



The social, economic, and environmental importance of inland fish and fisheries

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36 **ABSTRACT:** Though reported capture fisheries are dominated by marine production, inland
37 fish and fisheries make substantial contributions to meeting the challenges faced by individuals,
38 society, and the environment in a changing global landscape. Inland capture fisheries and
39 aquaculture contribute over 40% to the world's reported finfish production from less than 0.01%
40 of the total volume of water on earth. These fisheries provide food for billions and livelihoods
41 for millions of people worldwide. Herein, using supporting evidence from the literature, we
42 review ten reasons why inland fish and fisheries are important to the individual (food security;
43 economic security; empowerment), to society (cultural services; recreational services; human
44 health and well-being; knowledge transfer and capacity building) and to the environment
45 (ecosystem function and biodiversity; as aquatic "canaries"; the "green food" movement).
46 However, the current limitations to valuing the services provided by inland fish and fisheries
47 make comparison with other water resource users extremely difficult. This list can serve to
48 demonstrate the importance of inland fish and fisheries, a necessary first step to better
49 incorporating them into agriculture, land-use, and water resource planning, where they are
50 currently often underappreciated or ignored.

51

52 **KEY WORDS:** food security; freshwater ecosystems; importance of fish; inland fisheries

53 INTRODUCTION

54 'Inland waters' are defined by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
55 (FAO) as lakes, rivers, streams, canals, reservoirs, and other land-locked waters (FAO 2014a).
56 While 'inland' is generally synonymous with freshwater, inland waters do include land-locked
57 saline water bodies such as the Caspian Sea (FAO 2014a). Inland waters comprise
58 approximately 0.01% of the total volume of water on earth (Stiassny 1996).

59 'Inland fishes' reside in these waters. They comprise approximately 40% of all fish
60 species and 20% of all vertebrate species (Helfman et al. 2009). However, the difficulty in
61 assessing aquatic biodiversity, particularly in developing countries and remote areas, suggests
62 that inland fishes are more diverse than the reported estimates (Cooke et al. 2012). Additionally,
63 65% of inland habitat is classified as moderately or highly threatened by anthropogenic stressors
64 (Vörösmarty et al. 2010) so populations may be extirpated even before they are documented.

65 'Inland fisheries' are both capture fisheries and aquaculture of inland fish species for
66 food, income, or recreation. In discussions of global capture fisheries, inland fisheries are often
67 overwhelmed by marine fisheries because of the sheer magnitude of reported marine catches
68 (marine catches are approximately seven times higher than inland catches; FAO 2014b).
69 However, several lines of evidence (e.g., consumption studies) suggest that inland fisheries
70 harvest is often unrecorded or drastically underreported, particularly with reference to the
71 prevalence of small-scale or artisanal fishing (i.e., subsistence and local trade) in inland waters
72 (Hortle 2007; FAO 2010a, 2012; Welcomme et al. 2010; Bartley et al. 2015). In addition to
73 harvest, inland aquaculture has experienced considerable growth over the past decade.
74 Considering both aquaculture and capture fisheries, inland fisheries contribute over 40% of the

75 world's capture finfish fisheries and aquaculture production (excluding plants, mammals,
76 crustaceans, echinoderms, and mollusks; Figure 1; FAO-FIGIS 2014).

77 Despite their demonstrably large contribution, public support and political will are often
78 difficult to obtain for inland fishes and, consequently, they generally receive little consideration
79 in water resource allocation decisions (Cooke et al. 2013). Generally, issues that may adversely
80 affect inland fish, such as climate change or invasive species, do not rank highly among issues of
81 public concern (Novacek 2008) and the time horizon of inland fisheries issues is often beyond
82 the traditional scale of political action (Kates et al. 2001). While strong laws do protect fish and
83 fisheries in some cases (e.g., U.S. Endangered Species Act), they are not the norm globally.
84 Only one-third of countries with inland fisheries even submit catch statistics to FAO (FAO
85 2010a). We (the authors) agree with FAO (2010a) that the lack of awareness is because
86 information about inland fishes and fisheries is inherently difficult to acquire because inland
87 fishes are diverse and the fisheries they support are often small-scale and highly dispersed.

88 We reviewed the relevant literature and engaged in a series of structured discussions (i.e.,
89 list generating exercises that were consolidated in group discussions) to compile a consensus list
90 of ten reasons why inland fish and fisheries are important to the individual, society, and the
91 environment (Table 1; Figure 2). While we acknowledge that marine fish and fisheries provide
92 many of the same services, we specifically focus our review on inland systems because, to our
93 knowledge, no global review on the value of *inland* fish and fisheries currently exists.

