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# **Contrasts in Perception of the Interaction Between Non-Native Species and Climate Change**

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2 Species and Climate Change

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## 16 Abstract

- 17 1. Over the last century, intensification of human movement worldwide has  
18 resulted in a large-scale redistribution of species, which has been  
19 compounded in recent decades by climate change. The interaction of these  
20 two phenomena have resulted in a number of complexities and challenges for  
21 regarding management of non-native species. As effective management can  
22 be hampered by disconnects between scientific researchers, natural resource  
23 managers and the general public, assessing consensus between these  
24 groups is crucial.
- 25 2. Here, we undertake an explorative approach to analyse three groups of  
26 people concerned with the management of freshwater ecosystems -  
27 recreational fishers, natural resource managers and scientific researchers - in  
28 order to better understand consensus or lack thereof regarding the interaction  
29 between non-native species and climate change.
- 30 3. We found that while scientific researchers and managers had varying opinions  
31 on the management of non-native species as driven by climate change,  
32 recreational fishers were almost unanimously opposed to the potential  
33 presence of non-native species, regardless of the nature of their introduction.  
34 Additionally, definitions of what constitutes a non-native species varied greatly  
35 between and within the different groups.
- 36 4. Our results underline both the current lack of consensus on the definition and  
37 management of non-native species and a disconnect between and within the  
38 three groups regarding both the nature of non-native species and the range-  
39 shifting effects of climate change.



## 41 Introduction

42 Over the last century, intensification of human movement worldwide has resulted in a  
43 large-scale redistribution of species, a trend that is predicted to continue at a similar  
44 pace in the coming decades (Seebens et al. 2020). The majority of the redistribution  
45 of these non-native species have historically been driven by human translocation  
46 (Carpio et al. 2019; Mack et al. 2000). If these non-native species become  
47 established and begin to spread, their local impacts can include population declines  
48 and even local extirpations of native species, and restructuring of food webs (Mack  
49 et al. 2000; Gallardo et al. 2016). Human activity has also resulted in climate change,  
50 which can reduce species' populations through warming temperatures and an  
51 increase in the frequency of extreme weather events (IPCC 2021). In recent decades  
52 climate change has compounded the effects of this redistribution of species. This  
53 can happen in a number of ways (Rolls et al. 2017). Firstly, through the direct  
54 movement - often termed 'range-shifting' - of species to higher latitudes and altitudes  
55 as a response to warming temperatures (Chen et al. 2011). Secondly, through  
56 allowing species to establish and spread upon introduction to ecosystems that were  
57 previously too cold for either process (Comte and Grenouillet 2013). And thirdly,  
58 through changing interactions between already-established non-native species and  
59 native species they had previously co-occurred with, such that native species are  
60 negatively impacted (Gilman et al. 2010; Hein et al. 2014; Perrin et al. 2020a).

61

62 The complexity of the interaction between the non-native species and climate  
63 change mean increasingly complex management challenges. Successful  
64 management approaches, such as preventing the introduction of non-native species

65 and conserving native species and communities, are dependent on three different  
66 groups - a) scientific researchers, who provide the research upon which  
67 management decisions are based (Pecl et al. 2017; Beaury et al. 2020), b) natural  
68 resource managers, who make and implement management decisions (Pietrzyk-  
69 Kaszyńska and Grodzińska-Jurczak 2015), and c) public stakeholders, whose  
70 approval is often necessary for the success of management decisions (García-  
71 Llorente et al. 2008; Gozlan et al. 2013; Verbrugge et al. 2013; Deak et al. 2019;  
72 Kapitza et al. 2019; Kochalski et al. 2019).

