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2	Socioeconomic impacts of Australian redclaw crayfish Cherax quadricarinatus in Lake Kariba
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Abstract 31

The rapidly spreading Australian red claw crayfish Cherax quadricarinatus in the Zambezi 32 Basin is a cause for concern considering its potential impacts. The assessment of the impacts 33 of C. quadricarinatus is critical for the prioritisation of policy and management actions in 34 Africa where literature on impacts of *C. quadricarinatus* is generally scant. We quantified the 35 socioeconomic impacts conferred by C. quadricarinatus on artisanal gillnetting fishery in Lake 36 Kariba to validate anecdotal fisher reports regarding crayfish damage to fish catch on static 37 gillnets. From the catch assessments with registered fishers, fish catch composition, catch per 38 unit effort (CPUE), crayfish entangled on gillnets CPUE, damaged fish CPUE, and damaged 39 areas of the fish were recorded. Basin 2 had significantly higher CPUE with respect to fish 40 catch and crayfish, as well as catch damage, compared to other basins. Damage by crayfish on 41 42 fish was recorded in all the basins except in Basin 5. There was no correlation between number of crayfish bycatch and fish catch damage. The most frequently affected species was 43 Oreochromis niloticus. On all fish species, eyes, guts and the tail were the frequently damaged 44 parts. Due to C. quadricarinatus damage, fishers are losing 212 tonnes per year which 45 translates to US\$ 512 352.92 in Lake Kariba. Damage losses are particularly high when the 46 total income per household in the region, which is mainly contributed by fishing, is considered. 47 The lack of damage in Basin 5 is likely due to fishers developing adaptive new techniques 48 49 which are less likely to be affected by crayfish. This study is the first in Africa to quantify the 50 socio-economic losses due to crayfish in the field, and the first globally to derive observed costs for C. quadricarinatus. Data from this study have huge conservation and management 51 implications, as crayfish threaten food security as well as incur personal losses to fishers via 52 53 damage-related costs.



Keywords: Economic cost; fisheries damage; invasion impact; scavenging; decapoda; Africa

55 **1.0 Introduction**

Biological invasions are a major anthropogenic stressor as many invasions confer negative 56 impacts on biodiversity (Gallardo et al., 2015; Seebens et al., 2017; Meyerson et al., 2019; 57 Tickner et al. 2020) and human livelihoods (Ellender et al., 2014; Blackburn et al., 2019). 58 Invasions result in new species interactions which confer a variety of negative effects upon 59 indigenous populations such as direct predation (Weis, 2011); hybridisation (Zengeya et al., 60 61 2015); disease transfer (Prenter et al., 2004) and competition for resources (Raymond et al., 2015). Invasive alien species (IAS) can also have detrimental socioeconomic impacts, affecting 62 63 ecosystem services that are beneficial for human well-being (Vilà and Hulme, 2018). Although, conversely, IAS may give positive socio-economic benefits to societies who use or value them 64 (Andriantsoa et al., 2020). Nonetheless, the damage caused by IAS and the costs associated 65 66 with their management to control them can be a significant economic burden and user conflicts may create difficulty and community resistance to management (Hoffmann and Broadhurst, 67 2015; Oficialdegui et al., 2020). 68

69

Freshwater crayfish (Crustacea: Decapoda) are among the most successful IAS and have been 70 71 introduced worldwide, with documented serious negative impacts on resident biodiversity and extortionately high economic costs (Lodge et al., 2012; Madzivanzira et al., 2020; Kouba et 72 al., 2021). Global crayfish introduction pathways are fisheries and aquaculture, the aquarium 73 74 trade, biological control of disease vectors and for research purposes (Lodge et al., 2012), with wild populations established due to accidental and/or deliberate release (Geiger et al., 2005; 75 Kouba et al., 2014; Lodge et al., 2012; Oficialdegui et al., 2019; Madzivanzira et al., 2020). 76 77 Negative impacts of invasive crayfish can either be direct (consumptive) or indirect (nonconsumptive) and include the loss of ecosystem services such as food provisioning services 78 through a reduction in native species used in subsistence fisheries or of economic value; 79

80

disruption of community food webs; disease vectoring; and increased costs to agriculture and water management (Lodge *et al.*, 2012; Madzivanzira *et al.*, 2020; Kouba *et al.* 2021).

