

# 1 **Safeguarding Freshwater Life Beyond 2020: Recommendations for the new** 2 **Global Biodiversity Framework from the European Experience**

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## 36 *Abstract*

37 The drafting of a new Global Biodiversity Framework for the Convention on Biological  
38 Diversity (CBD) and Biodiversity Strategy for the European Union (EU) render 2020 a critical  
39 crossroad for biodiversity conservation. Freshwater biodiversity is disproportionately threatened  
40 and poorly studied relative to marine and terrestrial biota, despite providing numerous essential  
41 ecosystem services. The urgency of the mounting freshwater biodiversity crisis necessitates  
42 approaches catered to the unique ecology and threats of freshwater life, which are not adequately  
43 addressed by current strategies. We present a set of 15 special recommendations for freshwater  
44 biodiversity to guide the CBD's post-2020 framework and the 2020 EU strategy based on  
45 European case studies, both challenges and successes. Our recommendations cover key  
46 outcomes and guiding concepts, enabling conditions and methods of implementation, planning  
47 and accountability modalities, and cross-cutting issues. They address topics including invasive  
48 species, integrated water resources management, strategic conservation planning, data  
49 management, and emerging technologies for freshwater monitoring, among others. These  
50 recommendations will enhance the ability of global and European post-2020 biodiversity  
51 agreements to halt and reverse the rapid global decline of freshwater biodiversity.

52

## 53 *Introduction*

54 Freshwater biodiversity—including aquatic organisms and those dependent upon  
55 wetlands and adjacent floodplains—is one of the most diverse and imperiled parts of the global  
56 biota (Strayer & Dudgeon, 2010; Vörösmarty et al., 2010; Reid et al., 2019). Freshwater  
57 ecosystems provide diverse and essential ecosystem services related to water security, carbon

58 sequestration and food supply (MEA, 2005; Grizzetti, Lanzaova, Liqueste, Reynaud & Cardoso,  
59 2016; Vollmer et al., 2018). These ecosystems face numerous anthropogenic threats, including  
60 invasive aquatic species (IAS), habitat fragmentation, and pollution, and they are dependent on  
61 the quality, quantity and timing of fresh water, an increasingly scarce resource (Shumilova,  
62 Tockner, Thieme, Koska & Zarfl, 2019; van Rees, Cañizares, Garcia, & Reed , 2019).  
63 Awareness of severe declines in freshwater biodiversity has increased over the past four decades,  
64 with freshwater species facing population declines as high as 83%, exceeding those in terrestrial  
65 and marine systems (WWF, 2018). Despite this high level of threat and strong ties to human  
66 wellbeing, freshwater ecosystems are consistently underrepresented in biodiversity research and  
67 conservation (Tydecks, Jeschke, Wolf, Singer, & Tocker, 2018; Mazor et al., 2018). There is no  
68 global framework to guide policy responses to the freshwater biodiversity crisis, and actions to  
69 safeguard it have been inadequate (Harrison et al. 2018, IPBES, 2019). Concerted research and  
70 policy actions at a global scale are needed to halt declines and safeguard the future of freshwater  
71 life and associated ecosystem services (Darwall et al., 2018).

72         The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) is the primary international convention  
73 for biodiversity conservation, and an important means by which such action could be achieved.  
74 In decision X/10, the CBD (2010) adopted the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020, but its  
75 targets have not been achieved, and global biodiversity continues to decline (IPBES, 2019).  
76 More recently, in decision 14/34 (CBD, 2019), the members created a Global Biodiversity  
77 Framework (GBF) for post-2020 actions, as a ‘stepping stone’ to help achieve its 2050 vision of  
78 “Living in Harmony with Nature” (a zero draft is now available; CBD, 2020). The regulations of  
79 this post-2020 framework must be adequate for tackling rapid biodiversity loss, especially with  
80 respect to freshwater.

81           Within Europe, there is a parallel process to adopt a new Biodiversity Strategy (European  
82 Commission, 2019; hereafter “Strategy”) also starting in 2020. A review of its predecessor  
83 reports useful progress, but a need for more ambition (European Commission, 2015). The  
84 Strategy reflects the commitments taken by the European Union (EU) to support the CBD, so  
85 similar considerations and priorities shape both initiatives. Although their revisions follow  
86 different processes, insights from the scientific community are essential to both.