94

95 **THE INDIVIDUAL**

96 Inland fisheries provide food for billions and livelihood for millions of people worldwide (FAO
97 2014). The relative contribution of inland fisheries to a country's food and economic security is

98 dependent on its level of economic development and social context, and often, this is higher in
99 the developing world and emerging economies. Inland fisheries contribute significantly to food
100 security and economic security by providing primary sources of animal protein, essential
101 nutrients, and income (Welcomme et al. 2010). The food and income benefits provided by
102 inland capture fisheries and aquaculture can afford opportunities for empowering individuals
103 where opportunities in other sectors are limited.

104

105 **Food security**

106 Inland fishes are important food and nutritional resources, especially rural economies in
107 developing countries (Welcomme et al. 2010). Low-income food-deficit countries account for
108 80% of the total reported harvest from inland capture fisheries (Kapetsky 2003). Over 90% of
109 global inland capture fisheries production is used for human consumption, the majority of which
110 is in the developing world (Welcomme et al. 2010). For example, fish account for 50% of all
111 animal protein consumed in Bangladesh (Thilsted et al. 1997).

112 Critically, the contribution of inland fisheries to meeting food security is considered
113 grossly underestimated (Welcomme et al. 2010). In the Lower Mekong Delta, there is a 221%
114 discrepancy between the official yield figures of 1.2 million tonnes and estimated consumption
115 of 2.6 million tonnes (Hortle 2007). While yields from small-scale artisanal fishing (e.g.,
116 subsistence, local trade) do not often enter a market economy and consequently are not often
117 recorded (Bartley et al. 2015), they represent the primary animal protein source for many of the
118 rural poor and are crucial to global food security.

119 Inland fish are particularly important in addressing “hidden hunger” (micronutrient
120 deficiencies and their related health issues; e.g., Kennedy et al. 2003). Inland fishes provide

121 protein, omega-3 fatty acids, vitamin D, calcium, B vitamins, vitamin A, iron, zinc, and lysine to
122 those where other nutritional sources are not available or cost-prohibitive (Thilsted et al. 1997;
123 Roos et al. 2007; Youn et al. 2014). Particularly in the developing world, small fish are eaten
124 whole providing an important source of nutrients (e.g., calcium and vitamin A) that are difficult
125 to obtain through other dietary sources (Roos et al. 2007). Consumption of inland fish has been
126 shown to mitigate the effects of some micronutrient deficiency-related illnesses, such as rickets
127 in Bangladeshi children (Craviari et al. 2008). Moreover, because these often small inland fishes
128 can be readily dried or preserved, they also provide year-long nutrient sources, such as dried
129 kapenta (*Limnothrissa miodon*; *Stolothrissa tanganicae*) in Zambia (Musumali et al. 2009).
130 Secondly to direct human consumption, inland fish can also be used in feed for livestock and
131 aquaculture operations. For example, sun-dried dagaa (*Rastrineobola argentea*) is used as
132 chicken feed around Lake Victoria when not suitable for human consumption.

133

134 **Economic security**

135 Eighty percent of inland capture fisheries are reported to be operating in the developing world
136 (Kapetsky 2003). Many of these fisheries are conducted by the rural poor, often for subsistence
137 and small-scale economic security. While inland capture fisheries account for less than 14% of
138 the global harvest total (Figure 1), these fisheries support at least 21 million fishers (36% of all
139 capture fishers worldwide) and over 36 million more are employed in post-harvest activities,
140 indicating that inland fisheries have a proportionally higher influence on livelihoods than marine
141 fisheries, particularly in Asia and Africa (FAO and WorldFish Center 2008; FAO 2014b).

142 Inland capture fisheries and aquaculture are fundamental to food sovereignty globally. In
143 many areas of the world, inland capture fisheries are a last resort when primary income sources

144 fail due to, for instance, economic shifts, war, natural disasters, and water development projects.
145 They serve as social safety-nets, providing alternative or supplemental sources of income,
146 employment, and food (Welcomme et al. 2010). Besides income and livelihoods through direct
147 fishing activities, inland fisheries generate substantial income and job opportunities through
148 secondary service activities, such as gear provision and maintenance, processing, distribution
149 (Welcomme et al. 2010). Secondary activities increase the market value of the fish products,
150 increasing the economic value of inland fisheries overall. Recreational fishing and tourist
151 activities, in particular, have strong economic multiplying effects for the experiential activities in
152 addition to the market value of the fish (Southwick Associates 2013).

