Weak effects of geolocators on small birds

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Weak effects of geolocators on small birds: a meta-analysis controlled for phylogeny and publication bias

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1 **Weak effects of geolocators on small birds: a meta-analysis controlled for phylogeny and**

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141   **Abstract**

142   1. Currently, the deployment of tracking devices is one of the most frequently used approaches to

143   study movement ecology of birds. Recent miniaturisation of light-level geolocators enabled

144   studying small bird species whose migratory patterns were widely unknown. However,

145   geolocators may reduce vital rates in tagged birds and may bias obtained movement data.

146   2. There is a need for a thorough assessment of the potential tag effects on small birds, as previous

147   meta-analyses did not evaluate unpublished data and impact of multiple life-history traits,

148   focused mainly on large species and the number of published studies tagging small birds has

149   increased substantially.

150   3. We quantitatively reviewed 549 records extracted from 74 published and 48 unpublished studies

151   on over 7,800 tagged and 17,800 control individuals to examine the effects of geolocator tagging

152   on small bird species (body mass <100 g). We calculated the effect of tagging on apparent

153   survival, condition, phenology and breeding performance and identified the most important

154   predictors of the magnitude of effect sizes.

155   4. Even though the effects were not statistically significant in phylogenetically controlled models, we

156   found a weak negative impact of geolocators on apparent survival. The negative effect on

157   apparent survival was stronger with increasing relative load of the device and with geolocators

158   attached using elastic harnesses. Moreover, tagging effects were stronger in smaller species.

159   5. In conclusion, we found a weak effect on apparent survival of tagged birds and managed to

160   pinpoint key aspects and drivers of tagging effects. We provide recommendations for establishing

161   matched control group for proper effect size assessment in future studies and outline various

162   aspects of tagging that need further investigation. Finally, our results encourage further use of

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163   geolocators on small bird species but the ethical aspects and scientific benefits should always be

164   considered.

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166   **Keywords**: condition, migration, phenology, reproduction, return rate, survival, tracking device, tag

167   effect

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169   **Introduction**

170   Tracking devices have brought undisputed insights into the ecology of birds. Use of these tags has

171   enabled researchers to gather valuable information about the timing of life events across annual cycles,

172   the year-round geographic distribution of populations and other important ecological patterns in many

173   species whose movement ecology was widely unknown (e.g. Patchett, Finch, & Cresswell, 2018; Stanley,

174   MacPherson, Fraser, McKinnon, & Stutchbury, 2012; Weimerskirch et al., 2002). A significant proportion

175   of recently published tracking studies use light-level geolocators on small bird species (body mass up to

176   100 g; Bridge et al., 2013; McKinnon & Love, 2018); however, the increasing use of these tags on small

177   birds raises questions about ethics of tagging and how representative the behaviour of tagged

178   individuals is (Jewell, 2013; Wilson & McMahon, 2006).

179   Studies using tracking devices such as archival light-level geolocators (hereafter 'geolocators')

180   frequently report the effect of tagging. The published results on the effects of geolocator tagging are

181   equivocal: some found reduced apparent survival, breeding success and parental care (Arlt, Low, & Pärt,

182   2013; Pakanen, Rönkä, Thomson, & Koivula, 2015; Scandolara et al., 2014; Weiser et al., 2016) while

183   others report no obvious effects (Bell, Harouchi, Hewson, & Burgess, 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015;

184   Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk, Souchay, Jenni-Eiermann, Bauer, & Schaub, 2015). Recent meta-analyses

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185   evaluating the effects of geolocators (Costantini & Møller, 2013) and other tracking devices (Barron,

186   Brawn, & Weatherhead, 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) showed slightly negative effects on apparent survival,

187   breeding success and parental care. These studies also discussed relative load as an aspect affecting the

188   tagged birds (Costantini & Møller, 2013), or suggested multiple threshold values of relative load on birds

189   (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018). However, these studies involved mainly large bird species

190   where the same additional relative load will more negatively affect surplus power and thus the flight

191   performance than in smaller species (Caccamise & Hedin, 1985). Moreover, previous studies did not

192   control for the effect of small-sample studies, or phylogenetic non-independence and its uncertainty.

193   There is thus a lack of systematic and complex evaluation of geolocator effects on small birds including

194   species' life-history and ecological traits, geolocator design, and type of attachment.

195   Almost all prior meta-analyses reporting effects of tagging relied only on published sources and

196   could thus be affected by publication bias (Koricheva, Gurevitch, & Mengersen, 2013), as omitting

197   unpublished sources in meta-analyses may obscure the result (see e.g. Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). The

198   main source of publication bias in movement ecology could be a lower probability of publishing studies

199   based on a small sample size, including studies where no or only few tagged birds were successfully

200   recovered due to a strong tagging effect. Additionally, geolocator effects most frequently rely on

201   comparisons between tagged and control birds and a biased choice of control individuals may directly

202   lead to the misestimation of the tagging effect sizes. The bias in the control groups can be due to

203   selection of smaller birds, birds being caught in different spatio-temporal conditions, including non-

204   territorial individuals, or different effort put into recapturing control and tagged individuals.

205   The number of studies tagging small birds is rapidly increasing each year even though our

206   understanding of tag effects is incomplete. In this study, we evaluated the effects of tagging on apparent

207   survival, condition, phenology, and breeding performance for small bird species (<100 g) in a robust

208   dataset of both published and unpublished studies to minimize the impact of publication bias.

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209   Moreover, we assess whether the tagging effects are related to species' ecological and life-history traits,

210   type of control treatment as well as geolocator and attachment designs. We build on the most recent

211   advances in meta-analytical statistical modelling to get unbiased estimates of the geolocator

212   deployment effects controlled for phylogenetic non-independence and its uncertainty (Doncaster &

213   Spake, 2017; Guillerme & Healy 2017; Hadfield, 2010; Viechtbauer, 2010).

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215   **Predictions**

216   i) Geolocators will negatively affect apparent survival, condition, phenology and breeding

217   performance of small birds.

218   ii) Negative effects will be stronger in unpublished studies than in published studies.

219   iii) Deleterious effects will be most prominent in studies establishing matched control groups compared

220   to studies with potentially-biased control groups.

221   iv) Geolocators which constitute a higher relative load will imply stronger negative effects.

222   v) Geolocators with a longer light stalk/pipe will cause stronger negative effects because of increased

223   drag in flight and thus increased energetic expenditure (Bowlin et al., 2010; Pennycuick, Fast,

224   Ballerstädt, & Rattenborg, 2012). These effects will be stronger in aerial foragers than in other

225   foraging guilds (Costantini & Møller, 2013).

226   vi) Non-elastic harnesses will cause stronger negative effects than elastic harnesses, which better

227   adjust to intra-annual body mass changes and avoid flight restriction (Blackburn et al., 2016).

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231   **Material and Methods**

232   *Data search*

233   We conducted a comprehensive search for both published and unpublished studies deploying

234   geolocators on bird species with body mass up to 100 g. We searched the Web of Science Core

235   Collection (search terms: TS = (geoloc* AND (bird* OR avian OR migra*) OR geologg*)) and Scopus

236   databases (search terms: TITLE-ABS-KEY (geoloc* AND (bird* OR migra*) OR geologg*)), to find

237   published studies listed to 18 February 2018. Moreover, we searched reference lists of studies using

238   geolocators on small birds and included studies from previous comparative studies (Bridge et al., 2013;

239   Costantini & Møller, 2013; Weiser et al., 2016). In order to obtain information from unpublished studies,

240   we inquired geolocator producers and the Migrant Landbird Study Group to disseminate our request for

241   unpublished study details among their customers and members, respectively. In addition, we asked the

242   corresponding authors of the published studies to share any unpublished data. The major geolocator

243   producers – Biotrack, Lotek, Migrate Technology and the Swiss Ornithological Institute – sent our

244   request to their customers. To find whether the originally unpublished studies were published over the

245   course of this study, we inspected their status on 1 December 2018. The entire process of search and

246   selection of studies and records (described below) is presented in a flow-chart (Fig. S1).

