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Ecological inference using data from accelerometers needs careful protocols

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1 Ecological inference using data from 2 accelerometers needs careful 3 protocols 4

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19

20

21 **Keywords:** Accelerometer, biologging, tag placement, accuracy, calibration, tagging protocol

22

23 Abstract

- 24 1. Accelerometers in animal-attached tags have proven to be powerful tools in behavioural
25 ecology, being used to determine behaviour and provide proxies for movement-based
26 energy expenditure. Researchers are collecting and archiving data across systems, seasons
27 and device types. However, in order to use data repositories to draw ecological inference, we
28 need to establish the error introduced according to sensor type and position on the study
29 animal and establish protocols for error assessment and minimization.
- 30 2. Using laboratory trials, we examine the absolute accuracy of tri-axial accelerometers and
31 determine how inaccuracies impact measurements of dynamic body acceleration (DBA), as
32 the main acceleration-based proxy for energy expenditure. We then examine how tag type
33 and placement affect the acceleration signal in birds using (i) pigeons *Columba livia* flying in a
34 wind tunnel, with tags mounted simultaneously in two positions, (ii) back- and tail-mounted
35 tags deployed on wild kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla*. Finally, we (iii) present a case study where
36 two generations of tag were deployed using different attachment procedures on red-tailed
37 tropicbirds *Phaethon rubricauda* foraging in different seasons.
- 38 3. Bench tests showed that individual acceleration axes required a two-level correction
39 (representing up to 4.3% of the total value) to eliminate measurement error. This resulted in
40 DBA differences of up to 5% between calibrated and uncalibrated tags for humans walking at
41 different speeds. Device position was associated with greater variation in DBA, with upper-
42 and lower back-mounted tags in pigeons varying by 9%, and tail- and back-mounted tags
43 varying by 13% in kittiwakes. Finally, DBA varied by 25% in tropicbirds between seasons,
44 which may be attributable to tag attachment procedures.
- 45 4. Accelerometer accuracy, tag placement, and attachment details critically affect the signal
46 amplitude and thereby the ability of the system to detect biologically meaningful
47 phenomena. We propose a simple method to calibrate accelerometers that should be used
48 prior to deployments and archived with resulting data, suggest a way that researchers can
49 assess accuracy in previously collected data, and caution that variable tag placement and
50 attachment can increase sensor noise and even generate trends that have no biological
51 meaning.

52

53 Keywords: Accelerometry, biollogger, biotelemetry, accuracy, DBA, tag placement

54

55 Introduction

56 Animal-attached tags have revolutionized our understanding of wild animal ecology (Bograd et al.,
57 2010; Sequeira et al., 2021; Yoda, 2019). Of the sensors often used, accelerometers (Yoda et al.,
58 1999) are regarded as particularly powerful tool for studying wild animal behavioural ecology, with
59 studies using them to look at the occurrence and intensity of behaviour (Chakravarty et al., 2019;
60 Fehlmann et al., 2017), assess movement characteristics (Shepard et al., 2008) and as a proxy for
61 energy expenditure (Wilson et al., 2020). The latter has developed rapidly since the demonstration
62 that dynamic body acceleration (DBA) is related to energy expenditure across a range of vertebrates
63 and invertebrates (Halsey et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2019, 2006). Such measurements have great
64 potential for understanding animal strategies, in particular studying how animals respond to change
65 in food availability (Kokubun et al., 2011), climate (Gudk et al., 2019) and anthropogenic threats or
66 activity (Nickel et al., 2021; Payne et al., 2015; Yorzinski et al., 2015).

67 In mammals, accelerometers tend to be attached using collars, and while collars have their own
68 complications in terms of the need to obtain a good fit and account for collar rotation in data
69 interpretation (Wilson et al., 2020), the position of attachment is largely standardised. In contrast,
70 researchers use different attachment positions on birds. For instance, tags are deployed on the lower
71 back, the tail or the belly of seabirds depending on the species and the tag position associated with
72 least detriment (Elliott, 2016; Ropert-Coudert et al., 2003; Vandenabeele et al., 2014). While some
73 species appear to show less of a response to tags mounted on the back, there are lower weight limits
74 for what can be attached to the tail, and both positions impact flight forces. Researchers working
75 with raptors may deploy tags using backpack or leg-loop harnesses (e.g. Harel et al., 2017; Williams
76 et al., 2015, respectively), which results in differences in tag position. The widespread availability and
77 use of accelerometers means that large datasets, collected over years, are now available, providing
78 valuable information about behaviour including flight effort across temporal and spatial scales
79 (Kranstauber et al., 2011). Unsurprisingly, these data have been collected using different methods of
80 attachment and by deploying a variety of different tags without critical analysis of the compatibility
81 of different datasets (Sequeira et al., 2021).

82 Tag position on the body is likely to affect acceleration values, as pointed out by Wilson et al. (2020),
83 who noted that DBA (Qasem et al., 2012) varied with tag position in humans wearing back and waist-
84 mounted tags running on a treadmill (with DBA values varying by ~ 0.25 g at intermediate speeds).
85 This is easy to understand since humans have a flexible spine. Birds, on the other hand, have an
86 essentially immovable box-like thorax (Baumel, 1993). Differences in acceleration between tags
87 placed on the back and the neck (Kölzsch et al., 2016) or the tail (Elliott, 2016) are easy to associate

88 with independent movement of the head or tail, but the thorax itself can experience pitch changes
89 over the wing beat cycles (Su et al., 2012; Tobalske & Dial, 1996), which may affect the acceleration
90 recorded by loggers depending on their position. As part of that, we note that the precise position of
91 the accelerometer chips on the circuit boards may also affect the acceleration measured by the
92 sensors, particularly in cases where the circuit board is long relatively to the bird's back and where
93 the chip could be positioned close to either end.

94 At a more fundamental level, the fabrication of loggers with accelerometers involves extensive
95 heating as the sensors are soldered to the circuit boards. This is known to change their sensory
96 performance (output *versus* acceleration) (Ruzza et al., 2018), even if they are carefully calibrated
97 prior to this process (see <https://www.mouser.fr/datasheet/2/389/lsm303dlhc-955106.pdf>).
98 Specifically, while the vector sum of the 3 acceleration channels should be 1 when a unit is at rest,
99 this can vary after heating, resulting in error in the estimation of the Earth's gravitational component.
100 This can in turn introduce error into the estimation of the "dynamic" acceleration, or acceleration
101 due to movement, which is the basis for acceleration-based proxies for the energy expenditure
102 (Wilson et al., 2020).

