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The Freshwater Sounds Archive

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52 monitoring.

53 **Abstract**

54 *Freshwater ecosystems are full of underwater sounds produced by amphibians, aquatic arthropods,*
55 *reptiles, plants, fishes, and methane bubbles escaping from the sediment. Although much headway*
56 *has been made in recent years investigating the overall soundscapes of various freshwater*
57 *ecosystems around the world, there remains a significant knowledge gap in our collective inability to*
58 *accurately and reliably link recorded sounds with the species that produced them. Here, we present*
59 *The Freshwater Sounds Archive, a new global initiative, which seeks to address this knowledge gap*
60 *by collating species-specific freshwater sound recordings into a publicly available database. By*
61 *means of metadata collection, we also present a snapshot of the species studied, the recording*
62 *equipment, and recording parameters used by freshwater ecoacousticians globally. In total, 61 entries*

63 *were submitted to the archive between the 4th of March 2023 and the 30th of April 2025, representing*
64 *16 countries and 6 continents. The most numerous taxonomic group was arthropods (29 entries),*
65 *followed by fishes (14 entries), amphibians (10 entries), macrophytes (7 entries), and a freshwater*
66 *mollusk (1 entry). The majority of the submissions were from European countries (27 entries), of*
67 *which the United Kingdom was the most represented with 14 entries. The next most represented*
68 *region was North America (11 entries), followed by South America (8 entries), Oceania and Asia (5*
69 *entries each), Africa (3 entries), and the Middle East and Central America with 1 entry each. The*
70 *global south, polar regions, and areas with an elevation >500 m (asl) were underrepresented. The*
71 *field of freshwater ecoacoustics to date has largely focused on the analysis of 'sound types' due to a*
72 *current lack of knowledge of species-specific sounds. The Freshwater Sounds Archive presents an*
73 *opportunity to move beyond the 'sound type' approach, and towards an approach with higher*
74 *taxonomic resolution, ultimately resulting in species-specific descriptions. Furthermore, The*
75 *Freshwater Sounds Archive will provide freshwater ecoacousticians with one of the main tools*
76 *required to start creating annotated training datasets for machine learning models from soundscape*
77 *recordings by referring to known species sounds present in the archive. In the long-term, this will*
78 *result in the automatic detection and classification of species-specific freshwater sounds from*
79 *soundscape recordings, such as indicator, invasive, and endangered species.*

80 **Introduction**

81 Previous research has shown that freshwater ecosystems are full of underwater sounds
82 produced by amphibians, aquatic arthropods, (semi)aquatic mammals, reptiles, plants, fish,
83 and methane bubbles escaping from the sediment (Decker et al., 2020; Desjonquères et al.,
84 2019; Gottesman et al., 2020; Greenhalgh et al., 2020; 2021; 2023; Linke et al., 2018;
85 Marian et al., 2021; Putland et al., 2020; Rountree et al 2019; te Velde et al., 2024). The
86 soundscape, or all the sounds in an environment, comprises a combination of different
87 sound sources: sounds produced by biological (biophony), sounds produced by climatic
88 conditions (geophony), and sounds produced by humans (anthrophony) (Pijanowski et al.,
89 2011; Rountree et al., 2020).

90 Although much headway has been made in recent years investigating the overall
91 soundscapes of various freshwater ecosystems around the world, there remains a significant
92 knowledge gap in our collective ability to accurately and reliably link recorded sounds with
93 the species that produced them. The need for an archive of freshwater species-specific
94 sounds has been identified by many authors (Linke et al., 2018; Gottesman et al, 2018;
95 Greenhalgh et al., 2021). To address the current lack of a biological sound archive
96 specifically dedicated to underwater sounds produced by freshwater species, here we
97 present The Freshwater Sounds Archive (<https://fishsounds.net/freshwater.js>). The
98 Freshwater Sounds Archive initiative will collate sound recordings from around the world and
99 provide opportunities for researchers, particularly from countries with little or no current

100 representation within the freshwater ecoacoustics literature, to collaborate and form
101 networks with other researchers working in a diversity of freshwater ecosystems. These
102 collaborations will help facilitate the adoption of freshwater ecoacoustics as an effective
103 survey method more broadly within conservation biology and environmental management.