247   *Inclusion criteria; additional data requesting*

248   We included studies that met the following criteria:

249   1. The study reported response variables (e.g. return rates, body masses) necessary for effect size

250   calculation.

251   2. The study included a control group of birds alongside the geolocator-tagged individuals or reported

252   a pairwise comparison of tagged birds during geolocator deployment and recovery.

253   3. As a control group, the study considered birds marked on the same site, of the same sex and age

254   class without any indication of a difference in recapture effort between tagged and control groups.

255   4. For pairwise comparisons, the study presented correlation coefficients or raw data.

256   5. The variable of interest was presented outside the interaction with another variable.

257   In order to obtain robust and unbiased results, we asked the corresponding authors for missing data or

258   clarification when the criteria were not met or when it was not clear whether the study complied with

259   the criteria (70% response rate [n = 115]). In addition, we excluded birds that had lost geolocators

260   before subsequent recapture as we did not know when the bird lost the geolocator, and excluded all

261   individuals tagged repeatedly over years because of possible inter-annual carry-over effects of the

262   devices. VBr assessed all studies for eligibility and extracted data, the final dataset was cross-checked by

263   JK and PP. A list of all published studies included in the meta-analysis is provided in the Published Data

264   Sources section.

265   *Trait categories; effect size calculation; explanatory variables*

266   We divided all collected data into four trait categories: apparent survival, condition, phenology and

267   breeding performance based on the response variables reported (e.g. inter-annual recapture rates, body

268   mass changes, arrival dates, or clutch sizes; Table S2). These categories represent the main traits

269   possibly affected in the geolocator-tagged individuals. Subsequently, analyses were run separately for

270   each trait category. We calculated the effect sizes for groups of tagged birds from the same study site

271   and year of attachment, of the same sex (if applicable) and specific geolocator and attachment type

272   accompanied with the corresponding control groups. For simplicity, we call these units *records*

273   throughout the text. For each record, we extracted a contingency table with the treatment arm

274   continuity correction (Schwarzer, Carpenter, & Rücker, 2014) or mean, variance, and sample size, to

275   calculate the unbiased standardised mean difference – Hedges' *g* (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, &

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276   Rothstein, 2009) – and its variance with correction for the effect of small sample sizes (Doncaster &

277   Spake, 2018). We used the equation from Sweeting et al. (2004) to calculate variance in pairwise

278   comparisons. When raw data were not provided, we used the reported test statistics (F, t or χ^2) and

279   sample sizes to calculate the effect size using the R package compute.es (Del Re 2013). Besides the

280   effect size measures, we extracted additional variables of potential interest – ecological and life-history

281   traits per species, methodological aspects of the study, geolocator and attachment designs and harness

282   material elasticity (Table 1).

283   *Accounting for dependency*

284   We accounted for data non-independence on several levels. When multiple records shared one control

285   group (e.g. several geolocator types and attachment designs used in one year), we split the sample size

286   in the shared control group by the number of records to avoid a false increase in record precision. When

287   multiple measures were available for the same individuals, we randomly chose one effect size measure

288   in each trait category (n = 8). If the study provided both recapture and re-encounter rates, we chose the

289   re-encounter rate as a more objective measure of apparent survival. Re-encounters included captures

290   and observations of tagged birds and thus the bias towards the tagged birds caused by the potentially

291   higher recapture effort to retrieve the geolocators should be lower. Finally, we accounted for

292   phylogenetic non-independence between the species and the uncertainty of these relationships using

293   100 phylogenetic trees (Jetz, Thomas, Joy, Hartmann, & Mooers, 2012) downloaded from the

294   BirdTree.org (www.birdtree.org) using the backbone of Hackett et al. (2008). Moreover, we used the

295   random intercepts of species and study sites in all models, the latter to account for possible site-specific

296   differences (such as different netting effort or other field methods used by particular research teams).

297   *Overall effect sizes and heterogeneity*

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298   We calculated the overall effect size for each trait category from all available records using meta-

299   analytical null models. We employed the *MCMCglmm* function from the MCMCglmm package (Hadfield,

300   2010) to estimate overall effect sizes not controlled for phylogeny (model 1, Table S3). We then used the

301   *mulTree* function from the mulTree package (Guillerme & Healy, 2017) to automatically fit a

302   MCMCglmm model on each phylogenetic tree and summarized the results from all these models to

303   obtain phylogenetically controlled overall effect size estimates (model 2, Table S3). We used weakly

304   informative inverse-Gamma priors (V = 1, nu = 0.002) in all models. All fitted MCMCglmm models

305   converged and Gelman-Rubin statistic was always <1.1 for all parameters. As our data contained many

306   effect sizes based on small sample sizes, which could lead to a biased estimate of the overall effect size

307   variance, all effect sizes were weighted by their mean-adjusted sampling variance (Doncaster & Spake,

308   2018). We considered effect sizes (Hedge's *g*) of 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 weak, moderate and large effects,

309   respectively. Moreover, we calculated the amount of between-study heterogeneity in all null models

310   using the equation described in Nakagawa and Santos (2012). Phylogenetic heritability (H^2) expressing

311   the phylogenetic signal was estimated as the ratio of phylogenetic variance ($\sigma^2_{phylogeny}$) against the sum

312   of phylogenetic and species variance ($\sigma^2_{species}$) from the models (Table S3; Hadfield & Nakagawa, 2010):

313    $H^2 = \sigma^2_{phylogeny} / (\sigma^2_{phylogeny} + \sigma^2_{species})$

314   *Multivariate meta-analysis*

315   To unveil the most important dependencies of the geolocator effects, we calculated three types of

316   multivariate models: a full trait model (model 3), an ecological model (model 4) and models of

317   publication bias (model 5, Table S3). In the full trait model, we used methodological, species, geolocator

318   specification and attachment variables (Table 1) to estimate their impact on apparent survival (model 3).

319   We did not compare the tagging effects of different attachment types due to their use in specific groups

320   of species (e.g. the leg-flagged attachment in shorebirds or the full-body harnesses in nightjars and

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321   swifts only). Prior to fitting the ecological model, we employed a principal component analysis of the

322   inter-correlated log continuous life-history traits and extracted the two most important ordination axes

323   – PC1 and PC2 (Table 1). The PC1 explained 54.4% of the variability and expressed a gradient of species

324   characterised mainly by increasing body mass, egg mass and clutch mass (Fig. S4). The PC2 explained

325   18.7% of variance and was characterised mainly by increasing clutch sizes, number of broods and

326   decreasing migration distances (Fig. S4). These axes together with the categorical ecological traits (Table

327   1) were then entered into the ecological model to estimate their effect on apparent survival (model 4).

328   Finally, we tested for differences in effect sizes between published and unpublished results in each trait

329   category using all available records (model 5). In these models, we employed the *rma.mv* function from

330   the R package metafor (Viechtbauer, 2010) weighted by the mean-adjusted sampling error (Doncaster &

331   Spake, 2018). Continuous predictors were scaled and centred. None of the model residuals violated the

332   assumptions of normal distribution. Because the phylogenetic relatedness of the species explained only

333   a small amount of variation and the phylogenetic relatedness correlates with the life-history and

334   ecological traits, we did not control for phylogeny in the multivariate models but incorporated the

335   random intercepts of species and study site. We calculated R^2 for the full trait and ecological models

336   using the residual between-study variability ($\tau^2_{residual}$) and the total between-study variability (τ^2_{total})

337   according to the equation (López-López, Marín-Martínez, Sánchez-Meca, Van den Noortgate, &

338   Viechtbauer, 2014):

339    $R^2 = (1 - \tau^2_{residual} / \tau^2_{total}) \times 100$

340   *Publication bias; body mass manipulation*

341   We used funnel plots to visually check for potential asymmetry caused by publication bias in each trait

342   category (Fig. S5). To quantify the level of asymmetry in each trait category, we applied the Egger's

343   regression tests of the meta-analytical residuals from all null models of the trait categories (calculated

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344   using the *rma.mv* function) against effect size precision (1 / mean-adjusted standard error; Nakagawa &

345   Santos, 2012). An intercept significantly differing from zero suggests the presence of publication bias. In

346   order to find differences in log body mass between the tagged and control individuals during the tagging

347   and marking, we applied a linear mixed-effect model with species and study site as a random intercept

348   weighted by the sample sizes. We considered all effect sizes significant when the 95% credible interval

349   (CrI; using *MCMCglmm* function) or confidence interval (CI; using *rma.mv* function) did not overlap zero.

