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## 25 **Introduction**

26 Imagine yourself, as an ecologist during field work, deep in the woods. *Eerily silent*  
27 *was the forest, when loudly from the tree above a wren started to sing. A quick, skilful*  
28 *use of the binoculars showed it was the male ringed last week, but swiftly the bird*  
29 *disappeared again among the leaves.* Similar difficulties in reliably observing the  
30 behaviour of the study species will be familiar to many ecologists and can strongly  
31 affect the choice of the study species; for example the ethologist and zoologist Nikolaas  
32 Tinbergen mentioned ease of observation as a motivation to study seabirds instead of  
33 forest birds (Tinbergen, 1939). Whilst certainly smart choices of the study species are  
34 key to successful research, typified by the Krogh principle: “for a large number of  
35 problems there will be some animal of choice, or a few such animals, on which it can  
36 be most conveniently studied” (Krogh, 1929), most terrestrial, aquatic, and aerial  
37 species cannot be well observed in the field. Technological solutions to record the  
38 movements, behaviour and physiology of animals, and associated methodological  
39 advancements for analysing the data collected, have revolutionised research in animal  
40 ecology and beyond (Kenward, 2001; Ropert-Coudert & Wilson, 2005; Ropert-  
41 Coudert, Beaulieu, Hanuise & Kato, 2009; Weimerskirch, 2009; Brisson-Curadeau,  
42 Patterson, Whelan, Lazarus & Elliott, 2017). The general term for this technological  
43 approach to study animals is called Biologging – ‘the use of miniaturized animal-  
44 attached tags for logging and/or relaying data about an animal’s movements, behaviour,  
45 physiology, and/or environment’ (Rutz & Hays, 2009). It is closely related to and  
46 comprises the field of Biotelemetry – the remote measurement of the physiological  
47 conditions and activity/behavioural state of animals (Cooke et al., 2004), including  
48 biomedical applications in humans. The use of electronic loggers and transmitters offers  
49 unprecedented opportunities for uncovering the ‘hidden lives’ of animals and achieve

50 a more mechanistic understanding of their ecology, and indeed the first ‘Virtual Issue’  
51 (an online collection of papers published on a specific topic) published by the Journal  
52 of Animal Ecology was on ‘Biotelemetry and Biologging’ (Hays, 2008). Progress in  
53 this broad field has been exceptional in the last decade (Baratchi, Meratnia, Havinga,  
54 Skidmore & Toxopeus, 2013; Hussey et al., 2015; Kays, Crofoot, Jetz & Wikelski,  
55 2015; Wilmers et al., 2015; Brisson-Curadeau et al., 2017; Tibbetts, 2017; Harcourt et  
56 al., 2019; Lowerre-Barbieri, Kays, Thorson & Wikelski, 2019), with exciting ongoing  
57 developments often occurring outside the field of animal ecology, including in different  
58 disciplines such as engineering, physics, or computer science. As such, the Journal of  
59 Animal Ecology issued an Open Call in 2018 for a *Special Feature* on ‘Biologging’,  
60 with the aim to showcase the novel developments in the field and the range of ecological  
61 questions which can now be addressed. The call resulted in the largest number of  
62 submitted manuscripts to any *Special Feature* in the Journal so far, which is a further  
63 indication of the interest in the topic. In this Editorial for the *Special Feature* we discuss  
64 the papers and topics covered and conclude with a brief outlook on ongoing and future  
65 developments.

66

### 67 **Questions and topics covered by papers in the *Special Feature***

68 This *Special Feature* comprises 18 contributions, of which 13 present novel analyses  
69 and approaches, 3 are reviews, 1 is a meta-analysis, and 1 is a ‘How-To’ paper. Overall  
70 the papers cover a broad range of biologging technologies used to address a variety of  
71 fundamental questions in animal ecology, in aquatic, terrestrial and aerial species.

72 Three papers use light-level geolocator tags – miniature light-weight tags which  
73 measure ambient light levels to determine sunrise and sunset times, and hence estimate  
74 the approximate location of the animal (Wilson, Ducamp, Rees, Culik & Niekamp,

75 1992; Bridge et al., 2011) – to investigate the ontogeny of migratory behaviour in a  
76 long-lived seabird species (Campioni, Dias, Granadeiro & Catry, 2020), quantify  
77 effects of biologgers on the survival of tagged birds (Brlík et al., 2020), and provide a  
78 practical guide for the effective application of geolocator tags to track animals (Lisovski  
79 et al., 2020).

