

1 Tracking animal movements via collaborative acoustic telemetry
2 networks: multiscale habitat use, phenology, and management insights

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23 Abstract

24 Estuaries support diverse fish and invertebrate communities, including resident species
25 that rely on estuarine habitats year-round and transient migratory species. The unique movement
26 patterns of these animals connect habitats within and far beyond the estuary and are integrally
27 linked to fisheries management objectives. With a focus on Chesapeake Bay, this study leveraged
28 data from collaborative acoustic telemetry networks in the northwest Atlantic to assess habitat
29 use and phenology of movements for seven species of fish (cownose rays, dusky sharks, smooth
30 dogfish, alewife, striped bass, common carp, and blue catfish) and one invertebrate (horseshoe
31 crabs). A total of 288 acoustically tagged individuals were detected >3.2 million times (6,743 to
32 2,095,717 detections per species) on receivers across ~20.5 degrees of latitude spanning the
33 North American Atlantic seaboard from Florida, USA to New Brunswick, Canada. Common
34 metrics of movement and phenology grouped these species as resident (common carp, blue
35 catfish, horseshoe crabs), primarily resident in estuaries (juvenile striped bass), and coastal
36 migrant (cownose rays, dusky sharks, smooth dogfish, alewife); maximum distance traveled
37 varied by three orders of magnitude among these species. Further analysis of phenology for
38 coastal migrants elucidated the timing and duration of these species' use of Chesapeake Bay.
39 Collectively, movements linked habitats within Chesapeake Bay and connected the estuary to
40 coastal ecosystems both to the north (e.g., alewife) and south (e.g., cownose rays), creating
41 networks of fisheries management jurisdictions that varied in complexity and identified
42 opportunities for enhancement to current management or co-management of some species. Our
43 results elucidate the importance of estuaries to species with diverse movement behaviors,
44 identify scales and pathways of habitat connectivity via animal movements, and highlight the
45 utility of collaborative acoustic telemetry networks for quantifying movements relevant to both
46 ecological research and fisheries management.

47

48 **Keywords**

49 acoustic telemetry, movement ecology, migration, habitat use, fisheries management,

50 connectivity

51 1. Introduction

52 Movements of animals, including fish, are fundamental to shaping ecosystem structure
53 and function, and the causes and consequences of movement are profoundly diverse among
54 species (Nathan et al. 2008; Cooke et al. 2022). An individual fish may move to seek out
55 reproductive opportunities, find food, avoid predation, or remain within optimal habitat
56 conditions (Chapman et al. 2015; Abrahms et al. 2021). The spatiotemporal scales of these
57 movements vary among species and populations, ranging from residency and strong site fidelity
58 to transoceanic migrations, which in turn influence ecological and biological phenomena at those
59 scales (Papastamatiou et al. 2010; Block et al. 2011). Large-scale migrations are particularly
60 influential in the transfer of energy among disparate habitats, such as the pulses of marine-
61 derived nutrients to riverine spawning grounds transported by anadromous fishes (MacAvoy et
62 al. 2000; Post and Walters 2009; Twining et al. 2017). For species that do not undergo
63 migrations, especially those that are highly resident to a specific habitat or region, it is equally
64 important to examine their space use patterns as they are particularly susceptible to local
65 degradation and pressure (Clavel et al. 2011). Monitoring movements is also important for
66 detecting shifts in phenology and habitat use due to climatic changes, both for species that are
67 migratory (Crear et al. 2020; Shuert et al. 2022) and relatively resident (Williams et al. 2017).
68 Given the immense diversity of movement ecology among species, and the equally diverse
69 implications of those movements, multispecies assessments allow for uniquely informative
70 ecological and management-related inferences across spatiotemporal scales (Friess et al. 2021).

71 For aquatic animals, acoustic telemetry is a common tool used to track underwater
72 movements (Hussey et al. 2015; Matley et al. 2022). Acoustic tags, either implanted within or
73 attached to an animal, emit a coded signal that is detected and logged by receivers. Multiple
74 receivers are deployed in ‘arrays’ that monitor movement between locations over time. A major

75 strength of this method is the ability to track individuals, and determine the timing of their
76 movements, which is key for quantifying phenology of migrations and shifts in habitat use (e.g.,
77 Massie et al. 2022). However, acoustic telemetry studies are often limited to relatively small
78 spatial scales and low coverage of receivers, given the high cost and intensive labor associated
79 with the deployment and maintenance of large-scale arrays. In response to these limitations,
80 regional and continental-scale acoustic telemetry networks have developed and expanded in
81 recent decades, which has revolutionized the field of aquatic animal tracking (Cooke et al. 2011;
82 Abecasis et al. 2018; Krueger et al. 2018; Bangley et al. 2020b). These collaborative networks of
83 researchers have emerged globally, including the northwest Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico (OTN,
84 ACT, FACT, iTAG, Cooke et al. 2011; Boucek and Morley 2019; Bangley et al. 2020b; Young et
85 al. 2020), the eastern Pacific (NEP, PIRAT, PATH, MIGRAMAR, Nalessio et al. 2019), Australia
86 (IMOS, Taylor et al. 2017), the Laurentian Great Lakes (GLATOS, Krueger et al. 2018), South
87 Africa (ATAP, Murray et al. 2022), and western Europe (ETN, Abecasis et al. 2018). By serving
88 as platforms for data sharing and management, studies leveraging these networks have answered
89 previously enigmatic questions in animal movement ecology, such as defining large-scale
90 migration pathways and timing (Griffin et al. 2018; Ogburn et al. 2018; Bangley et al. 2020a).
91 These networks can also increase the number of receivers in a specific area of interest (e.g.,
92 within an estuary), thus providing additional spatial coverage for species with moderate degrees
93 of movement.

94 While acoustic telemetry has proven powerful for elucidating aspects of the ecology and
95 biology of aquatic species, its value is also increasingly recognized as a management and
96 conservation tool (Crossin et al. 2017; Ogburn et al. 2017a; Lowerre-Barbieri et al. 2019).
97 Movement ecology is inherently linked to aquatic species management; for example, telemetry

98 data can delineate critical habitats to prioritize for conservation (Alós et al. 2011; Lea et al.
99 2016), document the responses of individuals and populations to environmental change (Ubeda
100 et al. 2009), and estimate natural and fishery mortality across space and time (Lees et al. 2021).
101 Acoustic telemetry can also inform delineation of management units and boundaries by assessing
102 behaviors relevant to stock structure, including home range size, residency, migratory pathways,
103 and individual variability in those metrics (e.g., Hussey et al. 2017). Particularly for highly
104 migratory species, large collaborative telemetry arrays are critical to examining the nature and
105 degree of movements between jurisdictions, which are integral to the development of
106 cooperative management strategies (Huveneers et al. 2021; Lédée et al. 2021).

107 Chesapeake Bay, the largest estuary in the United States, has a long history of acoustic
108 telemetry studies (e.g., Wolcott and Hines 1990), a high density of telemetry users who
109 contribute to collaborative networks, and long-term monitoring arrays such as those coordinated
110 by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Chesapeake Bay Office
111 (NCBO 2022). Commercial and recreational fisheries are of high socioeconomic value to the
112 Chesapeake Bay region, with commercial seafood industries in Maryland and Virginia
113 contributing 1.61 billion US dollars in income and 45,795 jobs to the region's economy in 2020
114 (NMFS 2022). The estuary and coastal waters are managed by multiple state, cooperative, and
115 federal agencies, including the state of Maryland, the commonwealth of Virginia, the Potomac
116 River Fisheries Commission, and the National Marine Fisheries Service in the US Exclusive
117 Economic Zone (EEZ). Balancing the needs of multiple stakeholders and management agencies
118 is inherently challenging, but successful collaboration in fishery management among
119 jurisdictions has occurred in Chesapeake Bay, especially for migratory species such as striped
120 bass (Richards and Rago 1999) and blue crabs (Aguilar et al. 2008).

121 To assess the use of estuarine and adjacent coastal waters by fishes and invertebrates in
122 the Chesapeake Bay region, and how some of those species link Chesapeake Bay to the rest of
123 the northwest Atlantic, passive acoustic telemetry data were opportunistically compiled from
124 studies of seven species of fish and one invertebrate: Cownose rays (*Rhinoptera bonasus*), dusky
125 sharks (*Carcharhinus obscurus*), smooth dogfish (*Mustelus canis*), alewife (*Alosa*
126 *pseudoharengus*), striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*), horseshoe crabs (*Limulus polyphemus*),
127 common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*), and blue catfish (*Ictalurus furcatus*). These species represent a
128 model assemblage for the diverse life histories of fish and invertebrates that use temperate
129 estuaries, ranging from highly migratory to resident (Stuart and Jones 2006; Watson et al. 2016;
130 Tuckey et al. 2017; Dell’Apa et al. 2018; Ogburn et al. 2018; Bangley et al. 2020a; Secor et al.
131 2020; Hare et al. 2021). Fishery management also differs among these species; Cownose rays are
132 not currently managed, dusky sharks and smooth dogfish are managed federally in NOAA’s
133 Highly Migratory Species group, striped bass, alewife and horseshoe crabs are managed by the
134 Atlantic States Marine Fisheries Commission (ASMFC, a cooperative unit), and common carp
135 and blue catfish are managed by individual states. Using data obtained via collaborative acoustic
136 telemetry networks, the objectives of this study were to (1) assess these species’ habitat use
137 patterns and phenology of movements with a focus on Chesapeake Bay, and (2) determine how
138 these movements connect regions within Chesapeake Bay and fishery management jurisdictions
139 along the Atlantic coast relative to current management strategies.

140

141 2. Materials and Methods

142 2.1 Study Area

143 This study focused on species occurring in the Chesapeake Bay and the adjacent
144 continental shelf located in the temperate Mid-Atlantic region of the US East coast (Figure 1).