350   All analyses were conducted in R version 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016).

351

352   **Results**

353   We assessed 854 records for eligibility of effect size calculation and excluded 36% of these records

354   mainly due to a missing control group (59% of ineligible records) or missing essential values for effect

355   size calculation (21%; Fig. S1). Finally, a total of 122 studies containing 549 effect sizes were included in

356   our meta-analysis wherein 35% effect sizes originated from unpublished sources (Table 2). The vast

357   majority of the analysed effect sizes originated from Europe or North America (94%; Fig. S6) and the

358   data contained information about 7,829 tagged and 17,834 control individuals of 69 species from 27

359   families and 7 orders (Table S7).

360   We found a weak overall negative effect (Hedges' *g*: –0.2; 95% CrI –0.29, –0.11; P <0.001) only

361   on apparent survival in the model not controlled for phylogeny (model 1). Although we found no

362   statistically significant overall tagging effects in any trait category when controlling for phylogenetic

363   relatedness, the estimates were similar to those not controlled for phylogeny (model 2, Fig. 1). The

364   phylogenetic signal (H^2 = 59%) was statistically significant only for apparent survival, suggesting that

365   closely related species have more similar response to tagging than less related species, but the variances

366   explained by phylogeny and species were very low for all models (Table S8).

17

367   The full trait model of apparent survival revealed that tagging effects were stronger with

368   increasing load on tagged individuals and that geolocators with elastic harnesses affected birds more

369   negatively than geolocators with non-elastic harnesses (Table 3, Fig. 2). However, we found no

370   statistically significant effect on apparent survival for control group type, sex, stalk length, foraging

371   strategy or the interaction between stalk length and foraging strategy (model 3, Table 3). The ecological

372   model suggested a relationship of apparent survival with the PC1, with negative effects being stronger

373   with decreasing body, egg and clutch mass (model 4, Table 3). The full trait model explained 21.1% and

374   the ecological model 11.8% of the between-study variance.

375   We did not find any evidence for publication bias in any of the trait categories, either visually in

376   the funnel plots (Fig. S5), or using Egger's regression tests (Table 2). Moreover, there were no

377   statistically significant differences in tagging effects between published and unpublished studies (model

378   5, Table S9). The geolocator-tagged birds were on average 3.8% heavier than control individuals prior to

379   the geolocator deployment and marking (LMM: estimate 0.008 ± 0.003, t = 2.47, P = 0.014).

380

381   **Discussion**

382   Geolocator deployment has a potential to reduce a bird's apparent survival, condition, breeding

383   performance, or may delay events of the annual cycle leading to biases in movement data. By

384   conducting a quantitative review of published studies deploying geolocators on small bird species and

385   incorporating unpublished data, we revealed only a weak overall effect of geolocators on apparent

386   survival of tagged birds while we found no clear overall effect on condition, phenology and breeding

387   performance. Moreover, we found no statistically significant effects of tagging in any of trait categories

388   when accounting for phylogenetic relationships. Tagging effects on apparent survival were stronger with

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389   a higher relative load, when the geolocators were attached with elastic harnesses and in small-bodied

390   species.

391   *Overall tag effects*

392   A negative overall effect of geolocator tagging on apparent survival found in this study seems to be

393   prevalent across previous comparative studies of tagging effects (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018;

394   Costantini & Møller, 2013; Trefry, Diamond, & Jesson, 2012; Weiser et al., 2016). However, unlike

395   previous comparative (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) and primary studies (e.g. Adams et al.,

396   2009; Arlt et al., 2013; Snijders et al., 2017), we found no overall negative effects of tagging on variables

397   associated with breeding performance in our analysis. We also did not find evidence for overall effects

398   of tagging on body condition and phenology, which was consistent with equivocal results of previous

399   studies: some found reduced body condition (Adams et al. 2009, Elliott et al., 2012) or delayed timing of

400   annual cycle events (Arlt et al., 2013, Scandolara et al., 2014), while others found no evidence for

401   tagging effects on these traits (Bell et al., 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et

402   al., 2015).

403   Tagged individuals that returned to the study site are potentially in better condition than the

404   tagged individuals that did not return – this potentially contributes to the weak tagging effects on

405   condition, phenology and breeding performance. However, the lack of effect we found on phenology

406   and breeding performance could also be an artefact of the small sample sizes, as collecting these data is

407   probably more challenging in small avian species, which are more difficult to re-sight and recapture and

408   have shorter life-spans than the relatively heavier species included in the previous studies. Similarly,

409   effects of tagging on condition could be underestimated in our analysis due to the initial differences we

410   found between the body mass of tagged and control birds. Additionally, the intra-annual body mass

411   changes could be biased in studies where timing of geolocator deployment and geolocator recovery

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412   differs. Unfortunately, the timing of captures and recaptures was rarely reported and could not be

413   analysed in our study. Overall, the weak effects of tagging we found support several primary studies

414   (e.g. Bell et al., 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015), indicating that

415   geolocator tagging is both ethical and provides credible information on bird movements. On the other

416   hand, care should be taken as the tagging effect may be specific to populations or species. For example,

417   Weiser et al. (2016) found a negligible overall effect but significant reduction of return rates in the

418   smallest species in their meta-analysis. The negative effect of geolocators can also vary between years

419   (Bell et al., 2017, Scandolara et al., 2014), or be induced by occasional bad weather conditions (Snijders

420   et al., 2017), or food shortages (Saraux et al., 2011; Wilson et al., 2015).

421   *Inferring unbiased overall effect sizes*

422   We minimised publication bias in our estimates of overall effects by including substantial amount of

423   unpublished results (192 records of 38 species) and contacting authors of published studies for

424   additional data. Still, some of these studies might get published in the future despite the delay between

425   our data collation and the final analysis. We did not find any evidence that tagging effects differed

426   between published and unpublished studies, suggesting that the tagging effect may not be a critical

427   consideration for publishing a study.

428   Moreover, we found no support for stronger tag effects in studies with matched control

429   individuals compared to studies with less strict control treatments. However, this result is potentially

430   confounded by the fact that tagged birds were on average larger and in potentially better condition than

431   control birds, which would underestimate the negative effects of tagging. We thus suggest establishing

432   carefully matched control groups in all future studies to enable a more reliable estimation of tagging

433   effects. Such a control group should include: i) randomly selected individuals of the same species, sex

434   and age class; ii) individuals caught at the same time of the season and year; iii) at the same time of the

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435   day; iv) of similar size and condition as tagged individuals, and v) exclude non-territorial birds or

436   individuals passing through the site.

437   *Influence of relative load and species' life-histories*

438   Our results support the current evidence (Bodey et al., 2018; Weiser et al., 2016) for reduced apparent

439   survival in studies with a relatively higher tag load on treated individuals. Moreover, we found an

440   increasing negative effect in studies tagging smaller species with smaller eggs and clutch masses. The

441   lower body mass in these species is likely accompanied with a higher relative tag load due to technical

442   constraints of lower tag weights. Although recent miniaturisation has led to the development of smaller

443   tags, these tags have been predominantly applied to smaller species instead of reducing tag load in

444   larger species (Portugal & White, 2018). The various relative loads used without observed tagging effects

445   (e.g. Bell et al., 2017, Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015) indicate the absence of a generally

446   applicable rule for all small bird species (Schacter & Jones, 2017) and we thus recommend the use of

447   reasonably small tags despite potential disadvantages (e.g. reduced battery lifespan or light sensor

448   quality).