153 Statistics on the economic contribution of inland capture fisheries are limited because the
154 outputs are often very local in scope, with fish traded locally or consumed directly by the fishing
155 families (FAO and WorldFish Center 2008). However, the value of particular inland fisheries
156 can provide some indication of economic importance more generally. A study of six river basins
157 in West and Central Africa, for example, found that local capture fisheries supported 227,000
158 full-time fishers and had a first-sale value of US\$295 million (Neiland and Bene 2006). In the
159 Lower Mekong Basin, total fish production is about 3.9 million tons, with a first sale value of
160 US\$7 billion (MRC 2010). Perhaps more importantly, the value of inland fisheries transcends
161 economic statistics because these fisheries also serve a critical non-monetary role in the case of
162 subsistence where no financial transactions occur.

163

164 **Empowerment**

165 Inland fisheries provide opportunities to empower individuals to meet their own physical and
166 psychological needs and provide for their dependents. This role is particularly important in

167 poverty prevention for marginalized populations including ethnic minorities, the rural poor, and
168 women (Weeratunge et al. 2014). For ethnic minorities in the Mekong Basin, lack of land
169 ownership prohibits involvement in agricultural activities (MRC 2010). Inland fisheries
170 empower them with a low investment opportunity for subsistence and livelihood. Women, as
171 another example, typically have low empowerment in developing countries. But, they comprise
172 20% of the world's inland fishers and complete around 90% of post-harvest processing (FAO
173 2014b). For comparison, women comprise 43% of the agricultural labor force in developing
174 countries (FAO 2010b).

175 Inland capture fisheries, and the individuals they empower, are threatened by new and
176 intensive ways of using and manipulating global freshwater resources, including hydropower,
177 flood mitigation, recreation, agriculture and aquaculture ventures (e.g., Orr et al. 2012). To
178 address these concerns, cooperative management has had some success in creating more
179 sustainable fisheries governance institutions (Jentoft 2005). These systems develop by
180 government institutions working with stakeholders to create systems of mutual benefit, make
181 joint management decisions, and empower groups to produce more effective solutions than either
182 party could have done on its own. Successful co-management attempts, those that empower the
183 participants, can be seen in the developing world, such as the 2011 regulatory overhaul of the
184 Zambian side of Lake Kariba (Madzudzo et al. 2014). But, cooperation attempts can be
185 unsuccessful if power structures are too unevenly distributed. For example, hydropower
186 proposals on the mainstem of the Mekong River have largely neglected implications for fisheries
187 (Orr et al. 2012). Successful co-management operations must create environments in which
188 individuals are empowered by their communities to engage government officials and participate
189 in the decision making process that influences their own well-being (Jentoft 2005).

190

191 **SOCIETY**

192 Inland fish and fisheries play an important role in communities around the globe. In many
193 cultures, inland fish are sacred and contribute to community identities (Weeratunge et al. 2014).
194 They also support valued recreational activities worldwide (Cooke and Cowx 2004). Inland fish
195 species also contribute to advancements in disease control and medical research benefiting
196 human health and well-being (e.g., larvivorous fish and medical research model organisms).
197 Additionally, management of inland fisheries provides opportunities for knowledge transfer and
198 capacity building across political jurisdictions (UNU-INWEH 2011).

199

200 **Cultural services**

201 Cultural services provided by inland fish include spiritual services (e.g., sacred, religious),
202 inspirational (e.g., art, folklore), and aesthetic (i.e., Tengberg et al. 2012). To many, these
203 services are considered priceless and cannot be valued in market terms (Harris et al. 1989). In
204 developed and developing countries, inland fisheries provide a sense of community identification
205 and occupational attachment (Weeratunge et al. 2014). In particular, traditional ecological
206 knowledge (TEK) – knowledge formed from the experiences and observations acquired over
207 time from direct human contact with a specific environment – has facilitated the harvest of
208 inland fish for subsistence and has helped maintain traditions, values, and cultures (Berkes
209 2012).

