

Assessing Movement Patterns using Bayesian State-Space Models on Lake Winnipeg Walleye

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Abstract

Acoustic telemetry systems technology is useful for studying fish movement patterns and habitat use. However, the data generated from omnidirectional acoustic receivers are prone to large observation errors since the tagged animal can be anywhere in the detection range of the receiver. In this study, we used the Bayesian state-space modeling (SSM) approach and different smoothing methods including kernel smoothing and cross-validated local polynomial regression to reconstruct fish movement paths of Walleye (*Sander vitreus*) using data obtained from a telemetry receiver grid in Lake Winnipeg. Using SSM approach, we obtained more realistic movement paths, compared to the smoothing methods. In addition, we highlighted the advantages of the SSM approach to estimate undetected movement paths, over simple smoothing techniques, by comparing ecological metrics such as path length and tortuosity between different reconstruction approaches. Reconstructed paths could be useful in making effective fishery management decision on Lake Winnipeg in the future by providing information on how Walleye move and distribute in Lake Winnipeg over space and time.

Keywords: Acoustic Telemetry, Walleye, Bayesian Inference, Markov Chain Monte Carlo, State Space Models, Fish Movements.

19 **Introduction**

20 Fish can be highly mobile in the search for suitable foraging and spawning habitats (Cooke
21 et al. 2016). Fish movement paths reveal habitat use, migration patterns, survival, and
22 behavioural changes across years. Understanding how fish distribute and survive over space
23 and time is important for sustainable resource management. For instance, by identifying
24 critical habitats and movement patterns, a fishery manager can be informed of any poten-
25 tial risks that the fish in a population might experience from commercial fishing gear and
26 other human activities. This will allow the manager to make effective fish management and
27 conservation decisions (Brownscombe et al. 2019; Cooke et al. 2004, 2016).

28 Unlike most terrestrial animals, studying freshwater fish is not a simple task due to the com-
29 plex nature of their habitats and the poor visibility in water (Cooke et al. 2016). However,
30 modern tracking technologies such as acoustic telemetry allow for the collection of an enor-
31 mous amount of data on animal movements over long distances without directly observing
32 them in their natural habitats (Donaldson et al. 2014; Jonsen et al. 2003; Klimley et al.
33 1998).

34 Traditional acoustic telemetry studies frequently consist of an arrangement of receivers at
35 geographical bottlenecks, which is suitable for a broader study of movements such as mi-
36 gration across the landscape or aquatic habitat Cooke et al. (2011). A linear arrangement
37 of receivers does not help in understanding movements throughout a region. In this case, a
38 systematically deployed two-dimensional array of receivers can be used (Kraus et al. 2018).
39 However, the data collected by widely used omnidirectional acoustic receivers are subject

40 to large observation errors, especially when the distance between two adjacent receivers in
41 the array is large (Alós et al. 2016). Hence, the detection of an acoustic tag only suggests
42 proximity, but does not reveal the true location. Furthermore, the probability of a fish being
43 detected by a receiver decreases as the fish moves away from the receiver, and the detection
44 probability is also affected by environmental variables such as ice-cover, wind, and wave
45 action (Klinard et al. 2019; Reubens et al. 2019). Two main approaches are available to esti-
46 mate fish movement paths: (1) detection records can be smoothed to obtain the average fish
47 locations for regular time bins, and (2) fish locations are estimated based on an underlying
48 process model that describes fish behaviour.

49 Several different smoothing techniques have been applied to movement data. Simpfordor-
50 fer et al. (2002) used the weighted means algorithm to estimate the average fish locations.
51 Hedger et al. (2008) suggested using the cross-validated local polynomial regression with
52 Friedman’s super smoother (Friedman 1984) to be the optimum interpolation method. Fur-
53 thermore, Hedger et al. (2008) recommended kernel estimation with the Gaussian kernel to
54 interpolate fish paths. Even though smoothing techniques provide an easily implemented
55 and efficient way to reconstruct movement paths, simply smoothing the detection path mask
56 the actual fish movement behaviour. This can lead to incorrect estimates of ecological met-
57 rics such as swimming speed and total distance traveled. These are important in quantifying
58 individual fish movement for use in further analysis such as comparing behavioural patterns
59 among individual fish (Seidel et al. 2018).

60 Bayesian state-space modelling (SSM) is a promising approach for modeling individual-
61 level animal movement. In ecology, SSMs are widely used for studying animal movements

62 since they can account for both, process variation, which is the natural variation of the
63 underlying movement process and the observational error, which is the difference between
64 the observed position and the true position of the animal (Albertsen et al. 2015; Alós et al.
65 2016; Bolker 2008; Patterson et al. 2017, 2008). Also, within the SSM approach, it is possible
66 to incorporate additional information such as prior knowledge and detection probabilities in
67 the estimation. Pedersen and Weng (2013) developed an SSM for observation network data
68 to estimate animal movement using the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU) process. They used the
69 OU process based SSM to estimate movement paths and home range of Humphead Wrasse
70 (*Cheilinus undulatus*; a coral reef fish). Through simulations, they showed that the SSM
71 outperformed the smoothing techniques suggested by Hedger et al. (2008) and Simpfendorfer
72 et al. (2002). Alós et al. (2016) used a more sophisticated SSM with a mechanistic movement
73 model that accounted for the fish's home range behaviour to reconstruct individual movement
74 patterns of Pearly Razorfish (*Xyrichtys novacula*) within a short time period of 20 days using
75 acoustic telemetry data. They performed a simulation study to assess the accuracy and the
76 precision of their model and found that SSM models provide accurate and unbiased estimates
77 for the movement parameters and locations.

78 The objective of this study was to develop a framework to effectively reconstruct individual
79 fish movement paths to infer Walleye behaviour in Lake Winnipeg. As a part of the Lake
80 Winnipeg Basin Fish Movement Project, 357 Walleye (*Sander vitreus*) were tagged and a
81 grid of acoustic receivers was deployed in Lake Winnipeg and some of its major tributaries
82 to detect the movements of tagged fish. From June 2017 to September 2018, the receivers
83 recorded over 3.8 million detections. To achieve our objective, we used Bayesian SSMs and

84 three popular smoothing approaches (simple weighted average method, kernel smoothing
85 with the Gaussian kernel, and cross-validated local polynomial regression approach) to re-
86 construct fish movement paths. Furthermore, we performed a simulation study to evaluate
87 the performance of the different modeling approaches in estimating the movement paths.

88 **Materials and methods**

89 **Study area**

90 Lake Winnipeg, located in Manitoba, Canada, is the tenth largest lake in the world by
91 surface area (24,514 km²) and accounts for North America's second-largest freshwater fishery
92 (Sheppard et al. 2015; Wassenaar and Rao 2012). It is a shallow lake that has two main
93 basins (north basin and south basin), that are connected through the narrows (Fig. 1). The
94 average depth of the north basin is 13.3 m and, the south basin is only 9 m deep on average
95 (Brunskill et al. 1980; Stewardship et al. 2011). The lake typically has ice form around the
96 middle of November in both basins, and ice melting usually at the end of April to mid-May
97 in the south basin and mid-May to early June in the north basin. Despite its importance to
98 commercial fisheries, little research has been conducted to understand how fish respond to
99 the fishing pressure and changes in the physical environment (Johnston et al. 2012).

100 **Study species**

101 Walleye are large-bodied piscivorous fish that are commonly found in moderately productive
102 lakes in North America (Hartman 2009). Adult Walleye typically reach maturity at lengths

103 ranging from 35–50 cm. Spawning occurs in early spring from mid-April to the end of May
104 in Manitoba. Walleye is the most valuable species for commercial and recreational fisheries
105 in Lake Winnipeg (Fisheries and Canada 2020; Stewart and Watkinson 2004; Thorstensen
106 et al. 2020).

107 **Experimental setup and procedure**

108 For tagging, fish were captured by boat electrofishing. Only individuals with a body mass
109 >1.2 kg were tagged ensuring that the transmitter was less than 2% of the mass of the fish.
110 ‘Vemco V16-4H’ acoustic transmitters (16 mm diameter, 24 g, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ years expected battery
111 life, with an average transmission delay of 120 s with a pseudo-random uniform interval
112 between 80–160 s) were surgically implanted in each fish.

113 Fish were sedated using a Portable Electroanesthesia System (PESTTM, Smith-Root, Vancou-
114 ver, WA, USA). The PESTTM was set to 100 Hz, 25% duty cycle, and 40 V. Pulsed direct cur-
115 rent is appropriate sedation for adult fish because it provides a surgery window of 250–350 s
116 and fish recover quickly with minimal impact to vertebral integrity. Fish were placed supine
117 in a padded V-shaped trough (Vandergoot et al. 2011). Ambient water was continuously
118 pumped over the gills (using a recirculating flow-through pump system) to maintain normal
119 respiration during the surgical period (<5 min). A small incision was made posterior to
120 the pectoral girdle just dorsal of the ventral midline. The acoustic transmitter was inserted
121 posteriorly into the peritoneal cavity. The incision was closed with three interrupted sutures
122 (standard surgical knots). Fish were put in the recovery tank and released 10–15 min post-
123 surgery at the tagging location. Surgical procedures were carried out following approved

124 animal use protocols of Fisheries and Oceans Canada (FWI-ACC-2017-001) and the Uni-
125 versity of Nebraska-Lincoln (Project ID: 1208). The length, body mass, and sex (where
126 discernible) of the fish were recorded while tagging. By June 2018, 357 Walleye were tagged
127 (271 Females, 58 Males, and 28 unidentified).