449   *Harness material*

450   Contrary to our prediction, we found higher apparent survival in birds tagged with harnesses made of

451   non-elastic materials. Non-elastic harnesses are usually individually adjusted on each individual,

452   whereas elastic harnesses are often prepared before attachment to fit the expected body size of the

453   tagged individuals according to allometric equations (e.g. Naef-Daenzer, 2007). As pre-sized elastic

454   harnesses cannot match perfectly the size of every captured individual, they may be in the end more

455   frequently tightly fitted as some researches might tend to tag larger individuals or avoid too loose

456   harnesses to prevent geolocator loss. Non-elastic harnesses may also be more frequently looser than

457   elastic harnesses as researchers try to reduce the possibility of non-elastic harness getting tight when

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458   birds accumulate fat. Tight harnesses significantly reduced the return rates in whinchat (*Saxicola*

459   *rubetra*; Blackburn et al. 2016), and it may be difficult to register whether elastic harnesses are

460   restricting physical movement of birds when deploying tags. In contrast, non-elastic harnesses, which

461   are more commonly tailored according to the actual size, are often made sufficiently loose to account

462   for body mass changes of each individual. Prepared elastic harnesses are usually used to reduce the

463   handling time during the geolocator deployment (Streby et al. 2015) but this advantage may be

464   outweighed by the reduced apparent survival of geolocators with tied elastic harnesses. We thus

465   suggest to consider stress during geolocator deployment together with the potentially reduced apparent

466   survival and the risk of tag loss when choosing harness material.

467   *Variables without statistically significant impact on tagging effect*

468   Migratory distance did not affect the magnitude of the effect sizes, contrasting with some previous

469   findings (Bodey et al., 2018; Costantini & Møller, 2013). However, none of these studies used

470   population-specific distances travelled; instead, they used latitudinal spans between ranges of

471   occurrence (Costantini & Møller, 2013) or travelled distance categorised into three distances groups

472   (Bodey et al., 2018). These types of distance measurements could greatly affect the results especially in

473   species that migrate mainly in an east-west direction (Lislevand et al., 2015; Stach, Kullberg, Jakobsson,

474   Ström, & Fransson, 2016) or in species whose populations largely differ in their travel distances (Bairlein

475   et al., 2012; Schmaljohann, Buchmann, Fox, & Bairlein, 2012). Moreover, light-level geolocators were

476   most frequently deployed to the long-distance migrants in our study and the result can be thus

477   applicable to these species only.

478   Additionally, we found no overall effect of species' foraging strategy, contrary to the strong

479   overall negative effect found for aerial foraging species (Costantini and Møller 2013). Despite the tag

480   shape altering the drag and thus energy expenditure during flight (Bowlin et al., 2010; Pennycuick et al.,

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481   2012), apparent survival tended to be better in individuals fitted with stalked geolocators and we found

482   no interaction between stalk length and foraging strategy on the tagging effect size. Geolocators with

483   longer stalks have been more frequently used in heavier birds with low relative load where the expected

484   tag effect is weak. Moreover, previous results of strong negative effects in aerial foragers led to a

485   preferential use of stalkless geolocators in these species and probably minimised the tagging effect in

486   this foraging guild (Morganti et al., 2018; Scandolara et al., 2015). However, the evidence for the

487   negative effects in non-aerial foragers is low as there is only one field study focusing on stalk length

488   effects on the return rates (Blackburn et al., 2016).

489   *Future considerations*

490   Future studies evaluating the use of geolocators on birds should focus on assessing inter-annual

491   differences in tagging effects, effects of varying relative loads, different stalk lengths or different

492   attachment methods to minimise the negative effects of tagging. We also suggest to focus on the impact

493   of various movement strategies such as fattening and moulting schedules on the tagging effect. All

494   future studies should carefully set matched controls and transparently report on tagging effects. Finally,

495   our results encourage use of geolocators on small bird species but the ethical and scientific benefits

496   should always be considered.

497

498   **Authors' contributions**

499   VBr, JK and PP conceived the idea and designed the methodology. VBr reviewed the literature and

500   collected data, JK and PP checked the data extracted for analysis. VBr and PP analysed the data. VBr led

501   the writing of the manuscript with significant contributions from JK and PP. MB, SH, DH, MK, JO and EW

502   contributed with unpublished data and their comments and suggestions significantly improved the

503   manuscript. PA, JA, DA, SB, DB, EB, VBe, CB, SB, MBr, BC, DC, NC, JC, VC, TE, KF, OG, MG, MH, CH, FJ, JJ,

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504   TK, DK, ML, TL, SL, CL, KM, PMar, SM, PMat, CM, BM, JM, RNe, AN, RNo, TP, VP, NP, MP, JR, CR, AR, CS,

505   NS, MT, DT, HO, AW, HW, JW, KW and BW contributed unpublished data and critically revised the

506   manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

507

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524

525   **Data accessibility**

526   Data described in this article are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1886530 (Brlík et al.,

527   2018).

528

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930   Table 1. Explanatory variables used in the multivariate meta-analysis of apparent survival extracted from

931   published and unpublished geolocator studies or from the literature. *N* presents the number of records

932   specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex,

933   and the specific geolocator and the attachment type accompanied with the corresponding control

934   groups.

Methodological aspect	Description	N
Published data	Published – data from published studies (for details see Methods), data from unpublished sources from years following an already published study, or data initially collected as unpublished but published by 31 August 2018	303
	Unpublished – data from unpublished studies	123
Control group	Matched – birds handled in the exactly same way as geolocator-tagged birds except for geolocator deployment	102
	Marked only – birds of the same sex, age, from the same year and study site or birds from the same site, from different years	324
Species trait		
Foraging strategy[1,2]	Aerial forager	122
	Non-aerial forager	304
Sex	Males	195
	Females	120
Geolocator specification		
Relative load	% of geolocator mass (including the harness) of the body mass of the tagged birds	418

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Stalk/pipe length*	Length (mm) of the stalk/pipe holding the light sensor or guiding the light towards the sensor (0 mm for stalkless models)	371
Attachment specification		
Attachment type	Leg-loop harness	304
	Full-body harness	80
	Leg-flag attachment	42
Material elasticity*	Elastic – elastan, ethylpropylen, neoprene, rubber, silicone, silastic, or Stretch Magic	235
	Non-elastic – cord, kevlar, nylon, plastic, polyester, or teflon	146
Ecological trait		
Life-histories	Great circle distance between geolocator deployment site and population-specific centroid of the non-breeding (or breeding) range	426
	Male body mass (g)	426
	Female body mass (g)	426
	Nest type – open/close	426
	Clutch size (number of eggs)	426
	Number of broods per year	426
	Dense habitat preference (species occurs especially in dense habitats e.g. reeds or scrub) – yes/no	426
	Egg mass (g) – mean fresh mass[3]	426
	Clutch mass (g) – egg mass × clutch size	426

935   * only used for harness attachments

936   [1] Cramp & Perrins, 1977–1994

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937   [2] Rodewald, 2015

938   [3] Schönwetter, 1960–1992

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940   Table 2. Number of unpublished effect sizes included in the analysis and Egger's regression tests of the

941   null model residuals against their precision to assess the presence of publication bias.

Trait category	Unpublished (%)		Egger's regression			
	Effect sizes	N	Intercept	t	SE	P
Apparent survival	28.9	426	0.12	1.53	0.08	0.121
Condition	63.3	79	−0.36	−1.70	0.21	0.088
Phenology	59.1	22	−0.26	−1.28	0.21	0.217
Breeding performance	27.3	22	−0.01	−0.01	0.61	0.993

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950   Table 3. Summary of the full trait model (n = 281; model 3) and the ecological model (n = 426; model 4)

951   of the geolocator effects on apparent survival. Levels contrasted against the reference level are given in

952   parentheses.

