

1 **Freshwater ecosystems could become the biggest losers of the Paris**

2 **Agreement.**

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7 **Abstract**

8 Securing access to energy for a growing population under the international commitment of
9 reduction of greenhouse emissions requires increasing the contribution of renewable sources to the
10 global share. Hydropower energy, which accounts for > 80% of green energy, is experiencing a
11 boom fostered by international investment mainly in developing countries. This boom could be
12 further accelerated by the recent climate agreement reached in Paris. Despite its flexibility,
13 hydropower production entails social, economic and ecological risks that need to be carefully
14 considered before investing in the development of potentially thousands of planned hydropower
15 projects worldwide. This is especially relevant given the weak or non-existent legislation that
16 regulates hydropower project approval and construction in many countries. I highlight the need for
17 adequate policy to provide the Paris Agreement with new financial and planning mechanisms to
18 avoid further and irreversible damage to freshwater ecosystem services and biodiversity.

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20 **Turning green: support for a more sustainable development.**

21 The Paris Agreement reached at the COP21 in December 2015 represents the compromise of 195
22 countries, responsible for more than 94% of global greenhouse gas emissions, to limit global
23 warming to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels (UNFCCC 2015). Developed countries
24 committed to support actions to reduce emissions and build resilience to climate change impacts in
25 developing countries by mobilising USD 100 billion per year by 2020. This financial support is

26 intended to help move global economies towards new pathways of low greenhouse gas emissions
27 and climate-resilient development. Action should especially target energy production, a sector that
28 dominates current greenhouse gas emission levels (35% of total; Edenhofer et al. 2014). There are
29 other international initiatives working in the same direction, such as Rio+20 (UNEP 2012) or the
30 2030 Sustainable Development Goals promoted by United Nations (UN 2014), which encourages
31 countries to meet their growing energy demand by investing in renewable alternatives.

32 Securing access to energy for a growing population under the international commitment to
33 reducing greenhouse emissions requires increasing the contribution of renewable sources to the
34 global share. At present, 20% of the total energy demand is covered by renewables such as solar,
35 wind, geothermal, biomass and, especially, hydropower, which accounts for 80% of the total
36 contribution from renewables (Zarfl et al. 2015). The contribution of hydropower has been
37 achieved at the expense of constructing more than 8,600 large dams (>15 m high) and numerous
38 other smaller infrastructures. After a period of deceleration of investment in hydropower over the
39 past two decades, investment is currently increasing at an unprecedented rate. For example,
40 investment in the period 2010-2012 increased more than six-fold compared to the average
41 investment in the previous decade (Zarfl et al. 2015). The more than 3,700 large hydropower dams
42 under construction or planned worldwide will boost hydroelectric production by 73%, mostly in
43 developing countries (Zarfl et al. 2015), supported by international initiatives like Rio+20, UN
44 programs and international investors (Winemiller et al. 2016) and possibly by the financial
45 mechanisms made available through the Paris Agreement.

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47 **Is promoting hydropower the best option?**

48 Hydropower has traditionally received more attention over other sources of renewable energy due
49 to its reliability and flexibility, given that its production can be adapted to meet changes in demand
50 if enough water resources are available. However, large hydropower dams (responsible for more
51 than 90% of all hydropower production) are expensive to build and have a very low rate of return

52 on investment. Economic studies have reported that 75% of large dams suffered cost overruns of
53 nearly 96% of the initial budget projected prior its construction (Ansar et al. 2014). It is estimated
54 that a global investment of USD 2 trillion would be needed to develop all the dams currently under
55 construction or planned worldwide. This investment would, however, be insufficient to fill the gap
56 in access to energy for more than 1.4 billion people worldwide that are currently without electricity
57 or cover the increase in demand in the remaining areas (Zarfl et al. 2015). The high uncertainty of
58 future climate and water resource availability makes development of hydropower infrastructure an
59 extremely risky investment.

60 New hydropower dams are being developed or planned for the exploitation of freshwater resources
61 in river systems that are already exhausted with infrastructures or that are highly sensitive from a
62 social and ecological point of view. River regulation compromises crucial ecosystem services that
63 sustain the livelihoods of people living downstream and causes the displacement of locals affected
64 by the inundation of upstream lands. For example, more than 1 million tons of freshwater fish are
65 caught annually in the floodplains of the Mekong River (Ziv et al. 2012) providing the main source
66 of protein for millions of people. However, these freshwater fisheries could be seriously
67 compromised if some of the dams projected for the mainstem of the Mekong River were developed
68 (Gumbrine et al., 2012). Impacts on the productivity of fisheries and flood-recession agriculture
69 are estimated to currently affect near 500 million people worldwide (Richter et al., 2010).

70 Moreover, these hydropower dams cause drastic changes to the ecological functioning of aquatic
71 ecosystems and the biodiversity they sustain, ranging from fragmentation, that constrains the
72 movement of freshwater strict species, to significant modifications of flow (timing and magnitude),
73 temperature regimes and sediment transport (Vörösmarty et al. 2010; Sánchez-Zapata et al. 2016).
74 Freshwater ecosystems are among the most threatened worldwide (Vörösmarty et al. 2010; WWF,
75 2016) and this status could worsen in the near future due to hydropower expansion. Hydropower
76 dams under construction or planned in the Amazon, Congo and Mekong basins alone could
77 compromise the persistence of 1/3 of all freshwater fish species in the world (Winemiller et al.
78 2016). In addition, current and planned hydropower dams are also a major threat to protected areas

79 in developing countries like Brazil and jeopardize international commitments to UN Conventions
80 on Biological Diversity and Climate Change (Ferreira et al. 2014). Finally, most large catchments
81 under the focus of current and future hydropower development (e.g., Amazon, Ganges-
82 Brahmaputra, Mekong or Congo rivers) are transboundary systems, which coupled with the
83 increasing uncertainty in future water availability (Palmer et al. 2008), make the development of
84 new hydropower projects a geopolitically sensitive and risky issue.