87           In this contribution, we extend the ideas put forth by Tickner et al. (2020; Table 1) and  
88 provide freshwater-specific recommendations to guide the new GBF and Strategy. We have  
89 organized these recommendations to correspond with the organizational structure used by the  
90 CBD in their planning for the GBF (CBD, 2019), consisting of four clusters: 1) Outcome-  
91 oriented elements (vision, mission, goals, and targets), 2) enabling conditions and means of  
92 implementation (applied and logistical concerns), 3) planning and accountability modalities  
93 (monitoring, reporting, and review) and 4) cross-cutting approaches and issues. Given the  
94 parallels in timing and scope between the CBD and the Strategy, our goal is to simultaneously  
95 inform both agreements from a freshwater perspective, and to frame our recommendations at the  
96 international scale while drawing lessons and examples from the European experience. Before  
97 outlining our recommendations, we briefly review relevant policy mechanisms functioning at the  
98 global and European scale (Fig. 1) to provide a policy context to our recommendations.

### 99 *Policy Background - The Global Freshwater Conservation Context*

100           The Ramsar Convention on wetlands, founded in 1971, was the first global-scale political  
101 force in freshwater biodiversity conservation, focusing on sustainable management or ‘wise use’  
102 of wetland habitats. Its list of wetlands of international importance now covers 13-18% of the

103 global area of wetlands (Davidson & Finlayson, 2018), but outside of this, loss of wetlands, both  
104 inland and coastal, continues at the same pace as in the last century (Davidson, 2014; IPBES,  
105 2019) with more than 35% of area lost since 1970 (Ramsar, 2018).

*Table 1: Priority actions for bending the curve of freshwater biodiversity loss from Tickner et al. (2020).*

1. Accelerate implementation of environmental flows
2. Improve water quality
3. Protect and restore critical habitats
4. Manage exploitation of freshwater species and riverine aggregates
5. Prevent and control non-native species invasions
6. Safeguard and restore river connectivity

106 The adoption of the CBD in 1993 provided additional international impetus for the  
107 conservation of freshwater biodiversity, although it treats freshwaters as part of the terrestrial  
108 realm. The CBD Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 included 20 Aichi Biodiversity  
109 Targets. Two of the most relevant are Target 11, the conservation of terrestrial and inland waters  
110 and coastal and marine areas and Target 9, the prevention, eradication and control of IAS.

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Figure 1: Selected international conventions (above) and European policies (below) directly relevant to freshwater biodiversity conservation and restoration.

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116 Lastly, the Sustainable Development Agenda for 2030 integrates seventeen interlinked  
 117 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), adopted in 2015 by the United Nations as a successor  
 118 to the 2005 Millennium Development Goals. The SDGs guide national and international efforts  
 119 in biodiversity conservation and sustainable development. SDG 6 “Clean Water and Sanitation”  
 120 is inseparable from freshwater biodiversity given the ecosystem services provided by freshwater  
 121 ecosystems (MEA, 2005). In addition, Target 6.6 explicitly mentions the protection and  
 122 restoration of aquatic ecosystems including rivers, wetlands, aquifers and lakes, with their spatial  
 123 extent over time as a specific indicator. SDG 15 “Life on Land” is mainly concerned with  
 124 protection of forests and other terrestrial environments, only implicitly including inland waters.  
 125 Furthermore, SDG 14 “Life below water”, exclusively addresses marine life and coastal  
 126 ecosystems, neglecting freshwater biodiversity and dampening political awareness of the urgent  
 127 conservation needs of these systems (Darwall et al., 2018). Finally, SDG 13 calls for urgent

128 action to increase resilience to climate-change related impacts on society but makes no formal  
129 link to the role of freshwater ecosystems in achieving it.

### 130 *Policy Background - The European Freshwater Conservation Context*

131 Four directives are of special relevance for freshwater ecosystems in the European Union  
132 and are legally binding for EU member states. The Birds and Habitats Directives (BHD) are key  
133 legislation for the protection of Europe's most valuable habitats and species. EU member states  
134 need to achieve good conservation status of listed habitats and a selection of endangered and/or  
135 umbrella species by designating Special Protection Areas and enforcing appropriate protection  
136 and restoration measures.

