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1 Title: Integrating research using animal-borne telemetry with the needs of conservation
2 management

3 Short title: Linking animal telemetry to conservation actions

4

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30

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35

36 Summary:

37 1. Animal telemetry has revolutionized our understanding of animal movement,
38 species physiology, demography and social structures, changing environments
39 and the threats that animals are experiencing. Yet applications of this
40 information to guide conservation actions have been scarce.

41 2. Here we argue that telemetry data is of limited practical use for conservation
42 unless it enables us to choose between management actions. To bridge this gap,
43 we define a framework that directly links telemetry data to conservation
44 management decisions.

45 3. Policy Implications: We argue that ecologists and managers have a joint
46 responsibility to use telemetry data to inform management questions, and
47 suggest the use of “value of information analysis” to quantitatively assess the
48 return-on-investment from telemetry data.

49

50 Key Words: movement ecology, adaptive management; conservation science;
51 demography; telemetry; threat mitigation; value of information;

52

53 The rapid ascent of animal telemetry reflects the ability of these
54 approaches to improve our understanding of fundamental ecology, enhance
55 monitoring of the planet's natural resources and inform conservation practices
56 (Hussey et al. 2015; Kays et al. 2015). What is remarkable about telemetry
57 research is its ability to illustrate how animals, ranging from bees to whales,
58 interact with each other and the natural environment and reveal information
59 about species habitat use, movement patterns, behavior, physiology and the
60 environment they inhabit (Cooke et al. 2004). These studies have documented
61 ocean-wide dispersal events (Block et al. 2011), identified the use of unexpected
62 habitats (Raymond et al. 2014), fundamentally changed our understanding of
63 physical processes in the natural environment (Roquet et al. 2013), and revealed
64 unknown life history characteristics of threatened and cryptic species
65 (Davidson-Watts et al. 2006). It is indisputable that animal telemetry research
66 has altered our understanding of the natural world and the animals that inhabit
67 it.

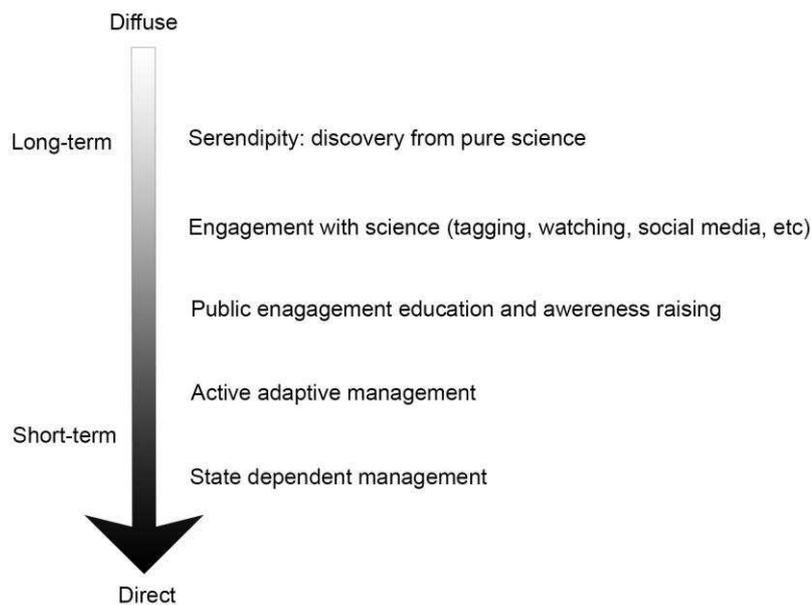
68 With these advances there comes an opportunity to use animal telemetry
69 to combat global species declines (Ceballos et al. 2015), yet the link from many
70 animal tracking studies to direct conservation actions remains tenuous. A recent
71 review of over 500 published studies on animal telemetry in the Australasia
72 region reported that while over half of these studies were purportedly in support
73 of management outcomes (i.e. claimed to have conservation implications), less
74 than a third of the subsampled studies were actually designed to directly inform

75 management applications (Campbell et al. 2015). Here, we challenge the
76 assumption by many scientists that more telemetry data will invariably lead to
77 better management and suggest an evaluation of the return-on-investment from
78 such research (Runge et al. 2011; Maxwell et al. 2014).