104 Central to the ability to understand sounds generated by the natural world is the
105 documentation and cataloguing of sounds produced by animals, plants, and methane
106 bubbles associated with decompositional processes. As such, the establishment and
107 maintenance of biological sound archives is an integral part of deriving ecologically
108 meaningful conclusions from large acoustic datasets. Since the creation of the Macaulay
109 Library (<https://www.macaulaylibrary.org/>) by Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, in 1929—
110 which is primarily dedicated to the cataloguing of bird sounds—many other biological sound
111 libraries have been established encompassing a wide array of ecosystems and species,
112 such as marine mammals in ocean environments (<https://dosits.org/>), bats in temperate
113 woodlands (<https://www.bats.org.uk/resources/sound-library>), and frogs in tropical
114 rainforests (https://www.fonozoo.com/index_eng.php) (Greenhalgh et al., 2024). Cataloguing
115 species-specific sounds is essential if ecoacoustics is to be used in future biodiversity
116 assessments alongside other conventional methodologies used to survey freshwater
117 environments.

118 Conventionally, the ecological status of freshwater ecosystems is derived by monitoring
119 aquatic species indicative of specific environmental conditions due to variations in their
120 abundance, presence, or absence along an environmental gradient (Bal et al., 2018). In fact,
121 multiple indices can be used, such as the Whalley, Hawkes, Paisley & Trigg (WHPT) index
122 (Paisley et al., 2014), that scores aquatic invertebrates based on their preferences for
123 varying habitat and water qualities to infer ecological status to meet legal environmental
124 monitoring requirements, such as the Water Framework Directive (Directive 2000/60/EC,
125 2003). Monitoring freshwater species using conventional methods is labour-intensive,
126 invasive, and expensive (Greenhalgh et al., 2020). Consequently, this limits the number of
127 sites that can be surveyed, and there is a bias towards excluding hard-to-access sites from
128 sampling campaigns that require regular visitation. Moreover, conventional methods only
129 capture a single snapshot in time. As a result, freshwater ecologists are now supplementing
130 conventional methods with new cutting-edge technologies, such as camera traps,
131 environmental DNA, and passive acoustic monitoring, which involves recording all the
132 sounds in an environment, to address ecological questions (Greenhalgh et al., 2021).
133 Passive acoustic monitoring is rapidly becoming an affordable and effective method for non-
134 invasively monitoring ecosystems at large spatial and temporal scales, as inexpensive
135 acoustic sensors can be deployed for months at a time in many locations simultaneously

136 (Browning et al., 2017; Hill et al., 2018). Additionally, passive acoustic monitoring facilitates
137 behavioural tracking, providing insights into vital behaviours such as mating rituals, predator
138 avoidance, and foraging (Gibb et al., 2019).

139 There is a wealth of ecological information that can be derived from passive acoustic
140 monitoring of freshwater ecosystems because sounds are produced by species across
141 multiple trophic levels and include a wide range of behaviours (e.g., mating and foraging)
142 and processes (e.g., photosynthesis and decomposition) (Gibb et al., 2019; Greenhalgh
143 2023). As such, the development of the Freshwater Sounds Archive is a crucial stepping
144 stone towards deriving meaningful ecological conclusions from passive acoustic monitoring
145 data collected in freshwater environments. The aims of The Freshwater Sounds Archive are
146 to: 1) Establish the world's first global archive dedicated specifically to sounds produced
147 underwater by freshwater species, 2) Quantitatively analyse sounds and metadata submitted
148 to the archive, and 3) Make all the submitted recordings publicly available via the
149 FishSounds platform to increase awareness and access.

150 **Methods**

151 **Establishing the archive**

152 Contributors to the archive were found by publishing an online form on social media
153 platforms, and spreading the word within special working groups in bio/ecoacoustics
154 communities for people interested in contributing. Once the initial interest had been
155 assessed and enthusiasm for the development of an archive was made clear, collaborations
156 with members in the community involved in running and maintaining biological sound
157 archives followed. Namely, this involved establishing a collaboration with Audrey Looby and
158 Kieran Cox of FishSounds (<https://fishsounds.net/>), an online platform that offers a
159 comprehensive, global inventory of fish sound production research (Looby et al., 2023a).
160 Collaboration with FishSounds therefore facilitated the future hosting of The Freshwater
161 Sounds Archive.