137 The Water Framework Directive (WFD; Hering et al., 2010) integrates previous water-  
138 related Directives (Fig. 1) to establish an EU-wide basis for integrated water resources  
139 management (IWRM) with the overall aim to "secure good ecological status" for all natural  
140 water bodies measured in relation to biological and chemical quality, water quantity and  
141 connectivity. It does not explicitly cover wetlands or ecosystem services. The WFD is regarded  
142 as a pioneering legislation for the radical changes it catalyzed in how freshwater systems are  
143 assessed and managed (Carvalho et al., 2019) in a balance between nature protection and  
144 sustainable use (Hödl, 2018). Although the WFD references the need for action to mitigate the  
145 effects of droughts and floods as one of its five purposes, it is primarily regarded as an  
146 environmental directive. The Floods Directive (FD) was thus adopted to reduce and manage risks  
147 to society caused by flooding. The WFD only implicitly considers the impacts of IAS through  
148 the ecological status assessment of water bodies (Vandekerkhove, Cardoso, & Boon, 2013). In  
149 January 2015 EU regulation 1143/2014 on the prevention of the introduction and spread of IAS



150 entered into force, setting a common standard for combating IAS at the multinational scale  
151 (Tollington et al., 2017).

152 *Special Recommendations for Freshwater Biodiversity post-2020*

153 Having established the connection between the EU Strategy and the new Global  
154 Biodiversity Framework and the current policy context, we present our special recommendations  
155 (SRs; Fig. 2) for freshwater biodiversity. For each recommendation we provide a brief  
156 description of the rationale followed by ideas for its implementation in post-2020 frameworks.

157 *Outcome-oriented elements (vision and scope)*

158 *SR1: Fresh water should be considered a true ecological “third realm” that deserves*  
159 *legal and scientific prominence in future frameworks and strategies*

160 The severe population declines, critical ecosystem services and distinct ecological  
161 features and biodiversity associated with freshwater systems (e.g., connectivity at multiple  
162 scales, high level of endemism; Dudgeon et al., 2006) make them a separate ecological realm  
163 whose explicit recognition has important consequences for applied conservation. There is a need  
164 for separate policies on freshwater habitats and ecosystems, which are too often lumped in with  
165 terrestrial habitats (as non-marine) or with the marine environments (as aquatic). Future  
166 conservation agreements at global, continental and national scales should explicitly acknowledge  
167 freshwater ecosystems as a separate realm with distinct values, ecological dynamics, and  
168 conservation needs. For example, targets specifically directed to freshwater ecosystems could be  
169 added to SDG 13, 14, or 15. The delineation of freshwater protected areas should be improved  
170 where applicable, accounting for hydrological and biotic connections, to ensure that both

171 terrestrial and aquatic species are protected, and pressures reduced (SR3 & SR5). Besides a  
172 representative protected fraction of terrestrial ecoregions, a comparable target should be created  
173 for freshwater ecoregions (Abell et al., 2008), and key areas for freshwater biodiversity, such as  
174 free-flowing rivers and wetlands, should be protected and restored to the extent possible (e.g.  
175 Dinerstein et al., 2019).

176 *SR2: Freshwater ecosystems should be viewed and recognized as life supporting units*  
177 *that provide vital ecosystem functions and services in addition to their intrinsic value*

178 To protect freshwater biodiversity, national and international agreements must recognize  
179 the unique economic and cultural value of freshwater biodiversity and the essential services it  
180 provides, especially when considering multiple uses by under-represented and economically  
181 disadvantaged people (MEA, 2005). Functioning freshwater ecosystems offer many  
182 opportunities for nature-based solutions to water-related problems (Boelee et al., 2017). In  
183 Europe, the MARS project specifically examined practical methodologies for assessing and  
184 valuing ecosystem services in the context of the WFD's river basin planning (Grizzetti et al.,  
185 2019), a good example of the type of explicit accounting that will be necessary to properly value  
186 these ecosystems. It is important to note that many freshwater ecological phenomena, including  
187 services pertaining to water supply, cross political borders (Munia, Guillaume, Mirumachi,  
188 Wada, & Kummu, 2018), so watershed-based management of ecosystems (see SR5) is a  
189 necessary measure. Communicating the potential for functioning ecosystems to alleviate  
190 freshwater scarcity in an increasingly climate-uncertain future will strengthen the rationale for  
191 protecting freshwater ecosystems.

