

1 **Wearable sensors for monitoring marine environments and their inhabitants**

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30 31 32 **Abstract**

33 Human societies depend on marine ecosystems, but their degradation continues. Towards
34 mitigating this decline, new and more effective ways to precisely measure the status and condition
35 of marine environments are needed alongside existing rebuilding strategies. Here, we provide an
36 overview of how sensors and wearable technology developed for humans could be adapted to

37 improve marine monitoring. We describe barriers that have slowed the transition of this technology
38 from land to sea, update on the developments in sensors to advance ocean observation, and
39 advocate for more widespread use of wearables on marine organisms in the wild and in
40 aquaculture. We propose that large-scale use of wearables could facilitate the concept of an
41 ‘internet of marine life’ that might contribute to a more robust and effective observation system
42 for the oceans and commercial aquaculture operations. These observations may aid in rationalizing
43 strategies towards conservation and restoration of marine communities and habitats.

44 45 **Introduction**

46 Certain marine animals may migrate over great distances^{1,2}, and tracking these movements offers
47 an opportunity to observe the physical and biological environment in which these animals travel
48 through. Cataloging these movements can improve our understanding of their ecology, the
49 challenges they face in their interaction with human activities and inform conservation actions²⁻⁵.
50 Sensor tags attached to marine animals are analogous to wearables devices (‘wearables’) carried
51 voluntarily by humans⁶⁻⁸ (**Table 1**). Certain human wearable devices are now small, unobtrusive
52 and have transformed personalized assessments of physiology^{9,10}. Wearables can potentially offer
53 improvements to human health, livelihoods and society, as evidenced by applications to track the
54 spread of COVID-19¹¹. Wearable technology has now progressed beyond humans to monitor
55 livestock movement and condition through, for example, sensing micro-fluids, sweat and saliva,
56 and serodiagnosis¹². The value that wearables have provided for humans, their pets and other
57 domesticated animals in terrestrial systems demonstrates the potential value that wearable
58 technology might bring to sensing the marine environment, as well as for humans voluntarily (e.g.
59 SCUBA divers) or accidentally (e.g. castaways) entering the marine environment¹³.

60

61 **Table 1.** Benchmarking of existing animal-borne sensor technology, selected for their market availability
 62 and potential to provide critical data for understanding the ecology of marine life. These devices measure
 63 physical parameters such as depth, temperature, and light, and have varying dimensions, masses, sampling
 64 rates and resolutions. The invasive attachment methods of these devices, however, can cause physical harm
 65 or discomfort to the animals, alter their swimming patterns, and impede feeding or reproduction, which can
 66 ultimately affect the accuracy and reliability of the collected data.

Device	Cefas G5 Long - life	CTD-SRDL Valeport	DST CTD	LAT 1100	Onset HOBO U20	CTD BioTag - Florida University	MiniPAT - 348	PTT-100 Microwave Telemetry
Parameters	Depth Temperature	Conductivity Temperature Depth	Depth Temperature	Depth Temperature	Depth Temperature	Conductivity Temperature Depth	Depth Temperature Light	Depth Temperature Light
Size (Length x width or diameter)	36.5 mm x 12 mm	105 mm x 70 mm	50 mm x 15 mm	31.5mm x 15 mm	150 mm x 24.6 mm	100 mm x 43 mm	124 mm x 38 mm	168 mm x 41 mm + 178 mm antenna
Mass in air (in water)	6.5 g (2.5 g)	545 g	21 g (13 g)	4.25 g (1.9 g)	210 g	104 g	60 g	78 g
Fastest possible sampling	1 s	1 s	1 s	>1 s in 1 s intervals	1 s	5 s	1 s	45 s
Operating temperature range	2°C to 34°C	-5°C to 35°C	-1°C to 40°C	-20°C to 45°C	-20°C to 50°C	5°C to 35°C	-20°C to 50°C	-4°C to 40°C
Temperature resolution	0.03125°C	0.001°C	0.032°C	0.05°C	0.1°C @ 25°C	0.001°C – 0.015°C	0.05°C	0.16 0.23°C
Depth range	100 to 2000 dBar	0 to 2000 dBar	< 2400 m	< 2000 m	< 76 m	< 2000 m	0 to 1700 m	0 to 1250 m
Pressure resolution	4 to 60 cm	0.05 dBar	60 cm	100 cm	0.87 cm	0.25 % of the selected range	0.5 m	5.4 m
Conductivity range	-	0 to 80 mS/cm	3 to 68 mS/cm	-	-	2 to 70 mS/cm	-	-
Salinity resolution	-	0.002 mS/cm	0.02 PSU	-	-	0.04 PSU	-	-
Attachment method	Invasive clipping	Glue	Implantation or external tagging	Invasive clipping	Mounting hole	- (Not field tested)	Towed	Towed via tagging dart

67
 68 Relevant review articles have largely focused on progress in satellite-telemetry tagging
 69 technologies and techniques in aquatic environments ^{1,2,5,6,8,14}. However, translation of advances
 70 in human wearables to marine equivalents still faces several barriers. Major limitations of wearable
 71 devices traditionally used in aquatic environments (**Table 1**) include limited functionality under
 72 pressure and with highly saline conditions, the relatively small number of tag types available
 73 (compared to human and other terrestrial wearables), the prohibitively large size of most tags, only
 74 few biological or physical parameters can currently be measured when appropriately sized species

75 are tagged, issues with data storage, transmission and processing, energy sources, as well as
76 biofouling and animal-welfare considerations.

77 In this Perspective, we outline how certain human wearables could potentially be adapted for
78 improving marine wearables and towards expanding the range of potential target species and
79 measurable parameters, whilst mitigating animal-welfare concerns (**Fig. 1**). We propose how a
80 range of flexible, conformable and imperceptible sensor technologies could be modified through
81 multi-disciplinary approaches for use on diverse marine animals and reiterate the need for
82 simultaneous consideration of compatible underwater communication systems to facilitate data
83 recovery. Next, we discuss how wearable devices tailored specifically for the bodies of marine
84 animals could advance the understanding of the ecology and environment of marine life. Finally,
85 we propose how large-scale use of marine wearables could give rise to the concept of an ‘internet
86 of marine life’ and describe its potential benefits and limitations in aquaculture and long-term
87 ocean conservation and sustainability contexts.

88

89 **Limitations of current marine wearables for ecology and conservation studies**

90 Data obtained from electronic tagging have fundamentally changed our understanding of the
91 ecology and behavior of marine megafauna such as sharks, turtles, tunas and seabirds^{2, 15}.
92 However, these tags rarely comply with the definition of wearables because they tend to be bulky,
93 their attachment may interfere with animal movements and well being^{16,17}, and limited data
94 transmission often prevents high sampling rates (**Table 1**).

95 Marine sensors have not typically benefited from innovation in technology for wearables used on
96 land. For example, the conductivity–temperature–depth (CTD) sensor, the mainstay of
97 oceanographic research, continues to look and operate mostly as it did 30 years ago. The relatively

98 large size of tags suitable for marine animals remains a significant barrier to research progress. On
99 land, radio-frequency tags weighing only 2.5 mg allow tagging of insects¹⁸. By contrast, the
100 smallest tag available for marine animals weighs 650 mg in air, thus limiting tagging of animals
101 similar to or larger than turtle hatchlings¹⁹ that have a body mass (19.5 g) almost 2,000 times that
102 of a bee (0.01 g). Commercially available electronic tags designed for use in marine systems often
103 exceed the cost of wearable sensors for humans by orders of magnitude²⁰ and lack the means to
104 link external signals (physical and biological) to internal changes within the animal body (**Table**
105 **1**).

