

1 **Envisioning the Future of Aquatic Animal Tracking: Technology, Science, and Application**

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44

45 **Abstract**

46

47 Electronic tags are significantly improving our understanding of aquatic animal behaviour and
48 are emerging as key sources of information for conservation and management practices. Future
49 aquatic integrative biology and ecology studies will increasingly rely on data from electronic
50 tagging. Continued advances in tracking hardware and software are needed to provide the
51 knowledge required by managers and policy makers to address the challenges posed by the
52 world's changing aquatic ecosystems. We foresee multi-platform tracking systems for
53 simultaneously monitoring position, activity, and physiology of animals and the environment
54 through which they are moving. Improved data collection will be accompanied by greater data
55 accessibility and analytical tools for processing data, enabled by new infrastructure and
56 cyberinfrastructure. To operationalize advances and facilitate integration into policy, there must
57 be parallel developments in the accessibility of education and training as well as solutions to key
58 governance and legal issues.

59

60 Keywords: Biotelemetry, biologging, environmental monitoring, Ocean Tracking Network

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62

63

64 **Introduction**

65

66 The study of aquatic animals presents unique challenges to scientists because of the
67 physical characteristics of water and the remote nature of many of the world's aquatic habitats.
68 Aquatic systems are highly interconnected, enabling animals to traverse long distances, dive
69 throughout the water column and, for some species, move between fresh and saltwater
70 environments. The scientific study of these movements requires the ability to monitor animals
71 remotely and efforts have increasingly turned to the use of electronic tags, which have
72 transformed our understanding of aquatic systems and their inhabitants (Hussey et al. 2015).

73 In their most basic form, electronic tags include *radio* or *acoustic* beacons that transmit
74 signals, often specific codes, to identify animals and allow them to be tracked using receivers
75 that detect the transmitted signals (Cooke et al. 2012, Hazen et al. 2012; key aquatic telemetry
76 terms are italicized throughout the text and defined in Table 1). Most electronic tags are powered
77 by batteries, but *passive integrated transponders* (PITs) depend on an external power supply to
78 transmit the tag's signal (Gibbons and Andrews 2004; see Table 1). Because the strength of radio
79 signals at all but the longest wavelengths rapidly attenuate in saltwater, acoustic transmissions or
80 satellite connectivity are necessary for animal tracking in marine environments. Radio frequency
81 identification (*RFID*) tags at low frequency (*LF*, 30-300 kHz) have restricted utility over short
82 distances, suited to habitats such as noisy, spatially complex reefs (Cooke et al. 2012; Table 1).
83 More advanced tags incorporate sensors that measure and record a suite of environmental and
84 biological parameters (i.e. *biologgers* that archive data for later downloading; Cooke et al.
85 2016a). Basic *archival tags* must be physically recovered to obtain the data, but in more
86 advanced models, the data can be uplinked to satellite or to ground-based receivers. These

87 transmissions are made during intervals when the animal is at the surface or after the tag has
88 released from the animal and is floating at the surface (e.g. *pop-up satellite tags*; see Table 1).
89 These telemetry tools have already enabled important discoveries about aquatic animals and the
90 ecosystems in which these animals live (Hussey et al. 2015).

91 Understanding the impacts of environmental change and human activity on mobile
92 species can be greatly enhanced by using electronic tags; indeed, many questions can only be
93 answered through this approach (Hussey et al. 2015). Pressing questions for management and
94 conservation include: how do dispersal and migrations connect metapopulations; how many
95 individuals comprise a population; where, when and why are there important aquatic habitat
96 hotspots; and how will aquatic organisms respond to anthropogenic stressors and climate change
97 (Hays et al. 2016)? These challenges will steer the future use and development of aquatic animal
98 tracking and demand significant advances in science, infrastructure, and technology. In this
99 paper, we forecast where the field of aquatic animal telemetry will be heading over the next 10
100 years. To achieve this, we engaged a global team of expert oceanographers, engineers, aquatic
101 animal trackers, sociologists, statisticians, and legal scholars to envision tracking-related
102 technological, infrastructural, methodological, analytical, logistical, and sociopolitical
103 developments and innovations that will improve aquatic science and enhance the utility of
104 tracking data for policy, management, and conservation. The focus encompassed both freshwater
105 and marine systems, and all aquatic taxa amenable to tagging with biologging or biotelemetry
106 platforms (i.e. invertebrates, fish, reptiles, seabirds, marine mammals). The forecasts are
107 organized around four key themes: 1) technological and infrastructural innovations; 2) trans-
108 disciplinary integration of collected data and new methods of analysis; 3) emergent applications

109 for telemetry data in fisheries, ecosystems, and global management of aquatic animals; and 4)
110 looking forward to solving challenges that currently inhibit progress in telemetry research.

111

112 **What will aquatic tracking look like in 10 years' time?**

113

114 The future of aquatic telemetry will be characterized by an enhanced capacity for tagging
115 and tracking species throughout the world's oceans, seas, lakes, and rivers. Presently, tracking
116 data remain onboard electronic tags (i.e. loggers) or are transmitted to receivers/ satellites from
117 which they are downloaded (Figure 1). However, we are transitioning to new data pathways in
118 the tag-receiver-satellite complex, with tags communicating with one another (i.e. *transceivers*;
119 Holland et al. 2009) and receivers communicating either to each other (i.e. *daisy chaining*) or to
120 satellites to increase data collection capacity (Figure 1). With the exception of research vessels,
121 facilities for offloading telemetry data are mostly land-based, often requiring physical interaction
122 with tags or receivers to retrieve the data, but this will change with improved remote offloading
123 technology. Increased collaboration among aquatic telemetry researchers (e.g. data sharing), as
124 well as greater idea exchange among aquatic and terrestrial animal tracking networks, will
125 facilitate addressing scientific questions at broader ecological scales (Figure 1). Co-creation of
126 research agendas with stakeholders, including the public, will advance the trust in aquatic
127 tracking data, facilitating its use to inform ocean governance and policy.