192            *SR3: Connectivity should be recognized as a vital and multi-dimensional part of*  
193 *conserving and managing freshwater ecosystems*

194            Hydrological connectivity across various scales (e.g., landscape or drainage) and  
195 dimensions (e.g., upstream-downstream, channel-floodplain, hyporheic interactions) is essential  
196 for maintaining freshwater biodiversity (Grill, et al., 2019). With 2.8 million dams constructed  
197 worldwide and the ongoing unabated trends of river impoundment, addressing impacts of habitat  
198 fragmentation and connectivity loss is one of the critical conservation challenges for freshwater  
199 (Zarfl et al., 2019). In Europe, policy-supported management around flooding and renewable  
200 energy (Hermoso, 2017) has relied heavily on dams and channelization, likely driving population  
201 declines in a range of freshwater taxa including sturgeons and paddlefish (Jarić, Riepe, &  
202 Gessner, 2018).

203            On the other hand, increasing connectivity through various anthropogenic activities can  
204 facilitate the spread of IAS to new regions and promote biotic homogenization (Strecker and  
205 Brittain, 2017). In Europe, this is illustrated by ongoing range extensions of aquatic Ponto-  
206 Caspian species following the opening of inter-basin canals (Bij de Vaate, Jazdzewski, ketelaars,  
207 Gollasch & Van der Velde, 2002), potentially reducing endemism (Rahel, 2007). In some  
208 situations, barriers to dispersal may help isolate IAS from vulnerable native species and may  
209 slow down the spread of disease and parasites, reducing extinction risk (Manenti et al., 2019).  
210 Mitigating measures should be considered when opening new artificial waterways between  
211 previously unconnected water bodies and the evidence base on conservation trade-offs between  
212 native and invasive species should be strengthened (see SR9).

213 Future policies in freshwater biodiversity should clearly emphasize the nuanced and  
214 complex relationship between biological and hydrological connectivity for freshwater life.  
215 Strategic planning frameworks (see SR13) that take connectivity into account (e.g., Hill et al.  
216 2018) should be applied to transparently balance competing interests.

217 *SR4: Conservation policies for freshwater ecosystems should emphasize restoration,*  
218 *leveraging the carbon sequestration potential of peatlands and other palustrine wetlands*

219 The pervasive degradation of wetland habitats, including those within protected areas  
220 (Acreman, Hughes, Arthington, Tickner, & Dueñas, 2019), makes habitat restoration as  
221 important as protecting additional space. Peatland drainage in Northern Europe has made the EU  
222 the second-highest global emitter of land-based greenhouse gases (Joosten, 2016), but rewetting  
223 and ecological restoration could massively reduce these emissions and lead to carbon  
224 sequestration (Moomaw et al., 2018). Accordingly, freshwater habitat restoration can  
225 simultaneously contribute to biodiversity and climate change goals. Future biodiversity policies  
226 should take advantage of this synergy by setting explicit, quantitative goals for the hydrological  
227 and ecological restoration of wetlands and other freshwater ecosystems. Dinerstein et al. (2019)  
228 outline actionable restoration goals which could guide goal setting for wetlands and other  
229 freshwater habitats.

230 *Enabling Conditions and Means of Implementation*

231 *SR5: Freshwater ecosystems should be managed and delineated at the watershed scale,*  
232 *considering their drainage networks, catchment areas and bordering ecotones*

233 Freshwater ecosystems do not function in isolation from their terrestrial and atmospheric  
234 context, but instead act as integrators or receivers of the effects of environmental change in the  
235 surrounding watershed (Dudgeon et al., 2006; Williamson, Saros, Vincent, & Smol, 2009). Their  
236 links to terrestrial and marine systems by both hydrological and biological mechanisms tie their  
237 fate to the ecological conditions of other realms of biodiversity that are often managed separately  
238 (Creech et al., 2017). Watershed-scale management is also necessary to accommodate  
239 transboundary freshwater ecosystems and prevent resource conflicts (Islam & Repella, 2015).