73

74 There are already a plethora of examples of disconnects within natural resources  
75 managers (henceforth referred to as managers), scientific researchers (henceforth  
76 referred to as researchers) and public stakeholders in regards to non-native species  
77 terminology and management. Within research communities there is substantial  
78 debate over both the terminology and management of non-native species, with  
79 traditionally popular terms such as 'invasive' and 'alien' viewed by some researchers  
80 as at best subjective and at worst pejorative (Shackelford et al. 2013; Head 2017;  
81 Abbate and Fischer 2019). The indirect role of climate change in range shifts in  
82 species means that range-shifting species are generally not termed as invasive or  
83 alien within the research community, though this is not always the case (Peterson  
84 and Robins, 2003), and there has been objection to the application of invasive  
85 frameworks to range-shifting species (Urban 2020). Many natural resource  
86 managers (henceforth referred to as managers) have begun to incorporate the  
87 effects of climate change into management actions regarding non-native species  
88 (Rahel et al. 2008; Beaury et al. 2020), including habitat manipulation and restriction  
89 of dispersal in areas where native species are of conservation concern (Scheffers

90 and Pecl 2019). Yet even here there are problems, as strict maintenance of species  
91 assemblages in areas where the climate has rendered habitats unsuitable for native  
92 species may become resource-intensive and ultimately untenable (Scheffers and  
93 Pecl 2019). Among public stakeholders, climate change itself is enough of a  
94 controversial issue, with the phenomena sometimes rejected as a threat by members  
95 of the public, even those whose livelihoods are directly affected (van Baal et al.  
96 2023). Knowledge of risks and management techniques regarding invasive species  
97 also varies from region to region (Bremner and Park 2007; Verbrugge et al. 2013;  
98 Deak et al. 2019).

99

100 Disconnects between managers, researchers and public stakeholders can have a  
101 severe effect on the success of non-native species management, and examples of  
102 such disconnects are also plentiful. Whether the attitudes of managers align with  
103 those of researchers and public stakeholders can have a large impact on the  
104 effectiveness of programs which aim to mitigate the potential effects of any non-  
105 native species, as many examples demonstrate (Temple 1990; Manchester and  
106 Bullock 2000; Bertolino and Genovesi 2003; Deak et al. 2019). Disconnects between  
107 the public and managers can also hamper conservation efforts, sometimes resulting  
108 in legal action, even when a species is undoubtedly non-native and having  
109 demonstrable negative impacts (Bertolino and Genovesi 2003; Arts et al. 2016;  
110 Anderson et al. 2019). These disconnects often occur when public perception of the  
111 nature or ecological impact of a non-native species does not reflect the species'  
112 demonstrated impact (García-Llorente et al. 2008; Gozlan et al. 2013; Verbrugge et  
113 al. 2013; Kapitza et al. 2019; Kochalski et al. 2019). This can be particularly harmful

114 in situations where public stakeholders can be a significant vector for translocation of  
115 non-native species.

116

117 Here, we take an explorative approach to identify causes of discord within and  
118 between these three groups. We used semi-structured interviews to assess  
119 perception of interactions between non-native species and climate change in an area  
120 where a) climate change is progressing at an accelerated rate compared to the rest  
121 of the world (IPCC 2021) , b) low endemic species richness means the impact of  
122 non-native species can carry particular ecological and cultural significance  
123 (Hesthagen and Sandlund 2007), and c) public stakeholders can be a significant  
124 vector for translocation of non-native species (García-Díaz et al. 2018; Carpio et al.  
125 2019; Chapman et al. 2020). In exploring said perceptions we aim to identify  
126 pathways to integrate scientific, practical and lay knowledge and strengthen  
127 collaboration between the three groups. This allows for identification of appropriate  
128 management actions to handle these interacting effects of climate change and non-  
129 native species.

130

131

132

## 133 2. Methods

### 134 2.1. Personal Interviews

#### 135 2.1.1. Study system

136

137 In order to assess the contrast between the perception of the interacting effects of  
138 climate change and non-native species between three groups - those who produce  
139 the scientific research (researchers), those who implement it (managers), and those  
140 who provide public approval of its implementation and experience its effects  
141 (recreational fishers) - we interviewed respondents from diverse locations throughout  
142 Norway in relation to freshwater ecosystems. Norway's location in the sub-Arctic and  
143 Arctic, immigration history and topography means that large parts of the country are  
144 relatively species-poor, and subsequently vulnerable to the effects of non-native  
145 species (Hesthagen and Sandlund 2007). Translocations from well before the 1900s  
146 until the modern day by various institutions - including the church, the government  
147 and recreational fishers from inside and outside of Norway - have resulted in the  
148 spreading of native Norwegian species to areas they would not have previously been  
149 able to naturally disperse to, as well as the arrival of species non-native to all of  
150 Norway, and in some cases to Europe (Sandlund and Hesthagen 2011; Hesthagen  
151 and Sandlund 2007). Many of these species can have negative effects on native  
152 ecosystems and species that are adapted to relatively cold temperatures, many of  
153 which are of cultural importance (Winfield et al. 2008; Borgstrøm et al. 2010;  
154 Sandlund et al. 2013; Hesthagen et al. 2015; Eloranta et al. 2019). The increased  
155 rate of climate change experienced in the sub-Arctic and Arctic means that in coming  
156 decades, many species which may not have been able to establish and spread