103 In this manuscript, we assess the error associated with the sensors themselves and how the position
104 and fixing of the accelerometer on the study animal affects acceleration metrics before proposing
105 solutions to minimize these issues. Specifically, we first examine how variability in VeDBA relates to
106 improperly calibrated tri-axial accelerometers, using a case with humans walking defined courses at
107 fixed speeds. We then examine how tag position affects VeDBA and signal amplitude using pigeons
108 (*Columba livia*) flying in a wind tunnel with two tags placed on different locations of their back.
109 Finally, we examine two examples of variation in the acceleration signal based on retrospective
110 analysis of field studies involving; (1) red-tailed tropicbirds (*Phaethon rubricauda*) equipped with two
111 different types of loggers attached using marginally different protocols in two separate seasons, and
112 (2) black-legged kittiwakes (*Rissa tridactyla*) equipped with a tag on the back and one on the tail, as
113 two positions favoured by seabird researchers for tag placement.

114

115 **Methods**

116 **Measurement of acceleration accuracy of tri-axial sensors**

117 We first calibrated tri-axial accelerometers within 5 Daily Diary tags (inch board) (Wildbyte
118 Technologies, Swansea University, UK) (Wilson et al., 2008), by setting them motionless on a table in
119 a series of defined orientations (each for *ca.* 10 seconds). Six orientations (hereafter the '6-O

120 method') were chosen so that the tags always had one of their three acceleration axes perpendicular
121 to gravity and these were rotated according to the 6 axes of a die so that each of the 3 accelerometer
122 axes nominally reads -1 *g* and 1 *g*.

123 The outputs of these motionless calibrations were then used to derive the six respective maxima of
124 the acceleration vectorial sum given by;

$$\|a\| = (x^2+y^2+z^2)^{0.5}$$

125
126 where *x*, *y* and *z* are the raw acceleration values, for the periods when they were held still. Note that
127 there are 6 maxima because each axis has two values: a minimum and a maximum, which become
128 positive in the vectorial sum. In a device with perfect acceleration sensors, all maxima should be 1.0
129 *g* (although the acceleration on earth varies with latitude by up to a maximum of 0.0053 *g* due to the
130 earth's shape and the centrifugal force generated by the planet spinning as well as other processes
131 (Novák, 2010). However, values were always either marginally higher or lower than 1.0 *g* (see
132 Results). Furthermore, the two maxima for each axis differed. This therefore requires 2 steps to be
133 corrected, where (1) a correction factor is applied to the lower value to ensure both "maxima" are
134 the same and then (2) the same offset is applied to both readings to convert readings to exactly 1.0
135 *g*.

136 Subsequently, tags were deployed on 12 people, attached to the lower back using elastic. Each
137 person walked back and forth on a 25 m straight-line course at four different speeds (0.69, 0.97, 1.25
138 and 1.53 m s⁻¹; randomly ordered), each for 3 minutes. Speeds were held constant using a
139 metronome. The mean VeDBA (defined as $\text{VeDBA} = (x_D^2+y_D^2+z_D^2)^{0.5}$ where *x_D*, *y_D* and *z_D* are the
140 dynamic body acceleration recorded by each of the three channels of acceleration - for details see
141 Wilson et al. (2020), was calculated across each 3-minute trial with, and without, the calibration
142 corrections.

143 **Effect of tag position on acceleration**

144 The effect of tag position was first tested on three pigeons (*Columba livia*) flying under controlled
145 conditions in a wind tunnel at speeds ranging from 10 to 22 m.s⁻¹. Birds were equipped
146 simultaneously with two tags recording acceleration at 150 Hz ("Thumb" Daily Diary (DD) units,
147 hereafter type 1 tag). One tag was placed on the upper back, the other on the lower back, both in the
148 dorsal mid-line. Units measured 22 by 15 by 9 mm and the distance between them was *ca.* 4 cm.

149 To ensure that only steady sustained level flight was included in the analysis, we selected sections of
150 consistent flapping flight lasting for at least 2 s (corresponding to *ca.* 10 wingbeat cycles), with no

151 gliding or wingbeat interruptions. The stability of the flight was controlled by selecting sections
152 where VeDBA values smoothed over 1 s were between 0.75 and 3 g and varied by less than 1.0 g,
153 with no apparent trend (increasing or decreasing) over time. We also discarded the first second of
154 any flight.

155 We first assessed whether the VeDBA values differed with tag position. VeDBA was calculated using a
156 2 s smoothing window to derive the “static” component (Shepard et al., 2008) and then subtracting
157 static values from the raw acceleration data in each axis, before summing the differences vectorially
158 (Qasem et al., 2012). We then assessed whether the peak amplitude per wingbeat differed according
159 to tag location, with the peak amplitude calculated as the difference between the maximum and the
160 minimum value of heave acceleration. For this, peaks were detected in the heave axis (Bishop et al.,
161 2015) to synchronise every wingbeat to a defined start point. Finally, to understand which parts of
162 the wingbeat signal were affected by the difference in tag position, we analysed the acceleration
163 signals across average wingbeats in the three acceleration axes. Each acceleration datapoint was
164 attributed to a percentage progression across the wingbeat cycle. Then, for every whole percentage
165 value, the heave, surge and sway accelerations were averaged across 10 wingbeats from the same
166 logger. The average values for the heave, surge and sway accelerations of the upper back-mounted
167 tag were expressed against the values of the lower back-mounted tag in a linear model, the slope of
168 which was used to determine the difference in signal amplitude between the two tags for each
169 acceleration axis.

