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

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86

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.

153  
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  
332 *Approach*

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

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

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

357  
358 *Identified challenges to a climate change and inland fishes assessment*

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

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

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



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).

#### 466 467 *Model dynamic temperature / energy budgets*

468 Understanding the energy budgets of fishes is a critical step to determine how inland fisheries respond to  
469 climate. For inland fisheries, water temperature is the 'master factor' governing energy-demanding metabolic  
470 processes (Brett 1971), in addition to distribution and dispersal of individuals. Therefore, climate-change induced  
471 alteration to the thermal characteristics of inland waters will presumably affect the ways in which fishes obtain,  
472 allocate, and expend energy (reviewed in Whitney et al. 2016), influencing individual fitness and population  
473 productivity (Rijnsdorp et al. 2009; Pörtner and Peck 2010). Fish energetics have been studied for decades (Brett  
474 and Groves 1979; Tytler and Calow 1985), leading to the development of a number of bioenergetics modeling  
475 approaches (Ney 1993; Petersen and Paukert 2005) and species-specific bioenergetics models (e.g., Kitchell et al.  
476 1977; Rice and Cochran 1984). Contemporary bioenergetics modeling approaches, such as "dynamic energy  
477 budgets" (DEB), provide opportunities for exploring climate change impacts on fisheries because they can be  
478 integrated with individual-based models for predicting climate change impacts (Martin et al. 2012; see Freitas et al.  
479 2010 for a marine fish example).

#### 480 481 *Expand beyond temperature*

482 Fisheries response to increasing temperatures in inland habitats has been the focus of the majority of  
483 climate change and inland fisheries studies to date on fish phenological, demographic, and distributional changes,  
484 particularly in coldwater fishes (e.g., salmonids; Comte et al. 2013; Lynch et al. 2016b). In addition to increasing  
485 temperatures, climate change can alter drought duration, flow variability, and precipitation patterns, which also  
486 influence fish populations (Krabbenhoft et al. 2014; Ward et al. 2015) and may be coupled with the emergence of  
487 "no-analog" communities (Huey et al. 2012; Urban et al. 2012). Although climate-induced changes in stream flow  
488 have been a commonly studied to determine climate change effects on trout (*Oncorhynchus* and *Salmo* species)  
489 globally, many other species, other climate change mechanisms, and geographic regions are not well represented in  
490 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](http://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](http://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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623 **References**

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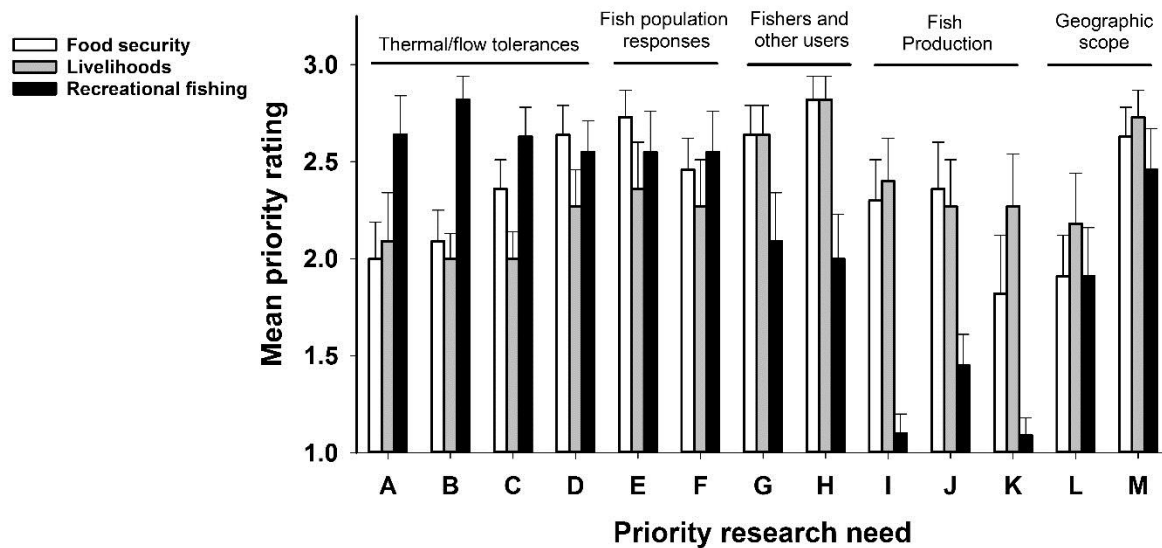
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860 **Table 1.** The range of provisioning, regulating, supporting and cultural services provided by functional aquatic  
861 ecosystems (after Brummett et al. 2013). Different aquatic ecosystems will provide some or all of these.  
862

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