

**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**
 2 **publication bias**

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133 **Running head:** Geolocator effects on small birds

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138

139 **Abstract**

- 140 1. Currently, the deployment of tracking devices is one of the most frequently used approaches to
141 study movement ecology of birds. Recent miniaturisation of light-level geolocators enabled
142 studying small bird species whose migratory patterns were widely unknown. However,
143 geolocators may reduce vital rates in tagged birds and may bias obtained movement data.
- 144 2. There is a need for a complex assessment of the potential tag effects on small birds, as previous
145 meta-analyses did not evaluate unpublished data, focused mainly on large species and the
146 number of published studies tagging small birds has increased substantially.
- 147 3. We quantitatively reviewed 549 records extracted from 74 published and 48 unpublished studies
148 on over 7,800 tagged and 17,800 control individuals to examine the effects of geocator tagging
149 on small bird species (body mass <100 g). We calculated the effect of tagging on apparent
150 survival, condition, phenology and breeding performance and identified the most important
151 predictors of the magnitude of effect sizes.
- 152 4. Even though the effects were not statistically significant in phylogenetically controlled models, we
153 found a weak negative impact of geolocators on apparent survival. The negative effect on survival
154 was stronger with increasing relative load of the device and with geolocators attached using
155 elastic harnesses. Moreover, tagging effects were stronger in smaller species with bigger clutches
156 and multiple broods.
- 157 5. In conclusion, we found weak effect on apparent survival of tagged birds and accomplished to
158 pinpoint key aspects and drivers of tagging effects. We provide recommendations for establishing
159 matched control group for proper effect size assessment in future studies and outline various
160 aspects of tagging that need further investigation. Finally, our results encourage further use of
161 geolocators on small bird species but the ethical aspects and scientific benefits should always be
162 considered.

163

164 **Keywords:** condition, migration, phenology, reproduction, return rate, survival, tracking device, tag
165 effect

166

167 **Introduction**

168 Tracking devices have brought undisputed insights into the ecology of birds. Use of these tags enabled
169 researchers to gather valuable information about full annual cycles, year-round geographic distribution
170 of populations and other ecological patterns in many species whose movement ecology was widely
171 unknown (e.g. Patchett, Finch, & Cresswell, 2018; Stanley, MacPherson, Fraser, McKinnon, &
172 Stutchbury, 2012; Weimerskirch et al., 2002). A significant proportion of recently published tracking
173 studies uses light-level geolocators on small bird species (body mass up to 100 g; Bridge et al., 2013;
174 McKinnon & Love, 2018); however, the increasing use of these tags on small birds raises questions about
175 ethics of tagging and how representative the behaviour of tagged individuals is (Jewell, 2013; Wilson &
176 McMahon, 2006).

177 Studies using tracking devices such as archival light-level geolocators (hereafter 'geolocators')
178 frequently report the effect of tagging. Nevertheless, there is a notable lack of comprehensive data
179 reporting necessary for a proper assessment of this effect (Bodey et al., 2018). The published results on
180 the effects of geolocator tagging are equivocal: some found reduced apparent survival, breeding success
181 and parental care (Arlt, Low, & Pärt, 2013; Pakanen, Rönkä, Thomson, & Koivula, 2015; Scandola et al.,
182 2014; Weiser et al., 2016) while others report no obvious effects (Bell, Harouchi, Hewson, & Burgess,
183 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk, Souchay, Jenni-Eiermann, Bauer, & Schaub,
184 2015). Recent meta-analyses evaluating the effects of geolocators (Costantini & Møller, 2013) or
185 tracking devices in general (Barron, Brawn, & Weatherhead, 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) showed slightly

186 negative effects on apparent survival, breeding success and parental care. However, these studies
187 involved mainly large bird species and there is thus a lack of complex evaluation of geolocator effects on
188 small birds including species' life-history and ecological traits, geolocator design, and type of
189 attachment. The relative load of the devices is the most frequently discussed aspect affecting the tagged
190 birds. Previous meta-analyses showed stronger tagging effects with increasing tag mass (Costantini &
191 Møller, 2013), or suggested multiple threshold values of relative load on birds (Barron et al., 2010;
192 Bodey et al., 2018). However, these studies were based on samples of mainly larger species where the
193 same additional relative load affects flight performance more than in smaller species (Caccamise &
194 Hedin, 1985). There is thus a need for systematic assessment of tag load effects on small birds.

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 into recapturing control and tagged individuals.

205 As the picture of the potential tag effects is incomplete and the number of studies tagging small
206 birds is rapidly increasing each year, we aim at testing these effects on small bird species in both
207 published and unpublished studies to minimize the impact of publication bias. Moreover, we control for
208 the species' ecological and life-history traits, type of control treatment as well as geolocator and
209 attachment designs. We build on the most recent advances in meta-analytical statistical modelling to

210 get unbiased estimates of the geolocator deployment effects controlled for phylogenetical non-
211 independence and its uncertainty (Doncaster & Spake, 2017; Guillerme & Healy 2017; Hadfield, 2010;
212 Viechtbauer, 2010).

213

214 **Predictions**

- 215 i) Geolocators will negatively affect apparent survival, condition, phenology and breeding
216 performance of small birds.
- 217 ii) Negative effects will be stronger in unpublished studies than in published studies.
- 218 iii) Deleterious effects will be most prominent in studies establishing matched control groups compared
219 to studies with potentially-biased control groups.
- 220 iv) Geolocators which constitute a higher relative load will imply stronger negative effects.
- 221 v) Geolocators with a light stalk/pipe will cause stronger negative effects because of increased drag in
222 flight and thus energetic expenditure (Bowlin et al., 2010; Pennycuick, Fast, Ballerstädt, &
223 Rattenborg, 2012). These effects will be stronger in aerial foragers than in other foraging guilds
224 (Costantini & Møller, 2013).
- 225 vi) Non-elastic harnesses will cause stronger negative effects on tagged individuals than those tagged
226 with elastic harnesses that may avoid flight ability restrictions during intra-annual body mass
227 changes (Blackburn et al., 2016).