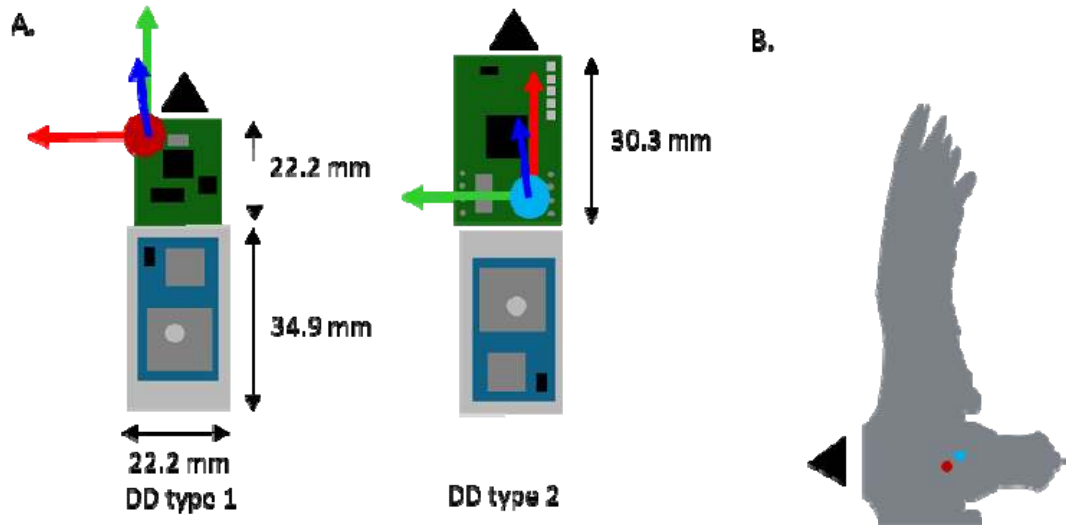
170 To examine putative changes in heave signal amplitude (see above) and VeDBA associated with tag
171 placement, we compared them between upper- and lower-back tags using a paired Student’s t-test
172 for VeDBA and a Wilcoxon signed-rank test for amplitude (due to non-homogeneous variances
173 between the two groups (Levene’s Test: F-value = 4.159, p = 0.049)). Wingbeat frequency also
174 contributes to the variation of VeDBA (Van Walsum et al., 2020). Wingbeat frequency was also
175 compared between the two tags using a paired Student’s t-test. The statistical analysis was
176 performed in RStudio, using R version 4.0.3 (R Core Team, 2020).

177 **Acceleration error in field studies**

178 As a *post hoc* example of how different deployment protocols may affect accelerometer-based
179 results, we compared the amplitude of the heave acceleration signal and VeDBA during the flight of
180 black-legged kittiwakes for two different setups. Twelve kittiwakes were captured and tagged during
181 their breeding season on Middleton Island, Alaska (59.43 N, 146.33 W) and equipped with an
182 accelerometer (type 1 DD) placed under their tail, sealed inside heat shrink tubing for waterproofing:
183 This method is popular as it prevents the bird from trying to preen off the package. We equipped 4

184 other birds with the same tags placed on their back and wrapped in two zip-lock bags to protect
185 them from splash damage, while allowing pressure sensors to function: This other method is
186 particularly favoured in studies aiming to measure altitude, as it does not require a full
187 waterproofing, which alters pressure recordings. Tail-mounted tags were also tied to a GPS, while the
188 back-mounted units were in an independent package so that the back-mounted logger package was
189 1 g heavier (total masses; tail = 21 g, back = 22 g). Two 1-min sections of level flapping flight were
190 identified for each tag and deployment. The selection was made based on the altitude data from the
191 loggers' pressure sensors (< 5 m difference between the highest and lowest altitude measurements),
192 after verifying that there was no interruption in the wingbeat pattern found in heave, ascertaining
193 that the bird flapped regularly for the whole period.

194 In a similar manner, we examined red-tailed tropicbird data from two different nesting seasons using
195 tags placed in a standard position on their lower back while using different tags. For this, red-tailed
196 tropicbirds at Round Island (19.85 S, 57.79 E) were captured on their nests and equipped with two
197 different units by the same person using 4 strips of Tesa tape placed under the feathers and around
198 the tags (Wilson & Wilson, 1989). Nineteen birds were tagged between February and March 2018
199 (using type 2 DDs, Figure 1) while 36 birds were tagged during the second season (September and
200 October 2018, type 2 DDs, Figure 1). Importantly, during the second season though, the tags were
201 attached using only 3 strips of tape. At the time, this was considered adequate and helped reduce
202 the weight of the unit. Both units were set to the same sampling frequency (40 Hz). They were
203 however built with different accelerometers (type 1: LSM9DS1, type 2: LSM303DLHC,
204 STMicroelectronics, Geneva, Switzerland), with a substantial difference in sensitivity (type 1: 0.061
205 mg, type 2: 1.0 mg sensitivity at +/- 2 g range). In addition, the accelerometer is placed at the front of
206 the type 1 unit, and at the back of the type 2 unit, leading to an estimated distance of up to 1 cm
207 between them once placed on the bird's back. The type 1 tags used in the second season were
208 slightly lighter (masses; type 1 unit = 25.0 g, type 2 unit = 27.7 g). As with the kittiwakes, level
209 flapping flight was selected to discard the effect of gliding, thermal soaring or climbing on
210 acceleration metrics (Williams et al., 2015). We considered level flapping flight to be any section
211 where $V_{eDBA} > 0.3 g$ and where the rate of change of altitude (measured by the pressure sensor of
212 the Daily Diary at 4 Hz) was between -0.5 and 0.5 ms^{-1} .



213

214 *Figure 1: (A) Location of the accelerometer [interception point of the 3 arrows depicting tri-axial*
215 *acceleration] on the circuit boards of two different DD tags [the battery is in grey, the GPS in blue and*
216 *the DD in green] and (B) location of the accelerometers within the tags on the back of a red-tailed*
217 *tropicbird for the type 1- (red dot) and type 2- (blue dot) tags.*

218 VeDBA, wingbeat frequency and the amplitude of heave in level flapping flight were derived from
219 accelerometer data for both tropicbirds and kittiwakes following the same process as pigeons. Data
220 were not paired, since birds carried one tag at a time, so non-paired Student's t-tests and Wilcoxon
221 tests were used to compare the three parameters between loggers.