162 A metadata file was created by JAG, AL, and KC to be filled in by all contributors submitting
163 recordings to the archive, which can be found in the Supplementary Material (S1). Metadata
164 parameters were decided based on their relevance for their information regarding: 1)
165 Geography (region, country, latitude, longitude, elevation), 2) Equipment (hydrophone), 3)
166 Recording parameters (gain, sampling rate) 4) Habitat, and 5) Taxonomy (order, family,
167 genus, species).

168 **Geographical distribution**

169 Recordings submitted to the archive via a Google Drive folder were then downloaded, along
170 with the associated metadata. A world map was produced in QGIS (version 3.36.3) using the
171 latitude and longitude coordinates associated with each recording and were projected onto a
172 Google Satellite image world map. Additionally, elevation data (metres above sea level) for
173 each recording submitted to the archive were calculated from latitude and longitude
174 coordinates using FreeMapTools (<https://www.freemaptools.com/elevation-finder.htm>).

175 **Taxonomic representation**

176 Taxonomic metadata were visualised in R Studio by creating a pie chart using the *ggplot2*
177 package (Wickham et al., 2016).

178 **Species-specific spectrograms**

179

180 Finally, species-specific spectrograms were produced in R Studio using the *spectro* function
181 in the *Seewave* package (Sueur et al., 2008) with an FFT of 512.

182 **Results**

183 **Geographical distribution**

184 In total, 61 entries were submitted to the archive between the 4th of March 2023 and the
185 30th of April 2025, representing 16 countries and 6 continents (**Figure 1**). A full species list
186 along with associated metadata is available in the Supplementary Materials (S2). The most
187 numerous taxonomic group was arthropods (29 entries), followed by fishes (14 entries),
188 amphibians (10 entries), macrophytes (7 entries), and a freshwater mollusk (1 entry). The
189 majority of the submissions were from European countries (27 entries), of which the United
190 Kingdom was the most represented with 14 entries. The next most represented region was
191 North America (11 entries), followed by South America (8 entries), Oceania and Asia (5
192 entries each), Africa (3 entries), and the Middle East and Central America with 1 entry each.

193 The recording captured at the highest elevation was 3,797.2 m (asl) in the Argentinian
194 Andes, and the lowest was captured at ~0 m (asl) in an aquarium in southern Japan. The
195 median elevation at which submitted recordings were captured was 50.3 m asl, the Q25 was
196 7.7 m asl, and the Q75 was 240.8 m asl. The majority of recordings submitted to the archive
197 were collected in the northern hemisphere between 30 and 60 degrees latitude. The global
198 south, polar regions, and areas with an elevation >500 m (asl) were underrepresented.

199 **Taxonomic representation**

200 The 61 entries submitted represented 21 orders, including two unknown sounds (one likely
201 made by a fish, and the others by plants; **Figure 2**). The most numerous taxonomic group

202 was arthropods (29 entries), followed by fishes (14 entries), amphibians (10 entries),
203 macrophytes (7 entries), and a freshwater mollusk (1 entry). No sounds were submitted by
204 (semi)aquatic mammals or reptiles. In total, 4 orders and 9 different families were
205 represented among the freshwater arthropods. The order Hemiptera (water boatmen) was
206 the most numerous with 21 entries, followed by Coleoptera (predaceous diving beetles with
207 5 entries). The next most numerous group with 14 entries, fishes, was represented by 9
208 orders and 11 families, of which Characiformes (characins) were the most numerous with 3
209 entries. Amphibians were represented by one order and 7 families, of which Ranidae was
210 the most numerous with 4 entries. Macrophytes were represented by 4 orders and 5
211 families. Freshwater mollusks were the least represented with one entry in one family.

212 **Figure 2.** Taxonomic representation of current submissions (n=61) to The Freshwater
213 Sounds Archive.