210 The strong linkage between inland fish and human culture can result in a fish becoming a
211 cultural icon with community importance that extends beyond food value: for example, koi
212 (*Cyprinus carpio*) in eastern Asian culture, lake sturgeon (*Acipenser fulvescens*) in the

213 Laurentian Great Lakes, and Murray Cod (*Maccullochella peelii peelii*) in southeastern Australia
214 serve as unifying symbols of regional identity. The sense of identification for fishing
215 communities has been described as having fishing “in the blood” (Smith et al. 2003), which can
216 foster environmental stewardship. The role of fish as cultural icons has also been proposed as a
217 means to promote conservation as flagship or umbrella species where conservation efforts for
218 iconic fish (e.g., Mekong giant catfish [*Pangasianodon gigas*]) could result in broader
219 ecosystem-level improvements (see Simberloff 1998).

220

221 **Recreational services**

222 Recreational fisheries are a large sector of inland fish services, however, inland fish also support
223 non-fishing sectors including like diving, snorkeling, boating, and the public and private
224 aquarium trade. In industrialized countries, the economic value of recreational fisheries exceeds
225 subsistence and commercial fisheries in inland waters (FAO 2010a). These expenditures are not
226 limited solely to those enterprises directly linked to fishing activities; they generate jobs in other
227 sectors including the tourism industry, restaurants, and hotels. For example, the annual net value
228 of recreational fishing and its associated activities in the Laurentian Great Lakes is estimated as
229 high as US\$1.47 billion (Poe et al. 2013).

230 Recreational services directly link inland fish to much more than just recreational
231 fisheries. In the Pantanal region of South America, snorkeling in clear, tropical, freshwater
232 drives the tourism for the region (Cooke et al. 2013). The ornamental fish industry is also
233 largely driven by inland fish species. Over 90% of home aquarium fish trade is represented by
234 freshwater species (www.iucnffsg.org).

235 Beyond economic value, the fish seen on the angler's line, through a snorkeler's mask, or
236 inside an aquarium's glass provides an opportunity for people to engage with the natural world.
237 For example, aquarium visits have been shown to have a lasting impact on conservation
238 knowledge and interest of visitors (Adelman et al. 2000). Similarly, recreational users of inland
239 systems often volunteer to participate in a wide variety of "citizen science" and conservation
240 ventures, ranging from organized activities, such as shoreline clean-ups, to citizen enforcement,
241 including voluntary enforcement of conservation practices in the Mongolian taimen (*Hucho*
242 *taimen*) recreational fishery (Jensen et al. 2009).

243

244 **Human health and well-being**

245 Inland fish provide a number of important benefits to human health and well-being including
246 pest control, biomedical research, and a connection with the outdoors. Larvivorous fish, such as
247 western mosquitofish (*Gambusia affinis*) and Arabian killifish (*Aphanius dispar*), are frequently
248 used for the control of disease-carrying (e.g., malaria, Dengue fever, yellow fever) mosquitoes.
249 Larvivorous fish can be used in areas, such as rice fields, where use of chemical insecticides is
250 unsafe or ineffective or where mosquitos are pesticide resistant (Lacey and Lacey 1990;
251 Hemingway and Ranson 2000) but there can be unwanted consequences of their use (e.g.,
252 declines of other aquatic invertebrates, amphibians, and other fish species; Pyke 2008).

253 Inland fish species are used extensively as biomedical research models, in particular
254 Medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) and zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). Zebrafish are arguably the second most-
255 used medical and pharmaceutical model behind mice (Lieschke and Currie 2007). They are
256 particularly useful for human disease research because they obviate some ethical and practical
257 issues associated with using higher vertebrates (Lieschke and Currie 2007). Zebrafish have

258 served as a model for ecotoxicology (e.g., Fraysse et al. 2006), cancer genetics, drug discovery,
259 regenerative medicine, and tissue repair, where they have potential to address some aspects of
260 organ dysfunction, injury, and trauma (e.g., Goessling and North 2014).

261 Inland fish also contribute to human well-being through the connection that they forge
262 between humans and nature. For example, recreational angling has a variety of psycho-social
263 benefits including a reduction in negative emotions, stress relief, and relaxation (Floyd et al.
264 2006). Fishing, especially in urban areas, also can contribute to reductions in substance abuse
265 among youth (i.e., ‘hooked on fishing, not on drugs’ programs that introduce youth to fishing as
266 an alternative to destructive activities) and help to address the concept of nature deficit disorder
267 (Louv 2008) where adults and children have become disconnected with the natural world.