80 Seven papers use GPS loggers (for a review of GPS technology, see  
81 Tomkiewicz, Fuller, Kie & Bates, 2010), often combined with other sensor  
82 technologies such as accelerometers (see Shepard et al., 2008 for a review of the  
83 technology) and/or complementary methods including stable isotopes (see Hobson &  
84 Wassenaar, 2008 for information about the method) and behavioural observations (see  
85 Altmann, 1974 about observational methods to study animal behaviour). These GPS-  
86 based papers investigate predator-prey spatiotemporal interactions among elk *Cervus*  
87 *canadensis* and wolf *Canis lupus* (Cusack et al., 2020), quantify foraging niche overlap  
88 between sympatric seabird species (Dehnhard et al., 2020), or assess effects of  
89 personality on the consistency and repeatability of foraging trips in black-legged  
90 kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla* (Harris et al., 2020). Other contributions present novel  
91 statistical methods to estimate individual variation in habitat selection (Muff, Signer &  
92 Fieberg, 2020) or to identify different movement modes in movement tracks (Patin,  
93 Etienne, Lebarbier, Chamailé-Jammes & Benhamou, 2020), whereas other studies use  
94 fine-scale movement data to quantify the impact of wind turbines on functional habitat  
95 loss of a soaring terrestrial bird, the black kite *Milvus migrans* (Marques et al., 2020),  
96 or identify mating tactics of male African elephants *Loxodonta africana* (Taylor et al.,  
97 2020),

98 Seven papers primarily use other biologging sensors, alone or in combination  
99 with GPS tags, including inertial measurement unit sensors (see Baratchi et al., 2013

100 for information on the technology) such as accelerometers (Shepard et al., 2008) and  
101 magnetometers (see Williams et al., 2017 for information on magnetometers), or wet-  
102 dry and pressure and depth sensors (for a review see Ropert-Coudert et al., 2009), to  
103 markedly enhance the quantity of information on animal behaviour, individual state,  
104 and performance that can be obtained from the tagged animals. In particular, Wilson et  
105 al. (2020) critically assesses the use of metrics derived from accelerometers as a proxy  
106 for movement-related metabolic energy expenditure, with Benoit et al. (2020) using  
107 such metrics to quantify the cost of dispersal in roe deer *Capreolus capreolus*, and  
108 Corbeau et al. (2020) to quantify and compare average energy expenditure during  
109 different flight phases (soaring and flapping flight) in juvenile and adult great  
110 frigatebirds *Fregata minor* during their foraging trips, to study the ontogeny of flight  
111 and foraging behaviour. Bonnot et al. (accepted) use activity sensors in roe deer to  
112 disentangle the contrasting effects of predator density and human disturbance on diel  
113 activity patterns, whereas Nuiten et al. (accepted) present a new data compression  
114 approach for accelerometer data to overcome limitations in storage and energy capacity  
115 of loggers and aid data transmission whilst preserving the behavioural signal in the data.  
116 Barkley et al. (accepted) develop a novel multi-sensor biologging package, combined  
117 with a new statistical modelling approach, to detect and record sub-surface interactions  
118 among aquatic animals and ensuing movement-related behavioural responses, and  
119 apply it to Greenland sharks *Somniosus microcephalus*. More generally, Williams et al.  
120 (2020) review a large set of biologging sensors and address the question of how to select  
121 the most appropriate type or combination of devices for different biological questions.  
122 Finally, Joo et al. (2020) review an astonishing number of 58 different R packages  
123 which have become available in the last few years for analysing movement and  
124 biologging data, to act as a road map for ecologists and software developers.

125           We now describe in more detail the questions and topics addressed by the papers  
126 of this *Special Feature*. We structure this section around the diverse research questions  
127 and themes addressed by these article – ranging from topics in Behavioural Ecology,  
128 Community Ecology, Statistical Ecology and Functional Ecology, to methodological  
129 approaches, with some papers linking multiple research fields.