128 Tagged fish were detected by a grid of Vemco VR2W acoustic receivers (47 in Section 1, 61
129 in Section 2, and 51 in Section 3) deployed near the bottom of Lake Winnipeg and its major
130 tributaries (Red River and Winnipeg river). In the rivers, distances between receivers varied
131 between 5 and 30 km. In the lake, the receivers were placed on a systematic grid varying
132 between 5 km in the southern part of the south basin and 7 km for the rest of the south basin
133 and narrows, and 14 km in the southern part of the north basin (Fig. 1). A feasibility study
134 on the receiver array can be found in Kraus et al. (2018). Under good acoustic conditions,
135 receivers detect the tag transmission up to 3 km and the probability of detecting a fish by a
136 receiver decreases the further a fish is from the receiver (Fig. 2).

137 **Classical approaches to movement path reconstruction**

138 The simplest approach to reconstruct fish movement paths is to calculate the average loca-
139 tions of the fish at regular time intervals with the weighted average method (Simpfendorfer
140 et al. 2002). For this approach, regular time bins are defined and the number of detections
141 counted for each receiver and each time bin. If $\{\bar{x}_{E,n}, \bar{x}_{N,n}\}$ is the average location (easting
142 and northing respectively) at the n^{th} time bin, then the average locations are obtained as

$$\bar{x}_{E,n} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^K R_{n,j} x_{E,j}}{\sum_{j=1}^K R_{n,j}}, \quad \bar{x}_{N,n} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^K R_{n,j} x_{N,j}}{\sum_{j=1}^K R_{n,j}}, \quad (1)$$

143 where $R_{n,j}$ is the number of detections recorded at the j^{th} receiver within the n^{th} time bin,
 144 and $(x_{E,j}, x_{N,j})$ is the location of the j^{th} receiver. K denotes the number of receivers in the
 145 array (Simpfendorfer et al. 2002).

146 Interpolation approaches such as local polynomial regression and kernel estimations (smooth-
 147 ing) can also be used to construct individual movement paths (Hedger et al. 2008). The idea
 148 of local polynomial regression is to estimate the underlying smooth function by fitting a
 149 series of linear least squares regressions locally. The smoothness of the estimated curve de-
 150 pends on how many neighboring observations are considered in each local regression, this
 151 is called the span (k). The selection of neighboring points is usually done symmetrically
 152 so that half of neighboring points are at each side of the target point. Friedman’s super
 153 smoother proposed by Friedman (1984) is an efficient algorithm, that uses a variable span
 154 approach with a locally changing span. The optimum local span at each prediction point is
 155 selected with cross-validation.

156 Kernel estimations is similar to local polynomial regression. In kernel estimations, the
 157 smoothing is done by calculating local averages while assigning different weights to the
 158 neighbors with a kernel. The well-known Gaussian kernel applies more weight to the points
 159 closer to the target point and the weights gradually decrease as the points are further away
 160 from the target. In their study, Hedger et al. (2008) identified the cross-validated local
 161 polynomial regression with Friedman’s super smoother (Friedman 1984) to be the optimum

162 interpolation method, and also recommended kernel estimation with the Gaussian kernel
163 over a box kernel to interpolate fish paths. In this paper, we used the ‘sm’ package (Bow-
164 man and Azzalini 2018) in ‘R’(R Core Team 2020) to implement the cross-validated local
165 polynomial regression and kernel estimations.

166 **Bayesian state-space models**

An SSM contains two sub-models; process model and observation model. This can be ex-
pressed as

$$\mathbf{x}_t = f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \epsilon_t), \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = g(\mathbf{x}_t, \eta_t), \quad (3)$$

167 where $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ represent the process model and the observation model, respectively.
168 Here, \mathbf{x}_t is called the latent state and \mathbf{y}_t is the observation of the state at time t . In the
169 context of fish movement modeling, \mathbf{x}_t represents the true position of the fish that can be
170 in latitude-longitude or Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) coordinates. \mathbf{y}_t represents
171 the observed position, which is usually subjected to errors. The errors associated with each
172 model are denoted by ϵ_t and η_t (Patterson et al. 2008).

173 Due to the complex nature of SSMs, analytical solutions for the parameters are usually
174 not feasible. One alternative is to use the Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
175 approach. In the MCMC approach, the initial values of the true position and the model
176 parameters are sequentially updated so that the values of the current step are updated con-
177 ditioning on the values of the previous step. The simulation is continued until the parameter

178 estimates converge (Patterson et al. 2008). One of the advantages of using the Bayesian
179 MCMC approach is the ability to incorporate past knowledge about parameters to the mod-
180 els through prior distributions (Jonsen et al. 2003). However, the Bayesian MCMC approach
181 can be very computationally intensive as the SSM becomes more complex.

182 **Constraining the paths**

183 When using SSMs to reconstruct fish paths, it is important to avoid biologically impossible
184 locations. Hence, we have to constrain the model so that the fish trajectory stays within
185 feasible habitats. In our case, the predicted path should remain in the lake or rivers inflow-
186 ing to the lake. Due to the limited functionality of Bayesian modeling programs such as
187 ‘BUGS’ and ‘JAGS’, constraining models is usually very problematic (Plummer et al. 2003;
188 Spiegelhalter et al. 2003). One of the solutions to this problem is the methodology known as
189 the “One’s trick” among the ‘BUGS’ and ‘JAGS’ community. “One’s trick” is usually used
190 to specify distributions that have not yet been implemented as a standard distribution in
191 those programs.

192 **Model selection**

193 The deviance information criterion (DIC) suggested by Spiegelhalter et al. (2002), is one
194 of the most widely used measures of predictive accuracy in Bayesian model selection. DIC
195 can be described as the Bayesian version of the Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Gelman
196 et al. 2014) that measures the complexity and fit of a model. One of the reasons for the
197 popularity of DIC is the computational convenience, since DIC is already incorporated into

198 the ‘BUGS’ and ‘JAGS’ packages (Plummer et al. 2003; Spiegelhalter et al. 2003).

199 **State space model implementation**

200 Six Walleye with visibly different behavioural patterns were chosen for the modeling among
201 the 100 inspected to test the methodology. Out of the selected fish, three stayed in the south
202 basin for the entire year and the other three migrated between the south and north basins.
203 The four female fish were larger in size than the two male fish (Table 1). The detection
204 records during the period of June 1st, 2017, to May 31st, 2018, were considered for the
205 movement path reconstruction to study the fish behaviour for the entire year. The detection
206 paths were constructed by connecting the subsequent receiver locations, where the fish was
207 detected (Fig. 3). Each point in Fig. 3 represents a detection, and the true location of the
208 fish can be anywhere within the detection range of the receiver.

209 The detection records in our data set are in irregular time intervals. Hence, we made them
210 regular by counting the number of detections recorded by each receiver within regular 3 h
211 time bins. Data pooled into 3 h bins reduced the computing burden, and enabled us to
212 estimate fish paths with enough resolution to study any behavioural changes within the day.

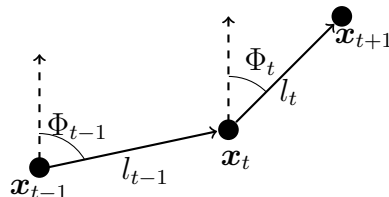
213 **The process model**

214 The simplest natural process model we can consider for fish movement is the random walk
215 based on continuous turning angles and step lengths. The true position of the fish (which
216 is unknown) at time t is given by $\mathbf{x}_t = \{x_{E,t}, x_{N,t}\}$, are in UTM coordinates. Since UTM
217 coordinates are in meters, it is convenience to calculate distances and areas using the UTM

218 coordinate system. The process model is given by

$$x_{E,t+1} = x_{E,t} + l_t \sin(\Phi_t), \quad (4)$$

$$x_{N,t+1} = x_{N,t} + l_t \cos(\Phi_t), \quad (5)$$



219 where l_t and Φ_t represent the step length and the turning angle at time t . We considered
 220 two scenarios for the distribution of l_t .

$$\text{Scenario 1: } l_t \sim N(\mu_l, 1/\tau_l), \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Scenario 2: } l_t \sim P\phi(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) + (1 - P)\phi(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2). \quad (7)$$

221 In Scenario 1, we considered the step lengths to arise from a single Gaussian distribution with
 222 parameters μ_l and τ_l , which represent the average step size and the precision (reciprocal of the
 223 variance) of the distribution of step size (l_t), respectively. The prior distribution for μ_l was
 224 set to be uniform and the prior for τ was set to be non-informative *Gamma*(0.1, 0.1) based
 225 on swimming performance information for Walleye by Peake et al. (2000). In the second
 226 scenario, l_t was assumed to follow a Gaussian mixture distribution. Here, $\phi(\cdot)$ denotes the
 227 Gaussian density and P defines the mixing probability, where μ_1 and μ_2 are the average
 228 step length sizes of the two mixing distributions and σ_1, σ_2 are the standard deviations of
 229 corresponding distributions. The ideology behind using the mixture distribution is that fish
 230 change their movement behaviour with two-step length distributions at any time step with
 231 the probability P . The prior distributions of μ_1 and μ_2 were set to be *Unif*(0, 9000). The
 232 prior for σ_1 and σ_2 were set to be *Unif*(0, 100000). The *Unif*(0, 1) was used as the prior
 233 for P . The values for the hyper-parameters of μ_1 and μ_2 were defined with the information
 234 in the literature (Peake et al. 2000). For both cases, the turning angle was assumed to be

235 uniformly distributed as below.

$$\Phi_t \sim Unif(-\pi, \pi). \quad (8)$$

236 The scenario, which resulted in the lowest DIC scores in the final model, was selected as the
237 best model.

238 **The observation model**

239 The second part of the SSM is the observational model, that describes the probability of
240 detection at each receiver at a given time. To model detection probabilities, we used several
241 non-linear functions which have been used in the literature for acoustic telemetry studies
242 (Clark 2016; How and de Lestang 2012). The functions that resulted in the best fit for the
243 observed data are given below. The distance from the true fish position to the j^{th} acoustic
244 receiver at step n is denoted by $d_{n,j}$ and $\pi_{n,j}$ is the detection probability at j^{th} acoustic
245 receiver at step n . Then, the detection probability was estimated with the following four
246 functions:

