

1 **Putting the fish into inland fisheries – a global allocation of historic inland fish catch.**

2 **Authors:** Rachel F. Ainsworth^{1*}, Ian G. Cowx¹ & Simon J. Funge-Smith²

3 ¹Hull International Fisheries Institute, University of Hull, Hull, UK

4 ²Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok,
5 Thailand.

6 **Corresponding Author:** *Dr Rachel Ainsworth, Hull International Fisheries Institute, University of Hull, Hull, UK
7 R.Ainsworth@hull.ac.uk

8 **Global allocation of inland fish catch**

9

10 **Abstract**

11 Inland waters support the livelihoods of up to 820 million people and provide fisheries that make an essential
12 contribution towards food security, particularly in the developing world where 90% of inland fisheries catch is
13 consumed. Despite their importance, inland fisheries are overlooked in favour of other water use sectors
14 deemed more economically important. Inland fisheries are also driven by external factors such as climate
15 change and habitat loss, which impedes our ability to manage them sustainably. Using a river basin approach
16 to allocate fish catch we have provided an integrated picture of how different inland water bodies contribute
17 to global inland fisheries catches. There is a substantial amount of information available on inland fisheries,
18 but it has never been synthesised to build this global picture. Fishery statistics from river basins, lakes,
19 floodplains, hydrobasins and countries covering a time span from 1960-2018 were analysed. Collation of basin-
20 scale fisheries statistics suggests a global inland catch of ≈ 17.4 million tonnes (PSE= ± 3.93 million tonnes) in
21 2010, considerably more than the 10.8 million tonnes published by the United Nations Food and Agriculture
22 Organization (FAO), but in line with estimates based on household consumption. The figure is considered a
23 likely maximum due to recent reductions in catches because of closures, threats and fisheries declines in the
24 most productive fisheries. It is recommended that sentinel fisheries, which are important for food provision,
25 employment or where threats facing a fishery could cause a deterioration in catch, are identified to provide
26 the baseline for a global monitoring programme.

27 **Keywords:** FAO, Fish catch statistics, Inland fisheries, River basin approach, Sentinel fisheries.

28

29	Contents
30	Abstract
31	Keywords:
32	1. Introduction
33	1.1 Background
34	1.2 Background to inland fisheries catch
35	1.3 Problems with understanding inland fisheries
36	2. River basin approach to assessing inland fisheries
37	2.1 River basin selection and data collection
38	2.2 Accounting for Uncertainty
39	3. Results
40	3.1 Estimation of global inland fish catch
41	4. Discussion
42	5. Conclusions
43	6. Acknowledgments
44	7. Data Availability Statement
45	8. References
46	9. Tables
47	
48	

49 **1. Introduction**

50 **1.1 Background**

51 Inland fisheries are poorly understood and often overlooked in agricultural, water, environmental and social
52 policy frameworks (Cooke et al., 2016). They are highly dispersed and fragmented, and catch data are often
53 lost in time-bound research projects or initiatives that do not link to larger monitoring programmes (Lorenzen
54 et al., 2016). There are few extended time-series of catches for inland fisheries, with the exception of all but
55 the largest or most intensive fisheries (e.g. African Great Lakes, North American Great Lakes, Tonle Sap '*dai*'
56 fishery in Cambodia, the *Sábalo* fishery in the Amazon, and large stocked reservoirs). Even then, some of the
57 major fisheries (e.g. floodplain fisheries on the major tropical rivers in Asia and Africa) are not regularly or
58 effectively monitored. These weaknesses propagate through to national reporting of inland fish catch statistics
59 constraining effective management of inland fisheries, or undermining the justification of their protection in
60 the face of water resources development schemes, such as hydropower dams, agriculture development, and
61 urban and industrial expansion (Lynch et al., 2017).

62 The patchy nature of inland fisheries monitoring also perpetuates the impression that it is not possible to build
63 a picture of the world's inland fisheries because they are not well documented, and any data available are
64 either too fragmented (focussing on small areas within a basin), or overly-aggregated to provide an accurate
65 understanding of where inland fisheries catch is occurring and across what scale (Ainsworth et al., 2021).
66 Further, when one drills down into the actual catch statistical reporting procedures, considerable variability is
67 found between institutions in the same country (e.g. Cowx et al., 2003), or in comparison with outputs from
68 independent studies (Schubert et al., 2022).

69 There have been numerous efforts to estimate missing or unmonitored elements of marine fishery catches
70 (e.g. Froese et al., 2012) and account for these at national and global levels (e.g. Pauly, & Zeller, 2016).
71 However, there have been few systematic attempts to understand the potential gaps in global inland fisheries

72 catches and potential yield, and all of them provided either a global or partial total, rather than downscaled
73 regional or basin estimates (Fluet-Chouinard et al., 2018).

74 Previous studies have highlighted that total global inland catches could be higher than officially reported, but
75 intrinsic constraints in the methods used to estimate the global catch make it difficult to directly compare such
76 estimates. Welcomme (2011) used lake area and fish catches from tropical lakes to suggest a potential yield
77 (i.e. fish that are potentially there to be caught) in global lakes of 90 million tonnes; however, Welcomme
78 stated that this potential yield was “undoubtedly excessive” as this study assumed similar yields across
79 temperate and tropical regions, did not account for effort and excluded catch estimates from other aquatic
80 habitats. The “Big Numbers Project” carried out by the World Bank, The Food and Agricultural Organization of
81 the United Nations (FAO) and WorldFish (World Bank, 2012) used simple extrapolation based on a limited
82 number of country case studies to estimate that global inland capture fisheries and hidden harvest catch was
83 13 million tonnes, compared with the 10.8 million tonnes reported by FAO in 2010 (FAO, 2018). The Big
84 Number Project used a general percentage of underreporting to derive the global estimate and did not
85 consider subsistence fisheries as part of the study. Lymer et al., (2016) used an update of Welcomme’s (2011)
86 methodology, estimating the theoretical total annual inland fish harvest could be as much as 72 million tonnes.
87 This method was based on estimates of various inland fishery habitat areas (permanent lakes, reservoirs,
88 rivers, floodplains and wetlands) and average yield estimates from these habitats, but also did not account for
89 accessibility or effort. Deines et al., (2017) used satellite estimates of chlorophyll from 80,012 lakes (larger
90 than 0.1 km²) globally and attempted to factor for effort using population density around water bodies, to
91 approximate a global lake harvest in the year 2011 at around 8.4 million tonnes. However, this too revealed
92 large country level inaccuracies and also did not include estimates from other aquatic habitats. Fluet-
93 Chouinard et al., (2018), used household surveys to elicit fish consumption and a modelling approach to derive
94 the inland captured fish component, to conclude that global inland catch in the median year of 2008 was more
95 likely 16.6 million tonnes, rather than the 10.1 million tonnes that was reported by the FAO in the same year.

96 Irrespective of the rising global trend in fish catches, the apparent low proportion of fish provided by inland
97 capture fisheries is misleading, as it does not reflect the sub-national concentrations of inland fisheries and
98 thus misrepresents their local or regional importance. As a consequence, the contribution of inland fisheries
99 to nutritional and livelihood resilience is often overlooked (Cooke et al., 2016; Lynch et al., 2016, 2017; Thilsted
100 et al., 2016). Due to their inherent inter-annual fluctuations, inland fishery catches rarely provide an indication
101 of their status, and aggregated, national statistics only provide an estimate of their contribution to food supply
102 (FAO, 2018). If we are to really understand the contribution of inland fisheries it is imperative to re-examine
103 inland fisheries data and to assess their accuracy (Sorensen and Palomares, 2021) and identify more clearly
104 how catches are distributed globally..

105 To address some of these constraints, this paper reviews independent information on catches from major
106 inland fisheries in the world using river basins as the unit of aggregation, and establishes a relationship
107 between river basin data and FAO national data to re-estimate historical global inland fish catch for the median
108 year of 2010.

109 **1.2 Background to inland fisheries catch**

110 FAO is the international body responsible for the collation and dissemination of global capture fisheries
111 statistics reported by its member nations. The global fisheries statistics database commenced in 1950, and
112 since then inland fisheries catches have increased between 2 and 3% annually, to 11.5 million tonnes in 2020
113 (Figure 1), contributing 13% of total global fish catch in 2020 (FAO, 2022). Major growth in inland fisheries
114 catch has occurred in Asia and Africa, which accounted for 63.6% and 28% of the reported catch in 2020 (Figure
115 2). Fish catches from the Americas, Europe and Oceania are considerably less than the catches from Asia and
116 Africa, accounting for a combined 8.4% of the total inland fisheries catch (FAO, 2022). Reported inland fish
117 catches from these continents have stabilised and have not shown any significant increase in decades,
118 primarily due to the transition from commercial or food fisheries to recreational fisheries in these areas (Figure
119 1).

120 In situations where a country does not routinely report fish catch statistic to FAO, the organization estimates
121 catch based on previous reports and available data to preserve the time series. In 2020, 25 countries in Africa
122 did not report fish catches, similarly, 15 countries in Asia, 12 countries in the Americas, 17 countries in Europe
123 and 4 countries in Oceania, (73 countries in total) did not report (FAO, 2022). There are also occasional
124 adjustments to the global catch database, to account for evidence indicating significant under- or over-
125 reporting of catch by individual countries (e.g. global inland fish catches for 2014 were revised downwards to
126 11.3 million tonnes from the previously reported 11.9 million tonnes, following the replacement of the
127 national inland fisheries estimate for Myanmar with an FAO estimate (FAO, 2020)).

128 Inland fisheries are distributed globally, but almost 78% of the global reported inland fisheries catch is
129 harvested by only fifteen countries and a further 11% is harvested by an additional 10 countries. Major inland
130 fish harvests tend to be in developing countries, particularly in Asia and Africa, with the notable exceptions of
131 the Russian Federation and Finland. Low Income Food Deficit (LIFD) countries accounted for 31% of the total
132 reported catch in 2020 and Developing Landlocked Countries accounted for 13.4% of total inland fish catch
133 (FAO, 2022). Fish catches are concentrated around productive waters, such as lakes, rivers and floodplains,
134 particularly where there is a large rural population (Funge-Smith, 2018).

135 **1.3 Problems with understanding inland fisheries**

136 Inland fisheries can be characterised as highly seasonal, small-scale, highly dispersed, multi-species, multi-gear
137 fisheries, where fishing is often for household consumption, and part of a diversified household strategy
138 (Bartley et al., 2015; Lynch et al., 2016; Ainsworth, 2020). These characteristics create uncertainty in reporting
139 of inland fisheries contributing to their lack of visibility, which ultimately leads to fish being seen as a by-
140 product of water and being overlooked in food security and nutrition discussions (Cooke et al., 2016). This is
141 despite the inland fisheries sector contributing to the livelihoods of around 820 million people globally
142 (WorldFish, 2015) and having total use valued at USD 43 billion when reported and estimated unreported
143 production are combined (Thorpe et al., 2018).