130

## 131 BEHAVIOURAL ECOLOGY

### 132 **Ontogeny of behaviour in long-lived species**

133 Understanding how behaviour arises is a key question in behavioural ecology. An  
134 adaptive behaviour can be informed by genetically controlled (innate) or learned  
135 components, but while some seem to be mostly programmed from birth, such as  
136 pecking in young domestic chicks (Dawkins, 1968), others, like the chaffinch song,  
137 have an innate basis but require the animal to practise and even learn from others  
138 (Thorpe, 1958). The scope for learnt behaviours may be particularly important in long-  
139 lived species, whose long lifespan increases the opportunity to practise and learn. In  
140 fact, the breeding deferral observed in many long-lived species is thought to be driven  
141 by high costs of early breeding (Lack, 1968), which could be caused by an incomplete  
142 set of skills (Daunt, Afanasyev, Adam, Croxall & Wanless, 2007). Thanks to ever  
143 smaller loggers which can record an animal's behaviour for ever longer periods of time,  
144 biologging is now allowing researchers to study with unprecedented detail how  
145 behaviours develop in slow-maturing animals. In this *Special Feature*, two papers push  
146 the boundaries of this emerging field and highlight the potential of biologging to  
147 advance our understanding of the ontogeny of animal behaviour.

148           Corbeau et al. (2020) demonstrate how juvenile great frigatebirds progressively  
149 improve their flight skills in the first few months following their first flight. Combining

150 GPS and accelerometers to distinguish between different flight behaviours (e.g.  
151 flapping, gliding, soaring), they show that juveniles' flight skills, initially inferior,  
152 improve gradually until becoming comparable to adults'. Interestingly, juveniles  
153 outperformed adults in some aspects, likely due to their morphology, and this may  
154 explain their remarkable months-long dispersive flights (Weimerskirch, Bishop,  
155 Jeanniard-du-Dot, Prudor & Sachs, 2016). These findings provide one of the first  
156 insights into the development of flight in long-lived birds (Yoda, Kohno & Yasuhiko,  
157 2004; Rotics et al., 2016), and highlight the importance of early-life learning for the  
158 acquisition of physical skills.

159       Campioni et al. (2020) focus on another behaviour whose ontogeny is poorly  
160 understood: migration. Some animals learn their migration routes by following older  
161 conspecifics (Mueller, O'Hara, Converse, Urbanek & Fagan, 2013), while others follow  
162 an innate migratory distance and direction (Liedvogel, Åkesson & Bensch, 2011).  
163 Campioni et al. (2020) provide the first robust evidence for a third mechanism by which  
164 long-lived animals may acquire a migratory strategy. In an impressive long-term study  
165 tracking the migration of Cory's shearwaters *Calonectris borealis* across ages, from  
166 immatures to established breeders, they show that young birds follow more exploratory  
167 routes, and as they aged they gradually advance their migration timings and shorten  
168 their migration route. These findings show that learning, memory and experience can  
169 play a key role in the development of migration behaviour in long-lived species, and  
170 provide support for the exploration-refinement hypothesis (Guilford et al., 2011) as  
171 another mechanism for the development of migration behaviour in long-lived animals  
172 (Fayet, accepted).

173

174 **Individual differences in behaviour and animal movements**

175 Animal movements are fundamentally characterized by facultative switches between  
176 distinct movement modes (Fryxell et al., 2008) and many methods have been developed  
177 to identify and segment movement paths into different behavioural sections  
178 (Barraquand & Benhamou, 2008; Beyer, Morales, Murray & Fortin, 2013; Gurarie et  
179 al., 2015; Edelhoff, Signer & Balkenhol, 2016; Leos-Barajas et al., 2017; Michelot &  
180 Blackwell, 2019; Wang, 2019), where issues of scale and the difference between  
181 stationary and non-stationary movements are of particular importance (Benhamou,  
182 2014). Here Patin et al. (2020) contribute to this growing literature by extending the *K*-  
183 segmentation approach of Lavielle (2005) to identify breakpoints in time-series of  
184 biologging data (or more generally any multivariate time-series) and potentially  
185 categorize resulting segments into common groups based on similarities in data  
186 characteristics. This provides a viable alternative to established but often statistically  
187 complicated methods (e.g. Hidden Markov models) for identifying “behavioural states”  
188 across time-series data. Indeed, the authors content that in some circumstances such  
189 segmentation can actually outperform these increasingly popular yet more complicated  
190 methods, and through application to both fine- and broad-scale biologging data (and  
191 through simulation) they demonstrate that their approach is scale-insensitive and may  
192 be applied to many ecologically relevant questions.