268 Although these benefits are difficult to quantify, they contribute to the health and well-being in
269 urban areas.

270

271 **Knowledge transfer and capacity building**

272 Inland fisheries take place in many of the 5,000,000 km² of inland lakes and impoundments and
273 662,000 km² of rivers across the globe (Verpoorter et al. 2014), often transecting political
274 boundaries. While TEK relates to knowledge transfer within one culture, knowledge transfer
275 and capacity building can also cross cultures and political jurisdictions. The value of inland
276 fisheries has led to conflict between jurisdictions over access, control, and harvest in modern
277 times (e.g., Salayo et al. 2006). But, as the world becomes increasingly connected, opportunities
278 for jurisdictions to cooperate are expanding and inland fisheries provide a number of examples of
279 how shared management and transfer of knowledge of scientific or management practices can
280 lead to more sustainable practices.

281 Though not the norm (see FAO 2007), instances of cooperation and knowledge transfer
282 between political jurisdictions can be found across the globe. The Great Lakes Fishery
283 Commission (www.glfc.org), for example, was created in 1955 when Canada and United States
284 agreed to coordinate research that would “permit the maximum sustained productivity” of fish
285 stocks and implement a program to control invasive sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*). In
286 Africa, the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization (www.lvfo.org) was created in 1994 to facilitate
287 sustainable harvests for the nations bordering Lake Victoria: Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. In
288 Asia, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Thailand, and Vietnam became full signatories (China and Myanmar
289 are “dialogue partners”) to the Mekong River Commission (www.mrcmekong.org/) in 1995,
290 pledging to focus on the sustainable development and management of natural resources, such as
291 fisheries. In Europe, the International Commission for the Protection of the Danube River
292 (www.icpdr.org/) was created in 1998 and 14 of the 19 countries within the basin are cooperating
293 to ensure “the sustainable and equitable use of waters.”

294 Knowledge transfer and cooperation can also occur between distant ecosystems
295 experiencing common challenges (i.e., telecoupling; Liu et al. 2013). Scientists and managers
296 from the African and Laurentian Great Lakes have been transferring knowledge and sharing
297 management successes over the past several decades (e.g., UNU-INWEH 2011). Furthermore,
298 organizations such as FAO and many international development agencies, seek to transfer
299 knowledge of aquaculture “best practices” that can reduce the possible negative effects of
300 aquaculture (e.g., contaminants in fish tissue, poor water quality, impacts on wild fish) to
301 developing countries (Hasan and New 2013). Although the nature of inland fisheries provides
302 the potential for conflict across jurisdictions, they have increasingly fostered cooperation and

303 knowledge transfer as people recognize that long-term sustainability of inland fisheries can
304 benefit all.

305

306 **THE ENVIRONMENT**

307 Inland fish species are present in almost every inland ecosystem on earth (Dudgeon et al. 2006).

308 These inland fishes also serve as indicators of ecosystem function and ecosystem change (Allan

309 2004). Additionally, because of the low environmental impact of many inland capture fisheries

310 and aquaculture operations, they can be recognized as relevant to the “green food” movement.

311

312 **Ecosystem function and biodiversity**

313 Fish occupy almost all major aquatic habitats (Helfman et al. 2009). These inland fish can play

314 critical roles in the function of their ecosystems (Holmlund and Hammer 1999; Dudgeon et al.

315 2006). For example, predatory species, such as such northern pike (*Esox lucius*) have significant

316 impacts on fish community composition (He and Kitchell 1990). Other fish species have been

317 shown to alter the habitats in which they live, from herbivorous grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon*

318 *idella*) modifying aquatic vegetation (Wittmann et al. 2014) to flannelmouth characin

319 (*Prochilodus mariae*) influencing sedimentation rates in Andean streams (Flecker 1997).

320 Fish impacts on habitat are not limited to the local scale; migratory fishes such as Pacific

321 salmon (*Oncorhynchus* spp.), alewife (*Alosa pseudoharengus*), and *Semaprochilodus* spp.

322 transport energy and nutrients to support distant aquatic and terrestrial food webs (e.g., Wipfli

323 and Baxter 2010). When functioning properly, ecosystems provide many valuable services to

324 people (i.e., provisioning, regulating, supporting, and cultural services; e.g., detoxification of

325 wastes, management of infectious diseases; Holmlund and Hammer 1999; Hassan et al. 2005).

