

Public perception of river fish biodiversity in four European countries

Sophia Kochalski [®] <u>https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1412-7112</u>, Carsten Riepe [®] <u>http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9148-210X</u>, Marie Fujitani [®] <u>http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5445-7629</u>, Øystein Aas [®] <u>http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0688-4049</u>, Robert Arlinghaus [®] <u>https://https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2861-527X</u>

DOI 10.1111/cobi.13180

Original publication date 28 June 2018 (Version of record online)

Document version Accepted version

Published in Conservation Biology

Citation

Kochalski S, Riepe C, Fujitani M, Aas O, Arlinghaus R. Public perception of river fish biodiversity in four European countries. Conservation Biology. 2018.

Disclaimer

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Kochalski S, Riepe C, Fujitani M, Aas O, Arlinghaus R. Public perception of river fish biodiversity in four European countries. Conservation Biology. 2018. which has been published in final form at https://doi.org/10.1111/cobi.13180. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.

Public perception of river fish biodiversity in four European countries

2 Sophia Kochalski¹, Carsten Riepe¹, Marie Fujitani^{1,2}, Øystein Aas^{3,4}, Robert Arlinghaus^{1,5}

3 1 Leibniz-Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries, Müggelseedamm 310, 12587 Berlin, Germany

4 2 Leibniz Centre for Tropical Marine Research, Fahrenheitstraße 6, 28359 Bremen, Germany

5 3 Norwegian Institute for Nature Research, Vormstuguvegen 40, 2624 Lillehammer, Norway

6 4 Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Universitetstunet 3, 1430 Ås, Norway

7 5 Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Unter den Linden 6, 10099 Berlin, Germany

8

9 **Abstract:** Public support for biodiversity conservation is shaped by people's values and their knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes toward the environment. We conducted the first multinational representative 10 survey of the general public's perceptions of river fish biodiversity in France, Germany, Norway, and 11 12 Sweden. For the online survey, 1000 respondents per country were randomly selected from large 13 panels following country-specific quotas set on age, gender, and educational level. Questions covered people's level of knowledge, beliefs, values, and attitudes toward river fish, environmental threats, and 14 conservation measures. We found that the public had limited knowledge of freshwater fishes. Two non-15 native species, rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) and brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis), were widely 16 perceived as native, whereas native Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) was mostly classified as native in 17 18 Scandinavia and largely as non-native in central Europe. These results suggest an extinction of 19 experience paralleling the extirpation or decline of salmon stocks in countries such as Germany and 20 France. Respondents thought pollution was the dominant threat to riverine fish biodiversity. In reality, habitat loss, dams, and the spread of non-native fishes are equally important. Despite limited biological 21 22 knowledge, respondents from all countries held an overwhelmingly pro-ecological worldview, 23 supported conservation stocking, and appreciated native fishes, although only a minority interacted 24 with them directly. Differences among the 4 countries related to several conservation issues. For 25 example, threats to biodiversity stemming from aquaculture were perceived as more prevalent in Norway compared with the other 3 countries. Promoting fish conservation based on charismatic species 26

and use values of fishes may work well in countries with a strong economic and cultural link to the
freshwater environment, such as Norway. In countries where people rather abstractly care for nature,
focusing conservation messaging on broader ecosystem traits and non-use values of fishes is likely to
win more support.

Keywords: attitudes, biodiversity loss, communications, conservation planning, environmental threats,
 freshwater ecosystems, public opinion, species introduction

33

35

34 Introduction

through habitat modification and simplification, water abstraction, alteration of flow regimes, pollution,

The intense use of rivers by humans worldwide has affected riverine biodiversity and freshwater fishes

- eutrophication, and local overfishing (Dudgeon et al. 2006). Consequently, species extinction rates in
- freshwater ecosystems are surpassing those in terrestrial and marine ecosystems (Pimm et al. 2014),
- 39 with between one quarter and over one-third of freshwater fish species being threatened or extinct in
- 40 Europe (Freyhof & Brooks 2011), North America (Jelks et al. 2008), and Africa (Darwall et al. 2011). A
- 41 prominent example is sturgeon (*Acipenser* spp.), for which all but 1 species are listed as critically
- 42 endangered (Freyhof & Brooks 2011). New threats posed by climate change (Heino et al. 2015) and the
- 43 invasion of ecosystems by non-native species (Gozlan et al. 2010) will likely increase over the next
- 44 decades with the potential to further reduce freshwater biodiversity.

Environmental policies introduced to address the freshwater biodiversity crisis are driven and affected by people's priorities and their support for conservation (Walker-Springett et al. 2016). These priorities follow prevailing cultural values and material conditions (Inglehart 1997), meaning they are based on both objectively measurable conditions of the environment and the people's subjective interpretation of nature (Eder 1996). For example, the degree to which people are willing to tolerate wildlife close to their homes is more strongly correlated with the perceived danger from wild animals than with the

number of dangerous incidents (Kansky & Knight 2014). In a similar vein, political ideology can be more
important for the perception of climate change as environmental threat than scientific descriptions of
the phenomenon (Weber 2010). In short, it is the social and cultural context that shapes the mental
classification scheme through which an individual and collectively society makes sense of the world;
therefore, people in different countries are likely to vary in what they find acceptable, desirable, and
important (Schwartz 2006; Manfredo 2008).

Several multi- and cross-national studies have been conducted to examine the impact of sociocultural 57 factors on the public's perception of the marine environment (Ahtiainen et al. 2013; Gelcich et al. 2014; 58 59 Potts et al. 2016). In comparison, it is less known how the public in different countries perceive freshwater biodiversity (Closs et al. 2015). Based on studies of other environmental issues, the 60 61 expectations among conservation biologists and fisheries scientists are somewhat bleak. The public is expected to be largely ignorant and complacent about environmental quality and biodiversity loss 62 (Angermeier 2007; Monroe et al. 2009; Closs et al. 2015). People are thought to have a weak 63 connection to freshwater fish and to prefer birds and charismatic mammals (Cooke et al. 2013; Closs et 64 al. 2015) as well as to value direct use of freshwater environments more than biodiversity (Monroe et 65 66 al. 2009; Beard et al. 2011; Cooke et al. 2013).

67 Using a cross-cultural online survey, our objectives were to understand whether the members of the 68 public in 4 European countries care about freshwater fishes (values), what people know about fish 69 biodiversity (knowledge), how they view threats to native fish species (beliefs), and what this means for 70 public support for specific conservation measures (attitudes). We used measures of values, knowledge, 71 beliefs, and attitudes following sociopsychological theory that has shown that these constructs play a 72 large role in driving pro-environmental behaviors (Stern 2000; Manfredo 2008; Klöckner 2013). The selection of surveyed countries was based on the study's interest for charismatic migratory fish species. 73 74 We surveyed 2 central European countries – Germany and France – where rivers are heavily altered by humans and Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) has been extirpated (Germany) or is rare (France), and 2 75

76	Scandinavian countries – Norway and Sweden – where Atlantic salmon is still present. We also assumed
77	the 4 countries differ in how the public uses and interacts with freshwater ecosystems. Taking
78	recreational fishing as an example activity, previous research suggests the 4 countries form clusters of
79	low (Germany, 4.0%; France, 8.2%) and high recreational use (Norway, 32.2%; Sweden, 23.0%)
80	(Arlinghaus et al. 2015).