157 through colder ecosystems may be able to do so (Rahel and Olden, 2008; Hayden et  
158 al. 2017). Effective management of freshwater systems is therefore crucial.  
159 Rotenone treatment of freshwater ecosystems is common throughout Norway to  
160 remove harmful non-native species, and while effective, it is expensive and  
161 ecologically damaging, so if rotenone treatment is applied there needs to be  
162 assurance that invasive species cannot return easily (Perrin et al. 2020b).  
163 Additionally, there is an ongoing trend of dam removal throughout much of Europe,  
164 dams which could potentially currently act as dispersal barriers for non native  
165 species (Sun et al. 2020). This makes consensus in the management of non-native  
166 and range-shifting species between researchers, managers and public stakeholders  
167 crucial in the quest for effective management of Norwegian freshwater ecosystems.

168

169 Our study looks at contrasts in perceptions of the interactions between climate  
170 change and non-native species throughout Norway. As an explorative study  
171 necessitates an understanding of respondents' reasoning we took a qualitative  
172 approach to data collection. There has been a bias towards quantitative methods in  
173 similar research in the past, which can limit understanding of social context in which  
174 perceptions are founded (Kapitza et al. 2019). As such, we conducted personal  
175 interviews with subjects from three different groups; researchers, managers and  
176 recreational fishers (table 1), in line with previous studies (Schüttler et al. 2011;  
177 Selge et al. 2011).

#### 178 2.1.1. Respondent Selection

179 A total of 30 interviews were conducted between August of 2019 and April of 2020.  
180 Interview respondents were chosen using the snowball method, as described by  
181 Miles and Huberman (1994). This requires an initial pool of contacts, who

182 subsequently nominate other respondents that are suitable for the study. Our initial  
183 pool included contacts from a variety of organisations and regions, in order to avoid  
184 shared viewpoints potentially based on similar educational and career histories.

185

186 In compliance with requirements of the Norwegian National Research Ethics  
187 Committee, all respondents were given an overview of the topic beforehand, assured  
188 that their responses would be anonymous, and informed of the intended use of their  
189 responses. Participation was voluntary and it was possible for respondents to  
190 withdraw consent. All interviews were anonymously recorded and subsequently  
191 transcribed verbatim. Any details which might have allowed the individuals to be  
192 identified based on descriptions of their roles or locations were removed.

193

Table 1: Description of respondents

Interest group	Description	Number respondents
Researchers	Professionals associated with public or private research institutes not directly responsible for taking management decisions. Expertise in fish biology or ecology, or freshwater ecology or hydrology.	8
Managers	Professionals associated with public organisations who are directly responsible for management decisions regarding freshwater bodies.	12
Recreational fishers	Individuals who participate in recreational fishing on a regular or semi-regular basis.	10

194

195 2.1.2. Interview structure

196 We used a semi-structured interview approach, in order to ensure that interviews  
 197 flowed as naturally as possible with room for tangential discussions, while ensuring  
 198 that several basic topics were covered (refer to [Supplementary Material S1](#) for  
 199 interview guide). The first was their perception of a non-native species, and whether  
 200 or not several key factors played into their definition, including a) method of  
 201 introduction of the species, b) native habitat of the species and c) societal perception  
 202 of the species. All three factors have been previously shown to influence perception  
 203 of a non-native species, both among scientific researchers and the public (Warren  
 204 2007; Selge et al. 2011). While the English term ‘alien species’ can be considered as