144 FAO and others have commented on the spatial and temporal fragmentation of knowledge and research on
145 inland fisheries, and their associated aquatic ecosystems (Coates, 2002; Allan et al., 2005; FAO, 2010; World
146 Bank, 2012; Funge-Smith, 2018). The continuous increases in fish catch, particularly for many poorly developed
147 countries, is also seen by some as inexplicable and contrasts with the declines in global ocean fisheries (Bartley
148 et al., 2015; Pauly and Zeller, 2016; Sorensen and Palomares, 2021).

149 Traditional methods of single-species stock assessment and management, that have been adapted from
150 marine fisheries, are rare in inland fisheries, and are generally restricted to large lakes or individual
151 commercially important species (Welcomme, 2011). The transboundary and often small-scale diffuse nature
152 of many inland fisheries makes it difficult to assess fish catches and there has been a general lack of fisheries
153 monitoring in areas such as rice fields and floodplains. Fisheries statistical data collection requires investment,
154 but inland fisheries are often not seen as important enough to warrant such investment compared to marine
155 fisheries (Ainsworth, 2020).

156 Recreational fishing presents an additional challenge to estimating total global catch, as it is generally
157 considered a leisure activity. Despite this generalization and whilst retained recreational catch is rarely
158 required to meet primary nutritional needs, it can contribute to personal food security (Cooke et al., 2018).
159 Recreational fishing is present in 76% of the world's exclusive economic zones (Mora et al., 2009) and the
160 potential contribution of recreational fisheries to global fish catch could be as much as 5.4% of total reported
161 global fish catch (Funge-Smith et al., 2018). However recreational fishing data are usually aggregated at a
162 national level, are often only available in terms of participation rather than catch (Cooke and Cowx, 2004;
163 Cooke et al., 2018; Funge-Smith et al 2018; Embke et al., 2019; Embke et al., 2022), and where catches are
164 available, these may not be clearly disaggregated between retained and returned catch. The high degree of
165 uncertainty that comes with estimating recreational fishing catches from recreational fishing (Funge-Smith et
166 al., 2018) and their attribution to basins rather than a national figure has meant that we have not attempted
167 to allocate national recreational data to basins. This has only been done where the literature provided a

168 recreational fishing catch value attributable to a basin as outlined in Ainsworth et al., (2021); and
169 Supplementary Material Table S2.

170 Despite this catalogue of problems and the apparent dearth of usable data, there is a surprisingly large amount
171 of information available on inland fisheries, as they have been studied over many decades; it is just that this
172 information has not been systematically pieced together to build a global picture and is rarely from the same
173 year. Such a synthesis therefore requires us to accept data from a wider timeframe than is typically considered
174 when attempting to report on fishery catches (typically annual figures or figures from within a relatively
175 narrow time frame, e.g. five years).

176 Although this might be considered to introduce large errors, it must be viewed through the lens of the large,
177 inter-annual variations that occur in many of the largest inland fisheries, typically driven by climatic variables
178 (Harrod et al., 2018).

179 **2. River basin approach to assessing inland fisheries**

180 **2.1 River basin selection and data collection**

181 Country-specific fisheries statistics are aggregated within national borders, rather than at the basin scale, and
182 the national figure therefore represents fish catch from a range of habitats (wetlands, lakes, rivers and
183 floodplains), and often multiple basins and fisheries. Very few large basins are wholly contained within a single
184 country boundary and are typically part of transboundary water bodies. Using a basin approach to allocate
185 catches as applied in this study provides an understanding of the importance, in terms of food provision, of an
186 inland fishery that may be shared amongst several countries. The river basin approach carried out here also
187 overcomes many of the issues associated with highly dispersed or aggregated data, or the potential loss of
188 valuable information from independent or national catch assessment programmes.

189 It is recognised that fish are caught and harvested in most countries around the globe (FAO 2021a; Ainsworth
190 et al., 2021), but countries with the greatest inland fish catches tend to be concentrated in river basins and
191 water bodies in the tropical and subtropical latitudes of the world and developing countries, with the addition

192 of Russian Federation and Finland. To account for this uneven distribution of catches and to limit
193 disproportionate effort focusing on data rich, but relatively insignificant small systems, a priority list of river
194 basins and waterbodies was developed, covering an estimated 94% of global inland capture fisheries statistics,
195 based on the FAO national statistics associated with those countries. Initially 45 river basins and lakes were
196 identified as part of the FAO Circular “A review of major river basins and large lakes relevant to inland fisheries”
197 (Ainsworth et al., 2021). River basins chosen for this study were based on the importance of their fisheries
198 from a commercial, subsistence or recreational perspective, and information regarding river basin
199 characteristics, fisheries management and threats were collected to form river basin profiles. For most basins,
200 data were from the 2000-2018 period, but occasionally data were older (up to 50 years old), however, they
201 were still considered the best available information.

202 Fish catches from other river basins and hydrobasins known to contribute fish catches for harvest were
203 estimated from the literature and national sources to account for additional inland fisheries catches of these
204 important systems (basin estimates from Ainsworth, 2020 and Ainsworth et al., 2021 used in the study are
205 presented in Supplementary Material Table S2). Catch data from 107 rivers and lakes and fisheries data from
206 countries that are in essence one hydrobasin (e.g. Sri Lanka, Madagascar, Indonesian islands) were also
207 obtained. Search engines such as Google Scholar, Web of Science and ProQuest, were used to find the most
208 recent estimates of inland fishery catches for the chosen rivers and lakes from literature sources. FAO
209 statistical reporting (FishStatJ: <https://www.fao.org/fishery/en/topic/18238?lang=en>) and official national
210 data were also used.

211 Inland fishery statistics for China are reported by province, therefore the fish catch from one province could
212 reflect the fish catch from more than one river basin. In this case, a partitioning approach was used to allocate
213 catch to basins. The area that each river basin occupied in each province in China was established using Arc
214 GIS, and the proportional area of each river was applied to the provincial fish catch on a pro rata basis (based
215 on 2015 fisheries data from *A Statistical Analysis of China's Fisheries in the 12th Five Year Period* (Zhao and
216 Shen, 2016). This introduces uncertainty regarding reliability of the basins' catch data as this involved an

217 assumption that catches are spread evenly across the province, but in the absence of sub-provincial catch data
218 this was deemed the best available approach.

219 Similarly, statistics for freshwater fisheries catch in India were obtained for each state. As for China, freshwater
220 fish catch was assigned by the area of each basin in a particular state using Arc GIS and fisheries statistics from
221 the Handbook on Fisheries Statistics by the Government of India (2014). However, these statistics contained
222 a mixture of both inland aquaculture and capture fisheries harvest data. This was reconciled by associating the
223 species composition of inland catch for 2012 in FAO statistics and official State statistics with potential origin.
224 From the statistics it was established which freshwater and anadromous species from inland waters are most
225 likely cultured (aquaculture in India mainly consists of Indian major carps, Pangasiid catfishes and snakeheads),
226 and these were subtracted from catch estimates. The residual statistics (species that do not appear in
227 aquaculture statistics) represent an estimate of the inland fish catch, which can then be applied to each of the
228 states on a pro rata basis.

229 A similar approach was also adopted for the Russian Federation using data from 2018 as part of a joint project
230 by FAO and VNIRO (Russian Federal Research Institute of Fisheries and Geography). National fisheries data
231 were presented by administrative boundaries from FAO (unpublished) and included fisheries catch for the
232 indigenous and recreational fisheries from the Far East and North East areas of Russia. Fisheries data for river
233 basins and lakes in Russia used in this study, as indicated in Tables 2 and 3, were delineated from the regional
234 statistics. Note, basin delineation was not exact as more than one basin may occur within a region and thus
235 catch was apportioned to their basins.

236 **2.2 Accounting for Uncertainty**

237 Inland fisheries are prone to large inter-annual variation, which occurs due to environmental drivers such as
238 the extent of flooding (e.g. Kolding and van Zwieten, 2014) and variation in annual temperature cycles or
239 oscillations in ocean currents (e.g. Nunn et al. 2003). As such fishery catches exhibit boom and bust cycles of
240 high and low fish catches, which creates uncertainty. To account for this uncertainty, theoretical upper and
241 lower range catch estimates for river basins and waterbodies (*BR*) were obtained from Ainsworth et al, (2021)

242 and the literature. Fishery estimates for basins (*B*) and hydrobasins (*H*), where only a single value of fishery
243 catch could be obtained, or where the only other fishery data was considerably older (pre-2000), were also
244 used. These values can be considered indicative of the catch, but may not be representative of either the
245 maximum catch (as fish catches may have developed further in more recent years) or current levels of catch
246 (in cases where the fishery may have declined).

247 The average year of reports of fish catch was calculated for each basin and lake and weighted based on volume
248 of catch (Supplementary Material Table S2) (sum of year x sum of catch/sum of catch), to provide a weighted
249 median year for the fish catch estimates along with the date ranges that fish catch data were available for
250 each basin. The overall weighted average year for fish catches used in this study was 2010, and was used as
251 the baseline for our study.

252 Fisheries information for countries that were not part of river basins in this analysis were considered ‘missing
253 fishery catch’ (MC_1) and were included as data reported by FAO (FAO, 2022). Additionally, country fisheries
254 catch that was not accounted for within river basin catch estimates were also considered as ‘missing fishery
255 catch’. To account for this, the basin fishery figures per country were subtracted from the FAO 2010 inland
256 capture fishery estimates for each country and any excess fish catch not accounted for in river basins was
257 presented as ‘missing fishery catch’ (MC_2) along with fish catch from countries not studied in this analysis.
258 Where river basin catches were presented as upper and lower ranges the potential ‘missing fishery catch’ was
259 also derived as upper and lower ranges of ‘missing catch estimates’ for the countries concerned (MC_r).

260 To account for uncertainty in FAO country estimates (components MC_1 , MC_2 and MC_r), the relationship
261 between aggregated basin catch data and FAO country data was established (Supplementary Material Table
262 S1). The majority of basin catches were delineated at a country level, but where this was not the case (i.e. the
263 Congo basin) Arc GIS was used to establish the proportion of basins in each country unless catch proportions
264 were cited from the literature (Supplementary Material Table S2). A nonlinear relationship between
265 aggregated basin data (y) and FAO 2010 data (x) was derived (Figure 3) and described by:

266
$$y = -3E-07x^2 + 1.54x \quad (R^2=0.81; P < 0.05) \quad \text{[equation 1].}$$

267 Where FAO data were used to estimate the global fish catch (components MC_1 , MC_2 and MC_r), these values
268 were adjusted according to equation 1. Estimated global inland fish (GC) catch was based on the summation
269 of each component above as follows:

$$270 \quad GC = BR + B + H + MC_1 + MC_2 + MC_r \quad \text{[equation 2]}$$

271 To account for uncertainty in the global catch estimates as a result of upper and lower ranges in BR and MC_r ,
272 Monte Carlo simulations of the BR and MC_r components (1000 simulations) were calculated, and GC was taken
273 as the mean of the simulations. Proportional standard error (PSE) for basins used in the Monte Carlo
274 simulations was established (Figure 5), and the summation (PSE) was applied to the global total (GC) to provide
275 a measure of uncertainty.