145 The estuary receives freshwater from a ~168,000 km² watershed, largely via the Susquehanna
146 River but also through multiple other significant tributaries (Goetz et al. 2004). One primary inlet
147 allows marine water to enter the low estuary, connecting the system to the coastal waters of
148 Virginia. The oligohaline upper estuary is connected to a smaller adjacent estuary, Delaware Bay,
149 through the continuously open Chesapeake and Delaware Canal.

150 **2.2 Acoustic Telemetry Data Collection**

151 All species were tagged with Innovasea 69-kHz transmitters (Table 1). Tagging occurred
152 exclusively in Chesapeake Bay for striped bass, alewife, horseshoe crabs, and common carp
153 (Figure 1). Cownose rays were primarily tagged in Chesapeake Bay, with the exception of one
154 individual tagged approximately 150 km south in Pamlico Sound, North Carolina. Cownose rays
155 were tagged with V13 (n = 62; 13-mm diameter, 31.5-mm length, est. battery life 653 days), V16
156 (n = 19; 16-mm diameter, 68-mm length, est. battery life 2435 days), and V9 tags (n = 1; 9-mm
157 diameter, 27.5-mm length, est. battery life 802 days). Dusky sharks and smooth dogfish were
158 captured and tagged in coastal waters north of the estuary, with the exception of one smooth
159 dogfish that was tagged ~260 km south of Chesapeake Bay in Onslow Bay, NC (Figure 1).
160 Twenty-four dusky sharks were tagged with V16 tags (est. battery life either 1825 days or 2435
161 days) and five were tagged with V13 tags, while all 21 smooth dogfish were tagged with V13
162 tags. All striped bass were tagged with V9 tags, and all alewife were tagged with V7 tags (7-mm
163 diameter, 21.5-mm length, est. battery life 388 days). Common carp were tagged with V9 (n = 8)
164 and V13 tags (n = 7), and all blue catfish were tagged with V13 tags. Horseshoe crabs were
165 tagged with V9 tags within three distinct time periods; six individuals were tagged in 2016, five
166 in 2021, and five in 2022. Additional details regarding tagged individuals and detections for each
167 species are included in Table 1. Animals in this study were handled under Smithsonian
168 Environmental Research Center (SERC) Animal Care and Use Committee proposal numbers:

169 SERC 06-24-13 (blue catfish and common carp), SERC 03-25-14 (cownose rays), SERC 12-02-
170 16 (dusky sharks and smooth dogfish), SERC-2017-0512 (cownose rays, dusky sharks, smooth
171 dogfish, SERC-2018-0426 (striped bass), and SERC-2020-0131 (alewife).

172 Detections of each species were retrieved from the Atlantic Cooperative Telemetry
173 Network (ACT) database, ACT_MATOS (<https://matos.asascience.com/>). This network
174 leverages the deployment of acoustic receivers from North Carolina to Maine and those of the
175 adjacent FACT Network and Ocean Tracking Network (OTN), with researchers uploading
176 detections that are collated and downloaded in a standard format (Bangley et al. 2020b).

177 Receivers that detected the tagged individuals in this study ranged from south Florida, USA to
178 New Brunswick, Canada (Figures 1, 2). During the study period (2013 to 2023), Chesapeake Bay
179 contained multiple receiver arrays, including several in critical locations related to the species of
180 interest in this study. An array of 11 to 14 acoustic receivers, depending on the year, was
181 deployed in the Rhode River, MD from 2015 to 2022 by SERC, capturing detections of striped
182 bass, horseshoe crabs, and common carp which were tagged within this array. For alewife
183 specifically, an array of eight receivers was deployed in the Choptank River, MD from February
184 to June in 2022 and 2023. Receiver arrays were deployed in each of the rivers in which blue
185 catfish were tagged, with individuals detected on 11 receivers in the Potomac River (2015 to
186 2017), 11 in the Patuxent River, MD (2013 to 2016), and 18 in the Marshyhope Creek and the
187 Nanticoke River, MD (2014 to 2016). Of particular importance for understanding movements in
188 Chesapeake Bay was the Chesapeake Bay acoustic telemetry “backbone” array, which consists
189 of three lines of receivers across the mainstem of the estuary at the Chesapeake Bay Bridge,
190 across the mid-bay near the Patuxent River, and across the estuary mouth (deployed from 2021
191 to present).

192 Detections retrieved from the ACT database for each tagged individual were combined
193 with detection data that had not been uploaded to any regional databases (i.e., solicited directly
194 from researchers with known arrays during the times of at-large tags who did not submit data to
195 the ACT database), necessitating quality control to ensure compatibility. Data were checked for
196 duplicate detections, station names and coordinates were checked and edited if necessary to
197 eliminate any inconsistencies across deployments (e.g., obvious errors in latitude or longitude or
198 minor changes to station names), and detections were mapped spatially to identify and remove
199 any that were outside the realistic range of each species. Final filtered datasets were visualized to
200 qualitatively identify spatiotemporal trends in space use by plotting detections of each species by
201 date and latitude.

202 [2.3 Common Movement Metrics](#)

203 Although there are a variety of potential metrics that can be used to explore aspects of
204 movement, phenology, habitat use, and connectivity with acoustic telemetry data (Kraft et al.
205 2023), this study required those that would be comparable among diverse species. Maximum
206 distance traveled and a residency index were chosen due to their interpretability and validity for
207 comparison among disparate species. To estimate the maximum distance traveled during the
208 study for every tagged individual of each species, we iteratively calculated the distance between
209 the tagging location and all receivers the individual was detected on using the Haversine method
210 (R package ‘geosphere,’ Hijmans 2021). Maximum distance traveled was compared among
211 species using a Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test and Pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests (with a false
212 discovery rate p-value adjustment), given the non-normality and heteroscedasticity of the data.

213 A residency index (RI) was calculated for each species to examine space use among
214 regions both within and outside the Chesapeake Bay. RI is a commonly used metric to
215 summarize the duration of time a species spends in certain areas or habitats. Many equations

216 have been used to calculate RI, most often as a proportion of the number of days an animal was
217 detected in a region divided by the number of days it was at liberty or the number of days the tag
218 was active (Appert et al. 2023). However, the species monitored in the present study exhibited
219 highly variable detection rates and tag lifespans, which could confound interpretations of RI. To
220 account for this issue, the following RI equation was used:

221

$$RI = \frac{\text{Days present in region}}{\text{Total number of days detected}}$$

222 This RI represents the amount of time each individual spent in each region as a proportion of the
223 total number of days they were detected anywhere, meaning differences in detection frequency
224 among species is less influential on the RI value, but the metric is biased towards where
225 receivers are placed. An RI was calculated for all individuals of each species within 12 regions
226 (see inset Figure 4). Regions were delineated based on physicochemical and habitat regimes
227 within Chesapeake Bay and the adjacent Delaware Bay and included larger regions north and
228 south of these estuaries. The same equation was used to calculate RI for each species in each
229 region across four seasons, winter (Dec-Feb), spring, (Mar-May), summer (Jun-Aug), and fall
230 (Sep-Nov) to assess region-scale seasonality in space use. Seasonal RIs were calculated for male
231 and female cownose rays and dusky sharks separately to assess sex-specificity in their habitat use
232 patterns, considering known or suspected differences based on previous studies (e.g., Hoffmayer
233 et al. 2014; Omori and Fisher 2017).

234 [2.4 Phenology of Coastal Migrations](#)

235 We conducted further analyses for the coastal migratory species, including cownose rays,
236 dusky sharks, smooth dogfish, and alewife, to assess the relative importance of Chesapeake Bay
237 during their migrations. Dates of entry into and exit out of the Chesapeake Bay area were
238 identified, including all receivers in the estuary and offshore near the mouth of the estuary

239 (region = Offshore Chesapeake, inset Figure 3). An “entry” represented the first detection of an
240 individual within the Chesapeake Bay area after being detected elsewhere, while an “exit”
241 represented the last detection of an individual within the Chesapeake Bay area before being
242 detected elsewhere. This is a conservative approach to estimating entry and exit timing, given the
243 requirement of a detection outside the area for the movement to be considered valid. However,
244 absence from the Chesapeake Bay area was assumed for six individuals (one cownose ray, four
245 dusky sharks, and one smooth dogfish) under specific circumstances: If an individual was
246 detected in the Chesapeake Bay area, then not detected anywhere for at least four months, then
247 detected in the area again, a dummy detection outside the estuary was added to the dataset to
248 allow for the inclusion of the corresponding entry and exit dates. Sex specific entry and exit
249 timing was calculated for cownose rays and dusky sharks.

250 [2.5 Network Analyses](#)

251 We employed network analyses to assess connectivity among habitats in the Chesapeake
252 Bay and adjacent Delaware Bay, and to document movements among fishery management
253 jurisdictions. Networks are well suited for acoustic telemetry data analysis because they consist
254 of nodes connected by edges, which can intuitively represent movements (edges) between
255 receivers (nodes; Dale and Fortin 2010, Finn et al. 2014, Whoriskey et al. 2019) and can be used
256 to inform habitat connectivity, stock structure, and inter-jurisdictional fishery management
257 (Lédée et al. 2021). For each species, we created two bidirectional (directed) weighted networks,
258 one representing movements among regions within the Chesapeake Bay and adjacent Delaware
259 Bay (hereby referred to as local networks), and another representing the relationships between
260 each study species and the fishery management jurisdictions with which they interact
261 (continental-scale networks). For local networks, regions within and near the Chesapeake Bay
262 and adjacent Delaware Bay were retained, and some regions were partitioned further: “Rivers”

263 was separated into individual tributaries (see Figure 1 for river names and locations), and “Upper
264 DE Bay” was separated into the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal and the Delaware River. For
265 continental-scale networks, receiver stations were assigned the appropriate jurisdiction based on
266 their location, using US state borders and the delineation of state vs. federally managed coastal
267 waters (in the EEZ) based on the US Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972. For each network
268 type, detections of each species were ordered by tag ID and datetime, and a to-from matrix was
269 built to represent movements between and within regions or jurisdictions. Successive detections
270 within the same region or jurisdiction were removed to eliminate self-loops in the resulting
271 networks. Species-specific networks were weighted by the number of individuals detected in
272 each node and edge. To describe the potential connectivity of habitats or management
273 jurisdictions, the proportion of all nodes and edges used by each species within each network
274 was calculated. Networks were created and visualized using the package ‘igraph’ (Csardi and
275 Nepusz 2006) in R v. 4.4.0 (R Core Team 2024).