205 pejorative, it was used in the interview, as it corresponds more accurately to the  
206 widely used Norwegian term 'fremmede art'. So as not to lead respondents into  
207 mentioning factors a-c, we asked them to define a non-native species, encouraging  
208 them to use examples when needed. We also wanted to gauge whether their view of  
209 non-native species changed if climate change had influenced the species arrival  
210 and/or subsequent impact. As recent research has suggested shifting management  
211 and research to focussing on the impact of non-native species (Jeschke et al. 2014;  
212 Wallingford et al. 2020), we wanted to present respondents with a hypothetical  
213 situation in which a non-native species established itself and had a demonstrable  
214 and reasonably immediate impact, in this case the extirpation of a local species. This  
215 hypothetical situation was presented firstly as a result of climate-induced range  
216 expansion, and secondly as a result of human translocation.<sup>1</sup> For fishers, non-native  
217 species with which they were familiar were used as an example, in most cases the  
218 northern pike (*Esox lucius* Linnaeus, 1758) or European perch (*Perca fluviatilis*  
219 Linnaeus, 1758). They were asked how they would react to both situations.

220

221 Additionally, we asked the researchers and managers to name the primary concerns  
222 to their region, to capture whether or not non-native species and/or climate change  
223 were an acknowledged concern. We also asked researchers and managers which  
224 species of fish they considered to be of high conservation status. We asked  
225 recreational fishers questions relating to their fishing habits, including how long they  
226 had been fishing, which regions they had fished in, which species they preferred,

1 1 While every effort was made to assure respondents that the first scenario was hypothetical, two  
2 fishers rejected the premise outright, as they felt that introduction of novel species into their local  
3 environments was impossible in the absence of human translocation.

227 and whether their preferences changed on a seasonal or longer-term basis. This  
228 gave us insight into their perception of particular species.

229

230 No time limit was set on the interviews. Interviews lasted anywhere from 10 to 50  
231 minutes. Respondents were invited to talk freely, and none expressed discomfort  
232 discussing the topic. Respondents occasionally had to be prompted to elaborate on  
233 answers in order to better understand their reasoning. Although not always relevant,  
234 tangents were encouraged in order to allow respondents to better explain opinions or  
235 recount experiences. All respondents were offered the opportunity to be interviewed  
236 in Norwegian, however 24 of the 30 were comfortable enough to complete the  
237 interview in English. Respondents were encouraged to switch to Norwegian any time  
238 they felt unable to adequately express themselves in English. 16 interviews were  
239 conducted in person, while the remaining 14 were conducted via web meeting.  
240 Whether or not the interview was conducted in person did not have a notable effect  
241 on the outcome, and was therefore not used in further analysis.

## 242 2.2. Response analysis

243 Responses were categorised based on two sections of analysis, one of which was  
244 common to all groups, and one that differed for recreational fishers. The first section  
245 analysed which fish species recreational fishers preferred, so as to ascertain  
246 whether potential future extirpations would affect the species for which they preferred  
247 to fish. We also determined whether or not these preferences had changed over  
248 time. For researchers and managers, the first section sought to analyse which  
249 species were of high conservation status to their region, and for what reasons. We  
250 also determined whether or not non-native species and/or climate change were of  
251 primary concern, and which other factors were considered as primary concerns.

252

253 The second section concerned non-native species. We first determined, based on  
254 given definitions, whether or not subjects considered a) method of introduction, b)  
255 societal perception and c) whether or not the species was native to part of the  
256 country as an important facet of the definition of a non-native species. We then  
257 determined whether or not subjects reacted negatively to the possibility of species  
258 extirpations in their local freshwater ecosystems driven by a range-shifting species,  
259 and whether this response varied when turnover was driven by a non-native species  
260 that had been directly translocated by humans. We also determined (although this  
261 was not directly elucidated by several respondents) whether or not they thought  
262 management action was appropriate in such situations.