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86 **Stronger international policy urgently needed**

87 The climate agreement reached in Paris could accelerate the new boom in hydropower
88 development as an alternative to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and closing the energy gap in
89 developing countries. Several proposed hydropower projects that could have remained
90 undeveloped, may now progress with new impetus due to the increased international funding
91 support. In fact, the recent acceleration observed in hydropower dam construction (Zarfl et al.
92 2015) could have already been fostered by the support of international initiatives like the UN
93 Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), Rio+20 and the 2030 Sustainable
94 Development Goals (Pittock 2010a, Bunn 2016). In the absence of stronger international rules and
95 coordination across different conventions and international organisations, there is a high risk of
96 irreversible social, economic and ecological damage for a very low return in terms of energy
97 production and climate change attenuation. For example, there is substantial conflict between the
98 goals of climate change institutions, such as UNFCCC, and the sustainable management of
99 freshwater ecosystems. These conflicts arise from the limited consideration of biodiversity
100 agreements such as the CBD, and lack of obligation to mitigate the impact of climate change
101 policies on other sectors (Pittock 2010b). In order to operationalise the implementation of the Paris
102 Agreement, new policies and funding mechanisms to support a sustainable development agenda
103 seem an urgent priority. This is important to give more specific content to the agreement, given that
104 the COP decisions involve political compromises with no indication of priorities (Gerstetter et al.
105 2012). Furthermore, a stronger integration of sectoral environmental protection agreements to

106 avoid perverse outcomes, such as support to development of hydropower projects that may cause
107 severe social and ecological damage, and realize positive synergies (Pittock 2010b) are urgently
108 needed.

109 The uncertainties about the future availability of freshwater resources and the significant social,
110 ecological and political conflicts of hydropower development highlight the need for robust
111 international policies that mandate minimum impact assessment standards to ensure sustainability
112 of future development of this sector. This is especially relevant given the lack of adequate
113 legislation that regulates the concession of projects and construction of hydropower dams in some
114 tropical developing countries (Ferreira et al. 2014; Winemiller et al. 2016), where most of this new
115 boom is taking place, and the complete exemption of small projects (>10 MW) from any
116 assessment process. There are two critical aspects that need to be considered when developing
117 these common standards. Firstly, there is an urgent need for minimising externalities on rural
118 populations and ecological impacts derived from the construction and operation of dams should be
119 minimised. The losses of fisheries, fertile land and places of cultural significance or the complete
120 reallocation of communities affected by dams are rarely compensated by new job opportunities,
121 access to energy and new infrastructure, such as roads (Winemiller et al. 2016). Moreover, the
122 large ecological impacts of hydropower infrastructures require careful consideration, not only from
123 a biodiversity conservation point of view but also from the implications on key ecosystem services
124 on which large numbers of people depend. In order to reduce potential conflicts, local populations
125 should be given the opportunity to participate directly in decision-making processes, for which
126 stronger participatory mechanisms to enhance public engagement in the process are required
127 (Pittock 2010b). Second, it is critical to foster cumulative impact assessment at the whole
128 catchment scale. The connected nature of river systems facilitates the propagation of impacts of
129 hydropower dams in both upstream and downstream direction, and their accumulation along the
130 river network. For example, the impact of climate change could compromise hydropower potential
131 in distant downstream regions and the presence of dams may impede upstream migrations to key
132 spawning and cause the collapse of entire freshwater fisheries. By accounting for these critical

133 aspects, international financial support to hydropower projects should rely on proven socio-
134 economic and ecological viability. The adequate assessment of socio-economic and ecological
135 trade-offs of hydropower projects at whole catchment scale will require transboundary
136 collaboration for many of the world's large river systems. There are examples of efforts in
137 transboundary cooperation, like the Mekong River Commission (MRC), an intergovernmental
138 organisation that was created to coordinate the development of water resources that gathers all
139 countries in the catchment. This organisation aims to promote the sustainable development of the
140 catchment, optimise benefits and minimise harmful effects derived from the use of water resources
141 (MRC, 1995). This should facilitate the governance of water resources in the catchment and help
142 reduce environmental problems derived from hydropower development. For example, the MRC
143 commissioned a Strategic Environmental Assessment to assess the cumulative impacts, costs, and
144 benefits of the major hydropower projects planned on the mainstem of the Mekong River (ICEM,
145 2010). However, despite the existence of this supranational organisation, compliance with national
146 environmental regulations is not always enforced, protocols directed to the private-sector are only
147 advisory, and non-binding. Moreover, most private hydropower investors have limited commitment
148 to environmental assessment protocols, mitigation, or human livelihood safeguards (Grumbine et
149 al., 2012).

150 Whenever a project's impacts (social, economic or ecological) are expected to exceed the benefits,
151 alternative options based on other sources of renewable energy with less social, economic and
152 ecological impacts should be considered priority for investment. If a hydropower dam was
153 considered the most suitable alternative, more strategic planning from the early planning stages to
154 the dam operation is required (Bunn 2016) to minimise the potential impacts. Only in this way can
155 the long-pursued goal of sustainable development be achieved, capitalising on the window of
156 opportunity opened by recent international agreements and financial support to the cause. If we fail
157 in our attempt, we might miss a unique opportunity for a more sustainable future and future access
158 to strategic resources and services provided by some of the world's freshwater ecosystems.

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