193 An alternative to using statistical segmentation methods to identify different  
194 movement modes is to observe the behaviour and state of tagged individuals, annotate  
195 the movement paths with the observed behaviour or state time series, derive from the  
196 annotated time series a set of criteria to distinguish different individual states or  
197 behaviour modes from the characteristics of the movement path alone, and use these  
198 rules to identify changes in state or movement mode from tagged animals which had  
199 not been also visually monitored. To do so, Taylor et al. (2020) employ a novel use of

200 Hidden Markov models, to identify different types of sexual behaviour in male African  
201 savanna elephants *Loxodonta africana*, as a function of their movement. The study  
202 shows that the activity and home range of elephants vary with male reproductive status  
203 and age and as such offer an exceptional opportunity to reliably estimate fitness metrics  
204 from movement itself. The authors further discuss the implications for the conservation  
205 and management of elephants, as well as the opportunities of long-term biologging of  
206 individuals for linking movement to life-history trade-offs.

207         Whilst an increasing body of research has shown the impact of consistent  
208 individual differences in behavioural phenotypes, called animal personalities or  
209 behavioural syndromes (Sih, Bell, Johnson & Ziemba, 2004; Réale et al., 2010), on  
210 foraging behaviour, exploratory movements and other spatial behaviours (Wilson &  
211 McLaughlin, 2007; Boon, Réale & Boutin, 2008; Minderman et al., 2010; van Overveld  
212 & Matthysen, 2010; Bijleveld et al., 2014; Villegas-Ríos, Réale, Freitas, Moland &  
213 Olsen, 2018), the important relationship between animal personality and foraging site  
214 fidelity has not been studied yet. Here, Harris et al. (2020) GPS-tagged over 100  
215 breeding kittiwakes *Rissa tridactyla* across four colonies in Svalbard and used a robust  
216 type of novel object tests to measure the personality (especially, boldness) of the tagged  
217 individuals, Hidden-Markov models to identify the foraging sites at sea, and also  
218 quantified the repeatability of foraging trips. Their results show that individual  
219 differences in site fidelity can be driven by differences in individual personality, with  
220 bolder birds showing more repeatable foraging trips and a higher degree of site fidelity  
221 during the chick incubation stage. This has important implications for studies on  
222 individual differences in foraging behaviour and movements, indicating that in addition  
223 to age and sex or environmental drivers, also personality differences such as boldness  
224 will need to be considered.

225

226 **Habitat selection**

227 A key aim of movement ecology research is to quantify and predict habitat/resource  
228 selection by animals (Johnson, 1980; Arthur, Manly, McDonald & Garner, 1996;  
229 Rhodes, McAlpine, Lunney & Possingham, 2005; Christ, Hoef & Zimmerman, 2008;  
230 Moorcroft & Barnett, 2008; Matthiopoulos et al., 2015). Importantly, individual  
231 movements lead to the emergence of habitat selection and space use patterns at larger  
232 scales (Johnson, 1980; Moorcroft & Lewis, 2006; Börger, Dalziel & Fryxell, 2008) and  
233 differences in habitat use between individuals may be caused by differences in the  
234 individual state (Bijleveld et al., 2016) or the external environment (sensu Nathan et al.,  
235 2008). Quantifying individual differences in behaviour is a key focus of ecological  
236 research (Lomnicki, 1988; Bolnick et al., 2003) and implicit examples for resource  
237 selection functions (RSFs) have emerged as early as Gillies et al. (2006) and  
238 Hebblewhite and Merrill (2008). However, explicit examples were only occurring more  
239 recently, e.g., Dzailak et al (2011) and Leclerc et al. (2016). Though solutions existed  
240 for RSFs, these same solutions were less clear for step selection analysis (SSF, Fortin  
241 et al., 2005) or integrated step selection analyses (iSSF, Avgar, Potts, Lewis & Boyce,  
242 2016).