263

264 In presenting our results, we begin by summarising general findings, then elucidate  
265 these findings using quotes from select respondents. Respondents are referred to by  
266 an acronym referring to their interest group and order in which they were  
267 interviewed. As such, our seventh respondent, a recreational fisher, would be  
268 referred to as F-07.<sup>2</sup>

## 269 Results

270 The following section will present results in the order they are addressed in the  
271 interview guide. Preferences of recreational fishers are described first, followed by  
272 species of conservation concern and local anthropogenic stressors according to

5 2 Respondent F-04 was in fact three individuals who chose to be interviewed at the same time. As  
6 they almost exclusively fished together as a group and responses generally corresponded with one  
7 another, their responses were collated into one.

273 managers and researchers. Perceptions of non-native species are then described,  
274 followed by reactions to the two hypothetical scenarios.

275

276 For the sake of brevity, henceforth the extirpation of local species as driven by  
277 range-shifting species will be referred to as climate change driven turnover.

278 Extirpation of local species driven by non-native species which arrived as a product  
279 of direct human translocation will be referred to as translocation driven turnover.

280

281 Extended responses from all respondents are openly available in Perrin et al. 2020c  
282 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3991516>).

### 283 3.1.1. Fishing tendencies

284 Nearly all fishers interviewed expressed a preference for salmonids, namely brown  
285 trout and arctic charr. Several respondents mentioned the value of their preferred  
286 species as food fish.

287

288 ***F-18:** I went consistently for brown trout since I was a kid, because that's the most  
289 common fish in our region. Here, the population of brown trout is dominant in rivers  
290 and lakes. It's the most exciting fish to do sportfishing for.*

291

292

293 With a few exceptions, these tendencies did not change on any short or long-term  
294 basis. Most respondents had fished for their preferred species since they were  
295 children. There was some preference for ice-fishing in the winter which restricted  
296 fishers to catching charr.

297

298 Several respondents also mentioned a dislike of pike as a food fish, and specifically  
299 stated that they would not fish for it.

300

301 *F-07: I've never fished for pike. But I know lots of people who fish for pike. It's not a*  
302 *good eating fish, like trout is.*

### 303 3.1.2. Species of high conservation status

304 Among managers, arctic charr, brown trout and salmon were each mentioned seven  
305 times as species of concern. Grayling, eel, pearl mussel, european bullhead, asp,  
306 fourhorn sculpin, white bream and vendace were also mentioned. Several admitted  
307 that while they would like to see more focus on the latter species, salmonids were  
308 prioritised primarily for economic reasons, although in some regions salmonid  
309 species were also declining.

310

311 *M-24: From a biological point of view I guess all species have the same value, from*  
312 *a financial point of view I guess trout and char are the biggest resource...*

313

314 All eight researchers mentioned at least one salmonid as a species of concern.  
315 Burbot, pearl mussels, lampreys, sculpins, cyprinids and notostracan crustaceans  
316 were also mentioned.

### 317 3.2. Local anthropogenic stressors

318 Alien species were mentioned as a primary concern to their freshwater ecosystem by  
319 five of the eight researchers, with climate change mentioned as a primary concern  
320 for six. Eight of the twelve managers mentioned non-native species as a primary  
321 concern, and eight mentioned climate change.

### 322 3.3.1. Perception of alien species

323 Three of ten fishers mentioned method of introduction in their definition of a non-  
324 native species. Respondent F-14 claimed that species that dispersed naturally were  
325 non-native, with respondent F-29 feeling that species dispersing naturally were “not  
326 necessarily alien” and respondent F-11 claiming that a non-native species “had to be  
327 introduced by humans”. No fishers mentioned social perception of species in their  
328 definition. Two fishers mentioned the species native range, with respondent F-26  
329 defining non-native species as those that are “not native in Norway”, and F-05  
330 defining species from the east of Norway as ‘unnatural’. All definitions referred  
331 generally to fish not belonging in the region or specific lake.

332

333 *F-18: It means species who aren't originally from that environment. So species you*  
334 *wouldn't have found there originally.*

335

336 *F-27: The definition for me became quite narrow because one of my favourite waters*  
337 *became infected by pike, by some people placing it there because they think it's fun*  
338 *to fish for it. So for me that would be an alien species in that water, it's not supposed*  
339 *to be there.*

340

341 Seven of 12 managers mentioned method of introduction in their definition of a non-  
342 native species. Of these seven, two definitively named species that spread naturally  
343 as non-native species.

