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Title:

Integrating research using animal-borne telemetry with the needs of conservation management

Date:

2017-04-01

Citation:

McGowan, J., Beger, M., Lewison, R. L., Harcourt, R., Campbell, H., Priest, M., Dwyer, R. G., Lin, H. Y., Lentini, P., Dudgeon, C., McMahon, C., Watts, M. & Possingham, H. P. (2017). Integrating research using animal-borne telemetry with the needs of conservation management. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 54 (2), pp.423-429. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12755>.

Persistent Link:

<https://hdl.handle.net/11343/291606>

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Received Date : 18-Apr-2016

Revised Date : 03-Jul-2016

Accepted Date : 18-Jul-2016

Article type : Forum Article

Editor : Johan du Toit

Integrating research using animal-borne telemetry with the needs of conservation management

Running title: Animal-borne telemetry and conservation management

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This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1111/1365-2664.12755](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12755)

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43 **Summary**

44 1. Animal-borne telemetry has revolutionised our ability to study animal
45 movement, species physiology, demography and social structures, changing
46 environments and the threats that animals are experiencing. While there will
47 always be a need for basic ecological research and discovery, the current
48 conservation crisis demands we look more pragmatically at the data required to
49 make informed management decisions.

50 2. Here, we define a framework that distinguishes how research using animal
51 telemetry devices can influence conservation. We then discuss two critical
52 questions which aim to directly connect telemetry-derived data to applied
53 conservation decision-making: (i) Would my choice of action change if I had
54 more data? (ii) Is the expected gain worth the money and time required to collect
55 more data?

56 3. *Policy Implications.* To answer questions about integrating telemetry-derived
57 data with applied conservation, we suggest the use of value of information (VoI)
58 analysis to quantitatively assess the return-on-investment of animal telemetry-
59 derived data for conservation decision-making.

60

61 Key-words: animal behaviour, movement ecology, adaptive management,
62 conservation science, demography, biotelemetry, animal-borne telemetry,
63 species physiology, threat mitigation, value of information

64

65 **Introduction**

66 The rapid ascent of animal-borne telemetry research reflects the ability of
67 this approach to improve our understanding of fundamental ecology, enhance

68 monitoring of the planet's natural resources and inform conservation practices
69 (Hussey et al. 2015; Kays et al. 2015). What is remarkable about animal-borne
70 telemetry is its ability to illustrate how individuals, ranging from bees to whales,
71 interact with each other and the natural environment and reveal information
72 about species habitat use, movement patterns, behaviour, physiology and the
73 environment they inhabit (Cooke et al. 2004). These studies have documented
74 ocean-wide dispersal events (Block et al. 2011), identified the use of unexpected
75 habitats (Raymond et al. 2014), fundamentally changed our understanding of
76 physical processes in the natural environment (Roquet et al. 2013), and revealed
77 unknown life history characteristics of threatened and cryptic species
78 (Davidson-Watts et al. 2006). It is indisputable that animal-borne telemetry has
79 enriched our understanding of the natural world and the animals that inhabit it.

80 With these advances there comes an opportunity to use animal telemetry-
81 derived data to combat global species declines (Ceballos et al. 2015). Much of the
82 published literature using telemetry technologies claim conservation
83 implications, yet the link between many of these studies to direct conservation
84 actions remains tenuous (Campbell et al. 2015; Jeffers & Godley 2016). Here, we
85 challenge the assumption by many scientists that more data will invariably lead
86 to better management and suggest an evaluation of the return-on-investment
87 from research using animal-borne telemetry devices (Runge et al. 2011; Maxwell
88 et al. 2014).

89 Given the potential of telemetry-derived data to inform resource
90 management and conservation, and the various costs involved in collecting these
91 data (e.g. financial costs of equipment and salaries, impact on mortality and
92 reproduction of animals involved (Cooke et al. 2004; McMahon et al. 2012)), it is
93 essential to evaluate the conservation benefit of these research techniques. As
94 conservation science is an explicitly applied field, our aim is to differentiate
95 between telemetry-derived data that improves ecological knowledge with
96 implications for broad conservation efforts versus data that have direct impact
97 on conservation decision-making. Our objective is to encourage researchers
98 utilising telemetry technology with an underlying conservation rationale to
99 target their research towards gathering information that is more likely to change
100 actions and maximise species persistence.