276

277 3. Results

278 3.1 Common Movement Metrics

279 The final dataset consisted of approximately 3.2 million detections (6,743 to 2,095,717
280 detections per species) across ten years (1 to 9 years of detection time per species), with a total of
281 288 individuals being detected between latitudes of 25 to 45 degrees N (Figure 2, Table 1).
282 Maximum distance traveled from tagging locations varied by three orders of magnitude among
283 species (Kruskal-Wallis $H = 167.69$, $df = 7$, $p < 0.001$), ranging from a median of 1061 km for
284 cownose rays to 2.4 km for horseshoe crabs (Figure 2 inset). Similarities emerged among some
285 species, such as the two sharks (dusky sharks and smooth dogfish, pairwise Wilcoxon $p = 0.10$),
286 two of the finfish (striped bass and alewife, $p = 0.13$), and the two most resident species

287 (common carp and horseshoe crabs, $p = 0.89$, Figure 2 inset). Paths between tagging locations
288 and the farthest detection highlighted the extent to which migratory species linked the
289 Chesapeake Bay to far-reaching habitats along the eastern seaboard, while resident species
290 remained within the estuary throughout the study duration (Figure 2).

291 Qualitative observation of detections by latitude over time (Figure 3) and quantitative
292 seasonal residency indices (Figure 4) identified species groupings based on habitat use patterns
293 and migratory behaviors: Horseshoe crabs, common carp, and blue catfish were highly resident,
294 juvenile striped bass were primarily resident in the estuary, and cownose rays, dusky sharks,
295 smooth dogfish, and alewife were coastal migrants. Highly resident species were primarily
296 detected in the region in which they were tagged (mean RI $> 90\%$ summed among seasons).
297 Horseshoe crabs were exclusively detected in the Rhode River during the winter, but these
298 detections only consisted of three individuals (Figures 3, 4). Two individuals were detected in the
299 upper bay region in the spring (Mar, May), summer (Jun – Aug), and fall (Nov, mean seasonal
300 RIs from 11% to 25%, Figure 4). Common carp were not detected in the winter and were
301 exclusively present in the Rhode River in the spring and fall, with infrequent movement into the
302 upper bay in the summer (mean RI 0.3%, Figure 4). Blue catfish were not detected outside the
303 rivers in which they were tagged. Juvenile striped bass used the Rhode River (tagging location)
304 year-round (seasonal mean RIs from 37% to 86%, Figure 4), but also exhibited some distinct
305 seasonal shifts in habitat use. In the spring, use of oligohaline regions by juvenile striped bass
306 increased, including increased residency in other Chesapeake Bay rivers (mean RI 21%) and a
307 transit to the upper DE Bay via the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal by eight individuals (mean
308 RI 22%, Figure 4). In the winter, use of the lower bay increased (mean RI 40%). The only
309 exceptions to estuarine residency were two individuals that migrated northward to coastal New

310 York and southern New England waters, and one individual that was detected at the mouth of
311 Delaware Bay (Figures 3, 4). Six of the eight juvenile striped bass that transited the Chesapeake
312 and Delaware Canal into the upper DE Bay subsequently returned to Chesapeake Bay, but one
313 individual remained in the upper DE Bay until its final detection (June 2021) and the other
314 migrated northward (one of the two migrants).

315 Within the coastal migratory group, differences emerged among species in the
316 directionality and timing of their migrations and their degree of use of the Chesapeake Bay area.
317 Cownose rays migrated south of Chesapeake Bay starting in the fall (RI South of Chesapeake
318 Bay in winter 100%), before returning in the spring and using all regions within the estuary
319 during the summer (sum of mean RI for regions within estuary F = 93%, M = 78%, Figure 4).
320 Some northward movement beyond Delaware Bay occurred in the summer, primarily for males
321 (mean RI North of DE Bay F = 2.7%, two individuals; M = 8.4%, five individuals, Figure 4).
322 The migrations of dusky sharks and smooth dogfish were similar, whereby they moved south of
323 Chesapeake Bay in the winter and north in the summer (thus passing by the estuary twice per
324 year), but the timing and spatial scale of their migrations differed. Dusky sharks were detected at
325 lower latitudes in both winter and summer compared to smooth dogfish (Figure 3, Table 1).
326 Furthermore, smooth dogfish used coastal waters offshore of Chesapeake Bay and the mouth of
327 Delaware Bay in the winter and spring (sum of mean RIs 50% and 64%, respectively), while
328 dusky sharks primarily remained south of Chesapeake Bay (mean RI in winter 100%; in spring F
329 = 83%, M = 86%, Figure 4). Dusky sharks then moved into the Chesapeake Bay region in the
330 fall (mean RI F = 43%, M = 30%), while smooth dogfish remained farther north (sum of mean
331 RIs = 91%, Figure 4) before moving into the area in the winter. For alewife, we captured one full
332 annual migration from the Chesapeake Bay to the Gulf of Maine (Figures 3, 4). Individuals

333 exited through the mouth of Chesapeake Bay in the spring (mean RI in Lower Bay 5%), were
334 exclusively detected north of the region in the summer and fall, and re-entered the following
335 spring (mean RI in Mouth of Chesapeake 3%, Figure 4).

336 **3.2 Phenology of Coastal Migrations**

337 Identifying entry and exit dates determined the timing of movements of migratory fishes
338 in and out of Chesapeake Bay (including nearshore waters; Figure 5). On average, female and
339 male cownose rays entered the Chesapeake Bay at similar times in the spring (mean \pm sd entry
340 day of year F = 147.4 \pm 36.5, M = 144.6 \pm 33.3; late May), but females exited the area later than
341 males in the fall (mean exit day of year F = 262.1 \pm 45.1, M = 246.9 \pm 46.9; mid and early
342 September, respectively). Exit dates were bimodally distributed for males, with some leaving the
343 area in early summer and others leaving in early fall, while females exhibited a single peak in
344 early fall (Figure 5). Dusky sharks entered and exited the Chesapeake Bay area twice per year,
345 once in the spring and once in the fall. Entry timing in the spring was similar between the sexes
346 (F = 156.7 \pm 10.0, M = 157.0 [one individual]; early June), and both sexes exited the Chesapeake
347 Bay area within the following two weeks (F = 161.2 \pm 12.1, M = 169.0 [one individual]). In the
348 fall, entry occurred slightly earlier for females (298.0 \pm 18.6; late October) than males (305.3 \pm
349 6.4; early November), but both exited within the following week (F = 302.7 \pm 13.6, M = 300.5 \pm
350 12.4, Figure 5). Smooth dogfish exhibited a similar seasonal pattern to dusky sharks, but they
351 entered and exited earlier in the spring (entry = 117.8 \pm 12.8, exit = 118.7 \pm 11.8; late April) and
352 later in the fall (entry = 319.4 \pm 11.8, exit = 321.7 \pm 9.1; mid-November, Figure 5). Seventeen
353 alewife exited Chesapeake Bay in the spring of 2022 (102.1 \pm 7.5; late March to late April) and
354 five individuals re-entered the following spring of 2023 (55.8 \pm 15.6; mid-February to late
355 March; Figure 5).

356 3.3 Network Analyses

357 With regions (notably rivers) delineated further, local networks revealed movements
358 among distinct habitats within Chesapeake Bay and the adjacent Delaware Bay (Figure 6, Table
359 2). Cownose rays had the most complex network with movements occurring between 13 regions
360 (68% of possible nodes) connected by 74 paths (22% of possible edges, Table 2). They were
361 detected in eight tidal rivers in Chesapeake Bay, all other regions in the estuary mainstem,
362 mouth, and offshore, and in Delaware Bay (Figure 6). Dusky sharks and smooth dogfish
363 exhibited similar local networks, which exemplified their limited use of habitats in Chesapeake
364 Bay (Figure 6). Dusky sharks were only detected moving between the mouth and offshore
365 regions of Chesapeake Bay (11% of possible nodes and 0.3% of possible edges), while smooth
366 dogfish moved between those two regions and Delaware Bay (16% of possible nodes and 1% of
367 possible edges, Table 2, Figure 6). Alewife were primarily detected in the Choptank River where
368 they were tagged, but one individual moved in and out of Tuckahoe Creek (a tributary of the
369 Choptank River, Figure 6). For alewife, connections only occurred between the Choptank River,
370 lower Chesapeake Bay, and the mouth of the estuary (21% and 2% of possible nodes and edges,
371 respectively, Table 2). Striped bass exhibited the second most complex local network, consisting
372 of 9 regions (47% of possible nodes) connected by 28 paths (8% of possible edges, Table 2).
373 They moved between five tidal rivers in Chesapeake Bay, with the most traveled route between
374 the Rhode River (tagging location) and the upper Chesapeake Bay. This network also highlighted
375 movements between the upper Chesapeake Bay and the Delaware River through the Chesapeake
376 and Delaware Canal (Figure 6). Blue catfish were isolated to the individual rivers in which they
377 were tagged, but those tagged in the Nanticoke River moved in and out of a tributary to that
378 river, Marshyhope Creek (Figure 6). Their local networks therefore consisted of four regions
379 (21% of possible nodes) connected by two paths (0.6% of possible edges, Table 2). Horseshoe

380 crabs and common carp local networks were nearly identical, with both species moving solely
381 from the Rhode River (tagging location) to the upper Chesapeake Bay (11% of possible nodes,
382 0.3% of possible edges, Table 2). One common carp and two horseshoe crabs underwent this
383 movement, but none of those individuals returned to the Rhode River (Figure 6).