214 **Species-specific spectrograms**

215

216 Species-specific spectrograms showed distinct patterns between taxonomic groups (**Figure**
217 **3**).

218 **Recording metadata**

219

220 In total, 16 different hydrophones were used to collect the submitted recordings. The most
221 popular choice was HydroMoth (12 entries), followed by the Aquarian H2a (11 entries), the
222 HTI-96-Min (8 entries), the Aquarian H2d (6 entries), the Soundtrap 300STD (4 entries), the
223 Aquabeat, Jez-Riley-French standard, and a custom-made hydrophone (3 entries each), the
224 SQ26-08 Cetacean Research Tech and the Reson TC4033 (2 entries each), and the
225 Aquarian AS-1, the Aquarian H1a, the Brüel & Kjaer Type 8103, the GoPro Hero 7, the
226 GoPro Hero 8, and the HTI-94-SSQ (1 entry each). One entry did not disclose the
227 hydrophone model used to collect the sounds. In total, 6 different sampling rates were used
228 to collect the recordings. The most popular choice was 48.0 kHz (25 entries), followed by
229 44.1 kHz (23 entries), 96.0 kHz (10 entries), and 192.0 kHz, 45.1 kHz, and 16.0 kHz (1 entry
230 each).

231

232 Aquaria were the most popular recording environment, with 23 entries. The next most
233 numerous recording environment was rivers (18 entries), followed by ponds (12 entries),
234 lakes (7 entries), and one recording that was capture in a cenote.

235

236 **Discussion**

237

238 This global collaborative effort to launch the first biological sounds archive for underwater
239 freshwater species sounds has resulted in submissions from 35 contributors represented by
240 16 countries and every continent except Antarctica. The establishment of a biological sound
241 archive is essential for deriving more detailed ecological conclusions from passive acoustic
242 monitoring data and understanding freshwater soundscape ecology.

243

244 **Describing complex and largely unknown systems**

245

246 The field of freshwater ecoacoustics to date has largely focused on the analysis of ‘sound
247 types’ (Desjonquères et al., 2015; Gottesman et al., 2020; Greenhalgh et al., 2021) due to a
248 current lack of knowledge of species-specific sounds. In other nascent fields, similar ‘type
249 classification’ techniques have been employed to help decode complex and largely unknown
250 biological systems before a higher taxonomic level approach can be readily adopted. In
251 molecular ecology, specifically environmental DNA and metabarcoding, ‘Operational
252 Taxonomic Units’ were defined to permit the inference of taxa from unique genetic barcodes
253 without direct reference to the species (Blaxter et al., 2005). And in remote sensing, spectral
254 signatures (a combination of light wavelength and reflectance) are used as proxies to detect
255 native and invasive plant species from satellite images (Iqbal et al., 2021). Whereas in
256 complex microbial systems, in which many thousands of largely unknown bacterial and viral
257 species are present, ecological clusters are defined as ‘phylotypes’ to begin decoding the
258 rich biodiversity (Wu et al., 2020).

259

260 These approaches have their merits in the early development of a monitoring technique in
261 describing largely unknown complex systems. In the field of freshwater ecoacoustics for
262 example, the classification of ‘sound types’ has been used to make inferences of relative
263 sound type abundance (acoustic activity) and richness across sites (Desjonquères et al.,
264 2015), time periods (Linke et al., 2020; Gottesman et al., 2020), environmental gradients
265 (Desjonquères et al. 2018) and management activities (Greenhalgh et al., 2021). However,
266 this ‘sound type’ approach presents significant limitations in the ecological conclusions that
267 can be derived due to a lack of taxonomic resolution. Furthermore, the classification of
268 ‘sound types’ is prone to subjectivity, with sound types often receiving subjective labels such
269 as ‘grunt’ and ‘croak’, the interpretation of which has the potential to vary between authors. It
270 is also very likely that different sound types produced by the same species are labelled as
271 two or more sound types, artificially increasing the derived impression of species richness
272 (Looby et al., 2023b).

273

274 **Acoustic indices as proxies for species-specific detection**

275

276 Acoustic indices—mathematical functions that consider variations in amplitude and
277 frequency of a recording over time—have also been used to study complex soundscapes
278 with little or no prior knowledge of the sound producers (Buxton et al., 2018). Much has been
279 discussed in the literature on the use of acoustic indices to assess the health of coral reef
280 soundscapes (Bertucci et al., 2016; Lamont et al., 2022), and infer avian species richness
281 (Alcocer et al., 2022; Buxton et al., 2018; Eldridge et al., 2018). Although a suite of acoustic
282 indices has been shown to be successful in the prediction of avian species richness where
283 species-specific sounds are well described in the United Kingdom, they were unsuccessful in
284 a more complex and unknown tropical rainforest soundscape in Ecuador (Eldridge et al.,
285 2018). Moreover, a recent comprehensive review on the use of acoustic indices highlighted
286 their limitations in inferring species diversity metrics (Alcocer et al., 2022). Soundscapes are
287 complex systems that are influenced by many variables in addition to species diversity, such
288 as variation in relative species abundance, vocal repertoire (number of ‘sound types’),
289 distance from the sensor, modification by habitat components such as vegetation, and
290 anthropogenic and natural noise, which can alter the signal to noise ratio of species-specific
291 calls in the soundscape (Alcocer et al., 2022).