228 **Material and Methods**

229 *Data search*

230 We conducted an exhaustive search for both published and unpublished studies deploying geolocators
231 on bird species with body mass up to 100 g. We searched the Web of Science Core Collection (search

232 terms: TS = (geoloc* AND (bird* OR avian OR migra*) OR geologg*)) and Scopus databases (search
233 terms: TITLE-ABS-KEY (geoloc* AND (bird* OR migra*) OR geologg*)), to find published studies listed to
234 18 February 2017. Moreover, we searched reference lists of studies using geolocators on small birds and
235 included studies from previous comparative studies (Bridge et al., 2013; Costantini & Møller, 2013;
236 Weiser et al., 2016). In order to get information from unpublished studies, we inquired geolocator
237 producers and the Migrant Landbird Study Group to disseminate our request for unpublished study
238 details among their customers and members, respectively. In addition, we asked the corresponding
239 authors of the published studies to share any unpublished data. The major geolocator producers –
240 Biotrack, Lotek, Migrate Technology and the Swiss Ornithological Institute – sent our request to their
241 customers. To find whether the originally unpublished studies were published over the course of this
242 study, we inspected their status on 31 August 2018. The entire process of search and selection of studies
243 and records (described below) is presented in a flow-chart (Fig. S1).

244 *Inclusion criteria; additional data requesting*

245 We included studies that met the following criteria:

- 246 1. The study reported response variables (e.g. return rates, body masses) necessary for effect size
247 calculation.
- 248 2. The study included a control group of birds alongside the geolocator-tagged individuals or reported
249 a pairwise comparison of tagged birds during geolocator deployment and recovery.
- 250 3. As a control group, the study considered birds marked on the same site and year, of the same sex
251 and age class without any indication of a difference in recapture effort between tagged and control
252 groups.
- 253 4. For pairwise comparisons, the study presented correlation coefficients or raw data.
- 254 5. The variable of interest was presented outside the interaction with another variable.

255 We asked the corresponding authors for missing data or clarification when the criteria were not met or
256 when it was not clear whether the study complied with the criteria (70% response rate [$n = 115$]). In
257 addition, we excluded birds that had lost geolocators before subsequent recapture as we did not know
258 when the bird lost the geocator, and excluded all individuals tagged repeatedly over years because of
259 possible inter-annual carry-over effects of the devices. VB assessed all studies for eligibility and
260 extracted data, the final dataset was cross-checked by JK and PP. A list of all published studies included
261 in the meta-analysis is provided in the Published Data Sources section.

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

263 We divided all collected data into four trait categories: apparent survival, condition, phenology and
264 breeding performance based on the response variables reported (e.g. inter-annual recapture rates, body
265 mass changes, arrival dates, or clutch sizes; Table S2). These categories represent the main traits
266 possibly affected in the geocator-tagged individuals. Subsequently, analyses were run separately for
267 each trait category. We calculated the effect sizes for groups of tagged birds from the same study site
268 and year of attachment, of the same sex (if applicable) and specific geocator and attachment type
269 accompanied with the corresponding control groups. For simplicity, we call these units *records*
270 throughout the text. For each record, we extracted a contingency table with the treatment arm
271 continuity correction (Schwarzer, Carpenter, & Rücker, 2014) or mean, variance, and sample size, to
272 calculate the unbiased standardised mean difference – Hedges' g (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, &
273 Rothstein, 2009) – and its variance with correction for the effect of small sample sizes (Doncaster &
274 Spake, 2018). We used the equation from Sweeting et al. (2004) to calculate variance in pairwise
275 comparisons. When raw data were not provided, we used the reported test statistics (F , t or χ^2) and
276 sample sizes to calculate the effect size using the R package *compute.es* (Del Re 2013). Besides the
277 effect size measures, we extracted additional variables of potential interest – ecological and life-history

278 traits per species, methodological aspects of the study, geolocator design and harness material elasticity
279 (Table 1).

280 *Accounting for dependency*

281 We accounted for data non-independence on several levels. When multiple records shared one control
282 group (e.g. several geolocator types and attachment designs used in one year), we split the sample size
283 in the shared control group by the number of records to avoid a false increase in record precisions.
284 When multiple measures were available for the same individuals, we randomly chose one effect size
285 measure in each trait category. If the study provided both recapture and re-encounter rates, we chose
286 the re-encounter rate as a more objective measure of apparent survival. Re-encounters included
287 captures and observations of tagged birds and thus the bias towards the tagged birds caused by the
288 potentially higher recapture effort to retrieve the geolocators should be lower. Finally, we accounted for
289 phylogenetic non-independence between the species and the uncertainty of these relationships using
290 100 phylogenetic trees (Jetz, Thomas, Joy, Hartmann, & Mooers, 2012) downloaded from the
291 BirdTree.org (www.birdtree.org) using the backbone of Hackett et al. (2008). Moreover, we used the
292 random effects of species and study sites in all models, the latter to account for possible site-specific
293 differences (such as different netting effort or other field methods used by particular research teams).