106 Another practical issue limiting deployment is the mechanical mismatch between an animal's soft,
107 curvilinear body and wafer-based electronic-sensor tags that are rigid and bulky. Flexible sensing
108 techniques reduce the invasive and burdensome nature of electronic tags through form-fitting
109 sensors^{20,21}. These fit the changing body form of moving and growing animals within certain
110 limits. Packaging is a fundamental challenge to achieve overall wearability, whereby every single
111 component in an electronic system is bendable, while also protecting delicate electronics from
112 impacts of the marine environment. Development of impermeable, biocompatible and transparent
113 polymer coatings offers materials that could be incorporated into the design of more practical
114 marine wearables^{20,21}.

115 As tag technology for use in marine systems has evolved, the sampling frequency of sensors has
116 also increased. For example, the time resolution of depth sensors has increased three orders of
117 magnitude from about 0.1 Hz to 10 Hz²² whereas other sensors, such as accelerometers, now
118 routinely sample at tens or even hundreds of Hz²³. This advance is not trivial given that depth
119 sampling at 1 Hz by a tag on a penguin will only indicate how the bird allocates time to various
120 depths, whereas sampling rates of 40 Hz provides sufficient resolution to understand the extent to

121 which the body rises and falls within the water column with every flipper beat (**Fig. 2**). This allows
122 assessment of the propulsion mechanism, how this varies with depth and consideration of the
123 energetic and metabolic consequences with respect to a penguin's frequencies of flipper beats,
124 speeds and depths. This understanding informs biomimicry, design of adhesives and faster
125 swimwear²⁴, but most importantly, it informs on how animals alter their energy budgets in a
126 changing environment. Examples of how high resolution (40 Hz and 16 bit) can elucidate aspects
127 of marine animal biology are shown in **Fig. 2**. Increasing the sampling rate of animal-borne sensors
128 is, therefore, a requirement to deepen our understanding of movement, metabolism and behavior.

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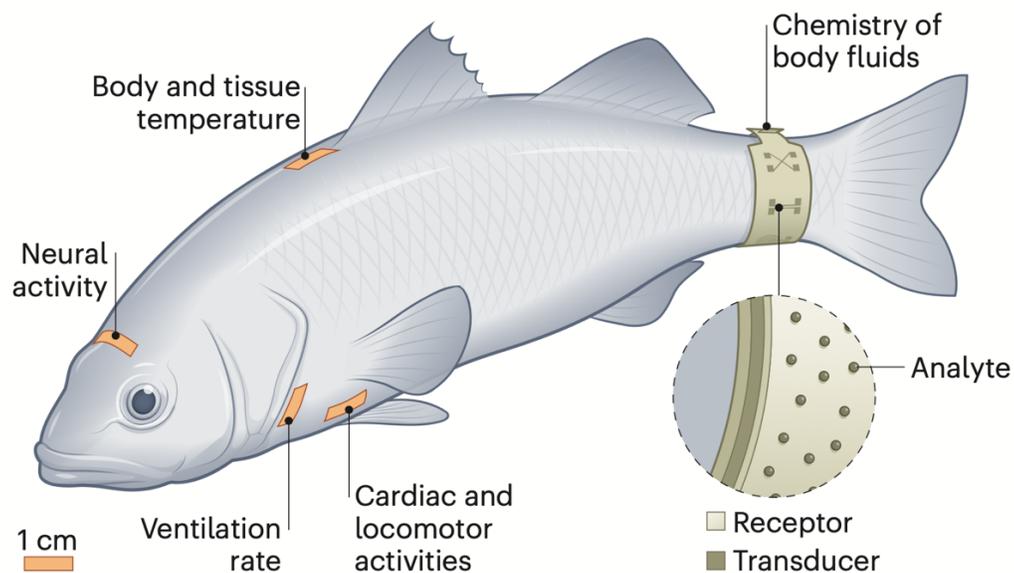
Box 1. Biochemical sensors for marine monitoring.

Chemical measurements in living organisms can generally be performed electrochemically or through physical adsorption, with the latter potentially offering more specificity and selectivity²⁵.

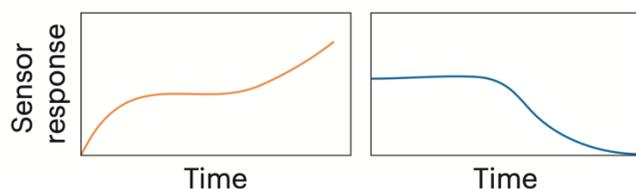
[AU: Citation required? Answer: Yes. It has been added.] This general scheme can be described as:



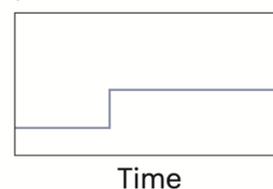
whereby a sensor site (S) reversibly binds an analyte (A), resulting in a state change that can be transduced as a measurable signal. The analyte in this case can be any physiological chemical constituent of interest, such as cortisol or insulin. One attractive method to design chemical sensors for molecules of interest is through the engineering of nanoparticle surfaces. The optical properties of these materials can often report the adsorption-induced state change, directly correlating measured optical intensity to the analyte concentration. As shown in human systems, detectable signaling molecules include insulin, dopamine and components of the steroidogenesis pathway²⁶.



Analytes
(e.g. cortisol, insulin, etc)



Environmental variable
(e.g. temperature, pollution, noise, etc)



136 **Towards translating human wearables to marine animals**

137 Translating innovations in human wearables to marine wearables requires substantial
138 technological development because of challenges in assaying biochemical parameters in a marine
139 context in a reliable, robust and minimally intrusive way. Nanomaterial-based sensors can enable
140 assessment of physiological changes in marine animals by measuring internal parameters, such as
141 hormone levels and metabolites²⁷, the chemistry of body fluids and tissues²⁶, as well as the body
142 temperature²⁸, respiratory rate²⁹, cardiac activity³⁰, neural activity³¹ and locomotor activities³²
143 (**Box 1**). Incorporation of nanomaterials into flexible electronics, soft microfluidics, pain-free
144 microneedles, electronic tattoos and point-of-care smartphone-based sensors have resulted in
145 certain sensors that can externally assess an animal's internal condition through its skin, described
146 below (**Fig. 2**).

147 **Marine Skin.** So-called 'Marine Skin'^{20,21} is an ultra-lightweight (~2.5–6 g in the air) and
148 standalone wireless multisensory device designed to conform and adapt to the soft and irregularly
149 shaped surfaces of marine animals (**Fig. 2a**). Based on polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) polymer
150 and integrated silicon CTD sensor arrays, Marine Skin was designed to simultaneously monitor
151 diving behavior and the surrounding marine environment. The sinusoidal wavy architecture of
152 metallic interconnects enables high stretchability in lateral directions to maintain stable
153 performance after repeated twisting and bending of the device. The latest waterproof version of
154 Marine Skin showed 500–1,500% enhanced sensitivity and endurance at a depth of 2 km in full-
155 strength seawater when compared to the initial version of the device²¹. A bracelet-like, featherlight
156 jacket design was developed to non-invasively attach Marine Skin to fishes such as barramundi,
157 sea bream and common goldfish — without any glue or surgery²¹. A limitation of Marine Skin is
158 the low-power Bluetooth transceiver that operates only when marine animals surface for a

159 sufficient period of time, otherwise the system has to be retrieved to access the stored data. Further
160 research should aim to integrate Marine Skin with advanced optical and/or acoustic transmitters,
161 as well as incorporate a range of biochemical sensors for monitoring biomarkers such as cortisol,
162 glucose, and oxygen levels. Additionally, the biocompatibility and susceptibility to biofouling of
163 Marine Skin must be thoroughly assessed prior to long-term deployment.