81

82 Methods

83 Survey administration and sampling

84 The survey was administered over the internet in September 2015 using large, high-quality online 85 panels with 40,000–100,000 members/country. Panel members were recruited previously by phone with a random digit-dialing method as sampling frame. This probability-based approach to panel 86 87 recruitment avoids the self-selection bias of nonrandom consumer panels that rely on voluntary participants (opt-in panels) (Baker et al. 2010). To avoid respondent fatigue, panel members are invited 88 89 to participate in a survey at a maximum of 6 times/year. 90 Respondents were randomly selected from the panels and invited via email to participate in the survey. 91 Up to 3 reminder emails were sent during the survey period of 21 days. Data collection conformed to the rules given by the national Data Protection Acts as well as standards for social research as outlined 92 by the European Society for Opinion and Market Research (ESOMAR & GRBN 2015; ICC & ESOMAR 93 94 2016). The sample selection followed country-specific quotas set on age groups, gender, and the 95 highest education level achieved according to census data (Eurostat 2015). We removed 287 respondents from the sample with implausibly low response times (speeding), 3 respondents who gave 96 the same answers in more than 3 grids (straight lining), and respondents who answered <20% of all 97 questions (item nonresponse) (Groves et al. 2011). Aside from these cases of potentially fraudulent or 98

inattentive participants, 4844 persons started the questionnaire. Overall, 17.4% (n = 844) of the initial
sample quit participating.

101	The final sample of 1000 respondents/country, aged 16 to 74 years, approximated a
102	representative sample relative to the previously defined quota characteristics. Further respondent
103	characteristics are described in Supporting Information. We defined our study population as the general
104	population with internet access, which covered from 83% (France) to 97% (Norway) of all private
105	households (Germany, 90%; Sweden, 91%) (Eurostat 2016). In December 2016, 61% of the respondents
106	took part in a follow-up survey of which one question about Atlantic salmon was relevant for this study.

107 Survey questions

108 The 2015 guestionnaire covered human values and the value of native fish populations; self-reported 109 and revealed knowledge; beliefs about environmental threats; and attitudes toward conservation and 110 management measures. The assumption that the countries would differ in relation to outdoor activities bound to water was verified by asking respondents about their recreational activities (Supporting 111 Information). In 2016, respondents were surveyed again and asked whether they thought that salmon 112 and Atlantic salmon were native to 6 European countries, including their own. All questions were 113 114 worded using neutral and accessible language. The questions were pretested with experts in freshwater ecology and members of the public. The final survey was translated professionally into German, French, 115 Norwegian (Bokmål), and Swedish. Pilot interviews ($n = 4 \times 30$) resulted in only minor adaptations of the 116 117 questionnaire.

118 Environmental values were measured with 3 items from the Schwartz (2012) value scale (e.g.,

119 "respecting the earth, living in harmony with other animal and plant species") using a 5-point response 120 format (1, not at all important, to 5, very important). Cronbach's reliability coefficient for this scale was 121 high ($\alpha = 0.89$). See Supporting Information for the scale's item wording. The use and non-use values of 122 native fish populations were assessed (from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree) using 6 items

adapted from ecosystem valuation frameworks (Hein et al. 2006) (e.g., "Native fish populations should
be protected for their own sake").

125 Concerning knowledge about native biodiversity and threats from non-native fishes, respondents were 126 asked for a self-assessment (1, not informed at all, to 4, very well informed). Familiarity with river fish 127 species was assessed by presenting the respondents with 3 native freshwater (brown trout [Salmo 128 trutta], grayling [Thymallus thymallus], and bream [Abramis brama]), 2 non-native salmonids (rainbow trout [Oncorhynchus mykiss] and brook trout [Salvelinus fontinalis]), and 3 native diadromous species 129 (Atlantic salmon, sturgeon, and European eel [Anguilla anguilla]). In Scandinavia, sturgeon is only native 130 to the south. Another species, barbel (Barbus barbus), is a key species for the fish-based zonation of 131 rivers in central Europe, but is not native to Scandinavia. Respondents were asked whether they had 132 133 heard of the species and, if they answered affirmatively, whether they thought the species was native to the inland waters of their country. 134

People also rated the contribution of 5 threats to fish biodiversity loss (1, no contribution at all, to 4, a

136 very strong contribution). The items reflected major threat categories for freshwater biodiversity

137 (Dudgeon et al. 2006). Attitudes toward conservation and management actions were assessed based on

138 10 items ranked in a 5-point response format (1, very bad, to 5, very good). The items represented

139 factual information about non-native fish species, stocking as a common practice in fisheries

140 management, and coastal aquaculture.

141 Data analysis

We used factor analysis with orthogonal Varimax rotation to structure our data and identify indicator
items of underlying latent constructs for the established Schwartz value scale. We used principal
component analysis to reduce correlated observed attitude items to a smaller set of composite scores.
Items with high loadings on the same factor were aggregated to form composite scores as measures of
these constructs. Individual items and composite scores that were collected on Likert-type rating scales

were analyzed for country differences using the Kruskal–Wallis test and the Tukey–Kramer (Nemenyi)
test for pairwise post hoc comparisons. The familiarity with native and non-native fish species was
compared between countries with Pearson's chi-squared tests. All data were analyzed with R version
3.2.2.

151

152 **Results**

153 Environmental values and the value of native fish populations

- 154 Basic environmental values were assessed with 3 items representing one construct (73% explained
- variance); it was labeled harmony with nature. This construct was rated, on average, as important in all
- 4 countries. However, for Norwegians (n = 1000, M = 3.6, SD 0.9) followed by the French (n = 1000, M =
- 157 3.8, SD 0.9) achieving harmony with nature was slightly less important than for the respondents in
- 158 Germany (n = 995, M = 3.9, SD 0.9) and Sweden (n = 999, M = 3.9, SD 0.9). This difference was
- 159 statistically significant (Kruskal–Wallis H = 75.3, df = 3, p < 0.001).

160 Coinciding with their values, respondents in all countries highly appreciated native fish populations for 161 their non-use value and less so for their use value (Table 1). The French agreed significantly less than the other countries with the importance of the existence value (H = 61.9, df = 3, p < 0.001) and bequest 162 value (H = 53.6, df = 3, p < 0.001) of native fish populations. Norwegians appreciated native fish 163 populations not only for their non-use but also for the use value that fish bring to humans (Table 1). In 164 165 comparison to other countries, Norwegians also disagreed most strongly with the idea that they would not personally benefit from the protection of native fish populations (option value: H = 264, df = 3, p < 100166 167 0.001), and they agreed most strongly with the need to preserve fish populations for the benefits of others (altruistic value; H = 700, df = 3, p < 0.001). French respondents, on average, expressed stronger 168 use values relative to the other 3 countries (Table 1). The other respondents, particularly the Germans 169 170 and Swedes, tended to disagree on average with the direct-use value of native fish populations for the

- respondents' own benefit (H = 297, df = 3, p < 0.001) and human benefit in general (H = 186, df = 3, p < 0.001)
- 172 0.001) and focused on the non-use benefits derived from the existence and bequest value of fishes
- 173 (Table 1).