294 *Overall effect sizes and heterogeneity*

295 We calculated the overall effect size for each trait category from all available records using meta-
296 analytical null models. We employed the *MCMCglmm* function from the *MCMCglmm* package (Hadfield,
297 2010) to estimate overall effect sizes not controlled for phylogeny. We then used the *mulTree* function
298 from the *mulTree* package (Guillerme & Healy, 2017) to automatically fit a *MCMCglmm* model on each
299 phylogenetical tree we sampled and summarized the results from all these models to obtain
300 phylogenetically controlled overall effect size estimates. We used weakly informative inverse-gamma

301 priors ($V = 1$, $\nu = 0.002$) in all models. As our data contained many effect sizes based on small sample
302 sizes, which could lead to a biased estimate of the overall effect size variance, all effect sizes were
303 weighted by their mean-adjusted sampling variance (Doncaster & Spake, 2018). We considered effect
304 sizes of 0.2, 0.5 and 0.8 Hedge's g a weak, moderate and large effects, respectively. Moreover, we
305 calculated the amount of between-study heterogeneity in all null models using the equation described
306 in Nakagawa and Santos (2012). Phylogenetic heritability (H^2) expressing the phylogenetical signal was
307 estimated as the ratio of phylogenetic variance ($\sigma^2_{phylogeny}$) against the sum of phylogenetic and species
308 variance ($\sigma^2_{species}$) from the models (Hadfield & Nakagawa, 2010):

$$309 \quad H^2 = \sigma^2_{phylogeny} / (\sigma^2_{phylogeny} + \sigma^2_{species})$$

310 *Multivariate meta-analysis*

311 To unveil the most important dependencies of the geocator effects, we calculated three types of
312 multivariate models: a full trait model, an ecological model and models of publication bias. In the full
313 trait model, we used all methodological, species, geocator specification and attachment variables
314 (Table 1) to estimate their impact on trait category with overall effect. Prior to fitting the ecological
315 model, we employed a principal component analysis of the inter-correlated log continuous life-history
316 traits and extracted the two most important ordination axes – PC1 and PC2 (Table 1). The PC1 explained
317 54.4% of the variability and expressed a gradient of species characterised mainly by body and egg mass,
318 clutch size and number of broods (Fig. S3). The PC2 explained 18.7% of variance and was characterised
319 mainly by clutch sizes, number of broods and migration distances (Fig. S3). These axes together with the
320 categorical ecological traits (Table 1) then entered the ecological model to estimate their effect on trait
321 category with overall effect. Finally, we tested for differences in effect sizes between published and
322 unpublished results in each trait category using all available records. In all models, we employed the
323 *rma.mv* function from the R package metafor (Viechtbauer, 2010) weighted by the mean-adjusted

324 sampling error (Doncaster & Spake, 2018). Continuous predictors were scaled and centred. Because the
325 phylogenetical relatedness of the species explained only a small amount of variation, we did not control
326 for phylogeny in the multivariate models but incorporated the random effect of species and study site.
327 We calculated R^2 for the full trait and ecological models using the residual between-study variability
328 (τ^2_{residual}) and the total between-study variability (τ^2_{total}) according to the equation (López-López, Marín-
329 Martínez, Sánchez-Meca, Van den Noortgate, & Viechtbauer, 2014):

$$330 \quad R^2 = (1 - \tau^2_{\text{residual}} / \tau^2_{\text{total}}) \times 100$$

331 *Publication bias; body mass manipulation*

332 We used funnel plots to visually check for potential asymmetry caused by publication bias in each trait
333 category (Fig. S4). To quantify the level of asymmetry in each trait category, we applied the Egger's
334 regression tests of the meta-analytical residuals from all null models of the trait categories (calculated
335 using the *rma.mv* function) against effect size precision (1 / mean-adjusted standard error; Nakagawa &
336 Santos, 2012). An intercept significantly differing from zero suggested the presence of publication bias.
337 In order to find differences in log body mass between the tagged and control individuals during the
338 tagging and marking, we applied a linear mixed-effect model with species and study site as a random
339 factor weighted by the sample sizes. We considered all effect sizes significant when the 95% credible
340 interval (CrI) or confidence interval (CI) did not overlap zero. All analyses were conducted in R version
341 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016).

342

343 **Results**

344 We assessed 854 records for eligibility of effect size calculation. Consequently, we excluded 36% of
345 these records mainly due to a missing control group (59%) or missing essential values for effect size

346 calculation (21%; Fig. S1). Finally, a total of 122 studies containing 549 effect sizes were included in our
347 meta-analysis wherein 35% effect sizes originated from unpublished sources (Table 2). The vast majority
348 of the analysed effect sizes originated from Europe or North America (94%; Fig. S5) and the data
349 contained information about 7,829 tagged and 17,834 control individuals of 69 species from 27 families
350 and 7 orders (Table S6).

351 We found a weak overall negative effect (Hedges' g : -0.2 ; 95% CrI -0.29 , -0.11 ; $P < 0.001$) only
352 on apparent survival in the model not controlled for phylogeny. Although we found no statistically
353 significant overall tagging effects in any trait category when controlling for phylogenetical relatedness,
354 the estimates were similar to those not controlled for phylogeny (Fig. 1). The phylogenetical signal ($H^2 =$
355 59%) was statistically significant only for apparent survival, but the variance explained by phylogeny and
356 species were very low for all models (Table S7).

357 The full trait model of apparent survival revealed that tagging effects were stronger with
358 increasing load on tagged individuals and geolocators with elastic harnesses affected birds more than
359 geolocators with non-elastic harnesses (Table 3, Fig. 2). However, we found no effect of the control
360 group type, sex, stalk length, foraging strategy or the interaction between stalk length and foraging
361 strategy (Table 3). The ecological model suggested a relationship of apparent survival with the PC1, with
362 negative effects being stronger with decreasing body and egg mass, increasing clutch size and in species
363 having multiple broods (Table 3). The full trait model explained 21.1% and the ecological model 11.8% of
364 the between-study variance.

365 We did not find any evidence for publication bias, either visually in the funnel plots (Fig. S4), or
366 using Egger's regression tests (Table 2) in any of the trait categories. Moreover, none of the publication
367 bias models found statistically significant differences between published and unpublished effect sizes

368 (Table S8). The geolocator-tagged birds were on average 3.8% heavier than control individuals prior to
369 the geolocator deployment and marking (LMM: estimate 0.008 ± 0.003 , $t = 2.47$, $P = 0.014$).