247 1. Logistic function

$$\log \left(\frac{\pi_{n,j}}{1 - \pi_{n,j}} \right) = \alpha_n + \beta_n d_{n,j}, \quad (9)$$

248 2. Probit function

$$\Phi^{-1}(\pi_{n,j}) = \alpha_n + \beta_n d_{n,j}, \text{ where } \Phi^{-1} \text{ is the inverse cumulative distribution function of the standard} \\ \text{distribution,} \quad (10)$$

249 3. Gaussian kernel function

$$\pi_{n,j} = p_0 \cdot e^{-d_{n,j}/2\sigma^2}, \quad \text{where } p_0 \text{ is the probability of detection at } d_{n,j} = 0, \quad (11)$$

250 4. Hazard function

$$\pi_{n,j} = p_0 - \exp\left(\frac{d_{n,j}}{\beta_1}\right)^{-\beta_2}. \quad (12)$$

251 The parameters of each model were estimated with the non-linear least squares approach
252 using data from a reference tag experiment in Lake Winnipeg. A line of reference tags was
253 placed in fixed locations with a spacing of 300 m between tags which extends to 3 km from
254 the receiver. The data were obtained under (1) open water and (2) ice-covered conditions
255 (November 9, 2017 to May 10, 2018). Each detection function was fitted for the two data
256 sets separately. Root mean squared error (RMSE), Akaike information criterion (AIC), and
257 Bayesian information criterion (BIC) were calculated for model comparison. The model
258 with minimum error criteria was selected as the observation model for the SSM. Instead of
259 estimating the observation model along with the process model of the SSM, we used the data
260 from the reference tag experiment to estimate the observation model to reduce the computer
261 burden and the variability in the parameter estimates.

262 **Credible intervals for the reconstructed SSM path**

263 The 95% credible intervals were obtained for estimated movement with the SSM approach.
264 Each of the lower bounds were constructed with the 2.5% percentile values of the posterior
265 distributions of x coordinates and y coordinates for the predicted location at each time bin.
266 The upper bounds were obtained similarly with the 97.5% percentile values of the corre-
267 sponding posterior distributions. Some path segments of the credible intervals constructed
268 in this manner fell outside the lake in the north basin and the narrows. This can be ex-
269 plained by how we defined the lower and upper credible intervals. Each of the lower bounds

270 were constructed with the 2.5% percentile values of the univariate posterior distributions
271 of x coordinates and y coordinates separately. Even though all the estimated locations in
272 MCMC simulation are constrained inside the lake, lower and upper paths constructed with
273 univariate percentiles can still fall outside the lake. Hence, the credible intervals at each
274 time step (n) were truncated at the lake boundary along a straight line from the average
275 location at time step t and the upper or lower bound that fell outside the lake. In addition,
276 to better understand the movements of each fish, a posterior density plot was created with
277 a sample of points from the posterior densities of fish locations at each time step.

278 **Model estimation**

279 Model estimation was conducted using the Bayesian MCMC approach with ‘JAGS’ in R
280 using the package ‘R2jags’ (Su and Yajima 2015). The “One’s Trick” was used inside the
281 model definition to truncate the conditional distributions at each time step to retain the
282 movement paths in water. To determine if the current location is on land or water, we
283 provided a habitat mask that has a 2 km resolution, which was defined in ‘R’ and then
284 provided to ‘JAGS’ (Meredith 2013). We then fitted the SSM, by keeping α_n and β_n values
285 fixed in (11). First 10,000 iterations were ignored as burn-in, and thinning was done by
286 selecting each 10th iteration to avoid possible autocorrelation in the converged series.

287 **Movement path analysis**

288 Once the fish movement paths were estimated, movement ecology metrics (step length, turn-
289 ing angle, path length, displacement, tortuosity, and residence time) were used to describe

290 them (Seidel et al. 2018). Step length describes the distance that fish traveled during each
291 consecutive locations, and the turning angle measures the difference in the two consecutive
292 headings (the direction). The path length is the total distance that fish traveled (or the sum
293 of step sizes). The distribution of step length and turning angle can be used to compare the
294 behavioural changes over time. Displacement measures the “straight-line distance” between
295 the first point and the last point of a fish movement path. Tortuosity measures the wiggli-
296 ness of the movement paths, that can be measured with either the straightness index or the
297 sinuosity index. The straightness index is used when the movement path is oriented, and
298 the sinuosity index is used otherwise (Benhamou 2004). Sinuosity index is defined as

$$\text{Sinuosity index} = \frac{\sigma_{\Phi}}{\sqrt{l}}, \quad (13)$$

299 where σ_{Φ} is the standard deviation of turning angles, and l is the constant step length. In
300 our reconstructed movement paths, the step lengths were random. Hence, we discretized
301 the trajectory with the ‘`adehabitatLT`’ package in ‘R’ (Calenge 2011) to obtain a trajectory
302 with a constant step size. The parameter σ_{Φ} was estimated with the standard deviation of
303 the turning angles of the estimated path. For each fish, the residence time was calculated
304 for three sections of the lake (Fig. 1).

305 **Simulation Study**

306 To evaluate the performance of the different modeling approaches in estimating the move-
307 ment paths, we performed a simulation study. The study area was assumed to be a rectangle
308 32 km wide and 120 km long. First, we simulated ten fish paths inside the study area for
309 30 d with 2 min time increments, which corresponds to the average transmission delay of

310 the ‘Vemco V16-4H’ acoustic transmitters. The receiver array for the simulation study was
311 designed to mimic the real receiver array with increasing distances between receivers from
312 south to north (Fig. 4). The array consists of 73 receivers in total with 42 receivers in the
313 south that are 5 km apart, 25 receivers in the middle 7 km apart, and 6 receivers in the
314 north 14 km apart. Also, we allowed an area with no receivers in the north. The detection
315 probabilities were determined by the logistic function with parameters estimated with data
316 from the reference tags representative of the ice-off period. Paths were estimated under nine
317 settings with combinations of the three time bins (3 h, 6 h, 12 h) and three different lengths
318 of tracking periods (10 d , 20 d, 30 d). The true simulated average paths were also obtained
319 for each time bin and tracking period, using true simulated paths. To evaluate the accuracy
320 of each reconstructed path, the root-mean-squared error between the true average path and
321 the reconstructed path was calculated for the total distance traveled and the tortuosity.

322 **Results**

323 **Simulation Study**

324 By visual inspection, we noticed that except for the paths reconstructed with cross-validated
325 local polynomial regression method, all other reconstruction paths gave satisfactory results in
326 estimating true paths (Fig. 5). Cross-validated local polynomial regression paths were over
327 smoothed and lost most of the true movement patterns. The weighted average paths and
328 the kernel smoothing paths appeared similar. Furthermore, the SSM approach reconstructed
329 some of the path segments even for the areas with no receivers. We observed that the SSM

330 method resulted in lower RMSE values of total distance except for Simulation 3 where the
331 bin size was the largest and the tracking period was the lowest (Table 2). Also, the SSM
332 approach gave lower RMSE values for tortuosity for a longer tracking period with lower bin
333 sizes. In addition, we calculated the residence times for all movement paths under each
334 simulation setting with respect to three sections in the study area (Table 3). However,
335 except for the cross-validated local polynomial regression, all the reconstruction methods
336 estimated the true residence time accurately in almost all cases. In most cases, the SSM
337 method resulted in slightly lower RMSE values for residence time than the simple weighted
338 average and kernel smoothing methods.

339 **Movement path reconstruction**

340 The estimated detection curves with logistic and probit functions were almost identical (Fig.
341 2) with the lowest errors (Table 4). Hence, we selected the logit model as the detection
342 function for the state space model.

343 For “Wall-001” and “Wall-007”, the model with mixture step length distribution (Scenario
344 2) gave lower DIC scores while other fish paths favour the model having step lengths with a
345 normal distribution (Scenario 1). Hence, in the proceeding sections, for each fish, the SSM
346 path refers to the reconstructed paths with the SSM approach using the best scenario that
347 resulted in the minimum DIC (Table 5).

348 For all fish, the weighted average paths constructed with 3 h time bins and the kernel
349 smoothing paths with 3 h bandwidth, appeared almost identical (Fig. 6, Fig. 7). Cross-

350 validated local polynomial regression paths were most smoothed, and do not provide any
351 insight about the individual movement paths. Furthermore, all three smoothing methods
352 predicted some path sections on land, which is unfavorable. However, the SSM approach
353 resulted in movement paths that were constrained within the lake except for few path seg-
354 ments through islands and narrows. It is important to note that the SSM path is an average
355 path that was constructed by connecting the means of the univariate posterior distributions
356 of x coordinates and y coordinates at each time bin. Hence, when the simulated points at a
357 certain time step are distributed around an island or an edge, the average of the posterior
358 distribution can fall on the island.

359 In the lower part of the south basin of the lake, where the resolution of the grid of receivers
360 is high, the 95% credible intervals for the SSM path did not deviate much from the average
361 path (Fig.s 8 and Fig. 9). However, in the narrows and the north basin, the predicted paths
362 were unstable and subject to high variation due to the low resolution of the receiver array. In
363 some cases, we noticed that the posterior density around certain points was lower than their
364 neighboring area. This can be seen as some light dots in the middle of dark areas (Fig.s 8
365 and Fig. 9). This occurred around some receivers, which did not detect the fish for a certain
366 period of time. In this case, the Markov chain avoided simulating fish positions near those
367 receivers.

368 **Movement path analysis**

369 The metrics for the weighted average paths and the kernel smoothing paths were very similar
370 (Table 6 and Table 7). Due to the highly smoothed nature of the cross-validated local

371 polynomial regression method, the metrics of those paths differed significantly from the SSM
372 paths and other smoothed paths. It gives lower path lengths and tortuosity values than the
373 other methods. For some fish, the path lengths for the SSM models were considerably larger
374 than the path lengths for other smoothing approaches. Except for the cross-validated local
375 polynomial regression approach, tortuosity values and residence times for all the approaches
376 were similar (Table 6 and Table 7).

