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1 **Tracking individual animals can reveal the mechanisms of species loss**

2
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23 **Keywords:**

24 biodiversity loss, animal tracking, movement ecology, populations

25

26 **Abstract:**

27 As biodiversity loss continues, targeted conservation interventions are increasingly
28 necessary. Stemming species loss requires mechanistic understanding of the processes governing
29 population dynamics. However, this information is unavailable for the majority of animals
30 because it requires data that are difficult to collect using traditional methods. Advances in animal
31 tracking technology have generated an avalanche of high-resolution observations for a growing
32 list of species around the globe. To date, most research using these data has focused on questions
33 about animal behavior, with less emphasis on population processes. We argue that tracking data
34 are uniquely poised to bring powerful new insights to the urgent, global problem of halting
35 species extinctions by revealing when, where, how, and why populations are changing.

36

37 **The need to understand species' vital rates**

38 As the global loss of biodiversity accelerates [1], identifying the drivers of species loss is
39 essential to preventing future extinctions. Doing so requires understanding the dynamics of
40 **population abundances** (see Glossary) which arise via the gain of individual animals through
41 births (**fecundity**) and **immigration** and losses through deaths (**mortality**) and **emigration**
42 (hereafter '**vital rates**'; Figure 1). Each vital rate can be influenced by biotic and abiotic factors,
43 such as age and conspecific density, or anthropogenic effects, including climate and land use
44 change. Thus, elucidating what factors drive population trends requires disentangling each of the
45 component parts. However, this information is unavailable for the vast majority of species,

46 meaning we are missing critical insight into the threats they face [2]. Indeed, mechanistic insight
47 into the factors that regulate populations remains a fundamental question for ecology [3].

48
49 Disaggregating changes in population abundance into component vital rates requires repeated
50 observations of individual animals whose identities are known. Current methods typically rely on
51 resighting or recapturing “marked” individual animals by exploiting distinctive, natural markings
52 or vocal identifiers (e.g., coat patterns, songs) or outfitting them with artificial tags (e.g., leg
53 bands, neck collars, flipper tags). These techniques are extraordinarily time and labor intensive
54 leaving most species sparsely studied. Further, many studies produce estimates which are
55 temporally coarse (often monthly or annual), and inference about vital rates can be based on only
56 one or two observations of each animal. The inherent low temporal resolution of current
57 approaches combined with the fact that many taxa, such as migrant or pelagic species, move over
58 distances far exceeding the bounds of most studies means that many critical demographic
59 processes are missed simply because they are not observed.

60
61 Unfortunately, these gaps are unlikely to be filled by the recent proliferation of biodiversity data.
62 Participatory science initiatives (e.g., eBird or iNaturalist) generate enormous volumes of
63 valuable data but do not identify individual animals and, therefore, cannot disentangle vital rates.
64 Camera traps and audio sensors are capable of distinguishing individuals in some cases, but
65 suffer from similar limitations as traditional approaches because they are limited in spatial scope
66 and therefore often cannot pinpoint the extrinsic drivers of vital rates.

67

68 Advances in **animal tracking** technology have generated an avalanche of high-resolution
69 location data for a growing list of species around the globe, increasingly without the need to
70 recapture **tagged animals**. A large body of research has focused on the animal movement
71 processes documented by tracking data, generating insights into animal behavior and
72 ecophysiology as well as ecosystem functions [4]. By offering repeated observations of
73 individual animals at an unprecedented scale, animal tracking data could be used to estimate vital
74 rates, but have yet to be widely used for this purpose. Animal tracking systems vary in terms of
75 spatial resolution, fix rate, deployment duration, and data retrieval methods - each affecting the
76 types and quality of inference that can be accomplished (Box 1). Here, we argue that tracking
77 data are uniquely poised to bring powerful new insights to the urgent, global problem of halting
78 species extinctions by revealing new details about when, where, how, and why populations are
79 changing.