174 Table 1. Mean (SD) approval (1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree) of survey respondents from 4 countries to protect

- 175 native fish populations for their non-use (existence and bequest value) or use values (direct use, option and altruistic
- 176 value).^{*a,b,c,d*}

Value category	Survey item	Germany	France	Norway	Sweden	Н ^е
Existence value	Native fish populations should be protected for their own sake.	4.2a (0.8)	4.0c (0.9)	4.1b (1.0)	4.0bc (0.9)	61.9
Bequest value	I think it is good to preserve native fish populations to maintain an environment worth living in for our children and future generations.	4.3a (0.8)	4.1b (0.9)	4.3a (0.9)	4.3a (0.9)	53.6
Altruistic value	Native fish populations should primarily be preserved for the benefit of others.	2.6d (1.2)	3.3b (1.0)	3.9a (1.0)	2.8c (1.1)	700
Option value	I wouldn't benefit in any way from the protection and conservation of native fish populations. ^f	3.3b (1.2)	3.1a (1.0)	3.8c (1.2)	3.1a (1.2)	264
Direct use value	Native fish populations should primarily be managed for human benefit.	2.5d (1.1)	3.2a (1.2)	2.9b (1.2)	2.7c (1.2)	186
	Native fish populations are valuable only if I get to use them in some way.	2.0b (1.0)	2.6a (1.2)	1.9c (1.0)	2.0b (1.1)	297
Number of observations		998	998	998	992	

^{a,b,c,d} Any 2 means in a row that do not share a letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) according to pairwise comparisons
 made with the Tukey–Kramer (Nemenyi) test.

^e Differences between countries were tested for significance with the Kruskal–Wallis test.

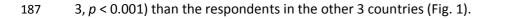
- 180 ^f Scoring reversed because of negatively worded item.
- 181

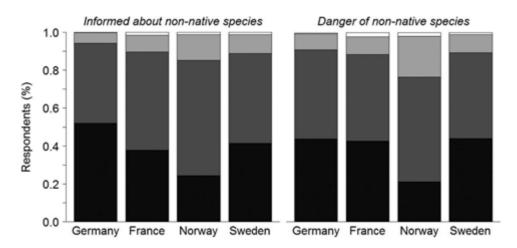
182 Self-reported and revealed knowledge related to fish biodiversity

183 A large majority of the respondents stated that they did not feel well informed about fish biodiversity

- 184 (89%) and the potential threats posed by non-native fishes to the rivers in the respective countries
- 185 (86%). Norwegians felt, on average, significantly better informed about fish biodiversity (*H* = 1

186 71.9, df = 3, p < 0.001) and about possible biological threats posed by non-native fishes (H = 208.2, df =



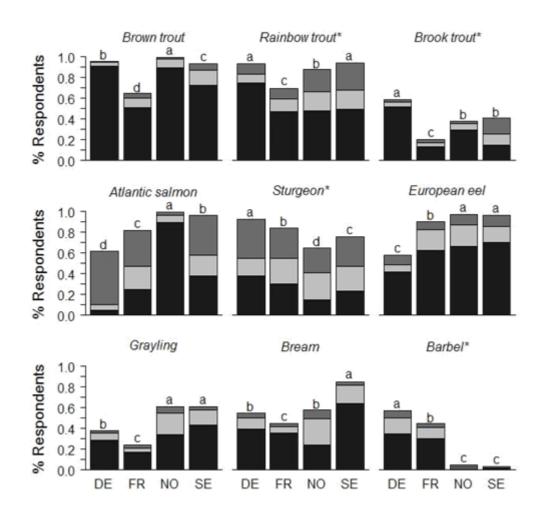


188

189 Figure 1. Self-reported level of feeling informed about fish biodiversity (n = 4000) and the threats caused by the introduction 190 of non- native fish species (n = 3991) (black, not informed at all; dark gray, not well informed; light gray, well informed; 191 white, very well informed). 192 193 Over 85% of the respondents in Germany, Sweden, and Norway indicated they had heard of the 194 salmonids brown trout and rainbow trout, whereas in France, these species were significantly less known (brown trout: 64%; rainbow trout: 70%). Two other salmonids, brook trout and grayling, were 195 196 less well known overall (Fig. 2). Atlantic salmon and the other diadromous fishes in the survey – sturgeon and European eel – were recognized in the 2015 survey by at least 85% (salmon, eel) and at 197 least 79% (sturgeon) of the respondents. Atlantic salmon and European eel were well known in Norway 198 199 and Sweden (>96%), but significantly less so in France (81%) and Germany (58%). In contrast, sturgeon 200 was significantly better known in Germany (92%) and France (84%) than in Norway (65%) and Sweden (76%). The same was true for the cyprinid barbel, which was recognized by less than 5% of respondents 201 in the Scandinavian countries, but by about half of the respondents in Germany and France (Fig. 2). 202 203 Bream was recognized by half of the respondents in Germany, France, and Norway, and by 85% of the 204 Swedish respondents (Fig. 2). 205 When a respondent indicated familiarity with a fish species, the next question asked whether the

respondent believed the fish species was native or non-native. Rainbow trout and brook trout – 2

salmonids introduced to Europe a century ago – were perceived by over half the respondents as native
 (Fig. 2). Two native migratory fish species, Atlantic salmon and sturgeon, were perceived by only 40% of
 the respondents as native species (Fig. 2). The exception to this pattern was Norway, where 90% of the
 respondents correctly considered Atlantic salmon as a native species to their country.



211

Figure 2. Familiarity of 1000 respondents in Germany (DE), France (FR), Norway (NO), and Sweden (SE) with fish species (1, familiar; 0, unfamiliar) and their perceived native* or non-native origin to inland waters (black, native; light gray, unsure or don't know; dark gray, not native) (species not native to all, some, or parts of the 4 countries). Differences between countries for the familiarity with fish species were tested for significance with the Kruskal-Wallis test. Any 2 bars that do not share a letter are significantly different (*p* < 0.05) according to pairwise comparisons made with the Tukey–Kramer (Nemenyi) test.

218

```
A follow-up question that was asked in 2016 showed that respondents from all countries associated
```

- salmon with the Scandinavian countries Norway (82-97% of respondents) and Sweden (77-92%), but to
- a lesser degree with the central European countries Germany (34-58%) and France (28-61%), the
- landlocked Czech Republic (28-36%), and the southern European country Spain (8-29%) (Table 2),

although in reality, Atlantic salmon is native to all 6 countries. This pattern remained the same when
asking about Atlantic salmon rather than salmon (Table 2). In comparison with salmon, more people
believed Atlantic salmon to be native in France (32-59% of respondents across countries) and Spain (2126%), and fewer people believed it to be native in Norway (78-95%), Sweden (56-74%), Germany (1835%), and the Czech Republic (6-21%).

228Table 2. Percentage of survey respondents *a* in Germany (*n* = 642), France (*n* = 578), Norway (*n* = 500), and Sweden (*n* = 586)229who perceived salmon and Atlantic salmon as native in 6 European countries (Czech Republic [CZ], France [FR], Germany230[DE], Norway [NO], Spain [ES], and Sweden [SE]).

	Salmon native to country					Atlantic salmon native to count				country	
Respondent country	CZ	FR	DE	NO	ES	SE	Cž	Z FR	DE	NO	ES SE
Germany	30	32	58	96	8	92	8	42	29	87	24 74
France	33	61	44	82	27	77	21	59	31	78	26 72
Norway	36	40	51	97	29	92	11	32	35	95	23 70
Sweden	28	28	34	94	18	92	6	36	18	88	21 56

^a Most of the data presented in this study was obtained in 2015. The information underpinning this table was obtained during a follow-up survey in 2016.