79 Given the potential of animal telemetry to inform resource management
80 and conservation and the various costs involved in collecting telemetry-derived
81 data (e.g. financial costs of equipment and salaries, impact on mortality and
82 reproduction of animals involved (Cooke et al. 2004; McMahon et al. 2012)), it is
83 essential to evaluate the conservation benefit of this growing field of research. As
84 conservation science is an explicitly applied field, our aim is to differentiate
85 between telemetry research that broadly influences a larger conservation
86 agenda versus telemetry research that has direct short-term impact on
87 conservation decision-making. Our objective is to encourage researchers
88 utilizing telemetry technology with an underlying conservation rationale to
89 target their research towards gathering information that is more likely to change
90 actions and maximize species persistence.

91 *Differentiating conservation impacts*

92 Telemetry science can impact species conservation in many ways; to
93 differentiate these according to conservation specificity and time-scale of impact,
94 we draw from a mental model developed for ecological monitoring activities
95 (Possingham et al. 2012). We present this framework to distinguish how animal
96 telemetry studies, specifically, can influence conservation. We frame this
97 discussion around the distinctions made among five types of impact - from long-
98 term and diffuse impacts to short-term and direct impacts (Fig 1).



99

100 *Figure 1. A framework to evaluate scientific research as a function of its impact on*
 101 *conservation (based on Possingham et al. 2012). Within this framework, there are*
 102 *five types of conservation impact ranging from diffuse and long-term, through to*
 103 *directly informing management actions in the short-term.*