243 Here Muff et al. (2020) resolve this challenge and present new statistical methods  
244 to estimate individual variation in habitat selection. The approach stems from the  
245 classical distinction between RSFs and SSFs, whereby SSF have been typically  
246 analysed as a conditional logistic regression, which compares used relocations in space  
247 to a paired set of available locations, and the more recent understanding that selection  
248 and avoidance are a Poisson point process (Hooten, Johnson, McClintock & Morales,  
249 2017). The authors capitalize on this relationship between conditional logistic models

250 and Poisson models and develop an approach based on stratum-specific fixed intercepts  
251 to estimate individual-specific slopes for resource selection, and consequently habitat  
252 selection parameters, for individuals and populations, using both frequentist and  
253 Bayesian approaches, and exemplify the approach using simulations and empirical  
254 datasets. This methodological advance represents a new benchmark for resource and  
255 habitat selection studies and allows researchers to confidently estimate individual  
256 variation, enabling an unprecedented opportunity to tackle questions of consistent-  
257 individual differences in the spatial ecology of habitat selection.

258         Quantifying and mapping the habitat used by animals is also critically important  
259 for applied questions. For instance, the growing need for renewable energy and the  
260 accompanying demand on land-use will cause increased human-wildlife conflict over  
261 habitat (Perrow, 2017). By combining state-of-the-art tracking devices, movement  
262 analyses, and environmental modelling, Marques et al. (2020) showed that soaring  
263 black kites avoided turbines during southward migration. With a marked loss of up to  
264 14% of habitat for these birds, the authors highlight that the effect of wind turbines are  
265 greater than previously recognized and urge authorities to establish regulations that  
266 protect soaring habitat.

267

## 268 COMMUNITY ECOLOGY

### 269 **Foraging behaviour and community ecology**

270 A fundamental concept of the Movement Ecology framework is that the interactions  
271 between individual conditions and the characteristics and dynamics of the external  
272 environment generate the structure and geometry of movement paths (Nathan et al.,  
273 2008). Thanks to the rapid progress in biologging technology, there has been a  
274 consequent increase in detailed datasets recording the movements and behaviour or

275 survival of multiple individuals from co-occurring species. Here, Dehnhard et al. (2020)  
276 use a large tracking dataset, combining GPS and wet-dry sensors, to investigate inter-  
277 and intraspecific niche overlap in three sympatrically breeding and closely related  
278 species of fulmarine petrels. They combine stable isotope analysis to investigate diet,  
279 GPS locations, immersion data, and expectation-maximisation binary clustering to  
280 identify foraging activities in the tracking data. Results reveal a high degree of inter-  
281 and intraspecific overlap in foraging distributions in both incubation and chick-rearing  
282 stages, with partial niche overlap, and low individual specialisation of foraging location  
283 or habitat. The study provides novel evidence that generalist foraging strategies may be  
284 advantageous in certain environments, even under competition from con- and hetero-  
285 specifics, a contrasting strategy to niche partitioning by allochrony exhibited by other  
286 Southern Ocean seabirds (Clewlow et al., 2019; Granroth-Wilding & Phillips, 2019).

287 Similarly, Cusack et al. (2020) combined movement and predation data from a  
288 predator-prey system – elk and moose living in the Yellowstone National Park - to  
289 investigate the controversial question regarding how much prey space use can minimise  
290 predation risk. Using a comprehensive set of empirical data, combined with a strong  
291 theoretical framework, addressing the three common challenges in the field –  
292 inconsistent measures of predation risk, lack of robust null expectations, and response  
293 measures obtained at biased spatiotemporal scales – the authors show an absence of  
294 strong spatio-temporal prey avoidance of predation risk, contrary to expectations.

295 Bonnot et al. (accepted) also tackle notions of predator influences on prey  
296 activity. Notably, the authors use activity sensor and accelerometer data from GPS  
297 collars that date back to 2003 from the EURODEER project, deployed on replicate  
298 populations of roe deer, to look at changes in diurnal activity rates in response to  
299 disturbance and predator risk, both by human hunters and lynx *Lynx lynx*. Roe deer seek

300 refuge in time by shifting their activities toward nocturnality in response to human  
301 disturbance, captured here with the human footprint index (HFI); and this shift is  
302 exacerbated when HFI interacts with human hunters. However, the shift in roe deer  
303 activity faces a trade-off when juxtaposed to the presence of lynx, a nocturnal predator,  
304 highlighting how human activities may interfere with predator-prey interactions. More  
305 generally, the paper is also an example of how technological advances in biologging  
306 may also stimulate researchers to revisit large existing data sets through a contemporary  
307 biologging lens.