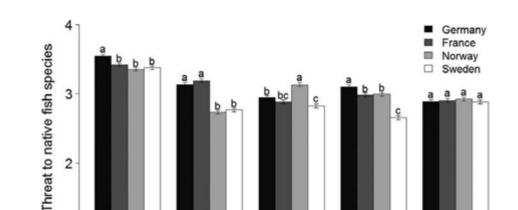
233 Beliefs about environmental threats to riverine fishes

231 232

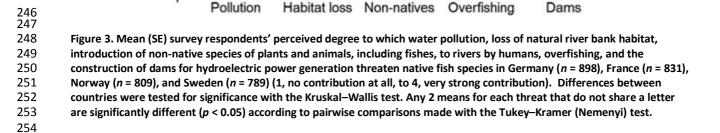
- 234 With regard to environmental threats, respondents in all 4 countries believed that water pollution
- contributed most to fish biodiversity loss (mean [SD] = 3.4 [0.72]) (Fig. 3). Averaged across the 4
- countries, the second most serious threat was perceived to be habitat loss (mean = 3.0 [0.76]), followed by
- the introduction of non-native species (mean = 2.9 [0.80]) and overfishing (mean = 2.9 [0.86]). Dams built
- for hydropower plants were overall seen as the least serious threat (mean = 2.9 [0.77]) (Fig. 3), and the
- concern about this threat was equal in all 4 countries (H = 0.7, df = 3, p = 0.878). The French were
- significantly more concerned about water pollution (H = 65.9, df = 3, p < 0.001) than respondents in the
- other countries. Habitat loss was seen as a significantly more pronounced threat in Germany and France
- than in Sweden and Norway (*H* = 242.7, df = 3, *p* < 0.001). Norwegians were significantly more concerned

about non-native species (H = 65.4, df = 3, p < 0.001), and the Germans about overfishing (H = 123.1, df

= 3, p < 0.001) compared with the respondents in the other 3 countries. The Swedes were least 244



245 concerned of all countries about both non-native species and overfishing (Fig. 3).



Attitudes toward fish conservation and management measures 255

- The reestablishment of Atlantic salmon and sturgeon to rivers where they had been extirpated through 256
- 257 human influence was supported in all 4 countries, and the approval was significantly highest in Germany

(H = 312, df = 3, p < 0.001; Table 3). Culture-based enhancement stocking of rainbow trout and brook trout 258

- 259 (both non-native species) for fisheries purposes received less support than conservation stocking of
- Atlantic salmon and sturgeon; however, people did also not oppose it on average (Table 3). In Germany, 260
- culture-based stocking of brook trout and rainbow trout was viewed more positively relative to the 261
- other 3 countries (*H* = 295, df = 3, *p* < 0.001). 262

1

263	Table 3. Mean (SD) attitudes (1, very bad, to 5, very good) of survey respondents from 4 countries toward conservation
264	stocking (2 items), culture-based enhancement stocking (3 items), aquaculture management (3 items), and the biodiversity
265	risk of aquaculture (2 items). ^{<i>a,b,c,d</i>}

266

stocking (2 iten	ns), culture-based	enhancement stocking	g (3 items), aquacul	ture management (3 i	tems), and the biod	iversity
risk of aquacult	ure (2 items). ^{a,b,c,d}	I				

Survey item	Loading	Germany	France	Norway	Sweden	H e
Conservation stocking	-	4.2a (0.8)	3.7b (1.0)	3.5c (1.1)	3.6bc (1.0)	312
Sturgeon are being reintroduced by	0.904	4.2a (0.8)	3.7b (1.0)	3.4c (1.1)	3.6c (1.0)	330

Number of observations		998	999	997	996	
trout unintentionally escape from fish farms into the wild and then interbreed with their wild conspecifics. Sometimes Atlantic salmon and rainbow trout unintentionally escape from fish farms into the wild and then transmit parasites or diseases to their wild conspecifics.	0.784	1.6b (0.7)	2.0a (1.0)	1.4c (0.7)	1.6b (0.8)	201
Biodiversity risk of aquaculture Sometimes Atlantic salmon and rainbow	- 0.861	<i>2.1b (0.9)</i> 2.6a (0.8)	2.4a (1.1) 2.7a (1.0)	1.7d (0.8) 1.9c (0.9)	<i>2.0c (0.9)</i> 2.5b (0.9)	<i>442</i> 488
cages placed in coastal zones or in fish farms on land for human consumption.			/>		/	
achieve a higher slaughter weight. It is possible to intentionally alter the expression of specific genes of salmon and trout to achieve a higher slaughter weight. Across Europe, Atlantic salmon and rainbow trout are often bred in net	0.795 0.585	1.7b (0.9) 2.7b (1.1)	2.2a (1.0) 2.8ab (1.0)	2.2a (1.0) 2.8ab (1.1)	2.1a (1.0) 2.9a (1.0)	135 14.9
Rainbow trout raised in fish farms can be made infertile by thermal treatment of eggs. As a result they	0.860	2.0d (0.9)	2.3b (1.0)	2.5a (1.0)	2.2c (1.0)	143
the wild to increase fisheries catch. Aquaculture management	_	2.2c (1.0)	2.4ab (1.1)	2.5a (1.1)	2.4b (1.0)	112
rainbow trout be extirpated from the rivers in (insert country) to protect the native species biodiversity. ^f Fisheries managers release hatchery-bred brook trout and rainbow trout into	0.648	3.1a (0.9)	2.7c (1.0)	2.8bc (1.0)	2.9b (1.0)	113
trout and rainbow trout were deliberately introduced from North America as edible fishes to the rivers of (insert country). Some nature conservationists demand that non-native brook trout and	0.725	3.4a (0.9)	2.5c (0.9)	2.9b (0.9)	2.8b (0.9)	474
<i>Culture-based stock enhancement</i> At the end of the 19th century, brook	- 0.742	3.3a (0.9) 3.2a (0.8)	2. <i>7d (1.0)</i> 3.0b (0.9)	<i>2.9c (0.9)</i> 3.0b (0.9)	<i>3.0b (0.9)</i> 3.2a (0.8)	<i>295</i> 60.7
where they were native and extirpated through human influence. Atlantic salmon are being reintroduced by stocking to some European rivers where they were native and extirpated through human influence.	0.899	4.1a (0.8)	3.6b (1.0)	3.6b (1.1)	3.6b (1.0)	217

a,b,c,d Any 2 means in a row that do not share a letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) according to pairwise comparisons made with the Tukey–Kramer (Nemenyi) test. Survey items grouped by principal component analysis with Varimax 269 270 271 orthogonal rotation.

272

268

^e Differences between countries tested for statistical significance with the Kruskal–Wallis test.

273 ^{*f*} Scoring reversed because of negatively worded item.

274Respondents in all countries felt rather negative toward escapees from aquaculture (Table 3). Despite275this concern, respondents did not support the treatment of farmed fish that could render the fish276infertile, thus reducing the genetic risks associated with escapees. Norwegians felt significantly more277positive toward these aquaculture management measures (H = 112, df = 3, p < 0.001) and significantly278more negative toward escapees from aquaculture (H = 442, df = 3, p < 0.001) than the public in the279other 3 countries. Despite being more concerned about the associated risks, Norwegian respondents280did not have a more negative attitude toward aquaculture than the other 3 nations (Table 3).