326 Inland fishes account for approximately 40% of all fish species and 20% of all vertebrate
327 species (Helfman et al. 2009). Biodiversity of inland fishes, at both species and population
328 levels, also confers important benefits. When people rely upon functioning ecosystems for their
329 basic needs, natural disasters and other disturbances to those ecosystems can be devastating.
330 Natural ecosystems which recover quickly from such disturbances have resilience. Ecosystems
331 with high species richness exhibit increased resilience (Downing and Leibold 2010), highlighting
332 the importance of diverse inland fish communities.

333 However, species assemblages are not the only factor moderating the impacts of
334 disturbance on fish populations. A diversity of biologically relevant characteristics among fish
335 populations of the same species (e.g., alternate life histories) also has been shown to improve
336 resilience to perturbations (Schindler et al. 2010). Kovach et al. (2015), for instance, found
337 temporal patterns in migration timing for Pacific salmon species in southeast Alaska. These
338 diverse, resilient inland ecosystems provide reliable sources of food when disasters occur and
339 will become even more critical when amplified by climate change.

340 Biodiversity confers benefits to aquaculture, as well. Genetic diversity within species
341 provides the building blocks for selective breeding and stock improvement, and enables the
342 creation of transgenic fishes, such as genetically modified Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) which
343 grow more quickly and require less food than non-modified fish (Gjedrem 2000). Technological
344 advances, such as transgenic fishes, require a portfolio of genes which exist in the wild, placing
345 value on biodiversity for the future of inland aquaculture. And, increasingly, technology can be
346 used to safeguard biodiversity from escaped aquaculture fish (e.g., sterile triploids).

347

348 **Aquatic “canaries”**

349 The central role of inland fish in aquatic ecosystems makes them good indicators of ecosystem
350 change. Like the proverbial “canary in the coal-mine,” inland fish are used as warnings for
351 current and impending impacts on human well-being from environmental change. Beyond
352 overfishing, aquatic ecosystems are faced with both direct and indirect anthropogenic influences
353 that may have undesirable consequences. Threats from eutrophication, flow modification,
354 destruction or degradation of habitat, and invasion by exotic species place 65% of freshwater
355 habitats at risk (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Vörösmarty et al. 2010). The large scope of these threats
356 arises because inland aquatic habitats are in close proximity to a variety of anthropogenic
357 activities (e.g., agriculture, deforestation, hydropower) and because aquatic habitats integrate
358 environmental influences throughout a watershed (Allan 2004).

359 Fish respond directly to some environmental stressors such as toxic and thermal
360 pollution, flow regime change, and climate change (Dudgeon et al. 2006). Fish also respond
361 indirectly to stressors which impact their environment. For example, the massive die-offs of
362 introduced alewives in Lake Michigan during the 1960s brought to public and political attention
363 large ecological changes occurring in the Laurentian Great Lakes. Around the globe, inland fish
364 populations and species assemblages often indicate changes in nutrient inputs to their watersheds
365 (Ludsin et al. 2001).

366 Inland fishes respond to many aquatic and terrestrial environmental changes from
367 throughout their watersheds, making them valuable bioindicators of ecosystem health. The
368 Index of Biotic Integrity (IBI) is a commonly used in-situ assessment tool for freshwaters based
369 in part on the local fish assemblages, particularly the presence or absence of species intolerant to
370 habitat perturbations (Karr 1981). Due to their representative susceptibility to many chemicals
371 and key role in aquatic ecosystems, inland fish species are also commonly used as laboratory

372 models to assess water quality and environmental toxicology in the chemical and pesticide
373 approval processes (Barbour et al. 1999).

374

375 **“Green food”**

376 When sustainably harvested or farmed, inland fish can be considered part of the “green food”
377 movement for more environmentally-friendly sourcing of food. Sustainable harvest of wild
378 inland fish can have relatively few environmental costs, especially when compared with
379 replacement livestock products (Orr et al. 2012). The local nature of most of inland capture
380 fisheries (both harvest and consumption) indicates low dependence on fossil fuels for gear
381 manufacture, transportation to and from fishing sites, and preservation and post-harvest fish
382 transportation (Welcomme et al. 2010) compared with many other sources of food.

383 Sustainable aquaculture, of both herbivorous and omnivorous species, also has a more
384 efficient food conversion ratio (<2kg of dry feed per 1kg of gain) than poultry (2-to-1), pigs (4-
385 to-1), and cows (7-to-1) (Brown 2002). It is also important to note that inland aquaculture
386 species are predominately lower trophic level than marine aquaculture species, relying upon
387 more sustainably sourced feed (e.g., algae, not wild caught fish). More broadly, sustainable
388 inland aquaculture can be featured in integrated food systems such as rice field-fish culture
389 which, in China alone, produces over a million tons of fish and over 11 million tons of rice with
390 environmentally-friendly management practices (Weimin 2010).