82

Crayfish are phylogenetically novel in continental Africa, and nine species were introduced for 83 socioeconomic purposes (Madzivanzira et al., 2020). Five crayfish species have established 84 populations. Of particular concern is globally invasive Australian red claw crayfish Cherax 85 quadricarinatus (von Martens 1868) which is rapidly spreading across Southern Africa 86 (Madzivanzira et al., 2020, 2021a). Cherax quadricarinatus is native to Northern Australia and 87 88 south-eastern Papua New Guinea (Riek, 1969). In Southern Africa, C. quadricarinatus has established in the Inkomati Basin (South Africa, Swaziland and Mozambique) (Nunes et al., 89 2017; Madzivanzira et al., 2020), Zambezi Basin (Zambia, Namibia, Zimbabwe, and 90 91 Mozambique) (Madzivanzira et al., 2020, 2021a). The first documented introduction of C. 92 quadricarinatus into the Zambezi system was in 2001 when this species was introduced from Swaziland to two fish farms in the Zambezi system, one at the eastern end of the Kafue Flats, 93 and the other at Siavonga on the shore of Lake Kariba in Zambia (Madzivanzira et al., 2020). 94 Wild populations of C. quadricarinatus were first reported in the Kafue River in 2001 and in 95 2002 in Lake Kariba (Douthwaite et al., 2018). 96

97

98 Crayfish have a damaging global invasion history (Lodge *et al.*, 2000; Twardochleb *et al.*, 2013). Observed global damage costs from crayfish invasions is around US \$ 4.2 million, and specific losses to fisheries is around US \$6.6 million a year from a mixture of damage and 101 management costs (Kouba *et al.*, 2021). However, impact assessments need to be context 102 dependent to avoid making erroneous comparisons. In Africa, a few studies have attempted to 103 infer the impact of invasive crayfish species (Jackson *et al.*, 2016; South *et al.*, 2019, 2020; 104 Madzivanzira *et al.*, 2021b, 2022). Nonetheless, there is very little data evidencing field impact

or providing accurate estimates of socioeconomic cost incurred by damage to fisheries. This
information is essential to compel policy makers to prioritise their management and prevent
further introductions.

108

In Lake Kariba, similar to other locations (e.g., Kafue River, Weyl et al., 2017; Madzivanzira 109 et al., 2022a), fishers have reported anecdotally how C. quadricarinatus spoils catch through 110 partial consumption by crayfish of fish caught in gillnets. This is of concern as fisheries are an 111 important source of livelihood as a source of protein and income, as well as wider associated 112 113 value chains for over 200 million Africans livelihoods. The losses associated with C. quadricarinatus damage, therefore, pose the potential for severe and escalating costs if 114 mitigation efforts are not undertaken. The catch losses associated with crayfish spoilage have 115 116 not been quantified in the field, although Madzivanzira et al., (2022a) attempted to estimate the losses using laboratory experimental data. We therefore quantify observed fishery losses 117 for the first time in Africa, or for C. quadricarinatus globally, using the artisanal gill net fishery 118 in Lake Kariba. Adaptive management and mitigation strategies are further suggested which 119 are applicable to other invaded systems with valuable fisheries. 120

121

122 **2.0** Materials and Methods

123 2.1 *Study area*

The study was carried out in Lake Kariba, which is the world's largest man-made lake by volume, bordering Zimbabwe and Zambia. The lake has a water volume of 185 km³, a surface area of 5580 km² and a length of 280 km. The lake supports a range of biodiversity and part of it is under the UNESCO Biosphere Reserve (Magadza *et al.*, 2020). Thirty-three fish species have been recorded in Lake Kariba (Zengeya and Marshall, 2008) mainly dominated by Cichlids, Cyprinids, Clarids, Characids, Momyrids and Alestids (Phiri and Mhlanga, 2014). Lake Kariba is divided into five basins namely: Mlibizi (Basin 1), Binga (Basin 2), Sengwa
(Basin 3), Bumi (Basin 4) and Sanyati (Basin 5) (Fig. 1). On the Zimbabwean shoreline of
Lake Kariba, fishing camps and villages in each basin have designated fishing grounds with
1154 officially registered fishers (Frame Survey 2011). Fishers fish for ≈281 days in a year
with a week of rest in each month (the "full moon" period) which is an attempt to reduce fishing
effort.





