## 1 Title

- 2 Full title: A pluralistic framework for measuring and stratifying heterogeneity in meta-
- 3 analyses
- 4 Short title: Measuring and stratifying for heterogeneity
- 5

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## 25 Abstract

1. Measuring heterogeneity, or inconsistency, among effect sizes is a crucial step for 26 interpreting the meta-analytic evidence across diverse taxonomic groups and spatiotemporal 27 contexts. However, ecologists and evolutionary biologists often interpret mean population 28 effects (i.e., meta-analytic mean effect size) as consistent, either explicitly or implicitly, 29 without proper heterogeneity quantification, thus assuming consistency in effects across 30 31 contexts. 2. Here, we present a pluralistic approach aimed at quantifying heterogeneity by introducing 32 33 complementary measures, each of which decomposes (stratifies) heterogeneity into within-34 and between-study variances. These measures include the traditional  $I^2$ , stratified  $I^2$ , the newly derived coefficient of variation (CV), and its transformation (M). 35 3. To demonstrate the benefits of the combined use of these measures, we synthesize 512 36 ecological and evolutionary meta-analyses. We show that total heterogeneity (variance in true 37 effects) is, on average, ten times larger than statistical noise (sampling variance), contributing 38 to 91% of the observed variance (median  $I^2 = 91\%$ ). This amount of heterogeneity is nearly 39 twice the size of the mean population effect (median CV = 1.8 and transformation M = 0.6), 40 indicating substantial variation among studies within a meta-analysis. 41 42 4. Surprisingly, despite a high amount of total heterogeneity is present in most meta-analyses, half of the meta-analyses had low among-study variance (and high within-study variance), 43 44 indicating the meta-analytic mean effect could be generalizable across studies. 5. Our meta-synthesis can serve as new benchmarks for the interpretation of heterogeneity. 45 Our proposed pluralistic approach provides our recommendations on how to quantify and 46 report heterogeneity. Collectively, we could accelerate the future quest for generalizability of 47 48 ecological and evolutionary phenomena via a better understanding of meta-analytic heterogeneity. 49

## 50 Introduction

Meta-analytic modelling is widely used to test ecological and evolutionary hypotheses and 51 informing conservation and environmental policies (Gurevitch et al. 2018). This feat is 52 accomplished through one or more of three procedures. Firstly, meta-analysis quantitatively 53 estimates the mean population effect (meta-analytic mean effect size) across effect sizes 54 sampled from different contexts (Nakagawa & Santos 2012; Noble et al. 2022; Yang et al. 55 2022), characterising the central tendency of a focal ecological and evolutionary effect. 56 57 Secondly, effect modifiers or moderators explaining variation in effect sizes are identified 58 (context-specific effects; Nakagawa & Santos 2012). Third, meta-analysis can quantify 59 variability in study outcomes, the "heterogeneity" among effect sizes. Heterogeneity helps indicate the degree of inconsistency or 'context dependence' of study findings, with high 60 heterogeneity indicating high variability among effect sizes that underpin the mean 61 population effect. . High heterogeneity thus precludes generality of the mean effect size, and 62 signals a need to further identify the drivers of effect size variation. Without quantifying 63 heterogeneity, it is difficult to interpret both the overall trends and context-specific effects 64 65 (Senior et al. 2016).

66

67 While meta-analyses of a collection of studies using similar protocols for single species have 68 clear interpretations, the interpretation of average population effects across diverse taxonomic 69 groups and spatiotemporal contexts can be problematic. However, ecologists and evolutionary biologists often either explicitly or implicitly interpret the mean population 70 effect and context-specific effects as consistent across contexts (Spake et al. 2022), and thus 71 72 transferable to a broad, largely unspecified target context. The mean population effect size is 73 only generalizable and transferable across the contexts when the meta-analytic evidence pool 74 does not respond to effect modifiers, leading to low amount of the variability around the true

75 effect size (i.e., low heterogeneity). Until now, the significance of heterogeneity in

76 interpreting meta-analytic evidence has been largely overlooked. Indeed, surveys have

revealed that heterogeneity statistics are not routinely reported (Senior *et al.* 2016; Yang *et al.* 

78 2022; Nakagawa *et al.* 2023).