80

81 **Estimating vital rates with animal tracking**

82 Although tracking data may appear to differ from the type of data typically used for
83 understanding vital rates, at the most basic level all animal tracking systems produce repeated
84 observations of marked individual animals and are therefore highly compatible with existing
85 methods (Figure 1) [5]. Tracking data are particularly well-suited to estimating immigration and
86 emigration rates, which are movement-based processes, and have been widely used to do so [5–
87 7]. It is worth noting, though, that a complete picture of sub-population structure, including
88 among-population connectivity may require extensive sampling efforts that are still difficult to
89 achieve. Estimating **survival** from tracking data is becoming more common (e.g., songbird
90 survival during migration or fisheries stock assessments [8–10] ; Box 1, Figure 2), though it

91 remains difficult in many scenarios. Some tracking systems (e.g., collars commonly deployed on
92 large ungulates or some pop-up satellite archival tags) may even support the direct identification
93 of mortality events without recapture and are, thus, able to investigate proximate causes of
94 mortality [11]. Such analyses may allow researchers to disentangle the contribution of
95 anthropogenic activities to mortality from natural sources such as, for example, disease,
96 senescence, or predation (e.g., [12]). Although less well-established, several emerging methods
97 are even beginning to estimate the occurrence of reproductive attempts directly from tracking
98 data (e.g., nesting attempts in eagles [13] and waterfowl [14]) or from **auxiliary sensors** such as
99 vaginal implant tags (e.g., parturition in ungulates [15] and sharks [16]).

100

101 Linking tracking-derived vital rate estimates back to changes in population abundance is possible
102 using well-established population demographic approaches [17]. Population models estimate the
103 relative influence of component vital rates on changes in overall abundance by linking these
104 processes via a balance equation (Figure 1) [18]. Integrated population models (IPMs), in
105 particular, are a powerful framework for parsing the influence of vital rates on population
106 change, allowing researchers to integrate disparate data types and link individual-scale data with
107 population-scale monitoring efforts [19,20]. Thus, data from tagged animals can be deployed
108 alongside data from traditionally marked or even unmarked animals to augment existing
109 frameworks. For example, Horne et al. [17] paired GPS tracking data with abundance counts in
110 an IPM to understand the drivers of population dynamics in Gray Wolves (*Canis lupus*).

111

112 By allowing data collection to follow individual animals as they move through the environment,
113 tracking data can present key advantages over data typically applied to vital rate estimation,

114 though not without limitations. As tag technology improves, animals are increasingly being
115 tracked for longer durations, sometimes even covering entire lifetimes [21]. However, most tags
116 can still only be deployed for short durations, limiting inference about key processes such as
117 senescence or ontogenetic shifts in vital rates. Still, short duration deployments can produce
118 useful insights over limited time periods or within specific geographic areas of interest.
119 Therefore, depending on the technology used, tracking data can be used to estimate differences
120 in vital rates with greater temporal resolution (e.g., seasonally [22,23]). Many tracking systems
121 offer continental or even global coverage, allowing researchers to observe individuals without
122 regard to study area boundaries and, thus, generate vital rate estimates with high spatio-temporal
123 specificity – even for species that have been traditionally challenging to study, such as small-
124 bodied migratory birds [24] or fish [25]. While many tracking devices still remain too heavy to
125 deploy on smaller taxa [4], impressive progress is being made with tag miniaturization [26],
126 rapidly widening the pool of potential study species (recently extending to radio tracking of
127 individual moths [26]), although a lower size limit will eventually be reached. Expanded network
128 coverage of continental- or global-scale tracking systems (such as Motus [27], ICARUS [28], or
129 several acoustic telemetry networks [29,30]) will help close taxonomic and geographic gaps in
130 vital rate estimation for understudied species.