391 However, not all inland capture fisheries and aquaculture operations have minimal
392 environmental impacts or sustainable management. There are numerous examples of overfishing
393 of inland fish populations (Allan et al. 2005) and instances of unwanted bycatch (e.g., MacMillan
394 and Roth 2012; Stoot et al. 2013). Likewise, some negligent inland aquaculture practices can

395 have significant impacts on the environment, such as nutrient loading, release of cultured
396 species, and propagation of disease (Kapusinski and Brister 2000). As the most cultivated
397 species group, for example, carps have a long history of environmental impact: invasions and
398 alteration of native aquatic communities that create challenges for fisheries managers across the
399 globe (e.g., Rasmussen et al. 2011). Concerns notwithstanding, inland capture fisheries and
400 inland aquaculture have low environmental costs compared with many alternative animal-
401 derived food sources.

402

403 **SUMMARY AND MOVING FORWARD**

404 Inland fish serve as a major source of protein, essential fats, and micronutrients for hundreds of
405 millions of people, particularly in rural communities (Thilsted et al. 1997; Roos et al. 2007;
406 Youn et al. 2014). More than 60 million people in low income countries rely upon inland
407 fisheries as a source of livelihood and women represent over half the individuals in inland
408 fisheries supply chains (FAO 2014b). While still a large number, this is widely accepted to be
409 misestimate given the difficulties with reporting in the sector (Bartley et al. 2015). Inland fish
410 and fisheries provide cultural and recreational services and contributions to human health and
411 well-being. They empower those involved in the sector, contribute to the “green food”
412 movement, and provide a means for knowledge transfer and capacity building across political
413 jurisdictions. As key components of most inland ecosystems on earth, inland fish are integral to
414 ecosystem function and biodiversity. In this role, they also serve as environmental indicators for
415 global change.

416 Inland fish and fisheries are, however, often impacted by and compete with other societal
417 needs and uses of water resources, such as agriculture, human consumption, power generation,

418 and effluent disposal. Inland fish biodiversity, which is important to ecosystem function and
419 services, is threatened by these pressures and many more (e.g., habitat degradation, water
420 pollution, species invasion, flow modification, and overexploitation), making inland fishes one
421 of the most endangered groups of species in the world (Dudgeon et al. 2006). These threats to
422 biodiversity also threaten the services that inland fishes and fisheries sustain.

423 Moving forward, acknowledging the complexities inherent in the relationship between
424 inland fish, inland fisheries, and other water resource users will be crucial. The social,
425 economic, and environmental risks to inland fish are often inextricably linked to benefits derived
426 from other water uses. However, due to limitations in assessment, services provided by inland
427 fish and fisheries are undervalued and, consequently, lose in comparisons with other water
428 sectors. Appropriate valuations are needed for relevant comparisons. While this is beyond the
429 scope of this review, ultimately, there is a need for valuation models to recognize the full breadth
430 of services provided on a common platform. We suggest that acknowledging the value of inland
431 fish and fisheries is the first step in effectively balancing the benefits of these services with
432 supporting sustainable water sectors. We propose this list (Table 1; Figure 2) as a starting point
433 to raise the profile of inland fish and fisheries to better incorporate them in agricultural, land-use,
434 and water resource planning.

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- 625

626 **TABLE and FIGURE CAPTIONS:**

627 Table 1: The importance of inland fishes and fisheries to the individual, society, and the
628 environment by the numbers.

629

630 Figure 1: Proportional contribution of global finfish production from marine capture fisheries,
631 marine aquaculture, inland capture fisheries, and inland aquaculture in 2012 (excluding plants,
632 mammals, crustaceans, and mollusks; FAO-FIGIS 2014) with the global proportion of salt and
633 fresh water (note only 0.01% of water is habitable for inland fish; Stiasny 1996).