79



81 Fig. 1:

The interpretation of total  $I^2$  can be ambiguous and can lead to incorrect conclusions about the 82 magnitude of heterogeneity. (A) A large estimated total  $I^2$  value could be due to small typical 83 sampling error variances  $\bar{\nu}$  (i.e., low statistical noise; Equation 3). (B) On the other hand, a large total 84  $I^2$  value could also result from a large true heterogeneity. Values of  $\sigma_{total}^2$  and  $\bar{\nu}$  were derived from 85 their empirical distributions based on 512 meta-analyses (see Figs. S1 and S2). Total I<sup>2</sup> values were 86 calculated using Equations 2 and 3. High, medium, and low  $\sigma_{total}^2$  (and  $\bar{\nu}$ ) denote the 25%, 50%, and 87 88 75% percentiles of their empirical distributions (Table 1). Three horizontal lines denote the conventional thresholds for the use of  $I^2$  to interpret the magnitude of heterogeneity (Higgins *et al.* 89 2003). 90

- 91
- 92 Currently, measuring and interpreting meta-analytic heterogeneity is challenging for two
- 93 major reasons. First, no single heterogeneity metric provides a holistic interpretation of
- generalizability (Cairns & Prendergast 2022). Currently, the  $l^2$  statistic is a popular metric

95	that quantifies the proportion of variance due to differences between effect sizes rather than
96	by statistical noise (i.e., sampling variance; Higgins & Thompson 2002; Rücker et al. 2008).
97	The biological interpretation of $l^2$ , however, is ambiguous (IntHout <i>et al.</i> 2016) because a
98	small absolute heterogeneity can lead to a high $I^2$ due to small statistical noise (see Fig. 1;
99	Rücker et al. 2008; IntHout et al. 2016; Borenstein et al. 2017). Second, meta-analyses
100	typically focus on estimating total heterogeneity only (Nakagawa & Santos 2012), despite the
101	hierarchical nature of real biological data structures (Noble et al. 2022; Nakagawa et al.
102	2023). Explicitly decomposing effect size heterogeneity across hierarchical levels (i.e.,
103	stratification) enables a more nuanced configurative account of the meta-analytic evidence,
104	and helps identify contextual factors (Nakagawa & Santos 2012) that drive context
105	dependence. For example, in a multi-taxon meta-analysis, if stratification of studies by
106	species yields low heterogeneity at the taxon level, the focal effect still can be generalizable
107	across taxon (in terms of accounting for within-taxon variation; Fig. 2). This is so, even if the
108	total heterogeneity remains high (Senior et al. 2016).



110 Fig. 2:

A cross-taxa meta-analysis with a high total variance can have a small amount of species level heterogeneity. The focal effect is still possible to be generalizable at the species level. The circles represent the replication of species-specific effects. The red dashed lines denote the meta-analytic mean effects. See a real example in **Extended strategies: Non-phylogenetic and phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity and generality**.

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Here, we present a pluralistic framework designed to quantify heterogeneity, incorporating 117 two intertwined strategies: stratification and the estimation of complementary measures of 118 119 heterogeneity. We begin by introducing a general method for stratifying heterogeneity, which 120 is applicable to any effect-size metric. We then evaluate commonly used heterogeneity 121 metrics and propose two sets of new metrics, which capture different dimensions of heterogeneity and inform cross-context generalizability of the meta-analytic mean effect size. 122 123 To ground our framework empirically, we undertake a large-scale synthesis, generating new benchmarks for interpreting heterogeneity and generalizability (Table 1), leveraging a big 124 125 dataset spanning 512 ecological and evolutionary meta-analyses (cf. O'Dea et al. 2021; 126 Costello & Fox 2022). We also present meta-scientific evidence on (in)congruence between different heterogeneity metrics, and outline approaches for developing useful extensions of 127 heterogeneity quantification in phylogenetic contexts. To facilitate researchers in navigating 128 129 the intricate landscape of heterogeneity, we conclude by offering practical recommendations and a tutorial with R functions (https://yefeng0920.github.io/heterogeneity\_guide/). The 130 proposed framework and large-scale synthesis aim to empower researchers in their quest to 131 132 unravel the complex patterns underlying the generalizability of ecological and evolutionary phenomena. 133