370

371 **Discussion**

372 Geolocator deployment has a potential to reduce a birds' apparent survival, condition, breeding
373 performance, or may delay events of an annual cycle leading to biases in movement data. By conducting
374 a quantitative review of published studies deploying geolocators on small bird species and incorporating
375 unpublished data, we revealed only a weak overall effect of geolocators on apparent survival of tagged
376 birds while we found no clear overall effect on condition, phenology and breeding performance.
377 Moreover, we found no statistically significant effects of tagging in any of trait categories when
378 accounting for phylogenetic relationships. Tagging effects on apparent survival were stronger in
379 individuals with a higher relative load, when the geolocators were attached with elastic harnesses and in
380 small-bodied species with bigger clutches and multiple broods.

381 *Overall tag effects*

382 A negative overall effect of geolocator tagging on apparent survival found in this study seems to be
383 consistent across previous comparative studies of tagging effects (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018;
384 Costantini & Møller, 2013; Trefry, Diamond, & Jesson, 2012; Weiser et al., 2016). However, unlike in
385 previous comparative (Barron et al., 2010; Bodey et al., 2018) and primary studies (e.g. Adams et al.,
386 2009; Arlt et al., 2013; Snijders et al., 2017), we found no overall negative effects on variables associated
387 with breeding performance in our analysis. No evidence for overall effect on condition and phenology
388 found in this study is in agreement with equivocal results of the previous studies: some found reduced
389 condition (Adams et al. 2009, Elliott et al., 2012) or timing of annual cycle events (Arlt et al., 2013,

390 Scandolaro et al., 2014) while others found no evidence for tagging effects on these traits (Bell et al.,
391 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015).

392 Tagging effects derive from individuals that returned to the study site and are potentially in better
393 condition than individuals that did not return causing the weak effects on condition, phenology and
394 breeding performance. However, the lack of effect we found on phenology and breeding performance
395 could also be an artefact of the small sample size, as collecting these data is probably more challenging
396 in small avian species than in relatively heavier species included in the previous studies. Similarly, effects
397 of tagging on condition could be underestimated due to initial differences we found between the body
398 mass of tagged and control birds. Additionally, the intra-annual body mass changes could cause a
399 significant bias in studies where timing of geolocator deployment and geolocator recovery differs.

400 Overall, the weak effects of tagging we found support several species-specific studies (e.g. Bell et al.,
401 2017; Fairhurst et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015) and might be encouraging from
402 the perspective of deleterious impacts as well as credibility of obtained behaviour of birds. On the other
403 hand, care should be taken as the tagging effect may be specific for populations, or species. For
404 example, Weiser et al. (2016) found a negligible overall effect but significant reduction of return rates in
405 the smallest species in their meta-analysis. The negative effect of geolocators can also vary between
406 years (Bell et al., 2017, Scandolaro et al., 2014), or be induced by occasional bad weather conditions
407 (Snijders et al., 2017), or food shortages (Saraux et al., 2011; Wilson et al., 2015).

408 *Inferring unbiased overall effect sizes*

409 We minimised the publication bias in our estimates of overall effects by including substantial amount of
410 unpublished results (192 records of 38 species) and contacting authors of published studies for
411 additional results. Still, some of these data might get published in the future despite the delay between
412 our data collation and the final analysis. We did not find any evidence that tagging effects differed

413 between published and unpublished studies, suggesting that it may not be a critical consideration for
414 publishing a study.

415 Moreover, we found no support for tag effects in studies with matched control individuals to be
416 stronger compared to studies with less strict control treatments. Nevertheless, the difference we found
417 in body mass between tagged and control birds could have led to deployment of geolocators on
418 individuals in better condition with lower load resulting in underestimation of the overall effect size. We
419 suggest establishing carefully matched control groups in all future studies to enable a more reliable
420 estimation of tagging effects. Such a control group should include: i) randomly selected individuals of
421 the same species, sex and age class; ii) individuals caught at the same time of the season and year; iii) at
422 the same time of the day; iv) of similar size and condition as tagged individuals, and v) exclude non-
423 territorial breeders or individuals passing through the site.

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

425 Our results support the current evidence (Bodey et al., 2018; Weiser et al., 2016) for reduced apparent
426 survival in studies with a relatively higher tag load on treated individuals. Moreover, we found an
427 increasing negative effect in studies tagging smaller species with bigger clutches and multiple broods.
428 The lower body mass in these species is likely accompanied with a higher relative tag load due to lower
429 limits in tag weights due to technical constraints. Although recent miniaturisation has led to the
430 development of smaller tags, these tags have been predominantly applied to smaller species instead of
431 reducing tag load in larger species (Portugal & White, 2018). The various relative loads used without
432 observed tagging effects (e.g. Bell et al., 2017, Peterson et al., 2015; van Wijk et al., 2015) indicate the
433 absence of a generally applicable rule for all small bird species (Schacter & Jones, 2017) and we thus
434 recommend the use of reasonably small tags despite potential disadvantages (e.g. reduced battery
435 lifespan or light sensor quality).

436 *Harness material*

437 Contrary to our prediction, we found higher apparent survival in birds tagged with harnesses made of
438 non-elastic materials. Non-elastic harnesses are usually individually adjusted on the individual, whereas
439 elastic harnesses are often prepared before attachment to fit the expected body size of the tagged
440 individuals according to allometric equations (e.g. Naef-Daenzer, 2007). As pre-prepared elastic
441 harnesses cannot match the size of every captured individual, they may be in the end more tightly fitted
442 as some researches might tend to tag larger individuals or avoid too loose harnesses to prevent
443 geolocator loss. Harness tightness was found to significantly reduce the return rates (Blackburn et al.
444 2016), moreover, the movement ability restrictions may be difficult to register during deployment of tag
445 with elastic harnesses. In contrast, non-elastic harnesses can be tailored according to the actual size and
446 made sufficiently loose to account for body mass changes of each individual. Prepared elastic harnesses
447 are usually used to reduce the handling time during the geolocator deployment (Streby et al. 2015) but
448 this advantage may be outweighed by the reduced apparent survival of geolocators with tied elastic
449 harnesses. We thus suggest to consider stress during geolocator deployment together with the
450 potentially reduced apparent survival and the risk of tag loss when choosing harness material.