281

282 **Discussion**

283 Most of the previous social science studies on freshwater fish and biodiversity have been conducted on

specific stakeholder groups and single countries (Bremner & Park 2007; Riepe & Arlinghaus 2014;

285 Walker-Springett et al. 2016). Our study broadens the perspective in relation to the public's perception of

river fish biodiversity in central and northern Europe using identical questionnaires. Cross-national studies,

such as ours, shed light on which perceptions are confined to or shared by single countries or cultures.

288 We found that the publics of our 4 countries shared high levels of pro-environmental concern, positive

attitudes toward fish conservation, and limited knowledge about biological realities under water. But

290 we also found important differences in the beliefs and attitudes reflecting national specificities.

291 General patterns held across countries

292 The public in all 4 countries valued native fish species for their existence (Table 1) and supported

conservation stocking (Table 3). These findings coincided with the predominantly pro- environmental

values of the public. Modernization and postindustrialization have resulted in a rise of abstract pro-

environmental values within many wealthy societies (Inglehart 1990, 1997) and fostered the cultural

value of egalitarianism, broadly defined as the desire to take care of the well-being of fellow humans,

²⁹⁷ but also animals and the environment (Schwartz 2006). In this study, people cared about fish

298 conservation in a positive way, likely because this animal group was perceived as part of nature that they felt should be protected. We would expect to find similar results in other western European 299 countries featuring high scores in egalitarian cultural values (Schwartz 2006). However, there is the 300 limitation that we did not study the relative importance of different taxa or ecosystem characteristics, 301 302 such as water quality (Hanley et al. 1998). Further studies on the perceptions of freshwater fishes in 303 countries with other national value priorities (Schwartz 2006) and on people's preferences for various 304 ecosystem traits are needed to fully understand the values underlying freshwater fish conservation. The self-reported level of knowledge of river fish biodiversity was low in all 4 countries (Fig. 1), in line 305 306 with the expectations expressed in the scientific literature (Monroe et al. 2009; Cooke et al. 2013; Closs 307 et al. 2015). Well-known species included both native (e.g., brown trout) and non- native (e.g., rainbow 308 trout) salmonids, but there were also native (e.g., grayling) and non-native (e.g., brook trout) salmonids 309 that were less well known (Fig. 2). Respondents were familiar with migratory fish, such as sturgeon and 310 Atlantic salmon, but were less certain about these species' range of natural occurrence. It is highly likely that this pattern represents an example of an "extinction of experience" (Miller 2005) because, for 311 312 example, Atlantic salmon were extirpated from Germany in the mid-20th century (Wolter 2015) and its 313 abundance declined greatly in other European countries (Chaput 2012). Given that all surveyed countries showed that loss of memory with regard to the situation in their own or other countries (Table 2), 314 we would expect similar results for other European countries. 315 316 Relative to environmental threats, the respondents perceived pollution to pose the biggest threat to 317 freshwater biodiversity (Fig. 3), possibly remembering high level of discernible pollution in the 1960s and 318 1970s. Since then water quality has improved across many rivers due to advances in water purification and the implementation of the European Water Framework Directive (Directive 2000/60/EC). Our results 319 parallel findings for the marine environment where pollution was also perceived to be the dominant 320 321 threat in many different countries (Gelcich et al. 2014; Potts et al. 2016), possibly because of the high

322 media coverage of marine pollution events. Similar incidents in the freshwater environment date back

decades (Reinhard 2008), but recent media campaigns on plastic waste, micro-pollutants, and micro-

324 plastics could have had an impact on public perception. For river conservation, it will be important to

increase people's awareness about less visible threats (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Gozlan et al. 2010; Freyhof
& Brooks 2011).

327 Country-specific patterns

Norwegians felt better informed and were more concerned about non-native species (Figs. 1 & 3) and 328 329 biodiversity risks from aquaculture farms than the members of the public in the other countries (Table 330 3). This may be related to the debate about the expanding salmon aquaculture industry in Norway and its significant media coverage (Olsen & Osmundsen 2017). Through escapees and introgression of 331 aquaculture genotypes into wild stocks, there is evidence that farmed salmon have had direct and 332 333 indirect negative impacts on wild salmon populations (Bolstad et al. 2017). Despite being more 334 concerned with risks, Norwegian respondents did not have a more negative attitude toward aquaculture than the other nations (Table 3), possibly trading off the biodiversity risks related to 335

aquaculture against the economic benefits to Norwegian society.

The use value of fish populations was seen as less important than their non-use value in Germany and 337 Sweden compared with Norway (Table 1), where fish and fisheries are important for recreational and 338 commercial purposes (Borch et al. 2008; Arlinghaus et al. 2015). Despite low use values, Germany 339 340 evaluated culture-based stocking comparatively positive (Table 3), possibly because brook trout and 341 rainbow trout are legally considered to be native and intensively stocked into German waters 342 (Arlinghaus et al. 2015) seemingly with limited ecological impacts (Wolter & Röhr 2010). An interesting 343 case is France, where the public expressed a comparably high use value and a lower importance of the non-use values bequest and existence. In cross-cultural studies, France showed less egalitarian cultural 344 values compared with the other 3 countries, and it scored higher on intellectual autonomy as cultural 345 value (Schwartz 2006). This may explain why the instrumental use value of fish populations was larger in 346

347 France compared with the other 3 countries. Overall, country-specific factors were more important for

348	explaining use values than non-use values, because western Europeans share high levels of environmental
349	values (Schwartz 2006), but differ with regard to other value dimensions, have differently structured
350	economies, and different preferences with regard to recreation and food (EUMOFA 2017).

351 Implications for fish conservation

Human behavior is complex and multifaceted. It is informed by a person's psychological disposition as 352 well as by situational and contextual factors (Stern 2005; Steg & Vlek 2009). Psychological constructs 353 354 (such as knowledge, values, beliefs, and attitudes) do not always translate into action (Kollmuss & 355 Agyeman 2002), but they can be important drivers of pro-environmental behavior when the contextual factors are favorable (Stern 2000, 2005; Riepe et al. 2017). Given that we did not observe actual 356 behavior, we limit our conclusions for fish conservation to implications for conservation messaging. 357 Conservation messaging can achieve behavioral change, especially when combined with other 358 interventions (Osbaldistan & Schott 2012). Our results suggest that public outreach campaigns 359 360 promoting fish conservation based on use values may not be effective in those European countries 361 where society cares abstractly about fishes and considers overfishing to be a key reason for population declines (e.g., in Germany). Threat-related messages with the purpose of increasing support for aquatic 362 conservation measures are well known from the marine environment (e.g., campaigns focusing on by-363 364 catch or marine litter) but are currently limited in the freshwater context due to misconceptions of the public (as seen in this study) and the complexity of interacting threats (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Cooke et al. 365 366 2013). Instead, focusing messaging on broader ecosystem traits (e.g., unpolluted and free-flowing 367 water) that will indirectly help extirpated or threatened riverine species recover is likely to win more 368 public support.

A new approach to freshwater conservation is concentrating conservation messages on charismatic
 species (Carrizo et al. 2017; Kalinkat et al. 2017), such as migratory fish (Bolster 2008; Kalinkat et al.