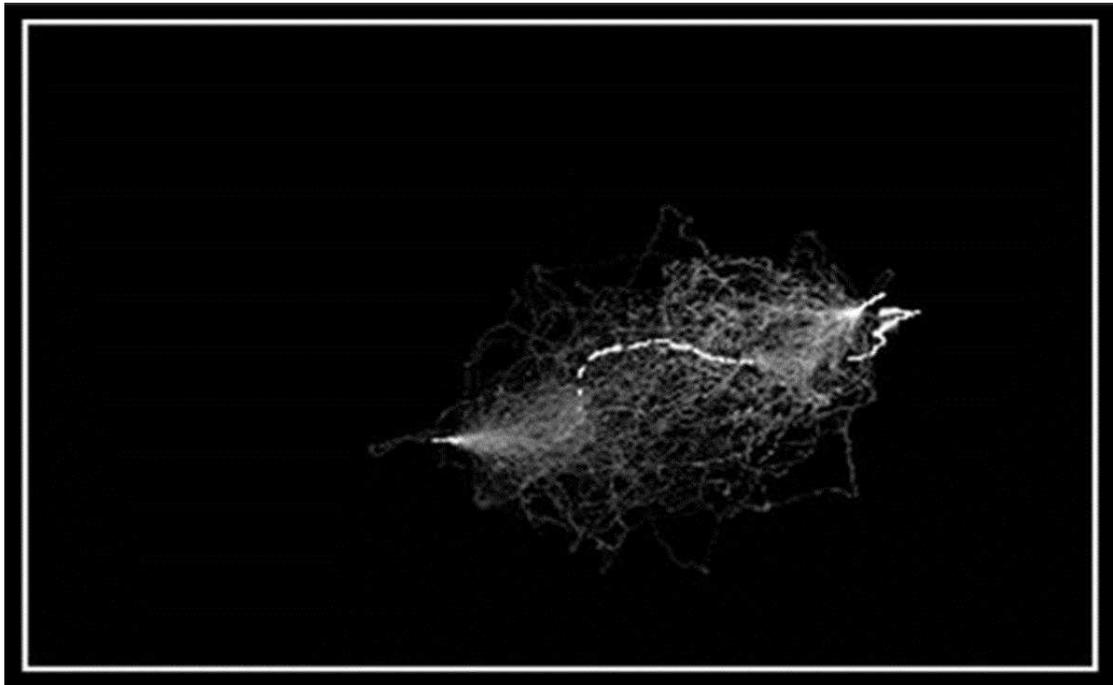
104

105 *Serendipitous discovery*

106 Discovering new facets of life history, biology or ecology motivates many
 107 scientists conducting animal telemetry. The driver of this work is often pure
 108 ecological enquiry (Hart & Hyrenbach 2009; Donaldson et al. 2014). Through
 109 exploratory science, telemetry can generate novel findings or improve existing
 110 knowledge. It is possible that this knowledge will indeed influence conservation
 111 actions at some point. For example, radio-tracking studies in the UK revealed
 112 that protected species of *Pipistrelle* bats, which cannot be distinguished through
 113 observational studies, actually exploit distinct species-specific habitats and thus
 114 require distinct conservation measures (Davidson-Watts et al. 2006). New
 115 insights of this nature will certainly change conservation goals and thinking.

116 *Engaging the public and leveraging effort*

117 Unlike other forms of monitoring, where members of the public can easily
118 participate and volunteer in the data collection process (i.e. citizen science), the
119 tagging and tracking of individuals requires special expertise, which can limit the
120 role of the public to be intimately involved in the acquisition of telemetry data.
121 Public engagement would rarely be the sole purpose of a telemetry study,
122 however, the application is exciting and often engages and captivates a broad
123 public audience through social media campaigns (<http://www.ocearch.org>) and
124 cultural events (Fig 2.)



125

126 Fig 2: Art derived from tracking studies for a public gallery event during the
127 2016 International Penguin conference. Image courtesy of Jonathan Handley,
128 Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, South Africa.
129

130 The astonishing behaviors revealed through tracking individuals, such as the
131 recent discovery of the 1,500 mile long-distance American eel migration
132 (Beguer-Pon et al. 2015), can raise species profiles and promote public
133 awareness of species conservation issues.

134

135 *Raising awareness of an issue for the public and policy makers*

136 Visual aids, such as maps, can be vital knowledge brokering tools for
137 issues of conservation concern (Hebblewhite & Haydon 2010). Maps of animal
138 movements provide evidence of both the ecological and social connectivity
139 between disparate geographies. These findings provide visual support to unify
140 politically diverse regions or groups towards a common conservation goal,
141 encouraging cross-boundary collaboration. For example, telemetry studies have
142 revealed pathways of long-distance migrants that connect countries, continents
143 and hemispheres. These studies underpin multi-lateral initiatives such as the
144 East Asian Australasian Flyway (<http://www.eaaflyway.net/>), the Convention
145 for Migratory Species (www.cms.int), as well as species focused initiatives such
146 as sea turtle conservation under the Coral Triangle Initiative for Coral Reefs,
147 Fisheries, and Food Security (Beger et al. 2015).

148

149 *Active adaptive management:*

150 Telemetry data can also identify which conservation actions to take -or
151 not take- within the adaptive management framework (Holling 1978; McFadden
152 et al. 2011). Adaptive management capitalizes on opportunities to improve the
153 effectiveness of management strategies as new knowledge is gained (McCarthy &
154 Possingham 2007; Grantham et al. 2009). This may be a “passive” process, which
155 involves reviewing the performance of past or current actions to alter future
156 actions, or “active”, where there is a conscious effort to balance knowledge
157 acquisition and conservation action. Active adaptive management programs
158 maintain well-established monitoring programs and are capable of responding

159 to observed changes in populations. For example, biotelemetry research on
160 anadromous salmon have led to a better understanding of mortality events from
161 catch and release fishing interactions, and physiological factors influencing
162 spawning failure, which in turn justify restrictions on fished populations (Cooke
163 et al. 2012).