240 Abell, Allan, & Lehner (2007) proposed to integrate the protection of freshwater  
241 biodiversity focal areas (water features supporting targets of conservation concern) with  
242 catchment management, extending protection from riparian buffer zones to upstream areas. This  
243 could be augmented by combining the Freshwater Ecoregions of the World (Abell et al., 2008)  
244 with land-use management at large catchment scales (Paukert et al., 2017). In Europe, the WFD  
245 operates largely at the catchment or watershed scale and thus offers an exemplar for how the  
246 implementation of other biodiversity policies could be organized. The protection and restoration  
247 of freshwater ecosystems also requires a reduction in external pressures exerted by degradation  
248 of adjacent ecosystems to which they are connected (Schinegger, Trautwein, Melcher, &  
249 Schmutz, 2012); this calls for more effort in ‘mainstreaming’ freshwater biodiversity into other  
250 policy areas (SR6).

251 *SR6: Global conservation strategies should make use of system thinking to properly*  
252 *navigate the strong societal and economic importance of freshwaters*

253 The interactions of freshwater ecosystems with hydrology, other ecological realms, and  
254 society, (see SR2, SR3, SR5) lead to well-known characteristics of complexity, including

255 nonlinearity, historical character, and feedback loops (van Rees, Garcia, & Cañizares, 2019). In  
256 order to adapt to and manage this uncertainty, future policies affecting freshwater should adopt a  
257 system-thinking approach (*sensu* Zhang et al., 2018) to avoid managing them in isolation and  
258 excluding potentially important allochthonous variables (van Rees & Reed, 2015; Sendzimir,  
259 Magnuszewski, & Gunderson, 2018). Such policies would view freshwater ecosystems as  
260 complex systems embedded in and connected with other socio-ecological systems, and would  
261 focus on monitoring essential variables to understand system functioning across multiple scales  
262 (Levin et al., 2013; Waylen et al. 2019).

263 Different environmental goals are not always perfectly aligned; for example, decreasing  
264 carbon emissions via hydropower development can conflict with river and floodplain restoration.  
265 In Europe, conflicts arose between the Common Agricultural Policy and freshwater conservation  
266 priorities (Jansson, Höglind, Andersen, Hasler, & Gustafsson, 2019; Rouillard et al., 2018).  
267 Explicit recognition of tradeoffs is necessary: win-win solutions are not always possible, so  
268 decision-makers must pay close attention to potential conflicts between legislation protecting  
269 dependent freshwater biodiversity and that which governs other environmental resources.  
270 Implementing policies for freshwater biodiversity should therefore accommodate and manage  
271 potential conflicts arising from the strong coupling of freshwater ecosystems with water  
272 resources. Potential conflicts and tensions can also occur during the implementation of other  
273 non-environmental policies. The challenge of integration and mainstreaming is thus a topic  
274 where European experience offers useful insights, for example highlighting the need for  
275 initiatives across stages of policy implementation, but as yet no complete solutions are available  
276 (Waylen, Blackstock, Tindale, & Juárez-Bourke, 2019).

277            *SR7: Improved management and enforcement in existing freshwater protected areas*  
278   *should be prioritized*

279            In densely populated and developed areas as in much of the EU, the creation of new  
280   protected areas can be socially, politically and economically challenging (Maiorano et al., 2015).  
281   This challenge is exacerbated in freshwater ecosystems, where protection also creates direct  
282   conflicts with stakeholders using the same freshwater resource (van Rees & Reed, 2015); indeed  
283   water abstraction and poor enforcement in existing protected areas limit their value to freshwater  
284   biodiversity (Acreman, Hughes, Arthington, Tickner, & Dueñas, 2019). In the case of the EU,  
285   the Natura 2000 network, the Ramsar list of Wetlands of International Importance and other  
286   networks provide a great opportunity to enhance conservation effectiveness, because the  
287   geographic ranges of many threatened species overlap with their coverage and thus could benefit  
288   from improved management within them (Hermoso, Morán-Ordóñez, Canessa, & Brotons,  
289   2019b). By altering or improving habitat management in existing protected areas, substantial  
290   gains could be made for many listed species. Future policies should thus emphasize the political  
291   expediency and ecological effectiveness of intensifying management and enforcement in existing  
292   protected areas. This does not replace the need to protect additional natural areas, and this  
293   strategy should not viewed as an alternative to land acquisition for biodiversity conservation.