164 ***Implantable fluorescence nanosensors.*** Hybrid nanomaterials combining molecularly imprinted
165 polymers (MIPs) with inorganic nanomaterials present a promising approach for concurrently
166 acquiring previously inaccessible physiological data sets in marine organisms. These materials
167 offer unique selectivity and affinity for target analytes, enabling the development of highly
168 sensitive and specific sensors³³. However, challenges remain due to the scarcity of *in vivo*
169 measurements, complex marine environments, and concerns regarding stability, biocompatibility,
170 and toxicity. Recently, near-infrared fluorescent nanosensor implants employing DNA-wrapped
171 single-wall carbon nanotubes have been devised for continuous organismal monitoring³⁴. These
172 nanosensors are encapsulated within a biocompatible poly(ethylene glycol)diacrylate hydrogel for
173 highly-selective chemical detection through corona-phase molecular recognition. Riboflavin
174 (vitamin B₂), a cofactor for enzymes involved in oxidative phosphorylation, was used as a target
175 analyte in tissue assessment *in vitro* and *ex vivo*³⁴. The design characteristics for this riboflavin
176 sensor such as implantation depth, sensor imaging, detection limits, fluence and stability, as well
177 as acute and long-term biocompatibility, were examined on species such as bony fish, sharks, eels
178 and turtles. When combined with gels, single-wall carbon nanotubes could be detected up to a
179 depth of 7 mm in the skin and muscle tissue of subjects without any observable changes in
180 movement, tissue structure, swimming and feeding patterns³⁴. It should be noted that
181 incorporating riboflavin status into the Internet of Marine Life would necessitate a

182 multidisciplinary methodology encompassing the advancement of biochemical sensing devices,
183 data management infrastructures, and machine learning algorithms. This integration facilitates the
184 examination of feeding behavior, overall health, and responses to environmental stressors across
185 various temporal scales. The identification of seasonal and annual patterns provides insights into
186 variations in, and anthropogenic influences on marine ecosystems, while diurnal patterns elucidate
187 specific periods of heightened feeding activity or augmented nutrient requirements during growth
188 and reproductive phase.

189 In recent times, the measurement of chlorophyll-a and dissolved oxygen has gained priority, as
190 these parameters provide valuable insights into the health and productivity of aquatic ecosystems³⁵.
191 Chlorophyll-a concentration is a vital indicator of oceanic primary production, which plays a
192 significant role in global carbon cycling³⁶. Deep-diving marine mammals, such as southern
193 elephant seals were equipped with combined CTD-SRDL and fluorometer devices to gather data
194 on photosynthetic pigments in hard-to-reach areas where traditional methods fall short or research
195 vessels may not be available³⁷. Integrating CTD-SRDLs with dissolved oxygen sensors allows
196 researchers to observe oceanographic conditions near marine animals, such as Atlantic salmon³⁸,
197 and obtain more in-depth data on bottom water formation as well as monitor oxygen thresholds
198 required to maintain healthy animals in the face of on-going ocean deoxygenation. The
199 miniaturization of these multi-sensor loggers would enhance our understanding of marine
200 ecosystems and the status and changes in in previously unexplored environments of marine
201 animals.

202 Meanwhile, wider use of implantable sensors requires overcoming limitations such as sensor-
203 signal normalization to account for the optical heterogeneity of various animal tissues, low signal-
204 to-noise ratios, temporal resolution of measurements and movement artifacts. Subsequent removal

205 of the nanodevice also requires recapture and further surgery with ethical and feasibility
206 implications.

207 ***Microneedle-based sensor arrays.*** Microneedle sensor arrays (MSAs) allow painless transdermal
208 extraction of interstitial fluid (**Fig. 2c**). A miniature MSA patch is typically composed of micron-
209 sized electrode arrays (silicon, metals, polymers, glass, ceramics) arranged in specific order and
210 shape³⁹ (cylindrical, canonical, pyramids, spike, spear) for direct, real-time and continuous
211 measurement of analytes⁴⁰, metabolites⁴¹, chemical threats⁴², as well therapeutics⁴³, hormones⁴⁴
212 and gene delivery⁴⁵. Despite MSAs offering a technique to study physiology in free-living marine
213 animals, it has not yet been exploited. This is due to susceptibility to corrosion, fouling, poor
214 biocompatibility and noisy signals caused by interactions with biological molecules of metallic
215 MSA. By contrast, polymer MSAs suffer from problems retaining with tip sharpness, efficacy and
216 stability of microneedles after contact with body fluids, particularly when relatively high insertion
217 forces are used to penetrate the outer layer of the skin. Despite the hurdles that have impeded the
218 practical utilization of microneedle sensors in aquatic environments, there are positive indications
219 of their future potential for use in marine contexts with ongoing advancements in sensor design,
220 waterproof and biocompatible materials, and secure attachment methods for reliable data
221 acquisition in harsh environment.

222 ***Tattoo-like epidermal sensors.*** Tattoo-like epidermal sensors are an ultra-thin and elastic wearable
223 technology that closely adheres to the skin, resembling temporary tattoos. Wearability could be
224 extended to the microscopic morphology of epidermal skin via tattoo-like imperceptible sensors
225 without the application of artificial adhesives (**Fig. 2d**). This technique increases the contact
226 surface area of the skin with the electrode and decreases the contact impedance and susceptibility
227 to motion, resulting in a higher signal-to-noise ratio. Liquid metal-based electronic tattoos have

228 been the most popular option for electrodes and interconnects (~10–100 nm thickness) because of
229 their excellent stretchability and self-healing ability⁴⁶. At room temperature, metals such as
230 eutectic indium-gallium maintain a liquid form, allowing to be stretched over 300% without loss
231 of conductivity⁴⁷. Their unique surface chemistry allows for development of various devices in
232 wearable form, while their biocompatibility holds potential in uses on the surface and internal
233 applications living organisms.. An electronic tattoo could function as a diagnostic display by
234 reflecting color changes within the visible spectrum in response to a given biochemical variable⁴⁷.
235 In biomedical applications, these variables can be recorded easily by a smartphone, but in marine
236 settings, an imaging device would need to be installed at sites that are routinely revisited by tagged
237 species. This technique is therefore limited to species that are either regularly sighted (for example
238 turtle nests, species resident in marine protected areas, aquaculture animals) or remotely observed
239 (shelf habitats and coastal settings). Since the color calibration of the sensor has been carried out
240 under controlled lighting conditions, it is now essential to conduct tests in the marine environment
241 to assess its performance under environmental conditions to support readout at distinct brightness,
242 saturation and shades. Tattoo-like epidermal sensors have the potential to non-invasively monitor
243 various physiological and biochemical parameters in marine organisms, including cardiovascular
244 function, respiration rate, muscle activity, and hormone levels A challenge in using tattoo-like and
245 MSA sensors in marine contexts is effective integration with flexible antennas⁴⁸ as part of wireless
246 data-acquisition systems (**Fig. 2e**). Evaluating underwater applicability, addressing water
247 conductivity, pressure and temperature impacts on signal quality, and devising encapsulation
248 strategies to safeguard the sensors from harsh marine conditions are also essential considerations
249 for the effective application of these sensing technologies in internet of marine life. If realized,
250 tattoo-like and MSA sensors could establish a connected ecosystem, facilitating real-time and

251 long-term monitoring, predictive modeling, ultimately promoting better understanding and
252 protection of marine organisms and their habitats.