292

293 Most acoustic indices were also originally designed for the detection of bird song in
294 terrestrial environments making them largely unsuited for the detection of aquatic fauna in
295 freshwater ecosystems (Greenhalgh et al., 2020). Additionally, short repeating phrases that
296 occupy a continuous frequency band with little or no variation in amplitude, such as those
297 produced by aquatic insect stridulation, can be difficult to accurately characterise using some
298 acoustic indices (Desjonquères et al., 2020; Ferreira et al., 2018). This is because indices
299 like the Acoustic Complexity Index are designed to ignore consistent sounds in the recorded
300 bandwidth to reduce the influence of anthropogenic sounds on calculated values (Pieretti et
301 al., 2011). While some studies have successfully detected soniferous fishes and aquatic
302 insects in freshwaters using the Acoustic Complexity Index with specially adapted
303 parameters (Linke et al., 2020), other studies have failed to do so (Karaconstantis et al.,
304 2020; Greenhalgh et al., 2023).

305

306 **Towards a species-specific approach**

307

308 The Freshwater Sounds Archive presents an opportunity to move beyond the ‘sound type’ or
309 acoustic indices approaches, and towards an approach with higher taxonomic resolution,
310 ultimately resulting in species-specific descriptions. In anuran amphibians, the advertisement

311 call is a well-recognised species-specific character used for species identification (Köhler et
312 al., 2017). In the case of aquatic frogs, such as the genus *Telmatobius*, studies on vocal
313 behaviour are in early stages, with some distinctions noted among species (Akmentins et al.,
314 2024). Underwater calling represents an incipient field of work for anurans, facilitated by
315 emergent recording technologies (Lamont et al., 2022). We have known for decades that
316 different species of aquatic insects must be able to produce different sounds because
317 identification guidebooks draw upon the differences in their sound-producing anatomy to
318 distinguish between species (Savage, 1990). If different species have different anatomical
319 structures related to sound production, then logically it follows that most must be producing
320 species-specific sounds that can be described. Foundational work by Antti Jansson provided
321 the first descriptions of many sounds produced by lesser water boatmen (Corixidae)
322 (Jansson 1974, Pajunen & Huldén, 2002; Rothenberg, 2021). Multiple reviews of aquatic
323 insect sound production since have demonstrated the widespread adoption of stridulatory
324 behaviour by many taxa, including a recent review that estimated that more than 7,000
325 species of aquatic insect are likely to produce sound worldwide (Aiken 1985; Desjonquères
326 et al., 2024). Once species-specific sounds have been identified, the large-scale annotation
327 of soundscape recordings has the potential to generate large amounts of training data for
328 machine learning models to automatically detect species' sounds and potentially assess the
329 ecological condition of freshwater habitats. The application of automated species-specific
330 sound detection in freshwater environments has great promise in the detection of indicator,
331 invasive, and endangered freshwater species sounds.

332

333 **Deep learning: The future of freshwater ecoacoustics analysis**

334

335 One of the main challenges associated with passive acoustic monitoring is the vast amount
336 of data that are produced, making it impossible to manually analyse recordings (Stowell,
337 2022). Therefore, novel computational solutions are required in the large-scale analysis of
338 ecoacoustics data to automate large parts of the analysis workflow. Deep learning is a
339 subset of machine learning that uses very large datasets, such as audio data collected in
340 passive acoustic monitoring surveys, to learn from data and to make predictions using neural
341 networks (Stowell, 2022; Dufourq et al., 2022). The most common use of deep learning
342 techniques in ecoacoustic studies are classification and detection (Ruff et al., 2021). This is
343 achieved by training models using pre-labelled data, such as species-specific sounds that
344 have been annotated from soundscape recordings (Stowell, 2022). In addition, novel
345 techniques such as transfer learning of pre-trained convolutional neural networks are
346 promising for classification tasks (Kath et al., 2024). Biological sound archives play a crucial

347 role in this effort by providing a starting point from which an annotated species-specific call
348 library can be created and used to train deep learning models (Cañas et al., 2023).