377 When there was no detection for a certain period or the fish was continuously detected by
378 the same receiver for an extended period, the weighted mean method and other smoothing
379 approaches failed to predict any fish movements. For the entire period that the fish was
380 unobserved, the estimated step lengths was zero and there was no any information on turning
381 angles. However, the SSM approach predicted some fish movements even when there was no
382 detection. This was clearly visible in the reconstructed paths for “Wall-001” (Fig. 6). The
383 SSM approach showed three path segments between the Hecla and Gimli area while other
384 approaches predicted a single path. When fish moved north, it was detected by receivers
385 and all the reconstructed approaches were able to estimate the path segment. Once the fish
386 returned to the Gimli region, it was undetected for about two months in the winter. Hence,
387 the smoothing approaches failed to estimate the path. However, the SSM approach still
388 predicted a probable path segment based on the process model by borrowing information
389 across regions.

390 In the case that the fish was detected by the same receiver for an extended period, the
391 SSM approach did not assume that the fish stayed still as the smoothing methods do, and it
392 predicted small movements around the receiver based on the underlying process model. This

393 property allowed the SSM approach to produce more realistic paths that resulted in higher
394 path lengths. This was clearly noticeable for the fish that migrated to the north basin where
395 the receiver density was lower.

396 **Discussion**

397 We reconstructed movement paths of tagged Walleye using detection records from the grid
398 of acoustic receivers and analyzing the data by applying different classical smoothing tech-
399 niques and Bayesian SSMs. In the SSM approach, we used a simple random walk model
400 with normally distributed step lengths, and a Gaussian mixture to account for complex be-
401 havioural changes in fish movements (behavioural states) over time. Using DIC criteria,
402 we selected the best SSM model for each fish. All the smoothing methods predicted some
403 path sections on land while the estimated SSM paths were well constrained within the lake.
404 The SSM approach also estimated the unobserved fish movement paths to some extent even
405 with missing detections for a few weeks or portions of the north basin with no receivers, by
406 borrowing information from data-rich regions. This is not possible with classical smoothing
407 techniques. Also, for SSMs, we incorporated available prior knowledge such as information
408 on detection probabilities including temporal changes and swimming speed, to define suit-
409 able prior distributions and their parameters. Through simulation studies, we confirmed that
410 the SSM approach can estimate ecological movement metrics with slightly better accuracy
411 than the classical approaches, especially when using smaller time bins and longer tracking
412 periods.

413 The presented SSM can easily be modified with different process models. If the fish move-

414 ment paths show persistence in the movement direction, rather than using uniform turning
415 angles, it is better to use wrapped normal, wrapped Cauchy, or Von Mises distribution with
416 zero expectation (Codling et al. 2008) as the distribution of turning angles. Before settling
417 with the process models that we presented in this paper, we explored the possibility of using
418 more complex movement models such as the OU process, that accounts for any attraction
419 towards spatially varying local home range centers following the work by Alós et al. (2016).
420 However, the reconstructed paths showed a huge attraction towards the home range centers,
421 that could not be justified by Walleye biology. Also, the large number of parameters in the
422 OU process-based model caused a significantly higher computing burden in the estimation
423 process compared to the random walk based model. When fish paths show different move-
424 ment behaviour patterns (behavioural states) at different times, the multi-state random walk
425 model suggested by Nicosia et al. (2017) may be a potential alternative to the Alós et al.
426 (2016) approach.

427 Hostetter and Royle (2020) presented a similar framework to the SSM approach to estimate
428 animal locations using acoustic telemetry data with the assistance of a simple Gaussian
429 Markov process model and an observation model that was estimated with observed data.
430 However, estimating the observation model inside the SSM framework would add an ad-
431 ditional computing burden and might result in convergence issues. Hence, we recommend
432 estimating the detection functions using a reference tag experiment whenever possible. The
433 frameworks presented by Alós et al. (2016), Breed et al. (2017), Pedersen and Weng (2013),
434 and Hostetter and Royle (2020) seem to work well for small scale systematic acoustic teleme-
435 try studies that monitor a small region (i.e., a few km²) with a few receivers with overlapping

436 detection ranges. For large-scale movement tracking where the receiver grid has been spread
437 over a large area (i.e., hundreds or thousands of km²) non-uniformly with non-overlapping
438 detection ranges, the use of complex models such as SSMs is challenging. In our study, using
439 real data from a large-scale telemetry study and through a comprehensive simulation study,
440 we compared the performance of classical approaches and the SSM approach in predicting
441 unobserved fish movements. Furthermore, none of the aforementioned papers provided a
442 framework to constrain the reconstructed paths inside the plausible area. In this paper, we
443 illustrated how to constrain the the reconstructed paths with widely used Bayesian MCMC
444 sampler JAGS to maintain the model inside a complex shaped habitat.

445 The main limitation of the SSM approach is the high computing burden. For instance, to
446 fit a model for a single Walleye with the Bayesian MCMC approach, it took around nine
447 hours on Compute Canada Béluga computer facility (CPUs: Intel Gold 6148 Skylake @ 2.4
448 GHz). Hence, one has to maintain a trade-off among multiple factors including the model
449 complexity, tracking period, time frequency, and computing burden. Due to these reasons,
450 we had to limit our simulation study to a few settings with fewer time steps. Another issue
451 with modeling Walleye movement paths with our data was the high uncertainty of the paths
452 for the regions where the resolution of the acoustic grid was lower. However, due to cost
453 and other practical concerns, maintaining a higher resolution throughout a large water body
454 such as Lake Winnipeg is difficult.

455 Reconstructed paths can be used to answer important questions related to Walleye in Lake
456 Winnipeg. For instance, do the fish that migrate to north basin move differently than fish
457 that stay in the south basin? If they move differently, is this putting a portion of the

458 population at risk relative to the other fish? For example, a Walleye that occupies the
459 area along the shore is at higher risk due to commercial and recreational fishing activities
460 compared to a fish that occupies off-shore area. Also, those fish that travel longer distances
461 have a higher chance to encounter a fishing net than the fish that travels less.

462 Finally, we conclude that SSM is a powerful, yet, sophisticated and computer-intensive tool
463 that can be used to better understand acoustic telemetry data. In addition to the better
464 accuracy in predicting unobserved animal paths, another advantage of using SSMs over
465 smoothing methods is that its ability to quantify the uncertainty associated with estimated
466 animal movement paths. However, classical smoothing methods are still useful to have quick
467 but comparatively accurate estimates for animal movement paths using acoustic telemetry
468 data.

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Table 1: Biological information of the the six Walleye selected for testing the modeling approach for the movement path reconstruction.

| Fish ID | Gender | Body mass (kg) | Fork length (mm) | No. of detections |
|----------|--------|----------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Wall-001 | Male | 2.25 | 572 | 60 940 |
| Wall-004 | Female | 3.80 | 678 | 63 828 |
| Wall-006 | Female | 3.55 | 630 | 35 940 |
| Wall-007 | Male | 1.45 | 519 | 58 030 |
| Wall-010 | Female | 3.30 | 640 | 68 015 |
| Wall-032 | Female | 5.15 | 711 | 30 776 |

Table 2: RMSE values of path lengths and tortuosity for simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LPR), and the state-space modelling approach (SSM) under different simulation settings.

| Simulation | Number of days | Bin size (hrs) | RMSE - Path length (km) | | | | RMSE - Tortuosity | | | |
|------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------|--------|--------|--------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | WA | LPR | KS | SSM | WA | LPR | KS | SSM |
| 1 | 10 | 3 | 0.0390 | 0.1175 | 0.1094 | 0.0481 | 55.82 | 204.53 | 97.11 | 51.70 |
| 2 | 10 | 6 | 0.0417 | 0.1015 | 0.0426 | 0.0353 | 28.08 | 98.22 | 59.99 | 24.60 |
| 3 | 10 | 12 | 0.0382 | 0.0783 | 0.0782 | 0.0563 | 10.79 | 33.97 | 42.54 | 17.83 |
| 4 | 20 | 3 | 0.0571 | 0.1857 | 0.0674 | 0.0519 | 177.45 | 541.90 | 218.95 | 168.54 |
| 5 | 20 | 6 | 0.0483 | 0.1418 | 0.0623 | 0.0396 | 96.70 | 299.41 | 137.36 | 88.42 |
| 6 | 20 | 12 | 0.0388 | 0.0938 | 0.0435 | 0.0365 | 62.78 | 144.55 | 109.62 | 59.31 |
| 7 | 30 | 3 | 0.0631 | 0.2229 | 0.0720 | 0.0450 | 312.18 | 888.72 | 376.12 | 271.20 |
| 8 | 30 | 6 | 0.0433 | 0.1633 | 0.0688 | 0.0421 | 187.38 | 526.76 | 242.32 | 158.06 |
| 9 | 30 | 12 | 0.0310 | 0.1223 | 0.0265 | 0.0330 | 117.22 | 291.84 | 170.55 | 100.97 |

Table 3: RMSE values of residence time (as a proportion of the total time) at three sections of the study area for simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LPR), and the state-space modelling approach (SSM) under different simulation settings.