128

129 The Technology Deployed

130

131 *Miniaturization and efficiency of tags will expand tracking to small species and early life stages*

132

133 Apart from studies using PIT telemetry (Gibbons and Andrews 2004), the knowledge
134 established using telemetry has almost invariably been predicated on the study of larger animals.
135 This limitation principally results from the current sizes of sensors and, most importantly,
136 batteries or electronics, being too large to be carried by small-bodied animals. Individual
137 movement and distribution data are therefore often lacking for smaller species and for early life
138 stages (Wikelski et al. 2007). Smaller electronic components and more efficient circuitry design
139 will continue to allow reductions in tag size without sacrificing tag longevity (e.g. Deng et al.
140 2015), and parallel advances in microbattery development will allow maintenance of power
141 output with smaller cells (Wang et al. 2015). Better piezoelectric transducer design (Li et al.
142 2015) has the potential to increase sound transmission levels, augmenting acoustic tag range and
143 expanding applications in noisy environments and deep water ecosystems. Battery size may be
144 further reduced and tag life prolonged through the development of tags powered by harvesting
145 ambient energy sources such as solar energy or mechanical energy generated by the motion of
146 the host animals (Li et al. 2016a). The refinement of file compression technology, onboard
147 processing and “smart” receivers that decide what data to record and when will facilitate the
148 transition to smaller tags; for example, data loggers switched on by depth changes or
149 accelerometers switched on during periods of specific activity. Availability of smaller tags will
150 not only enable research on small fish but will be particularly important in expanding
151 applications of telemetry to a wider range of invertebrates. PicoPIT tags (mass of ~10 mg)
152 currently used in laboratory environments (e.g. for marking zebrafish as small as 0.2 g; Cousin et

153 al. 2012) will be combined with new developments in reader hardware to enable remote
154 detection of invertebrates and larval fish in the wild, at least in fresh water.

155

156 *Animal location data will be more readily interpretable*

157

158 Larger taxa, can be tracked using satellite tags *transmitting ultra-high frequency radio*
159 (UHF). Positional data can also be obtained from post-processed data (e.g. light-based
160 geolocation data), currently transmitted by radio. However, most studies of individual aquatic
161 animal spatial ecology use arrays of *very high frequency radio* (VHF; Table 1), *radio frequency*
162 *identification* (RFID; especially passive forms [PIT]), or *acoustic receivers* to derive real-time or
163 post-processed estimates of tagged animal locations. Omnidirectional *hydrophone arrays* can be
164 used to estimate the position of an acoustic tag, for example by comparing the timing of sound
165 arrival at multiple receivers to estimate the source location. With the advances in and reduced
166 cost of high performance computing, complex localization algorithms, such as approximate
167 maximum likelihood (Li et al. 2016b), will be more commonly applied to improve tracking
168 accuracy and increase the flexibility of array design. Open source algorithms for such
169 localisation methods will encourage researchers to further develop the software, improving
170 estimations of tag positions in 2- or 3-dimensions (Li et al. 2016b). Deployment of acoustic or
171 radio arrays for elucidating habitat use requires *a priori* knowledge or hypotheses of where
172 animals may move in order to efficiently and cost-effectively design and establish arrays
173 (Comfort and Weng 2014). However, for larger, wider ranging animals or in instances in which
174 receiver arrays are not feasible, positions can be estimated using tags equipped with light-based
175 geolocation, *Fastloc GPS*, or sensors to detect magnetic signatures, or Doppler shifts detected by

176 satellite (Hazen et al. 2012). *Fastloc GPS* and Doppler tags require the animal to break the
177 surface, but light-based geolocation does not, provided that the animals are in the photic zone
178 and reliable sunrise-sunset data can be recorded *in situ*. This is, in practice, a bigger problem in
179 aquatic environments than terrestrial ones, particularly given animal propensities to change
180 depths. In theory, light-based geolocation sensors could be incorporated into acoustic tags that
181 log data and relay it to *acoustic receivers* when animals pass, to retrieve data. To increase the
182 accuracy and precision of light-based geolocation, analytical tools such as state space modelling
183 and Hidden Markov models are being developed and applied to compensate for error that is
184 inherent to using light levels to estimate position (e.g. Auger-Méthé et al. 2017). Advances in
185 underwater geolocation will allow monitoring of a greater diversity of subsurface aquatic
186 species, including those in habitats where installing receiver arrays is particularly challenging
187 such as in the open ocean and under ice. Light-based geolocation accuracy can be improved
188 through implementation of increasingly sophisticated position modelling algorithms and
189 incorporation of parameters such as magnetic field and oceanographic data (e.g. temperature;
190 Nielsen et al. 2006). Additional refining of positions can be done by ground-truthing or strategic
191 deployment of Mark-Report satellite tags that are released from large animals, surface and give a
192 precise fix on the position of an animal at a given time.

193

194 *Receiver platforms will be operationalized for detecting tagged animals*

195

196 Receivers are traditionally deployed in strategic locations to detect transmitting tags, but
197 increased use of opportunistic or mobile platforms that receivers can be attached to, including
198 fixed infrastructure, remote vehicles, and animal-borne biotrackers, will expand telemetry

199 coverage. Much of this effort has so far focused on acoustic telemetry, but we anticipate similar
200 developments with radio and PIT telemetry. Efforts to use various platforms for aquatic
201 telemetry will reduce deployment costs, expand receiver coverage, and build stakeholder
202 partnerships. Goulette et al. (2014) evaluated ocean observing buoys, fixed fishery gear, and
203 surface drifters in the Gulf of Maine as platforms for receivers and found them to be useful for
204 detecting a diverse suite of tagged species. Miniaturized animal-borne *transceivers* (e.g. Holland
205 et al. 2009, Lidgard et al. 2014) attached to large-bodied animals (e.g. sharks, sturgeon, seals,
206 narwhals, turtles) provide a method by which to monitor acoustically tagged animals across large
207 spatial scales while concomitantly documenting social interactions, intra- and inter-specific
208 competition, or predation. *Mobile tracking* can also be conducted by autonomous aerial vehicles
209 (drones) flown over rivers to log radio transmissions, or by hydrophones to detect acoustic
210 transmissions deployed either on marine autonomous vehicles (e.g. Slocum and *Wave Gliders*;
211 Lin et al. In Press) or incorporated into dedicated vessels such as fishing boats and on fish
212 aggregating devices (i.e. buoys). Harvesting of acoustic detections are also feasible from other
213 sound monitoring devices on appropriate frequencies deployed to record animal vocalizations
214 (e.g. marine mammal passive acoustic recorders; Kowarski et al. In Review). Access to military
215 passive acoustic monitoring in theory could further expand ocean acoustic telemetry coverage,
216 but security issues currently prevent this.