131

132 Modern tracking systems not only generate improved data to tackle questions about population
133 declines, but do so at an unprecedented scale. By largely removing human observation from the
134 data collection process, these cutting-edge methods are able to generate several orders of
135 magnitude more observations per individual animal than traditional approaches. For example, in
136 the time since Movebank, a popular global tracking data repository, launched in 2007 it has

137 registered nearly 300 million locations for North American birds alone (of over 6 billion
138 locations for all taxa worldwide) [31]. By comparison, one of the most comprehensive mark-
139 recapture programs, the North American Bird Banding Program, covering the same geographic
140 extent, has cataloged just over 1.6 million resightings in the same time period [32]. While the
141 higher volume of tracking data may be somewhat redundant for estimating vital rates at, for
142 example, annual scales, it can improve the precision of estimates and, importantly, vital rate
143 estimates at finer temporal resolutions (e.g., seasonal rather than annual survival).

144

145 **Revealing complex drivers**

146 Decomposing changes in population abundance into component vital rates alone is insufficient to
147 understand the causes of species declines. Instead, doing so requires identifying the factors that
148 drive changes in each of the four component vital rates. This is challenging with traditional
149 approaches because the coarseness of vital rate estimates is unlikely to match highly dynamic
150 environmental and anthropogenic pressures. However, by providing high resolution information
151 on individual animals' locations that can be combined with remotely-sensed information,
152 tracking data can reveal how external drivers influence demographic outcomes, and ultimately
153 population declines [11,22].

154

155 Furthermore, animal-borne auxiliary sensors (such as heart-rate monitors or tri-axial
156 accelerometers), present an emerging frontier, allowing researchers to associate animals'
157 movements with non-movement behaviors [33] or physiology [34,35], or even directly measure
158 environmental conditions [36] (Figure 2). Integrating these data streams is already proving useful
159 in linking organismal processes with extrinsic environmental context (e.g. [37]) and could reveal

160 the potentially complex causal pathways through which environmental conditions affect vital
161 rates. For example, using tracking techniques, researchers have recently linked animal mortalities
162 to social context [38], anthropogenic impacts [11], and phenology [39].

163
164 Identifying the causes of population declines can be highly complex, as changes in population
165 abundance in one region may, in fact, be the consequence of pressures that highly mobile
166 animals face in disparate regions, such as another continent or ocean basin [40,41]. These so-
167 called “**seasonal interactions**” or “**carry-over effects**” arise when component vital rates vary as
168 a function of previously-experienced conditions [42,43]. Recent work has demonstrated that
169 seasonal interactions may play a large role in driving vital rates [44,45] with cascading effects on
170 population growth [46] and range extent [47]. For example, changes in population abundance of
171 several species of sea turtles assessed at terrestrial breeding colonies arise from vital rate
172 fluctuations during pelagic life history phases in the open ocean [48]. Similarly, population
173 trends in migratory birds have been shown to vary according to flyway, suggesting survival may
174 vary with non-breeding location or migration route [49,50]. Identifying these phenomena is
175 extremely difficult without repeated observations of individuals, so some studies have
176 undertaken the challenging, labor-intensive process of comprehensively investigating multiple
177 populations that are demographically linked [51].

178
179 The high-frequency time series generated by tracking devices are increasingly allowing
180 researchers to identify seasonal interactions and carry-over effects, and to do so at the scale of
181 individual animals [52–54]. By looking back across tracking data for past exposure to
182 environmental or anthropogenic factors, researchers can reveal the complex time dynamics

183 governing population abundance (Figure 1). Such analyses may be especially important for
184 identifying demographic outcomes relating to chronic or lagged exposure to climate, resource
185 scarcity, toxins, or stressful environments (e.g., [55]). The fine spatiotemporal resolution of
186 modern tracking data holds the promise of identifying critical periods of the annual cycle as well
187 as key locations with disproportionate influence on population dynamics.