349

350 Since the wider adoption of deep learning techniques within ecoacoustic studies in 2016
351 (Goëau et al., 2016), many authors have applied them to automatically detect species-
352 specific sounds produced by a diversity of taxa. A recent review of the use of deep learning
353 in ecoacoustics (Stowell, 2022) showed that of the taxa whose species-specific sounds have
354 been studied using deep learning, birds were the most studied group (with 65 studies),
355 followed by marine mammals (30 studies), amphibians (8 studies), bats (7 studies),
356 arthropods (7 studies), and fishes (3 studies). However, deep learning methods are rarely
357 used in the analysis of freshwater soundscapes. Nevertheless, Parcerisas et al., (2024)
358 recently demonstrated that a deep learning model trained to detect underwater sound events
359 in marine environments can transfer effectively to freshwater habitats. They further applied
360 unsupervised clustering to identify novel 'sound types' based on acoustic feature similarity, a
361 method that can aid in discovering novel sounds and looking for temporal and spatial
362 patterns in sound events of potentially biological origin. This could be especially useful in
363 underexplored freshwater environments. Although these results confirm that deep learning-
364 based sound event detection works in freshwater systems, and provides a useful explorative
365 tool, more meaningful ecological insights into species distributions and behaviours will
366 require models trained on annotated, species-specific datasets.

367

368 As such, The Freshwater Sounds Archive will provide freshwater ecoacousticians with one
369 of the main tools required to start creating annotated training datasets for deep learning
370 models from soundscape recordings by referring to known species sounds present in the
371 archive. Soon, long alphanumeric codes called Application Programming Interface keys (API
372 keys) will facilitate the automatic downloading of annotated species-specific calls from
373 biological sound archives for training in machine learning models to detect species-specific
374 calls in the form of installable packages via platforms like R and Python (Stowell, 2022). API
375 keys also facilitate data sharing between biological sound archives, which means specialised
376 archives, such as The Freshwater Sounds Archive that mobilise a specific subset of the
377 scientific community, can contribute to larger archives in the long-term (Scott et al., 2019).
378 There is huge untapped potential to harness recent advances in deep learning to provide
379 automated, scalable, and non-invasive freshwater ecological assessment. However, much
380 work is still required to better understand species-specific sounds and build reliable
381 annotated training data libraries.

382

383 **Challenges and limitations**

384

385 In the initial stages of the archive development, it was not always possible to achieve
386 species-level descriptions due to the challenges associated with isolating species in tanks
387 and recording them separately. While captive auditioning has helped identify several
388 species-specific sounds, many behaviours (e.g., mating, territory defence, distress calls) are
389 context-dependent and less likely to occur in captivity. As such, where a species description
390 was not possible, such as sounds submitted from soundscape recordings, an educated
391 guess was made as to the next highest taxonomic level (at least to order level) based on
392 physical observations of the recording environment and previous experience in listening to
393 freshwater species' sounds. To overcome any inaccuracies associated with this approach,
394 all the sounds submitted to the archive will be published online via FishSounds.com and a
395 forum will be established to permit future taxonomic revisions as more data become
396 available and assist in the identification of new sounds. It is critically important at this early
397 stage to avoid the mislabelling of species-specific sounds that could result in perpetuating
398 errors throughout the wider literature. Therefore, we believe that a more conservative
399 approach to taxonomic labelling is appropriate, unless the species has been recorded in
400 isolation and identified by a trained professional.