451 *Variables without impact on tagging effect*

452 Migratory distance did not affect the magnitude of the effect sizes, contrasting with some previous
453 findings (Bodey et al., 2018; Costantini & Møller, 2013). However, none of these studies used
454 population-specific distances travelled, instead using latitudinal spans between ranges of occurrence
455 (Costantini & Møller, 2013) or travelled distance categorised into three distances groups (Bodey et al.,
456 2018). These types of distance measurements could greatly affect the results especially in species that
457 migrate mainly in an east-west direction (Lislevand et al., 2015; Stach, Kullberg, Jakobsson, Ström, &
458 Fransson, 2016) or in species whose populations largely differ in their travel distances (Bairlein et al.,

459 2012; Schmaljohann, Buchmann, Fox, & Bairlein, 2012). Additionally, we found no overall effect of
460 species' foraging strategy, contrary to the strong overall effect found in Costantini and Møller (2013).
461 Despite tag shape altering the drag and thus energy expenditure during flight (Bowlin et al., 2010;
462 Pennycuick et al., 2012), apparent survival tended to be better in individuals fitted with stalked
463 geolocators and we found no interaction between stalk length and foraging strategy on the tagging
464 effect size. Geolocators with longer stalks have been more frequently used in heavier birds with low
465 relative load where the expected tag effect is weak. Moreover, previous results of strong negative
466 effects in aerial foragers led to a preferential use of stalkless geolocators in these species and probably
467 minimised the tagging effect in this foraging guild (Morganti et al., 2018; Scandolara et al., 2015).
468 However, the evidence for the negative effects in non-aerial foragers is low as there is only one field
469 study focusing on stalk length effects on the return rates (Blackburn et al., 2016).

470 *Future considerations*

471 Further studies should focus on inter-annual differences in tagging effects, effects of varying relative
472 loads, different stalk lengths or different attachment methods to minimise the negative effects of
473 tagging. All future studies should carefully set matched controls and transparently report on tagging
474 effects. Finally, our results encourage further use of geolocators on small bird species but the ethical and
475 scientific benefits should always be considered.

476

477 **Authors' contributions**

478 VB, JK and PP conceived the idea and designed the methodology. VB reviewed the literature and
479 collected data, JK and PP checked the data extracted for analysis. VB and PP analysed the data. VB led
480 the writing of the manuscript with significant contributions from JK and PP. MB, SH, DH, MK, JO and EW
481 contributed with unpublished data and their comments and suggestions significantly improved the

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484 NS, MT, DT, HO, AW, HW, JW, KW and BW contributed unpublished data and critically revised the
485 manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

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500

501 **Data accessibility**

502 Dataset available in figshare <https://doi.org/XXX> (Brlík et al., XXXX).

503

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909 Table 1. Explanatory variables used in the multivariate meta-analysis of apparent survival extracted from
 910 published and unpublished geolocator studies or from the literature. *N* presents the number of records
 911 specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex,
 912 and the specific geolocator and the attachment type accompanied with the corresponding control
 913 groups.

Methodological aspect	<i>Description</i>	<i>N</i>
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

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		
Material elasticity*	Elastic – elasthan, 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

914 * only used for harness attachments

915 ¹Cramp & Perrins, 1977–1994

916 ²Rodewald, 2015

917 ³Schönwetter, 1960–1992

918 Table 2. Number of unpublished effect sizes included in the analysis and Egger's regression tests of the
 919 null model residuals against their precision to assess the presence of publication bias.

<i>Trait category</i>	<i>Unpublished (%)</i>		<i>Egger's regression</i>			
	<i>Effect sizes</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Intercept</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>P</i>
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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931 Table 3. Summary of the full trait model (n = 281) and the ecological model (n = 426) of the geolocator
 932 effects on apparent survival. Levels contrasted against the reference level are given in parentheses.

Full trait model

<i>Trait</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>P</i>
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

<i>Trait</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>P</i>
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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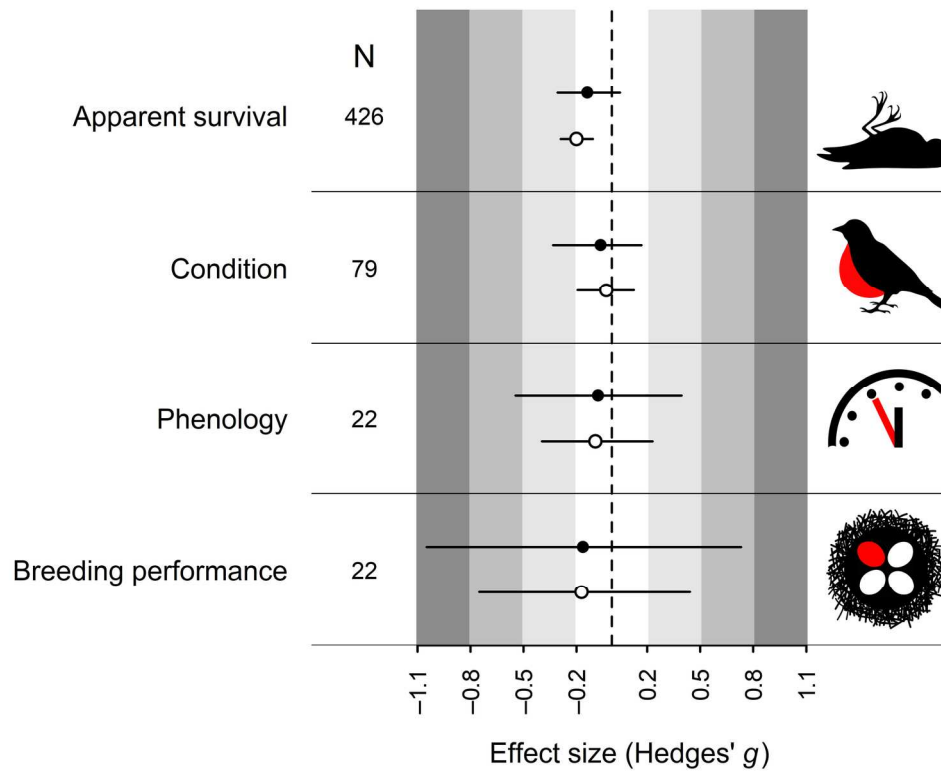