308         Finally, biologging provides new opportunities to examine intra-specific  
309 interactions for rare and hard-to-detect species. Barkley et al. (accepted) demonstrate  
310 this possibility by developing and testing a novel multi-sensor biologging package -  
311 composed of a combined acoustic telemetry transmitter and a mobile hydrophone,  
312 together with a tri-axial accelerometer and a temperature-pressure sensor, inside a  
313 floatation device to recover the tag at sea after deployment (including VHF and ARGOS  
314 transmitters) - deployed on a rare marine predator, the Greenland shark. This is paired  
315 to an analytical framework utilizing both simulation and statistical methods to estimate  
316 the likelihood of animal interactions based on device characteristics and duration of  
317 contact events between tagged individuals. The authors use these sensors to assess  
318 behavioural changes in swim speed and depth during and following contact events, and  
319 they discuss how this framework may be adapted and applied to many elusive marine  
320 species, with an exciting potential for future studies.

321

322 FUNCTIONAL ECOLOGY

323 **Movement costs and energy expenditure**

324 Daily energy needs of animals are mostly achieved by the metabolization of  
325 macromolecules (protein, lipid and carbohydrates) obtained from foods (Nagy, Girard  
326 & Brown, 1999). Environmental fluctuations influence the nutritional composition and  
327 energy contents of foods shaping the foraging behaviour and habitat use of wild animals  
328 (Machovsky-Capuska et al., 2018). Under these circumstances, field-based research has  
329 the challenge to overcome complex logistical constraints to collect reliable data on  
330 nutritional and energy requirements in free-ranging animals (Machovsky-Capuska et  
331 al., 2016). One of the main challenges in the wild is undertaking the prolonged  
332 observations necessary to estimate energy budgets. Here, Wilson et al. (2020) fill this  
333 knowledge gap by critically assessing the use of metrics derived from accelerometers  
334 as a proxy for movement-related metabolic energy expenditure.

335         Similarly, biologging enables Benoit et al. (2020) to quantify energy expenditure,  
336 coupling dynamic body acceleration and distance travelled as a proxy for energy,  
337 applied to the costs of dispersal. To stay, i.e., exhibit philopatry, or to go, i.e., disperse,  
338 is a fundamental question in how we understand animal movement with implications  
339 for gene flow and mating systems (Clobert, Le Galliard, Cote, Meylan & Massot, 2009).  
340 For roe deer Benoit et al. (2020) find that indeed, the transient phase of dispersal is  
341 markedly more costly; that these energy costs become more expensive in landscapes  
342 fragmented by roads; and that these costs are primarily spent at dawn. Where so many  
343 behavioural decisions are trade-offs between energy gained and energy spent,  
344 biologging helps us quantify then test these precise notions.

345         Conversely, Corbeau et al. (2020) combine GPS with measures of altitude and  
346 tri-axial acceleration to identify different flight behaviours (e.g. soaring, flapping) in  
347 great frigatebirds and quantify energy expenditure during those phases. This allows  
348 them to compare the ascent rate, gliding efficiency, flapping rate and proportion of time

349 spent soaring or gliding between age classes and to test the hypothesis that juvenile  
350 birds have inferior flight skills than adults, but that they learn how to improve their  
351 skills over time (see also above in the Behavioural Ecology section).

352

## 353 METHODS – STATISTICAL ECOLOGY

### 354 **Tagging effects and animal ethics**

355 There is a general consensus that biologging has improved our understanding of  
356 charismatic and cryptic species (Ropert-Coudert & Wilson, 2005; Wilmers et al., 2015).

357 It is also widely known that that the deployment of biologgers presents considerable  
358 welfare concerns to those animals carrying them (Culik & Wilson, 1991; Wilson &  
359 McMahon, 2006). Hawkins (2004) identified major areas for refinement including the

360 attachment procedures, optimal location of the devices on the body and their  
361 dimensions (e.g. mass, shape and size). Although few studies assessed the behavioural  
362 reactions to deployments (e.g. Vandenabeele et al., 2014; Pearson et al., 2017; Pearson,

363 Jones, Brandon, Stockin & Machovsky-Capuska, 2019), here Williams et al. (2020)  
364 discuss how many of these concerns have not been fully addressed yet. In particular,  
365 the authors highlight the need for more comprehensive information on physical

366 principles (e.g. fluid dynamics) to understand the real short- and long-term effects for  
367 animals. Among those potential consequences, this issue presents a contribution from  
368 Brlik et al. (2020) that uses meta-analysis to quantitatively review the existent literature

369 to examine effects of geolocator tagging on small bird species. Their findings suggest  
370 that the devices' load may lead to a potential effect on the survival of tagged birds.  
371 Overall, both articles are consistent with their recommendations on the consideration

372 of ethical aspects and scientific benefits prior to biologger deployments.