188

189 **Realizing the potential**

190 Supporting global action to halt extinctions will require generalizing insights across species,
191 locations, and ecological and anthropogenic contexts. Even without further data collection, the
192 current set of tracking data holds tremendous potential to support comparative approaches that
193 include multiple taxa or cover broad spatial extents. Already, synthetic studies that aggregate
194 tracking data from multiple sources are providing critical insights into the ways that humans
195 influence wildlife [56–60]. Efforts to improve sharing [61] and discovery [62] of tracking data,
196 as well as to collate standardized metadata providing detailed individual life histories [63], will
197 help move the field towards quantitatively linking individual responses to drivers of population
198 declines.

199

200 While animal tracking can reduce the amount of field effort relative to traditional mark-recapture
201 approaches, deploying tags on animals can still be expensive and labor intensive. Many tracking
202 systems remain prohibitively expensive for widespread adoption. Similarly, safely and ethically
203 affixing devices to animals requires specialized training and, even still, may have negative
204 effects on tagged individuals (e.g., [64]). Efforts to build less expensive tracking systems and
205 expand open-source training opportunities could facilitate greater adoption of these techniques,

206 especially amongst researchers from lower-income countries. Increased data sharing could
207 alleviate the burden on researchers and reduce the risk of unintended negative impacts on wild
208 animals.

209
210 In addition to large-scale synthetic studies, targeted sampling of particularly vulnerable or data
211 deficient species can generate key insights that support urgently needed conservation and
212 management actions. One example of such an effort is the Road to Recovery Project
213 (r2rbirds.org) which leverages animal tracking to identify the specific drivers of population
214 declines among the most at-risk species of North American birds. Similarly, the Ocean Tracking
215 Network (<https://oceantrackingnetwork.org/>) has successfully integrated acoustic telemetry-
216 derived insights into management planning for multiple harvested species [65]. Similar efforts
217 focusing on other vulnerable taxonomic groups or undersampled geographies could contribute
218 essential insights to address declines in populations of some of the planet's most critically
219 endangered species.

220
221 Moving forward, continued methodological development will support better vital rate estimation
222 from existing tracking systems. Estimating fecundity from tracking data is not yet widely viable
223 for most species. However, linking tracking data to auxiliary vaginal implant tags allows
224 researchers to infer reproductive attempts or even success for a limited subset of mammals [15]
225 and acoustic or video monitoring, paired with knowledge of species-specific life history, could
226 expand the capacity to do so even further. In general, estimating survival rates from tracking is
227 easiest for large-bodied species that can carry tags with **remote data upload** capabilities (i.e.,
228 circumventing the need for recapture). Sampling smaller-bodied species could leverage

229 **automated telemetry** or **acoustic telemetry** approaches which use networks of fixed receiver
230 stations and often support much smaller tags (Box 1). New analytical approaches custom-made
231 for these systems promise to expand taxonomic coverage by enabling estimation of survival,
232 emigration, and immigration. However, more work is needed in this area, especially the
233 development of techniques that might be able to estimate reproductive success and productivity.

234
235 As we rethink the role that animal tracking can play in understanding population declines, we
236 strongly recommend that new tracking systems are designed for this purpose. For example,
237 sacrificing temporal resolution in exchange for further tag miniaturization and extended battery
238 life could extend taxonomic coverage to the dozens of species of migratory birds experiencing
239 unexplained and dramatic declines in abundance [66]. In the marine realm, increasing tag
240 deployment longevity would improve taxonomic coverage and potential to identify carry-over
241 effects. Further, animal-borne auxiliary sensors that are capable of directly identifying mortality
242 events will prevent confusing deaths with tag loss or malfunction, and location information could
243 be used to confirm status and perform necropsies to infer causality [67]. Already, real-time
244 automated analyses of tracking data, and resulting mortality alerts to (community) scientists,
245 provide opportunities for direct post-mortem analyses of the causes of death of individuals [61].
246 Finally, pairing location tracking with auxiliary sensors that can record, for example, body
247 temperature or heart rate would allow deeper understanding of the physiological processes
248 associated with variance in vital rates.