344

345 *M-02: Alien species are primarily those set out by humans. I maybe don't have a*  
346 *clear definition, but if they come here by themselves they can also be alien species.*

347

348 Two managers stated that non-native species needed direct human help to move.

349

350 ***M-21:** I think of course you have had a natural extension and retraction of species*  
351 *always throughout the history of the earth. And of course climate change is affecting*  
352 *this in an unnatural way, but still it's not the same as human transportations of*  
353 *species.*

354

355 The other three did not have a definitive stance either way, but gave impressions on  
356 the subject.

357

358 ***M-09:** I'm mainly thinking about those who are not spreading by themselves but who*  
359 *are spread by humans. But also those who are coming because of human induced*  
360 *climate change. I think that's not so easy to point out if it's totally alien species or just*  
361 *slightly expanding because of a natural variation.*

362

363 Three managers mentioned social perception when defining non-native species.

364 Respondent M-20 defined non-native species as something "we don't like", whereas  
365 respondents M-24 and M-10 admitted that social perception could influence  
366 management approaches to non-native species, though they still classed species as  
367 non-native regardless of social perception.

368

369 Seven managers mentioned whether or not the species was native in Norway as an  
370 aspect of the definition. All stated that species which were native to Norway but not  
371 to a local region should also be classified as non-native in that region.

372

373 Six of eight researchers mentioned method of introduction as an aspect of the  
374 definition of a non-native species. Of those, four stated that species which moved on  
375 their own into new regions were non-native.

376

377 **SR-17:** *I think it's a species that's coming to an area where it hasn't been for*  
378 *decades. So it varies, it can come naturally, moving slowly through freshwater*  
379 *species, like some of the alien species we have here that are coming from Sweden.*

380

381 The other two stated that non-native species needed direct human help to move.  
382 Only one researcher mentioned social perception in their definition, with respondent  
383 SR-25 claiming the definition was "value-based". Two researchers included whether  
384 or not the species was native to Norway in their definition, with both stating that  
385 species native to a certain region of Norway could still be classified as non-native in  
386 other areas.

387

388 **SR-19:** *I know when we use this term we need to specify if we mean truly alien, like*  
389 *not even belonging in this country, or just having moved to a new area. But for me*  
390 *they mean both...*

391

392 3.3.2. Perception of climate change driven versus translocation driven  
393 turnover

394 All fishers felt negatively about climate change driven turnover, with all citing their  
395 inability to fish for their preferred species as the main reason. Several used strong or  
396 emotive language in their reaction to the hypothetical scenario.

397

398 **F-18:** *F\*\*\* off. Would be my answer. It would be a terrible situation for my passion.*

399 *It's that easy. I don't have a big interest in dry fly fishing for perch or pike.*

401 Only one respondent mentioned ramifications for the local ecosystem as a  
402 contributing factor to his reaction. Several respondents recognised that climate  
403 change may make lakes more suitable for other species, but that these lakes should  
404 still be preserved.

405

406 **F-27:** *That would feel bad, it would ruin my waters. I wouldn't like that, and I think we*  
407 *should try to prevent it, even though it's climate change, we should stop those things*  
408 *from happening.*

409

410 There was no inversion of response when asked how they felt about translocation  
411 driven turnover, however four felt even more negatively about this possibility.

412

413 **F-14:** *I think I would get more angry if it was humans. But I wouldn't be happy either*  
414 *if it was climate change. People should know... the consequences of moving species*  
415 *over.*

416

417 While some fishers did feel negatively about the prospect of climate change driven  
418 turnover, they felt it was unlikely to occur in their local ecosystems in the near future.

419

420 Nine of 12 managers felt negatively about climate change driven turnover. Three of  
421 those managers cited potential effects on local fishers as a contributing factor to their  
422 reactions. Of the nine, only four felt that management steps should be taken to  
423 prevent non-native species from establishing in lakes as a result of range-shifts.

424

425 **M-22:** ...some species will spread, even though they're alien species, because you  
426 simply don't have the possibility to stop them. But in other respects, I would resent or  
427 try to stop such a development... Because you also have to bear in mind that these  
428 are alien species and you should give the native species a possibility to adapt from  
429 climate change...

