater intrusion, L) Link
 876 between catch, temperature, and hydrology in different systems/regions, and MK) Better geographic representation
 877 of all studies.
 878