253 **Multifunctional graphene sensors.** As the thinnest electrically conductive material, graphene has
254 been widely exploited to fabricate flexible, electrochemically stable and biocompatible sensor
255 solutions⁴⁹; however, its usage has been hindered by costly and energy-intensive fabrication
256 methods. Laser-induced graphene (LIG) has facilitated a simultaneous formation and patterning
257 of porous graphene in a solid state and permitted development of versatile, high-yield, low-cost
258 and widely tunable physiological sensors⁵⁰⁻⁵². Wearable LIG sensors have been developed for
259 measuring various physical parameters in the marine environment⁵³⁻⁶¹ (**Fig. 2f**), are resistant to
260 corrosion and fouling⁶² and can function in challenging contexts such as monitoring movement
261 behavior of dolphins and turtles⁵³. Multifunctional LIG sensors still require improvements to
262 packing density and elimination of interference amongst multiple stimuli present in marine
263 environments. In addition, the use of LIG as an electrochemical sensor requires surface
264 modification with heteroatom doping or composite formation⁶³. Although there have been
265 developments in this regard⁶¹, none have yet been optimized for use in marine environments. Thus,
266 next-generation LIG sensors can be tailored for utilization within the internet of marine life, with
267 a specific emphasis on sensing a wide range of small molecules, including ascorbic acid,
268 dopamine, uric acid, hydrogen peroxide, urea, bisphenol A, glucose, and biogenic amines. The
269 advanced functionality of these sensors positions them as a crucial component in the realm of
270 diagnostic, environmental monitoring, and biomedical research endeavors undertaken within the
271 marine environment.

272

273 **Magnetic skin system.** The magnetic skin system integrates composite magnets and magnetic
274 sensors onto a living organism and utilizes changes in the magnetic field resulting from differences
275 in the magnet-sensor distance to detect body movements⁶⁴. The advantages of a magnetic-sensing
276 approach include marine species being highly tolerant of magnetic fields and magnets exhibiting
277 measurable magnetic properties underwater. Tunnel magnetoresistance sensors, the most sensitive
278 solid-state sensors available today, in combination with flexible and lightweight composite
279 magnets, were used to monitor the movement behavior of the bivalve *Tridacna maxima*^{65,66}
280 (maxima clam, **Fig. 2g**). In another study, the elastic modulus of the NdFeB/PDMS magnet was
281 optimized for attachment to the curved surfaces of giant clams, crabs and turtles, and a Parylene
282 C coating provided enhanced underwater durability, biocompatibility and corrosion resistance⁶⁵.
283 Meanwhile, the next-generation magnetic skin made of NdFeB/Ecoflex is virtually imperceptible
284 to wear due to its high stretchability (>300%), breathability and versatility in shape and color^{67,68}.
285 The system has several limitations, such as restricted measurement capabilities due to the limited
286 maximum operational distance between the magnet and sensor, as well as insufficient long-term
287 testing of the devices thus far available, required to assess the reliability, durability, and safety of
288 the technology along extended periods of use.

289

290 **Challenges for development of marine wearables**

291 The marine environment poses several major physical, biological and technical challenges for
292 using wearable sensor devices. The ionic composition of seawater conducts electricity and can
293 corrode, galvanize and denature materials commonly used in wearables. All this is exacerbated by
294 changes in pressure representing an increase of a whole atmosphere for every ~10 m increase in
295 depth, together with temperatures that may vary between -2 and 35°C. Beyond this, marine

296 organisms that colonize surfaces and promote biofouling can also impede the functioning of
297 marine wearables^{69,70}. In addition, radio waves, the transmission of which in the air is far-reaching
298 and used for data transfer from wearables on land, is negligible in seawater⁶. Acoustic transmission
299 of data remains the most viable option for marine wearables, but this is limited to distances to up
300 to 1 km⁶ and at slow rates of about 1 s across that distance.

301

302 *Data transmission and recovery.*

303 Retrieving data from sensors attached to mobile animals is a major barrier in the design of marine
304 wearables given the difficulties with wireless communication under water. By contrast, acoustic
305 technology does generally work well under water, leading to the development of sensor networks
306 and arrays. However, both acoustic tags and receiving stations are relatively large, have low data-
307 transmission speeds (of kilobytes per second), long latency and high power consumption^{71,72}.
308 Radiofrequency communications rely either on the marine animal coming to the surface or use of
309 a detachable, floating sensor node to transmit the data^{5, 4873-75}, for example, using Bluetooth Low
310 Energy⁴⁸ or Wi-Fi modules⁸. However, because most of the open ocean does not have coverage
311 by communication networks, satellites provide the only viable option. These are expensive and
312 energy-intensive (few mA quiescent/several hundred mA transmitting) solutions that prohibit their
313 large-scale use. These limitations could be overcome by developing a custom communication
314 network composed of wearable tags, floating receivers and ground stations for studies of relatively
315 resident animals⁴⁸. Marine wearables with Bluetooth modules can be used for short-range (~100
316 m) and high data-communication rates (~2 Mbps) on marine mammals that breathe periodically
317 on the sea surface⁴⁸. Long Range (LoRa) low-power modules could be used on detachable marine
318 wearables with improved communication distances (~15 km), but at the cost of a lower data rate

319 (~30 kbps) than Bluetooth and Wi-Fi, though still higher than typical underwater acoustic
320 communication rates. For both types of marine wearables, a multi-hopping communication
321 network, including small Bluetooth floating receivers⁷⁶ and large floating receivers with multiple
322 communication capabilities (Global System for Mobile, Bluetooth, LoRa, and Global Positioning
323 System (GPS) modules)⁷⁷, can relay data across a swarm of such floating receivers. This approach
324 could enable coverage of large areas, forming the conceptual basis for the notion of an internet of
325 marine life.

326 Underwater wireless optical communication (UWOC) also offers a potential approach for
327 underwater communication and was developed to overcome the limitations of acoustic
328 methods^{78,79}, with high bandwidth and communication speed of above 1 Gbps. For example,
329 downloading a 1 GB video underwater required a few seconds using UWOC, compared to a few
330 days using acoustic technology. However, these data can only be directly transmitted across short
331 distances. The current record of data transmission across the furthest distance underwater involves
332 transmitting data across 20 m at 1.5 Gbps⁸⁰. Several challenges remain before UWOC becomes a
333 practical technology to use with marine wearables. These include the development of high-speed,
334 low-power (or self-powered) transceivers capable of communicating with other devices or sensors
335 in a non-line-of-sight fashion at a range of ~100 m in both clear and turbid waters⁸¹⁻⁸⁴. Successful
336 field trials for energy-autonomous receivers⁸⁵⁻⁸⁷, a non-line-of-sight water-to-air communication
337 system^{88,89} and optical underwater internet⁹⁰ might permit further exploration of connectivity
338 strategies for an underwater internet of marine life .

339 Tracking underwater animals is a challenging task, especially when trying to do so accurately
340 without using GPS or complex systems. Feasible, long-term, and self-contained yet accurate
341 tracking of marine animals requires hardware–software co-design and incorporation of ‘hardware-

342 aware' algorithmic pipelines⁹¹. Because marine tags can store large amounts of data and
343 underwater data transmission is challenging, onboard processing is therefore a prerequisite before
344 data transfer. This processing is however constrained by the small footprint of wearable devices
345 Machine learning offers a promising avenue to address the challenge by processing data from an
346 array of sensors integrated into marine wearables⁹¹. These wearables typically encompass
347 accelerometers, gyroscopes, and magnetometers, which yield insights into the animal's
348 locomotion. Advanced machine learning methodologies facilitate a deeper comprehension and
349 interpretation of the animal's motion, thereby rectifying common errors inherent in conventional
350 tracking techniques. A machine learning, known as deep neural networks (DNN), has
351 demonstrated exceptional efficacy in this domain⁹². The DNN are trained to estimate the
352 displacement, heading, or velocities of marine animals based on data procured by the sensors
353 embedded within the wearables. Employing DNN enables researchers to input segments of sensor
354 data into the network, subsequently extracting crucial parameters such as initial velocity,
355 gravitational forces, and magnetic anchor direction. This approach results in enhanced accuracy
356 when predicting the animal's movement trajectory⁹¹.