2017). This approach may be effective in countries where the public has a connection to a species (e.g.,

372 Atlantic salmon in Norway). For central Europe, we found the situation was more complex: the general This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Kochalski, Sophia; Riepe, Carsten; Fujitani, Marie; Aas, Øystein; Arlinghaus, Robert. Public perception of river fish biodiversity in four European countries. Conservation Biology 2018 s. 1-12 which has been published in final form at 10.1111/cobi.13180. This article may be used for noncommercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions. public supported conservation stocking despite not recognizing the species. This finding suggests
knowledge is not essential for conservation support, but what matters are pro-ecological beliefs and
attitudes (Manfredo et al. 2017). We suggest enhancing the connection between native fish biodiversity
and the general public by involving groups, such as anglers, that directly interact with the aquatic
environment (Fujitani et al. 2017), as well as historians and artists who can highlight historical
relationships with native fish species (Rathwell & Armitage 2016), in conservation research and
outreach activities.

380

381 Acknowledgements

- 382 This project received funding from the German Research Foundation within the project SalmoInvade in
- the BiodivERsA 2012–2013 Pan-European call (grant AR 712/4-1) and from the European Union's Horizon
- 384 2020 research and innovation program under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie project IMPRESS (grant 642893).
- 385 Funding in Germany was also received from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF)
- to R.A. within the project Besatzfisch (grant 01UU0907) in the Programme for Social-Ecological Research. We
- thank D. Behr, J. Cucherousset, J. Johnsson, K. Hindar, and all other members of the SalmoInvade project
- 388 and the team of Language Connect for their support related to the translation of the questionnaire. We give
- 389 our special thanks to F. Funke, M. Reich, A. Wachenfeld, and all other people of LINK and Norstat for
- 390 collecting the data and to all participants for their cooperation.
- 391

392 Supporting information

Respondents' characteristics (Appendix S1), details for the Schwartz value scale (Appendix S2), the recreational activities respondents performed in the 12 months prior to the survey (Appendix S3), and the survey questions (Appendix S4) are available online. The authors are solely responsible for the

content and functionality of these materials. Queries (other than absence of the material) should bedirected to the corresponding author.

398

399 Literature cited

- 400 Ahtiainen H, et al. 2013. Public preferences regarding use and condition of the Baltic Sea An
- 401 international comparison informing marine policy. Marine Policy 42, 20-30.
- Angermeier PL. 2007. The role of fish biologists in helping society build ecological sustainability.
 Fisheries 32(1), 9-20.
- 404 Arlinghaus R, Tillner R, Bork M. 2015. Explaining participation rates in recreational fishing across
- industrialised countries. Fisheries Management and Ecology 22(1), 45-55.
- Baker R, et al. 2010. Research synthesis: AAPOR report on online panels. Public Opinion Quarterly 74(4),
 711-781.
- 408 Beard TD, Arlinghaus R, Cooke SJ, McIntyre PB, De Silva S, Bartley D, Cowx IG. 2011. Ecosystem
- 409 approach to inland fisheries: Research needs and implementation strategies. Biology Letters 7(4), 481-

410 483.

- 411 Bolstad GH, et al. 2017. Gene flow from domesticated escapes alters the life history of wild Atlantic
- 412 salmon. Nature Ecology & Evolution 1, 0124.
- Bolster WJ. 2008. Putting the ocean in Atlantic history: maritime communities and marine ecology in the
- 414 Northwest Atlantic, 1500–1800. The American Historical Review 113(1), 19-47.
- Borch T, Aas Ø, Policansky D. 2008. International fishing tourism: past, present and future. Pages 268-291 in
- 416 Aas Ø, editor. Global challenges in recreational fisheries. Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Oxford, United
- 417 Kingdom.

- Bremner A, Park K. 2007. Public attitudes to the management of invasive non-native species in Scotland.
 Biological Conservation 139(3), 306-314.
- Carrizo SF, Jähnig SC, Bremerich V, Freyhof J, Harrison I, He F, Langhans SD, Tockner K, Zarfl C, Darwall
 W. 2017. Freshwater megafauna: Flagships for freshwater biodiversity under threat. BioScience
 67(10), 919-927.
- 423 Chaput G. 2012. Overview of the status of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) in the North Atlantic and trends
 424 in marine mortality. ICES Journal of Marine Science 69(9), 1538-1548.
- 425 Closs GP, Angermeier PL, Darwall WR, Balcombe SR. 2015. Why are freshwater fish so threatened?
- 426 Pages 37-75 in Closs GP, Krkosek M, Olden J, editors. Conservation of freshwater fishes. Cambridge
- 427 University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom.
- 428 Cooke SJ, Lapointe NWR, Martins EG, Thiem JD, Raby GD, Taylor MK, Beard TD, Cowx IG. 2013. Failure to
- 429 engage the public in issues related to inland fishes and fisheries: strategies for building public and political
- 430 will to promote meaningful conservation. Journal of Fish Biology 83(4), 997-1018.
- 431 Darwall W, Smith K, Allen D, Holland R, Harrison I, Brooks E. 2011. The diversity of life in African freshwaters:
- 432 underwater, under threat: an analysis of the status and distribution of freshwater species throughout
- 433 mainland Africa. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom.
- 434 Dudgeon D, et al. 2006. Freshwater biodiversity: importance, threats, status and conservation
- 435 challenges. Biological Reviews 81(2), 163-182.
- 436 Eder K. 1996. Theory, culture & society. The social construction of nature: A sociology of ecological
- 437 enlightenment (M. Ritter, Trans.). Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.
- 438 Eurostat. 2015. Census data for the online populations. European Commission, Luxembourg. Available
- 439 from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/de/data/database (accessed April 2018).

- 440 Eurostat. 2016. Information on internet penetration. European Commission, Luxembourg. Available
- 441 from http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Digital_economy_and_society_
- 442 statistics_-_households_and_individuals (accessed April 2018).
- 443 ESOMAR (European Society for Opinion and Market Research), GRBN (Global Research Business Network).
- 444 2015. Guideline for conducting online research. ESOMAR, Amsterdam, GRBN, New York. Available from
- 445 https://www.esomar.org/uploads/public/knowledge-and-standards/codes-and-guidelines/ESOMAR-
- 446 GRBN-Online-Research-Guideline-October-2015.pdf (accessed April 2018).
- 447 EUMOFA (European Market Observatory for Fisheries and Aquaculture Products). 2017. EU Consumer
- habits regarding fishery and aquaculture products. Final Report. European Commission, Luxembourg.
- Freyhof J, Brooks E. 2011. European red list of freshwater fishes. Publications office of the European
 Union, Luxembourg.
- 451 Fujitani M, McFall A, Randler C, Arlinghaus R. 2017. Participatory adaptive management leads to
- 452 environmental learning outcomes extending beyond the sphere of
- 453 science. Science Advances, 3(6), e1602516.
- 454 Gelcich S, Buckley P, Pinnegar JK, Chilvers J, Lorenzoni I, Terry G, Guerrero M, Castilla JC, Valdebenito A,
- 455 Duarte CM. 2014. Public awareness, concerns, and priorities about anthropogenic impacts on
- 456 marine environments. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 111(42), 15042-15047.
- 457 Gozlan RE, Britton JR, Cowx I, Copp GH. 2010. Current knowledge on non-native freshwater fish
- 458 introductions. Journal of Fish Biology 76(4), 751-786.
- 459 Groves RM, Fowler Jr FJ, Couper MP, Lepkowski JM, Singer E, Tourangeau R. 2011. Survey methodology
- 460 (Vol. 561). John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, New Jersey.
- 461 Hanley N, Wright RE, Adamowicz V. 1998. Using choice experiments to value the environment.
- 462 Environmental and Resource Economics 11(3), 413-428.