384 Continental-scale networks identified if and how these species moved among fishery
385 management jurisdictions (Figure 7, Table 2). Cownose rays exhibited the most connectivity
386 among jurisdictions; individuals were detected in 11 different jurisdictions (73% of possible
387 network nodes) and had 53 unique linkages between those jurisdictions (25% of possible
388 network edges, Table 2). The most interconnected jurisdiction (greatest number of individuals
389 moving in and out) was US EEZ waters, and the most important jurisdiction (used by the greatest
390 number of individuals) was Virginia (Figure 7). Alewife, smooth dogfish, striped bass, and dusky
391 sharks were each detected in 8 jurisdictions (53% of possible nodes), but the number of linkages
392 between jurisdictions differed (18 (9%), 17 (8%), 16 (8%), and 14 (7%), respectively, Figure 7,
393 Table 2), indicating different extents of connectivity. The US EEZ was the most interconnected
394 and most important jurisdiction for dusky sharks and smooth dogfish. Maryland was the most
395 important jurisdiction for striped bass and alewife, primarily because tagging occurred there, but
396 the most interconnected was Maryland for alewife and New Jersey for striped bass. Common
397 carp and horseshoe crabs were only detected in Maryland (7% of possible nodes), where they
398 were tagged, and while Maryland was also the most important jurisdiction for blue catfish, one
399 individual was detected moving into Delaware waters within the Nanticoke River (20% of
400 possible nodes and 1% of possible edges, Figure 7, Table 2).

401

402 4. Discussion

403 Collaborative acoustic telemetry networks made it possible to describe patterns of habitat
404 use, phenology, and connectivity for a diverse assemblage of eight species ranging from
405 estuarine residents to coastal migrants, with scales of movement varying by three orders of
406 magnitude and across ~20.5 degrees (~2,650 km) of latitude. Using metrics that were
407 informative across species, we quantified gradients in the duration, timing, and use of estuarine
408 habitats. Some species exclusively inhabited fresh and brackish regions in Chesapeake Bay and
409 were highly resident (blue catfish, common carp, horseshoe crabs), some only used coastal
410 waters at the estuary mouth for brief periods of time and were highly migratory (dusky sharks,
411 smooth dogfish), and others moved within and among multiple habitats in the estuary ranging
412 from moderately resident (striped bass) to highly migratory (cownose rays, alewife). These
413 variable movement dynamics have broad implications for ecological and biological phenomena
414 and inform how each species interacts with fishery management jurisdictions.

415 Network analysis quantified connectivity among fishery management jurisdictions
416 ranging from single states (e.g., horseshoe crabs, common carp) to interjurisdictional movements
417 among state, federal, and international waters (e.g., cownose rays, alewife), and generally
418 aligned with current management strategies. For example, the common carp examined in this
419 study were only detected within the state of Maryland and were not observed moving outside of
420 the Rhode River and upper Chesapeake Bay. Common carp are managed by individual states,
421 and our results suggest this is likely appropriate and sufficient given their relatively high
422 residency. Alewife and striped bass are managed cooperatively by states via the Atlantic States
423 Marine Fisheries Commission (ASMFC), and the complex networks produced from their
424 detections offered insight into possible beneficial changes to current management schemes.
425 Juvenile striped bass moved among five tidal rivers, estuary mainstem habitats, and a canal

426 within a single jurisdiction (Maryland), separated by a distance of approximately 200 km,
427 suggesting that largely resident size classes still make substantial seasonal movements that
428 should be considered in management. On a larger scale, one individual alewife crossed an
429 international border by entering Atlantic Canada during its northward migration in August 2022
430 (further details in Ogburn et al. 2024). Currently, the US and Canada do not cooperatively
431 manage alewife or other anadromous river herring, but our results support the consideration of
432 binational discussions for collaborative management (Harrison et al. 2018; Hare et al. 2021).
433 Cownose rays are not currently managed, however in 2017 the state of Maryland approved the
434 development of a fishery management plan (Senate Bill 268). Jurisdictional network analysis of
435 cownose rays suggests that cooperative management among multiple state and US federal
436 agencies would be appropriate, given their high degree of interjurisdictional movement. The
437 potential applications of acoustic telemetry data for fishery management are much greater than
438 presented here (Table 3), but our results particularly emphasize the importance of large-scale
439 collaborative networks when using telemetry data to improve and develop fishery management
440 strategies.

441 Fisheries managers have historically relied upon data from traditional gears such as
442 trawls, gillnets, longlines, and seines to collect information on species' distribution and
443 abundance. Although foundational for fisheries management, these monitoring programs provide
444 snapshots of populations at specific points in time and space. Acoustic telemetry is a strong
445 complementary tool for assessing aquatic animal populations for management objectives (Table
446 3) given its ability to track individual variability in movements over time (up to 10 years for
447 large species) and determine connectivity between habitats. For example, acoustic telemetry data
448 were used in the 2017 benchmark stock assessment for Atlantic sturgeon (*Acipenser oxyrinchus*)

449 conducted by the ASMFC (ASMFC 2017). Acoustic telemetry data from various sources
450 identified migratory pathways and phenology, delineated critical spawning habitats, enhanced the
451 accuracy of survival estimates, and elucidated spatial differences in habitat use (e.g., Altenritter
452 et al. 2017; Balazik et al. 2012; Breece et al. 2016; Hightower et al. 2015; Wippelhouser et al.
453 2017), serving as a model for implementing acoustic telemetry data as a complementary tool
454 alongside traditional data sources. Our network analysis exemplifies how acoustic telemetry data
455 from disparate studies across diverse species can be aggregated and opportunistically used for
456 management-relevant questions.

457 In addition to highlighting the utility of acoustic telemetry data for assessing fishery
458 management, the movements of these study species provided inferences into their biology and
459 ecology. For highly migratory species (cownose rays, dusky sharks, smooth dogfish, and
460 alewife), the observed within-estuary and continental-scale movements exemplified much of the
461 diversity and scale of migratory behaviors of fishes along the US East Coast and delineated the
462 extent to which they use the Chesapeake Bay area. Of the coastal migrants, cownose rays
463 exhibited the greatest connectivity among tidal rivers and mainstem regions while in Chesapeake
464 Bay. For about half of each year, they use estuarine habitats extensively for reproduction and
465 foraging (Smith and Merriner 1985; Fisher et al. 2013), and our results indicate they move
466 between coastal, mainstem, and multiple tidal river habitats during this period. The timing of
467 their migrations to the estuary were sex-specific, which aligned with previously identified
468 differences between males and females in their response to exogenous (sea surface temperature,
469 photoperiod) and potentially endogenous (day of year) migration cues (Bangley et al. 2021).
470 Some males exited Chesapeake Bay earlier and used a broader suite of habitats than females,
471 which primarily resided in the low estuary and tidal rivers. Females therefore likely experienced

472 warmer temperatures in the estuary throughout the spring, summer, and fall, during which they
473 pup, mate, and begin to develop the next embryo (Fisher et al. 2013). This pattern aligns with
474 observations from satellite tagging (Omori and Fisher 2017) and acoustic telemetry (Bangley et
475 al. 2021), suggesting that females prioritize warmer conditions for embryonic development while
476 males exploit additional habitats and resources in the summer.

477 Dusky sharks and smooth dogfish exhibited similar migration pathways, using estuarine
478 and coastal waters near Chesapeake Bay in the spring (traveling northward) and fall (traveling
479 southward) with minimal use of habitat in Chesapeake Bay. This is the first description of the
480 migratory behavior of smooth dogfish using acoustic telemetry and aligns with mark-recapture
481 data and habitat suitability models (Kohler et al. 2014; Dell’Apa et al. 2018). Migrating dusky
482 sharks moved farther south (Florida, USA) relative to observations in the first two years after
483 tagging (South Carolina, USA) reported by Bangley et al. (2020a). One distinct difference
484 emerged between these two sharks: smooth dogfish were present in the Chesapeake Bay area
485 earlier in the spring and later in the fall compared to dusky sharks, aligning with smooth
486 dogfish’s general association with lower water temperatures than dusky sharks (Dell’Apa et al.
487 2018; Bangley et al. 2020a).

488 Similarly, entry and exit timing of alewife aligned with known temperature-dependence
489 of their migrations (Ogburn et al. 2017b, Legett et al. 2021). Alewife in Chesapeake Bay enter in
490 the early spring (Feb – Mar) and exit approximately one month later (~April), remaining within a
491 thermal window of 9 to 21°C (Legett et al. 2023). We observed very little movement among
492 regions within Chesapeake Bay during the spawning period, other than the directed migration to
493 and from their spawning river through the lower estuary. These migratory movements were
494 captured primarily by the Chesapeake Bay “backbone” array, which is maintained in partnership

495 with local researchers and managers in the upper bay (Maryland Department of Natural
496 Resources), mid-bay (University of Maryland Center for Environmental Sciences), and southern
497 bay (Virginia Marine Resources Commission), and all data are shared through the ACT network.
498 These backbone receivers provide an opportunity for repeated tag deployments in alewife (or
499 other migratory species) to monitor potential changes to migratory pathways and phenology due
500 to anthropogenic effects such as increasing temperatures and habitat degradation, as have been
501 observed for alewife in the southern extent of their range (North Carolina, USA; Lombardo et al.
502 2020).