276 **3. Results**

277 **3.1 Estimation of global inland fish catch**

278 Fisheries catches from 72 major river basins, 35 large lakes, 31 hydrobasins and 109 countries were extracted
279 from the information searches (Supplementary Material Table S2). The total global inland fishery catch for
280 2010 was estimated at 17.4 million tonnes (95% confidence interval $\pm 105,676$ tonnes, $SE = 53,917$ tonnes, $PSE =$
281 ± 3.93 million tonnes) compared with the 10.8 million tonnes recorded by FAO for 2010 (FAO, 2022). Major
282 river basins contributed the majority of inland fisheries catch, accounting for 50-65%, and hydrobasins
283 contributed the least (9.9 %) (Tables 1-3). However, it should be noted that no fisheries data were obtained
284 for waterbodies in Central America, Caribbean, Eastern and Western Asia, Western and Southern Europe,
285 North and East Africa, because there was little information regarding specific inland fisheries in these regions;
286 fisheries catch data for these regions was either covered within the hydrobasins or were considered missing
287 fisheries catch and were substituted with adjusted national data as in equation 1.

288 The majority of inland fisheries catch is concentrated in the tropical and subtropical latitudes of the world,
289 with a few exceptions (e.g. Scandinavia, Russian Federation and South America) (Figure 4). The world's largest
290 inland fisheries in terms of catch are the Mekong, Irrawaddy, Brahmaputra and Lake Victoria, with mean

291 annual estimated catch of 2.1, 0.9, 1.0 and 0.9 million tonnes, respectfully, which accounted for 28% of
292 estimated global fisheries catch (Tables 1 & 2). Lake Victoria accounted for 41-53% of the total estimated
293 fisheries catch from lakes (Table 2). Other large lakes (Tonle Sap Lake, Lake Tanganyika and Lake Chad)
294 contributed 26-28% of the total estimated fisheries catch from lakes. The resulting allocation of catch to basins
295 leaves some countries and areas outside major basins and hydrobasins; these were considered 'Missing
296 country catches' and were accounted for using adjusted national statistics from FAO 2010. This accounted for
297 13.4-14.7% of total estimated fisheries catch, the majority of which came from Asian countries (1,587,075-
298 1,644,684 tonnes) (Table 4).

299 Uncertainty due to inter-annual variation in inland catch was accounted for using Monte Carlo simulations
300 (BR , MC_r), following Fluet-Chouinard et al., (2018). Thirty-three river basins had either one or multiple
301 components of the inland fisheries catch estimated using Monte Carlo simulations (Figure 5 and indicated with
302 an * in Tables 1 & 2 and Supplementary Material Table S2). The basin elements that contributed the largest
303 amount of uncertainty to the estimated global total (indicated in Figure 5) include the Yangtze River (mean=
304 591,599 tonnes, SD= 294,373; SE as a percentage of the mean =1.6%) and the Orinoco river basin in Colombia
305 (mean= 4,361 tonnes; SD= 1,939; SE as a percentage of the mean =1.4%). The river basins that contributed the
306 least amount of uncertainty to the global total are the Okavango Delta (mean= 703 tonnes, SD= 15.6, SE as a
307 percentage of mean= 0.1 %) and the Brahmaputra floodplain fishery (mean= 820,053 tonnes; SD= 13,383; SE
308 as a percentage of the mean= 0.05 %). The 'boom and bust' variation of some inland fisheries predisposes
309 their basin fish catches to have varying levels of uncertainty, which has been considered.

310 Underreporting of inland fish catch (i.e. where the summation of river basin catch estimates were higher than
311 unadjusted officially reported national data in 2010) are prevalent, and is not geographically restricted (Figure
312 6; Supplementary Material Table S1). The estimated underreporting or unaccounted national production
313 totalled 4.1 million tonnes, with the largest underreporting in South and South East Asia (424,713 tonnes and
314 2.5 million tonnes, respectively), Brazil (407,828 tonnes) and Kenya (207,156 tonnes) (Figure 6; Supplementary
315 Material Table S1).

316 **4. Discussion**

317 This study uses information collated from peer review and grey literature to account for global inland fish
318 catch from different river basins and hydrobasins, and to establish an alternative estimate of global inland fish
319 catch. A picture emerges of where the world's inland fisheries occur according to basin boundaries and sub-
320 boundaries (Figure 4). The information suggests fish catches from river basins, lakes and hydrobasins, with the
321 addition of adjusted missing country data, could be up to 17.4 million tonnes. This is 60% higher than the FAO
322 2010 reported global inland fisheries catch of 10.8 million tonnes based on national reports. This figure is also
323 consistent with the estimated inland fisheries catch (16.6 million tonnes) of Fluet-Chouinard et al., (2018),
324 which extrapolated a model based on household consumption survey data. This figure is, however, higher
325 than the "Big Numbers Project" which estimated global inland fish catch in 2010 based on a limited number
326 of case studies and extrapolations as 13 million tonnes (World Bank, 2012), but our study includes estimates
327 of subsistence fishing from the literature, which was missing in the "Big Numbers Project".

328 The basin approach to global inland capture fisheries provides a meaningful level of analysis for the catch of
329 inland fisheries from contiguous river and lake systems that transcend national boundaries. It also allows the
330 identification of the key fisheries that lie within a productive basin (i.e. most productive; important
331 commercially or that are biodiversity hotspots), and allows us to understand how different components of the
332 fisheries provide relative contributions to food security, livelihoods or biodiversity. For example, fish catches
333 were particularly high around areas of high rural population density, where the people are able to exploit
334 these resources, where there is a strong culture of fish consumption, or where the local climate, economy or
335 religion restrict the rearing of livestock.

336 The information collated in this study was reported from a wide range of years (1960-2018). Although the
337 median year of the study was 2010, there was variation between individual basins (Supplementary Material
338 Table S2). Consequently, this study requires us to accept data from a wider timeframe than would be typically
339 considered when reporting fishery catches. Irrespective, when considering time stamped fish catch data the
340 majority of inland fisheries statistics (95%) from reports and information from literature reviews are from after

341 the year 2000, 50% post 2010 and 38% are from the last five years of this study period (2014-2018)
342 (Supplementary Material). Only in some extreme cases did catch estimates (6% of time stamped data) span
343 nearly four decades (1960-1999). Nevertheless, current country level aggregated inland fisheries catch
344 statistics are sufficient to offer an overview of global inland fish catches as part of a global account for food
345 production. They do not, however, provide sufficient resolution for detailed analysis that might infer trends in
346 individual fisheries or even the state of fisheries overall within all but the smallest countries.

347 More than 14,953 fish species inhabit permanent or occasional freshwater systems (Tedesco et al., 2017), but
348 only approximately 300 taxa, which form commercial fisheries or fisheries of sufficient volume to warrant
349 reporting, are included in FAO fisheries statistics. This is considered a small proportion of the potential number
350 of species being targeted (FAO, 2011). Of potential concern with regards reporting is the increasing proportion
351 of unidentified fish catch recorded as freshwater fish, freshwater crustaceans and freshwater molluscs *not*
352 *elsewhere identified* ('nei'), which has averaged 59% (SD= 3.49%) of the total inland fisheries catch reported
353 annually between 1950 and 2019. With over half of the total global inland fishery catch unidentified, this
354 prevents deeper analysis of trends in the catch of many species that form commercially important fisheries.

355 The data compiled in this study were considered the best data available at the time of this study. Fisheries are
356 highly variable, driven by a range of environmental variables (Welcomme et al., 2010; Lorenzen et al., 2016),
357 and new studies and assessment methods may derive more reliable catch estimates. Thus, if this study was
358 done again, it is likely the estimate of global fish catches would vary as the fisheries are all in varying states of
359 exploitation and change brought about by changing environments, resource exploitation and economic
360 development (Reid et al., 2019). Some of the world's most productive fisheries are undergoing a decline in fish
361 catches. The recent 10-year fishing ban introduced on the Yangtze River to protect China's 'mother river' (Mei
362 et al., 2020), for example, has resulted in a precipitous decline in China's reported inland fisheries catch from
363 2.2 million tonnes in 2017 to 1.4 million tonnes in 2020 and is expected to decline even further (FAO, 2022).
364 In India and Bangladesh, barrage construction and water quality issues have led to a decline in fisheries in the
365 Ganges- Brahmaputra River (DoF, 2012). Predictions of lost catch arising from hydropower construction in the

366 Mekong River range from 238,000 tonnes to 880,000 tonnes (ICEM, 2010; DHI HDR, 2015). Indeed, many of
367 the major river basins of the world have planned or ongoing dam construction projects driven the desire for
368 'green energy', which will inevitably obstruct fish migration and affect river flows and flooding and hence
369 impact important inland fisheries (Winemiller et al., 2016). Given the declining or stagnating fish catch from
370 basins and countries that contain the most productive fisheries, it is not unreasonable to state that the
371 estimated catch of 17.8 million tonnes in 2010 may likely represent the historic maximum of global inland fish
372 catch.

373 There are particular characteristics that predispose inland fisheries to underreporting in many countries and
374 there is little doubt that inland capture fisheries are still under reported in many regions, particularly in South
375 America, Africa and Asia (Figure 6) (Bartley et al., 2015). The drivers of this underreporting include the fisheries
376 being highly seasonal, small-scale, highly dispersed, multi-species, multi-gear, often for household
377 consumption, and part of a diversified livelihoods strategy. As a consequence, accurate assessment is difficult,
378 and the status of some fisheries resources is often poorly understood or unknown (Lynch et al., 2017).

379 Underreporting identified in this study was highest in Thailand at 0.97 million tonnes (Supplementary Material
380 Table S1) because floodplain, swamp and river catches from the Mekong and Chao Praya basins are not
381 effectively incorporated into national statistics and may be underestimated by at least a factor of five (Lymer
382 et al., 2008). The modelled estimate of inland fisheries production from Thailand of 1.1 million tonnes per year
383 documented in Lymer et al., (2008) is in line with river basin estimate from this study of 1.1-1.3 million tonnes.

384 Development policies and unrealistic or imposed production targets can also result in rapid and continued
385 growth of fisheries statistics, rather than actual increases in fish catch. National statistics in Myanmar appear
386 to have been adjusted to meet the targets of a 30-year fisheries plan (Funge-Smith, 2016; Baran et al., 2017).
387 Although FAO downscaled the national reported data post 2009, fish catches have still increased with a
388 consistent increment year on year. Therefore, the inland catch estimated by FAO for Myanmar which, is 0.2
389 million tonnes lower than that of the aggregated basin catches (Supplementary Material Table S1), is likely as

390 a result of inherent issues with overestimated national reporting which has not been downscaled like the data
391 recorded by FAO has.