| Simulation | No of days | Bin size (h) | Section 1 ($Y < 40$ km) | | | | Section 2 ($40 \text{ km} < Y < 80$ km) | | | | Section 3 ($Y > 80$ km) | | | |
|------------|------------|--------------|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--|--------|--------|--------|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | WA | LPR | KS | SSM | WA | LPR | KS | SSM | WA | LPR | KS | SSM |
| 1 | 10 | 3 | 0.0438 | 0.0333 | 0.0387 | 0.0181 | 0.0444 | 0.0505 | 0.0397 | 0.0240 | 0.0040 | 0.0373 | 0.0125 | 0.0158 |
| 2 | 10 | 6 | 0.0306 | 0.0296 | 0.0512 | 0.0250 | 0.0345 | 0.0518 | 0.0530 | 0.0306 | 0.0158 | 0.0426 | 0.0177 | 0.0177 |
| 3 | 10 | 12 | 0.0224 | 0.0158 | 0.0316 | 0.0224 | 0.0224 | 0.0387 | 0.0316 | 0.0224 | 0.0000 | 0.0354 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 4 | 20 | 3 | 0.0276 | 0.0262 | 0.0243 | 0.0128 | 0.0307 | 0.0926 | 0.0270 | 0.0140 | 0.0114 | 0.1719 | 0.1484 | 0.0084 |
| 5 | 20 | 6 | 0.0153 | 0.0250 | 0.0377 | 0.0158 | 0.0271 | 0.0980 | 0.0458 | 0.0227 | 0.0224 | 0.1738 | 0.1476 | 0.0163 |
| 6 | 20 | 12 | 0.0079 | 0.0158 | 0.0418 | 0.0112 | 0.0137 | 0.0829 | 0.0447 | 0.0158 | 0.0112 | 0.1622 | 0.1510 | 0.0112 |
| 7 | 30 | 3 | 0.0310 | 0.0385 | 0.0301 | 0.0062 | 0.0412 | 0.0605 | 0.0336 | 0.0113 | 0.0215 | 0.1560 | 0.1416 | 0.0116 |
| 8 | 30 | 6 | 0.0179 | 0.0401 | 0.0387 | 0.0149 | 0.0376 | 0.0681 | 0.0465 | 0.0269 | 0.0300 | 0.1578 | 0.1425 | 0.0220 |
| 9 | 30 | 12 | 0.0118 | 0.0253 | 0.0435 | 0.0118 | 0.0269 | 0.0503 | 0.0447 | 0.0204 | 0.0242 | 0.1528 | 0.1442 | 0.0167 |

Table 4: The error measurements for different detection functions.

| Model | Open water | | | Ice Covered | | |
|-----------------|------------|--------|--------|-------------|--------|--------|
| | RMSE | AIC | BIC | RMSE | AIC | BIC |
| Logit | 0.0338 | -33.38 | -32.47 | 0.0932 | -13.07 | -12.16 |
| Probit | 0.0340 | -33.23 | -32.32 | 0.0918 | -13.39 | -12.49 |
| Gaussian kernel | 0.0351 | -32.63 | -31.73 | 0.0977 | -12.14 | -11.23 |
| Hazard | 0.0362 | -29.97 | -28.76 | 0.0975 | -10.18 | -8.97 |

Table 5: DIC scores for fitted models. For each fish, model with the lower DIC was selected as the best SSM (marked with *) to reconstruct the movement paths. Δ DIC is the difference in the DIC scores for the models under two scenarios.

| Fish ID | Wall-001 | Wall-004 | Wall-006 | Wall-007 | Wall-010 | Wall-032 |
|--------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Scenario 1 | 92954.2 | *110287.0 | *35757.0 | 134017.6 | *90910.9 | *42822.5 |
| Scenario 2 | *92948.5 | 110355.2 | 35878.2 | *134011.6 | 91125.2 | 42902.5 |
| Δ DIC | 5.7 | 68.2 | 121.2 | 6.0 | 214.3 | 80.0 |

Table 6: Path lengths and tortuosity for simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LR), and the state-space modelling approach (SSM) for six selected Walleye.

| Fish ID | Path length (km) | | | | Tortuosity | | | |
|----------|------------------|-----|-------|-------|------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | WA | LR | KS | SSM | WA | LR | KS | SSM |
| Wall-001 | 1,336 | 343 | 1,305 | 1,643 | 0.0175 | 0.0082 | 0.0163 | 0.0167 |
| Wall-004 | 1,724 | 194 | 1,691 | 1,592 | 0.0213 | 0.0140 | 0.0211 | 0.0209 |
| Wall-006 | 1,417 | 405 | 1,437 | 1,620 | 0.0175 | 0.0105 | 0.0184 | 0.0168 |
| Wall-007 | 1,688 | 231 | 1,688 | 1,668 | 0.0203 | 0.0111 | 0.0206 | 0.0217 |
| Wall-010 | 1,550 | 191 | 1,583 | 1,549 | 0.0225 | 0.0181 | 0.0227 | 0.0221 |
| Wall-032 | 1,370 | 419 | 1,376 | 1,752 | 0.0192 | 0.0113 | 0.0189 | 0.0186 |

Table 7: Residence time (as a proportion of the total time) at three sections of the lake for simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LR), and the state-space modelling approach (SSM) for six selected Walleye.

| Fish ID | Section 1 | | | | Section 2 | | | | Section 3 | | | |
|----------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|-----------|--------|--------|--------|
| | WA | LR | KS | SSM | WA | LR | KS | SSM | WA | LR | KS | SSM |
| Wall-001 | 0.1083 | 0.0902 | 0.1083 | 0.1086 | 0.5489 | 0.5645 | 0.5482 | 0.5475 | 0.3428 | 0.3452 | 0.3435 | 0.3439 |
| Wall-004 | 0.3326 | 0.3646 | 0.3428 | 0.3435 | 0.6674 | 0.6354 | 0.6572 | 0.6565 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Wall-006 | 0.4921 | 0.4959 | 0.4928 | 0.4948 | 0.2717 | 0.2631 | 0.271 | 0.2672 | 0.2362 | 0.241 | 0.2362 | 0.2379 |
| Wall-007 | 0.099 | 0.0983 | 0.1069 | 0.1089 | 0.901 | 0.9017 | 0.8931 | 0.8911 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Wall-010 | 0.0354 | 0.0079 | 0.0354 | 0.0347 | 0.8863 | 0.9763 | 0.886 | 0.886 | 0.0783 | 0.0158 | 0.0786 | 0.0793 |
| Wall-032 | 0.5943 | 0.5836 | 0.5957 | 0.5967 | 0.2425 | 0.2734 | 0.2418 | 0.2401 | 0.1632 | 0.1429 | 0.1625 | 0.1632 |

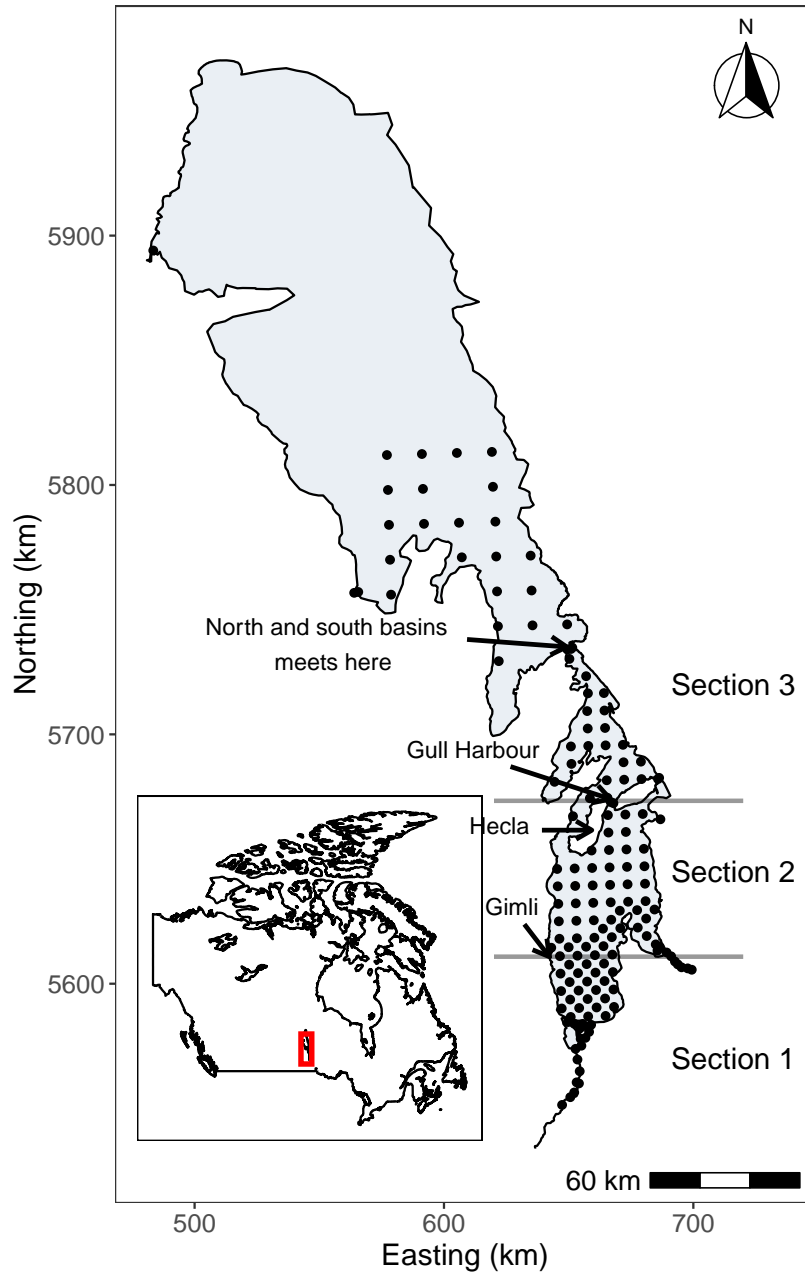
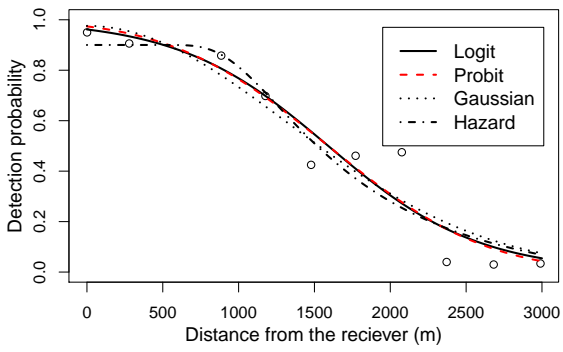
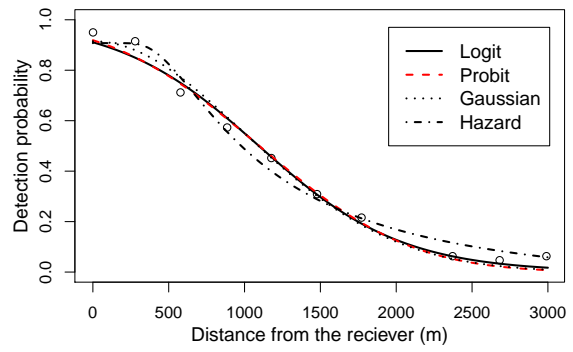


Figure 1: Lake Winnipeg and the locations of the acoustic receivers indicated by ‘•’. The study area was divided into three sections. Section 1 is the area south of Gimli, Section 2 is the area between Gimli and Gull Harbour, and Section 3 is the area north of Gull Harbour. Map was made using R with ggplot2.