- Hein L, Van Koppen K, De Groot RS, Van Ierland EC. 2006. Spatial scales, stakeholders and the valuation
 of ecosystem services. Ecological economics 57(2), 209-228.
- 465 Heino J, Erkinaro J, Huusko A, Luoto M. 2015. Climate change effects on freshwater fishes, conservation
- 466 and management. Pages 76-106 in Closs GP, Krkosek M, Olden J, editors. Conservation of freshwater
- 467 fishes. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom.
- 468 ICC (International Chamber of Commerce), ESOMAR (European Society for Opinion and Market
- 469 Research). 2016. International code on market, opinion and social research and data analytics. ICC,
- 470 France, ESOMAR, Amsterdam. Available from https://www.esomar.org/uploads/public/knowledge-and-
- 471 standards/codes-and-guidelines/ICCESOMAR_Code_English_.pdf (accessed April 2018).
- 472 Inglehart R. 1990. Culture shift in advanced industrial society. Princeton University Press, Princeton,
- 473 New Jersey.
- 474 Inglehart R. 1997. Modernization and postmodernization: Cultural, economic, and political change in 43
- 475 societies. Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey.
- 476 Jelks HL, et al. 2008. Conservation status of imperiled North American freshwater and diadromous
- 477 fishes. Fisheries 33(8), 372-407.
- 478 Kalinkat G, et al. 2017. Flagship umbrella species needed for the conservation of overlooked aquatic
- biodiversity. Conservation Biology 31(2), 481-485.
- 480 Kansky R, Knight AT. 2014. Key factors driving attitudes towards large mammals in conflict with humans.
- 481 Biological Conservation 179, 93-105.
- 482 Klöckner CA. 2013. A comprehensive model of the psychology of environmental behaviour A meta-
- 483 analysis. Global Environmental Change 23(5), 1028-1038.
- 484 Kollmuss A, Agyeman J. 2002. Mind the gap: why do people act environmentally and what are the
- 485 barriers to pro-environmental behavior?. Environmental Education Research 8(3), 239-260.

- 486 Manfredo, MJ. 2008. Who cares about wildlife? Springer, New York. Manfredo MJ, et al. 2017. Why
- 487 social values cannot be changed for the sake of conservation. Conservation Biology 31(4):772-780.
- 488 Miller JR. 2005. Biodiversity conservation and the extinction of experience. Trends in Ecology &
- 489 Evolution 20(8), 430-434.
- Monroe JB, Baxter CV, Olden JD, Angermeier PL. 2009. Freshwaters in the public eye: Understanding the
 role of images and media in aquatic conservation. Fisheries 34(12), 581-585.
- 492 Olsen MS, Osmundsen TC. 2017. Media framing of aquaculture. Marine Policy, 76, 19-27.
- 493 Osbaldiston R, Schott JP. 2012. Environmental sustainability and behavioral science: Meta-analysis of
- 494 pro-environmental behavior experiments. Environment and Behavior 44(2), 257-299.
- 495 Pimm SL, Jenkins CN, Abell R, Brooks TM, Gittleman JL, Joppa LN, Raven PH, Roberts CM, Sexton JO. 2014.
- The biodiversity of species and their rates of extinction, distribution, and protection. Science
 344(6187), 1246752.
- 498 Potts T, Pita C, O'Higgins T, Mee L. 2016. Who cares? European attitudes towards marine and coastal
 499 environments. Marine Policy 72, 59-66.
- 500 Rathwell K, Armitage D. 2016. Art and artistic processes bridge knowledge systems about social- ecological
- 501 change: An empirical examination with Inuit artists from Nunavut, Canada. Ecology and Society 21(2).
- 502 Reinhard W. 2008. The SANDOZ Catastrophe and the consequences for the River Rhine. Pages 113-121
- 503 in Apostol I, Coldewey WG, Barry DL, Reimer D, editors. Risk assessment as a basis for the forecast and
- 504 prevention of catastrophies. IOS Press, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.
- 505 Riepe C, Arlinghaus R. 2014. Einstellungen der Bevölkerung in Deutschland zum Tierschutz in der
- 506 Angelfischerei. Berichte des IGB, Heft 27. Leibniz-Institut für Gewässerökologie und Binnenfischerei (IGB)
- 507 im Forschungsverbund Berlin e.V, Berlin.

- 508 Riepe C, Fujitani M, Cucherousset J, Pagel T, Buoro M, Santoul F, Lassus R, Arlinghaus R. 2017. What
- 509 determines the behavioral intention of local-level fisheries managers to alter fish stocking practices in
- 510 freshwater recreational fisheries of two European countries?. Fisheries Research 194, 173-187.
- 511 Schwartz SH. 2006. A theory of cultural value orientations: Explication and applications.
- 512 Comparative Sociology 5(2), 137-182.
- Schwartz SH. 2012. An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. Online readings in Psychology
 and Culture 2(1), 11.
- 515 Steg L., Vlek C. 2009. Encouraging pro-environmental behaviour: An integrative review and research
- agenda. Journal of Environmental Psychology 29(3), 309-317.
- 517 Stern PC. 2000. Psychology and the science of human-environment interactions. American Psychologist
 518 55(5), 523-530.
- Stern PC. 2005. New environmental theories: toward a coherent theory of environmentally significant
 behavior. Journal of Social Issues 56(3), 407-424.
- 521 Walker-Springett K, Jefferson R, Böck K, Breckwoldt A, Comby E, Cottet M, Hübner G, LeLay YF, Shaw S,
- 522 Wyles K. 2016. Ways forward for aquatic conservation: applications of environmental psychology to
- support management objectives. Journal of Environmental Management 166, 525-536.
- Weber EU. 2010. What shapes perceptions of climate change? Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate
 Change 1(3), 332-342.
- 526 Wolter C. 2015. Historic catches, abundance, and decline of Atlantic salmon Salmo salar. Aquatic Sciences
- 527 **77(3)**, 367-380.
- 528 Wolter C, Röhr F. 2010. Distribution history of non-native freshwater fish species in Germany: how
- 529 invasive are they? Journal of Applied Ichthyology 26(s2), 19-27.

530 531

532

Supporting information 533

534 Table SI1: Overview of sample characteristics (n = 1.000 per country). Differences between countries in the age distribution

535

were tested for significance (p < 0.05) with the Kruskal-Wallis test. Distribution of gender and educational levels were tested for differences with Pearson's chi-squared tests.

536

		Germany	France	Norway	Sweden	Test statistic (d	
Gender (in %)	female	48.4	48.9	47.5	47.7	χ²	0.5 (3)
	male	51.6	51.1	52.5	52.3		
Mean age in years (S	SE)	43.1 (0.5)	41.5 (0.5)	42.3 (0.5)	43.2 (0.5)	Н	7.7 (3)
Education a (in %)	low (0 - 2)	11.1	17.8	18.4	18.2	χ²	94.3 (6) *
	medium (3 - 4)	59.0	45.6	38.6	44.1		
	high (5 - 8)	29.9	36.6	43.0	37.7		

^a According to UIS (UNESCO Institute for Statistics). 2012. International standard classification of education: ISCED 2011. UNESCO-UIS, Montreal.