503 In addition to describing large-scale migrations, our results elucidated within- and
504 among-estuary movements of resident species, including juvenile striped bass. Individual striped
505 bass of the size tagged in this study ($0.35 \text{ m} \pm 0.07 \text{ m TL}$) primarily inhabit oligohaline up-
506 estuary regions year-round (Wingate et al. 2011; Able et al. 2012), and this was generally
507 confirmed by the observed detection patterns. Juvenile striped bass used brackish habitats in all
508 seasons, such as the Rhode River and upper bay, but they increased their riverine occupancy in
509 the spring and moved among five tidal rivers. Furthermore, eight individuals transited the
510 Chesapeake and Delaware Canal (C&D) into the adjacent Delaware River. This movement
511 pathway has been documented in the context of egress during the northward migrations of adults
512 (Secor et al. 2020), but movements of adult migrants were unidirectional (outward). The
513 bidirectional movement through the C&D Canal observed in the present study suggests juvenile
514 striped bass remain within oligohaline regions in the spring, such that the Delaware River
515 represents an important additional habitat for juvenile striped bass using Chesapeake Bay as a
516 nursery area. Our results also support the differential migration paradigm for striped bass in
517 Chesapeake Bay, whereby only two individuals of this relatively small size class ($0.35 \text{ m} \pm 0.07$

518 m total length) underwent the northward migration typical of larger individuals (≥ 0.80 m, Secor
519 et al. 2020). The most common exit pathway for migrating adult striped bass is through the lower
520 Chesapeake Bay (Secor et al. 2020), which aligns with the observed RI increase for juvenile
521 striped bass in that region during the winter (pre-migration) period in the present study.

522 While striped bass were largely resident in estuarine waters, three species exhibited even
523 higher residency. Common carp and horseshoe crabs were infrequently detected outside of the
524 Rhode River, and rarely (never for common carp) detected during the winter. In lakes, common
525 carp form winter aggregations (Bajer et al. 2011) so it is possible individuals in this study
526 aggregated outside the range of deployed receivers and did not travel far enough to be detected
527 on other Chesapeake Bay receiver arrays that were a few to 10s of km away. Horseshoe crabs
528 reduce their movement rate and home range size during winter in New England, USA estuaries
529 (Moore and Perrin 2007; Watson et al. 2016), and our results support a similar restriction of
530 movements within or just outside the Rhode River during winter. Blue catfish were exclusively
531 detected in the rivers in which they were tagged, so we did not observe any movement between
532 rivers or into the estuary mainstem. This species is invasive in Chesapeake Bay tributaries,
533 having increased dramatically in abundance since their introduction in the 1970s (Fabrizio et al.
534 2021). Large blue catfish likely disperse throughout much of Chesapeake Bay during low salinity
535 periods (Nepal and Fabrizio 2019), but we did not have any active acoustic telemetry tags in blue
536 catfish during low salinity periods that might have enabled us to observe dispersal events.

537 Despite the value of employing acoustic telemetry to answer management-related and
538 ecological questions demonstrated in this study, there are several considerations for applying this
539 multispecies framework to other ecosystems and designing future studies. First, the arrangement
540 and spatiotemporal scale of an acoustic receiver array inherently influences patterns of detection

541 and the resulting inferences that can be made (Carlisle et al. 2019; Ellis et al. 2019).
542 Collaborative acoustic telemetry networks consist of multiple arrays designed for unique
543 research programs, so it is important to carefully examine when and where receivers were
544 present and absent while analyzing and interpreting detections. Specifically designed, optimized
545 receiver deployments could improve the efficacy of cooperative acoustic telemetry networks and
546 provide stronger datasets, such as long-term, strategically arranged “curtains” (Taylor et al.
547 2017), grid-based arrays (Kraus et al. 2018), or distance-based gradients around areas of interest
548 (e.g., wind farm sites; Methratta 2020). The sample size of tagged individuals and the
549 spatiotemporal distribution of tag deployments are also important to consider. This study used
550 data across species with various sample sizes ($n = 15$ to 82, Table 1), and we were able to
551 conduct more detailed analyses across longer timescales for species with greater sample sizes
552 (e.g., cownose rays, especially those with long-lasting tags) compared to those with fewer tagged
553 individuals (e.g., common carp) or shorter tag life (e.g., alewife). Furthermore, this study
554 highlights the importance of, and challenges inherent to, choosing data analyses that are
555 comparable among species and account for the aforementioned sample size and array design
556 considerations. For example, the residency index equation we used was specifically designed to
557 reduce the influence of days when individuals were not detected, which were far greater for
558 migratory species that transited areas with relatively low receiver coverage (e.g., dusky sharks)
559 compared to those that generally remained within small areas with high coverage (e.g., blue
560 catfish). However, the quality (quantity) of data produced for a given species does affect the
561 confidence with which we can interpret these metrics. Complementing these RI metrics with
562 other analyses, such as entry and exit dates and network analyses, can provide an enhanced
563 understanding of habitat use patterns, especially for species with limited detection quantities.

564 Leveraging collaborative acoustic telemetry networks allowed us to quantify connectivity
565 among habitats within Chesapeake Bay, document how migratory movements link the estuary to
566 coastal habitats at a continental scale, and explore the implications of those movements for
567 fisheries within and among management jurisdictions. By using a multispecies analysis
568 framework, we highlight the diversity in scale of movements among fishes and invertebrates that
569 use estuarine habitats. We documented previously enigmatic migration pathways and timing,
570 including dusky sharks migrating farther south than previously recorded using acoustic
571 telemetry, smooth dogfish traveling along the US Atlantic coast, alewife migrations into
572 Canadian waters, and two striped bass migrating to New England at smaller sizes than previously
573 observed. Within Chesapeake Bay, we observed varying degrees of movement, and thus
574 connectivity of habitats, among species ranging from highly migratory to resident within tagging
575 regions. Furthermore, network analysis allowed us to identify potential enhancements to current
576 fishery management strategies, both within a given jurisdiction and across international borders.
577 We suggest continued, if not increased, participation in collaborative acoustic telemetry networks
578 and support for long-term spatially stable receiver arrays to enhance the quantity and quality of
579 acoustic telemetry data. We also urge resource managers to implement acoustic telemetry studies
580 in combination with traditional data collection efforts to increase the knowledge base for
581 developing fishery management strategies that are effective and adaptable over time.
582

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602

603 6. Author Contributions

604 Conceptualization: M.B.O., N.B.F., H.D.L. Data collection: M.B.O., H.D.L., K.D.R., R.A., K.H.
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606 M.C.L., N.B.F., M.B.O., H.D.L., K.D.R., R.A.