294            *SR8: The identification and adoption of flagship umbrella species is a valuable tool for*  
295   *mainstreaming freshwater biodiversity conservation*

296            Populations of the largest freshwater animals show dramatic declines (He et al., 2018).  
297   These and other charismatic species (e.g., Friedrich, 2018; van Rees, 2018) have been suggested  
298   as potential ambassadors of freshwater biodiversity that could help achieve both awareness and

299 habitat protection for many other imperiled species and ecosystems (Kalinkat et al., 2017). The  
300 need for freshwater flagship umbrella species is especially large given the low accessibility and  
301 visibility of many freshwater ecosystems and species (Kalinkat et al., 2017; van Rees, 2018).  
302 This approach has been implemented in only a few, localized contexts, but has great promise for  
303 outreach around freshwater conservation issues. Biodiversity strategies focused on freshwaters  
304 should not neglect the political power (*sensu* van Rees, Cañizares, Garcia, & Reed, 2019) of  
305 flagship species, and should take advantage of its conservation efficacy.

306 *SR9: Improve the global evidence base for IAS impacts and the selection of IAS indicators of*  
307 *freshwater habitat status*

308 IAS listings have direct implications through regulatory frameworks for pre- and post-  
309 border biosecurity and management, yet their impact can also be indirect. Lists of impactful  
310 species are used to assess ecological status of freshwater habitats (Vandekerkhove, Cardoso, &  
311 Boon, 2013) in the EU. Provisions on presence or density of specific IAS also apply to  
312 conservation status assessments. We recommend using clear criteria and transparent processes to  
313 select those species to ensure a coherent approach. In recent years, a wealth of qualitative and  
314 semi-quantitative protocols emerged to assess the potential impact of IAS and work has been  
315 done to improve their application in risk management. The Environmental Impact Classification  
316 of Alien Taxa (EICAT) scheme (Blackburn et al. 2014) provides a unified classification to assess  
317 trends in IAS impacts and management (Hawkins et al., 2015). Although EICAT does not link  
318 into regulatory frameworks like the EU IAS Regulation, it could be further applied to provide  
319 standardized assessments of IAS impacts on freshwater biodiversity. Harmonizing IAS listings  
320 improves consistency across different policy regimes for freshwater ecosystems (e.g., Natura  
321 2000, WFD), helps balance conservation trade-offs between native and invasive species (see



322 SR3) and provides biosecurity to tackle selected IAS. Established frameworks should be used to  
323 control pathways for deliberate or accidental introduction (CBD, 2014).

#### 324 *Planning and Accountability Modalities*

325 *SR10: Freshwater monitoring programmes should be reviewed and better coordinated*

326 Monitoring is essential to enabling adaptive (co)management, yet often given insufficient  
327 attention. Europe's WFD helpfully specifies a monitoring programme, and though improvements  
328 may be needed for it to fully inform management and policy needs (Waylen et al., 2019), its  
329 distinction between surveillance, operational, and investigative monitoring help ensure that  
330 monitoring allows consistent assessments of status, investigation of problems and appraisal of  
331 interventions. Opportunities for cost saving may arise from harmonization and data sharing with  
332 other policies. For example, within Europe WFD monitoring could be harmonized with  
333 monitoring under the BHD, FD, and international environmental agreements (e.g. CBD).

334 There is need to improve the long-term monitoring of important freshwater biodiversity  
335 variables (e.g., population size, species diversity, habitat quality indices) that are crucial to  
336 capturing ecological responses to anthropogenic and natural stressors, typically unfolding over  
337 decadal or longer time scales and potentially concealed by shifting baselines (Hillebrand et al.,  
338 2018). Europe's WFD mandates assessments of inland water bodies using multiple ecological  
339 indices (Birk et al., 2012), but this captures only a subset of the total biota at a given point in  
340 time. Further, there is no central data repository of raw data, impeding integrated data use in  
341 research (Hering et al., 2010). Additionally, monitoring in fresh waters has been geographically  
342 and taxonomically biased (Jackson et al., 2016; Alahuhta et al., 2018). We recommend financial  
343 and institutional support for monitoring and evaluation (including a dedicated freshwater

344 biodiversity monitoring scheme), as well as trans-national coordination and integration of  
345 databases (see SR11). International efforts like GLEON (Weathers et al., 2013) and ILTER  
346 (Mirtl et al., 2018) offer excellent examples of how global networks can coordinate data  
347 collection and make data available for both research and public/management.