538 539 * *p*-value < 0.001

Number of observations

using the Tukey- Kramer (Nemenyi) test

540

537

541 542 Table SI2: Mean (SD) importance of harmony with nature as a guiding principle in life measured with three items from the

543 544 Schwartz value scale (Cronbach's alpha = 0.89) on a 5-point scale from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (very important). Differences between countries were tested for significance with the Kruskal-Wallis test (H = 75.3, p < 0.001).

995

a,b,c Any two means in a row that do not share a letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) according to pairwise comparisons

1.000

1.000

999

-				-
	Germany	France	Norway	Sweden
Harmony with nature	3.9 ^{ab} (0.9)	3.8 ^b (0.9)	3.6 ^c (0.9)	3.9ª (0.9)
Scale items				
Respecting the earth, living in harmony with other animal and plant species	4.1 (0.8)	3.9 (0.9)	3.7 (0.9)	4.0 (0.9)
Protecting the environment, preserving nature	4.0 (0.8)	3.9 (0.9)	3.9 (0.9)	4.0 (0.9)
Unity with nature, fitting into nature	3.6 (1.0)	3.7 (1.0)	3.3 (1.0)	3.7 (1.0)

545 546 547

548 Table SI3: Recreational activities that respondents (in %) indicated to have had performed in the 12 months

549 prior to the survey, multiple answers were possible. Differences between countries were tested for significance 550 with Pearson's chi-squared test (activities) and one-way ANOVA (number of activities per person).

Activity	Germany	France	Norway	Sweden	χ ²	р
Moving around, on or near the banks (e.g., taking a walk, jogging)	66.5ª	49.5 ^c	69.6ª	59.0 ^b	101.5	<0.001
Bathing, swimming	50.6 ^b	61.8ª	49.4 ^b	59.0ª	45.8	<0.001
Staying on the beach or on the banks (e.g., lying in the sun)	54.3	53.9	58.1	53.4	5.5	0.133
Observing plants or animals near or on the water	28.9 ^b	37.2ª	38.5ª	32.8 ^b	25.5	<0.001
Angling, fishing	4.6 ^c	18.2 ^b	28.6ª	27.3ª	232.2	<0.001
Going on a cruise ship / on a tourist boat	26.4ª	12.7 ^c	13.8 ^{bc}	16.6 ^b	81.4	<0.001
Navigating a motorboat	4.4 ^c	12.7 ^b	22.1ª	15.4 ^b	136.4	<0.001
Camping near the waterside	11.1 ^b	12.7 ^b	17.6ª	8.4 ^c	40.9	<0.001
Navigating a pleasure boat without an engine (e.g., sailing, surfing, rowing, kayaking)	7.5 ^b	13.8ª	13.5ª	15.0ª	30.8	<0.001
Winter sports (e.g., ice skating)	4.4 ^c	11.3 ^b	15.5ª	10.3 ^b	67.3	<0.001
Diving, snorkeling	5.2 ^b	10.7ª	6.5 ^b	6.1 ^b	27.3	<0.001
Hunting near the water (e.g., water fowl)	0.1 ^b	2.0ª	2.4ª	1.9ª	19.8	<0.001
Number of activities per person (mean ± standard deviation)	2.6 ^c (1.7)	3.0 ^b (2.5)	3.4ª (2.3)	3.1 ^b (2.1)	F 18.6	<0.001
Number of observations	998	996	998	993		

 $a_{b,c,d}$ Any two means in a row that do not share a letter are significantly different (p < 0.05) according to post hoc pairwise

551 comparisons with Pearson's chi-squared test (activities) or according to Tukey's range test (number of activities per person).

553

5	5	4

Table SI4: Wording and order of the survey questions underlying the study results.

Part of the survey	Wording in the survey
Survey introduction (2015)	Dear participant. Thank you very much for participating in this survey on the topic "Humans- Rivers-Species Diversity in <insert country="" name="">"! This survey is conducted on behalf of <insert country="" depending="" name="" on="">. Your answers will help provide politics and science with a planning guide for the management of our rivers taking the interests of the citizens into</insert></insert>
	consideration. The survey does not serve any commercial interests. Your answers will be kept
	strictly confidential and any results will be reported anonymously.
Age	What is your age?
Gender	What is your gender?
Education	Which is your highest finished education level?
Recreational activities	Which recreational activities related to inland water bodies have you pursued at least once in the
	last 12 months? We mean any activities related to lakes, rivers or streams excluding the sea and
	excluding artificially created very small water bodies such as garden ponds. Tick all activities that
	apply.
Familiarity with species	Which of these fish species have you heard of? Tick all that apply.
Perceived native or	According to your opinion, which of these fish species are native to the inland waters of <insert< td=""></insert<>
non-native origin of	COUNTRY NAME> and which are not? Native species have naturally colonized the waters in the
fish species	past without human assistance. Mark your answer for all species shown.
Self-reported level of	Let's turn to the topic of biodiversity. Biodiversity denotes the diversity of all living organisms and
feeling informed about	their habitats including species diversity, the diversity of genes and populations of a given species
biodiversity in fishes	in a region, and the diversity of ecosystems in terms of types of lakes, rivers etc. How informed do
	you feel about the topic of biodiversity in fishes? Tick one box only.
Beliefs about threats	According to independent research, the earth's biodiversity is threatened by human impact. This i
	said to be true also for many rivers of <insert country="" name=""> and the fishes that are native to</insert>
	them. Here is a list with potential human-made causes for the loss of biodiversity of native fish
	species in the rivers of <insert country="" name="">. For each of them, indicate how strongly you</insert>
	believe the factor contributes to fish biodiversity loss. To the loss of native fish biodiversity in the
	rivers of <insert country="" name="">, this factor makes</insert>
Self-reported level of	The intentional or accidental introduction of fish species by humans to rivers to which they were originally not native can cause biodiversity loss of native fish species. Non-native fish species may,
feeling informed about the threats caused by	for example, compete with native fish species and other aquatic animals for food and living space
the introduction of	or they may transmit diseases and parasites to native fishes or even interbreed with native
non-native fish species	species. How informed do you feel overall about the potential threats caused by the introduction
non-native fish species	of non-native fishes to the rivers of <insert country="" name="">? Tick one box only.</insert>
Attitudes	Now comes a list with statements related to the topic of fishes in the rivers of <insert country<="" td=""></insert>
	NAME>. All these statements express correct facts. How do you personally evaluate them? There
	are no right or wrong answers, we are interested in your personal view. In my opinion, this is
Use and non-use value of fish	Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with these statements about native fish populations.
Schwartz value scale	Please indicate how important each of the following values is as a guiding principle in your life. As
	a guiding principle in my life, this value is
Open control question	The survey is now over. How did you like it? Is there anything that you want to tell us about the
• •	survey or the topics addressed in it? Any remarks or criticisms are more than welcome.
Survey ending (2015)	We might want to get in touch with you again for another survey about the topic of "Humans-
	Rivers-Species Diversity in <insert country="" name="">" at the beginning of next year. For</insert>
	participating, you would receive an additional bonus. Thank you very much for your patience and
	cooperation!
2016 survey question	Thinking of rivers only, according to your opinion in which of these countries are salmon native
about salmon	and in which are they not native? Native species have naturally colonized the waters in the past
	without human assistance
2016 survey question	Still thinking of rivers only, according to your opinion in which of these countries are Atlantic
about Atlantic salmon	salmon native and in which are they not native? Native species have naturally colonized the

555