## 135 Methods

#### 136 Meta-analysis database

- The ecological and evolutionary databases used in this study were originally compiled by 137 Costello & Fox 2022, and O'Dea et al. 2021. They systematically searched for meta-analysis 138 papers published in ecological journals, including those from the Ecological Society of 139 America and journals of the British Ecological Society. Additionally, they supplemented the 140 database with high-profile journals, such as Nature, and Science. Their systematic search 141 yielded 522 meta-analysis datasets. We dropped meta-analysis datasets that could not achieve 142 143 convergence when fitted to the multilevel model. Convergence could not be reached for ten 144 meta-analysis datasets, even after adjusting key parameters of the iterative methods to maximize the log-likelihood function (see below for details). Therefore, our database 145 contained 512 meta-analysis datasets encompassing 17,770 primary studies and 109,495 146 effect size estimates. On average, each meta-analysis dataset included 240 effect size 147 estimates sourced from 40 studies, with median values of 64 and 23, respectively. 148 149 Stratifying heterogeneity using multilevel meta-analytic modelling framework 150 Data used in meta-analyses often exhibit a complex hierarchical structure (Nakagawa & 151 Santos 2012; Noble et al. 2017), with paper (or study) identity serving as a typical clustering 152 variable, forming two strata (or more). Ecological and evolutionary meta-analyses typically 153 154 report around eight effect sizes per study (Yang et al. 2023). However, traditional random-155 effects meta-analytic approaches do not account for heterogeneity driven by such data 156 stratification (Noble et al. 2022; Yang et al. 2022; Nakagawa et al. 2023), and multi-level meta-analysis is required to model heterogeneity at different strata or multi-levels in a meta-157 analysis (see Appendix for the theoretical background). 158
- 159

In the simplest multilevel model, the effect size estimate  $ES_{[i]}$  is modelled as a combination 160 of the population mean effect or meta-analytic mean effect size  $\mu$ , random effects at two 161 strata (i.e., between- and within-study levels), and statistical noise: 162 163  $ES_{[i]} = \mu + u_{between[j]} + u_{within[i]} + e_{[i]}, (1)$ The typical assumptions for Equation 1 are as follows: (i) between-study-level random effect 164 165  $u_{b[j]}$  follows a normal distribution with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_{between}^2$ :  $u_{between[j]} \sim$  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{between}^2)$ , (ii) within-study-level random effect  $u_{within[i]}$  follows a normal distribution 166 with mean zero and variance  $\sigma_{within}^2$ :  $u_{within[i]} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{within}^2)$ , and (iii) sampling error  $e_{[i]}$ 167 follows a normal distribution with mean zero and variance in effects defined by the sampling 168 variance  $(v_{[i]})$  associated with each effect size *i*, such that  $e_{[i]} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, v_{[i]})$ . The assumption 169 of homogeneous variances for the random effects can be relaxed to allow for 170 heteroscedasticity (Viechtbauer & López - López 2022). Similarly, the assumption of 171 172 independent sampling errors  $(e_{[i]})$  can be relaxed to allow for sampling error covariance  $v_{[i]}$ 173 (Noble et al. 2017; Yang et al. 2022). In the multilevel meta-analytic modelling framework, 174 the total observed variance  $Var[ES_{[i]}]$  is the sum of the variance of true effects  $\sigma_{total}^2$  and the sampling variance, while the variance of true effects  $\sigma_{total}^2$  is the sum of between-study 175 variance  $\sigma_{between}^2$  and within-study variance  $\sigma_{within}^2$ . Note that in the context of random-176 effects model, the between-study variance (the so-called  $\tau^2$ ) is treated as the  $\sigma^2_{total}$ , while a 177 multilevel model treats between-study variance as one of the components of the  $\sigma_{total}^2$ . 178 179 We used the *rma.mv(*) function from the *metafor* package (Viechtbauer 2010) to fit all 512 180

meta-analysis datasets to the three-level meta-analytic model (Equation 1). We employed
restricted maximum likelihood (REML) as the variance estimator and the quasi-Newton
method as the optimizer to maximize the likelihood function over variance estimation