249

250 **Concluding remarks**

251 We strongly encourage the animal movement, population ecology, conservation biology, and
252 biodiversity communities to intensify efforts leveraging the animal tracking data revolution to
253 improve our understanding of the causes of species declines. Such efforts will require dedicated
254 technological advances in tracking hardware, targeted development of new analytical
255 approaches, and increased collaboration and data sharing (see Outstanding Questions).
256 Appropriately leveraging the data on individual animals will provide unprecedented insights into
257 the drivers of population declines and help support more targeted, effective conservation actions.

258

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268

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417 **Glossary:**

- 418 ● **Acoustic telemetry:** Audio-based system that automatically records detections of tagged
419 animals (typically aquatic) within a fixed sensor array.
- 420 ● **Animal tracking:** Repeated observations of an individual animal collected by a
421 (typically) electronic device affixed to the animal that records, at minimum, the location
422 and time of each observation.
- 423 ● **Automated telemetry:** Radio-based system that automatically records detections of
424 tagged animals (typically terrestrial) within a fixed sensor array.
- 425 ● **Auxiliary sensor:** A sensor, integrated with a basic animal tracking device, that records
426 information about the individual's physiology or environment.
- 427 ● **Carry-over effects:** At the *individual* level, non-fatal effects, such as poor physical
428 condition or delayed phenology that are carried over from one season to the next to
429 influence vital rates such as reproductive success or survival.
- 430 ● **Emigration:** The rate at which individuals are lost from a population by moving to a new
431 location (one of the four component vital rates).
- 432 ● **Fecundity:** The rate at which individuals are added to a population via the production of
433 young that survive to adulthood (one of the four component vital rates).
- 434 ● **Fix rate:** The frequency with which an animal's position is recorded by an animal
435 tracking device. This can be at regular, predetermined intervals for systems such as GPS,
436 or irregular for systems such as automated or acoustic telemetry.
- 437 ● **Immigration:** The rate at which individuals are added to a population via movement
438 from another location (one of the four component vital rates).

- 439 ● **Mortality:** The rate at which individuals in a population are expected to die over some
440 time period (the inverse of survival and one of the four component vital rates).
- 441 ● **Population:** A collection of individuals with a shared gene pool. Populations can refer to
442 an entire species or some geographically restricted subset.
- 443 ● **Population abundance:** The total number of individuals in a population.
- 444 ● **Population growth:** The rate at which population abundance changes, where positive
445 growth implies increasing abundance and negative growth implies decreasing abundance.
- 446 ● **Remote data upload:** The capability of some tags to collect data onboard and
447 subsequently transmit those data to researchers without requiring recapture.
- 448 ● **Seasonal interaction:** Events occurring during one period which continue to influence
449 individuals and populations (through density-dependence mechanisms) during
450 subsequent periods, profoundly influencing both ecological and evolutionary processes.
- 451 ● **Survival:** The rate at which individuals in a population are expected to survive over some
452 time period (the inverse of mortality and one of the four component vital rates).
- 453 ● **Tag/tracking device:** A device which can be affixed on an individual animal which
454 supports the measurement of, at minimum, time and location data either onboard or by
455 some external system.
- 456 ● **Tagged animal:** An individual outfitted with an animal tracking device that may or may
457 not include auxiliary sensors.
- 458 ● **Vital rates:** The four basic processes which can lead to changes in population
459 abundance: fecundity, immigration, mortality, emigration.

460 **Box 1**

461 **Study design considerations for estimating vital rates**

462 The design of studies to estimate one or more vital rates will depend greatly on the tracking
463 technology deployed, the particular vital rate of interest, and idiosyncrasies relating to the study
464 system and aims. Some studies may be relatively straightforward to implement whereas others
465 are not yet possible, still requiring technological and/or methodological advances. Below, we
466 briefly highlight major study design considerations, analytical approaches, and opportunities for
467 methodological advances. We do so for three major categories of tracking technology:

468

469 *Direct position telemetry*

470 This category of tracking technology includes systems where the tag records animal positions
471 (typically using GPS) on-board and transmits those data to researchers, obviating the need for
472 subsequent captures. Many terrestrial platforms transmit data at regular intervals whereas many
473 marine applications require pop-up tags which archive data during collection and then transmit
474 the full dataset as a single bundle at the end of a deployment. The fix rate, precision, and
475 deployment duration of this category is highly variable and highly contingent on idiosyncrasies
476 associated with geographic region, taxa, and biome. While largely restricted to large, terrestrial
477 species, this category is ideal for vital rate estimation because it largely eliminates problematic
478 sample bias arising from detection processes associated with archival or reverse positioning
479 systems (see below and Table 1).

480

481 *Direct position archival*

482 This category is similar to *Direct position telemetry* in terms of the types of data that can be
483 collected. However, instead of transmitting to researchers, data are stored onboard, requiring
484 subsequent recapture for retrieval. The smaller batteries afforded by the lack of telemetry allow
485 for much smaller tag designs that can be applied to a wider range of taxa and ecological contexts.
486 For example, archival tags offer substantially longer tracking durations than most pop-up tags for
487 marine species that can be recaptured (e.g., [45]). Similarly, lightweight archival tags are
488 increasingly used to track small birds with GPS [68] or light-level geolocation [69]. The need to
489 recapture individuals for data acquisition presents a substantial challenge for study design (Table
490 1).

491 It should be noted that there are tag designs which are intermediate between telemetry
492 and archival which have limited capacity to upload. These tags frequently include VHF or UHF
493 transmission of data to automated or manually operated receiver stations. Because of the
494 potentially biased data collection capacity (restricted only to animals that survive and can be
495 recaptured), these tags are more similar to archival in terms of utility for vital rate estimation.