348 *SR11: Freshwater biodiversity data should be managed according to the FAIR principles*  
349 *to support data mobilization and access*

350 The availability and rapid mobilization of large freshwater datasets is essential to  
351 assessing the impacts of multiple stressors and management interventions for freshwater  
352 biodiversity (Linke et al., 2019). Although most freshwater monitoring initiatives are publicly  
353 funded, the data generated are often difficult to obtain, impeding efficient analysis of large-scale  
354 trends (Schmidt-Kloiber et al., 2019; De Wever, Schmidt-Kloiber, Bremerich, & Freyhof, 2019).  
355 Adherence to the FAIR data principles (*findable, accessible, interoperable, and reusable*;  
356 Wilkinson et al., 2016) as well as the development of institutional Open Data policies and  
357 mandating data availability upon the publication of scientific papers (De Wever, Schmidt-  
358 Kloiber, Gessner, & Tockner, 2012) are essential for improving access to freshwater data.  
359 Strategies advocating the collation of biodiversity data according to FAIR principles are already  
360 implemented within the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF). Additionally, the  
361 Freshwater Information Platform (FIP) in Europe is an excellent example of a knowledge base  
362 for freshwater biodiversity information (including a repository) that could guide similar  
363 endeavors.

364 *SR12: Future biodiversity monitoring schemes should take advantage of novel research*  
365 *methods and data sources*

366 Very few data are available on the occurrence and distribution of most freshwater  
367 species, particularly for taxa like parasites, meiofauna, protists, fungi, and bacteria (Grossart,  
368 2019), although these play a critical role in ecosystem functions (Gessner et al., 2007). This lack  
369 of available information greatly hinders our knowledge of species composition and community  
370 dynamics for many groups. Improved methods for routine applications harbor great potential for  
371 reducing these gaps, for example making better use of earth observation and remotely-sensed  
372 spatial data products (Carvalho et al., 2019). Emerging methods include eDNA for species  
373 detection, metabarcoding, metagenomics and metatranscriptomics of bulk environmental  
374 samples for taxon diversity, proteomics approaches for functional processes, and *in situ* high-  
375 frequency monitoring (Pochardt et al., 2019; Pont et al, 2019). Monitoring can also benefit from  
376 non-traditional data sources outside of environmental agencies and academia (Waylen et al.,  
377 2019), including citizen science (e.g., Biggs et al., 2015) and internet data sources. The recently  
378 established field of conservation culturomics (Ladle et al., 2016) uses large bodies of digital text  
379 or other public data to analyze the interactions of humans with nature and biodiversity. Future  
380 strategies that support research and development of these and other emerging research methods  
381 would strongly benefit the conservation of freshwater biodiversity.

382 *SR13: Future policies should encourage strategic planning in watershed management to*  
383 *balance human and wildlife water needs*

384 Freshwater ecosystems are subject to heavy and often conflicting demands for ecosystem  
385 services due to the distinct goals of stakeholders, actors, related policies and disciplines.  
386 Reconciling resource conservation with usage demands and balancing competing interests  
387 requires strategic planning (Seliger et al., 2016). Strategic planning integrates information on  
388 species distributions, ecosystem services (both supply and demand), management priorities,

389 connectivity among ecosystems, and SMART targets (*sensu* Perrings et al., 2010) in a  
390 systematic, transparent, and repeatable process. Current approaches include frameworks such as  
391 multicriteria decision analysis (Langhans et al., 2019), or spatial optimization algorithms  
392 (Álvarez-Miranda, Salgado-Rojas, Hermoso, Garcia-Gonzalo, & Weintraub, 2019). Many  
393 freshwater-specific improvements on existing spatial planning and decision support tools have  
394 been developed (Hermoso et al., 2011) that consider the idiosyncrasies of planning in a  
395 freshwater context, including social equity and fairness (Domisch et al., 2019). Freshwater  
396 biodiversity management in the coming decade should take advantage of the decision support  
397 resources available for navigating the complexity of freshwater ecosystems and societal  
398 demands. Such support tools do not by themselves remove conflicts between goals (see also  
399 SR6) but can inform and enhance deliberation about how to handle recalcitrant trade-offs.