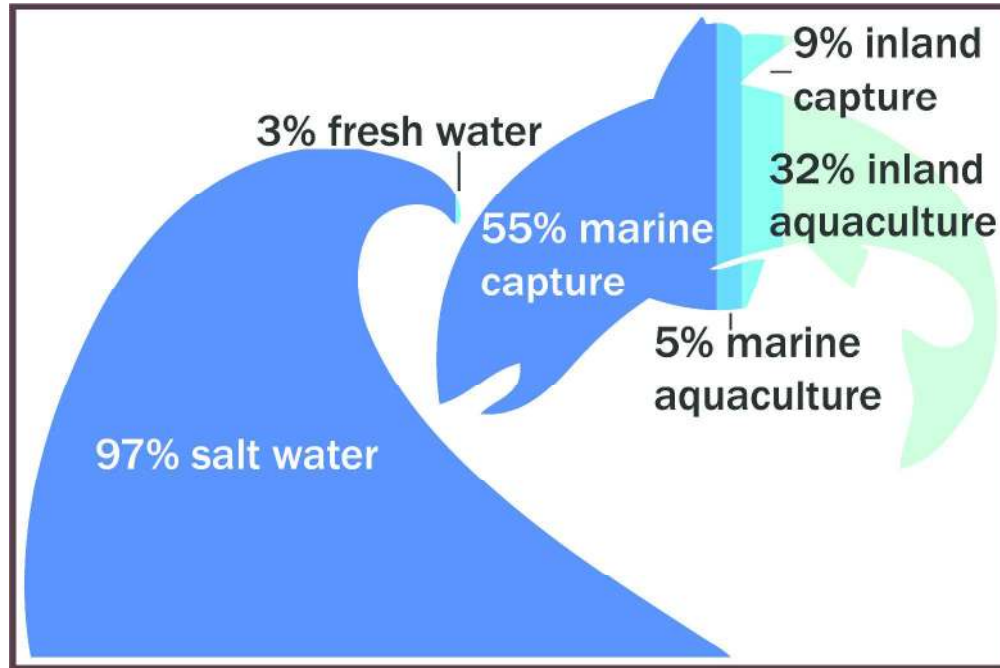
634

635 Figure 2: Conceptual diagram of the importance of inland fishes and fisheries to the individual,
636 society, and the environment.

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Table 1: The importance of inland fishes and fisheries to the individual, society, and the environment by the numbers.

Importance of inland fish and fisheries to:	Supporting statistics
THE INDIVIDUAL	
Food security	Over 90% of global inland capture fisheries production is used for human consumption, mostly in the developing world (Welcomme et al. 2010).
Economic security	Inland capture fisheries support at least 21 million fishers (36% of all capture fishers worldwide) and over 36 million more are employed by post-harvest activities (FAO and WorldFish Center 2008, FAO 2014b).
Empowerment	More than 60 million people in low income countries rely upon inland fisheries as a source of livelihood and women represent over half the individuals in inland fisheries supply chains (FAO 2014b).
SOCIETY	
Cultural services	The heritage, spiritual, and aesthetic value of inland fishes can be considered “ priceless ” (Harris et al. 1989).
Recreational services	The annual net value of recreational fishing in the Laurentian Great Lakes is estimated as high as US\$1.47 billion (Poe et al. 2013).
Human health and well-being	Zebrafish are arguably the second most-used medical and pharmaceutical model behind mice (Lieschke and Currie 2007).
Knowledge transfer and capacity building	Inland fisheries take place in many of the 5,000,000 km² of inland lakes and impoundments and 662,000 km² of rivers across the globe (Verpoorter et al. 2014), often transecting political boundaries.
THE ENVIRONMENT	
Ecosystem function and biodiversity	Inland fishes occupy all major aquatic habitats and comprise approximately 40% of all fish species and 20% of all vertebrate species (Helfman et al. 2009).
Aquatic “canaries”	Inland fish serve as warnings for current and impending impacts on humans from environmental change and 65% of their habitats are at risk from anthropogenic stressors (Vörösmarty et al. 2010).
“Green food”	Sustainable aquaculture has a more efficient food conversion ratio (< 2kg of dry feed per 1kg of gain) than poultry (2-to-1), pigs (4-to-1), and cows (7-to-1 ; Brown 2002).



Proportional contribution of global finfish production from marine capture fisheries, marine aquaculture, inland capture fisheries, and inland aquaculture in 2012 (excluding plants, mammals, crustaceans, and mollusks; FAO-FIGIS 2014) with the global proportion of salt and fresh water (note only 0.01% of water is habitable for inland fish; Stiasny 1996).

381x254mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Conceptual diagram of the importance of inland fishes and fisheries to the individual, society, and the environment.

254x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)