217

218 *Aquatic telemetry data will be available from remote offloading*

219

220 Many applications of telemetry are limited by the need to manually offload data from
221 data-logging receivers. In the future, significant gains will be made by developing alternative or

222 enhanced methods for data acquisition through *remote offloading*. These include data transfer
223 and storage between tags, between tags and satellites, between terrestrial and aquatic receivers,
224 or between receivers and vessels or moored platforms (e.g. oil rigs), with the information
225 ultimately being relayed to researchers (Figure 1). Increasingly, acoustic tags will acquire
226 improved data compression and acoustic modem transmission protocols. This will permit the
227 download of archived positional data to acoustic receivers, and the transmission of copies of data
228 among large numbers of tagged animals (Holland et al. 2009, Lidgard et al. 2014) increasing the
229 likelihood that the information will encounter cellular or relay modems that will deliver it to
230 investigators (McConnell et al. 2004; Dagorn et al. 2007). In coastal regions, land-based relay
231 receivers will enhance data throughput and improve the frequency of detection of tagged animals
232 (e.g. Lembo et al. 2002). *Daisy-chaining* acoustic receivers so that they can communicate data
233 along lines of receivers to a *fixed station* or satellite that transmits data from the entire array is
234 also a possibility (Dagorn et al. 2007), but power management is an obstacle. *VHF radio*
235 *receivers* are increasingly being networked to facilitate satellite data transfer. RFID array data
236 capture may similarly be transmitted by cellular network communication. The ICARUS
237 (International Cooperation for Animal Research Using Space) initiative is emerging as a key
238 player in animal tracking by equipping low-orbit satellites with receivers to detect small aerial or
239 terrestrial tags on global scales (Kays et al. 2015). There are exciting possibilities for integrating
240 these networks into aquatic animal tracking in the future.

241 The need to service receivers (replace batteries, remove biofouling) adds expense to
242 aquatic telemetry programs. Although battery technology is improving and reductions are being
243 made in receiver power demands, short-term solutions to the power problem are available via
244 integration of receivers into existing powered infrastructure. Plugging into underwater cables of

245 observing stations such as the Ocean Networks Canada Victoria Experimental Network Under
246 the Sea (VENUS; Taylor 2009) could facilitate long-term receiver deployments. Similarly,
247 attachment to moorings fitted with solar panels (commonly used for fixed VHF radio and PIT
248 tracking stations) may provide continual power to reduce the need for batteries. Autonomous
249 power generation may become viable in the future by harvesting power from water flow or wave
250 action (e.g. Hine et al. 2009), pressure and temperature changes experienced during diving
251 behavior, or by photovoltaic panels. However, advances in power sources do not solve
252 biofouling that can impede receiver function (Heupel et al. 2008). Fortunately, testing of
253 materials resistant to biofouling is advancing (Shivapooja et al. 2015).

254

255 The Data Collected

256

257 *Integrated and interdisciplinary approaches will enhance telemetry observations*

258

259 Enhanced environmental (e.g. oxygen, conductivity, salinity, chlorophyll, noise) and
260 biological (e.g. blood chemistry and endocrinology, feeding physiology – stomach
261 acid/temperature, mortality; see Cooke et al. 2016a) sensor data collected by onboard electronic
262 tags will provide accurate fine-scale measurements that give context for habitat use, movement,
263 and intra- or interspecific interactions, facilitating predictive modelling. Miniaturised biosensors
264 such as those that measure blood metabolites (e.g. lactate anions; Rassaei et al. 2014) could
265 transmit data from internal devices to externally attached tags for data archiving and subsequent
266 transmission, or be retrieved when tags are recovered. Expanded use of hybrid satellite and VHF

267 transmissions will enable the physical recovery of integrated biomonitoring packages with large
268 data archives (e.g. video, accelerometry, environmental, and physiological data).

269 Whenever an animal is tagged, the opportunity arises to do much more than simply
270 deploy the tag. Contact allows for sampling or measurement of tissue or other biotic parameters.
271 Further emphasis should be placed on collecting interdisciplinary data for greater insights into
272 tracking information. In fish, a small muscle, blood, or gill biopsy can be used for physiological
273 (e.g. cortisol, ions, lactate, stable isotopes) or genomic analysis (e.g. relative up- or down-
274 regulation of thousands of genes; Jeffries et al. 2014) to understand the status of the animal at the
275 time of tagging. Molecular screening of those tissues can also be used to characterize the
276 genetics of the individual or to assess disease state (e.g. identify pathogen expression; Jeffries et
277 al. 2014). Tissues can be used to sex the organism, identify reproductive state or age structure
278 (e.g. ovarian biopsy, fish scale or spine analysis, pinniped whiskers, marine bird feathers; Hansen
279 et al. 2016, Lowerre-Barbieri et al. 2016), assess diet or energetic status (e.g. fatty acids, stable
280 isotopes, trace elements, microwave fat meter; Karnovsky et al. 2012), or quantify morphology
281 (e.g. morphometrics by photographs). Animals can also be subjected to behavioural/personality
282 assays prior to release in order to characterize life history strategies and make inferences about
283 social structure of species (Krause et al. 2013). It will be increasingly important to combine
284 novel types of measurements with telemetry data in order to assess cause/effect relationships
285 among physiology/disease (Jeffries et al. 2014), behaviours, nutrition, or morphology (Hawley et
286 al. 2016) to the behaviour, fate, and fitness of wild animals. Factors such as life history,
287 morphology, personality, metabolism, and environmental context can be used to develop an
288 understanding of vulnerability to fishing and the potential for fisheries induced evolution
289 (Villegas-Ríos et al. 2017).

290

291 *Biologgers will tell us what animals are doing in the wild*

292

293 Understanding of animal ecology will continue to improve with broader application of
294 biologgers incorporating probes to measure heart rate for physiology and energetics (Cooke et al.
295 2016a), gut heating (i.e. digestion) and stretch (i.e. content/fullness), pH to infer feeding (e.g.
296 Whitlock et al. 2015, Meyer and Holland 2012), or electroencephalogram activity to track brain
297 activity when active or asleep (Rattenborg et al. 2008). Extension of biologging technology to
298 RFID tags is possible, including thermally sensitive PIT and powered RFID tags with more
299 complex physiological sensors and data storage capacity (Volk et al. 2015). A combination of
300 these approaches could be invaluable for understanding physiological characteristics of
301 swimming performance in restricted environments such as fishways and measuring animal
302 physiology in environments such as in aquaculture enclosures. Presently, the use of the data from
303 many of the biologging tools that are being applied for monitoring and classifying animal
304 behaviour is limited without calibrations from direct observation. However, video recordings, in
305 the laboratory (Carroll et al. 2014) or perhaps even remotely (Moll et al. 2007), of instrumented
306 animals can be used to identify behaviour in the wild and cross-validated with instrument data by
307 training machine learning algorithms to identify repeated patterns (Carroll et al. 2014). This may
308 be further refined by incorporating algorithms within tags to automatically process data and
309 identify repeated behavioural patterns (e.g. feeding, copulation; Broell et al. 2013). Miniaturised
310 waterproof action cameras are already used as a form of biologger, watching for activity or
311 quantifying biotic contexts such as presence of competitors or predators (e.g. Takahashi et al.
312 2004). Given the importance of physically recovering biologgers from animals, improved

313 locations from satellites and receiver platforms to detect the position of logging tags once they
314 release is crucial for biologging technology to expand in scope.