401

402 **Conclusions**

403

404 Passive acoustic monitoring in freshwater environments has revealed a rich diversity of
405 sounds produced by taxa and processes that represent multiple trophic levels. This includes
406 sounds produced by primary producers (macrophytes), primary consumers (aquatic insects),
407 secondary consumers (fishes and amphibians), and even decompositional processes in the
408 form of methane bubbles. Although there is great promise in the wealth of ecological data
409 that freshwater soundscape monitoring provides, there is a considerable knowledge gap in
410 the current inability to relate species-specific sounds with the species that produces them.
411 The Freshwater Sound Archive therefore presents an opportunity to move past the current
412 'sound type' or acoustic index-based approach of classifying and quantifying freshwater
413 soundscapes towards a taxonomic approach, which will lead to the inference of more
414 meaningful ecological conclusions. Furthermore, the archive will provide freshwater
415 ecoacousticians with the tools required to start creating annotated training datasets for
416 machine learning models from soundscape recordings by referring to known species sounds
417 present in the archive. In the long-term, this will result in the automatic detection and
418 classification of species-specific freshwater sounds, such as indicator, invasive, and
419 endangered species from soundscape recordings, as successfully achieved in other fields,

420 such as with bird and bat species identification in woodlands, fish and marine mammals in
421 the oceans, and frogs in rainforests.

422

423 **Author contributions**

424 **JAG:** Conceptualization; Data Curation; Investigation; Methodology; Resources; Formal
425 Analysis; Writing: Original Draft; Writing: Review & Editing; Visualization; Supervision;
426 Project Administration. **AL, KC:** Conceptualization; Methodology; Resources; Writing:
427 Review & Editing; Supervision; Project Administration. **JCB, SSS, MN, FN-M, RB, AC, JT,**
428 **LR, KtV, KC, MC, ITJ, JP, DS, RS, MPV, CD:** Data Curation; Investigation; Resources,
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442

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Figure 1. Global distribution of current submissions to The Freshwater Sounds Archive (n=61). Numbers within circles represent the number of records from each location.

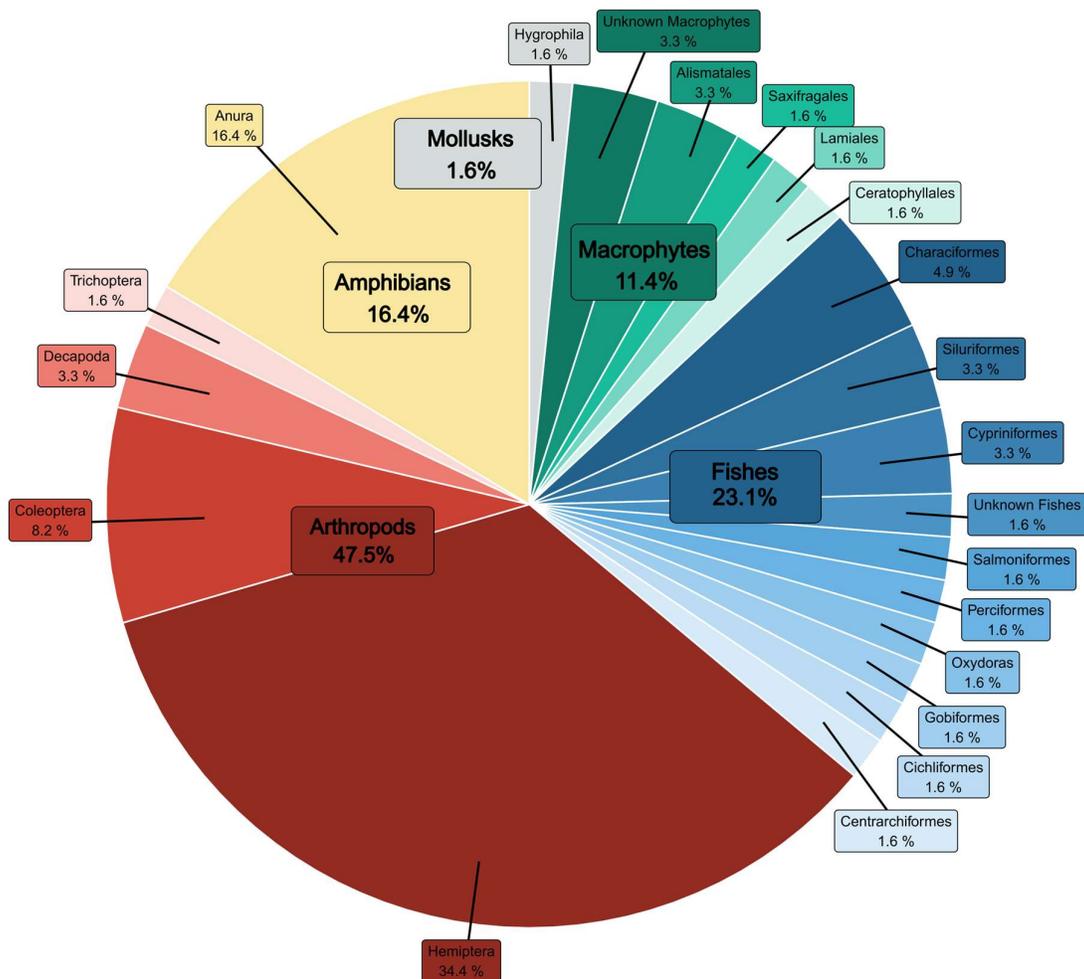
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695 **Figure 2.** Taxonomic representation of current submissions (n=61) to The Freshwater