Full trait model

Trait	Estimate	SE	Z	95% CI	P
Intercept	−0.25	0.10	−2.59	(−0.44; −0.06)	0.010
Published (published)	0.14	0.10	1.39	(−0.06; 0.34)	0.164
Control type (matched)	−0.05	0.09	−0.61	(−0.23; 0.12)	0.542
Foraging strategy (aerial)	−0.09	0.14	−0.61	(−0.36; 0.19)	0.540
Sex (males)	−0.07	0.05	−1.30	(−0.17; 0.03)	0.192
Relative load	−0.12	0.05	−2.36	(−0.23; −0.02)	0.018
Stalk/pipe length	0.07	0.04	1.77	(−0.01; 0.15)	0.077
Material elasticity (non-elastic)	0.19	0.08	2.21	(0.03; 0.35)	0.026
Foraging strategy (aerial) × stalk length	−0.10	0.07	−1.40	(−0.25; 0.04)	0.161

Ecological model

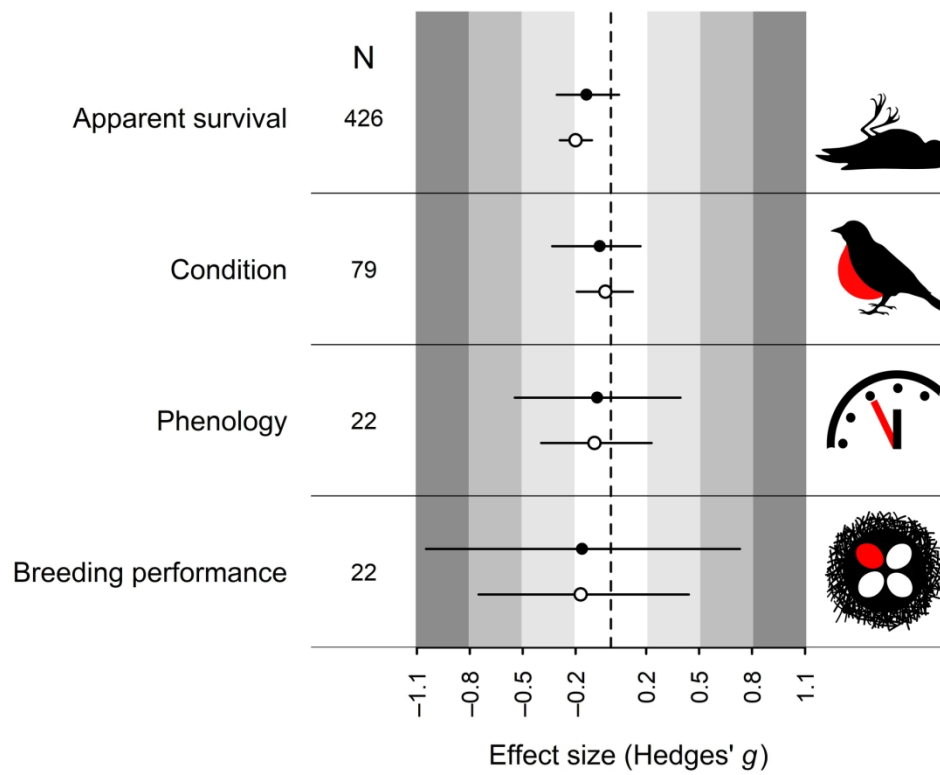| Trait	Estimate	SE	Z	95% CI	P
Intercept	−0.26	0.08	−3.20	(−0.42; −0.10)	0.001
PC1	0.06	0.03	2.32	(0.01; 0.11)	0.026
PC2	0.02	0.03	0.47	(−0.05; 0.08)	0.638
Dense habitat (yes)	0.03	0.13	0.21	(−0.22; 0.27)	0.834
Nest type (open)	0.14	0.11	1.27	(−0.08; 0.36)	0.205

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Figure 1. Overall effects of geolocators in the four trait categories, circles give means, horizontal lines represent 95% CrI. Filled symbols present the phylogenetically controlled overall effects, open symbols give the value from null models not accounting for phylogeny. N presents the number of effect sizes analysed. For the detailed description of the trait categories see Methods and Table S2.
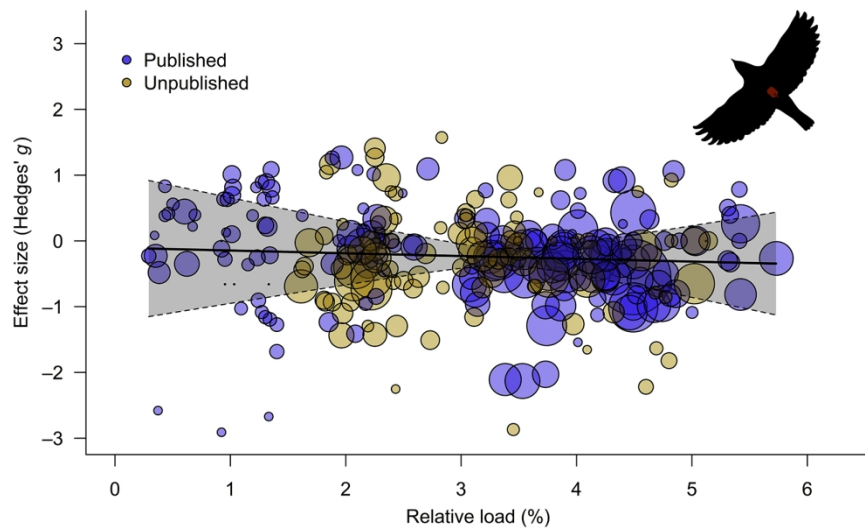
85x68mm (600 x 600 DPI)

Figure 2. Relationship between relative load and the effect of geolocator deployment on the apparent survival of tagged birds. Size of the circles reflects the precision (1 / mean-adjusted SE) of the effect sizes, the shaded area and dashed lines depict the 95% CI of the regression.

160x91mm (300 x 300 DPI)