392 Selective data recording from only the largest or most commercially important sites, such as markets or
393 commercial operations, is prevalent in large rivers such as the Amazon and the Mekong. In Brazil, where
394 underreporting was estimated at 0.4 million tonnes (Supplementary Material Table S1), attempts to collect
395 fish data from isolated communities spread over a large area is challenging and subsistence catches are largely
396 unrecorded in Amazonas State (Junk, 2007; Issacs and Almeida, 2011). In another case, analysis of commercial
397 inland fish catches in the USA, revealed that the commercial inland fish catches of several interior states were
398 not incorporated into routine national reports of inland fish catch. The revised commercial inland catch was
399 nearly double that reported (Murray et al., 2020).

400 Many countries appear to lack the financial or human resources to collect appropriate fish catch data on inland
401 waterbodies. In Tanzania, national fisheries estimates are below the catch estimates for Lake Victoria alone,
402 which are reported by the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organisation (mean lake catch from Tanzania was 316,797
403 tonnes compared with the national figure for all fisheries in the country of 312,228 tonnes). Catch recording
404 at landing sites is either non-existent or the data produced are unreliable; generally, the lack of financial
405 resources and incentives instils little confidence in the catch statistics (Welcomme and Lymer, 2012).

406 Recreational fishing catches are also rarely accounted for in inland fisheries statistics (Cooke and Cowx, 2004;
407 Cooke et al., 2018; Embke et al., 2022); even though FAO has requested countries to report retained
408 recreational fish catch since 1995. The absence of recreational fisheries data in national statistics appears to
409 contribute to underreporting in Finland, Sweden, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa (underreporting
410 ranged from 2,426 tonnes to 12,078 tonnes), where fisheries harvest estimates were mainly based on
411 recreational data.

412 Subsistence fisheries and catches that pass through informal markets are also largely unaccounted for as they
413 are highly seasonal or geographically dispersed, but recent studies suggest these catches can represent a
414 significant contribution to food security (Welcomme et al. 2010; Bower et al., 2019; Embke et al., 2019; Embke

415 et al., 2022). There is also potential confusion of source of catch in a number of Asian countries, with fish
416 catches from some stocked or enhanced water bodies reported as either aquaculture or wild capture fisheries.
417 The wild component of a culture-based fishery may be reported as aquaculture catch, thus understating the
418 contribution of inland wild capture fisheries. Enhanced fisheries are considered capture for statistical
419 purposes, but true culture-based fisheries are statistically considered to be a form of aquaculture. Both maybe
420 reported as capture fisheries (de Silva et al., 2003) or as aquaculture, depending on the country. Fish caught
421 for household consumption or away from formal markets, probably accounts for a large quantity of
422 unrecorded fish catch in many regions. River basin consumption surveys consulted in this study (Amazon and
423 Mekong rivers) suggest river basin fish catch is considerably higher than nationally reported fish catches (Issacs
424 and Almeida, 2011; So et al., 2015).

425 The lack of accurate information on catches and catch composition, as well as limited sub-national,
426 downscaled trend information gives rise to a range of opinions and perspectives on the state of inland
427 fisheries. These range between a view that a decline of inland fisheries is inevitable in the face of population
428 increase and multiple threats to inland water systems (Friend et al., 2009), to a more positive outlook that
429 hidden inland fisheries are more productive and resilient than previously thought (Bartley et al., 2015). Not all
430 inland fisheries are in decline, as suggested by the continuously increasing aggregate trend in global inland
431 fisheries catch. However, it must be considered that some increases in catch could be attributed to improved
432 reporting at a country level and might not represent actual long-term increases in fish catches (FAO, 2018).
433 Overall increasing global catch could may still mask declines in one or more river basin fisheries. Conversely,
434 enhancement or management measures may be increasing fish catches in reservoirs and man-made water
435 bodies, contributing to real increases in national inland fish catches.

436 To provide a perspective of the status and trends in inland fisheries across the globe, it is recommended that
437 a number of sentinel fisheries based on key river basins is established. There are few examples of the sentinel
438 fishery survey approach being used in inland waters, although sentinel species have been used as indicators
439 of regional stock status or as indicators of environmental disturbance in freshwater ecosystems (Gibbons and

440 Munkittrick, 1994; Christophe et al., 2015; ICES, 2018). A subset of river basins or elements of a fishery
441 developed under a sentinel fisheries monitoring programme, such as those set up for “index” or “monitored”
442 salmon rivers in the ICES region (ICES, 2021), could provide much needed continuous records of otherwise
443 data-poor fisheries and indicate the overall state of a river basin’s fisheries. Sentinel fisheries act as indicators
444 for other similar, but less well-monitored fisheries in the same region, and allow for cost-effective real-time
445 management and condition assessment of fisheries (Fishing into the Future, 2017, Henry et al., 2020).

446 Proposals for a subset of river basins, lakes or fishery elements that would be suitable for a global sentinel
447 inland fisheries catch monitoring programme can be identified from fisheries catch estimates from this study
448 (Table 5). Those nominated constitute 29-43% of the inland fisheries catches estimated from this study and
449 are representative of the range of inland fisheries on each continent. These sentinel fisheries make major
450 contributions to food and nutritional security, exhibit high levels of employment or dependence provided by
451 the fisheries, are based on multiple species fisheries and where specific fisheries are predicted to be impacted
452 by major threats or pressures in the foreseeable future. It is critical that these sentinel sites are monitored
453 using robust, standardised methodologies (Lorenzen et al., 2016), and data on specific indicators of the status
454 of the fisheries (e.g. total catch by species, catch per unit effort of primary gears, change in species composition
455 of catch and size of fish caught) are reported annually to FAO as part of the annual reporting activities. It may
456 be necessary for international donor agencies, NGOs or CSOs to support these activities in countries where
457 resources and human capacity are weak.

458 **5. Conclusions**

459 The contribution of inland fisheries to food security, livelihoods and provision of other ecosystem services such
460 as recreational fisheries, is now becoming increasingly recognised (Cooke et al., 2016; Funge-Smith and
461 Bennett, 2019). Understanding the status and trends of inland fisheries in individual water bodies, nationally
462 and globally is important, but currently lacking in all but perhaps the largest and most important fisheries.
463 Inland fisheries are neglected or sometimes invisible in government processes, in which fishers are weakly
464 represented in decision-making or where other water users take precedent (Lynch et al., 2017; Elliott et al.

465 2022). This study identifies that inland fish catches likely peaked at around 17.4 million tonnes in 2010, and
466 have subsequently declined owing to the fall in catches of some of the world's largest and most productive
467 fisheries. This study also identifies key inland food fisheries and their relative contributions to inland fisheries
468 at a basin and also global level.

469 This work only scratches the surface when it comes to identifying the issues regarding data reliability in inland
470 fisheries. Indeed, inland fisheries statistics cannot improve without greater institutional support and
471 investment for fisheries management. Lorenzen et al., (2016) identified three research needs for improved
472 inland fisheries data: wider adoption of quantitative methods in inland fisheries; increased use of comparative
473 studies as more fisheries data become available; and develop indicators of fisheries and environmental status
474 to evaluate trade-offs of conflicting activities.

475 Solutions to the issues and weaknesses identified would be the next step forward. This could be in the reform
476 and standardisation of the methods of data collection and improvement in species identification, which would
477 inform effective monitoring and management, and would also ensure fisheries data are comparable and
478 suitable for global assessment. Particularly the inclusion of data not usually collected as part of national
479 statistics, such as recreational, subsistence and part-time fisher data, is essential as these sectors likely account
480 for a large portion of unreported catch (5.4% in the case of recreational fisheries) (Ainsworth, 2020, Funge-
481 Smith et al., 2018).

482 Interrogation of river basin fish catches in this study also indicates how a global monitoring system might be
483 developed. The selection of relevant fisheries for which data are regularly collected to contribute to a global
484 system of sentinel fisheries important for food or biodiversity, or where pressures on the fishery are significant
485 (Table 5). This helps address the limitations of national aggregated statistics as indicators of the state of inland
486 fisheries. Such a system could link to other complimentary systems, such as the USGS basins threat mapping
487 system (FAO, 2021). Integration with the basins threat mapping system would provide a robust assessment
488 framework for inland fisheries, and the associated ecosystems upon which they depend, and provides a visual
489 and quantifiable indication of the relative threats to inland fisheries at the basin, sub-basin and fishery levels.

490 This system would allow countries to assess the status of their inland fisheries at low cost, which would enable
491 them to plan for future needs in management, food security, livelihoods and recreational impact, and would
492 provide a measure of progress towards the UN Sustainable Development Goals (FAO, 2021).

493 The FAO recognizes that “inland waters remain the most difficult subsector for which to obtain reliable capture
494 production statistics” (FAO, 2014). Inland fisheries are still perceived as a sector that does not substantially
495 contribute to global food production and are frequently treated as economically unimportant and a by-
496 product of freshwater earmarked for other use. The analysis in this paper and Ainsworth et al. (2021)
497 challenges this preconception and presents the large breadth of information about inland fisheries that is
498 available and contributes to the growing effort to improve knowledge and valuation of inland fisheries globally.

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503 **7. Data Availability Statement**

504 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available data from open sources published from
505 Ainsworth (2020) and Ainsworth et al., (2021) and are presented in the Tables (1-4) and supplementary
506 material table (S1 & S2).

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9. Tables

Table 1: Estimated inland Fishery catches attributed to major river basins: 8,720,538-11,392,241 tonnes (50-65% of estimated global inland catch). (*) Indicates where one or more components of fishery catch was estimated using Monte Carlo simulations.

Basin	Catch (t)	Basin	Catch (t)
Mekong River*	1,900,000- 2,331,808	Senegal River	30,540
Irrawaddy River*	589,452- 1,207,888	Don Jiang	27,210
Yangtze River*	100,000- 1,112,964	Danube River*	24,188-25,588
Brahmaputra River*	935,089- 981,397	Ob-Irtysh	22,834
Amazon River*	653,678-698,678	Liao He	22,386
Ganges River	429,540	Han Jiang	20,998
Nile River*	419,778-439,546	Laguna de Bay	20,400
Chao Phraya	364,216	Luan He	20,105
Red (Hong) River*	323,278- 351,674	Tocantins-Araguaia	16,360
Niger*	167,000- 326,000	Casamance River	15,000
Penner	278,776	Ural River	13,631
Yasai	251,376	Daling He	12,932
Pearl (Xun-Jiang)	169,836	Dnieper River	12,600
Salween River*	110,018- 198,294	Mahakam River*	12,350-31,000
Indus River*	166,801-242,801	Brahmani	12,153
Congo River*	151,51-162,622	Tapti	10,235
Domodar	116,443	Narmada	9,619
Ziya He	109,149	Mississippi River*	8,988-11,041
Krishna	106,894	Magdalena River*	5,808-9,094
Orinoco River*	91,024-127,742	Rufiji River*	5,500-7,500
Godavari	90,400	Cross River*	3,500-8,800
Amur River	88,787	Sepik River*	3,000-5,000
Mahanadi	82,741	Murray-Darling	3,433
Zambezi*	73,169-104,543	Mahi	3,322
Volta River*	57,091-82,091	Ogooue River	2,507
Yonding He	72,110	Gambia River*	2,350-2,700
Volga River	68,200	Fly River	2,350
La Plata	63,849	Amu Darya River*	1,000-3,000
Lena River	55,434	Okavango River *	676-730
Fuchan Jiang	49,137	Yukon River	514
Cauvery	47,913	Dniester River	500
Min Jiang	42,723	Balkhash	459
Yellow (Huang he)	40,476	Kaladan	428
Yenesi River	39,014	Nipigon	152
Finland (country)*	36,500-40,952	Kura River	96
Limpopo River	31,010		

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742 Table 2: Estimated inland fishery catch from large lakes (>400 km²): 1,697,424-2,188,911 tonnes (9.7-12.6% of estimated total inland
743 fisheries). Note: for total figure some lakes were included in their corresponding river basin fish catch to avoid double counting (Table
744 1). (*) Indicates where one or more components of fishery catch was estimated using Monte Carlo simulations.