430

431 Of the managers who did not feel that management actions were warranted in the  
432 case of climate change driven turnover, most stated that they felt it was futile to  
433 combat long-term changes.

434

435 **M-21:** ...it's a result of a new climate situation, and it's not possible to try to fight this I  
436 think. I think the species living in the environment has just adapted, and we lose  
437 some and we get some... It's not possible to try to maintain the status quo if the  
438 climate changes.

439

440 The manager who did not feel negatively about climate change driven turnover,  
441 respondent M-01, also did not feel negatively about translocation driven turnover,  
442 stating that as their region of concern did not have any incoming non-native species  
443 of concern, no action would be needed.

444

445 Five of the nine managers who felt negatively about climate change driven turnover  
446 stated that they would feel more negatively about translocation driven turnover.

447

448 **M-24:** I think then I could direct, my anger, my mood I guess, my emotions would be  
449 directed. More disappointment and anger, those kinds of feelings I guess. We would

450 *have to look at how this was allowed to happen, and adapt a management scheme*  
451 *to it I guess.*

452

453 Of the five managers who felt negatively about, yet did not feel that management  
454 steps should be taken to mediate climate change driven turnover, four felt that  
455 management steps would be warranted in cases of human driven translocation, with  
456 one explicitly stating that they had in fact performed management actions in such  
457 cases.

458

459 ***M-21:*** *If a species is moved by humans into a new area we will actively try to remove*  
460 *it again. We have a lot of examples of that, we've spent money on that. It's very*  
461 *difficult to succeed with such an approach, but we do it.*

462

463 Four of the eight researchers did not feel negatively about the possibility of climate  
464 change driven turnover, with many feeling it was a natural process.

465

466 ***SR-25:*** *If for some reason a new species is able to survive in an area now that it*  
467 *couldn't before, I think that's life. And to put a lot of management efforts into avoiding*  
468 *that, I think that's a bad solution. There are so many other things to use limited*  
469 *resources on.*

470

471 Four felt negatively about the process, but two did not feel that management was  
472 warranted and would be futile.

473

474 **SR-19:** *I would also feel that it was nothing we could do, and accept it, and try to*  
475 *focus on something else... because it would be very difficult to artificially keep other*  
476 *species alive in systems which isn't suitable for them any more.*

477

478 All researchers felt negatively about the prospect of translocation driven turnover. Of  
479 the six who did not feel that management action should be taken to avoid climate  
480 change driven turnover, all six felt that it was appropriate to combat translocation  
481 driven turnover.

482

483 **SR-16:** *...obviously if there is a human introduction, then I would view that more*  
484 *negatively ... with human induced temperature increase, that would be a pretty*  
485 *strong concern, but then with a direct introduction, that would be even more of a*  
486 *concern, because we have the knowledge, to know that we shouldn't really do that,*  
487 *that that will mess up the natural ecosystems.*

488

## 489 Discussion

490 Ensuring that there is correlation between the views of scientific researchers,  
491 managers and the general public is critical when implementing conservation  
492 strategies. This is especially the case when the strategies involve complex and  
493 controversial subjects, such as the interacting effects of non-native species and  
494 climate change (Pecl et al. 2017). Here, we aimed to identify possible causes of  
495 disconnect between these different groups in their perception of the interacting  
496 nature of climate change and non-native species and their subsequent impact on  
497 freshwater ecosystems. Our analysis shows that attitudes vary within and between  
498 managers and researchers to the impacts of non-native species when they are in  
499 part driven by climate change. However the same impacts are almost unanimously  
500 negatively viewed by a public group - in this case recreational fishers - with the  
501 influence of climate change on the nature of the non-native species having very little  
502 effect on their opinions.

503

504 The most prominent contrast between the groups was the fishers' response to  
505 climate change driven turnover compared to that of the managers and researchers.  
506 While there were conflicting feelings about climate change driven turnover among  
507 the managers and researchers, the prospect was unanimously rejected by  
508 recreational fishers. Although some admitted they would be more angry if human  
509 translocation were the sole culprit, many stated that they would view the presence of  
510 a non-native species and/or the loss of native species negatively regardless of  
511 whether or not climate change had influenced the outcome. Many felt that  
512 management action should be taken to prevent such turnover wherever possible.