164 *State-dependent management:*

165 State-dependent management requires monitoring the state of a system
166 or population to determine how best to manage it. State-dependent
167 management, such as quota setting for sustainably harvesting a species is the
168 most direct pathway for telemetry to influence species conservation.

169 Animal telemetry is already powering new approaches that integrate individual-
170 based movement information and decision theory. For instance, Dynamic Ocean
171 Management is an approach that changes in space and time in response to the
172 shifting nature of the ocean, the animals in it, and its users. It is based on the
173 integration of current biological, oceanographic, social and/or economic data
174 (Maxwell et al. 2015). Some of these applications use telemetry-derived data to
175 alter spatial management over short timeframes (Lewison et al. 2015). This has
176 benefits for mitigating dynamic threats such as bycatch from seasonal tuna
177 fishing effort (Hobday et al. 2010).

178

179 *The value of information to decision making*

180 A common justification for many animal tracking studies is the potential
181 to inform species conservation. We have discussed several classes of impacts
182 delivering important benefits to society and species from telemetry, but in each
183 case we would ideally quantify both the costs and expected benefit of those

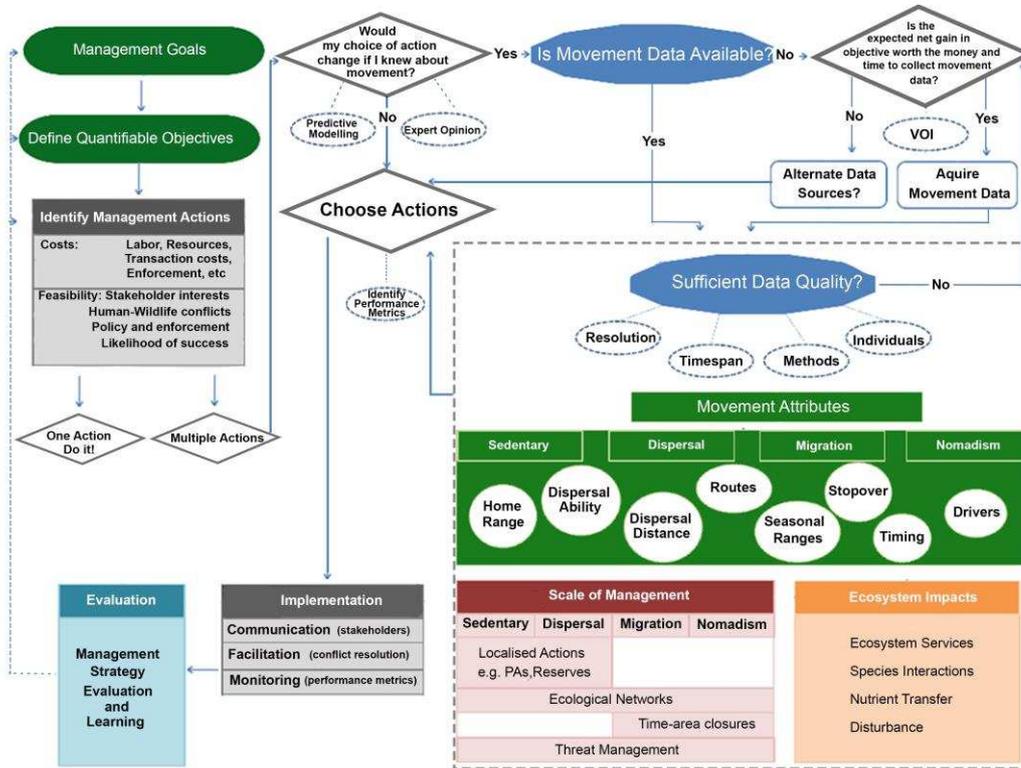
184 actions. If that effort could have been placed directly into management actions,
185 would the species be better off?

186

187 The benefits of serendipitous discovery on conservation science is difficult to
188 quantify. Corresponding conservation outcomes may happen only in the long-
189 term. Although changing perceptions and improving commitment to nature is an
190 important component of a society's willingness to commit resources to species
191 conservation, the role that telemetry has on this process can be unpredictable
192 and diffuse.