315

316 The Applications of Telemetry Data

317

318 *Experimental design of telemetry arrays will aim to meet management and policy needs*

319

320 With the growing demand for information on the spatial ecology of many aquatic
321 organisms in spatial planning and conservation, telemetry users increasingly have a mandate to
322 assist in the design of management or policy-relevant studies (McGowan et al. 2016). Moving
323 forward, the most effective way to ensure actionable outputs is to include stakeholders at the
324 initial design stages of a project's development (Young et al. 2013). To ensure the most effective
325 and efficient experimental designs, especially with the increase in global acoustic telemetry
326 infrastructure, development of regional telemetry networks will be imperative. Researchers will
327 need to be informed on what equipment is already in place, and communication established with
328 regional networks to avoid duplicated effort. The objectives of the investigation (see Cooke et al.
329 2012) will dictate the use of the available telemetry equipment in terms of receiver positioning
330 and tagging distribution of focal species. The continued growth and development of the network
331 approach to telemetry through regional, national, and international networks will facilitate and
332 maximise the efficiency of experimental design. However, underpinning the aforementioned
333 mission-oriented tracking will be the need for more hypothesis-driven studies using experimental
334 approaches to understand questions that still elude us (e.g., how do animals navigate [Papi et al.
335 2000], what are the consequences of warming temperatures on migration [Crossin et al. 2008]),

336 yet are also relevant to managers. To date, hypothesis-driven experimental design has only been
337 made possible by the past three decades of telemetry studies that provide the necessary baseline
338 movement data for some species.

339

340 *Global networks will facilitate the development of data collection standards*

341

342 In concert with coordinating infrastructure and managing extensive databases, global
343 telemetry networks will be responsible for the standardisation of data collection practices as the
344 foundation of large-scale aquatic telemetry studies. Network groups could provide standardised
345 training for best practices in animal tagging, receiver array design, and data processing.

346 Expansion of telemetry networks will both facilitate effective study replication and maximise the
347 potential for efficiency and productivity within this area of research. Centralised information on
348 attachment techniques for external tags will improve methods to reduce tagging effects and
349 maximize data recovery, especially for tags that are required to detach from the animal such as
350 *pop-up satellite tags* (Jepsen et al. 2015). Guidelines for the assessment and monitoring of
351 telemetry system performance, particularly important for receiver-based systems (e.g. Kessel et
352 al. 2014, Huveneers et al. 2016), will facilitate effective study design and increase the accuracy
353 of data interpretation. Data quality control is an area that will greatly benefit from universally
354 accepted standards. For example, guidance is available to identify and filter false detections
355 generated by coded identification systems and to remove false detections (Simpfendorfer et al.
356 2015). The development of standardised metadata collection and data sharing protocols (see
357 below) will facilitate easier data exchange among research groups. This will allow the
358 development of universal database query tools and will greatly increase the willingness of

359 independent research groups to search their databases for detections of other research groups'
360 study animals. The community could develop an international training program for aquatic
361 telemetry to provide capacity and training to the developing world, especially in tropical nations
362 where use of telemetry remains more challenging than in temperate regions (Baras et al. 2002).

363

364 *Animal movement data will be widely shared and available*

365

366 Telemetry use must undergo a quantum expansion to meet future knowledge needs for
367 conservation and sustainable development. However, the expansion must keep costs affordable
368 and share the burden of the costs among multiple partners. The most parsimonious way to
369 document the movements and survival of tagged individuals at these large scales in the future is
370 to share information about tag detections, use local expertise to maintain telemetry infrastructure,
371 and provide internationally harmonized and accessible, quality-controlled, trusted data-sharing
372 systems (Steckenreuter et al 2016; Nguyen et al. 2017). Exponential increases in animal
373 telemetry data (Hussey et. al. 2015) are driving the need for long-term, secure, trusted data
374 systems as well as analytical tools that can handle the challenges of complex data. Researchers
375 may harbour concerns about data sharing (Crossin et al. In Press; Nguyen et al. 2017), but,
376 regardless, funders of telemetry research increasingly require that data from studies they support
377 be stored in publicly available databases (Nguyen et al. 2017). With presently available computer
378 hardware, and near-instantaneous world-wide-web communications, global telemetry data
379 systems are feasible and developing. Existing regional telemetry networks will form the nucleus
380 of the new global telemetry data system, which will become a quality-controlled, core biological
381 ocean observing system of the expanding international Global Ocean Observing System. Open

382 access to data, sharing of data, and building a strong sense of collaboration among members are
383 the next major steps and these have already been accomplished to some degree within large
384 telemetry networks at regional (e.g. the Florida Atlantic Coast Telemetry network [FACT]),
385 continental (e.g. Australia's Integrated Marine Observing System Animal Tracking Facility
386 IMOS ATF), ocean or freshwater basin (e.g. the Great Lakes Acoustic Telemetry Observation
387 System [GLATOS]), and global (e.g. the Ocean Tracking Network [OTN]) scales (Hussey et al.
388 2015). Strengthening the commitments to these and other globally-networked field and data
389 systems will increase data availability, resulting in: increased research capabilities of individual
390 investigators; augmented scientific productivity; greater international collaboration; efficient
391 movement of knowledge to managers and decision makers; the development of new data
392 specialists that will mine information and exploit innovatively; and the stimulation of new field
393 programs enabled by the scale and scope of the global network.

394

395 *Analysis and visualization will activate new knowledge*

396

397 Aquatic telemetry data are diverse and range from simple presence/absence information
398 to extremely high resolution, complex, tortuous, and noisy time series data that pose significant
399 methodological and computational challenges. Furthermore, spurious or intermittent
400 observations due to equipment failure, poor satellite transmissions, etc. necessitate robust
401 statistical tools. Fortunately, statistical approaches (e.g. state space models, hidden Markov
402 models) and open source programming languages for statistical computing and graphics (R:
403 <https://www.r-project.org/about.html>, Python) continue to be developed and applied to aquatic
404 telemetry data (Auger-Méthé et al. 2017). This will be essential in order to realize the full

405 potential of such data for addressing pressing scientific questions. In addition, as aquatic
406 telemetry progresses, the numbers of personnel required to manage, analyze, and interpret the
407 results will need to expand to match the huge amounts of complex data being gathered.
408 Statisticians have a vital role to play and will need to be engaged at the project design phase to
409 be truly effective in both experimental design and establishment of data collection standards.
410 Collaboration among statisticians, computer scientists, and biologists will ensure that analysis
411 and visualization tools with corresponding software are developed and advance in parallel with
412 the technology. Telemetry networks (e.g. IMOS ATF, GLATOS, OTN) are already developing
413 and archiving code for processing and filtering detection data to make it readily available to new
414 users. Currently, many of the key statistical tools are highly specialized, but their usability will
415 improve as other researchers face similar analytical challenges and can more efficiently share
416 and apply these techniques. The establishment, refinement, and popularization of the tools
417 necessary for analyzing and reporting findings of telemetry studies will facilitate the
418 dissemination of results and the transition of knowledge into the hands of stakeholders.