101 **Differentiating conservation impacts**

102 The use of telemetry devices to monitor free-ranging animals can affect
103 species conservation in many ways. To differentiate these impacts according to
104 conservation specificity and time-scale of impact, we draw from a conceptual
105 model developed for ecological monitoring activities (Possingham et al. 2012).
106 We present this framework to distinguish how animal-borne telemetry studies,
107 specifically, can influence conservation. We frame this discussion around the
108 distinctions made among six types of graduated impact, ranging from long-term
109 and diffuse to short-term and direct (Fig 1).

110 **Pure scientific research**

111 Discovering new facets of life history, biology or ecology motivates many
112 scientists conducting animal-borne telemetry research. The driver of this work is
113 often pure ecological enquiry (Hart & Hyrenbach 2009; Donaldson et al. 2014).
114 Through exploratory science, telemetry-derived data can generate novel findings
115 or improve existing knowledge. It is possible that this knowledge will indeed
116 influence conservation actions at some point. For example, radio-tracking
117 studies in the UK revealed that protected species of *Pipistrellus* bats, which
118 cannot be distinguished through observational studies, actually exploit distinct
119 species-specific habitats and thus require individually tailored conservation
120 measures (Davidson-Watts et al. 2006). New insights of this nature will certainly
121 change conservation goals and thinking, yet the impact is often serendipitous,
122 diffuse and over long time scales.

123 **Engaging the public and leveraging effort**

124 Unlike other forms of monitoring, where members of the public can easily
125 participate and volunteer in the data collection process (i.e. citizen science), the
126 tagging and tracking of individuals requires special expertise and can limit the
127 role of the public to be intimately involved in data acquisition. Although public
128 engagement would rarely be the sole purpose of a telemetry-based animal study,
129 the application is exciting and often engages and captivates a broad public
130 audience through social media campaigns (<http://www.ocearch.org>) and
131 cultural events (Fig 2.) The astonishing behaviours revealed through tracking
132 individuals, such as the recent discovery of the near 2,500 km long-distance
133 American eel *Anguilla rostrata* migration (Beguer-Pon et al. 2015), can raise

134 species profiles and promote public awareness of conservation issues. Although
135 changing perceptions and improving commitment to nature is an important
136 component of a society's willingness to commit resources to species
137 conservation, the process can be unpredictable.

138 **Raising awareness for the public and policy makers**

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

151 **Tactical research**

152 Tactical research is research that is not of immediate use to solve a
153 management problem, but is prioritized because a researcher uses their
154 experience to determine that it is likely to be important in the near future. For
155 example, we know that many animals experience different and varied
156 magnitudes of threats across migration routes. Therefore, the success of an
157 action taken in a nesting site may prove futile if threats at important stopover,
158 bottleneck or refugia sites are not identified and mitigated. Committing
159 resources to monitor and learn about unknown spatial processes using
160 telemetry technologies, such as identifying migratory pathways, can determine
161 what state- and time- dependent actions will deliver the greatest benefit to the
162 population's viability (Runge et al. 2014; Cooke et al. 2016). However, there is a
163 point where investing in tactical research returns marginal benefits to
164 conservation decision-making relative to solving urgent problems (Possingham
165 et al. 2012).

166 **Active adaptive management**

167 Telemetry-derived data can also identify which conservation actions to
168 take -or not take- within the adaptive management framework (Holling 1978;
169 McFadden et al. 2011). Adaptive management capitalises on opportunities to
170 improve the effectiveness of management strategies as new knowledge is gained
171 (McCarthy & Possingham 2007; Grantham et al. 2009). This may be a “passive”
172 process, which involves reviewing the performance of past or current actions to
173 alter future actions, or “active”, where there is a conscious effort to balance
174 knowledge acquisition and conservation action. These management programs
175 maintain well-established monitoring protocols and are capable of responding to
176 observed changes in populations. For example, biotelemetry research on
177 anadromous salmon has led to an improved understanding of mortality events
178 from catch and release fishing interactions, and physiological factors influencing
179 spawning failure, which in turn justify restrictions on fished populations (Cooke
180 et al. 2012).

181 **State-dependent management**

182 State-dependent management requires monitoring the state of a system
183 or population to determine how best to manage it. State-dependent
184 management, such as quota setting for harvestable species is the most direct way
185 for telemetry derived-data to influence species conservation. These research
186 techniques are already powering new approaches that integrate individual-
187 based movement information and decision theory. For instance, Dynamic Ocean
188 Management is an approach that changes in space and time in response to the
189 shifting nature of the ocean, the animals in it, and its users based on the
190 integration of current biological, oceanographic, social and/or economic data
191 (Maxwell et al. 2015). Some of these applications use telemetry-derived data to
192 alter spatial management over short timeframes (Lewison et al. 2015). This has
193 benefits for mitigating dynamic threats such as bycatch from seasonal fishing
194 effort (Hobday et al. 2010).