222 Since both the tropicbird and kittiwake data were collected from uncalibrated accelerometers (see
223 above), a situation that we believe represents most of the accelerometer deployments made by the
224 community to date, we attempted to assess the potential for accelerometer error *post hoc*. We did
225 this by measuring the variability in the vectorial sum at times when the tags were motionless (though
226 not on the study animals) and in different tag orientations, finding up to 5 different orientations per
227 logger (for example when units were placed inside bags and the bag placed on the floor/ground). The
228 mean vectorial sum of the three axes of acceleration was calculated for each orientation, and
229 compared between loggers and between tag versions using two ANOVAs.

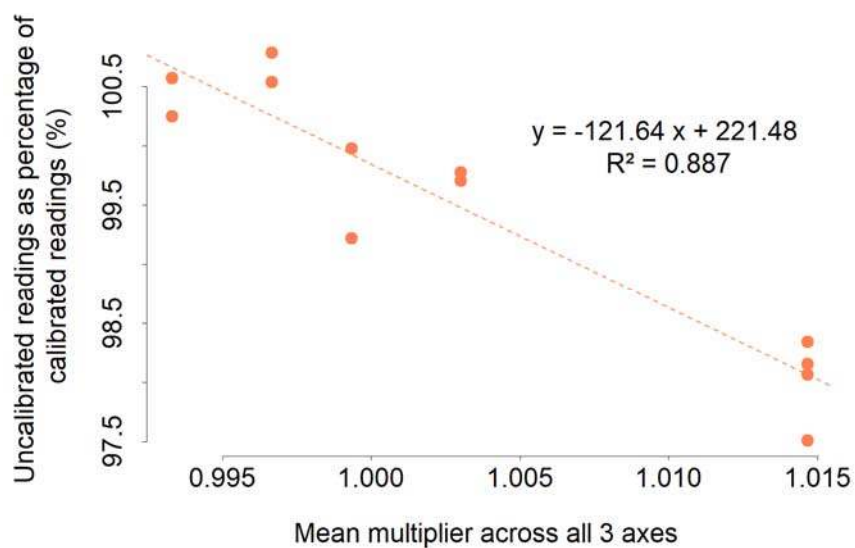
230 Results

231 Measurement of acceleration accuracy of tri-axial sensors

232 Static calibrations of the 15 separate accelerometers within the 5 tags showed that axis offsets
233 needed corrections up to between -0.043 and 0.025 g and had multiplicative factors ranging

234 between 0.97 and 1.023. Mean multipliers (across all three axes) for any one tag ranged between
235 0.9933 and 1.0147.

236 In the walking speed trials with people, the minimum and maximum differences in VeDBA between
237 calibrated and uncalibrated tags for any one participant ranged between 0.37% and 5.04%. Mean
238 VeDBAs per participant across speeds showed that the difference between calibrated and
239 uncalibrated tags could amount to 2.5% of the calibrated reading. Inspection of the measures
240 undertaken to calibrate each tag (see above) showed that the percentage difference between the
241 uncalibrated and calibrated was primarily due to the acceleration multiplier (see above) (Figure
242 2).



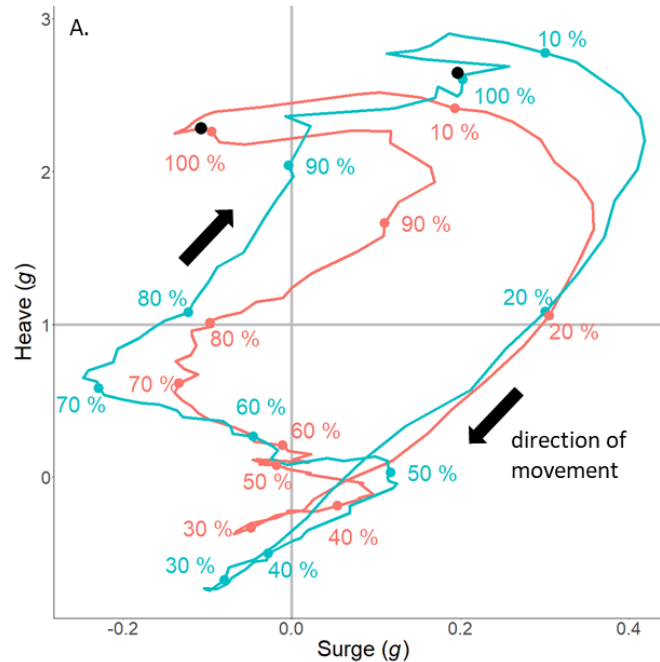
243

244 *Figure 2 – Percentage difference between VeDBA values derived during controlled speed trials with*
245 *walking humans using uncalibrated against calibrated (corrected) values. The mean multiplier is one*
246 *applied across all three axes and does not represent the range of values between axes, which can be*
247 *considerably higher (see text).*

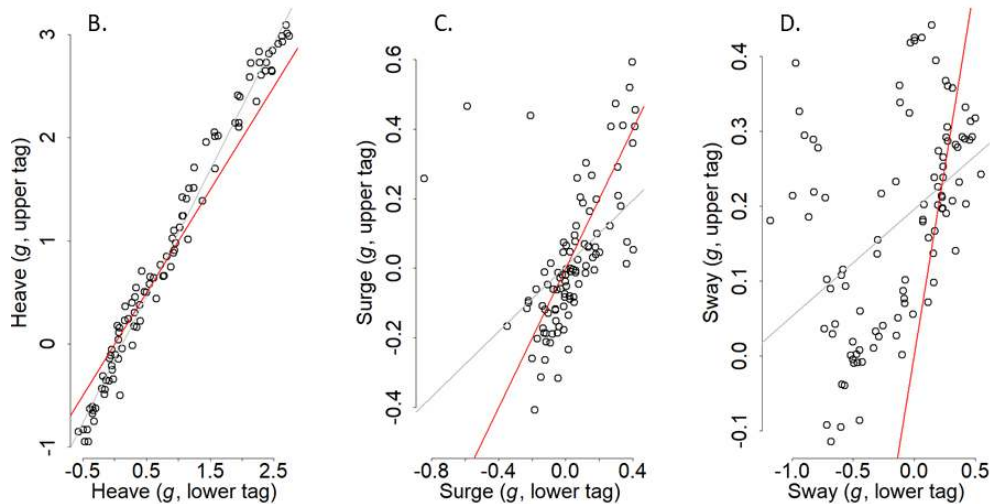
248 **Effect of tag position on raw acceleration in pigeons**

249 In our controlled study with pigeons, plots of surge *versus* heave acceleration showed how wingbeats
250 under identical conditions returned markedly different profiles of acceleration depending on the tag
251 position (Figure 3. A). We also found corresponding differences in values of the heave and surge
252 according to tag position (Figure 3. B, C and D): the upper tag recorded a lower magnitude of surge
253 (LM: Estimate = 0.76, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.41$, with a slope < 1 , Figure 3. C), but a higher magnitude of
254 heave than the lower tag (LM: Estimate = 1.2, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.97$) (Figure 3. D). The sway model

255 however, showed a weak fit (LM: Estimate = 0.18, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.18$) and the slope of their
256 relationship was < 1 (Figure 3. B).