419

420 *Telemetry data will be a key informant of aquatic governance, policy, and management*

421

422 One of the primary tools for fisheries management is predictive modelling, which uses
423 data from various sources such as test fisheries, catch reporting, field observations,
424 environmental conditions, and historical trends to generate predictions about population sizes
425 and harvest possibilities (Dickey-Collas et al. 2014). Predictive modelling is also used in
426 biodiversity conservation and species restoration plans. In the short term, telemetry research and
427 data will help refine these models by contributing more information about animal behaviour and

428 interactions with other animals and the environment (Cooke et al. 2016b). In the next 10 years,
429 aquatic telemetry will likely facilitate challenges to existing paradigms by identifying cryptic
430 behaviours (e.g. Carroll et al. 2014, Whitlock et al. 2015, Filous et al. 2017) or species
431 interactions (e.g. Lidgard et al. 2014, Gibson et al. 2015). The potential for contribution to
432 management is significant because, for example, decisions regarding fisheries openings and
433 harvest quotas can be made weekly, daily, or perhaps even hourly based on real-time data on
434 spatial location, behaviour, breeding/spawning times, animal health, and mortality (Hobday et al.
435 2010). These should eventually include biologged, genomic, or environmental data (see Crossin
436 et al. In Press). Faster collection and dissemination of animal population or fish stock trajectories
437 will contribute to management decisions that help avoid overexploitation. For example, by
438 monitoring the return of salmonids that were tagged as migrating juveniles to natal rivers it is
439 possible to estimate the run size and set quotas to ensure sufficient escapement and to modify
440 those decisions as new information accumulates throughout a season. Openly collected and
441 widely shared telemetry data will improve transnational regulation of fisheries and ecosystems
442 by reducing uncertainty about the biological and spatial life-course of fish and other harvested
443 aquatic species. Effectiveness of marine protected areas can be evaluated (Filous et al. 2017) and
444 candidate zones for new marine protected area designation will be easier to identify, even on the
445 high seas. Telemetry data will help quantify the effectiveness of river connectivity restoration
446 and encourage further experimentation in ecosystem recovery initiatives (Tummers et al. 2016).
447 At the local stakeholder scale, telemetry research is often under-appreciated and presumed to
448 have little affinity to traditional forms of knowledge. User groups may express skepticism of
449 predictive (population-level) modelling techniques, particularly when these models contradict
450 their experience and their observations of actual fish and their environments (Bavington 2010).

451 By contrast, when made publicly visible, telemetry tracks animals in their eco-environmental
452 contexts, similar to the ways that local and traditional knowledge systems emphasize contextual
453 observations. Through visibility, stakeholder support for telemetry should increase, thus further
454 enhancing its appeal to regulators.

455

456 *Bridges will form between aquatic and terrestrial telemetry*

457

458 To date, aquatic and terrestrial tracking studies have been largely evolving independently.
459 Yet, both realms use similar technologies and produce related knowledge, and both face
460 equivalent challenges and opportunities (Hussey et al. 2015, Kays et al. 2015). GPS satellites are
461 shared by aquatic and terrestrial telemetry, although GPS tags cannot communicate with
462 satellites from under the water and thus GPS technology is only possible for animals that breach
463 the surface. Both realms are incorporating advanced sensor technology such as the use of fine-
464 scale accelerometers (e.g. Carroll et al. 2014), physiological and genetic sensors (e.g. Fagan et al.
465 2013), and animal-borne cameras (e.g. Moll et al. 2007, Heaslip et al. 2012); and both realms are
466 also developing advanced data management and analysis tools. Through integrating such
467 endeavours, important new opportunities will be realized in “employing” animals carrying multi-
468 sensor technologies as environmental monitors, and for using data to develop effective and
469 consistent conservation and management paradigms (McGowan et al. 2016). Bridging the realms
470 of aquatic and terrestrial telemetry will enable the design of unified approaches and studies,
471 stimulation of novel ideas, faster evolution of the next generation of data analytics and
472 visualization tools, the development of a community of practice on animal ethics, and

473 cost/benefit analyses of the risks posed to an individual from capture and tagging compared to
474 the benefits potentially gained from study results to conserve populations and habitats.

475

476 Looking Forward

477

478 *Telemetry expertise will shift beyond developed nations*

479

480 Almost all the technological developments and continued innovation of telemetry have
481 occurred in developed nations, resulting in the majority of telemetry expertise remaining in the
482 developed world. Cultural ecology stresses the importance of local knowledge when conducting
483 environmental research in developing countries; without the participation of local stakeholders,
484 conservation cannot succeed. Additionally, understanding the global ocean requires all regions of
485 the globe participating. Thus, the training of local people in their home countries and in
486 Universities of developed countries is critical (Batterburry et al. 1997). Training in developing
487 nations is scarce and UN FAO has provided some initiatives but these have had limited long-
488 term impact (Baras et al. 2002). Opportunities from funding agencies for partnerships among
489 researchers from developed and developing nations to participate in exchanges, and engage in
490 knowledge exchange, information sharing, and training must be sought out by the telemetry
491 research community (Hall et al. 2001). Such opportunities will help grow the telemetry network
492 at the global scale, break down barriers to its use, shift expertise to the developing world, and
493 create diversity in both educational and work environments.

494

495 *Environmental impacts of tags will be addressed*

496

497 An important issue with the expansion of electronic tracking, both in terms of spatial
498 coverage and in the numbers of animals tagged, is the environmental impact arising from the
499 non-retrieval of potentially hazardous materials associated with large tags, especially batteries.
500 Environmental impacts associated with lithium-ion (Li-ion) and lithium-polymer (Li-poly)
501 batteries include toxicity associated with traces of cobalt, copper, nickel, thallium, and silver in
502 the batteries (Kang et al. 2013). Systems that use biocompatible electrode materials with aqueous
503 sodium-ion batteries could provide onboard energy sources, avoiding hazards both to the tagged
504 animal and to the environment (e.g. using melanin from cuttlefish ink for battery anodes; Kim et
505 al. 2013). Salt, paper, and algae- (Nyström et al. 2009) or sugar-based (Zhu et al. 2014) systems
506 may also be developed, particularly for use in larger tags. For animals that spend time flying or
507 sitting on the water (seabirds), or that haul-out of water (turtles, seals, and penguins), new
508 approaches to solar recharged batteries hold immense promise for environmental compatibility.