Figure 1. Overall effects of geolocators in the four trait categories, circles give means, horizontal lines represent 95% CrI. Filled symbols present the phylogenetically controlled overall effects, open symbols give the value from null models not accounting for phylogeny. N presents the number of effect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

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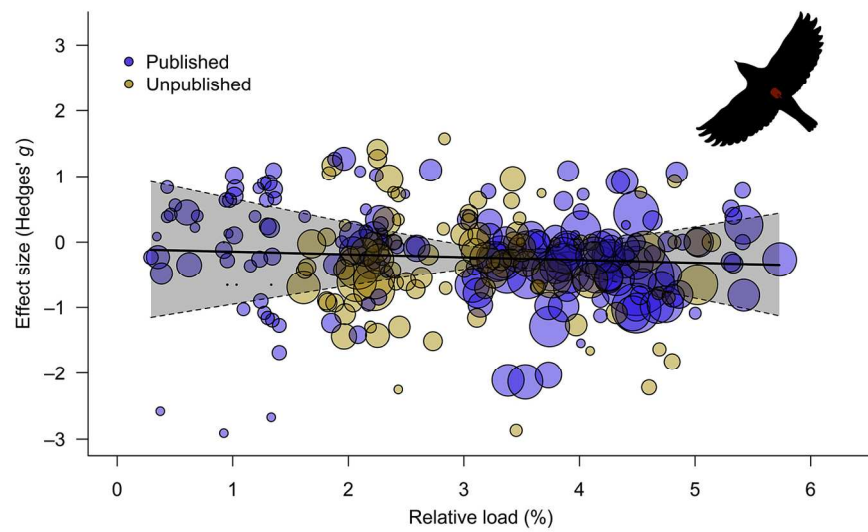


Figure 2. Relationship between relative load and the effect of geolocator deployment on the apparent survival of tagged birds. Size of the circles reflects the precision ($1 / \text{mean-adjusted SE}$) of the effect sizes, the shaded area and dashed lines depict the 95% CI of the regression.

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.

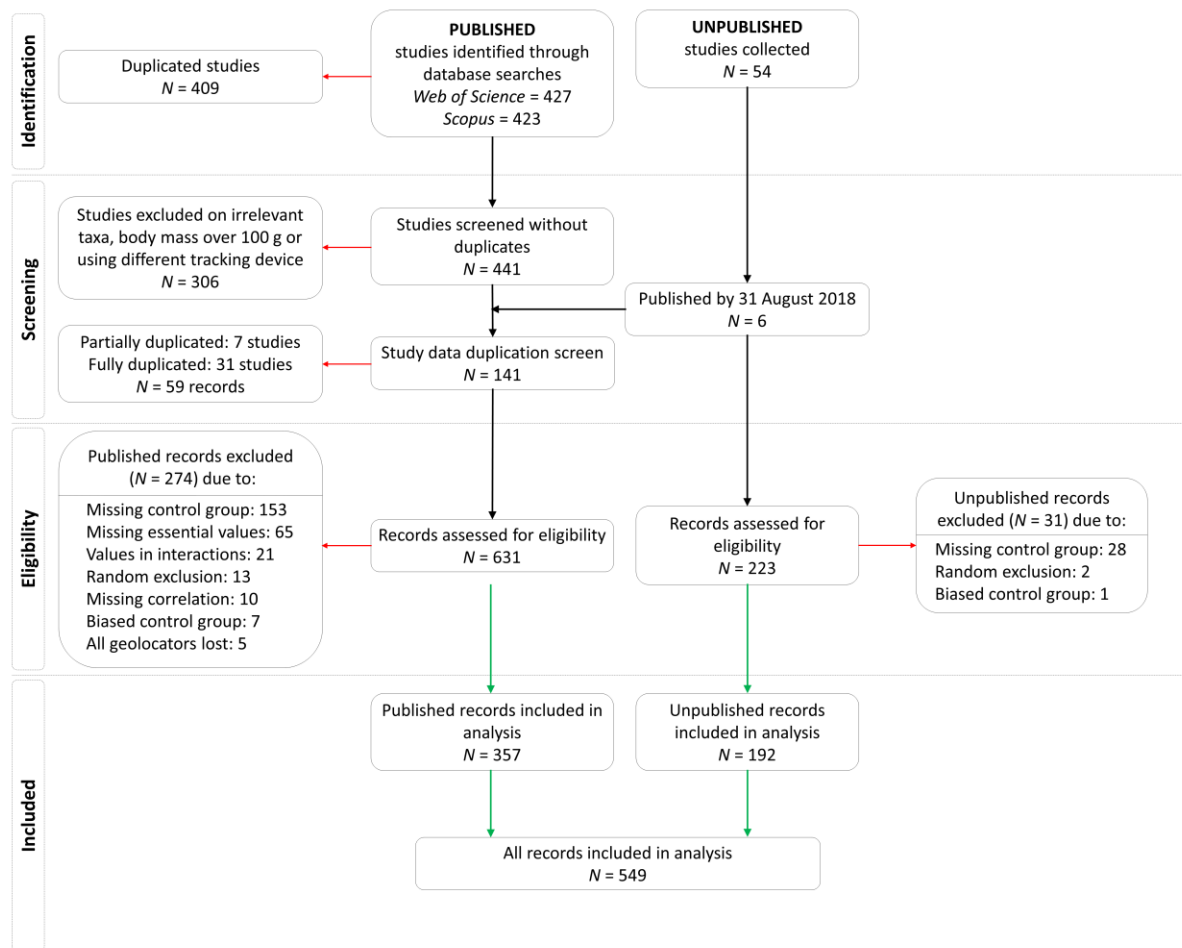


Table S2. Overview on trait categories, the corresponding response variables and their description as well as the number of studies and the number of records (specified as groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and attachment type having corresponding control groups).