357

358 ***Energy harvesting.***

359 At present, the lifetime of sensor tags is limited by the amount of energy provided by batteries,
360 which are usually among the larger and heavier tag components. Harvesting energy from the
361 ambient environment offers an alternative option for long-term power deployments of small
362 marine wearables. The marine environment has many natural sources of energy to draw from
363 including waves, tidal currents, salinity gradients, solar energy and thermal gradients.

364 For low-power marine wearables, autonomous energy harvesting could greatly increase sensor
365 capabilities⁹³. Advances in materials science and nanotechnology offer some potential approaches
366 such as battery-free wearable tags that use flexible piezoelectric beams⁹³⁻⁹⁷ and triboelectric
367 nanogenerators⁹⁸⁻¹⁰¹ to harvest energy from small-scale mechanical motions, such as animal
368 swimming. Kinetic energy captured by a flexible triboelectric nanogenerator was sufficient to
369 power several marine sensors¹⁰². Other self-powered approaches include a magneto-acoustic
370 resonator that directly upconverts the low-frequency motion of marine animals (ranging from
371 0.15–100 Hz¹⁰³) to a high-frequency acoustic signal and a bionic¹⁰⁴, stretchable nanogenerator with
372 an output of more than 10 V¹⁰⁵.

373 Self-powering sensors can harvest energy from fish-fin movement^{95 98} and can avoid fatal damage
374 to marine life caused by turboprop generators¹⁰⁶. Finally, micro bacterial fuel cells for bioenergy
375 harvesting via redox reactions have been also reported for residual biowaste¹⁰⁷, algae, bacteria, and
376 micro organ-based catalysis¹⁰⁸. These self-powered electrolytic sensors have potential to be used
377 for marine-animal health technologies and underwater environmental monitoring systems without
378 the use of harmful external energy sources. Challenges remain regarding energy density and size
379 reductions of systems for use in self-powered wearables.

380

381 ***Biofouling***

382 Biofouling, the accumulation of microorganisms on surfaces submerged in sea water, arises from
383 the transition of organisms such as bacteria, fungi, algae, and invertebrates from planktonic to
384 sessile lifestyles¹⁰⁹. This process encompasses the adhesion of pioneer bacteria, secretion of
385 polymeric extracellular substances, and temporary soft and permanent hard macrofouling.
386 Conventional antifouling agents, including tributyltin, copper-based molecules, and zinc

387 pyrrithione, face challenges in microbial resistance and toxicity to marine life¹¹⁰. As a result,
388 alternative strategies have been explored, such as incorporation of metallic nanoparticles, catalytic
389 redox couples, nanoporous electrodes, electrochemical activation, biomaterials, and graphene-
390 based nanomaterials¹¹¹. The LIG stands out due to its hydrophilic nature, texture, and nanoporous
391 structure that inhibit microbial attachment and reduce adhesion energy¹¹². An alternative approach
392 involves bio-inspired shark skin, produced using the PDMS-embedded elastomeric-stamping
393 method, exhibiting microstructured ribbons on dermal denticles that effectively decrease drag and
394 enhance anti-biofouling performance¹¹³. Despite these advancements, no single biomimetic
395 structure can withstand diverse biological ecosystems in uncontrolled maritime environments,
396 necessitating further surface-engineering progress for the development of effective marine
397 wearable.

398

399 **Considerations for maintaining animal well-being while using wearables**

400 The accuracy of the data collected by marine wearables relies on sensor deployment having no
401 adverse effects on the animal¹⁶. The large size of conventional electronic tags and the attachment
402 techniques that penetrate the skin of an animal can result in severe impacts that can extend from
403 burdens on energy budgets to injury and in some cases death¹⁶.

404 Attachment of flexible electronics to marine animals remains an important challenge. For rigid
405 sensors, current attachment methods include internal implants or external via sutures for fishes¹¹⁴,
406 glue for crabs¹¹⁵, turtles¹¹⁶ and seals¹¹⁷, suction cups for dolphins¹¹⁸ and bolts or clamps for
407 sharks¹¹⁹ (**Table 1**). All of these attachment options are invasive and affect animal behavior and
408 well being^{27, 120}. The ideal solution for marine wearables is light, flexible and biocompatible belt-
409 or net-like architectures to secure a flexible device, depending on the shape and size of the animal.

410 Advances in adhesive tapes designed for wet tissues offer promising attachment methods.
411 Attachments for wearable sensor systems could also be improved through advances in 3D imaging
412 and printing technologies, such as those already used in human prosthetic design^{121,122}. Whole-
413 body or area-specific scans of animals will facilitate attachments that fit a 3D-model negative,
414 allowing devices to be tailored for specific individuals. High-density scans (e.g. the Artec Eva
415 made by Artec3D has a 3D resolution of 0.5 mm) can be used in computational fluid-dynamic
416 models to determine the optimal, species-specific attachment location, thereby limiting excessive
417 mechanical deformation and drag^{117,123}. The models can also test the impact on the hydrodynamic
418 performance of the attachment of wearables. The value of 3D printing for wearable design and
419 attachment is further enhanced as the materials available for printing expand, including flexible
420 plastics and biocompatible options¹²⁴. Major drawbacks of custom-printed sensors include the
421 handling time needed to scan animals and the lag time in being able to customize the design in the
422 field. These barriers could be overcome by creating multiple species- and size-specific sensors
423 using museum specimens and captive individuals for fitting to wild animals with minimal
424 adjustment, thereby reducing the time and stress an animal is exposed to. Nonetheless, the success
425 of this approach depends on inter-individual variation in body dimensions, constitution (such as
426 the thickness of fat layers), overall fitness and other factors such as parasite load, timing around
427 breeding events and seasonality.

428 Bio-inspired solutions may offer alternative attachment strategies. Marine animals host symbiotic
429 organisms that can persist for years on the body surface without causing significant harm to the
430 host. These organisms exhibit a unique form of attachment that offer inspiration for improving
431 attachment of wearables. For example, a biomimetic tag-attachment system^{125,126} is based on
432 remoras that use a modified fin on the back of their heads as a suction pad to attach to large marine

433 animals¹²⁶. The remora disc prototype offers strong adhesion to various surfaces and enhanced
434 frictional forces due to the combination of rigid spinules and soft tissue overlay. However, the
435 current 3D printing technology could not match the mechanical properties of remora disc soft
436 tissues, and the detachment mechanism used is not biologically inspired, requiring further
437 investigation of remoras' natural detachment behavior. Apart from marine wearables, this system
438 has applications in areas where secure attachment is indispensable, such as marine archeology,
439 oceanographic data gathering, underwater imaging and mapping, as well as aquaculture and
440 fishery management. The proposed system can greatly enhance underwater communications and
441 networking by allowing efficient installation and maintenance of communication devices and
442 sensors in aquatic settings.

443

444 **Generating an 'internet' of marine life**

445 Networks collecting data mostly on physical observations of the open ocean from multiple sources
446 have been achieved¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹. Ocean-observing systems rely on either airborne (e.g. satellites) or in
447 situ sensing systems, either tethered to mooring systems anchored in the seafloor, drifting or
448 gliding along pre-defined routes¹³⁰. Current use of animal-born sensing systems is limited by the
449 availability of suitable sensors and systems able to retrieve the data generated, and is largely
450 limited to tracking devices sporadically reporting position data for animals surfacing regularly
451 through the, expensive, ARGO satellite system². We provide a vision for using wearables towards
452 generating an internet of marine life in three distinct marine settings: aquaculture, the open ocean
453 and coastal habitats (**Fig. 3**).