195 **The value of information to decision-making**

196 It is clear that many studies using animal-borne telemetry have the
197 potential to inform conservation. We have discussed several classes of impacts
198 delivering important benefits to society and species. As with all research efforts,
199 one would want to know both the quantifiable costs and expected benefits from

200 the research. Here, we present a framework that can allow researchers to ask: “If
201 that effort could have been placed directly into management and
202 implementation, would the species be better off?”

203 We focus the remaining discussion on how to improve the conservation
204 return-on-investment in research using animal-borne telemetry and argue that
205 to do so, the ecological knowledge derived from these studies needs to inform
206 and guide management actions (McDonald-Madden et al. 2010). Several
207 excellent reviews discuss the potential of using telemetry technology for species
208 management (Cooke 2008; Godley et al. 2008; Metcalfe et al. 2012; Hays et al.
209 2016) and policy (Barton et al. 2015). Yet, these reviews underemphasise the
210 importance of defining clear links from research to actions. Similarly, Allen and
211 Singh (2016) recently developed the Movement Management Framework - a first
212 attempt to formally integrate movement information into a decision-making
213 process. However, the authors overlooked critical aspects of modern decision
214 science, namely the importance of setting explicit quantitative objectives, and
215 how movement data can help screen and select actions at the beginning of the
216 planning process based on their associated costs, social and economic
217 acceptability and likelihood of success (McGowan & Possingham 2016). Figure 3
218 highlights two key questions that serve to directly connect research using
219 animal-borne telemetry to applied conservation decision-making.

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

221 To know this, quantifiable objectives must first be established so that
222 actions can be evaluated based on their ability to improve the overall benefit of
223 the conservation intervention (Tear et al. 2005). Table 1 provides some
224 examples of how the results from animal research using telemetry technology
225 enables managers to choose between conservation actions that abate threats to
226 population growth rates, habitat quantity, quality, connectivity, and deliver
227 outcomes for specific objectives. We also note that telemetry techniques can play
228 a major role in reducing uncertainty about threats themselves, which may be a
229 necessary step before mitigating actions can be prescribed. However, we stress
230 that just because there is uncertainty in an ecological variable, parameter, or
231 threatening process, it does not mean that reducing that uncertainty facilitates
232 better decisions or leads to better management (Runge et al. 2011).

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

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

252 **Is it better to invest in more data or more management?**

253 Our imperfect knowledge of natural systems often leads to the assertion
254 that a greater understanding of ecological processes, spatial data and/or detailed
255 parameters will always improve decisions. However, from a conservation
256 decision-making perspective, investments in advancing basic ecological science
257 to aid conservation can redirect resources away from management. Given this
258 quandary, how does one decide whether or not to invest in more data collection?
259 We can resolve this using an approach relatively new to ecology and
260 conservation – value of information analysis (VoI), a quantitative tool for
261 incorporating uncertainty into decision making (Canessa et al. 2015; Williams &
262 Johnson 2015). Value of information analysis can be used to examine the trade-
263 off between the ability of new information to reduce decision uncertainty and
264 the costs of collecting more data; which uncertainties may be most important to
265 reduce in order to improve gains in management outcomes (Runge et al. 2011);

266 or what the financial value of gaining new information is worth to management
267 (Maxwell et al. 2014).

268 Maxwell et al. (2014) provide an excellent example of using value of
269 information analysis for wildlife conservation. In this study, the authors
270 considered several possible actions that can be taken to maximize the growth
271 rate of a declining koala *Phascolarctos cinereus* population. These include
272 building wildlife passages to avoid vehicle collisions, allocating resources to dog
273 owners to prevent attacks, and securing koala habitat. The management decision
274 relied on uncertain information about demography and movement so one could
275 easily have argued for a tracking study to inform the decision. However,
276 investing in telemetry devices for research *a priori* would have been misguided
277 as the value of information analysis showed optimal management decisions were
278 not sensitive to these uncertainties, but were primarily driven by the cost-
279 efficiency of the actions and the management budget (Maxwell et al. 2014).