#### 400 *Cross-cutting issues and approaches*

401 *SR14: National biodiversity strategies and priorities, especially with regards to freshwater*  
402 *species listing and protection, should be better contextualized by global Red List assessments*

403 The IUCN Red List is the most comprehensive global source of information on species  
404 extinction risk and represents a central information resource to set conservation priorities  
405 (Rodrigues, Pilgrim, Lamoreux, Hoffman, & Brooks, 2006). The Red List already contains  
406 information about >30,000 freshwater species, and could be used more directly to inform  
407 conservation priorities, for example in the EU. A large proportion of threatened biodiversity in  
408 the EU is not adequately covered by the BHD; this is especially the case for freshwater species.  
409 Only 14% of threatened freshwater fish, 3% of non-marine molluscs and 19% of dragonflies (on  
410 IUCN Red Lists) are included in the BHD (Hermoso, Morán-Ordóñez, Canessa, & Brotons,

411 2019a; Kalkman et al. 2010). These gaps limit the EU's capacity to respond effectively to current  
412 and future conservation challenges. Where bureaucratic and political obstacles make revisions of  
413 national priorities difficult, Red-Listed species could receive special funding through other  
414 internal programs (e.g., LIFE in the EU; Hermoso, 2017). Red-Listed species that are not  
415 nationally protected could be highlighted using alternative mechanisms at the national scale like  
416 Prioritized Action Frameworks and site management planning in the EU Natura 2000 system.

417 *SR15: Future policies should clarify and enhance the interactions between IWRM and ecological*  
418 *research for freshwater biodiversity conservation*

419 IWRM has quickly become the global standard for sustainably managing freshwater  
420 resources and addressing transboundary water conflicts (Allouche, 2016), and governs  
421 management in the WFD. However, its stakeholder-based, Habermasian approach is not readily  
422 compatible with the highly technical nature of freshwater ecological data required for including  
423 conservation goals in water management (Smith & Clausen, 2018; van Rees, Cañizares, Garcia,  
424 & Reed, 2019). The prevalence of multiple stressors on freshwater ecosystems (Ormerod,  
425 Dobson, Hildrew, & Townsend, 2010) further increases the technical complexity of this  
426 ecological information. Flow-response relationships (Tonkin et al., 2019) and other ecological  
427 knowledge are essential for reconciling and predicting ecological impacts with societal water  
428 needs, but interdisciplinary research is needed to bridge the gap between the 'top-down' nature  
429 of ecological research and the bottom-up process of IWRM. Future policies should make use of  
430 emerging frameworks (e.g., van Rees, Cañizares, Garcia, & Reed, 2019) to ensure that the

431 implementation of IWRM considers the myriad interactions between human societies, freshwater  
 432 resources, and wildlife.

433

434



*Fig. 2: Summary of the SRs organized around the four clusters of the GBF planning process*

435 *Concluding remarks*

436           The protection of freshwater life is critical given the ecosystem services, diversity, and  
437 levels of threat associated with freshwater ecosystems. Strong policy responses at the global and  
438 national scale are needed to support the monitoring, planning, management, and conflict  
439 resolution necessary to slow and reverse losses of freshwater biodiversity, and now is the time  
440 for decisive action (Tickner et al., 2020). Our 15 recommendations (Fig. 2) for both the post-  
441 2020 Global Biodiversity Framework and European Biodiversity Strategy outline a suite of  
442 changes needed to protect freshwater life. These recommendations draw on an extensive review  
443 of current literature and decades of practical experience in freshwater research and conservation  
444 in Europe. Our list of recommendations is by no means exhaustive, but distils important points  
445 that are of shared relevance at the European and global scale. Some of these (e.g., SRs 10, 11 and  
446 14) are also applicable to terrestrial and marine biodiversity. Additional recommendations from  
447 other regions, specifically low- and middle-income countries and the Global South, are also  
448 greatly needed to guide future management.

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458

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