454 Industrial aquaculture began about 40 years ago, compared to the more than 1,000 years of large-
455 scale food production on land. However, the pace of aquaculture development is rapid, with

456 technology potentially leaping over the third industrial revolution to directly enter the ‘fourth
457 industrial revolution’, which is characterized by sensor-rich operations networked through highly
458 connected devices (the internet of things) that provide information to initiate interventions by
459 robotized systems. For example, Norway has just established the first offshore, highly robotized
460 salmon farm with a capacity to hold 1.5 million salmon, fitted with 20,000 sensors to monitor all
461 aspects of the operation, supervised by only four humans
462 (<https://www.fishfarmingexpert.com/article/world-s-first-offshore-fish-farm-arrives-in-norway/>).

463 This farm still lacks animal-borne sensors to provide direct feedback about the state of animals.
464 Wearables for aquaculture ought to focus on measuring the health, feeding, growth, reproductive
465 stage and stress markers of target animals with the dual goal of ensuring animal well-being and
466 maximizing yield. A subsample of animals (10 to 20 animals) carrying wearables can be present
467 in aquaculture facilities, where fish cages hold thousands to hundreds of thousands of fish, as
468 current technologies to monitor them using visual methods present limitations. Movement in such
469 controlled environments can be informative of animal condition and stress, while metabolic
470 activity also provides insights into animal condition and wellbeing. Analyzing these data in
471 relation to relevant environmental parameters, acquired by fixes or animal-mounted sensors, may
472 help define thresholds of environmental conditions, such as turbulence, temperature and oxygen,
473 providing an understanding that can be used to select and manage fish cages and, more broadly,
474 aquaculture farms. Also, animal behavior data can be used to dose feed, thereby avoiding excess
475 feed supply, which is a major drivers of environmental impacts in aquaculture farms⁷⁹. Fitting
476 aquaculture animals with wearables would approach aquaculture to a precision farming approach,
477 comparable to the emergence of precision livestock farming on land, which generate positive
478 outcomes in terms of rangeland conservation, animal welfare, and labour optimization⁷⁹. Because

479 most aquaculture occurs in a confined area, it is suitable for UWOC, which would allow large
480 amounts of data to be transmitted and could integrate measures of animal well-being. Wearables
481 would need minimal storage or on-board processing because all data could be collected by
482 receivers attached to the enclosure and analyzed immediately to give farm operators real-time
483 information about many individuals. Long-term power supplies would also be a low priority, as
484 tags could be added or replaced when animals were moved among size-specific enclosures. In this
485 situation, wearables might offer a realistic prospect to improve both the well-being of animals and
486 the economic return of aquaculture facilities.

487 As seaweed aquaculture expands, the internet of marine life could also extend to monitoring
488 seaweed, akin to use of sensors to monitor terrestrial crops¹³¹. Monitoring oxygen levels, blade
489 movement, fluorescence as a function of chlorophyll *a* content, temperature and pH can inform of
490 the productivity, growth and condition of farmed seaweed. However, capital investment in
491 seaweed farming is modest, so most seaweed farms are unlikely to invest in such technology unless
492 they help release additional revenue streams.

493 The open ocean remains poorly explored due to its vast size. Remote sensing by way of satellites
494 or drones can only penetrate the top 50 m of the ocean, leaving the majority difficult to monitor
495 given the ocean's mean depth is 3,870 m. Other options such as oceanic research vessels are cost-
496 prohibitive. Deployment of wearables to form an internet of wild ocean life could substantially
497 increase our capacity for ocean exploration in a cost-effective manner, as shown by studies already
498 using heavy sensors on large marine animals for oceanography data collection¹³². The low turbidity
499 and long-distance, direct line of sight available for transmission in this habitat offer an opportunity
500 to use UWOC for data transfer. Free-floating and anchored receivers could then collect data and
501 transmit it to satellites. A system of buoys with sensors at multiple depths could measure physical

502 variables (temperature, salinity, pH, $p\text{CO}_2$,) while GPS tracks the location of data collection.
503 Wearables could collect data on the internal status of animals, but the need for long sensor lifetimes
504 would necessitate the use of systems that have autonomous energy-harvesting capacity. At present,
505 animal tags that relay data via satellites through the Argos system have transmission life spans of
506 6–8 months and their energy demands result in relatively heavy and bulky configurations².
507 Because battery size is a major constraint for tag design, energy harvesting would not only prolong
508 the life of the wearable but also allow miniaturization. To reduce the necessity for wearables to
509 detach and come to the surface for data collection, floating buoys would send initiation signals to
510 trigger data transmission by the wearable whenever it came within communication distance. The
511 Argos float system, which already has 5,000 devices deployed across the global oceans¹³³ could
512 provide such a network of receiving stations, although their feasibility as base stations for
513 collecting data from animal-mounted sensors has not been explored. Designing a hybrid network
514 of the internet of marine life coupled with mechanical sensors, such as ARGO floats, as receiving
515 stations will require an exercise in optimization, as well as identifying what species need be
516 targeted. In principle, highly mobile species that exhibit a diving behavior are more likely to come
517 within range of ARGO floats to download and relay data and would be more suitable for such
518 integration. Analyzing the current universe of tagged marine animals, derived from portals such
519 as MegaMove (<https://megamove.org>), along with the position of the ARGO floats will be required
520 to assess the feasibility and design such hybrid system.

521 Continental shelf habitats and coasts offer a particularly important target for the internet of marine
522 life because human pressures and threats to marine life are concentrated in these areas. Developing
523 the internet of marine life in a coastal setting would come with different opportunities and
524 challenges. Topographically complex habitats and turbid waters render UWOC unsuitable and data

525 transmission could instead rely on acoustics or communication occurring either when animals
526 surface or from detached floating sensors. Shallow and complex habitats, such as coral reefs,
527 seagrass meadows, oyster reefs and kelp forests have high biodiversity and thus offer many
528 potential target species for deployment of wearables. The data from sensors measuring
529 environmental variables and the behavior and physiology of sedentary species can be hardwired
530 to a moored station that can transmit live data via existing GSM or other satellite technology¹³⁴.
531 The station would also offer both a power source (solar cells) and battery backup to power all
532 sensors. Environmental sensors could measure temperature, salinity, pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, water current,
533 turbidity, and include instruments such as hydrophones and cameras. Monitoring of the behavior
534 of sessile species such as bivalves or barnacles can be achieved using magnets and a magnetometer
535 to measure the opening and closing of valves or plates. Similarly, the filtering rate of bivalves or
536 sponges can be measured using bending graphite sensors to record water velocity⁵³. The behavior
537 of a multitude of small mobile species on reefs could also be measured and data transferred to the
538 station. For example, burrowing snapping shrimp can be tracked by attaching a miniature magnet
539 to the animal and placing a magnetometer at the burrow opening to track the location of an animal
540 from the opening to the far end of the burrow. A second example could be the use of an array of
541 magnetometers deployed on the seafloor within the territory of a benthic species fitted with a small
542 magnet, such as a damselfish. Three-dimensional movements could be tracked by triangulation of
543 the magnetic field intensity. Real-time data from the environment and the behavior of sedentary
544 species, combined with data from more mobile species could greatly enhance our understanding
545 of the coastal environments, especially in urban settings where the effects of anthropogenic
546 impacts, such as habitat degradation, shoreline hardening, and noise pollution, requires urgent
547 attention. High-diversity environments, such as coral reefs, may, in principle, render the choice of

548 which species to tag complex. However, in practice, the choices will be guided by the role of the
549 species, its conservation status and mobility, all pointing at resident apical predators, such as tiger
550 sharks in seagrass meadows, as the targets of choice, because of their capability to deliver data at
551 scale. For instance, a pioneer deployment of 360° cameras in tiger sharks, guided the recent
552 discovery of the largest seagrass meadow in the ocean¹³⁵.