Lake name	Catch (t)	Lake name	Catch (t)
Lake Victoria*	752,024- 1,061,107	Lake Winnipeg	6,428
Tonle Sap Lake*	179,500- 246,000	Lake Edward (Nile)	6,000
Lake Tanganyika*	164,310-188,380	Kainji Reservoir	6,000
Lake Chad*	155,000-184,377	Philippine Lakes	5,828
Caspian Sea*	112,950-131,453	Lake Lagoda	4,794
Lake Albert (Nile basin)	110,000	Lagos Lagoon	4,000
Lake Malawi*	33,000- 44,000	German Lakes	3,256
Lake Kyoga (Nile basin) *	15,000-34,700	Lake Turkana*	3,076-4,413
Great Lakes Basin	19,083	Lake Tumba	1,500
Lake Kariba*	7593-19,420	Lake Onega	1,430
Egyptian Lakes	12,798	Lake Toba	1,150
Lake Van	12,744	Lake Sevan	1,000
Lake Taal	11,800	Great Slave Lake	1,000
Lake Buluan	11,200	Lake Langano	1,000
Lake Titicaca	10,160	Lake Baikal	789
Lake Lanao	10,000	Lake Khövsgöl	325
Songkhla Lake	9,634	Shebeli- Juba	100
Jebel- Aulia Reservoir	8,000	Mingachevir reservoir	94
Kossu Reservoir	8,000	Lake Issyk-Kul	10
Lake Peipus	6,848		

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747 *Table 3: Estimated Inland fishery catch from hydrobasins: 1,730,126 tonnes (9.9% of estimated total inland fisheries production)*

Hydrobasin	Catch (t)	Hydrobasin	Catch (t)
China coast	421,159	Madagascar	25,940
Sumatra	152,253	Kalimantan	15,125
Java-Timor	152,253	India North East Coast	14,807
Sulawesi	152,253	North and South Korea	14,333
Mexico-Northwest coast	151,416	Sweden	10,250
India east coast	103,985	Germany	9,000
Gulf of Guinea	76,000	South Africa	7,157
Sabarmati	70,191	Malaysian Peninsula	5,924
Sri Lanka	66,910	Naujan	5,000
India South Coast	62,913	NE South America	1,350
Angola, Coast	38,154	New Zealand	832
India West Coast	35,519	England and Wales	747
Bay of Bengal, Northwest Coast	35,169	Pacific and Arctic coast	509
Japan	32,868	Iceland	201
West Africa coastal	30,700	Ireland	78

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750 *Table 4: Unadjusted missing country fisheries data and data from countries lying outside of river basins: 2,347,819- 2,567,232 tonnes*
751 *(13.4-14.7% of total estimated inland fisheries catch).*

Continent	Catch (t)
Africa	613,443- 768,018
Americas	62,461- 64,514
Asia	1,587,075- 1,644,684
Europe	59,938- 60,536
Oceania	7,234
Russian Federation	17,668- 22,246

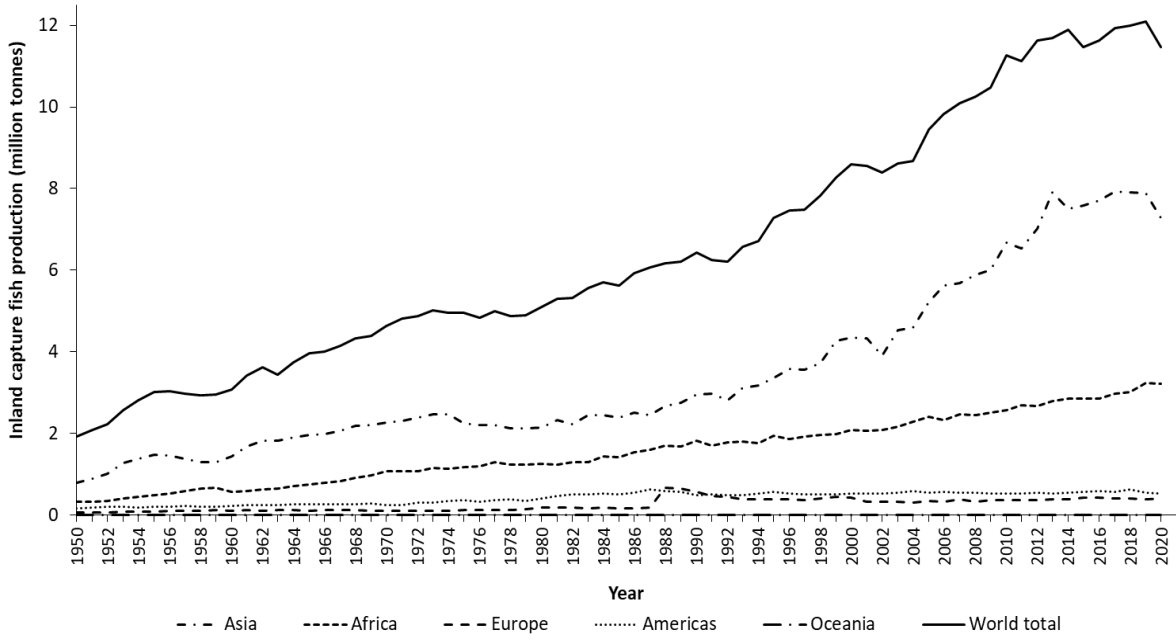
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Table 5: Basins or fishery elements identified as suitable candidates for sentinel fisheries according to region and a reason.

Fishery	Economic	Biodiversity of fishery	More research needed	Food Security	Future or current threats to fishery	Employment provided	Large relative fish catch
Lake Fisheries							
Tonlé Sap Lake	✓			✓	✓	✓	
Philippine Lakes							✓
Africa Rift Lakes (Victoria, Malawi Tanganyika, Turkana, Albert)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Lake Volta				✓	✓		✓
Lake Titicaca			✓				
America Great Lakes	✓			✓	✓		
Caspian Sea		✓			✓		✓
River and floodplain fisheries							
Brahmaputra floodplain fishery			✓	✓			✓
Sudd Swamps			✓				
Niger Central Delta			✓				✓
Delta Fisheries							
Irrawaddy River Delta			✓	✓		✓	✓
Amazon River Delta		✓	✓				
River Fisheries							
Salween River		✓		✓	✓		✓
Yangtze River			✓		✓		✓
Ganges River			✓				✓
Egyptian Nile		✓					✓
Zambezi River				✓	✓		✓
Congo River			✓				
Paraná River					✓		
Orinoco River					✓		
Danube River			✓		✓		
Volga River		✓			✓		
Amur Salmon Fishery	✓						✓

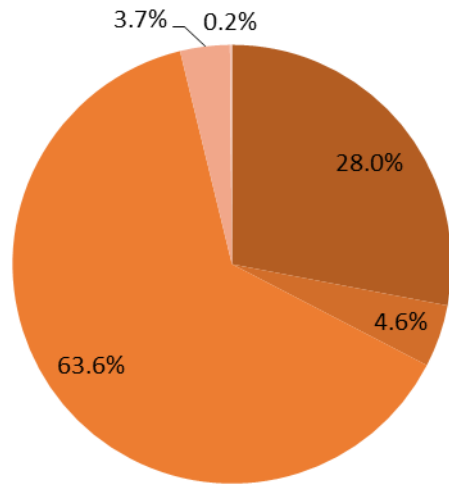
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757 Figure 1: Inland capture fisheries (million tonnes) from 1950 to 2020 by continent and world total (FAO, 2022)

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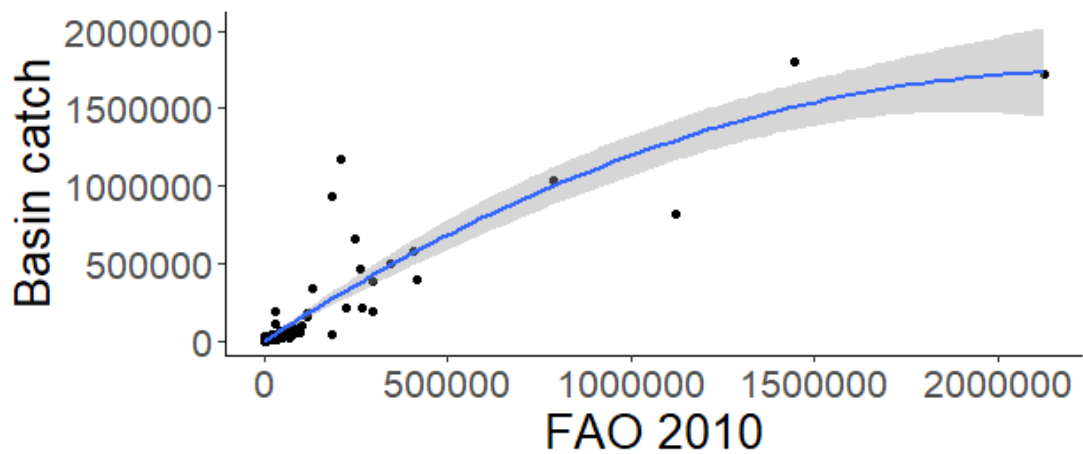


■ Africa ■ Americas ■ Asia ■ Europe ■ Oceania

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760 Figure 2: Inland capture fisheries catch by continent in 2020 by percentage total catch (FAO, 2022).