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS S1–S8

Figure S1. Flow-chart showing the study selection process and the number of records used for the effect size calculation for both published and unpublished studies. Records are specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and the attachment type accompanied with the corresponding control groups.
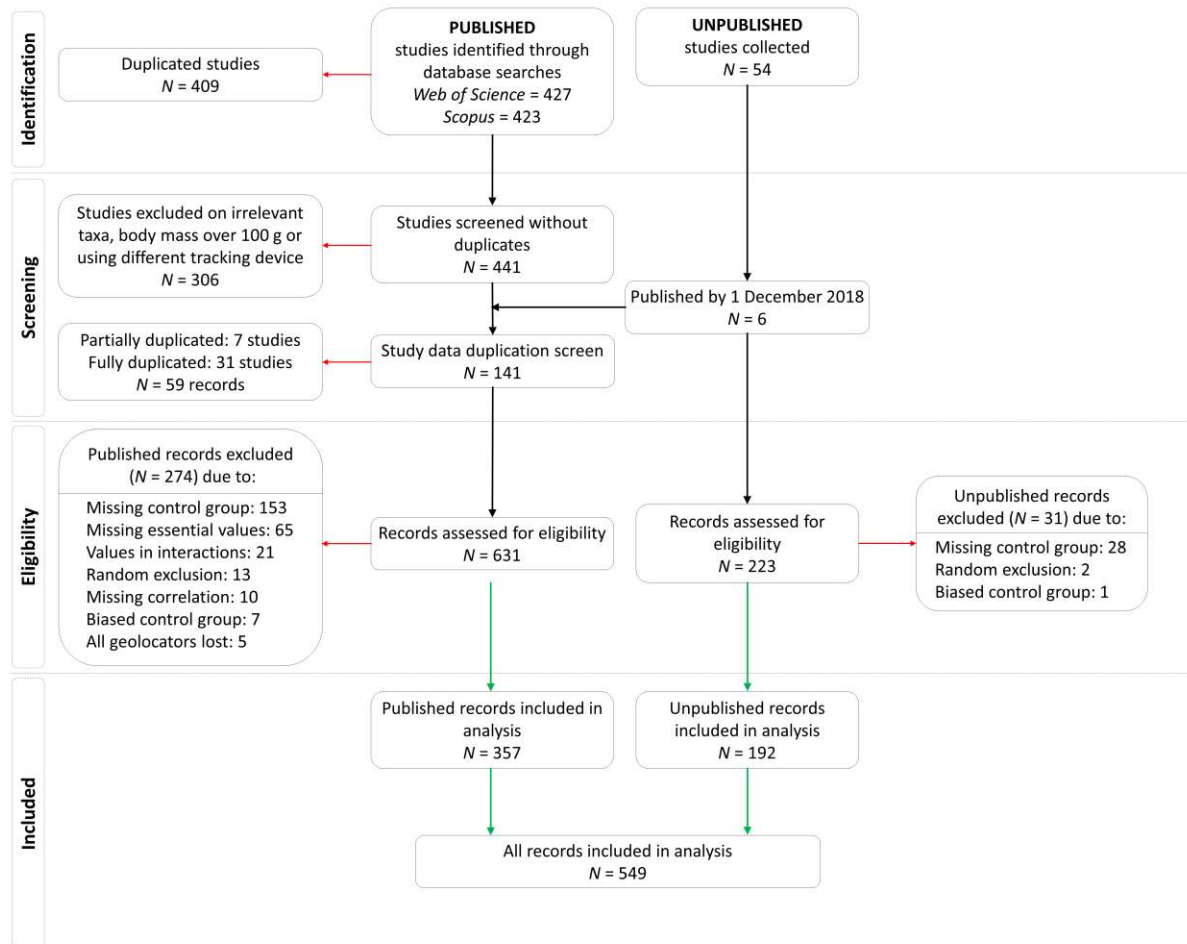
Table S2. Overview on trait categories, the corresponding response variables and their description as well as the number of studies and the number of records (specified as groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and attachment type having corresponding control groups).

Trait	Response variables	Description	# studies	# records
Apparent survival	Recapture rate	Ratio of recaptured individuals between years	59	287
	Re-encounter rate	Ratio of recaptured or re-sighted individuals between years	40	139
Condition	Change in body mass	Inter-annual changes	36	66
	Feather corticosterone level		1	11
	Arrival body condition	Body condition index (body mass/wing length)	1	1
	Flight speed		1	1
Phenology	Arrival date		7	13
	First egg laying date		6	9
Breeding performance	Clutch size		4	5
	Number of fledglings		4	4
	Hatching success		3	10
	Brood success (nest with at least one fledgling)		2	2
	Inter-annual site fidelity	Inter-annual breeding dispersal distances	1	1

Table S3. Description of model types used in our analysis and a script to extract the variance explained by the random effect terms. Models 1, 2 and 5 were fitted for each trait category, models 3 and 4 for apparent survival only.

Model 1	Null model not controlled for phylogeny	```MCMCglmm(smd.g ~ 1, random = ~species.tree + lon.lat, data = survival, prior = priors1.mev, nitt = 250000, burnin = 21000, thin = 10, mev = survival$adj.vi)```
Model 2	Null model controlled for phylogeny	```mulTree(mulTree.data = mulTree_data_survival, formula = formula_survival, priors = mul_priors_survival, parameters = parameters, mev=mulTree_data_survival$data$adj.vi, output = "Survival_SpPhSi", chains = 2)```
Model 3	Full trait model	```rma.mv(yi = smd.g, V = adj.vi, mods = ~ factor(publ) + factor(control.type) + factor(aerial) + sex.final + scale(load) + scale(stalk.length) + elasticity + factor(aerial):scale(stalk.length), data = data.full, random = list((~1| data.full$species.tree), (~1|factor(data.full$lon.lat))), test = "z", level = 95, method = "ML")```
Model 4	Ecological model	```rma.mv(yi = smd.g, V = adj.vi, mods = ~ m$scores[,1] + m$scores[,2] + reed.shrub + nest.type, data = survival, random = list((~1| survival$species.tree), (~1|factor(survival$lon.lat))), test = "z", level = 95, method = "ML")```
Model 5	Model of publication bias	```rma.mv(yi = smd.g, V = adj.vi, mods = ~ factor(publ), data = survival, random = list((~1| survival$species.tree), (~1|factor(survival$lon.lat))), test = "z", level = 95, method = "ML")```

Script for heterogeneity extraction:
```
Anim.survival <- (posterior$phylogeny)
Spec.survival <- (posterior$species)
Site.survival <- (posterior$site)
Wei.survival <- (posterior$wei)
Res.survival <- (posterior$res)
sum.survival.het <- (Anim.survival+Site.survival+Spec.survival+Res.survival) /
(Anim.survival+Site.survival+Spec.survival+Res.survival+Wei.survival)
summary(sum.survival.het)
Sum.survival <- (Anim.survival+Site.survival+Spec.survival+Res.survival+Wei.survival)
summary(Anim.survival/Sum.survival)
summary(Site.survival/Sum.survival)
summary(Spec.survival/Sum.survival)
summary(Res.survival/Sum.survival)
Heritability.survival <- Anim.survival / (Anim.survival + Spec.survival)
mean(Heritability.survival)
quantile(Heritability.survival, probs = c(0.025, 0.975))
```