(a) Ice covered.



(b) Open water.

Figure 2: Detection data and estimated detection functions. The curves were estimated separately for open-water data and ice-covered data.

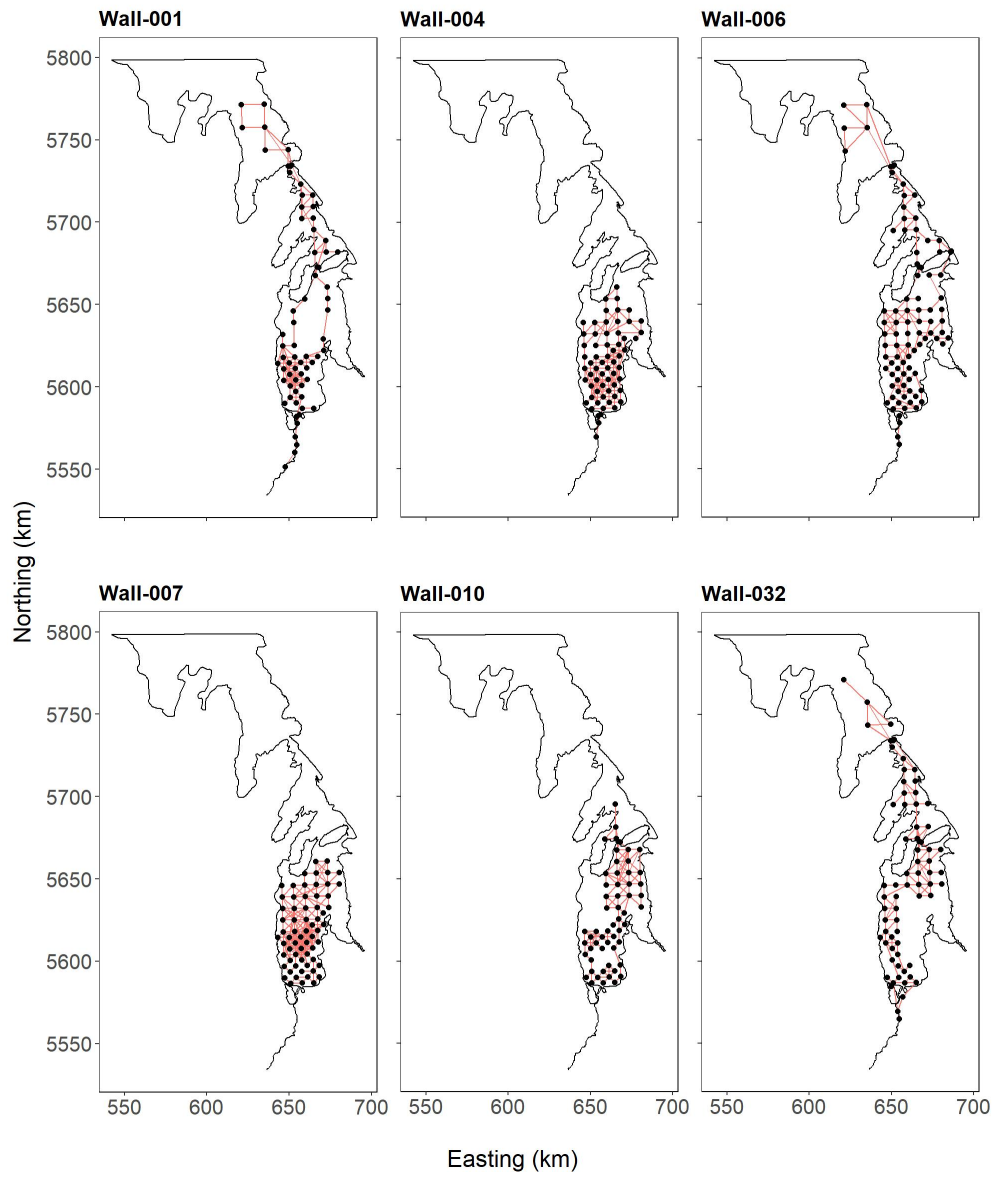


Figure 3: Detection paths for six selected Walleye that were constructed by connecting the consecutive receiver locations where fish were detected. Maps were made using R with ggplot2.

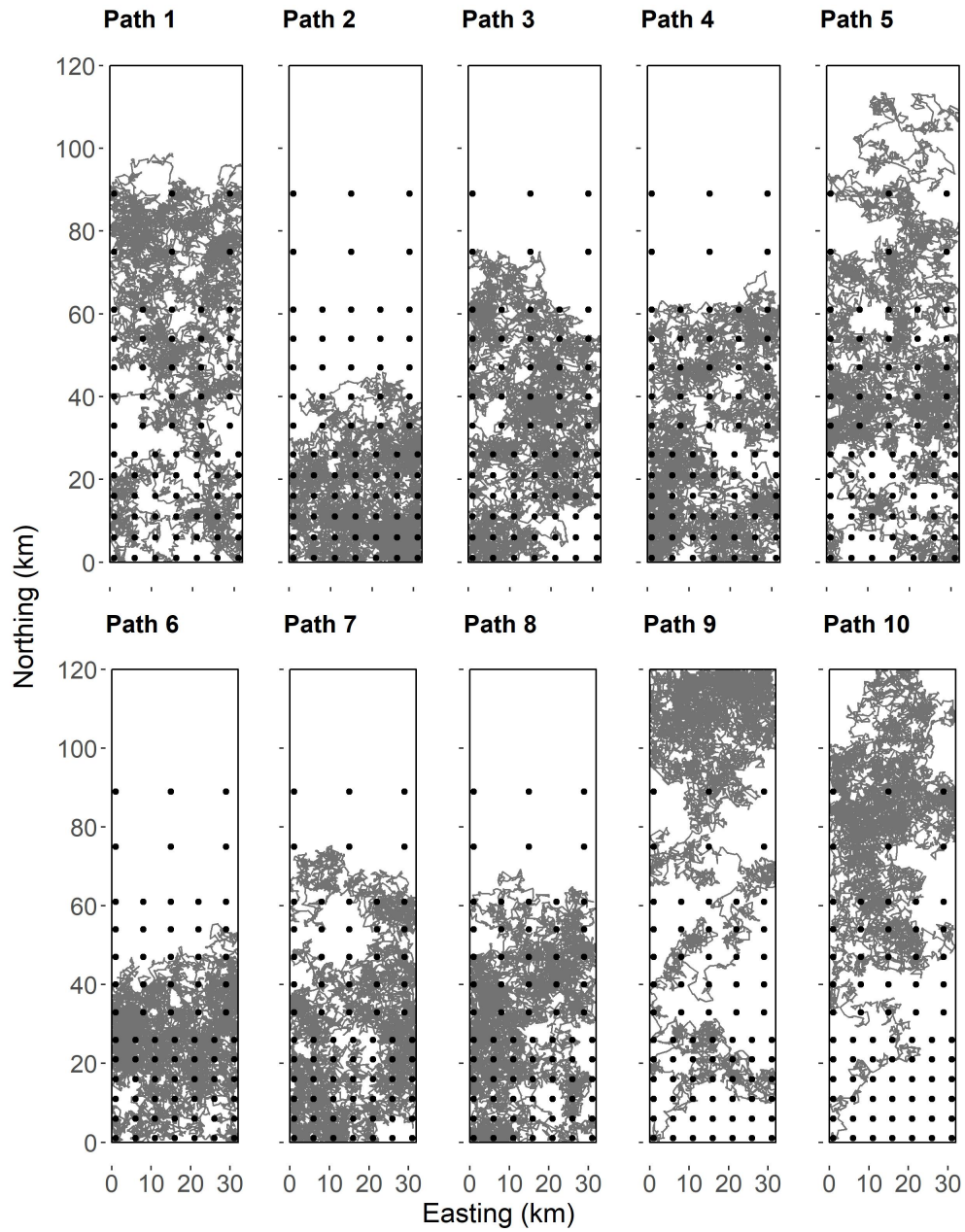


Figure 4: Simulated trajectories for 30 d with 2 min time increments. The receiver locations are denoted by ‘•’. The spacing between the receivers changes from the bottom to top (4 km, 7 km, and 14 km).