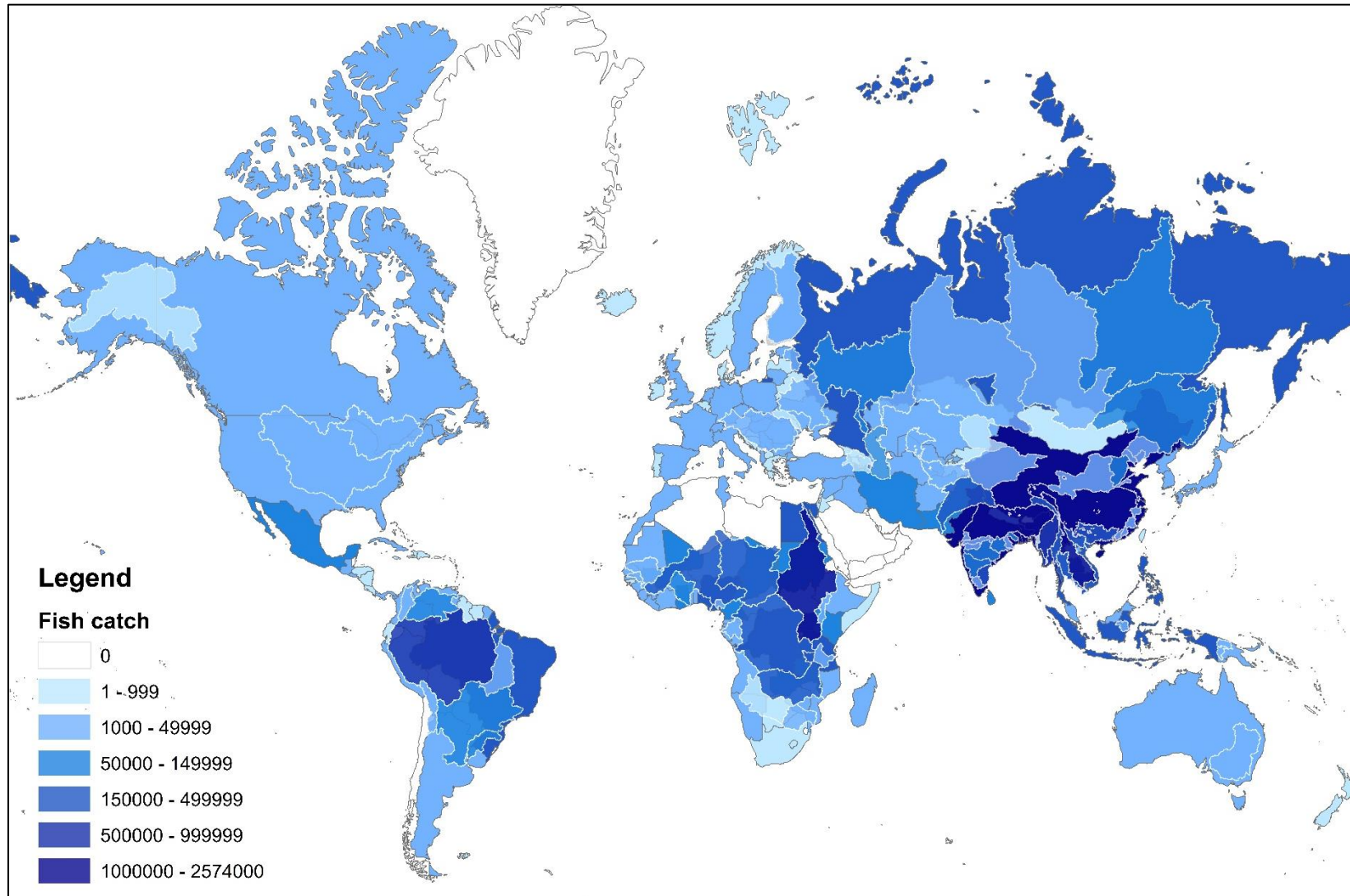
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763 Figure 3: Plot of the non-linear relationship between basin catches aggregated to country level and FAO 2010
764 data (FAO, 2022), which produces equation 1, $y = -3E-07x^2 + 1.54x$ ($R^2=0.81$; $P < 0.05$) used to adjust the
765 missing country data (MC_1 , MC_2 and MC_r) in the Monte Carlo simulations. Countries indicated contained some
766 of the most productive inland fisheries. Data used to create this figure are outlined in Supplementary Material
767 Table S1.

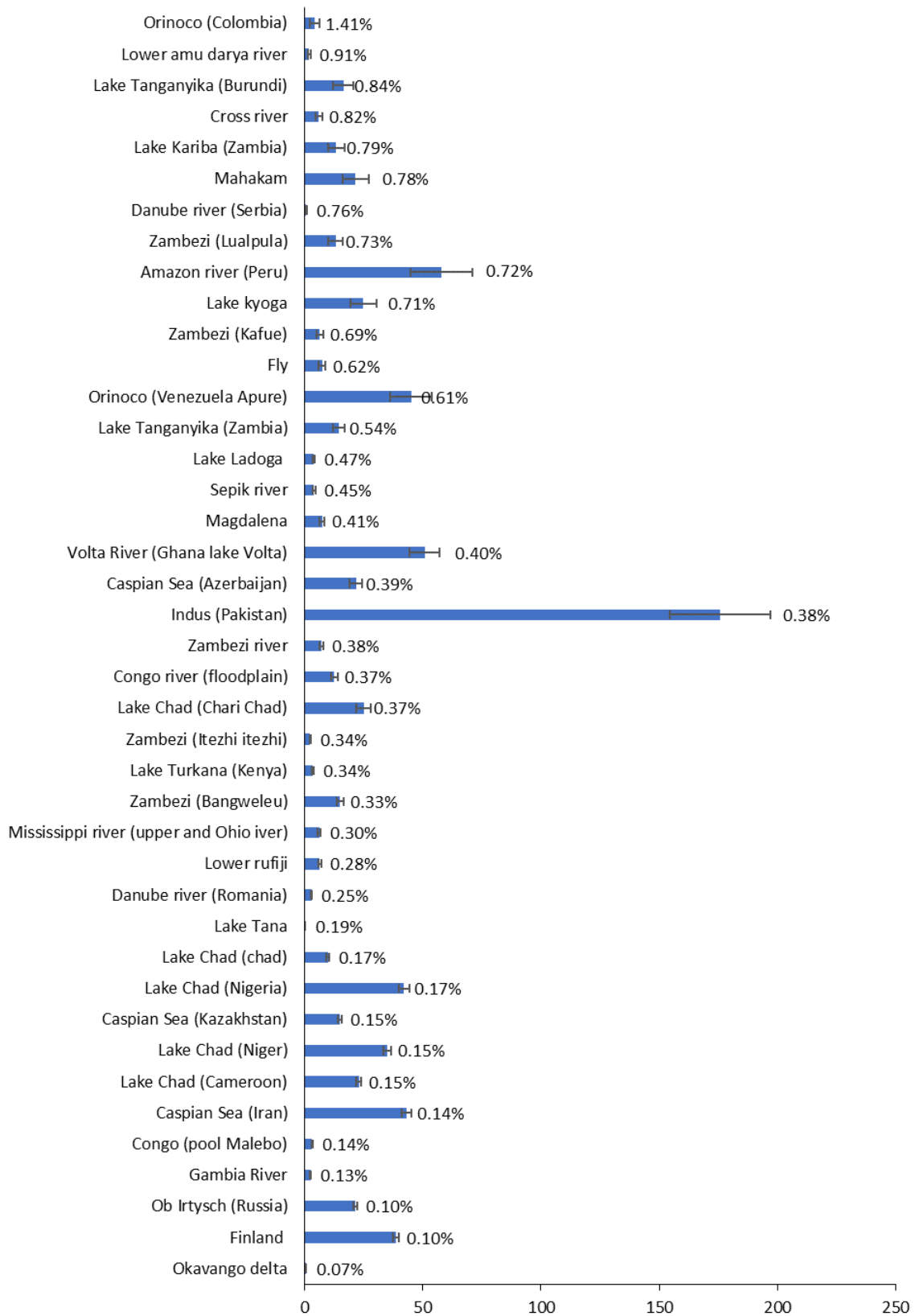
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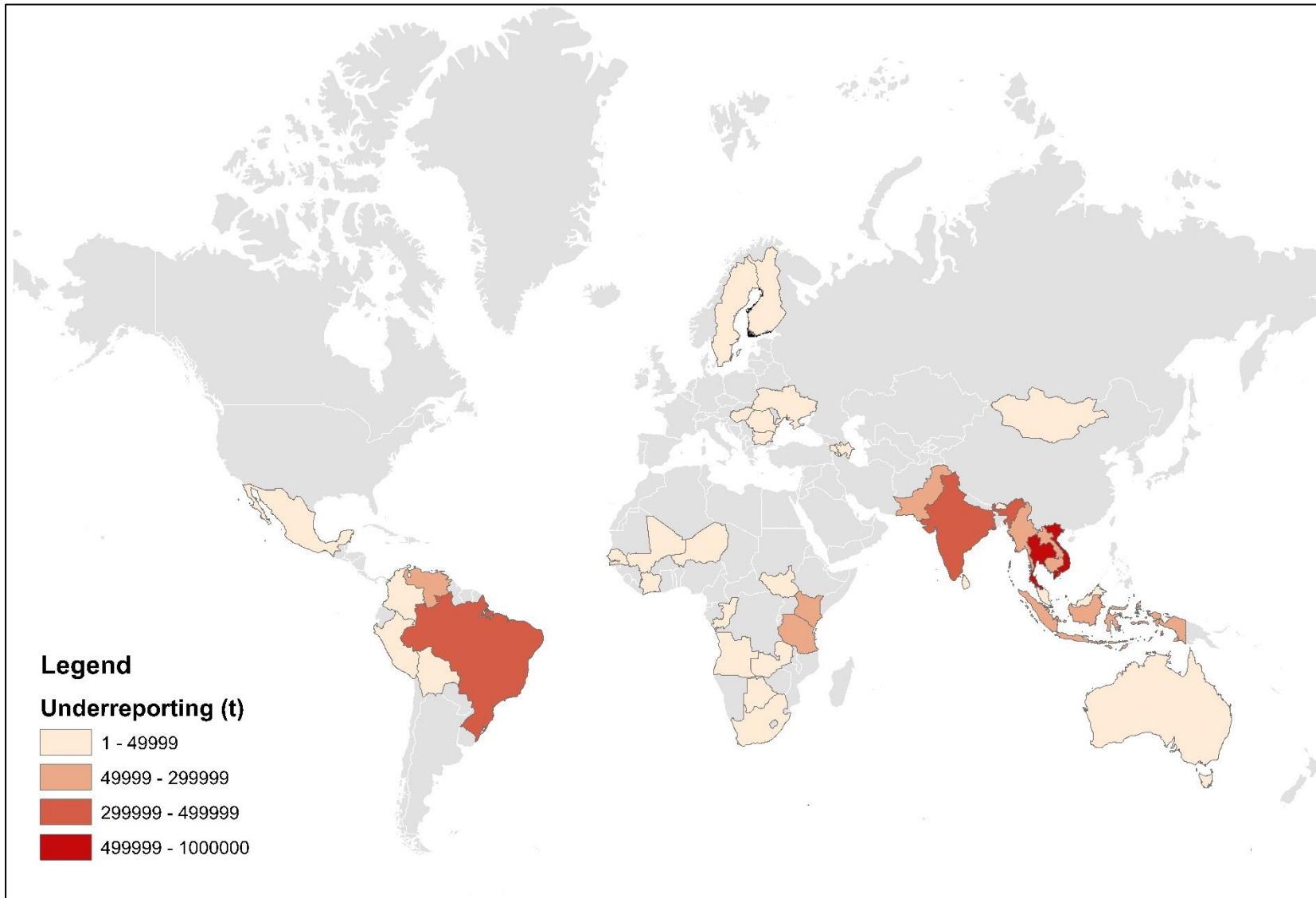
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770 Figure 4: Estimated river basin inland fish catch (tonnes) (blue-scale and white outline) and FAO 2010 inland fish catch by country (blue scale basemap). Note:
 771 major lakes are incorporated into its corresponding river basin. Also, for basins with catch ranges the mean catch is presented.