Fig. 1 Map of Lake Kariba showing the hydrological basins sampled

138

139 2.2 Sampling

140 Data were collected from 23 fishing villages and camps on the Zimbabwean shoreline of Lake

141 Kariba during a 12-day Catch Assessment Survey in the hot dry season (August and September

142 2019) characterised by maximum temperatures averaging 29.3°C - 33.4°C (weatheratlas.com). Data were collected from 107 registered fishers at landing sites of 23 fishing 143 camps/villages when they returned from retrieving their gillnets from the lake in the morning 144 (Table 1). The fishers are allowed to have a maximum of 5 cotton/nylon nets measuring 100 m 145 each with mesh sizes of 4 inches and above (per fishing authority guidance in Lake Kariba). 146 These nets are laid in designated fishing zones of the lake. Fishers lay their gillnets at dusk and 147 retrieve them at dawn with an average soak time of 12 hours. At the landing site, after the nets 148 were retrieved at dawn, the catches were inspected and assessed for the relevant information 149 150 for data collection. Fish were identified to species level to assess the catch composition and quantity, fishing effort (number and mesh size of nets), number and weight of crayfish 151 entangled on gillnets, number and weight of both whole and damaged fish, and areas damaged 152 153 were recorded from the inspection. An informal questionnaire was also administered to the 154 same 107 fishers to get their perspective on the depredation of their gillnet catches. The questionnaire comprised of open ended questions regarding perception of fish spoilage on gill 155 nets and suspected fish catch scavengers. 156

157

158	Table 1	Distribution	of sam	pled	landing	sites	across	the 5	5 basins	in	Lake	Kariba

Basin	Fishing camp/village (landing sites)	Number of fishers
5	3	17
4	7	30
3	5	24
2	7	30
1	1	6
Total	23	107

159 *each fishing camp/village has a landing site

160

161 2.3 Data analysis

To standardise the data and to account for fishing effort, we calculated the catch per unit effort (CPUE_{intact}), the spoiled fish CPUE (CPUE_{spoiled}) and the CPUE of entangled crayfish (CPUE_{crayfish}) for each basin according to the formulas below, where effort is defined as 100m net/night:

166 CPUE for intact fish
$$(CPUE_{intact}) = \frac{total mass intact fish}{effort}$$
 (1)
167 CPUE for spoiled fish $(CPUE_{spoiled}) = \frac{total mass spoiled fish}{effort}$ (2)
168 CPUE for crayfish $(CPUE_{crayfish}) = \frac{total number of crayfish}{effort}$ (3)

169

Both CPUE by number and mass were calculated for all three metrics, although only CPUE by number was used in statistical analyses as maximum mass varies between fish species. CPUE by mass is included (S1) due to crayfish consumption rates varying by mass and fisheries commodities being sold by mass therefore CPUE_{spoiled} by mass is needed for loss calculations (Madzivanzira *et al.* 2022).

175

A Generalised Linear Model (GLM) with a quasi-poisson error distribution to account for
overdispersion in the model was used to determine whether there were basin level differences
in CPUE_{crayfish}. Factor differences were explored post-hoc using the package "emmeans"
(Lenth, 2021).

180

181 To assess whether there were basin level differences in $CPUE_{spoiled}$, while accounting for overall 182 fish catch (i.e. $CPUE_{intact}$) we calculated the ratio of $CPUE_{spoiled}$: $CPUE_{intact}$ and arcsine square 183 root transformed the ratio. The transformed ratio was used as the response variable in a GLM 184 with a poisson error distribution after checking qq-plots for residual distribution and 185 overdispersion.