<i>Trait</i>	<i>Response variables</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i># studies</i>	<i># records</i>
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

Figure S3. 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.

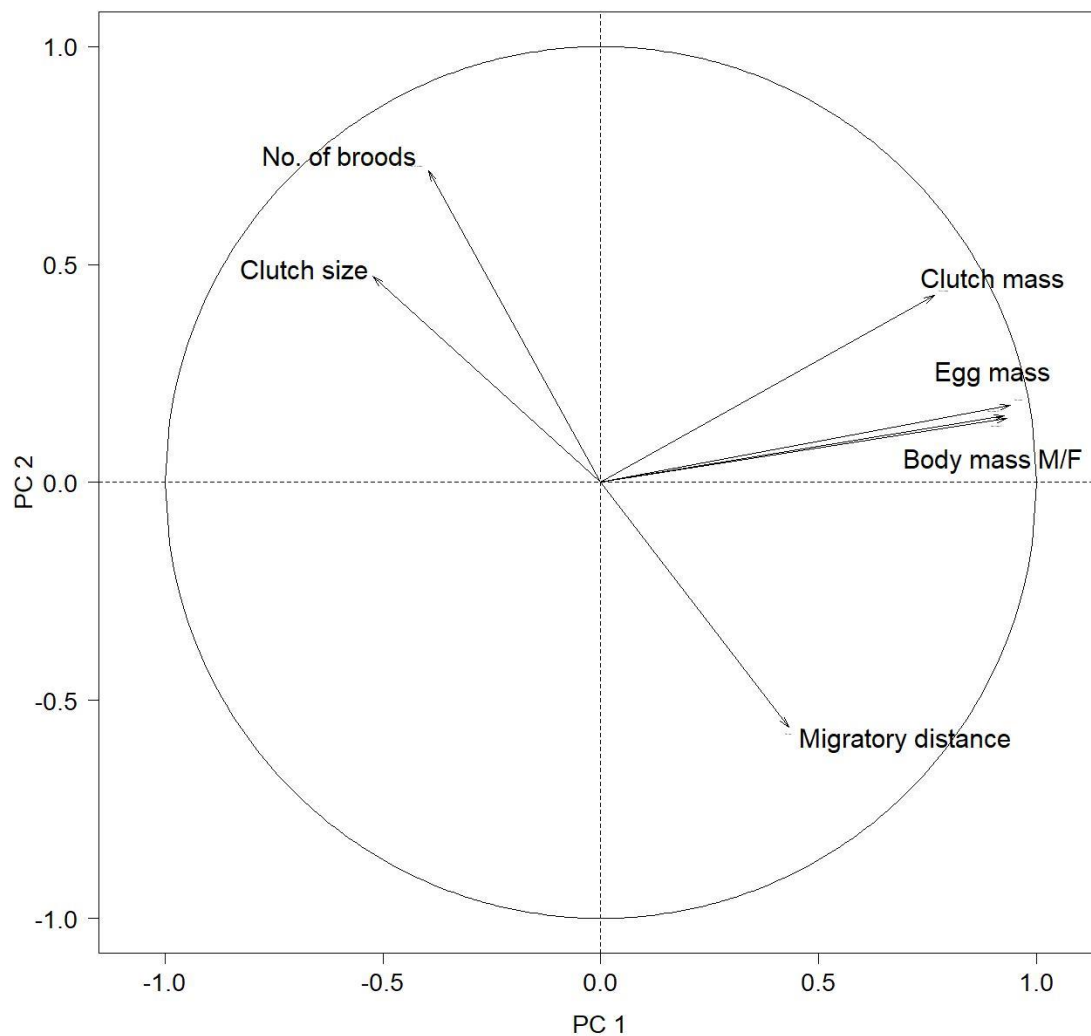


Figure S4. Funnel plots presenting the effect size (Hedges' g) against the inverse of the mean-adjusted sampling error in four trait categories. Solid lines present phylogenetically controlled overall effect size and dotted lines 95% CrI. Publication bias in the dataset is indicated by asymmetry of the funnel-shaped scatterplot (Koricheva, Gurevitch, & Mengersen, 2013).