257

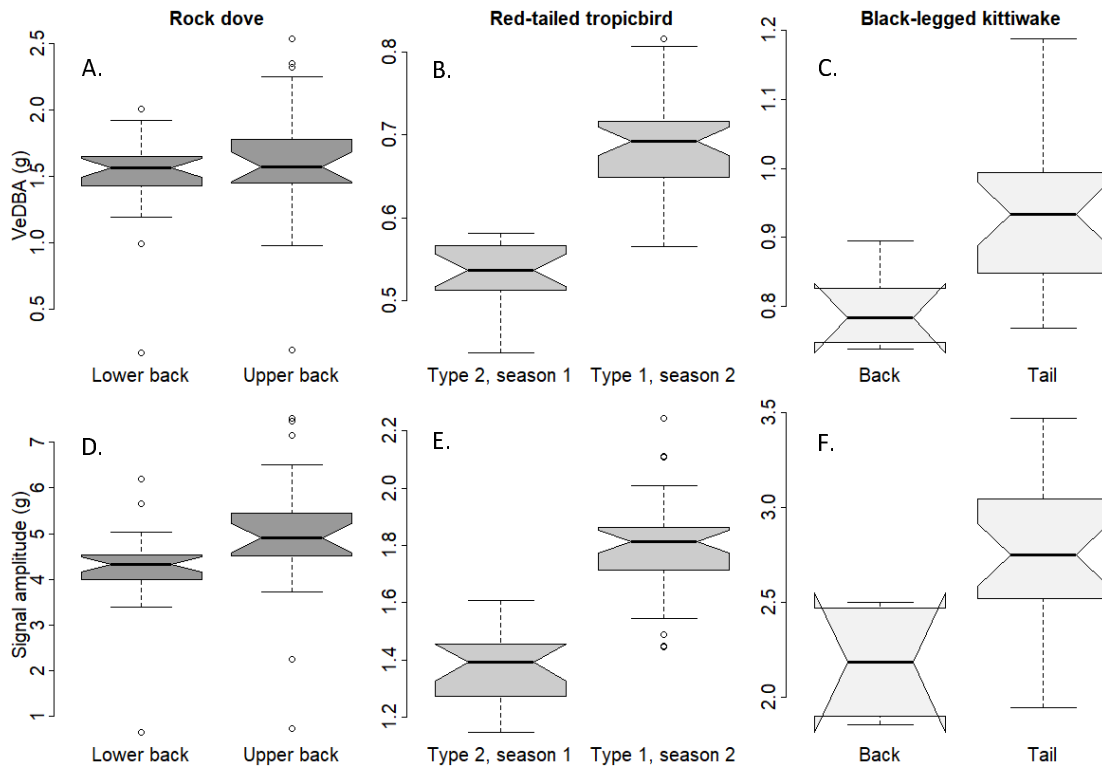


258

259 *Figure 3: (A) Plot of mean heave versus surge acceleration through time for a pigeon during an*
260 *average wingbeat cycle derived from a lower back (red) and an upper back-mounted tag (blue), both*
261 *recording at 150 Hz. Each point corresponds to a mean value of acceleration calculated across all*
262 *flights for a given percentage through the wingbeat, starting from the peak of acceleration of the*
263 *downstroke (black point). The value of each point was smoothed over a window of 10 points (10%) to*
264 *reduce noise. Regressions of the upper against lower tag acceleration for defined points throughout*
265 *the wingbeat cycle show; (B) heave, (C) surge and (D) sway accelerations (note the changing axis*
266 *scales). The regression between the two tags is represented in grey, and the $y = x$ line is shown in red.*

267 Effect of tag position on acceleration metrics

268 Differences in raw acceleration values also resulted in some variation in acceleration-derived metrics
269 in both the controlled studies on pigeons and in the *post hoc* studies on wild birds: Upper back-
270 mounted tags recorded a slightly higher VeDBA than lower back-mounted tags in pigeons (paired
271 Student's test: difference = -0.167, $t = -2.184$, $p = 0.043$), which was largely due to higher heave
272 values (Wilcoxon signed-rank test: difference = 0.82 g, $W = 94$, $p = 0.007$) (Figure 4. A, D).



273
274 *Figure 4: Comparison of VeDBA (A, B, C) and heave signal amplitude (D, E, F) between tags in pigeons*
275 *(A, D), red-tailed tropicbirds (B, E) and black-legged kittiwakes (C, F). Bold horizontal lines indicate the*
276 *median vectorial sum for each tag, extremes of the box the upper and lower quartiles, and whiskers*
277 *the extreme values (excluding outliers, represented by open circles). Notches represent $1.58 \text{ IQR}/\sqrt{n}$ (n*
278 *being the number of observations) on either side of the median and suggest a significant difference*
279 *when they do not overlap.*