373

374 **Handling and analysing biologging data**

375 Critical to the application of biologging technologies to ecological research is the proper  
376 management of the devices themselves and preparation of the tremendous amounts of  
377 data they produce. It is not uncommon for a single high-resolution device to collect  
378 millions if not billions of observations on a given deployment (Kays et al., 2015), which  
379 complicates storage both on-board the device during data collection and subsequently  
380 in data drives. These are themselves limited by battery capacities relative to animal size  
381 such that deployments do not adversely affect the animal nor the quality of resulting  
382 data. Rarely are such issues covered in great detail in the ecological literature, and a  
383 significant contribution of this *Special Feature* is in providing guidelines and best  
384 practices for would-be users. Here, Lisovski et al. (2020) provide a practical “How-To”  
385 paper on the effective use of light-based geolocators, and how resulting data should be  
386 handled and manipulated for subsequent analyses. This includes multiple online  
387 resources laying out in an approachable fashion the deceptively complex matter of  
388 linking daylight hours to decimal-degree global positioning systems. Critically, the  
389 authors also provide data standards and archiving guidelines to facilitate reproducibility  
390 of geocator studies and encourage common data reporting structures to simplify data  
391 sharing and comparison between studies, which may move this body of scientific data  
392 toward strongly needed common data standards for all such studies.

393 Promising approaches to solve the data storage and transmission problem of  
394 modern biologgers, comprise methods to compress, subset, and analyse on-board the  
395 data before storing and transmitting the data (Cox et al., 2018; Heerah, Cox, Blevin,  
396 Guinet & Charrassin, 2019), or the use of AI on board to trigger the sensors to record  
397 data only when the animals display the behaviour of interest (Korpela et al., 2019).  
398 Here, Nuiten et al. (2020) present a new data compression approach for summarising

399 accelerometer data on board to increase on-board storage capacity and reduce power  
400 requirements for transmitting the data, whilst retaining the original data's information.  
401 Using data from tagged Bewick's swans *Cygnus columbianus bewickii* the authors  
402 compare the information from short bouts of raw accelerometer data and from summary  
403 statistics, collected in parallel, demonstrating a six-fold reduction in data size and  
404 energy use whilst maintaining the same accuracy in behaviour identification and time  
405 budgets. The gains in power use and storage size can hence be used to decrease tag size,  
406 or to increase the monitoring effort and obtain a more detailed quantification of the time  
407 budget of tagged individuals.

408         Optimising the use of biologging sensors, however, requires a good technical  
409 knowledge of the characteristics of the many different sensors available. Interestingly,  
410 in the Preface to the influential 'Handbook on Biotelemetry and Radio Tracking'  
411 (Amlaner & Macdonald, 1980) the Editors motivated the need to bring together  
412 researchers from contrasting fields: "The development of ever more obscure jargon is  
413 divisive among scientists, inhibiting communication between people who might  
414 otherwise solve at least some of each other's problems. Nowhere is this unnatural rift  
415 more obvious than between biologists and engineers and yet with a little patience it can  
416 be bridged." Forty years later, the importance of establishing multidisciplinary  
417 collaborations is as important as ever to take full advantage of the opportunities offered  
418 by the biologging revolution, as Williams et al. (2020) highlight in a wide-ranging  
419 review of the field in this *Special Feature*. Importantly, the authors identify four critical  
420 areas – questions, sensors, data, analyses – for multidisciplinary collaborations and  
421 synthesize it into an Integrated Biologging Framework (IBF), to aid decision making  
422 for ecologists to optimise the use of biologging technologies for answering ecological  
423 questions. Based on the IBF the authors also address in detail the crucial, yet seldom

424 asked, question of how best to match biological questions with the most appropriate  
425 type and combination of biologging sensors, as well as how to optimise the  
426 experimental/field design and how best to visualise and analyse big, complex  
427 biologging data, and conclude with an outlook of the most promising future  
428 developments for optimising the use of biologgers.