187	To determine whether the number of crayfish caught as bycatch in the nets was related to the
188	number of fish damaged, Kendall's rank correlation was performed on the arcsine square root
189	transformed ratio and $CPUE_{crayfish}$ to account for non-normality of data. The purpose of this was
190	to identify whether there was proportional retention of crayfish bycatch to fish damage, which
191	could be used as a proxy for abundance measures in the future as the standard methodology for
192	crayfish trapping in southern Africa is generally used by practitioners rather than fishers.
193	
194	To calculate the maximum monetary loss that fishers incur due to crayfish damage, the
195	following equations were used:
196	
197	Monetary loss per day = CPUEspoiled $(kg) * maximum effort * price of fish per kg$ (4)
198	
199	$Monetary \ loss \ per \ year = \ Monetary \ loss \ per \ day \ \cdot \ 281 \ fishing \ days \tag{5}$
200	
201	$Total Monetary loss per year = Monetary loss per year \cdot number of registered fishers $ (6)
202	
203	Where the maximum effort is 500 m per night, the average price of all fish landed into Kariba
204	ports is US \$2.50 and the number of registered fishers in 2021 was 1154.
205	
206	3.0 Results
207	Overall, there was a 16800 m of gillnet analysed, equating to a fishing effort of 8, 20, 60, 29
208	and 50 (100m per net per night), in Basins 1-5 respectively.
209	

210 3.1 *Crayfish presence*

Cherax quadricarinatus were present in all the basins sampled. There was a significant effect 212 of Basin on CPUE_{crayfish} ($\chi^2 = 68.82$, df = 4, p < 0.001), where Basin 2 had a higher 213 CPUE_{crayfish} than Basin 3 (p<0.01) and Basin 5 (p<0.05) (Table 2; Fig 2).

215	Table 2	CPUE by	number by	y basin
-----	---------	---------	-----------	---------

Basin	CPUEcrayfish	CPUEspoiled	CPUEintact
1	0.75±0.29	0.12±0.25	3.12±2.5
2	17.34±18.42	0.5±0.49	8.32±7.95
3	1.96±1.6	0.16±0.09	2.74±2.78
4	0.06±0.18	0.09±0.19	1.27±1.47
5	0.25±0.58	0.0±0.0	2.88±2.88





220 <u>means) of of CPUE_{crayfish} in each Basin of Lake Kariba from a GLM with quasi-poisson error</u>

221 distributions



Fig. 3: Arcsine square root transformed ratio of $CPUE_{spoiled}$: CPUE intact of fish catch in gillnets in each Basin of Lake Kariba. CPUE_{spoiled} indicates that fish have scavenging damage from crayfish. Points indicate raw data, lower and upper limits indicate 25-75% quantiles and line indicates median. Smaller points indicate outliers.

229 3.2 *Crayfish damage*

From the questionnaire, fishers claimed the primary species scavenging their catch were Nile crocodiles (*Crocodylus niloticus*) (51.4%), redclaw crayfish (44.9%), African helmeted turtle (*Pelomedusa subrufa*) (0.9%), and 2.8% of the fishers did not experience catch damages. Fishers determined catch damage by crayfish by presence on the net, stereotypical visible slicing wounds on the fish, and the fish rotting quickly. The fishers also reported that, damage as a result from crocodile scavenging usually results in large holes and damage to the nets, as well as loss of substantial parts of the fish.

237

Damage by crayfish on fish was recorded in all the basins except in Basin 5, however, there was no effect of basin on ratio of spoiled:intact fish CPUE ($\chi^2 = 0.52$, df = 4, p = 0.97) (Table 3; Fig. 3). There was a significant weak relationship between ratio of spoiled:intact fish CPUE and CPUE_{crayfish} (z = 3.59, R=0.45, p<0.001; Fig 4). In one instance there were typical crayfish damage marks recorded on *Hydrocynus vitattus* but no crayfish were caught in the net, indicating that crayfish are not readily retained by the gillnets mesh size.