509

510 *Animal tagging methods will be optimized to minimize welfare impacts*

511

512 Animals must be captured, and often subdued (e.g. with chemical, electro anaesthesia or
513 physical restraint) so that they can be tagged. Methods for immobilizing and subsequently
514 reviving animals after capture/tagging are continuing to advance and include experimentally
515 refined approaches designed to reduce behavioural deficits or physiological stress during the
516 capture procedure and to accelerate recovery (Harcourt et al. 2010). Further refinement and
517 testing of sedation methods that do not have withdrawal times, such as tetany in freshwater fishes

518 induced by electricity (Trushenski et al. 2013) and tonic immobility in sharks induced by
519 supination (Kessel and Hussey 2015), will continue to advance the applications of telemetry.
520 Development of new methods for tagging animals is possible with guidance from veterinarians
521 to improve the welfare status of animals that are tagged, which will also improve the
522 representativeness of data collected from instrumented animals. Through education, the
523 community should embrace novel tagging practices that further reduce bias in the data collected.

524

525 *Technical challenges for determining animal fate will be overcome*

526

527 Tags must provide accurate information about the animal including interpretation of their
528 post-release fate, although at present this remains challenging. Possibilities of tag expulsion by
529 living animals can confound mortality estimates, and better understanding of species-specific
530 retention is necessary to many studies (Jepsen et al. 2015). Electronic tags that cease transmitting
531 or disappear from arrays may be inseparable from mortalities, limiting the power that analysts
532 have to interpret data. Similarly, a tag that stops moving may indicate that an animal has died,
533 reached its destination and is holding station (e.g. upriver migrating fish), or has become torpid
534 (e.g. overwintering crustaceans). However, distinguishing these differing fates, without direct
535 retrieval of the tag or observation of the tagged animal, may involve some error (Halfyard et al.
536 In Press). These limitations could be resolved through such efforts as deploying test or control
537 tags concomitant with a study, and developing models that can distinguish small scale
538 movements of live animals from movements caused by water currents (e.g. Muhametsafina et al.
539 2014, Putman and Mansfield 2015) or that can identify depredation of tagged animals (e.g.
540 Gibson et al. 2015). Activity sensors on tags have been used to identify mortality, and other

541 biosensors can be integrated to assist in fate determination, including accelerometers,
542 temperature loggers, or heart rate loggers; there is even emerging tag technology that directly
543 determines mortality due to ingestion into the stomach that may, if false positives can be solved
544 or accounted for, be useful for separating predation from other causes of mortality (Halfyard et
545 al. In Press), but analytical tools will also be needed that can estimate the species of predator
546 possibly based on movement paths (e.g. Gibson et al. 2015).

547

548 *Legal issues will continue to hover over data collection and management*

549

550 A variety of legal issues will continue to challenge the future of aquatic animal tracking,
551 such as the need to respect privacy and confidentiality rights of resource users and the
552 intellectual property rights of data collectors (Hobday et al. 2014). An issue likely to increase in
553 importance is the uncertain legal status of data collection technologies. A central question is how
554 the marine scientific research (MSR) provisions of the United Nations Law of the Sea
555 Convention relate to tracking of marine migratory species and the use of floats and gliders
556 (Brown 2003, McLaughlin 2013). The Convention, addressing MSR in Part XIII, requires
557 coastal state consent for marine scientific research activities undertaken within a coastal state's
558 territorial sea, exclusive economic zone, or on the continental shelf. Per Article 246 of the
559 Convention, coastal states must grant permission in normal circumstances with a few exceptions,
560 such as where a project is of direct significance for the exploration and exploitation of natural
561 resources, whether living or non-living. For biologging, which bypasses the traditional method of
562 MSR conducted from a dedicated research ship, a compelling argument exists that lack of
563 independent human programming or control of animal movements removes the requirement for

564 coastal state authorization (Kraska et al. 2015). The Intergovernmental Oceanographic
565 Commission (IOC) has provided limited guidance regarding the deployment of floats and gliders
566 but has suggested a simplified procedure for obtaining coastal state consents under the auspices
567 of the IOC and for the deployment of *ARGOS* profiling floats (IOC 2008). A further legal issue is
568 the liability rules applicable to cases where an autonomous marine vehicle (AMV) collides with
569 another vessel and the responsibility of the owner/operator of the AMV to avoid collisions at sea
570 (Hobday et al. 2014). Similar issues described above are also possible in larger freshwater lakes
571 (e.g. Laurentian Great Lakes) and rivers (e.g. Mekong River) that span jurisdictions, particularly
572 as it relates to novel tracking data that have the potential to alter transboundary management
573 governance, legislation, and management. Given the importance of aquatic animal telemetry
574 research, these issues will require the consideration of researchers and funding agencies with an
575 eye towards future resolution to permit advancement of the field.

576

577 **Conclusions**

578

579 As aquatic telemetry researchers, we have worked at the frontiers of aquatic animal
580 research in marine and freshwaters around the globe, from under ice caps to tropical seas, from
581 high-elevation mountain streams to the great lakes and rivers of the world, striving for novel
582 solutions to challenging problems. In doing so, we have tested the limits of ourselves and of the
583 available technology. Aquatic telemetry was established as a tool for science, management and
584 to inform policy yet challenges exist with the assimilation and application of such data
585 (VanderZwaag et al. 2013, Young et al. 2013). Environmental monitoring is now outpacing
586 corresponding actions (McDonald-Madden et al. 2010) including how aquatic animal tracking is

587 incorporated into management and policy (VanderZwaag 2015). This is a gap that must be
588 bridged to maintain the relevance of aquatic telemetry. There are some troubling and
589 unanticipated issues that have emerged (e.g. sabotage, questions about use of data for nefarious
590 purposes; see Cooke et al. In Press) and key stakeholders have at times been skeptical of
591 observations derived from telemetry (e.g. Nguyen et al. 2012). Better communication of
592 knowledge and evidence among scientists, stakeholders, regulators and policymakers is
593 necessary to ensure that the realized and envisioned scientific advances are used to make
594 effective contributions to conservation and resource management (Table 2). Demonstrating the
595 utility of the data for management is essential, and effective knowledge transfer will also include
596 efforts to make telemetry findings more accessible through clear and interpretable presentation.