Figure S4. The two most important ordination axes from a principal component analysis (PC1 and PC2), explaining the largest proportion of variability among continuous life-history traits (male and female body mass, egg mass, clutch mass, number of broods per year, clutch size and distance travelled between the breeding and non-breeding grounds; Table 1) for all 69 species included in the analysis. PC1 and PC2 explained 54.4 % and 18.7 % of the variability, respectively.
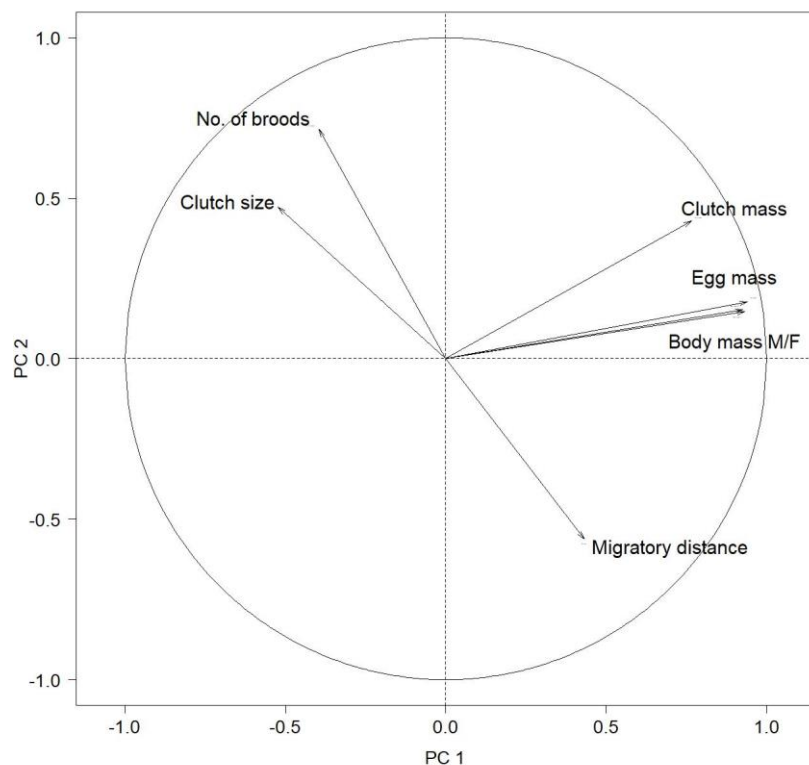
Figure S5. Funnel plots presenting the effect size (Hedges' *g*) against the inverse of the mean-adjusted sampling error in four trait categories. Solid lines present phylogenetically controlled overall effect size and dotted lines 95% CrI. Publication bias in the dataset is indicated by asymmetry of the funnel-shaped scatterplot (Koricheva, Gurevitch, & Mengersen, 2013).
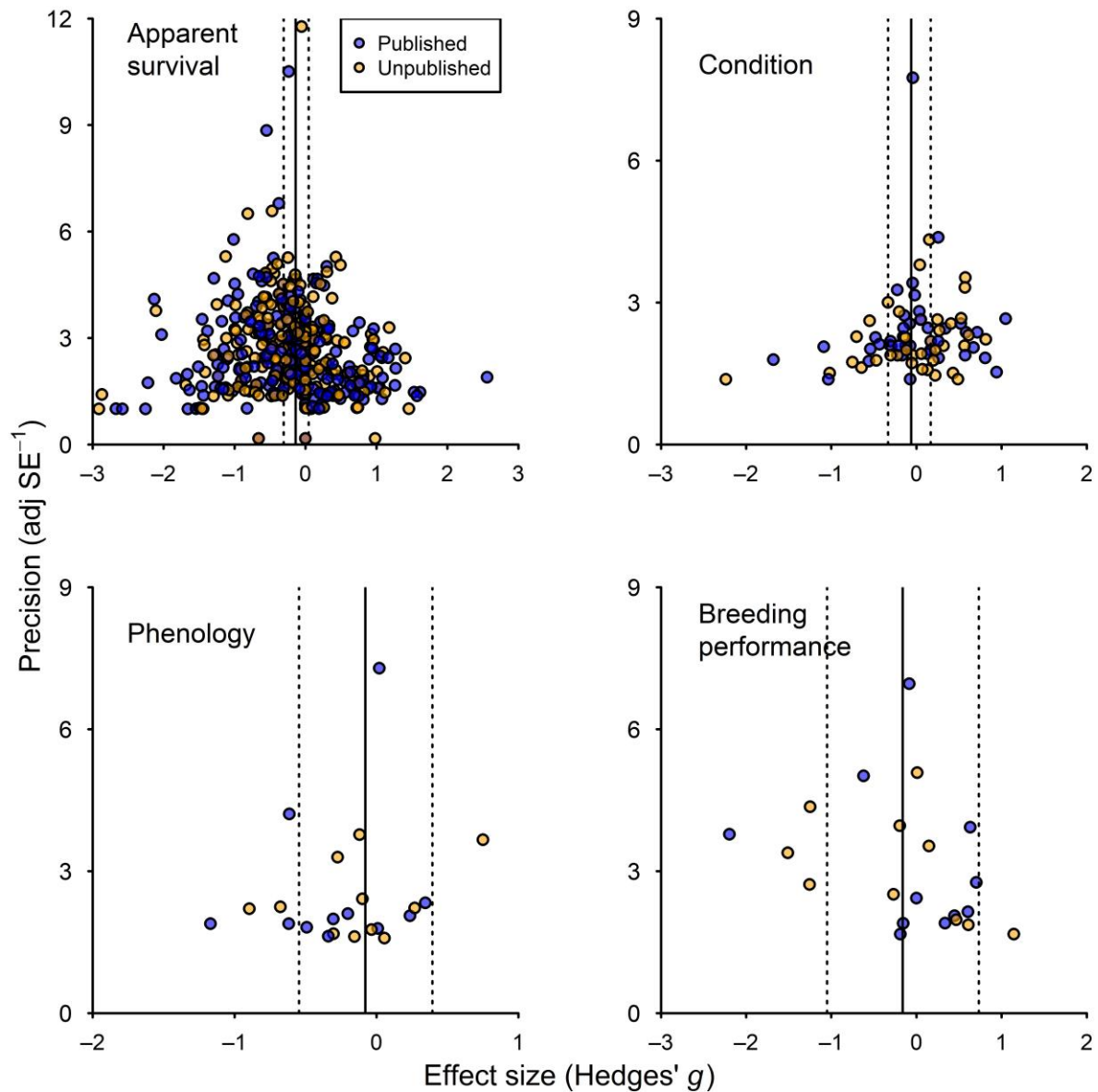
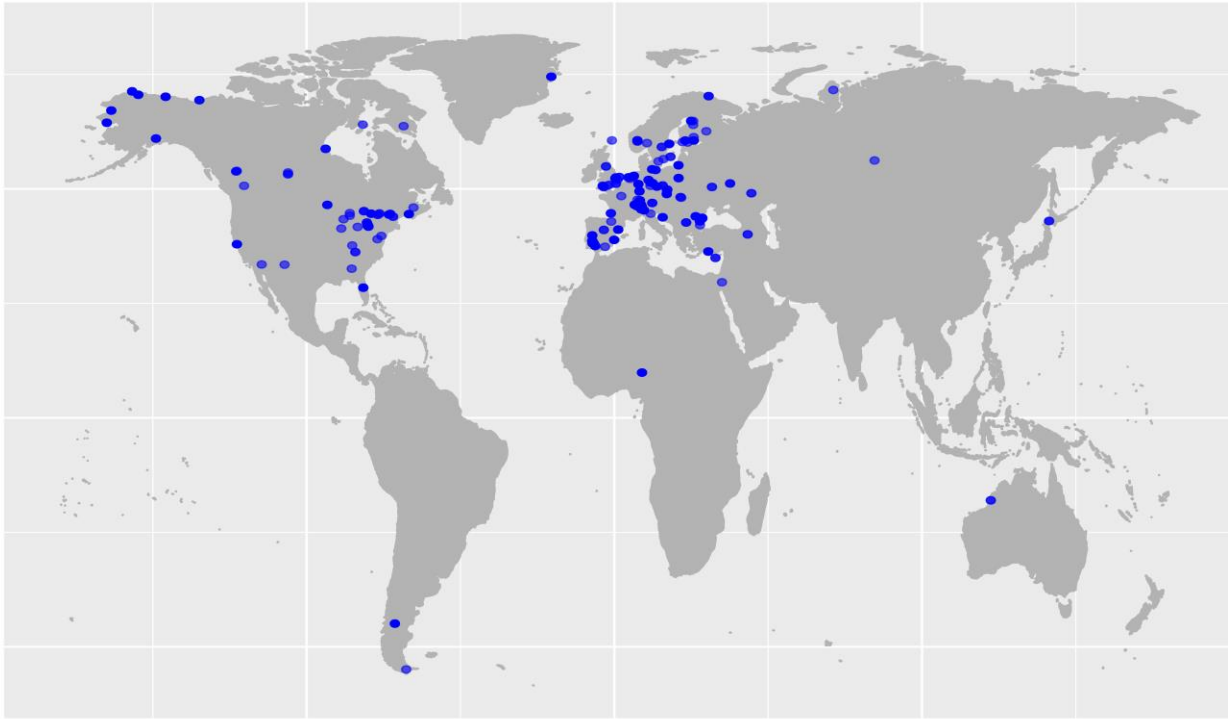**Figure S6**. Location of the study sites included in the analysis.

Table S7. Orders, families, species (Hackett et al. 2008) and number of records in each trait category for each species included in our analysis. Records are specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and the attachment type with the corresponding control group.