496

497 *Reverse positioning*

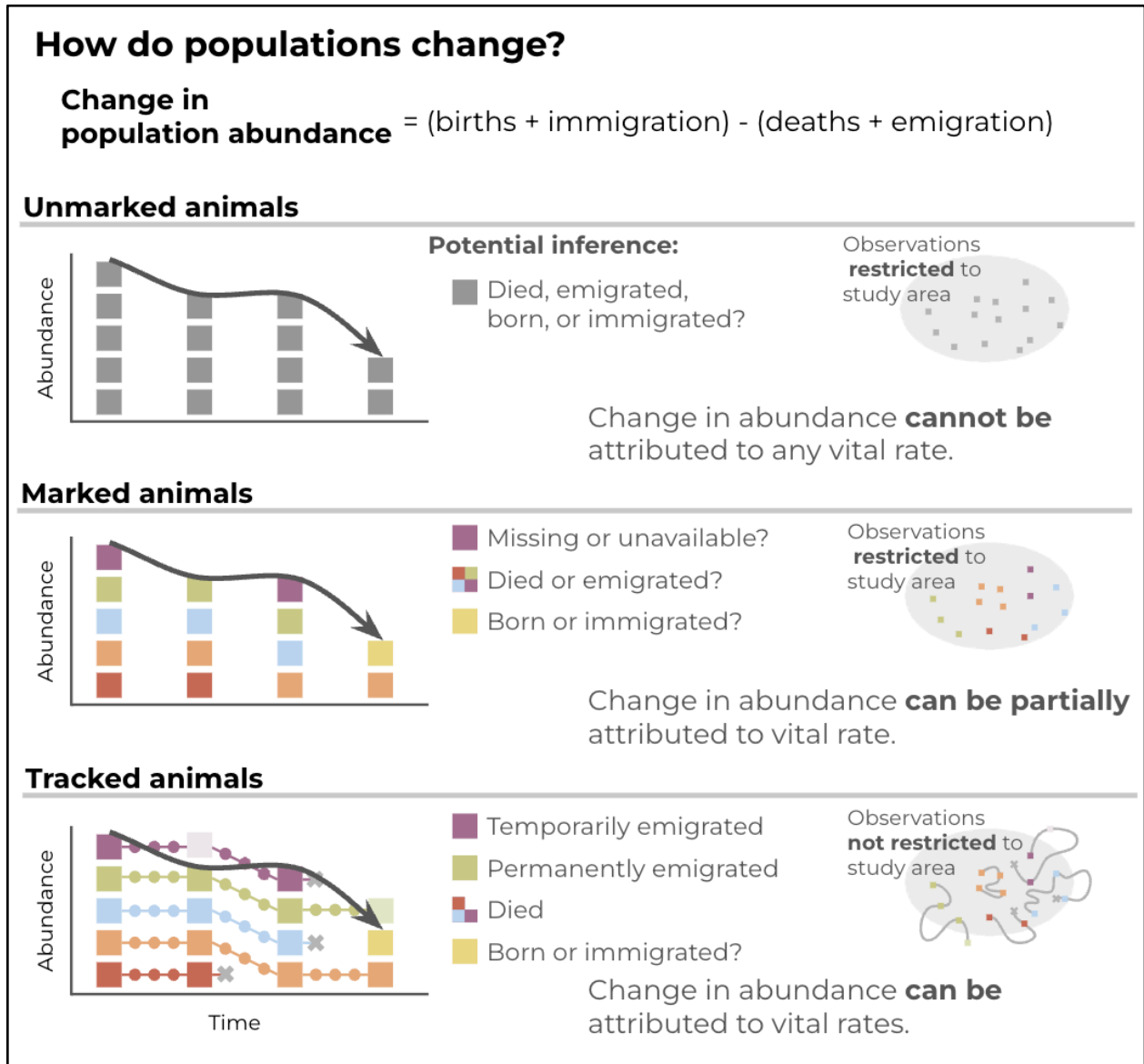
498 Reverse positioning systems rely on a distributed array of sensors that receive signals emitted
499 from tags (typically a radio or acoustic pulse) and determine its location via time-to-arrival or
500 triangulation. Because an animal's location is determined by the network, rather than onboard
501 the tag, these tags are often very light weight and do not require subsequent recapture or
502 telemetry for data acquisition. With respect to vital rate estimation, these systems combine
503 desirable qualities of both direct position telemetry (e.g., no need for recapture) and direct
504 position archival (e.g., small, durable tags) systems. However, the spatial layout and coverage

505 extent of the sensor array remains an open challenge for the field (Table I). Similarly, coupling
506 reverse positioning tags with auxiliary sensors is not normally possible.

Table I. Study design considerations for estimating vital rates from animal tracking.

Category	Example Tracking System	Sampling design	Considerations for estimating vital rates			Examples
			Survival	Fecundity	Immigration/Emigration	
Direct position telemetry	GPS-Satellite, GPS-GSM, ICARUS, Argos, Pop-up satellite archival	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tags tend to be large and best suited to relatively large species [4]. • Tag costs can hinder large sample sizes, especially for designs requiring large spatial coverage (e.g., immigration). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct detection via mortality sensor in large taxa and emerging methods to estimate mortality from position data only [70]. • May require fewer tagged animals than other methods because the observation process does not need to be modeled. • Pop-up survival tags, common in marine settings, can infer mortality from depth profiles but provide coarse spatial information over limited tracking durations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct detection via auxiliary sensors (e.g., vaginal implants). • Emerging methods to detect as a latent state from position data [13,14] or via movement recursion analyses [71]. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ideal for estimating movement processes due to wide coverage (often global). • May require tracking many individuals to adequately estimate this population-level process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prugh et al. [72] paired mortality sensors with GPS tracking to understand interactive causes of mortality in mesopredators. • Buechley et al. used satellite tracking to assess season-specific mortality rates (particularly during migration) [22].
Direct position archival	GPS, Light-level/Pressure Geolocator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tags are often cheaper and lighter than similar direct position telemetry tags, increasing taxonomic applicability and potential sample sizes. • Large sample sizes can require substantial field-based effort to recapture tagged 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited capacity - identical to passive banding/tagging schemes. • Tracking data restricted to recaptured individuals and thus perfectly confounded with the survival process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detection similar to direct position telemetry but with sample bias arising from the need to recapture individuals. • Tracking data can inform fecundity estimation when paired with traditional methods to study reproduction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emigration can only be jointly inferred with survival (as with traditional mark-recapture) because data are only recovered from recaptured individuals. • Immigration is conceptually possible, but would require very large 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Beltran et al. [45] link marine archival tracking to reproductive success.