513 This lack of consensus between groups is not unexpected, as instances in which  
514 there are disagreements between local stakeholders who are directly impacted and  
515 managers and researchers are far from uncommon (Redpath et al. 2013; Manjarrez-  
516 Bringas et al. 2018).

517

518

519 Contrast in the impacts and management of non-native species and climate change  
520 was present within groups as well, most notably among managers and scientific  
521 researchers. While most felt negatively about the process, there was a variety of  
522 opinions in both groups regarding whether or not management action should be  
523 taken. While some supported removal, many felt it would be futile - even in cases  
524 where lack of removal would result in a local extirpation - while others felt it would be  
525 unwarranted even if removal were possible. This is unsurprising, as dialogue  
526 regarding the concept of range-shifting species is often polarised (Shackelford et al.  
527 2013). However it does suggest a lack of consensus on a management issue that  
528 may become more pressing in the coming decades. Open dialogue between  
529 managers and scientific researchers at this stage could help establish consensus on  
530 the management of the impacts of non-native species and climate change early,  
531 which could substantially aid management going forward (Pecl et al. 2017).

532

533 The unanimous rejection of new species by fishers was often mentioned in  
534 conjunction with the new species having little or no perceived value as a food  
535 resource. Further investigation into how heavily this factors into decision-making is  
536 warranted, including whether perception would shift if the incoming species had  
537 more in common with preferred species, such as the previously introduced species

538 brook or lake trout. Familiarity with a species has previously been shown to affect  
539 public perception of them as non-native or not (Kochalski et al. 2019), and emotion  
540 can often play a larger role than rationale in shaping opinions on fish as a food  
541 resource (Verbeke et al. 2007). While pike does not appear to be a preferred food-  
542 fish in Norway, it is well-regarded elsewhere in Europe (Linhart et al. 2002).  
543 Qualitative studies in areas where species have been established for longer periods  
544 of time may shed more light on the role of the public's familiarity with non-native  
545 species in their reaction to them.

546

547 Similar contrasts between groups on the perception of climate change driven  
548 turnover are reflected in the definitions of non-native species across the different  
549 groups. While it featured in the definitions of over half both the managers and  
550 researchers, method of introduction was generally not addressed by the fishers in  
551 their definition of non-native species. Furthermore, although several fishers  
552 acknowledged that climate change would likely alter nearby ecosystems, only one  
553 alluded to the possibility of new species arriving. This could be a result of a lack of  
554 knowledge regarding the effects of range shifts as a product of climate change, or an  
555 association of non-native species as primarily being a product of human  
556 translocation.

557

558 Given the global restructuring of ecosystems that is currently taking place as a  
559 product of climate change gradually altering species ranges, more open  
560 communication between all three groups should be a priority for anyone concerned  
561 with conservation of ecosystem management. Going forward, perhaps the most  
562 notable area of disconnect between the groups is the question of whether

563 management actions should be taken to prevent the impacts of non-native species,  
564 even when such impacts are driven by climate change. The reluctance to commit  
565 resources to stopping such impacts among managers and researchers compared to  
566 the insistence that such management was required by the fishers represents the  
567 most obvious source of potential future conflict. Previous research in marine systems  
568 has suggested that fishers do not tend to automatically link climate change to the  
569 arrival of new species (van Putten et al. 2016), and that educating public  
570 stakeholders is crucial in the success of future policy regarding climate change and  
571 range-shifts (Nurse-Bray et al. 2012; Pecl et al. 2017). Further communication  
572 between the public and both managers and scientific researchers regarding the  
573 interacting effects of climate change and non-native species could therefore be a  
574 useful preventative measure, and make management actions more widely supported  
575 in the future.

576

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## 585 **Data Availability Statement**

586 Extended responses from all respondents are openly available at  
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## 588 **Author Contributions**

589 SP and CL conceived the idea. SWP, CPW and CL designed the methodology. SP  
590 and AGF sourced the initial pool of respondents. SP collected and analysed the  
591 data. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for  
592 publication.

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