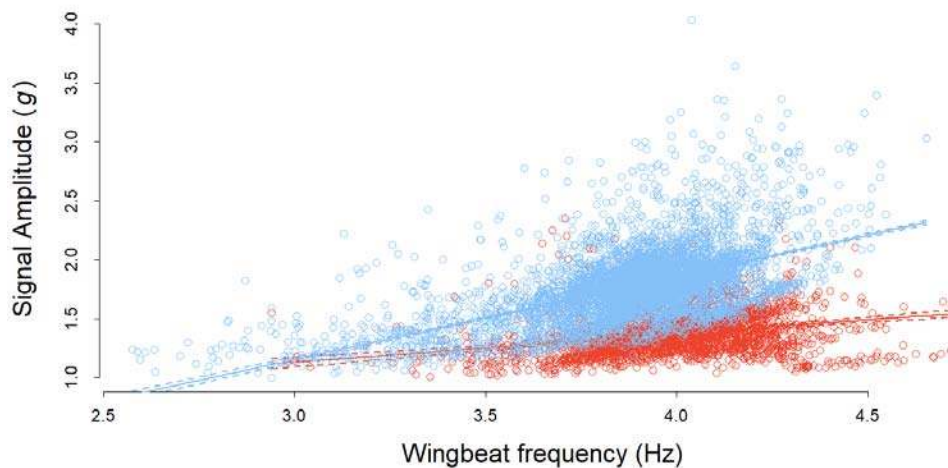
280

281 In red-tailed tropicbirds, the type 1 tags, used during the second deployment, recorded both a higher
282 VeDBA (by 25%) (Wilcoxon test: difference = 0.14 g, $W = 19$, $p < 0.001$) and heave amplitude (by 29%)
283 (Student's t-test: difference = 0.40 g, $t = -11.78$, $df = 47.718$, $p < 0.001$) than the type 2 tags (Figure 4.
284 B, E). In kittiwakes, the tail tags recorded both a higher VeDBA (by 18%) (Wilcoxon test: difference =

285 0.14 g, $W = 14$, $p = 0.001$), and a higher heave amplitude (by 27%) (Student's t-test: difference = -0.60
286 g, $t = -4.4304$, $df = 9.0178$, $p\text{-value} = 0.002$) than the back-mounted tags (Figure 4. C, F).

287 There were no differences in estimated wingbeat frequency according to where tags were mounted
288 in either pigeons (paired Student's t-test: $t = 1.954$, $p = 0.067$) or kittiwakes (Wilcoxon test: $W = 100$,
289 $p = 0.227$). In tropicbirds, there was a seasonal difference in wingbeat frequency, with type 2 tags
290 recording a higher wingbeat frequency (by 3%) than the type 1 DDs (Student's t-test: difference = -
291 0.14 Hz, $t = 3.72$, $df = 35.19$, $p < 0.001$).

292 We found a positive relationship between wingbeat frequency and heave amplitude during
293 tropicbird level flapping flight (LMM, Season 1: estimate = 0.249, intercept = 0.254, std. error = 0.021,
294 $t = 13.339$, $p < 0.001$; Season 2: estimate = 0.746, intercept = -1.084, std. error = 0.024, $t = 19.710$, $p <$
295 0.001 ; $R_m^2 = 0.56$, $R_c^2 = 0.72$). The slope was however steeper during season 2 (Figure 5), in line with
296 the higher amplitude of heave recordings (see Figure 4).



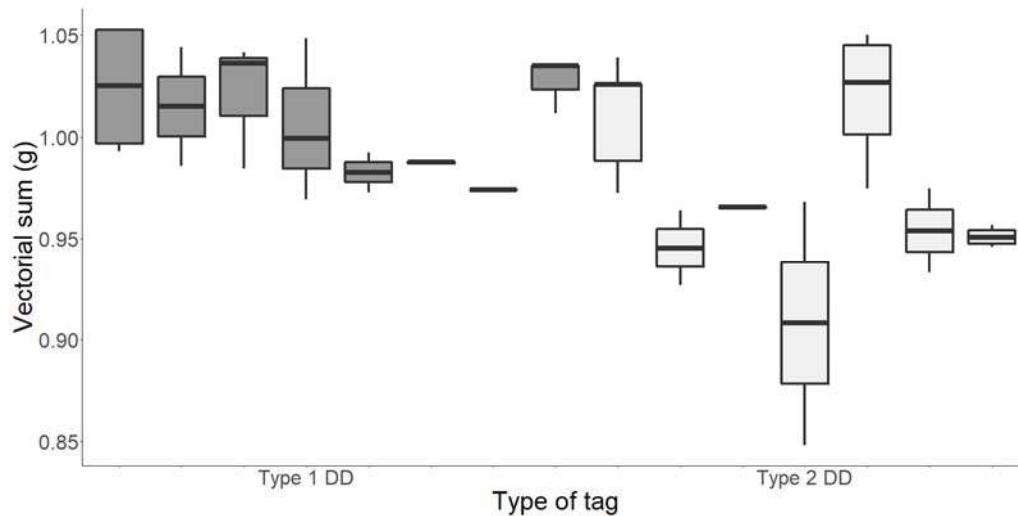
297

298 *Figure 5: Relationship between the wingbeat frequency and heave amplitude of red-tailed tropicbirds*
299 *during two field seasons. Birds were equipped with type 2 tags in season 1 (red) and type 1 tags in*
300 *season 2 (blue), using one less strip of tape, which could reduce tag stability. Full lines represent the*
301 *linear relationship between wingbeat frequency and amplitude and dashed lines its confidence*
302 *interval.*

303 **Post-hoc quantification of accelerometer inaccuracy**

304 The comparison of stationary data recorded by the two tag types deployed on tropicbirds indicated
305 that the vectorial sum was lower in the type 2 tag (Wilcoxon test: $W = 98$, $p = 0.005$, difference = 0.03
306 g) (Figure 6). Standard deviations of the vectorial sum (Type 1: 0.03; Type 2: 0.05) however, indicate
307 that errors are more variable within type 2. We could not determine multipliers for the three

308 acceleration channels to calibrate the data based on this approach, as the heave and surge channels
309 did not cover the whole spectrum of their possible distribution (-1 to 1 g) while the tag was
310 motionless.