193 We focus the remaining discussion of how to improve the conservation
194 return-on-investment in telemetry science and argue that to do so, the ecological
195 knowledge derived from telemetry studies needs to inform and guide actions
196 (McDonald-Madden et al. 2010). Most published research falls short of links to
197 implementation but several excellent reviews discuss the potential of telemetry
198 research for species management (Cooke 2008; Godley et al. 2008; Metcalfe et al.
199 2012) and policy (Barton et al. 2015). Yet, these underemphasize the importance
200 of defining clear links from research to actions. Similarly, Allen and Singh (2016)
201 recently developed the Movement Management Framework - a first attempt to
202 formally integrate information derived from movement ecology into a decision-
203 making process. However, the authors overlooked critical aspects of modern
204 decision science, namely the importance of setting explicit quantitative
205 objectives, and how movement data can help screen and select actions at the
206 forefront of the planning process based on their associated costs, social and
207 economic acceptability and likelihood of success (McGowan & Possingham
208 2016). Figure 3 highlights two questions that serve to directly connect telemetry

209 research to applied conservation decision-making: 1) Would my choice of action
 210 change if I had more data? and 2) Is the expected gain in objective/s worth the
 211 money and time required to collect the data?
 212



213

214 Fig 3. The updated Movement Management Framework (McGowan and
 215 Possingham 2016) places movement information within a decision-science
 216 framework. Adapted from Allen and Singh (2016).
 217

218 *Would my choice of action change if I had more data?*

219 To know this, quantifiable objectives must first be established so that
 220 actions can be evaluated based on their ability to improve the overall benefit of
 221 the conservation intervention (Tear et al. 2005). Table 1 provides some
 222 examples of how the results from telemetry research enable managers to choose
 223 between conservation actions that abate threats to population growth rate,
 224 habitats amount and quality, and connectivity, and deliver outcomes for specific

225 objectives. We also note that telemetry studies can play a major role in reducing
226 uncertainty about threats themselves, which may be a necessary step before
227 mitigating actions can be prescribed. However, we stress that just because there
228 is uncertainty in an ecological variable, parameter or threatening process, it does
229 not mean that reducing that uncertainty facilitates better decisions or leads to
230 better management (Runge et al. 2011).

231 We draw from a trend in the movement ecology literature to track
232 individual occupancy within and around established protected areas to illustrate
233 this point. The rationale underlying these studies is often to inform protected
234 area design, as the data reveal that changes are needed to better capture the
235 movements and habitat-use of the species being tracked. A fundamental yet
236 often ignored aspect of these studies is that once established, protected area
237 boundaries are very slow to change. Given that planning horizons can be decades
238 long (Grantham et al. 2009), these findings likely fall within the diffuse impact
239 category of raising public concern and awareness about protection deficiencies,
240 rather than delivering direct benefits.

241 While telemetry-derived data may reveal major gaps in contemporary
242 conservation practices, an explicit mechanism from which to enact upon this
243 knowledge is also required to achieve direct influence over conservation. For
244 example, if the objective is to maximize the population size of the species, money
245 spent on tracking individuals around an MPA could be more optimally spent on
246 threat mitigation, such as fisheries regulations outside the boundaries,
247 nesting/breeding site patrols, or bycatch reduction strategies. From a decision
248 science perspective, we don't necessarily need to know the movements of
249 individuals to best achieve the objective.

250

251 Table 1. Examples illustrating the linkages between classes of threats,
 252 conservation objectives and actions informed by animal telemetry data.