244

The highest percentage catch loss was recorded in Basin 2 (20% of catch), Basin 1 experienced 13% catch loss from crayfish, and Basin 3 and 4 had less than 15% loss (Table 3). Damage marks were detected on 43 individual fish, species damaged include: *Oreochromis niloticus* (45%), *Clarias gariepinus* (10%), *Mormyrus longirostris* (15%), *Synodontis zambezensis* (20%), *Coptodon rendalii* (5%) and *H. vitattus* (5%). In all fish species, the eyes, guts and the tail were all frequently damaged.

251

252

Table 3 CPUE of intact and spoiled fish in and monetary value (in US \$) per night in LakeKariba

					Monetary value of
	Basin	CPUE _{intact}	$CPUE_{spoiled}$	% loss	loss per 100m (\$)
		(kg/100 m net)	(kg/100 m net)		
	1	1.26	0.19	13.34	0.48
	2	9.04	2.25	19.97	5.63
	3	2.75	0.45	14.16	1.13
	4	2.21	0.25	10.04	0.63
	5	1.05	0.00	0.00	0.00
255					
256					
257	3.4 Econom	ic losses			
258	The highest dar	nage was recorded i	in Basin 2, where an	average CPUE	of 2.3 kg/100m of fish
259	are being lost p	er day per fisher du	e to crayfish damage	e. The loss due	to crayfish spoilage in
260	Lake Kariba is	0.63 kg/fisher/day (Table 4). When all 1	osses are comb	ined, 212 tonnes are
261	lost annually w	hich translates to \approx	US\$ 512 352.92 (Ta	ble 4).	
262 263 264	Table 4 Moneta Zimbabwe	ary losses incurred l	by fishers due to cra	yfish damage in	Lake Kariba,
			Weight val	ue (kg) Mo	netary value (US\$)

		•
Catch Loss/Fisher/Day (kg)	0.63	1.58
Catch Loss/day × 1 154 Fishers (kg)	756.03	1 823.32
Annual Loss × 281 fishing days	199 591.92	512 352.92

266 4.0 Discussion

Socioeconomic impacts of IAS provide crucial insights for efficient management and policy, 267 vet reliable syntheses are still lacking (Diagne et al., 2021). Socioeconomic impacts of IAS are 268 269 also more easily perceived and more likely to be addressed by stakeholders than ecological losses. Here, we provide the first observed economic cost assessment of C. quadricarinatus 270 globally and the first observed cost assessment for crayfish in Africa. The catch assessment 271 272 survey conducted in the small-scale artisanal gillnet fishery of Lake Kariba identified high observed fisheries damage costs due to C. quadricarinatus. We demonstrate the presence of C. 273 274 quadricarinatus in all the sampled basins, indicating that the invader is still well established, 19 years after its introduction (Madzivanzira et al., 2020). High costs are seen, not as a result 275 of high damage rates, but due to the discarding of whole fish as they are considered culturally 276 277 to be contaminated. The establishment of C. quadricarinatus throughout the Zambezi Basin may pose a major threat to livelihoods in the Zambezi Basin relying on fisheries. 278

279

Within the present study, we have validated anecdotal reports of fisheries damage by C. 280 quadricarinatus in gillnet fisheries. Similar complains of spoilage of fish on gillnets and the 281 damage caused to gillnets when pulling the crayfish off the gillnets have been reported 282 (Lowery, and Mendes, 1977). The crayfish are attracted to any fish caught in the net and 283 partially consume the catch, while simultaneously spoiling the value of the catch (Weyl et al., 284 285 2017; Madzivanzira et al., 2022). Crayfish have been proved by an experimental study by Madzivanzira et al., 2022, to be fish catch scavengers and images of the damage are provided. 286 The proportion of spoiled to intact fish did not change with basin, suggesting that despite 287 288 differences in overall fish catch CPUE there is a similar extent of damage expected if there are fish caught in the nets. As crayfish are opportunistic generalists scavenging is common and can 289 substantially mediate phosphorous recycling rates by sequestering carcass nutrients (Boros et 290