311

312 *Figure 6: Comparison of the vectorial sum of the raw acceleration recorded by various immobile type*
313 *1 (dark boxes) and type 2 tags (light boxes). Each point corresponds to a different unknown*
314 *orientation. Thick black lines indicate the median vectorial sum for each tag, extremes of the box the*
315 *upper and lower quartiles, and whiskers the extreme values (excluding outliers).*

316

317 Discussion

318 This work highlights that variation in acceleration measured by tags on flying birds (and presumably
319 other animals engaged in any activity) can be due to; (i) differences in sensitivity (Table SI1) and
320 calibration between sensors, (ii) variation due to the placement of the tag (or the sensor within the
321 tag) and (iii) variation due to the animal itself. Of these, it is normal to attribute all variation to the
322 activity of the animal itself but the validity of doing this is critically dependent on the other two.
323 Studies that do not consider points (i) and (ii) may, therefore, be misrepresenting animal activity
324 both in terms of intensity and extent. We propose here a calibration method to prevent sensor-
325 induced errors, and provide some recommendations about tag attachment method to avoid
326 interpreting tag position effect as biological.

327 The variation in acceleration is used to examine animal behaviour within a multitude of research
328 thrusts, some of which use acceleration data in slightly different ways. These range from the precise
329 definition of heave, surge or sway values or derivatives (such as pitch and roll and DBA) used in
330 algorithms to identify behaviours (e.g. Fehlmann et al., 2017; Nathan et al., 2012) through the use of

331 acceleration-derived metrics to define energy expenditure (in e.g. doubly labelled water *versus* DBA
332 regressions (Pagano & Williams, 2019)), to measure travelling speed (Bidder et al., 2012; Gunner et
333 al., 2021) and studies looking at animal effort over time and space (Duriez et al., 2018; Halsey et al.,
334 2011). Errors due to sensor inaccuracy and differences in placement are most severe when axes are
335 considered individually (e.g. deriving pitch from the surge axis). However, they are also relevant
336 when all three orthogonal axes are considered, as inaccuracies in one axis can either be mitigated or
337 compounded by inaccuracies in another (see Figure 2). Within vectorial (or absolute) sums of
338 acceleration metrics, the overall error will depend on the relative errors of the different axes and the
339 extent to which they vary during the activity in question. For example, in flapping birds or bats,
340 almost all variation in acceleration measures occur in the heave and surge axes (e.g. Wilson et al.,
341 2008, and see Figures 3 A-E) so errors in the sway are less important. Cognisance of the axis-specific
342 errors will help mitigate those errors that could be interpreted as a biological effect.

343 **Calibrations**

344 The issue of inaccurate sensors can be at least partially mitigated by the 6-O method suggested in
345 this work, although we note that this only effectively calibrates between -1 and 1 *g*, while the
346 gravitational component experienced by some animals e.g. during turning (Wilson et al., 2013), will
347 increase beyond these limits. Although, ideally, the tags should be calibrated with each of the
348 accelerometer axes held perfectly vertically (something that is challenging to do once a circuit board
349 is potted in a housing), in practice, this is not critical, and holding the axes as close to vertical as
350 possible should suffice. This is because the response of an accelerometer to the static acceleration of
351 the earth's gravity follows a sine wave so that an accelerometer that is placed 10° off the vertical (i.e.
352 at 80°), reads a value that is 98.5% of the full-scale value that would be given if the accelerometer
353 axis were held perfectly vertical (so that if there is an error in this axis, 98.5% of it will be covered by
354 this orientation). If it is impossible to reliably estimate the angle of the logger because of the housing,
355 for instance, gently rotating the logger around in every direction would be needed to cover all 6
356 orientations. Using this calibration will therefore allow researchers to ascribe the most substantive
357 variation in acceleration signal to specific axes.

358 Our suggestion of dealing with errors *post hoc* by looking at the vectorial sum of the acceleration
359 when tags were stationary could not be used to correct the various axes in our study because all 6
360 orientations required for the calibrations were not known. However, this process does at least serve
361 to indicate some of the extent of deviation of the sensors from the expected range (see above –
362 Figure 4). In this regard, we note that we have presented results in this work from only one tag
363 manufacturer (type 1 and type 2 tags use two different chips ; the type 1 is far superior having a

364 sensitivity of 0.061 mg (in a range of +/- 2 g), while the type 2 only has a sensitivity of 1 mg for this
365 range), but we have measured, in passing, more substantive variation by other manufacturers (see SI
366 1).

367 **Why does accelerometer position affect acceleration?**

368 The position of an accelerometer on an animal should affect the acceleration perceived by the sensor
369 during movement according to its location, and indeed that is the basis behind many biomechanical
370 studies (e.g. Giansanti et al., 2003; Hyde et al., 2008). However, there is poor appreciation in the
371 behavioural ecology community that this premise is also valid for trunk-mounted tags. This may seem
372 irrelevant for birds where the thorax can be considered a single immobile unit, in contrast to bead-
373 string models that may indicate what is expected in species with a flexible back (Underhill & Doyle,
374 2006). Our work has shown, however, that the location of trunk-mounted accelerometers on birds
375 does play a role in modulating acceleration values (Figure 3) and this is presumably because the bird
376 body pitches during the wingbeat cycle (although part of the differences that we observed may also
377 be due to the movement of the scapulae and perhaps the neck during flapping). Depending on the
378 degree of pitch, the centre of pitch rotation and the position of the accelerometer, this will change
379 the extent of movement (d), which can be defined by the length of a section of a circumference
380 around the centre point of rotation according to $D = 2\pi r(360/P)$, where r is the radius or distance
381 between the centre of pitch rotation and the sensor, and P is the maximum pitch angle (in degrees).
382 The duration of the wingbeat cycle will define the vertical speed of the tag at its location, with the
383 recorded acceleration being the change in speed over time. The formula shows how the effect of
384 changed acceleration will be manifest more with increasing distance of a tag from the centre point of
385 rotation and so will have the greatest potential to vary in larger birds, all other things being equal.
386 This may also account for the changed acceleration metrics in tail- versus body-mounted tags (Figure
387 4 C, F) in our kittiwake study although part of that is presumably due to the relative instability of the
388 tail. In fact, to our knowledge, there is little information on the extent of bird body change in pitch
389 during flight (but see Su et al., 2012; Tobalske & Dial, 1996) although controlled experiments with
390 multiple calibrated accelerometers could change that. In the meantime, we suggest that users
391 attempt to place accelerometers in identical positions on their study animals for comparative
392 purposes, which should also involve knowing the position of the sensors within the tags rather than
393 just considering the tags themselves (Figures 1 and 3).