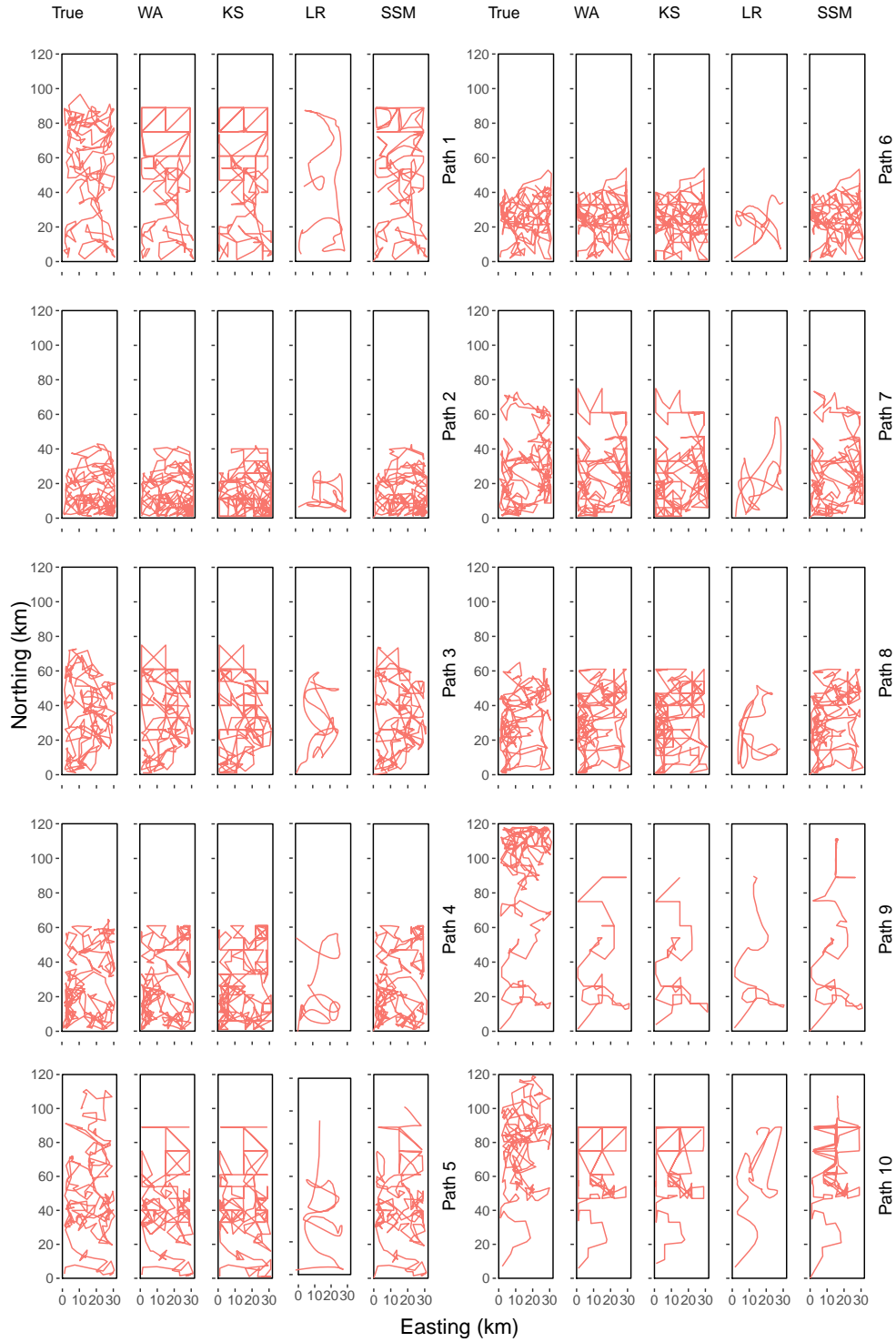


Figure 5: The true average path using 3 h time bins (True), reconstructed movement paths with the simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LR), and the state-space modeling approach (SSM) for Simulation 7 (time bin = 3 h and tracking period = 30 d).

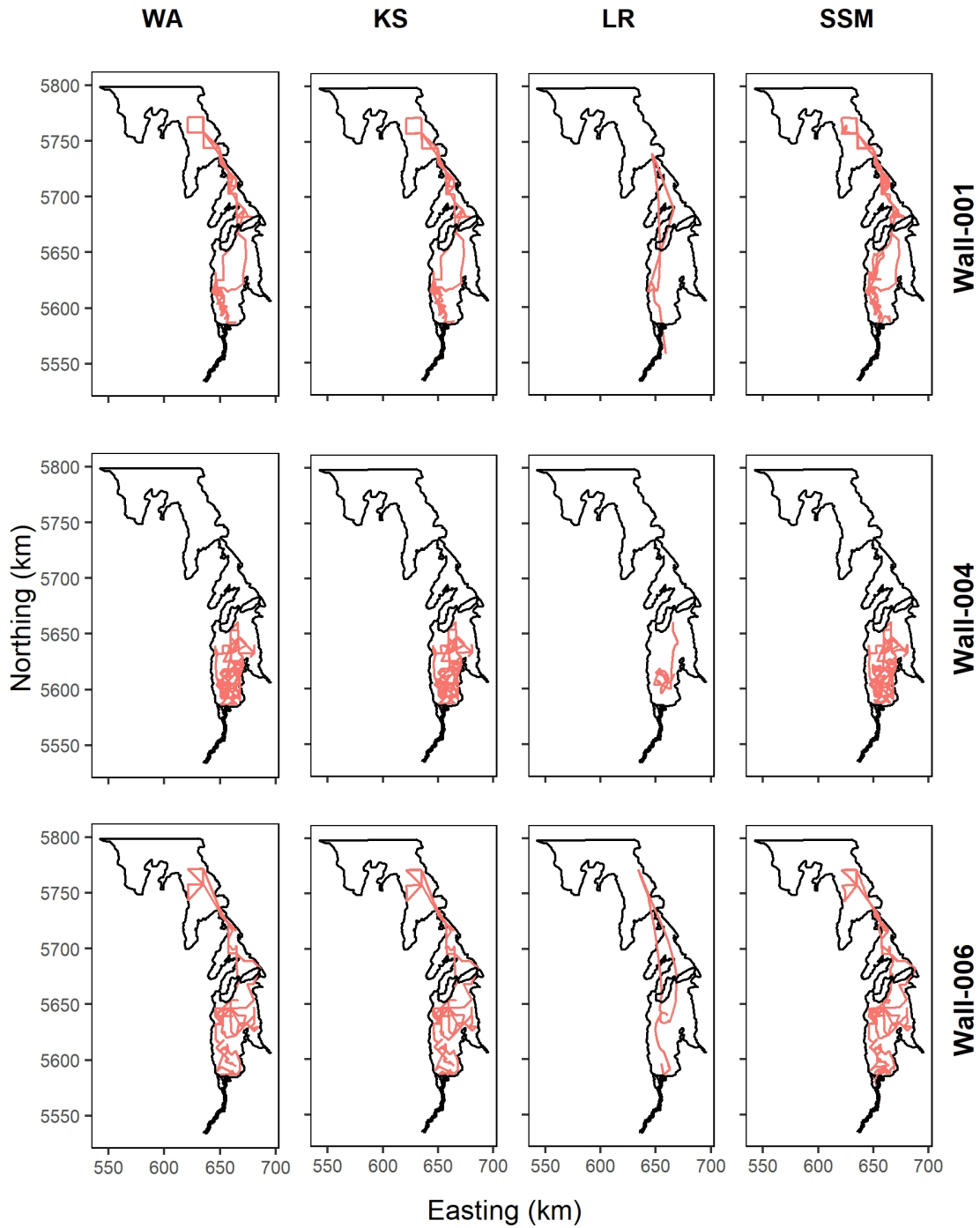


Figure 6: Reconstructed movement paths with the simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LR), and the state-space modeling approach (SSM) for the fish “Wall-001”, “Wall-004”, and “Wall-006”. Maps were made using R with ggplot2.