553

554 **Benefits of wearables for promoting a sustainable ocean economy**

555 Wearables that are an integral component of the internet of marine life potentially offer an
556 opportunity to use animals to sense the marine environment and, at the same time, gain insights
557 into the internal status and behaviors of animals as they respond to the ocean ecosystems they
558 inhabit. Such information is urgently required to improve our understanding of interactions
559 between human activity and marine animals.

560 Real-time assessments of human impacts on marine animals, such as anthropogenic noise¹³⁶,
561 vessel strikes on air-breathing animals (e.g. cetaceans and turtles), and other species that feed near
562 the surface (such as whale sharks) and by-catch in fisheries can facilitate immediate management
563 actions to reduce the risk of animal injury. Such capacity would be a major step forward to
564 achieving the goals of UN SDG14 ‘Life Below Water’, developing a sustainable ocean economy
565 and supporting more effective efforts at rebuilding marine life¹³⁷. Human-based monitoring is
566 vulnerable to bias and disruptions, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, whereby the confinement of
567 humans to mitigate the spread of the virus led to disruption of research, monitoring, conservation
568 and enforcement activities¹³⁸. An internet of marine life could provide a more resilient and
569 effective observation system for the oceans. The capacity to assess animal well-being in a non-
570 intrusive manner through the use of wearables is also of fundamental importance to marine

571 aquaculture and resource extraction, particularly as these industries move toward heavily robotized
572 operations¹³⁹.

573 Technological developments in marine wearables are likely to lead to wider effects for all
574 industries operating in the marine environment⁹, as well as citizens venturing into the marine
575 environment for recreational uses¹³. In addition, some of this technology may be translated to
576 human wearables for extreme environments such as space exploration, mining and deep-ground
577 operations and wearables for land animals. The ramifications of wearable approach are potentially
578 vast but, importantly, it is the size of the devices that will prove pivotal in informing us
579 comprehensively about the status of animal life in ecosystems. This is because smaller tags are
580 more easily tolerated by their wearers and most easily affixed. Critically, the vast majority of
581 animal species are ‘small’, so researchers working with animal wearables must strive to reduce
582 system size to encompass a broader range of organisms. Indeed, minimizing tag size is likely the
583 single greatest challenge to this approach in the future. Addressing the potential challenge of
584 wearable disposal and cleanup for marine animal tags is critical in minimizing their environmental
585 impact. The most significant hurdle lies in replacing battery components containing potentially
586 hazardous materials with eco-friendly alternatives. Future generations of metal-free batteries, such
587 as those based on graphene or organic capacitors, may help overcome this obstacle. The unique
588 aquatic environment demands customized solutions for the responsible management of discarded
589 wearables in marine ecosystems. Such solutions may encompass the use of biodegradable, eco-
590 friendly, and non-toxic materials, minimizing detrimental effects on marine life and their habitats.
591 Additionally, the implementation of time-controlled release mechanisms or harnesses that safely
592 detach from the animals after a predetermined period could facilitate the retrieval and proper
593 disposal of these devices. Fostering interdisciplinary collaboration among marine biologists,

594 material scientists, and engineers can drive the development of innovative and sustainable
595 technologies tailored for marine animal sensors. Enhancing environmental regulations and
596 establishing comprehensive guidelines for the deployment and recovery of these devices will
597 further contribute to the responsible management of electronic waste within marine ecosystems.

598

599 **Summary**

600 In conclusion, as we enter the UN Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development, an
601 elevated ambition is required to move beyond traditional oceanographic surveys to develop a new
602 approach toward sensing the marine environment and the well-being and movement of marine
603 animals. The current technological gap between human operations on land and in space relative to
604 those in our ocean cannot be perpetuated. Bringing the internet of marine life to fruition could be
605 a major milestone towards improving our understanding of the ocean and our capacity to conserve
606 and rebuild ocean ecosystems.

607

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611

612 **Competing interests**

613

614 We declare the authors have no competing interests as defined by Nature Research, or other
615 interests that might be perceived to influence the interpretation of the article.

616

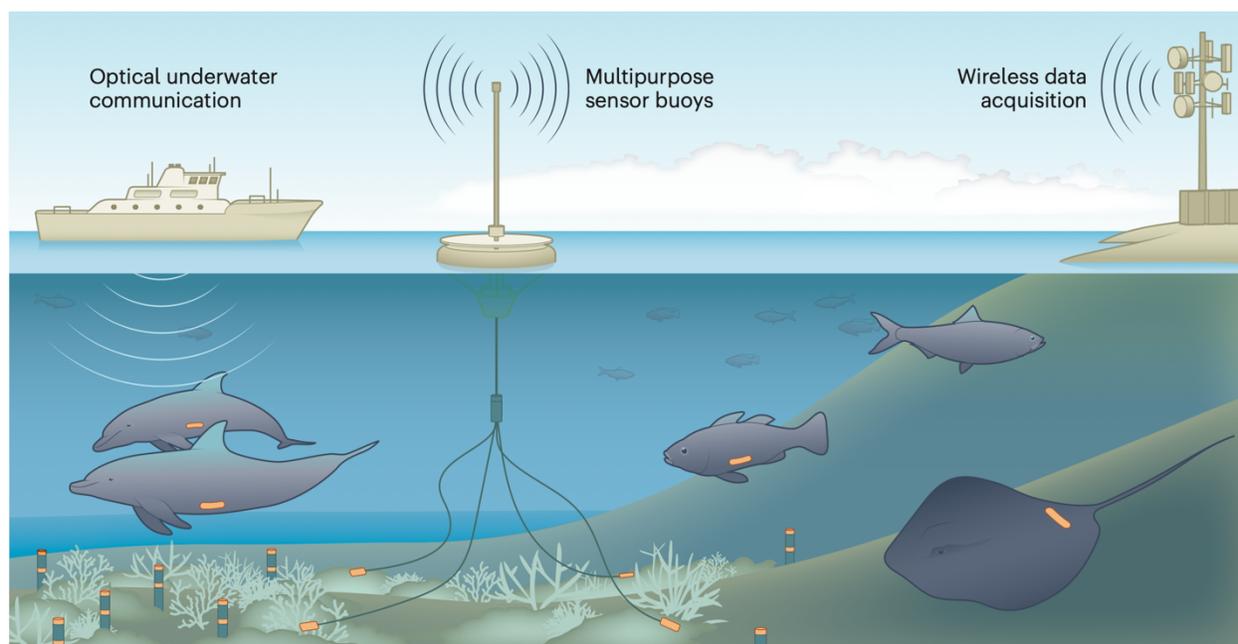
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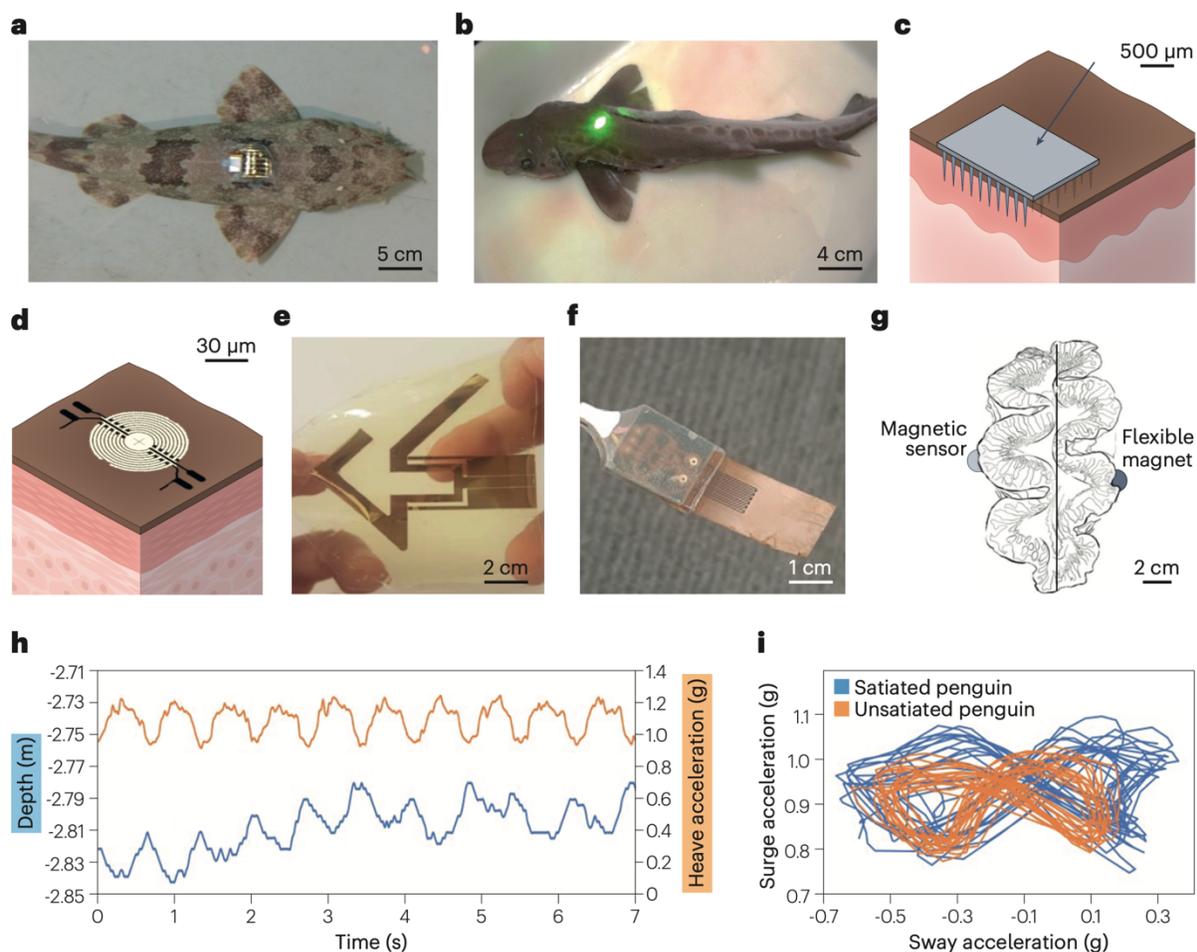
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622 **Figure legends**