772



773 Figure 5: Mean catch (thousand tonnes) of 1000 Monte Carlo simulations of river basin elements (bars) and
 774 error bars depicting standard deviation around the mean. Bars ordered bottom to top in descending order of
 775 proportional standard error (indicated on figure). Indexed box indicates results of basins with large catches.



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777 Figure 6: Underreporting of inland fisheries catch by country (i.e. where aggregated river basin catch estimates were higher than FAO 2010 national data)
 778 (as set out in Supplementary Material Table S1) (red- scale).

Supplementary material

Estimation of average date of reporting fisheries catch data

The average year of reports of fish catch was calculated for each basin and lake and weighted based on volume of catch (Table S1), to provide a weighted median year for the fish catch estimates along with the date ranges that fish catch data were available for each basin. The overall weighted average year for fish catches used in this study was 2010, which is a reflection of the large fish catches from the Mekong in 2000 and Irrawaddy and Yangtze Rivers in 2014 and 2015, respectively. At a regional level the weighted average fish catch from South America was the lowest with a year of 2007 (range 1980-2013), followed by Africa (weighted average 2009: date range 1960-2015), Asia including China and India (weighted average 2010: date range 1980-2018), North America (weighted average 2014: date range 2005-2018) and Russia (weighted average and date range 2018). Fish data spanned a nearly six decades from 1960 to 2018 and the most common year for which fish data were available was 2014. This partly reflects the delays in reporting and publishing catch data. Fishery data that was not time stamped (no indication of year could be found in the literature) totalled 3.1-3.4 million tonnes, which mainly consisted of historical data and catch estimates from hydrobasins.

Table S1: FAO 2010 and aggregated basin catches that formed Figure 3 and underreporting (where aggregated basin catches were higher than FAO catches) used to create Figure 6.

Country	FAO 2010 catch	Aggregated basin catches	Under reporting (t)
Angola	10,000	29,021	19,021
Armenia	617	1,000	383
Australia	1,376	3,433	2,057
Azerbaijan*	1,131	21,803	20,672
Bangladesh*	1,119,094	822,454.5	
Benin	30,350	5,700	
Bhutan	6	7	1
Bolivia	6,946	11,000	4,054
Botswana*	60	31713	31,653
Brazil	248,122	655,950	407,828
Bulgaria	1,085	14,284	13,199
Burkina Faso	14250	5521	
Burundi	17,305	16,500	
Cambodia*	405,000	583,000	178,000
Cameroon*	68,000	22,900	
Canada	27,385	20,799	
Central African Republic	35,000	5,631	
Chad	91,000	69,937	
China	2,124,668	1,720,540	
Colombia	21,049	45,834	24785
Congo	30,500	37,520	7,020
Congo, Dem, Rep	220,000	208,003	
Côte d'Ivoire	6,763	8,000	1,027
Croatia	456	9	
Egypt	263,847	214,688	
Ethiopia*	18,058	1,501	
Finland*	28,874	38,726	9,852
Gabon	10,400	2,507	
Gambia*	4,654	2,525	
Germany	15,010	12,256	
Ghana*	96,105	55,000	
Guinea*	16,000	4,670	
Hungary	6,216	6,472	256
Iceland	260	201	
India	1,444,153	1,795,714	351,561
Indonesia*	344,902	493,559	148,957
Iran	75,145	43,041	
Ireland	116	78	
Japan	39,844	32,868	
Kazakhstan*	46,827	14,891	
Kenya*	131,943	339,099	267,096
Kyrgyzstan	27	10	
Lao PDR*	30,900	189,500	158,600

Madagascar	35,500	25,940	
Malawi*	98,298	48,250	
Malaysia	4,545	5,924	1,379
Mali*	100,000	100,735	735
Mexico	116,410	151,416	35,006
Mongolia	100	325	225
Mozambique	44,836	20,607	
Myanmar*	785,550	1,040,447	254,897
Namibia	2,800	2,700	
New Zealand	892	832	
Niger*	40,000	47,905	7,905
Nigeria*	293,382	187,002	
Pakistan	115,348	174,000	58,652
Papua New Guinea*	13,500	11,500	
Peru*	44,638	65,660	21,022
Philippines	185,406	43,828	
Romania	2,457	2,908	451
Russia	262,938	466,258	203,320
Senegal	34,164	45,540	11,376
Serbia	4,807	727	
South Africa	900	7,157	6,257
South Sudan	0	30,000	30,000
Sri Lanka	52,410	66,910	14,500
Sudan (former)	66,000	39,000	
Sweden	1,368	10,250	8,882
Tanzania United, Rep*	293,043	378,797	85,754
Thailand*	209,300	1,176,216	966,916
Turkey	40,259	12,744	
Turkmenistan	15,000	8,486	
Uganda*	413,805	394,688	
Ukraine	4,640	13,588	8948
United Kingdom	2,473	747	
USA*	21,151	12,642	
Uzbekistan*	4,078	2,000	
Venezuela, Bolivia Rep*	27,464	105,000	77,536
Vietnam*	182,655	930,596	747,941
Zambia*	76,396	80,475	4,079
Zimbabwe	11,200	5,000	

1 Table S2: Breakdown of basin fish catch estimates from Ainsworth, (2020), Ainsworth et al., (2021) (Tables 1-3) and weighted average date (year) of fish catch data used in this study. Fisheries
2 catch data with no year information was not considered in weighted average calculations. (*) denotes where Monte Carlo simulations were carried out on a particular element of a basin fishery,
3 with the upper and lower catch estimates indicated. References are stated in their respective document.

Basin	Total	Country	Waterbody	Catch estimates (tonnes)	Year	Reference	Notes	Weighted average year			
Niger	167,000-326,000	Guinea	Niger River*	3,340- 6,000	n/a	Laë <i>et al.</i> (2004), Laë (1992).					
		Niger		8,350- 16,000							
		Mali		6,8470- 133,000							
		Nigeria		86,840-171,000							
Volta	57,091-82,091	Burkina Faso	Volta River	4,546	n/a	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)	Volta River estimates include the White and Black Volta	1997			
			Bagré Reservoir	975	n/a	Béné (2007)					
		Ghana	Lake Volta*	40,000-65,000	1989-2000	MOFA (2006)					
			Volta River	4,000	n/a	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)					
		Benin	Oueme	5,700	1976	Welcomme (1979)					
		Benin, Togo, Burkina Faso	Oti River	1,870	1976	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)					
Lake Chad	155,000-184,377	Cameroon	Lake Chad*	21,000-24,800	2003-2012	LCBC (2017b)		1997			
		Chad		9,000-10,873							
		Niger		32,000-37,840							
		Nigeria		38,000-45,864							
				Chari River*					20,000-30,000	1960s	Blanche and Milton (1962)
				Logone River					35,000		
Senegal	30,540	Senegal	Senegal River	30,540	2005	Cheikh Oumar et al., (2006)		2005			
Gambia	2,350-2,700	Gambia	Gambia River*	2,350-2,700	1980-2002	Lesack (1986); Laë <i>et al.</i> (2004)		2001			
Nile	419,778-439,546	Egypt	Lake Nasser	26,290	2012	GAFRD (2012)	Lake Victoria excluded from Nile figure	2008			
			Lake Burullus	52,076							
			Lake Manzala	62,272							
			Lake Mariout	7,427							

			Lakes Edku, Bardawil, Quarun	12,798			
			Nile main channel	66,623			
		Sudan	Lake Nubia	1,000	2003	Witte et al., (2009)	
			Gebel Aulia reservoir	13,000			
			Senner reservoir	1,000			
			Roseires reservoir	1,500			
			White Nile reservoir	13,000	n/a	Hamza (2014)	
			Blue Nile reservoir	1,500	n/a		
		South Sudan	Sudd swamps	30,000	2003	Witte et al., (2009)	
		Uganda	Lake Albert	110,000	2008	NaFIRRI (2012)	
			Lake Kyoga*	15,000-34,700	1989-2006	Ogutu-Ohwayo (2004); Mbabazi et al., (2004)	
			Lake Edward/George	6,000	1991	Conen (1991)	
		Ethiopia	Lake Tana*	292-360	2006	De Graaf et al., (2006)	
Lake Turkana	3076-4,413	Kenya	Lake Turkana*	3001-4,338	2012-2013	SDOF (2013)	2013
		Ethiopia		75	n/a	Janko (2014)	
Lake Victoria	752,024- 1,061,107		Whole lake system*	752,024- 1,061,107	2010- 2016	LVFO (2017), LVFO (2016)	2014
Lake Tanganyika	164,310- 188,380	DRC	Lake	90,000	1995	Conen et al., (1998)	1997
		Tanzania	Tanganyika*	55,000			
		Burundi		9,000-24,000	1992-1999	Magnet et al., (2000)	
		Zambia		10,310-19,380	2009-2013	Department of Fisheries, Zambia (2016)	
Lake Malawi	33,000- 44,000	Malawi	Lake Malawi*	33,000- 44,000	n/a	Weyl et al., (2010)	
Congo		Congo DRC	Lualaba	72,500	n/a	Nieland and Béné (2008)	1994

	151,512-		Luapula	8,800	1983		
	162,622		DRC, Congo, CAR	Ubanji	7,520	1984	
			Cameroon, DRC, Congo, CAR	Tributaries and floodplains*	10,000-15,000	n/a	
			Congo	Likouala	15,000	n/a	Welcomme (1985)
				Sangha	15,000		Nieland and Béné (2008)
			DRC	Malebo Pool*	3,000-3,500	1984	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)
			DRC, Zambia	Lake Mweru	5,953	1983	Konare (1984)
			DRC	Lake Tumba	1,500	1982	Corsi (1984)
			Zambia	Bangweulu River*	12,298-17,849	2013-2015	
Zambezi	73,169-104,543	Zambia	Upper Zambezi*	5,424-8,012	2008-2012	Department of Fisheries, Zambia (2016)	2009
			Lower Zambezi*	528-920	1995-2015		
			Lake Kariba*	7593-19,420	1997-2013		
			Itezhi-tezhi river*	1,874-2,752	1995-2015		
			Kafue floodplain*	3,945-8,907	2013-2015		
			Luapula River*	7,815-18,542	1995-2015		
		Malawi, Zambia	Luangwa River	786	1980	Coopconsult-Propesca (1982)	
		Mozambique	Zambezi Delta	16,264	n/a	Turpie et al., (1999)	
		Namibia, Botswana	Lake Liambezi	2,700	2011-2012	R. Peel (pers comms)	
		Mozambique	Cahora Bassa reservoir	4,343	1982	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)	
		Namibia, Zambia	Chobe-Caprivi floodplain	1,273	1994-1995	Turpie et al., (1999)	
		Malawi	Shire river/ floodplain	9,750	n/a		