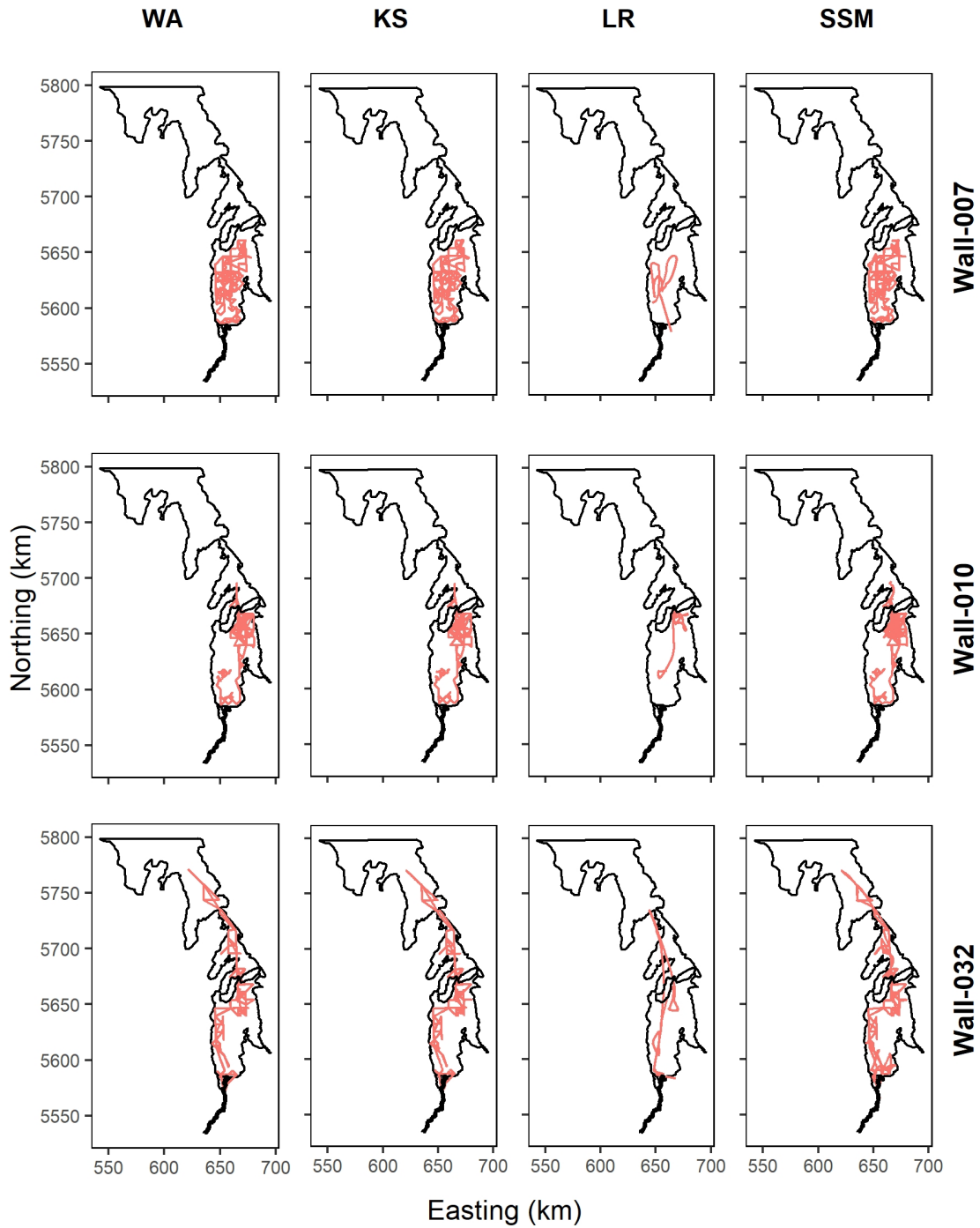


Figure 7: Reconstructed movement paths with the simple weighted average method (WA), kernel smoothing with the Gaussian kernel (KS), cross-validated local polynomial regression approach (LR), and the state-space modeling approach (SSM) for the fish “Wall-007”, “Wall-010”, and “Wall-032”. Maps were made using R with ggplot2.

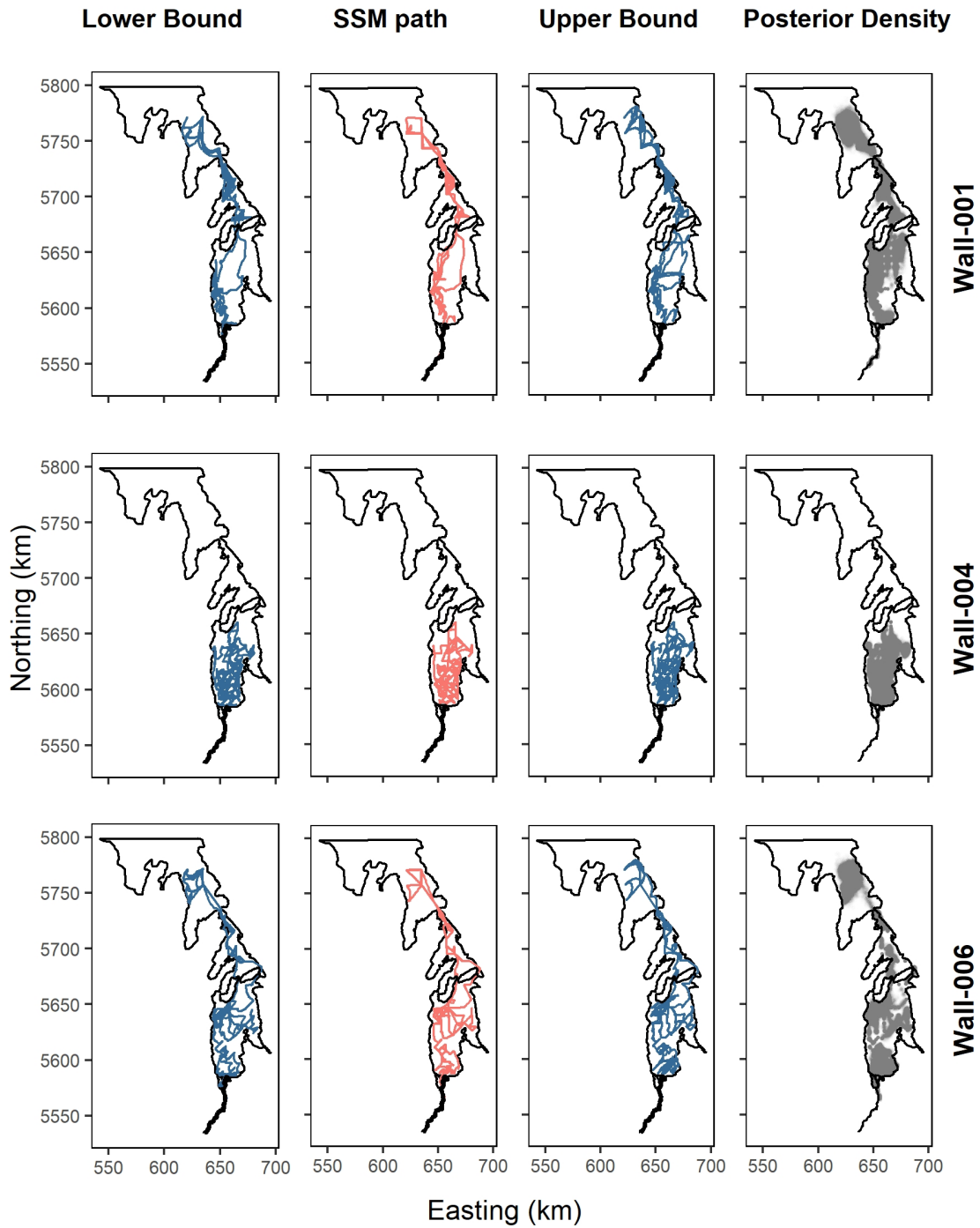


Figure 8: 95% credible paths and posterior density plots for the paths reconstructed with the SSM approach for the fish indexed “Wall-001”, “Wall-004”, and “Wall-006”. Map made using R with ggplot2. Maps were made using R with ggplot2.

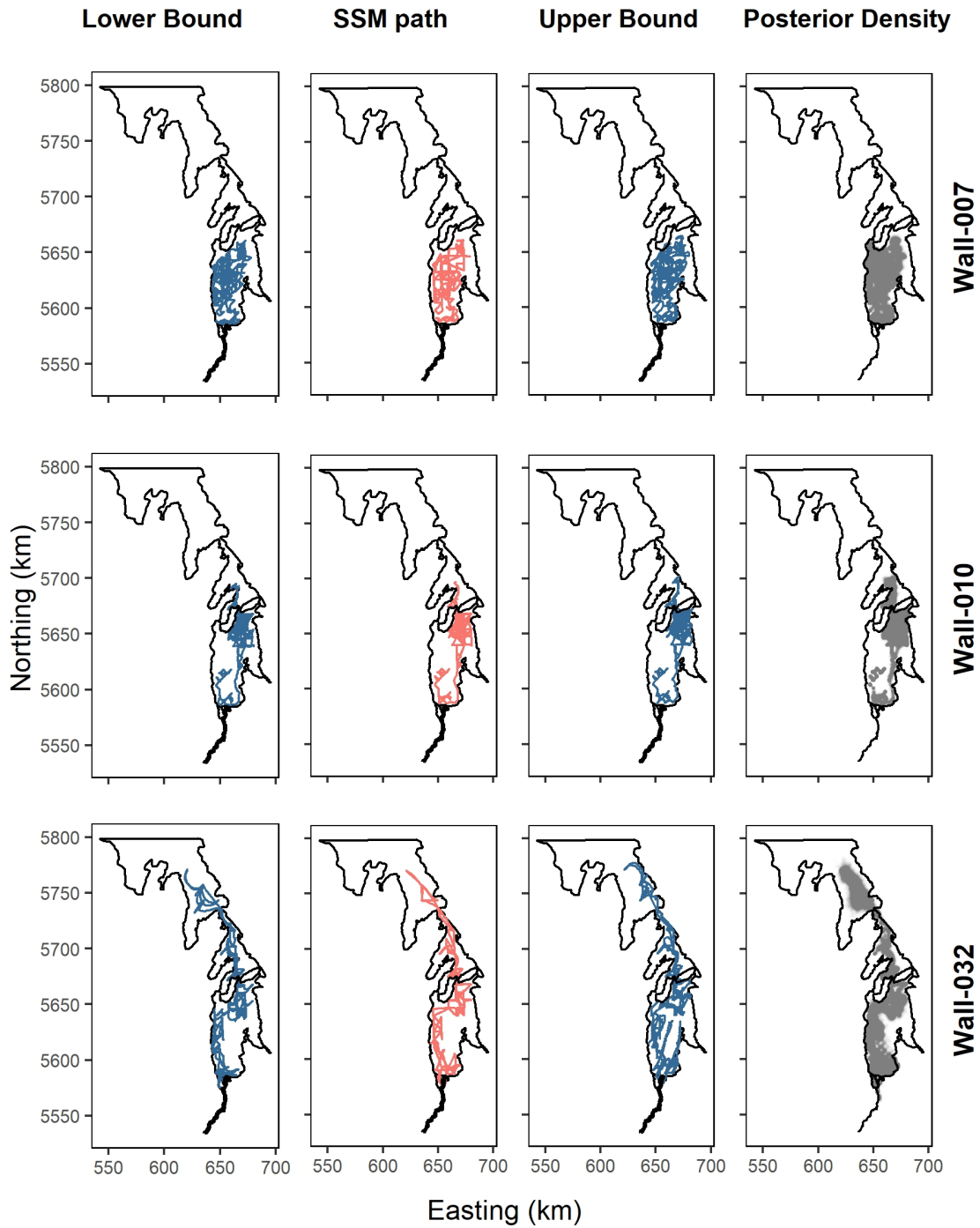


Figure 9: 95% credible paths and posterior density plots for the paths reconstructed with the SSM approach for the fish indexed “Wall-007”, “Wall-010”, and “Wall-032”. Maps were made using R with ggplot2.