280 **Improving the return-on-investment of animal-borne telemetry for conservation** 281 **decision-making**

282 To date, there are only a few examples of using value of information analysis
283 to inform management decisions, and even fewer using telemetry-derived data.
284 The potential benefits from this field are rarely being systematically
285 incorporated into conservation decision-making or spatial prioritisation (Mazor
286 et al. 2016). While there will always be a need for basic ecological research and
287 discovery, the extent of the current conservation crisis demands we look more
288 pragmatically at the data required to make decisions. Given the global
289 investment in telemetry devices for threatened species, we have an ethical and
290 practical obligation to maximise this investment's benefit to conservation. To
291 improve the conservation return-on-investment in these techniques, we need
292 new tools and frameworks to effectively link the growing catalogue of animal
293 telemetry-derived data to conservation and management. Value of information
294 and other approaches that explicitly evaluate the value of science should play an
295 increasingly important role.

296

297 **Acknowledgements**

298 This work was funded by the Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence
299 for Environmental Decisions. J.M. is supported on an International Postgraduate
300 Research Award. R.H. supported in part by a Sitka Sound Science Centre Scientist
301 in Residency Fellowship, C.M. by the Integrated Marine Observing System
302 (IMOS). R.L. is supported in part by the NASA Applied Science Ecoforecasting and
303 Biodiversity Program. R.G.D. is funded by an ARC Linkage Grant. P.L. is funded by
304 the Australian Government's National Environmental Research Program. H.P.P.
305 is supported by an ARC Laureate Fellowship. We would like to thank Prof. Johan
306 du Toit, Dr. Steven Cooke, an anonymous reviewer and Dr. Steffen Oppel for
307 helpful comments on the draft.

308

309 **Data accessibility**

310 Data have not been archived because this article does not contain data.

311

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455 Table 1: Examples of linkages between classes of threats, conservation objectives
456 and action informed by animal telemetry-derived data

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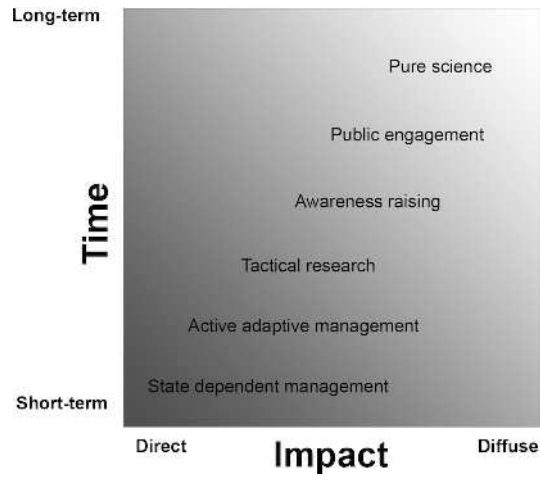
Threat	Class	Objective	Actions	Animal telemetry-derived data tell us:
Linear infrastructure e.g.	a) Demographic, animals are killed by	a) Reduce collisions	a) Fence entire road segments or increase	a) Which linear feature segments are most

road, rail, power lines	collisions b) Connectivity, animals avoid crossing linear features	b) Improve colonization or genetic exchange	visibility b) Build crossing structures	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 between feeding and breeding grounds b) Habitat, altered flow decreases suitable breeding habitat	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 passage options b) Regulate flow regime upstream of barriers to increase habitat availability and quality	a) Which barriers prevent the most fish from passing b) Which habitats are most used for breeding
Point infrastructure (e.g. electricity pylons, communication towers, or wind farms)	Demographic, structures kill threatened species (vultures, orange-bellied parrot, migratory microbats)	a) Not cause unacceptable harm to a population b) Reduce the likelihood of threats at an existing site	a) Approve location of point infrastructure b) Modify timing of operations (e.g. wind turbines)	a) The number of individuals passing through and residency time at a site for key species b) The time at which individuals pass through a site
Mortality from extractive industry (i.e. fisheries)	Demographic, interactions result in harm or death	Reduce incidental mortality (e.g. bycatch rates)	Gear restrictions or spatial closures	When and where non-target individuals forage
Human-wildlife conflict	a) Demographic; persecution and culling impact on survival b) Habitat exclusion from key breeding or foraging areas	a) Reduce frequency of negative interactions with humans b) Maximise area of important habitats which species can access	a) Install barriers to protect communities b) Introduce compensatory schemes to encourage coexistence	a) Frequency of wildlife encroachments b) When and where important breeding and feeding areas are
Disease	Demographic; mortality from pathogen transfer	Understand how disease spreads through population	Restrict the movement of disease vectors	Where and when carrier individuals move
Illegal harvest or poaching	Demographic; interactions result in harm or death	Decrease poaching rates	Optimise patrol routes	Spatial and temporal distribution of poaching-related mortality
Invasive species	a) Demographic,	a) Increase	a) Control of invasive	a) Location and timing