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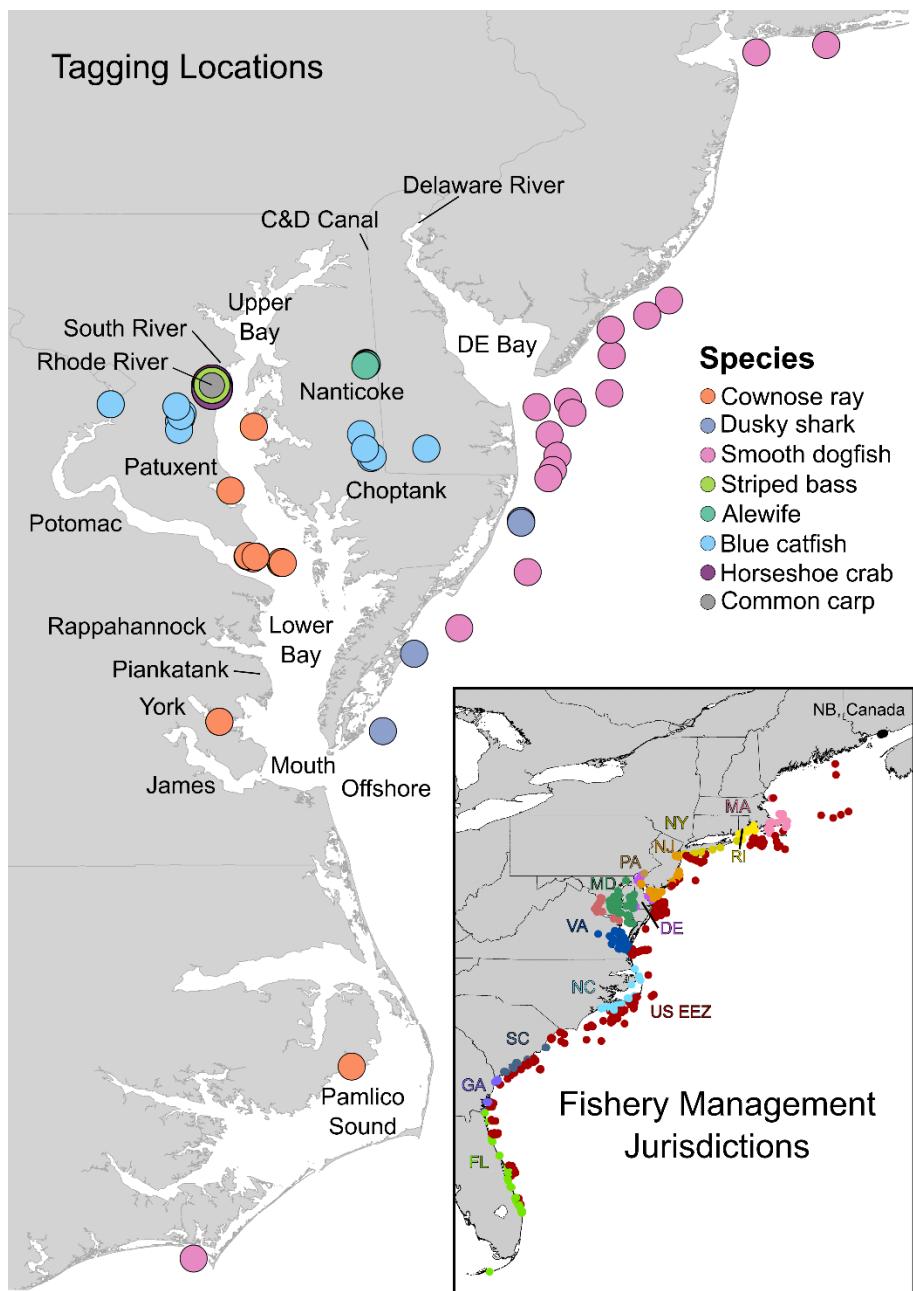
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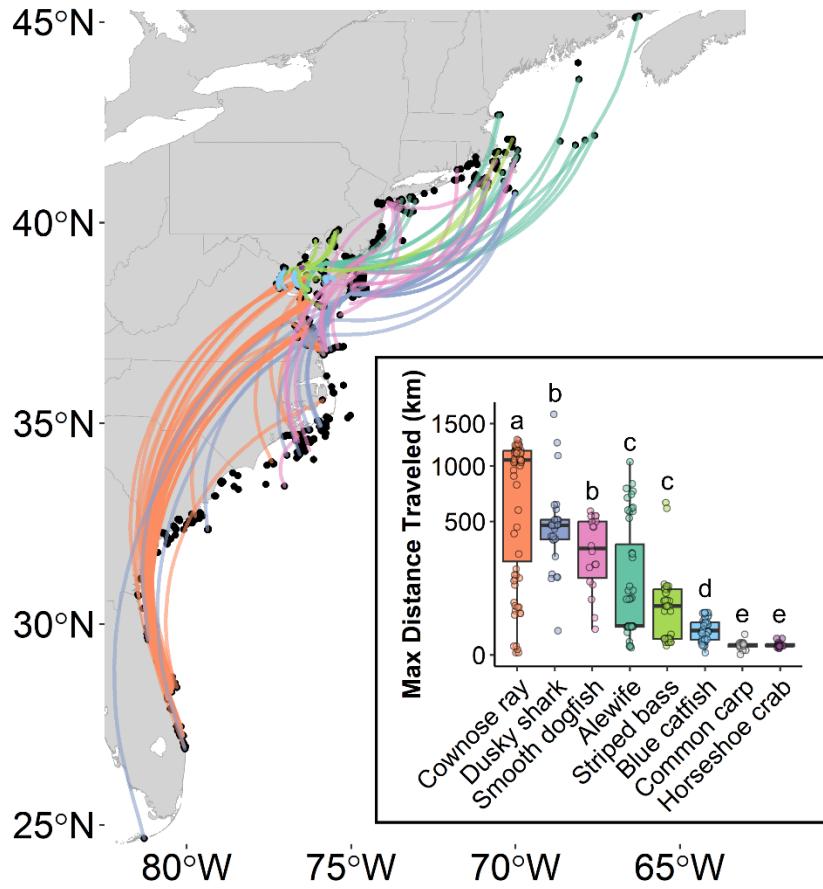
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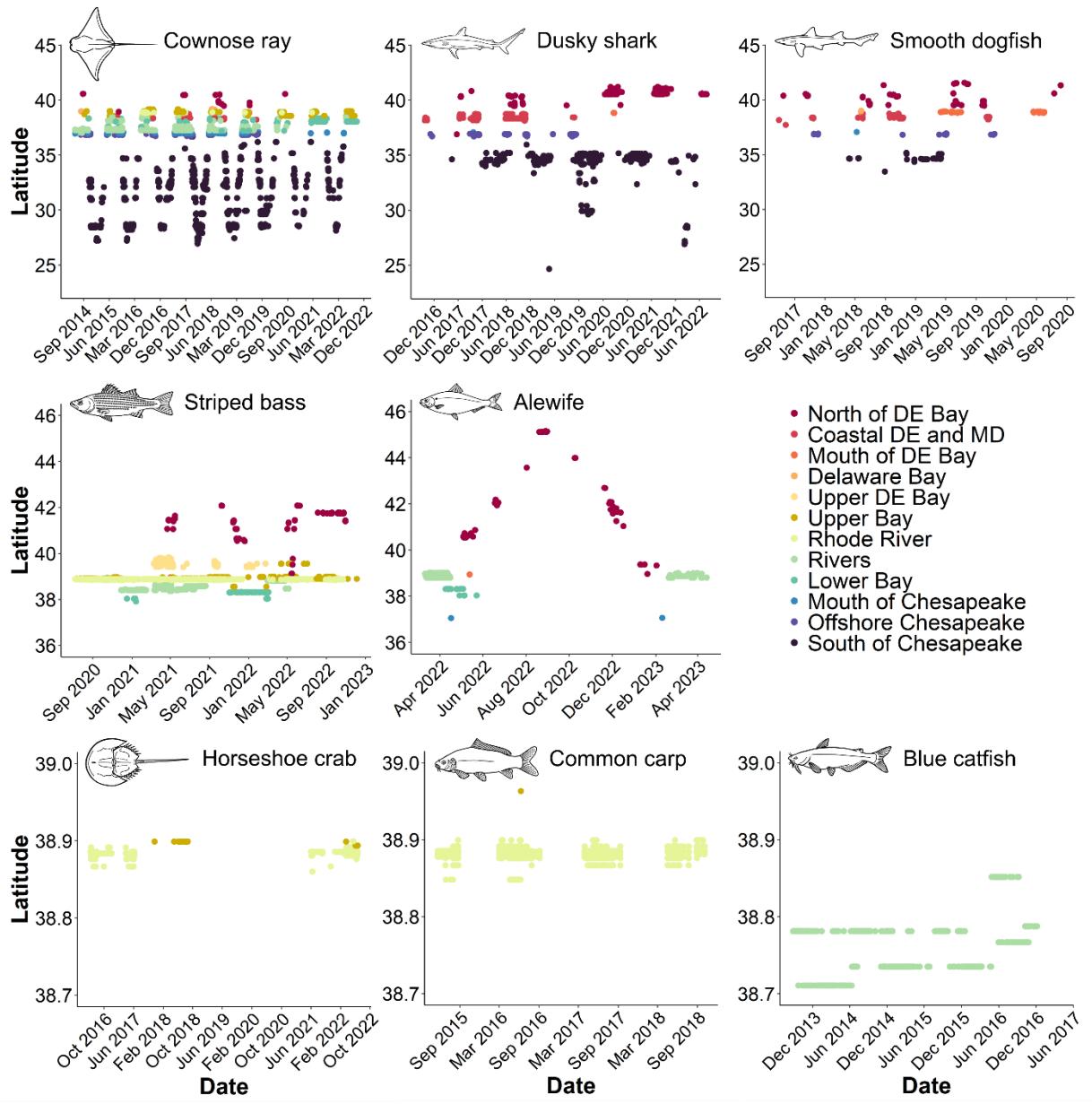


1090 Fig 1. Study area and tagging locations of each species, with notable regions and tidal rivers
 1091 labeled. Inset includes locations of all receivers that detected a tagged animal of any species, and
 1092 the corresponding fishery management jurisdiction in which it belongs (color coded with labels).



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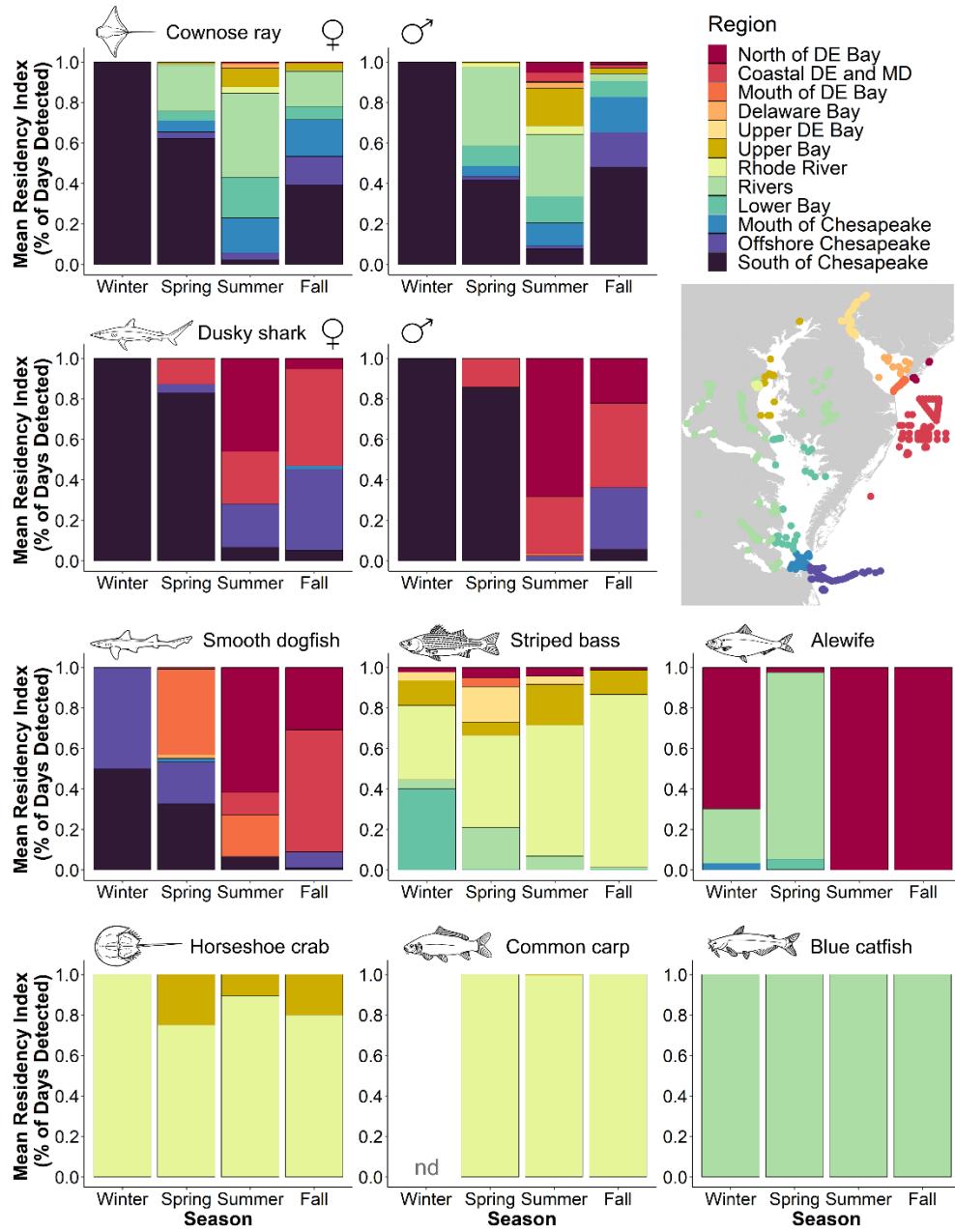
1094 Fig 2. Locations of all receivers that detected a tagged animal of any species (black circles) and
 1095 path from release site to farthest detection away from release site for each tagged individual
 1096 (color coded by species). Inset depicts farthest detection away from tagging location by species,
 1097 calculated as the maximum Haversine distance from tagging location to each detection location
 1098 (y-axis scaled to square root). Letters represent pairwise differences between species via
 1099 Wilcoxon rank sum tests.
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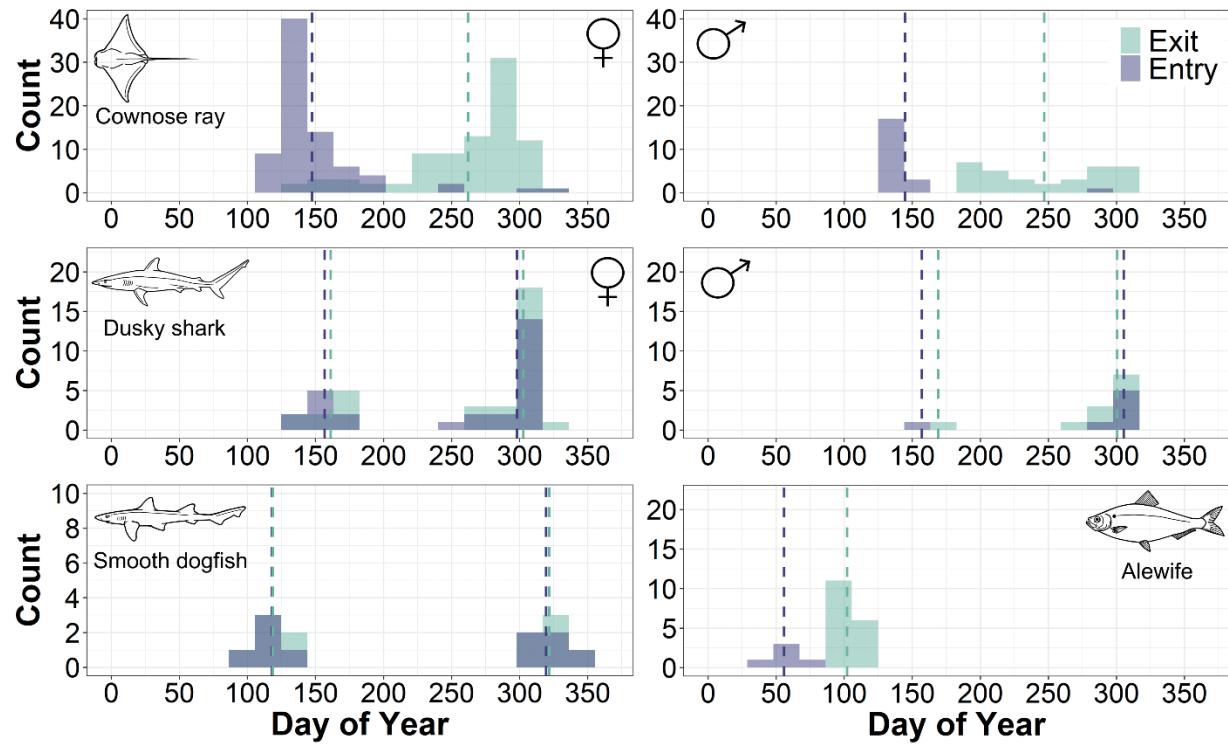
1102 Fig 3. The spatiotemporal distribution of combined detections for all individuals of each species,
 1103 with each point representing a single detection plotted by date and latitude. Colors represent
 1104 general regions of detection location (see inset map in Fig 4 for details).