696 Sounds Archive.

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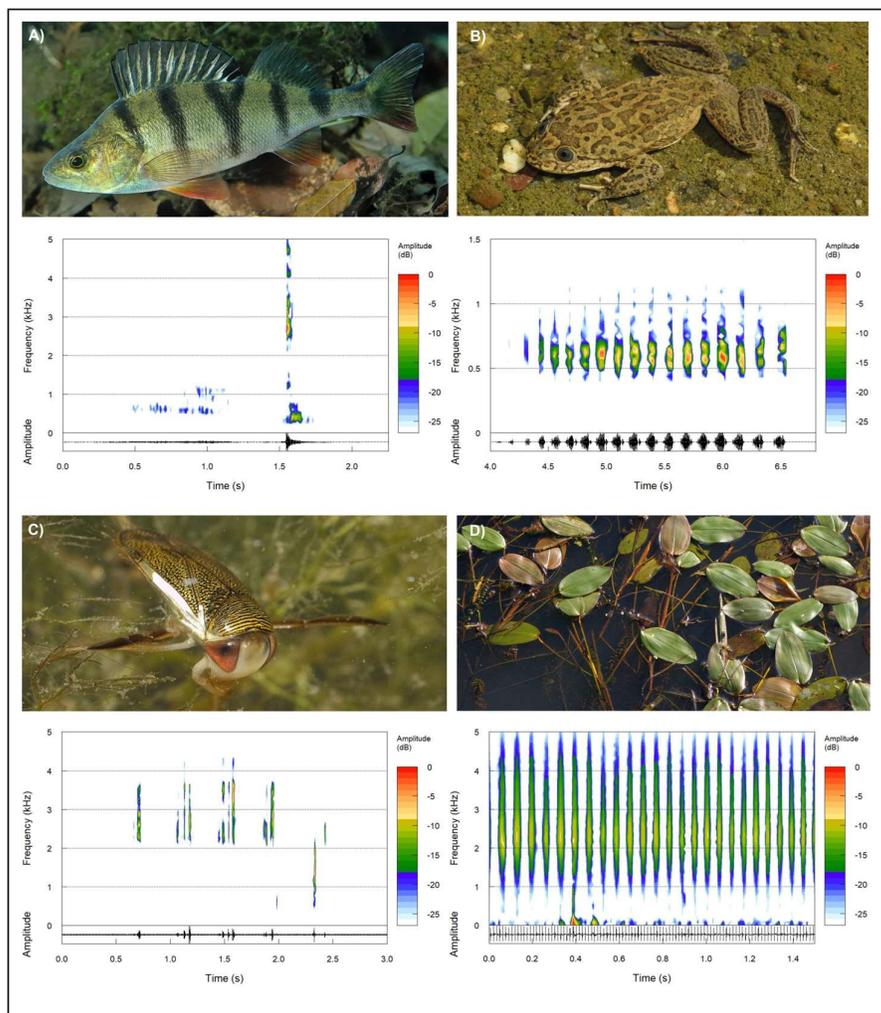
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706 **Figure 3.** Example sounds of A) European perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), B) Rusted frog
707 (*Telmatobius rubigo*), C) Water boatman (*Sigara concinna*), D) Broad-leaved pondweed
708 (*Potamogeton natans*). Spectrogram parameters: window type: “Hanning”, window length:
709 512. Note that the frequency and time axes are not consistent across plots.

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