597 Continued technological advances in telemetry equipment and deployment designs will
598 be an important catalyst for the future of aquatic animal tracking (Table 2). At the same time,
599 upscaling of data collection and analysis will facilitate answers to broad-scale questions through
600 hypothesis-driven experimental designs (Table 2). Animal location data are now available for
601 many different taxa around the world. Therefore, it is already possible to begin addressing
602 questions about broad-scale drivers of movement, comparing the relative importance of places
603 and times to species and habitat conservation, and identifying areas where common threats and
604 stressors emerge. Questions of such scale require cooperation and metadata sharing, but the
605 capacity to answer even some of these huge global-scale questions represents opportunity and
606 advancement for aquatic science (Table 2). The growing ecosystem-based approach to aquatic
607 science necessitates cooperation among nations, agencies, and scientists to extract the best
608 insight from both new and existing telemetry data (Meeuwig et al. 2015). Establishing data
609 sharing conventions including protocols for giving credit to those who contributed data is

610 necessary or data transfer will likely break down and knowledge advances will be lost. Local and
611 global networks can work to address the concept of shared data but there are still gaps that hinder
612 the advancement of telemetry research. Yet, these gaps are starting to be bridged, signalling a
613 promising future for aquatic science.

614

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616

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623

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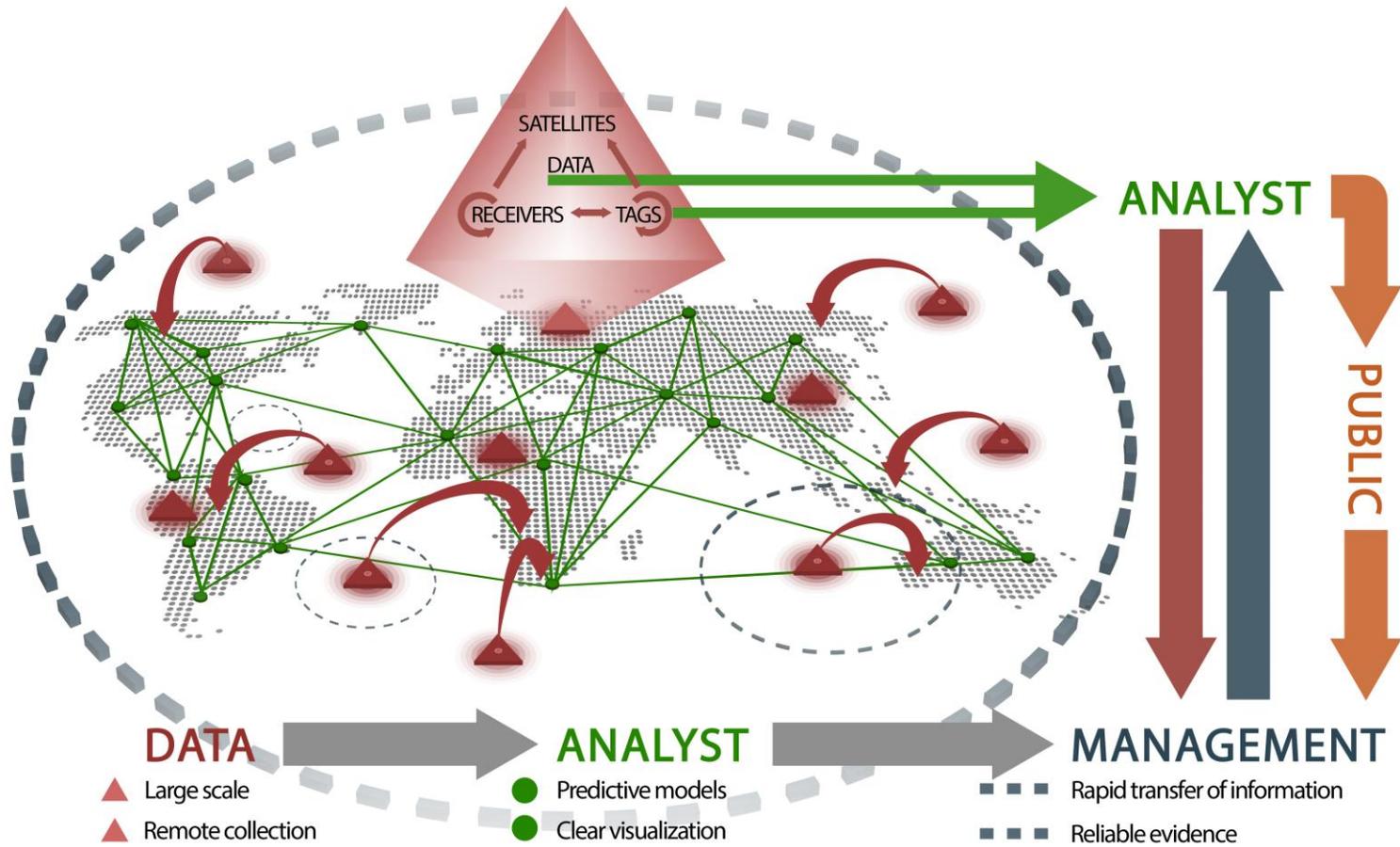
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887 **Figures**

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889

890 Figure 1. A schematic model of aquatic animal movement data creation. Red triangles illustrate how tags, receiver arrays, and satellite
891 networks interact to generate animal movement data by logging it on the tag or transmitting it. Hybrids of these tags will be
892 increasingly important components of aquatic animal telemetry, especially tags that can talk to each other (transceivers), tags that can
893 log information and then offload it to receivers, and receivers that can communicate with land-based or satellite remote receivers.
894 Deployment of these tag-receiver-satellite systems in aquatic ecosystems (red triangles) could then provide data to various nodes (i.e.
895 scientific laboratories; green dots) worldwide. These data will contribute to management at various scales (local, basin-wide, global;
896 see dashed blue circles) and will aid in understanding basic aquatic ecosystem function while contributing to stock assessments,
897 fisheries quotas, development of protected areas, and other management initiatives for conservation. This will be accomplished with
898 significant interactions among stakeholders, with managers, scientists, and the public co-creating a research agenda that can be
899 addressed by animal tracking data.

900

901 **Tables**

902

903 Table 1. Glossary of key terms including definitions of tags, technology, methodology, and arrays relevant to aquatic telemetry with
904 relevant acronyms. Briefly, we describe key terms associated with wavelengths and frequencies, receivers, tags and systems, common
905 tracking methodology, and examples of established networks in telemetry.