394 Fortunately, there is no *a priori* reason why tags placed differently on a bird thorax or inaccurate
395 accelerometers should affect determination of wingbeat frequency since points of inflection will still
396 be represented correctly with respect to time within the wingbeat cycle (Figure 3 A, B). Indeed, this is

397 what we observed in our controlled pigeon flight trials and in the kittiwakes (despite a small
398 difference in tag mass, see Whelan et al., 2021). In contrast, the tropicbird work indicates that there
399 was indeed a change in wingbeat frequency across the two seasons, and this seems to be related to
400 changes in environmental conditions (Garde *et al.*, *in prep*).

401 ***Post-hoc* studies and differences between tags**

402 The bigger question is the extent to which observed differences between conditions in uncalibrated
403 accelerometers can be attributed to the animals rather than to tag position, attachment techniques
404 or sensor variability. In our tropicbird example, the differences in VeDBA and signal amplitude were
405 not consistent with the differences found in pigeons (higher values in the upper tag), suggesting that
406 they were not related to tag position. Importantly, the difference in amplitude was appreciably larger
407 between the type 1 and type 2 tags on tropicbirds, than between the upper and lower tags used in
408 pigeons, even though the tropicbird tags were placed in a way that minimised the distance between
409 their respective accelerometers. The variability in the vectorial sum of the acceleration between
410 orientations of the same tags (Fig. 4) only amounted to an average difference of 3%, which is close to
411 the difference found between tags used for the <6-O calibration (2%). In contrast, in flapping flight,
412 the difference in VeDBA between tags and seasons reached 25%. This order of magnitude difference,
413 coupled with the observation that the difference between vectorial sum values in 6-O calibrated tags
414 and uncalibrated tags (in general) amounted to a mean maximum of 2.5% (similar to VeDBA
415 differences across human walking trials of 2.5%), would appear to indicate that the differences
416 observed in the tropicbird studies were due to seasonal changes in the birds' interactions with the
417 environment. This is backed up by the changes in wingbeat frequency between the two seasons,
418 which would not be affected by either tag position or sensor inaccuracies. However, Wilson et al.
419 (2021) note how accelerometers on loosely fitted collar tags on mammals provide a signal that
420 effectively depends on collar tightness: Under normal conditions, when the tag is tightly associated
421 with the body, the unit replicates the body movement and accelerations faithfully. However, when
422 the attachment is loose, the tag is projected forward and upward during the initial phase of a stride
423 cycle because the tag (and/or collar) abuts the body. This is followed by a short-term dissociation
424 when the tag is not in proper contact with the body, followed again by substantive acceleration as
425 the body catches up with the tag in the proximate interaction. Importantly, this acceleration is higher
426 than that of the body because the animal body is surging forward and upward again while the tag is
427 falling back so that the recorded acceleration spike mirrors the difference between these two
428 processes. Although the attachment of devices to birds using tape (Wilson et al., 1997) provides a
429 much more intimate association between the tag and the bird body, we believe that if this method is
430 not standardized (and it was not in our study), it can lead to major variation in acceleration values,

431 particularly in animals with highly dynamic movement. In birds, this issue may be exacerbated by tag
432 movement due to air flow over the body which can cause the device to vibrate more or less
433 depending on attachment (cf. Wilson et al., 2020). It is also germane to consider that tag attachment
434 stability may change over time in longer-term deployments. These issues have long been recognised
435 in the wearable sensors industry for humans (Jayasinghe et al., 2019). Consequently, we cannot, in
436 good faith, compare VeDBA or wingbeat amplitudes of tropicbirds between seasons although the
437 wingbeat frequency will be unaffected.

438 **Conclusions: The importance of calibrating loggers and standardising protocols**

439 Accelerometer inaccuracies can result in errors in the raw acceleration of up to 5% per axis and,
440 depending on the extent and direction of the errors across all three orthogonal axes, this can affect
441 DBA metrics accordingly. Tag placement can also result in errors in DBA metrics of up to 9.7% in
442 flapping flight for our units, although we note that the scale of the errors varies between device
443 types. Finally, non-standardized tag attachment procedures can result in highly variable dynamic
444 acceleration values. Taken together, these represent a potentially important source of error in both
445 raw acceleration values, which are commonly used to calculate body pitch and roll and/or as
446 parameters to define particular behaviours, and derived metrics such as DBA. Attachment
447 procedures should be adapted to the species tagged, as the effect of different tag placements may
448 vary from one species to the other (e.g. Kölzsch et al., 2016; Vandenabeele et al., 2014), and to the
449 study, as different metrics may be measured more reliably using one particular method (Kölzsch et
450 al., 2016), making the use of a standardised procedure difficult. Animal disturbance and study
451 purposes should be considered before adjusting tag placement for the compatibility of datasets, and
452 therefore, researchers should be aware of the attachment methods used to compare acceleration
453 metrics between studies reliably (Sequeira et al., 2021). Importantly, we highlight that sensor
454 inaccuracy can be mitigated by performing a rapid calibration. There is therefore a need for
455 researchers to undertake such calibrations prior to each deployment and include this in their
456 archived data as well as to standardize their tag attachment procedure as much as possible. The last
457 decade has been hailed as a golden age in bio-logging, due to the availability of powerful sensors in
458 animal-attached technologies. The data repositories that archive these data represent extremely
459 valuable resources for the community (e.g. Davidson et al., 2020), but there is an urgent need for
460 calibrations that allow data to be standardized in order for their full potential to be realized now and
461 in the years to come.

462

463 **Data, code and materials**

464 Data and code used for the analyses of this manuscript are available from the Dryad Digital
465 Repository.

466

467 **Competing interests**

468 We declare we have no competing interests.

469

470 **Authors' contributions**

471 Red-tailed tropicbird data was collected by AF, NC and VT. Human data was collected by KARR, RPW
472 and RSM. Pigeon data was collected by HR and ELCS under the supervision of MW. Black-legged
473 kittiwake data was collected by BG, FT, SW and KHE. MDH designed the tags used in this study and
474 provided technical information about accelerometers.

475 Data analysis was carried out by RPW and BG. Calibrations were designed by RPW and MDH. The
476 manuscript was written by BG, RPW and ELCS. All authors contributed to the revision of the
477 manuscript, gave final approval for publication and agree to be held accountable for the work
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479

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