291 al. 2020). The extent of impact on catch was weakly related to the abundance of crayfish entangled in the net. Retention of crayfish in the gillnets is not quantified but compared to 292 trapping methods it is extremely low (Mhlanga et al. 2020; Madzivanzira et al., 2021a,c; 293 294 Madzivanzira et al. 2023). We caution that the relationship between crayfish bycatch and fish damage is not truly informative without also performing standard methods for estimating 295 abundance (See Madzivanzira et al. 2021c). Low total numbers of crayfish scavenging are 296 297 reflected in Lake Kariba, where stable isotope analysis indicated a prevalence of fish in up to 12% of medium sized crayfish (30-59 mm carapace length) diets (Marufu et al, 2018). Similar 298 299 to laboratory studies, the eyes, stomach and tail were frequently damaged which suggests opportunistic damage to accessible parts of the fish (Madzivanzira et al., 2022). In the Lake 300 Kariba fishery, and indeed others in the Upper Zambezi (e.g. Barotse floodplain), aesthetic 301 302 damage to catch often translates to economic loss regardless of extent. When crayfish causes a 303 percentage of the catch to be unmarketable, targets are not met and the impacts cascade through the value chain (Madzivanzira et al., 2022). If crayfish bycatch in the nets was considerable it 304 could be recommended to create a supplemental market to offset this. However, as by catch is 305 low, we recommend instead the use of misdirection traps to simultaneously catch crayfish for 306 bycatch, reduce damage to fish catch, and suppress population (Madzivanzira et al. 2022). 307

308

309

Fisheries in Lake Kariba contribute to livelihoods through both local sale and the international export market. However, any fish damaged by crayfish are not marketable and, in most cases, will not be consumed even by the fishers. The most damage impacted fish species by *C*. *quadricarinatus* was *O. niloticus* which is likely due to the species higher relative abundance in the lake among other cichlids, as well as the type of gears (e.g. large mesh gillnets) that are used by fishers (which targets mostly tilapia species). This, therefore, does not necessarily 316 mean that C. quadricarinatus highly preferred O. niloticus to other fish species. Oreochromis niloticus makes up to 80% of the catch in Lake Kariba (excluding kapenta) 317 (https://www.fao.org/fi/oldsite/FCP/en/ZWE/profile.htm). Despite O. niloticus being an 318 introduced species in Lake Kariba, the species contributes significantly to the fishery of Lake 319 Kariba as well as other aquatic systems in southern Africa (Ellender et al., 2014; Madzivanzira 320 et al., 2022a). Oreochromis niloticus from Lake Kariba is sold locally in Zimbabwe and 321 322 exported as frozen whole fish or fillets to the European market mainly supermarket chains northern Europe and southern 323 across Spain and in the Africa region 324 (https://www.fao.org/fishery/en/facp/zwe). Therefore, the damage caused by С. quadricarinatus is a cause for concern across multiple scales as it threatens both local food 325 security as well as the broader economy as damaged fish cannot be sold at the international 326 327 scale.

328

The fishery impacts from *C. quadricarinatus* are a food security concern as riparian communities in Lake Kariba, as well as the entire African continent (associated with high levels of poverty) highly rely on fish for protein. The potential losses in catch and income as recorded and calculated for Lake Kariba could be more than half a million US\$ per year due to spoilage by *C. quadricarinatus*. From this annual loss, each fisher is likely to be losing \approx US\$ 50 per