906

Term	Acronym	Notes
<hr/> <i>Wavelengths and frequencies</i>		
Ultrasonic		Acoustic frequencies above human audible range, nominally above 20 kHz; almost all acoustic aquatic wildlife telemetry applications use ultrasonic frequencies
Low Frequency radio	LF	Long wavelength (1-10 km), low frequency (30-300 kHz) radio-waves; most common wildlife telemetry application is for RFID/PIT
High Frequency radio	HF	Wavelengths of 10-100 m (3-30 MHz), sometimes used in freshwater radio tracking

Very High Frequency radio	VHF	Wavelengths of 1-10 m (30-300 MHz) typical of conventional wildlife radio tracking, including in freshwater
Ultra High Frequency radio	UHF	Wavelengths of 0.1-1m (300 MHz – 3 GHz), enabling very high data transmission rates; used for ARGOS and GPS
<i>Receivers</i>		
Advanced Research and Global Observation Satellite	ARGOS	A network of satellites with which oceanographic buoys and satellite tags can remotely communicate
Acoustic receiver		Receiver that decodes acoustic signals from tags to identify unique animal ID and other tag information
Hydrophone		Underwater microphone, either connected by cable to receiver, or integrated with receiver as an autonomous unit.
Radio receiver		Receiver attached to an antenna that detects radio signals of specific frequency and can in some instances decode tags when there are multiple on the same frequency

archival tag	surface, establishing connection with an ARGOS satellite, and transmitting the data
Acoustic tag	Transmitter emitting acoustic (normally ultrasonic) waves corresponding to a unique ID code or other information (e.g. pressure/temperature from sensors) that is communicated to proximate acoustic receivers via hydrophones
Radio tags	Devices that transmit radio signals (usually VHF) along a given frequency, often carrying a unique identification code that can be decoded by a receiver
Biologger, archival tag or Data Storage Tag	DST Device attached to or implanted in an animal that logs information (e.g. location, temperature, heart rate) to onboard memory and must be retrieved for download
<i>Tracking Methodology</i>	
Fixed station	Receivers are arranged in an array covering locations of interest or known importance, providing surveillance of tagged animals that occur in those areas
Acoustic positioning system	Array of autonomous acoustic receivers with overlapping range to identify the position of an animal in a defined space via time-delay-of-signal-arrival triangulation (other similar approaches exist for cabled and autonomous acoustic receiver systems). May be deployed so as

	to provide 2D or 3D data (depth dimension most commonly obtained with tag-borne pressure sensor).
Mobile tracking	Tags are actively sought with a receiver and antenna (e.g. in a vehicle, by aircraft or on foot), usually at a fixed interval (e.g. daily) on a pre-determined route
Remote offload	Satellite tags are deployed and the data are transmitted remotely to the satellite network; this may also apply to daisy-chained receivers that are capable of offloading data in series to one another and ultimately to a satellite that can transmit the data to the analyst
Daisy chaining	Acoustic receivers may be daisy chained together by arranging them close enough for communication in series, allowing data to be offloaded from one receiver to its neighbour along a line to consolidate the data and facilitate download from a single receiver
Light-based geolocation	Estimation of the geographic position of a tag based on light levels (sometimes with additional information such as water temperature etc.) recorded by a biologist or satellite tag.
Gliders	Remote vehicles powered either by electricity (e.g. Slocum glider) or by wave action (Wave Glider) developed for short- and long-term missions during which they can collect

oceanographic and atmospheric data as well as identify tagged animals when receivers are
mounted onboard

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908

909 Table 2. This paper looks into the future of aquatic telemetry in key areas related to technology and data as well as its applications in
 910 aquatic science and governance based on perspectives from aquatic animal trackers, engineers, statisticians, legal experts, sociologists,
 911 and resource managers. Here we review the take home messages of each section of the review as a quick reference.
 912

Subsection of paper	Take Home Message for the Future
Miniaturization and efficiency of tags will expand tracking to small species and early life stages	Miniaturize tags to suit small species and early life stages that remain poorly understood.
Animal location data will be more readily interpretable	Improve animal location precision with refined geolocation algorithms and greater input of ancillary data (e.g. temperature, magnetic field).
Receiver platforms will be operationalized for detecting tagged animals	Expand global receiver coverage by instrumenting various fixed and mobile platforms with receivers to increase our ability to detect animals.
Aquatic telemetry data will be available from remote offloading	Automate recovery of data from receivers by improving satellite communication and transmission with tags and receivers.

<p>Integrated and interdisciplinary approaches will enhance telemetry observations</p>	<p>Integrate tag data with environmental, morphological, behavioural, and/or physiological data simultaneously collected from tagged animals.</p>
<p>Biologgers will tell us what animals are doing in the wild</p>	<p>Validate inferred behaviours derived from tag data on animals (e.g. movement, acceleration, gut heat) that identify key life history events such as feeding, copulating, migrating, etc.</p>
<p>Experimental design of telemetry arrays will aim to meet management and policy needs</p>	<p>Collaborate with stakeholders to design studies that advance conservation/management through co-creation of tagging experiments and monitoring.</p>
<p>Global networks will facilitate the development of data collection standards</p>	<p>Validate replicability of telemetry experiments by communicating with, and training, animal taggers in best practices.</p>
<p>Animal movement data will be widely shared and available</p>	<p>Standardize data archiving and sharing to improve coverage and facilitate large-scale meta analyses of movement trends.</p>
<p>Analysis and visualization will activate new knowledge</p>	<p>Collaborate between statisticians and biologists in consideration of</p>

<p>Telemetry data will be a key informant of aquatic governance, policy, and management</p>	<p>the experimental hypothesis with foresight to the analysis.</p> <p>Advance electronic tagging data to quantify vital rates in aquatic animals, estimate population sizes and harvestable surpluses, and evaluate management initiatives such as restoration or area protection with experimental design developed with stakeholders at outset.</p>
<p>Bridges will form between aquatic and terrestrial telemetry</p>	<p>Share methods and technology and integrate studies for inter-ecosystem evaluations.</p>
<p>Telemetry expertise will shift beyond developed nations</p>	<p>Develop skills and capacity to monitor aquatic environments in regions where conservation is emerging and access is limited/restricted.</p>
<p>Environmental impacts of tags will be addressed</p>	<p>Introduce tags powered by photovoltaic cells or with organic/biodegradable components.</p>
<p>Animal tagging methods will be optimized to minimize welfare impacts</p>	<p>Refine tagging methods to increase the application of electronic tagging to new taxa and ensuring representative data from</p>

instrumented animals.

Technical challenges for determining animal mortality will be overcome

Integrate sensors and develop tools to identify the fate (e.g. mortality, depredation) of tagged animals from transmitted or logged data.

Legal issues will continue to hover over data collection and management

Establish agreements about remote data collection technologies that cross jurisdictional boundaries along with responsibility for mishaps such as collisions of autonomous vehicles.

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