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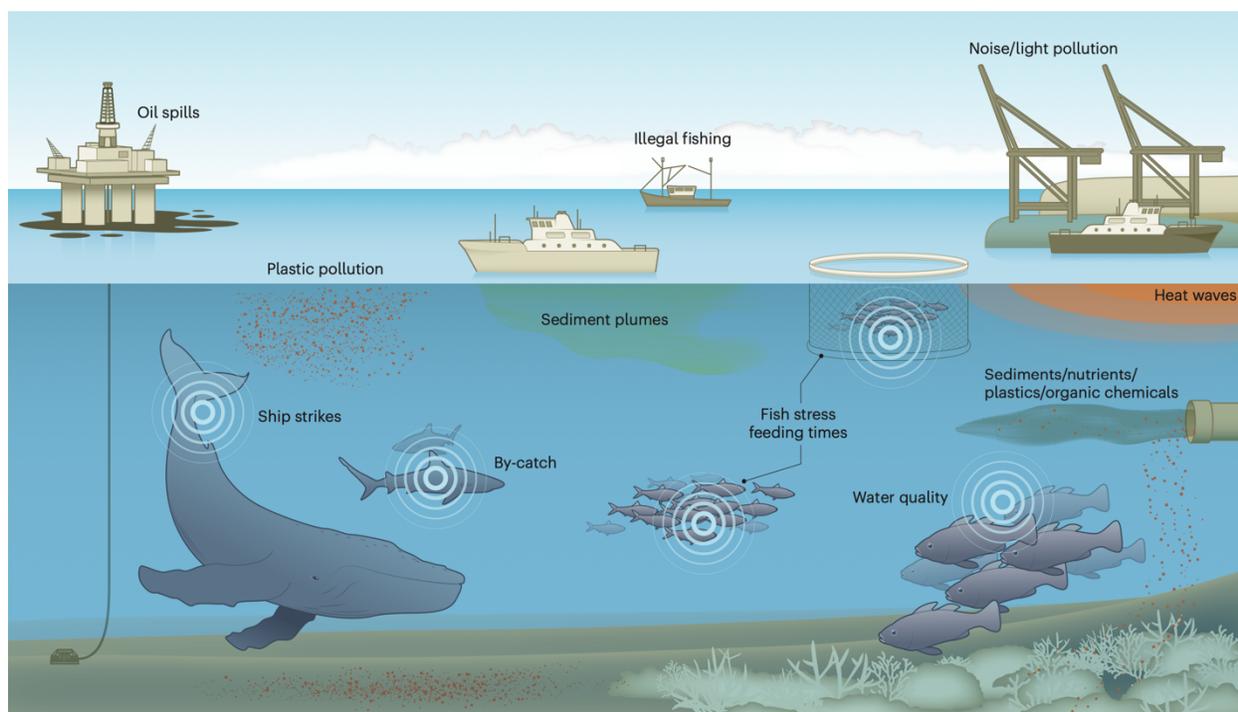
624 **Fig. 1. Current marine sensors and communication technologies.**

625 The developments highlight routes for collecting physiological parameters from the body fluid and
626 environments of marine animals, such as pulses, hormones, temperature, antimicrobials, or
627 pollutants, using wearable sensors that could be combined with optical underwater
628 communication, multipurpose sensor buoys, wireless data acquisition, or other systems, such
629 acoustic/optical/RF hybrid underwater communication to relay the data.



630
 631 **Fig. 2. Wearable technology solutions and developments for monitoring marine**
 632 **environments and their inhabitants.** (a) Non-invasive, light-weight wearable 'Marine Skin'; b)
 633 Implantable fluorescent nanosensors; c) Schematic of a generic microneedle-based wearable
 634 device on the epidermis; d) Epidermal tattoo-like physiological sensors; e) Flexible antenna
 635 integrated with wireless data acquisition system; f) Multifunctional laser-induced graphene
 636 sensors; g) Imperceptible magnetic skin system; h) Resolution of depth indicates how flipper beats
 637 in a Magellanic penguin *Spheniscus magellanicus* (indicated by pulses in the heave-acceleration
 638 axis) result in the whole body oscillating in the water column by approximately 3 cm to provide
 639 insights into swim effort and efficiency (left). Change in walking gait between a satiated and

640 unsatiated penguin manifest via the (smoothed over 0.25 s) surge and sway accelerations showing
 641 greater body oscillations for the period when the bird was heavier (right).



642

643 **Fig. 3. Anthropogenic impacts on the marine environment and examples of marine**
 644 **organisms that could potentially benefit from an internet of marine life.**

645 We envision that use of wearable sensing technology could span three distinct marine ecosystems:
 646 aquaculture, open oceans and coastal habitats. Wearables could provide information on animal
 647 health, nutrition, growth, reproductive stage and stress levels in order to maximize aquaculture
 648 yield and ensure animal wellbeing. The internal status of oceanic animals (concentric circles) and
 649 their environment could also be monitored using wearables with built-in energy-harvesting
 650 capabilities to ensure long sensor lifetimes. The proposed internet of marine life could also
 651 contribute to our understanding of coastal environments, particularly in or near urban settings,

652 where anthropogenic impacts, such as habitat degradation and shoreline hardening, are a major
 653 concern.

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