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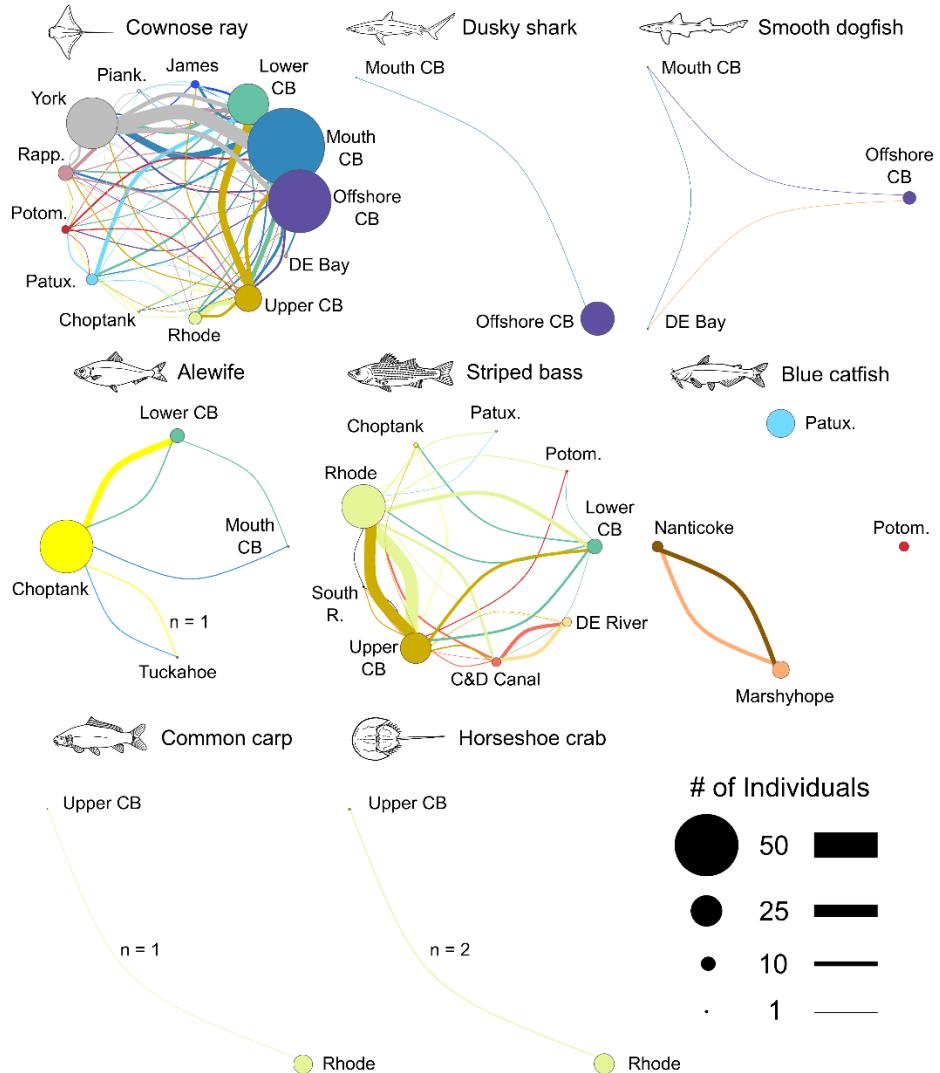
1107 Fig 4. Residency indices by region and season for each species. Sex-specific panels are included
 1108 for cownose rays and dusky sharks. Inset map depicts receiver locations in each region within the
 1109 Chesapeake Bay and Delaware Bay. The region “North of DE Bay” extends from the New Jersey
 1110 coast to Canada, while “South of Chesapeake Bay” extends to the Florida Keys.



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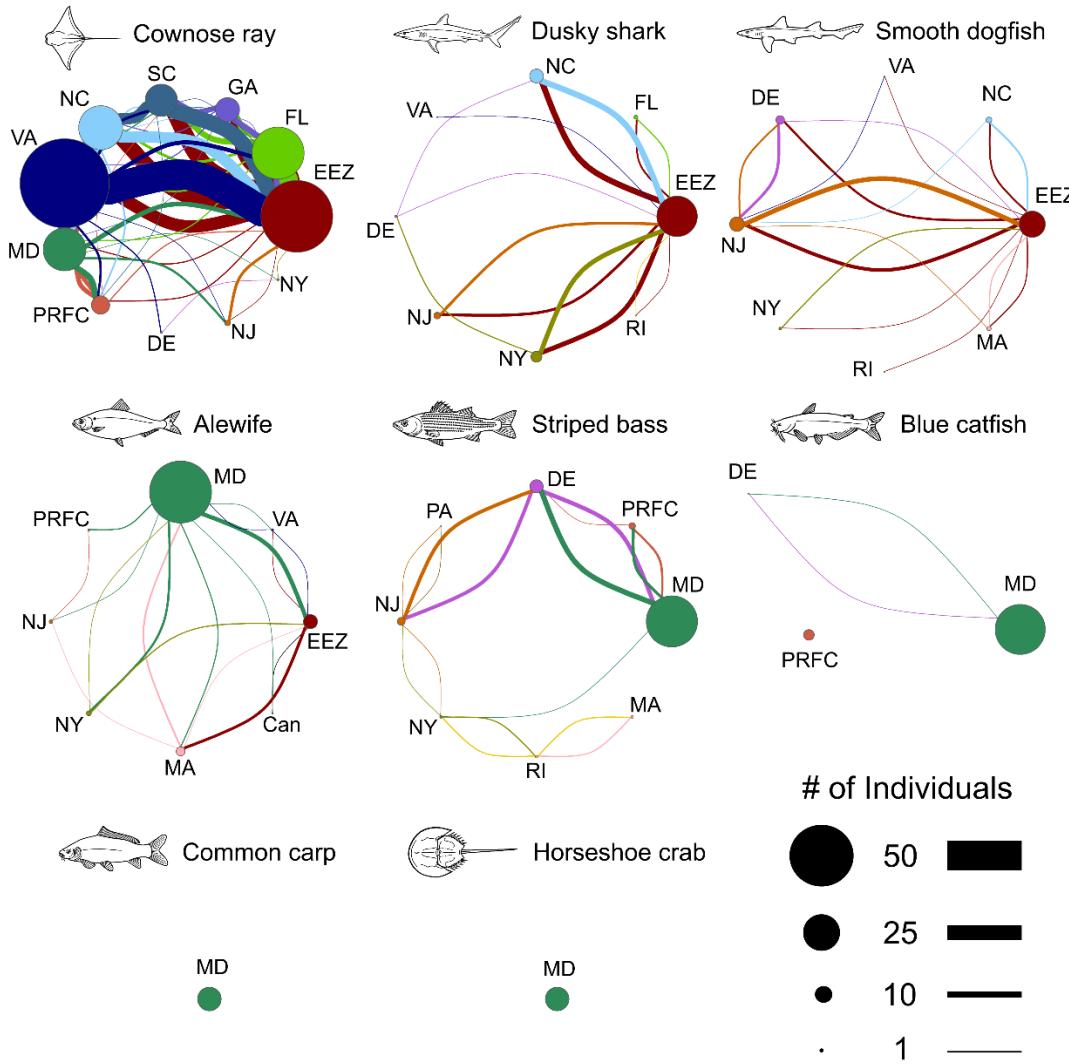
1112 Fig 5. Dates of entry and exit in and out of the Chesapeake Bay area, including detections in the
 1113 “Offshore Chesapeake” region (the estuary plume), for each species and sex, if applicable. Entry
 1114 is considered the first detection in the Chesapeake Bay area after the individual was detected
 1115 elsewhere, and exit is considered the last detection in the Chesapeake Bay area before the
 1116 individual is detected elsewhere. Dashed lines represent average entry and exits dates across all
 1117 individuals of each species and sex, if applicable.