		animals.			samples.	
Reverse positioning	Acoustic telemetry, automated telemetry, PIT (Passive Integrated Transponders) tag, Internet of Things (IoT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally the lightest and least expensive option, permitting the largest sample sizes and taxonomic breadth. • Careful consideration of existing sensor arrays is needed to ensure the entire study area is sampled. • Researchers can often deploy new sensors to the array which is particularly beneficial for local-scale studies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Could be estimated using mark-recapture methods, but typically require large sample sizes [5,73,74]. • Irregular arrays may present challenges because availability for detection is confounded with location. • High potential to increase survival inference for marine species currently restricted to pop-up tags or small-bodied terrestrial species currently restricted to archival tags. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No known methods without linking to auxiliary sensors capable of remote data download. • Conceptually possible if movement data are sufficiently high resolution (both spatial and temporal) using methods from Overton et al [14] or Eisaguirre et al [13]. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suitable for estimating movements between populations, given adequate coverage by array(s) [75,76]. • Restricted coverage and array layout may bias inference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crossin et al. [10] review the use of acoustic telemetry to inform fisheries management, including stock assessments.



510

511

Figure 1. Animal tracking data provides unprecedented detail to how and why

512

populations change. Population dynamics emerge from the four component vital rates, linked

513

via a balance equation: Births and immigrations add to populations, whereas deaths and

514

emigrations subtract from them. Monitoring schemes that do not track individual identities (i.e.,

515

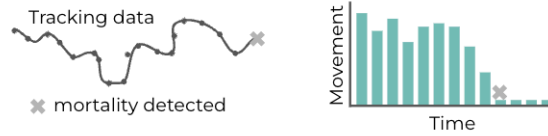
animals are “unmarked”) cannot estimate vital rates because changes in abundance are

516

confounded. Classic approaches to decomposing vital rates rely on “marked” animal schemes

517 wherein the identity of individuals are known. These frameworks can partially distinguish vital
518 rates, but because immigration and emigration cannot be fully observed, vital rates cannot be
519 completely disentangled. Most animal tracking, by virtue of finer spatiotemporal resolution and
520 dramatically wider coverage extent, can further decompose vital rates - specifically immigration
521 and emigration processes are better estimated (though births remain an open challenge for the
522 field). Using integrated population modeling, submodels estimating component vital rates can be
523 combined via the overall balance equation and allow researchers to link disparate data types
524 across submodels.

Detecting mortality from tracking data



Understanding mortality...

where **when**



annual cycle



life cycle



why

Causes of mortality

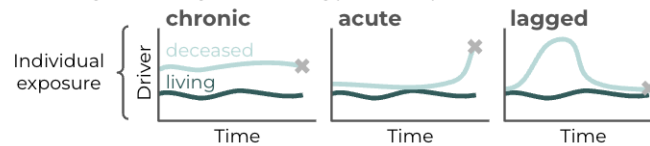


Drivers of mortality



how

Mortality driven by different types of exposure.



525

526 **Figure 2. Detecting mortality from tracking data.** Using high-resolution GPS data, mortalities

527 can be directly estimated from movement data, pinpointing the location and timing of

528 mortalities. Potential causes can be identified by associating mortalities (and preceding tracks)

529 with environmental variables derived from, for example, remotely-sensed products. Leveraging

530 time series can reveal complex temporal dynamics between drivers and outcomes such as

531 carryover effects and seasonal interactions or chronic exposures.