429         Finally, as the amount and complexity of movement and environmental data has  
430 increased exponentially, so has the number of statistical and mathematical methods to  
431 analyse movement data, as well as the number of dedicated software packages for  
432 movement analyses. Most researchers are not aware anymore of the number and  
433 diversity of software packages available for movement analysis, often hampering the  
434 ability to select the most appropriate method and software tool for the question  
435 addressed. Here, Joo et al. (2020) provide the first critical analysis of the field and  
436 review a staggering 58 different packages available for analysing movement and  
437 biologging data in the R Software Environment (R Development Core Team, 2019).  
438 Importantly, the authors first set up a workflow model for the analysis of tracking data,  
439 identifying three key analysis stages which they use to group the software packages by  
440 the function(s) performed, before reviewing each package, including assessing the  
441 quality of the available supporting documentation. Furthermore, the authors use  
442 network analysis to assess the linkages between packages, highlighting the fragmented  
443 and isolated development of the field, and provide a comprehensive road map for  
444 ecologists and software developers to choose the most appropriate tool for a given  
445 research question and improve the quality of software packages.

446

447 **Future Outlook**

448 Notwithstanding the current ‘biologging revolution’, the movements and behaviour of  
449 most animal species still cannot be studied using biologgers, or not over sufficiently  
450 long-time scales. Continued technological development – including smaller sensors,  
451 smaller batteries, novel attachment and recovery methods and their ability to transmit  
452 their recorded data – will be crucial to advance research in animal ecology and will only  
453 be achieved through enhanced multidisciplinary collaborations. These cross  
454 disciplinary teams could lead to fresh insights into a wide range of research fields  
455 enabling for example (a) assessments of anthropogenic pollution impacts in wildlife  
456 (e.g. oil spills, Montevocchi et al., 2011; Montevocchi et al., 2012; marine debris  
457 ingestion, Fukuoka et al., 2016); (b) predictions of the distribution and expansion of  
458 invasive species (Lennox, Blouin-Demers, Rous & Cooke, 2016); (c) a better  
459 understanding of the terrestrial and aquatic species involved in human-wildlife conflicts  
460 and their possible geographic areas (Cooke et al., 2017); and (d) unravelling the effects  
461 of climate change and environmental fluctuations in habitat use, foraging behaviour and  
462 nutrient acquisition in individuals and their communities (Machovsky-Capuska et al.,  
463 2018). Exciting ongoing technical developments include the miniaturization of GPS-  
464 technology, but also the development of alternative technology that uses smaller  
465 tracking-devices (MacCurdy et al., 2009; Toledo, Kishon, Orchan, Shohat & Nathan,  
466 2016; MacCurdy, Bijleveld, Gabrielson & Cortopassi, 2019), and biologgers with  
467 improved sensors to measure speed, reduce the impact of devices on tagged animals,  
468 enable lifetime tracking, and novel approaches for real-time processing and remote  
469 transmission of data (Williams et al., 2020). Similarly, a strong advancement of the  
470 theoretical and mathematical foundations of movement ecology, combined with  
471 improved computational methods, will be required to take full advantage of the

472 unprecedentedly rich and complex types and amounts of data now collected by modern  
473 biologging tags.

474 Not only will multidisciplinary collaborations be key to achieve strong future  
475 progress, ecologists will also need to considerably invest to obtain the necessary  
476 training and expertise to properly deploy and recover the loggers, and specialised  
477 training in data management, storage, manipulation, and visualization; programming,  
478 workflow development, and metadata standards; and quantitative and statistical  
479 analysis. The papers included in this *Special Feature* demonstrate an exciting set of the  
480 leading-edge scientific and methodological advancement which can be achieved and  
481 give an idea of how much more may yet be possible with modern biologging  
482 technologies. We hence submit that biologging, if fully adopted by the ecological,  
483 conservation, and management communities, has the capacity to transform modern  
484 ecology as much as VHF, ARGOS, and GPS did 30-50 years ago. It is our hope that  
485 this *Special Feature* highlights the many fascinating insights enabled by the creative  
486 application of biologging to animal ecology and encourages the upcoming generation  
487 of scientists to consider adopting them for their own research.

488

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