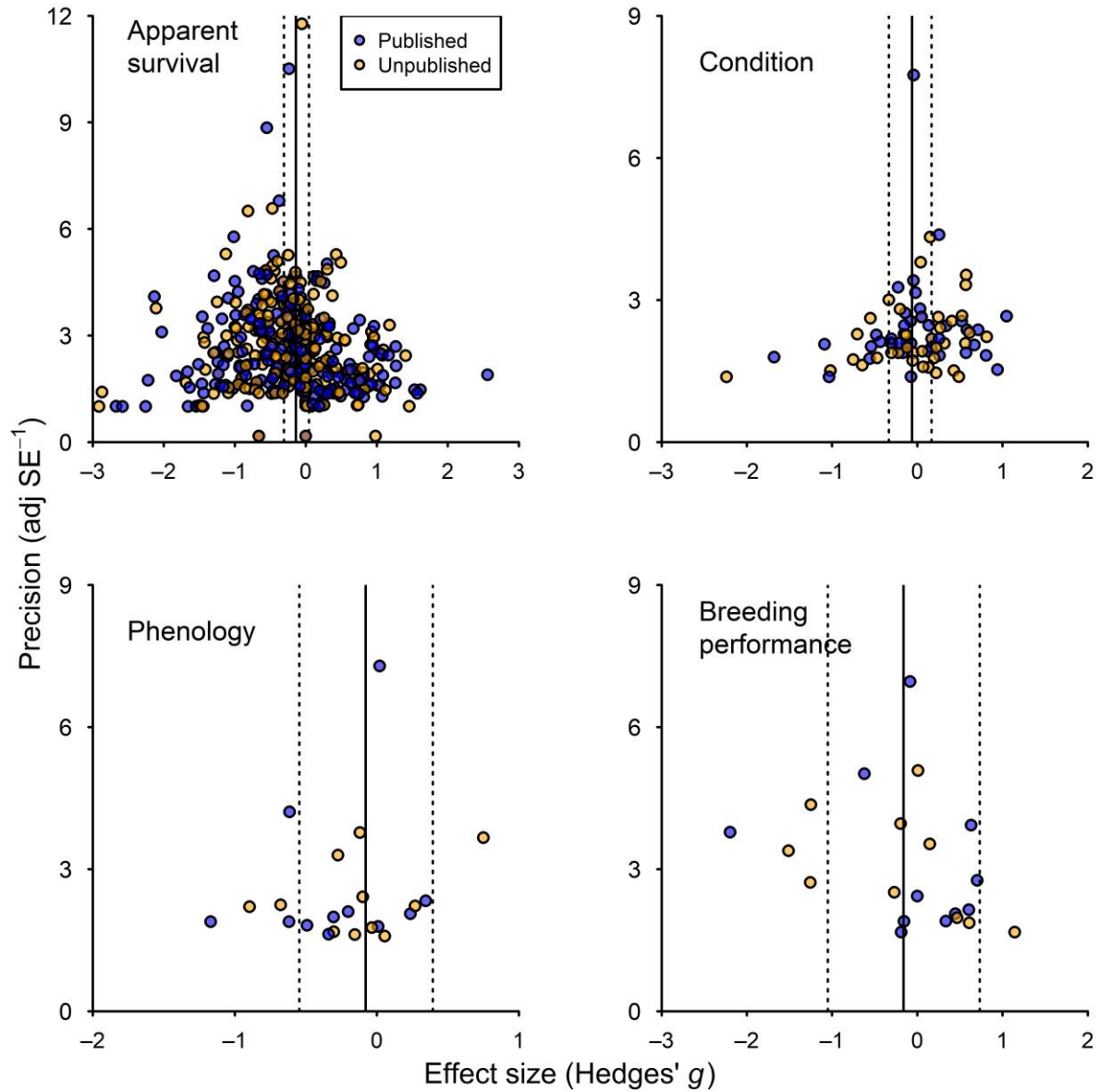


Figure S5. Location of the study sites included in the analysis.

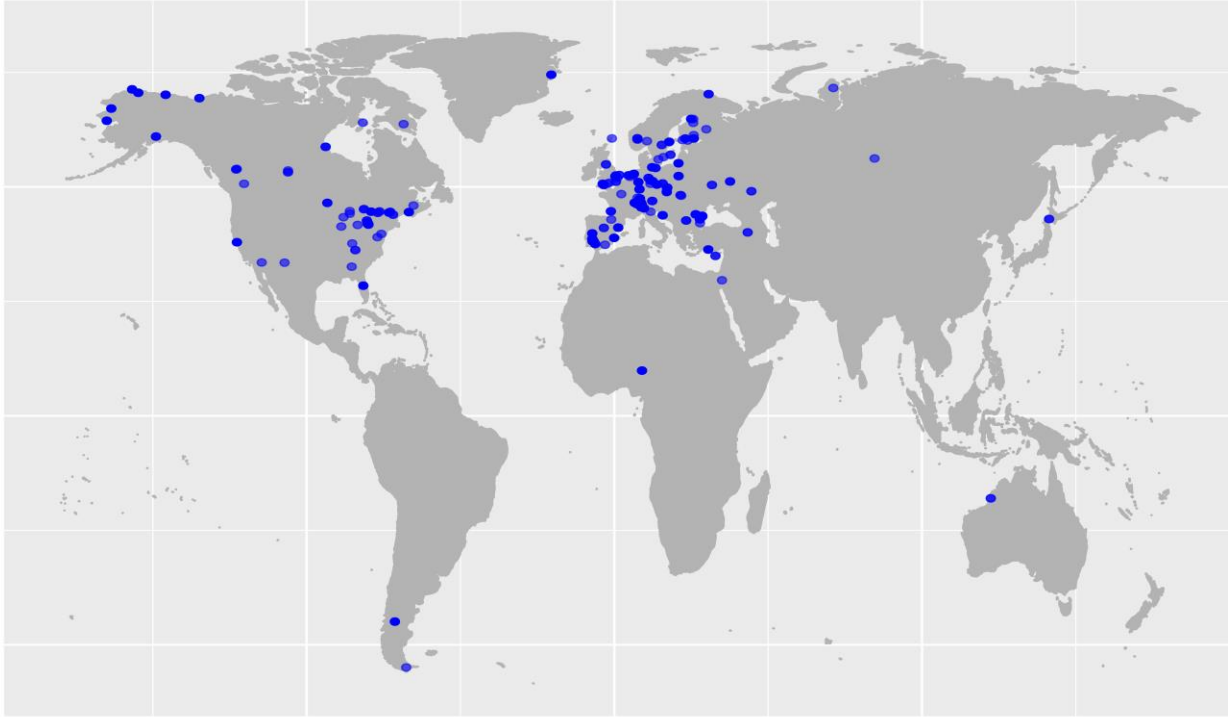


Table S6. Orders, families, species (Hackett et al. 2008) and number of records in each trait category for each species included in our analysis. Records are specified as the groups of tagged birds from the same study site, year of attachment, of the same sex, and the specific geolocator and the attachment type with the corresponding control group.

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

Table S6 (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.

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

Table S7. 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.

<i>Model</i>	<i>Site</i>	<i>Species</i>	<i>Phylogeny</i>	<i>Residual</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Heritability</i>
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 S8. Summary of the publication bias models for each trait category. Reference levels for treatment contrasts are unpublished results. Sample sizes are in parentheses.

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

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