253

| Threat | Class | Objective | Actions | Telemetry-derived data tell us |
|---|--|---|---|--|
| Linear infrastructure e.g. road and rail | a) Demographic, animals are killed by vehicles b) Connectivity, animals avoid crossing roads | a) Reduce road kills b) Improve colonization or genetic exchange | a) Fence entire road segments b) Build crossing structures | a) which road segments are most frequently crossed b) where animals are more likely to cross |
| Anthropogenic barriers in rivers e.g. dams, and weirs | a) Connectivity, animals need to move from feeding to annual breeding grounds b) Habitat, altered flow means breeding habitat becomes less suitable | a) Increase the fraction of individuals able to reach their breeding grounds b) Increase the area of suitable breeding habitat | a) Prioritise the location of fish ladders b) Regulate flow regime at upstream barriers to increase habitat availability | a) the barriers that are stopping the most fish b) which habitats are being most used for breeding |
| Point infrastructure e.g. wind farms | a) Demographic, wind farms kill threatened birds and bats (vultures, orange-bellied parrot, migratory microbats) | a) Not cause unacceptable harm to any species | a) Approve, or otherwise, a windfarm | a) the number of individuals passing through a site and their residency time at a site for key species |
| Mortality from industry (fisheries, wind farm) | a) Demographic, interactions result in harm or death | a) Restore seabird population viability | a) Gear restrictions or spatial closures | a) when and where the birds are foraging |
| Human-wildlife conflict | a) Demographic; interactions result in harm or death | a) decrease poaching | a) Optimize patrol routes | a) where human-animal conflict co-occur |
| Disease | a) Demographic; | a) understand how disease spreads through population | a) Restrict the movement of disease vectors | a) where and when carrier individuals move |
| | | | | |

254

255 *Is the expected gain in knowledge worth the cost?*

256 Our imperfect knowledge of natural systems often leads to the assertion
 257 that a greater understanding of ecological processes, spatial data and/or detailed
 258 parameters will always improve decisions. However, from a conservation
 259 decision-making perspective, investments in advancing basic ecological science
 260 to aid conservation can redirect resources away from management, undermining
 261 the very purpose of a study.

262 This trade-off between investing in management versus knowledge
263 advancement is inherent to many conservation frameworks, such as the active
264 adaptive management approach, but management trade-offs are often resolved
265 non-quantitatively based on intuition. We propose to instead use Value of
266 Information analysis (VoI), a quantitative tool for incorporating uncertainty into
267 decision making (Canessa et al. 2015; Williams & Johnson 2015). VoI can
268 evaluate the trade-off between the ability of new information to reduce decision
269 uncertainty and the costs of collecting the data; which uncertainties may be most
270 important to reduce in order to improve gains in management outcomes (Runge
271 et al. 2011); or what the financial value of gaining new information is worth to
272 management (Maxwell et al. 2014).

273 For example, Maxwell et al. (2014) considered several possible actions
274 that can be taken to maximize the growth rate of a declining koala population.
275 These include building wildlife passages to avoid vehicle collisions, allocating
276 resources to dog owners to prevent attacks, and securing koala habitat. The best
277 decision relied on uncertain information about demography and movement so
278 one could easily argue for a tracking study to inform the decision. However,
279 investing in telemetry research *a priori* would have been misguided as the VoI
280 analysis showed optimal management decisions were not sensitive to these
281 uncertainties, but were primarily driven by the cost-efficiency of the actions and
282 the management budget (Maxwell et al. 2014).

283 *Improving the return on investment of animal telemetry for decision science*

284 To date, there are few examples of using VoI to inform management decisions,
285 and even fewer using telemetry information. The potential to use the valuable
286 insights gained from telemetry in conservation decision making and spatial

287 prioritization is rarely being realized (Mazor et al. 2016). While there will
288 always be a need for basic ecological research and discovery, the conservation
289 crisis demands we look more closely at the data required to make decisions.
290 Given the global investment in telemetry for threatened species, we have an
291 ethical and practical obligation to maximise its benefit to conservation. To avoid
292 another decade of limited progress, we need new tools and frameworks to
293 effectively link the growing catalog of animal telemetry data to conservation and
294 management. Vol and other approaches, that explicitly evaluate the value of
295 science, should play an increasingly important role.

296

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