Order	Family	Species	Survival	Condition	Phenology	Breeding perform.
Caprimulgiformes	Apodidae	*Apus apus*	14	3	0	0
		Tachymarptis melba	64	5	0	0
	Caprimulgidae	*Caprimulgus europaeus*	2	1	0	0
Cuculiformes	Cuculidae	*Coccyzus americanus*	2	0	0	0
Charadriiformes	Charadriidae	*Charadrius hiaticula*	2	1	0	0
		Charadrius leschenaultii	2	0	0	0
	Scolopacidae	*Calidris alba*	5	0	0	0
		Calidris alpina	16	2	2	3
		Calidris mauri	3	0	0	1
		Calidris pusilla	16	0	0	5
		Calidris temminckii	4	1	0	0
		Phalaropus lobatus	1	0	0	0
Bucerotiformes	Upupidae	*Upupa epops*	2	1	1	1
Coraciiformes	Meropidae	*Merops apiaster*	15	3	0	0
Piciformes	Picidae	*Jynx torquilla*	4	0	0	0
Passeriformes	Acrocephalidae	*Acrocephalus agricola*	4	0	0	0
		Acrocephalus arundinaceus	27	1	6	0
		Acrocephalus paludicola	1	1	0	0
		Acrocephalus scirpaceus	15	1	0	0
	Calcariidae	*Calcarius lapponicus*	2	0	0	0
	Emberizidae	*Emberiza hortulana*	15	3	0	0
		Emberiza melanocephala	3	1	0	0
	Fringillidae	*Carpodacus erythrinus*	2	1	1	0
		Loxia curvirostra	0	1	0	0
		Plectrophenax nivalis	1	0	0	0
	Hirundinidae	*Delichon urbicum*	1	0	0	0
		Hirundo rustica	21	23	5	5
		Progne subis	11	2	0	0
		Riparia riparia	8	0	0	0
		Tachycineta bicolor	3	5	0	0
	Icteridae	*Dolichonyx oryzivorus*	8	2	0	0
		Euphagus carolinus	4	0	0	0
		Icterus bullockii	1	0	0	0
	Laniidae	*Lanius collurio*	0	1	0	0
		Lanius ludovicianus	10	0	0	1

Table S7 (continued). Orders, families, species (Hackett et al. 2008) and number of records in each trait category for each species included in our analysis. Records are specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and the attachment type with the corresponding control group.

Order	*Family*	*Species*	*Survival*	*Condition*	*Phenology*	*Breeding perform.*
Order	*Family*	*Species*				
	Locustellidae	*Locustella luscinioides*	5	0	0	0
	Mimidae	*Dumetella carolinensis*	1	0	0	0
	Motacillidae	*Anthus campestris*	2	1	1	1
	Muscicapidae	*Ficedula albicollis*	4	3	0	0
		Ficedula hypoleuca	16	0	2	0
		Ficedula semitorquata	4	0	0	0
		Luscinia megarhynchos	7	4	0	0
		Luscinia svecica	4	2	0	1
		Muscicapa striata	3	0	0	0
		Oenanthe cypriaca	2	0	0	0
		Oenanthe oenanthe	33	1	1	3
		Phoenicurus phoenicurus	2	0	0	0
		Saxicola rubetra	9	0	0	0
	Parulidae	*Dendroica kirtlandii*	1	1	0	0
		Dendroica striata	1	0	0	0
		Seiurus aurocapilla	2	0	0	0
		Vermivora chrysoptera	4	1	1	1
	Passerellidae	*Chondestes grammacus*	1	0	0	0
		Melospiza melodia	2	0	0	0
		Passerculus sandwichensis	8	0	0	0
		Passerella iliaca	1	1	0	0
		Zonotrichia albicollis	2	0	0	0
		Zonotrichia atricapilla	3	2	0	0
	Passeridae	*Passer hispaniolensis*	1	0	0	0
	Sturnidae	*Sturnus philippensis*	2	0	0	0
	Sylviidae	*Phylloscopus sibilatrix*	2	0	0	0
	Turdidae	*Catharus bicknelli*	2	0	0	0
		Catharus fuscescens	1	0	0	0
		Catharus guttatus	2	1	0	0
		Catharus ustulatus	1	1	0	0
		Hylocichla mustelina	2	0	0	0
		Turdus migratorius	1	0	0	0
	Tyrannidae	*Elaenia albiceps*	5	2	2	0
	Vireonidae	*Vireo olivaceus*	1	0	0	0

Table S8. Heterogeneity proportions explained by the random effects (%), total between-study heterogeneity (%) and phylogenetical heritability (%; 95% CrI) for both phylogenetically controlled and uncontrolled null models of each of the four trait categories.
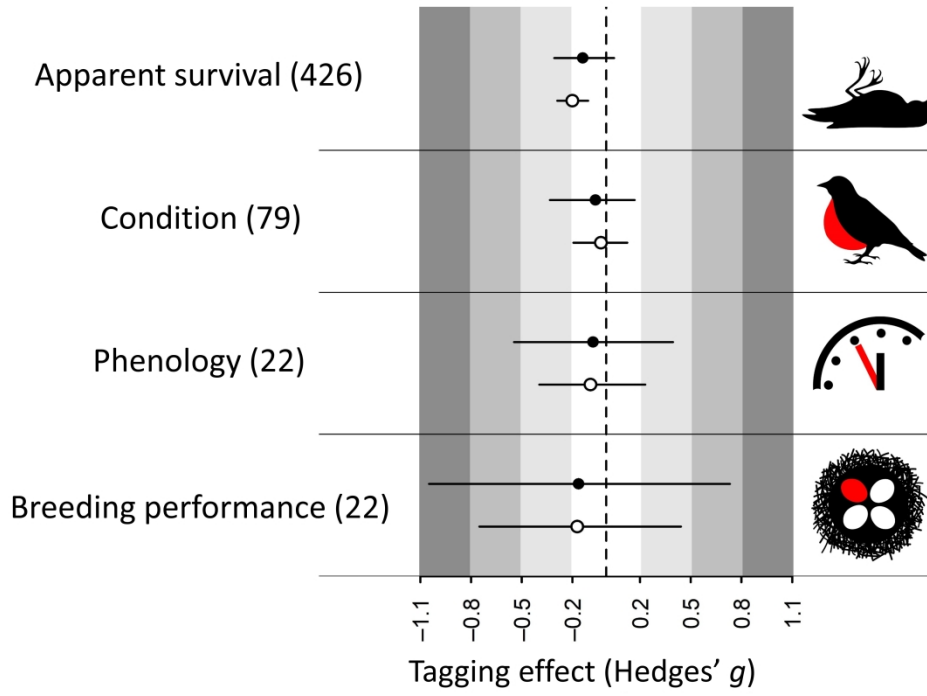
Model	Site	Species	Phylogeny	Residual	Total	Heritability
Apparent survival phylogeny	5.7	1.4	2.2	13.1	22.4	58.5 (15.1–92.6)
Apparent survival	6.1	1.6	–	13.5	21.2	–
Condition phylogeny	3.0	4.8	4.4	1.8	14.0	46.8 (5.1–94.1)
Condition	3.3	4.8	–	2.0	10.1	–
Phenology phylogeny	4.7	5.3	6.5	2.5	19.0	52.3 (5.0–96.5)
Phenology	5.3	5.5	–	2.7	13.5	–
Breeding performance phylogeny	19.0	12.3	12.1	10.0	53.4	45.7 (1.6–98.4)
Breeding performance	22.1	16.2	–	10.5	48.8	–

Table S9. Summary of the publication bias models for each trait category. Reference levels for treatment contrasts are unpublished results. Sample sizes are in parentheses.

Trait category	Trait	Estimate	SE	Z	95% CI	P
Apparent survival	Intercept	–0.17	0.08	–2.21	(–0.33; –0.02)	0.027
(426)	Published	–0.02	0.09	–0.20	(–0.20; 0.16)	0.838
Condition	Intercept	0.02	0.07	0.33	(–0.12; 0.17)	0.739
(79)	Published	–0.06	0.12	–0.52	(–0.29; 0.17)	0.603
Phenology	Intercept	0.03	0.18	0.14	(–0.32; 0.37)	0.888
(22)	Published	–0.20	0.21	–0.93	(–0.61; 0.22)	0.353
Breeding performance	Intercept	0.27	0.43	0.63	(–0.57; 1.11)	0.531
(22)	Published	–0.61	0.50	–1.23	(–1.58; 0.36)	0.219

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Koricheva, J., Gurevitch, J., & Mengersen, K. (2013). Handbook of meta-analysis in ecology and evolution. Princeton University Press.

Tagging effect (Hedges' *g*)

1422x1066mm (96 x 96 DPI)