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1120 Fig 6. Networks representing movements of individuals of each species among regions within
 1121 and near Chesapeake Bay, including the mouth and areas offshore Chesapeake Bay and
 1122 Delaware Bay (referred to in text as local networks). Regions are described in Figure 1, and
 1123 include major sections of the Chesapeake Bay (upper and lower), tributaries of Chesapeake Bay
 1124 and Delaware Bay, and the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal (CD Canal). Size of nodes (points)
 1125 represent the number of individuals detected in each region, and width of edges (lines) represents
 1126 the number of individuals moving between regions (see legend for scale). Edges are colored by
 1127 the region the path begins in.



1128

1129 Fig 7. Networks representing movements of individuals of each species between fishery
 1130 management jurisdictions (referred to in text as “continental-scale networks”). Fishery
 1131 management jurisdictions are described in Figure 1 (inset), and include United States state
 1132 agencies (represented by the state abbreviation), US federal (outside of state waters within the
 1133 EEZ), the Potomac River Fisheries Commission (PRFC), and the Canadian province of New
 1134 Brunswick (Canada). Size of nodes (points) represent the number of individuals detected in each
 1135 jurisdiction, and width of edges (lines) represents the number of individuals moving between
 1136 jurisdictions (see legend for scale). Edges are colored by the jurisdiction the path begins in.

1137 **Tables**

1138 Table 1. Tagging and detection data for each species: The number of tagged individuals and the
 1139 sizes of tags used (in parentheses, e.g., 9 = Innovasea V9), the number of individuals detected
 1140 and remaining in filtered datasets and the percentage of those tags that were detected for at least
 1141 one full year (in parentheses), years when tagging occurred, years in which detections were
 1142 recorded, total length in meters (mean \pm 1 SD) for all but cownose rays and horseshoe crabs
 1143 (disk width and carapace width, respectively), number of male and female individuals detected if
 1144 applicable, total number of detections in filtered datasets, and minimum and maximum latitudes
 1145 of detection per species.

Species	Tagged (tag size)	Detected (% >1yr)	Years Tagged	Years Detected	Size (m)	M F	Total Dets.	Latitude (min/max)
Cownose ray	82 (9/13/16)	79 (49%)	2014-2019	2014-2022	0.77 ± 0.23	20 59	79620	26.94 / 40.57
Dusky shark	29 (13/16)	29 (83%)	2016-2019	2016-2022	1.46 ± 0.31	10 19	16168	24.66 / 41.20
Smooth dogfish	21 (13)	18 (39%)	2017-2018	2017-2020	0.98 ± 0.11	1 17	11360	33.44 / 41.55
Striped bass	40 (9)	38 (42%)	2020	2020-2022	0.35 ± 0.07	NA	831594	37.91 / 42.08
Alewife	50 (7)	48 (8%)	2022	2022-2023	0.28 ± 0.02	23 25	6743	37.05 / 45.15
Horseshoe crab	16 (9)	16 (6%)	2016, 21, 22	2016-19, 2020-22	0.25 ± 0.05	7 9	91743	38.86 / 38.90
Common carp	15 (9/13)	15 (47%)	2015-2016	2015-2018	0.68 ± 0.13	NA	90784	38.85 / 38.96
Blue catfish	47 (13)	45 (60%)	2013-2015	2013-2017	0.57 ± 0.11	NA	2095717	38.35 / 38.89

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1148 Table 2. Metrics for each species' local (Chesapeake and Delaware Bay regions) and continental-
1149 scale (jurisdictional) network analysis, including the number of observed nodes
1150 (regions/jurisdictions in which one or more individual was detected) and edges (movements
1151 between regions/jurisdictions). Values in parentheses are the proportion of observed to possible
1152 nodes or edges; local network = 19 possible nodes and 342 possible edges, continental-scale
1153 network = 15 possible nodes and 210 possible edges.

Species	Local Networks		Continental-scale Networks	
	Nodes (%)	Edges (%)	Nodes (%)	Edges (%)
Cownose ray	13 (0.68)	74 (0.22)	11 (0.73)	53 (0.25)
Dusky shark	2 (0.11)	1 (0.003)	8 (0.53)	14 (0.07)
Smooth dogfish	3 (0.16)	3 (0.01)	8 (0.53)	17 (0.08)
Striped bass	9 (0.47)	28 (0.08)	8 (0.53)	16 (0.08)
Alewife	4 (0.21)	6 (0.02)	8 (0.53)	18 (0.09)
Horseshoe crab	2 (0.11)	1 (0.003)	1 (0.07)	0 (0)
Common carp	2 (0.11)	1 (0.003)	1 (0.07)	0 (0)
Blue catfish	4 (0.21)	2 (0.006)	3 (0.20)	2 (0.01)

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Table 3. Applications of acoustic telemetry data for fishery management

Management Action	Research Goal	Relevant Methods, Analyses & Metrics	Examples
Conserve and restore critical habitats	Identify critical habitats and evaluate responses to restoration	Residency index	Reubens et al. 2013; Rous et al. 2017; this study; reviewed by Appert et al. 2023
		Euclidean distance-based analysis	Furey et al. 2013; Moulton et al. 2017; Rooker et al. 2018
		Center of activity	Simpfendorfer et al. 2002; Alós et al. 2011
		Core use area (kernel density, minimum convex polygon, Brownian bridge, etc.)	Topping and Szedlmayer 2011; Tinhan et al. 2018; Edwards et al. 2022
		Habitat selection index	Topping et al. 2005; Zhang et al. 2015
		Continuous time residency	Capello et al. 2015
Adapt management for climate change	Determine environmental associations and model responses to climate change	Modeling frameworks (GLM, GAM, BRT, RF, etc.)	Kneebone et al. 2012; Bangley et al. 2020a
		Center of activity	Ubeda et al. 2009
Design spatiotemporal management (protected areas, time-area closures)	Identify phenology of space use and migration pathways	Entry and exit dates	Sackett et al. 2007; Able et al. 2014; Secor et al. 2020; this study
		Seasonal residency index	Kessel et al. 2014; Wingate et al. 2011; this study
		Modeling frameworks	Bangley et al. 2021
		Detection at checkpoint receivers	Hayden et al. 2014
Evaluate effectiveness of protected areas	Quantify movements within and surrounding protected areas	Core use area (KDE, MCP, BB)	Lippi et al. 2022; van Zinnicq Bergmann et al. 2022
		Network analysis	Garcia et al. 2015; Lea et al. 2016
		Residency index	Novak et al. 2020
Identify interjurisdictional management opportunities and effectiveness	Determine connectivity among regions or habitats	Network analysis	Lédée et al. 2021; Espinoza et al. 2021; this study
		Connectivity plot	Heupel et al. 2015
		Residency index	Hussey et al. 2017

Appropriately define stock units	Examine spatial scale of potential reproductive mixing	Network analysis	Lédée et al. 2021
		Stock assignment	Kneebone et al. 2014
Explore size-based management actions for migratory species	Identify ontological shifts in space use and partial migration patterns	Modeling frameworks (GLMM, GAMM)	Papastamatiou et al. 2013; Secor et al. 2020
		Multivariate analyses (PCA)	Gahagan et al. 2015
		Residency index, connectivity plot	Espinoza et al. 2016
Restore migration passageways for diadromous fishes	Determine effects of barriers on fish passage and response to restoration	Proportion of passage success or survival	Roscoe et al. 2011; Piper et al. 2017; Leander et al. 2021
		Modeling frameworks (GLM)	Raabe et al. 2019; Davies et al. 2023
Enhance accuracy of mortality estimates in stock assessments	Estimate natural mortality	Bayesian multistate models	Ellis et al. 2017; Block et al. 2019; Nelson and Powers 2020
		Mark-recapture methods	Bacheler et al. 2009; Dudgeon et al. 2015; Clark et al. 2016; ASMFC 2017; reviewed in Lees et al. 2021
		Detection at checkpoint receivers	Raby et al. 2015; Flávio et al. 2020
Determine influence of catch-and-release fishing pressure	Estimate post-release mortality	Comparison to dead controls	Yergey et al. 2012; Capizzano et al. 2016
		Three-dimensional geopositioning or acceleration/depth tags	Curtis et al. 2015; Bohaboy et al. 2020
Sex-specific management objectives and methods	Examine sex-specific differences in space use	Any herein, calculated for each sex or included as a covariate	Callihan et al. 2013; Espinoza et al. 2021; this study