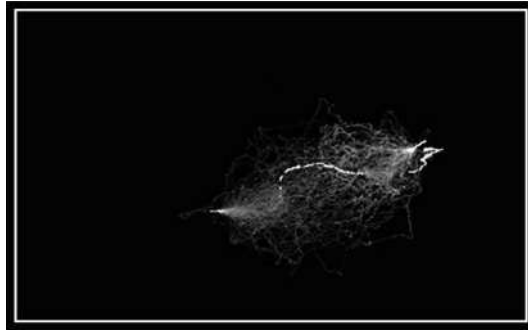
	mortality from invasive predators	probability of persistence of prey species	predator population	for culling operations to have greatest impact
	b) Habitat, exclusion by introduced competitor	b) Reduce area of occupancy of competitor	b) Control of invasive competitor	b) Home range and encounter probability of traps or bait

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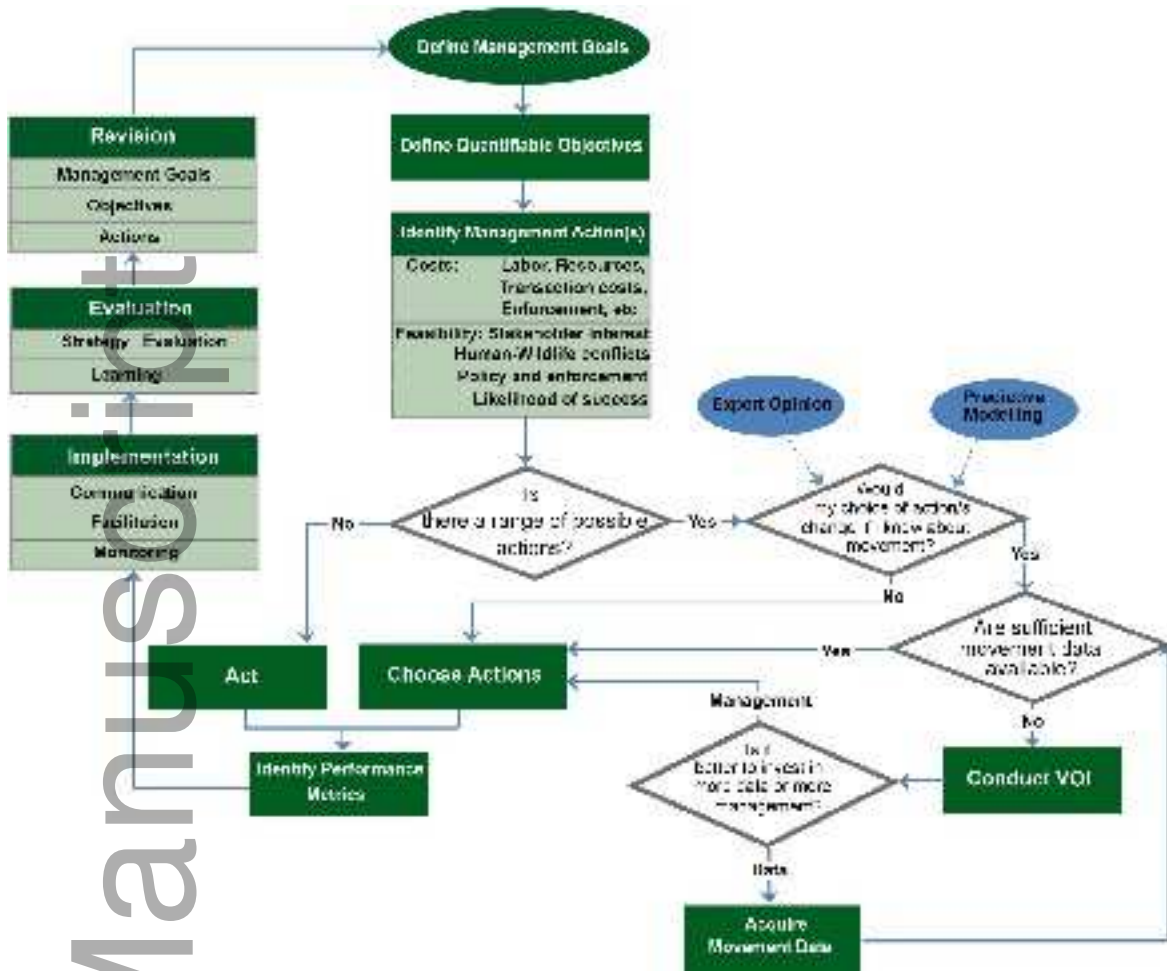
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