month. This amount lost is significant, considering that the total income per household in Kariba fishing camps ranges between US140 - 233 per month (Magqina *et al.*, 2020). Despite the catch assessment being the most comprehensive to date, some uncertainties remain in the dataset. For example, not all of the 957 registered fishers fish every day of the 281 fishing days (over estimation) and poaching by unregistered fishers during the full moon period is highly likely (under estimation). The potential overall loss in catch and income shown in this study could be less in the winter season and greater in the summer season as impacts of crayfish 341 increase with temperature (Madzivanzira et al., 2021b, 2022a). This is because of the effects of temperature on crayfish physiology (Uiterwaal and DeLong, 2020; Madzivanzira et al., 342 2021b, 2022a), as well as the effects of season on water levels. Water levels in Lake Kariba 343 decline during the summer season before significant rains (September – December) which 344 could increase the rate of crayfish/caught fish encounters, and this drives the additive impact 345 during this season. A combination of these factors which are both driven by summer 346 temperatures could act in tandem thereby further causing devastating socioeconomic impacts. 347 As crayfish entangle themselves on the gillnets, they reduce their efficiency and result in low 348 349 fish catches (Weyl et al., 2017). The gillnets are also damaged when crayfish are removed from the gillnets. Fishers must then increase their fishing effort to compensate for the lost catch, and 350 in some cases, they resort to the use of illegal methods such as fish driving, as well as using 351 352 illegal gears (pers obs ATC, TCM).

353

Economic aspects are critical in this context, especially regarding the limited economic 354 capacity of most African countries to counteract invasions. Indeed, information on the 355 economic impacts of biological invasions is important at several levels, especially for 356 increasing societal awareness of the substantial losses caused by invasions (Diagne et al., 357 2020). It was therefore vital to calculate the losses associated with C. quadricarinatus invasions 358 in the field, as socioeconomic impacts are more easily perceived and more likely to be 359 360 addressed by stakeholders to avoid further escalating cost (Cuthbert et al., 2022). While various studies have demonstrated how virtually impossible it is to eradicate crayfish once they have 361 established owing to the interconnected nature of aquatic environments and at times human-362 mediated movement (Madzivanzira et al., 2021a; Barkhuizen et al., 2022), the irreversible 363 socioeconomic impacts are likely to persist and worsen (Kerby et al., 2005), especially 364 considering the low level of conservation management resources in many African countries. 365

Adaptive measures may be a useful tool in socially combatting the economic loss from crayfish. 367 Fishers might need to redesign their fishing techniques in order to reduce the associated losses. 368 Fishers in some basins of Lake Kariba where C. quadricarinatus impacts were low stated that 369 they were setting their nets in such a way that the bottom parts of the nets do not touch the 370 bottom of the lake making the nets inaccessible to C. quadricarinatus (ATC pers obs.). This 371 372 technique was likely responsible for the lack of crayfish incurred losses in Basin 5 (Sanyati) and may be attributed to the fact that the Sanyati Basin was the initial introduction site 373 374 (Madzivanzira et al. 2020) and therefore social adaptation is more likely with longer invasion time. Setting nets when the weather is bad should be avoided by all means as this will increase 375 the soak time of nets, increasing the exposure time of caught fish to C. quadricarinatus spoilage 376 377 since the fishers will not be able to retrieve the nets during the bad weather. As crayfish damage is related to crayfish abundance, methods of population suppression should be developed to 378 keep abundances low (Manfrin et al., 2019; Madzivanzira et al. 2022). 379

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Mitigation of invasion impacts is essential as the food security and livelihoods in invaded 381 regions is being affected, which further strains the attainment of Sustainable Development Goal 382 1 (No Poverty), 2 (Zero Hunger) and Decent Work and Economic Growth (SDG 8) ;see 383 https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/. This is especially concerning in southern Africa 384 385 where there are high levels of poverty and little cohesive transboundary policy despite multiple shared watersheds. Crayfish invasions have clear capacity to cause damage across many sectors 386 and need to be prioritised with respect to research, policy and community engagement to limit 387 388 further spread.

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390 Conflict of Interest

391 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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393 Author Contributions

All authors conceived the study. Adroit Takudzwa Chakandinakira, Shantel Mashonga and
Nobuhle Ndlovu conducted the fieldwork. Adroit Takudzwa Chakandinakira, Takudzwa
Comfort Madzivanzira, Shantel Mashonga, John Vengai Muzvondiwa and Josie South
analysed the data. Adroit Takudzwa Chakandinakira led writing of the manuscript and all
authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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400 Data availability statement

401 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the402 corresponding author on reasonable request.

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