		Zambia	Barotse floodplain	5,874	1995		
		Zimbabwe	Lake Kariba	5,000	1995	Mhlanga and Mhlanga (2013)	
Limpopo	31,010	Botswana	Gaborone Dam	4,632.8	2004-2005	FAO (2007b)	2004
			Bokaa Dam	8,545.4			
			Sashe Dam	13,331.3			
			Lestobogo Dam	4,500.8			
Okavango	676-730	Botswana	Okavango*	676-730	1996-2005	Kgathi et al., (2005)	2001
Lake Langano	1,000	Ethiopia	Langano	1,000	1980s	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1991)	1980
Casamance	15,000	Senegal	Casamance River	15,000	n/a	Welcomme (1985)	
Rufiji	5,500-7,500	Tanzania	Rufiji River*	5,500-7,500	n/a	Turpie (2000)	
South Africa	7,157	South Africa	Inland reservoirs	7,157	n/a	McCafferty et al (2012)	Recreation only
Kainji Lake	6,000	Nigeria	Niger River	6,000	n/a	Neiland and Béné (2008)	
Cross	3,500-8,800	Nigeria	Cross River*	3,500-8,800	n/a	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)	
Lagos Lagoon	4,000	Nigeria	Ogun River	4,000	n/a	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)	
Kossou reservoir	8,000	Ivory Coast	Bandama River	8,000	n/a	Van den Bossche and Bernacsek (1990)	
West African rivers	30,700	West Africa		30,700	n/a	Béné and Heck (2005)	
Red River	351,674	China	Red River*	8,213	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	2012
		Vietnam		315,065-343,461	2010-2014	General Statistics Office Vietnam (2017)	
Mekong	1,900,000-2,311,808	Cambodia	Mekong River*	627,000-767,000	2000	Hortle and Bamrungrach (2015); Hortle (2007).	2000
		Lao PDR		209,000-246,000			
		Thailand		760,000-921,000			

		Vietnam		304,000- 369,000			
		China		8,808	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	
Mekong	246,000	Cambodia	Tonlé Sap Lake	179,500- 246,000	2001	Lieng and Van Zalinge (2001)	2001
Irrawaddy	589,452- 1,207,888	Myanmar	Irrawaddy River*	580,481- 1,198,917	2010- 2014	Department of Fisheries Myanmar (2017,2022)	2013
		India		7,045	2014	Government of Inida (2014)	
		China		1,926	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	
Salween	110,018- 198,294	China	Salween River*	3,408	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	2013
		Myanmar		106,610- 194,886	2010- 2014	Department of Fisheries Myanmar (2017, 2022)	
Mahakam	12,350-31,000	Indonesia	Mahakam River*	12,350-31,000	1985-1990	Christensen (1993a, b)	1990
Pearl	169,836	China	Pearl River	169,836	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	2015
Yangtze	100,000- 1,112,964		Yangtze River*	100,000- 1,112,964			2015
Yellow	40,476		Yellow River	40,476			2015
Tarim	7,658		Tarim River	7,658			2015
Balkhash	459		Balkhash River	459			2015
Dong Jiang	27,210		Dong Jiang	27,210			2015
Han Jiang	20,998		Han Jiang	20,998			2015
Min Jiang	42,723		Min Jiang	42,723			2015
Fuchan Jiang	49,137		Fuchan Jiang	49,137			2015
Yongding He	72,110		Yongding He	72,110			2015
Luan He	20,105		Luan He	20,105			2015
Liao He	22,386		Liao He	22,386			2015
Daling He	12,932		Daling He	12,932			2015
Yasai	251,376		Yasai	251,376			2015
Amur	80,387	China	Amur River	74,097	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	2015
		Russia		6,300	2018	FAO (forthcoming)	
Brahmaputra	981,397	India	Brahmaputra river	135,526	2014	Government of India (2014)	2013

		Bangladesh river fishery		2,280	1989-1990	Neiland and Béné (2008)	
		Bangladesh floodplain fishery*		797,024-843,325	2010-2015	FRSS (2012, 2017)	
		Bhutan		7	2015	FAO (2017)	
		China		259	2013	China Agriculture Yearbook (2014)	
Ganges	429,540	India	Ganges River	429,540	2014	Government of India (2014)	2014
Mahi	3,322		Mahi River	3,322			2014
Narmada	9,619		Narmada River	9,619			2014
Krishna	106,894		Krishna River	106,894			2014
Cauvery	47,913		Cauvery River	47,913			2014
Penner	278,776		Penner River	278,776			2014
Brahmani	12,153		Brahmani River	12,153			2014
Domodar	116,443		Domodar River	116,443			2014
Kaladan	428		Kaladan River	428			2014
Godavari	90,400		Godavari River	90,400			2014
Tapti	10,235		Tapti River	10,235			2014
Indus	166,801-242,801	Pakistan	Indus River*	136,000-212,000	2005-2014	Pakistan Statistical Yearbook (2014); Khan (2015)	2011
		China		37	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	
		India		30,764	2014	Government of India (2014)	
Caspian Sea	112,950-131,453	Azerbaijan	Caspian Sea*	17,205-26,400	2005-2010	Salmonov et al., (2013)	2009
		Turkmenistan		8,486	1997	FAO (1998)	
		Iran (Islamic Rep)		39,647-46,435	2006-2014	FAO (2015)	
		Kazakhstan		13,631-16,151	2005-2006	Timirkhanov et al., (2010)	Fishery catch also includes the Ural River
		Russia		33,981	2018	FAO (forthcoming)	
Ob-Irtysh	23,556	Russia	Ob-Irtysh River	22,834	2018	FAO (forthcoming)	2018

		China		722	2015	Zhao and Shen (2016)	
Ural	13,631	Kazakhstan	Ural River	13,631	2006	Timirkhanov et al., (2010)	Fishery catch also includes the Caspian Sea
Volga	68,200	Russia	Volga River and reservoirs	68,200	2018	FAO (forthcoming)	2018
Lena	55,434		Lena River	55,434			2018
Yenisey	39,014		Yenisey	39,014			2018
Lake Ladoga	4,974		Neva River	4,974			2018
Lake Peipus/Pepsi	6,848		Narva River	6,848			2018
Lake Baikal	789		Yenisey River	789			2018
Lake Onega	1,430		Volga River	1,430			2018
Lake Tumba	1,500			1,500			2018
Danube	24,188-25,588	Romania	Danube River*	2,507-3,309	2007-2008	European Comission (2009)	2012
		Bulgaria		14,284	2014	European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (2016)	
		Serbia		428-1,026	2003-2010	Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia	
		Croatia		8.64	n/a	Čaldarović (2006)	
		Ukraine		488.2	2005	Schmutz (2006)	
		Hungary		6,472	2013	Fisheries Operational Programme of Hungary (2015)	
Finland	36,500-40,952	Finland	All waterbodies*	36,500-40,952	2000-2017	OSF (2019)	Majority recreational
Amu Darya	1,000-3,000	Uzbekistan	LowerAmu Darya*	1,000-3,000	1990s	Pavlovskaya (1995)	1990
Kura	96	Azerbaijan	Kura River	96	n/a	Salmonov et al., (2013)	
Mingachevir Reservoir	94	Azerbaijan	Kura River	94	2010	Salmonov et al., (2013)	2010
Dnieper	12,600	Ukraine	Dnieper River	12,600	n/a	Movchan (2015)	

Dniester	500	Ukraine	Dniester River	500	n/a	Movchan (2015)	
German waterbodies	3,256	Germany	Recreational lake fishery	3,256	n/a	Centenera (2014)	Lakes Brandenburg, Macklenburgm Constance and Elbe
	9,000		German inland waters	9,000	n/a	Ernst and Young (2011)	
Magdalena	5,808-9,094	Colombia	Magdalena River*	5,808-9,094	2004-2013	FAO, (2015); SEPEC (2017)	2008
Orinoco	91,024-127,742	Venezuela	Orinoco	60,000	1995	Novoa (2002)	1998
			Apure*	30,000-60,000	2000-2008	Novoa, (2002); Machado-Allison and Bottini (2009)	
		Colombia	Orinoco*	1,024-7,742	1995-2009	Ramírez-Gill and Ajaco-Martínez (2011)	
Amazon	653,678-698,678	Brazil	Amazon*	575,678	2009	Issac and Almedia (2011)	2008
		Peru		35,000-80,000	n/a	Bayley et al., (1992); Amazon Waters (2016)	
		Bolivia		9,000	n/a	FAO (2005)	
		Colombia		34,000	1991	Bayley (1998)	
Tocantins-Araguaia	16,360	Brazil	Tocantins River	3,424	2011	MPA (2012)	2007
			Araguaia River	5,606	2006	Zacarkim et al., (2015)	
			Tucuruí Dam	7,330	2005	MPA (2012)	
Lake Titicaca	10,160	Bolivia	Lake Titicaca	2,000	n/a	FAO (2005)	1980
		Peru		8,160	1980	Orlove (1986); Levieil (1987)	
La Plata	63,849	Brazil	Itaipu Dam	1,192	1998	Agostinho et al.,(1999)	1998
		Brazil, Paraguay	Middla Paraná	60,000	n/a	Quirós et al.,(2004)	
		Brazil	Pananal Wetlands	1,450	1995	Catella et al., (1997)	Recreational
			Cuiba River	1,207	2000-2001	Mateus et al., (2004)	
Great Lakes Basin	19,083	United States	Lake Superior	1,233	2017	NOAA (2019)	2017
		Canada		295		OCHA (2019)	
		Indigenous		316	2014	Mattes, (2016)	

		United States	Lake Michigan	1,544	2017	NOAA (2019)		
		United States	Lake Huron	872	2017	NOAA (2019)		
		Canada		1,148		OCFA (2019)		
		United States	Lake Erie	2,190		NOAA (2019)		
		Canada		11,232		OCFA (2019)		Includes catches from Lake St Clair
		United States	Lake Ontario	31		NOAA (2019)		
		Canada		222		OCFA (2019)		
Mississippi	8,988-11,041	United States	Upper Mississippi*	4,559-6,612	1989-2005	GLMRIS (2012)		Catches from Illinois, Kaskaskia and Rock Rivers
			Lower Mississippi	3,751	n/a	IEC (2004)		Louisiana only
			Ohio River	678	2005	GLMRIS (2012)		Ohio, Wabash, Cumberland and Kentucky Rivers
Yukon	514	United States	Yukon	509	2018	JTC (2019)		Substantial
		Canada	commercial salmon fishery	5	2008	Environment (2010)	Yukon	recreational fishery 309,394 (n) fish caught between 2015-2018
Murray-Darling	3,433	Australia	Murray-Darling recreational fishery	3,433	2001	Henry and Lyle (2003)		2001
Sepik	3,000-5,000	Papua New Guinea	Sepik River*	3,000-5,000	n/a	Coates (1985)		
Fly	5,000-10,000	Guinea	Fly River*	5,000-10,000	n/a	Swales (2002)		

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