184	$(\sigma_{between}^2 \text{ and } \sigma_{within}^2)$ , with a threshold of $10^{-8}$ , a step length of 1, and a maximum iteration
185	limit of 1000. All models successfully converged under these settings. We confirmed the
186	identifiability of variance estimation ( $\sigma_{between}^2$ and $\sigma_{within}^2$ ) by checking their likelihood
187	profiles. The R code for model fitting can be accessed at the website
188	(https://github.com/Yefeng0920/heterogeneity_ecoevo). In the following sections, we will
189	elaborate on how to use Equation 1 to stratify heterogeneity information for different metrics.
190	
191	Complementary measures of heterogeneity
192	Unstandardised heterogeneity metrics
193	Cochran's $Q$ is a widely used metric for assessing heterogeneity in meta-analyses Cochran
194	1954. It serves as a test statistic to determine whether the true effects are homogeneous or
195	not, informing a binary decision as to whether the effect sizes come from a common
196	underlying population or not (i.e., is there variability around the true effect size?). In contrast,
197	the variance of true effects ( $\sigma_{total}^2 = \sigma_{between}^2 + \sigma_{within}^2$ ) provides a direct measure of
198	absolute heterogeneity. Equation 1 offers a general way to partition the variance of the
199	observed effects into sampling error variance, and that of true effects at different strata, such
200	as between-study ( $\sigma_{between}^2$ ) and within-study strata ( $\sigma_{within}^2$ ). By considering additional
201	strata, such as variation in effects among species or geographical locations, the total variance
202	in true effects $(\sigma_{total}^2)$ can be further decomposed to assess generalizability at these specific
203	strata (See Results and Discussion). For example, low variation among species implies
204	effects are similar, on average, across species. Nonetheless, relying solely on absolute
205	variance may not provide practical intuition regarding the magnitude of effect heterogeneity.
206	For example, in a meta-analysis with $\sigma_{total}^2 = 1$ , it is unclear whether this amount of variance
207	is large and meaningful because absolute variance is not unitless and comparable across
208	effect-size statistics.

## 210 Variance-standardised heterogeneity metrics

211 The heterogeneity index,  $I^2$  has emerged as the most popular metric as it provides a

standardized measure of heterogeneity that accounts for the scale dependence (i.e., unitless;

Higgins *et al.* 2003).  $I^2$  is a variance-scaled heterogeneity metric that measures the proportion

of total variance beyond statistical noise (Higgins & Thompson 2002). The total  $l^2$  can be

computed by dividing the variance in the true effects ( $\sigma_{total}^2$ ) by the variance in the observed

216 effects ( $Var[ES_{[i]}]$ ), as follows:

217 
$$I_{total}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{total}^{2}}{\operatorname{Var}[ES_{[i]}]} = \frac{\sigma_{total}^{2}}{\sigma_{total}^{2} + \bar{\nu}}, (2)$$

where  $\bar{\nu}$  represents the "typical" sampling error variance.  $\bar{\nu}$  can be computed using different estimators (Takkouche, Cadarso-Suarez & Spiegelman 1999; Cheung 2014), with the

common one being (Higgins & Thompson 2002):

221 
$$\bar{v} = \frac{(k-1)\sum_{i=1}^{k} 1/v_{[i]}}{(\sum_{i=1}^{k} 1/v_{[i]})^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{k} 1/v_{[i]}^2}, (3)$$

222 Within the multilevel modelling framework, the total  $I^2$  can be stratified at different strata 223 (Nakagawa & Santos 2012; Cheung 2014), for example, by estimating  $I^2$  at between-study 224  $(I_{between}^2)$  and within-study $(I_{within}^2)$  levels:

225 
$$I_{between}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{between}^2}{\operatorname{Var}[ES_{[i]}]} = \frac{\sigma_{between}^2}{\sigma_{total}^2 + \bar{\nu}}, (4)$$

226 
$$I_{within}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{within}^2}{\operatorname{Var}[ES_{[i]}]} = \frac{\sigma_{within}^2}{\sigma_{total}^2 + \bar{\nu}}, (5)$$

227 However, as mentioned earlier, large  $I^2$  values do not necessarily imply a practically relevant

amount of heterogeneity (see Fig. 1; also see a case study in Extended strategies: Non-

229 phylogenetic and phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity and generality). Statistical

230 noise can sometimes inflate  $I^2$  values, which is a common occurrence in ecology and

231	evolutionary meta-analyses. Stratified $I^2$ metrics range from 0 to 100% (but together sum to	
232	100%), providing a clearer intuition of the relative sources of heterogeneity and aiding in	
233	assessing the drivers of context dependence at different strata. For example, a $I_{within}^2$ of 90%	
234	means within-study variation accounts for 90% of heterogeneity, therefore, indicating that	
235	within-study level predictors are more likely to drive context dependence. $I^2$ and its stratified	
236	variants can also be transformed into the ratio of the variance of true effect to typical	
237	sampling error variance $\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\bar{v}} = \frac{I^2}{(1-I^2)} \text{ or } \log\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\bar{v}}\right) = logit(I^2)$ , which represents	
238	heterogeneity as a proportion of the statistical noise (sampling error variance).	
239		
240	Mean-standardised heterogeneity metrics	
241	Evolutionary biologists and behavioural ecologists are familiar with the variance-scaled	
242	metrics such as heritability $(h^2)$ and repeatability $(R)$ , which are statistically comparable to	
243	the heterogeneity index, $I^2$ . Although less commonly used, there also exists the mean-scaled	
244	counterparts, such as evolvability or the coefficient of variation (CV) for additive genetic	
245	variance $(CV_A)$ and $CV$ for between-individual variance $(CV_B)$ Hansen, Pélabon & Houle	
246	2011. In a similar manner, there exists a mean-scaled heterogeneity metric that can provide a	
247	standardized measure of heterogeneity, denoted as $CV_{total}$ , that compares the standard	
248	deviation $\sigma_{total}$ to the magnitude of its mean population effect size ( $\mu$ ) (Takkouche, Cadarso-	
249	Suarez & Spiegelman 1999):	

 $CV_{total} = \frac{\sigma_{total}}{|\mu|}, (6)$ 



Commented [MNL1]: Total?

254 population effect. Assuming a normal distribution this means ~16% of effects would have

255 opposite sign to overall effect.

## 256

- 257 To provide a more precise quantification of heterogeneity at different strata, we propose
- stratified versions of *CV<sub>total</sub>*. Under the simplest multilevel model framework (Equation 1),
- 259 we propose estimating between-study,  $CV_{between}$ , and within-study,  $CV_{within}$ , as follows:

260 
$$CV_{between} = \frac{\sigma_{between}}{|\mu|}, (7)$$

261 
$$CV_{within} = \frac{\sigma_{within}}{|\mu|}, (8)$$

262 Notably, these mean-scaled variance metrics have the limitation of becoming arbitrarily large

as the magnitude of meta-analytic mean effect  $|\mu|$  approaches zero (Nakagawa *et al.* 2015). It

is this limitation that has probably prevented the widespread adoption of the mean-scaled

265 variance in the field of evolutionary quantitative genetic and animal personality research

- 266 (Hansen, Pélabon & Houle 2011; Dochtermann & Royauté 2019).
- 267

## 268 Variance-mean-standardised heterogeneity metrics

269 To remedy the problems of  $I_{total}^2$  and  $CV_{total}$  as illustrated above, there is a more robust

270 measure of heterogeneity  $M_{total}$  that combines the strengths of mean-scaled and variance-

271 scaled metrics (Cairns & Prendergast 2022):

272 
$$M_{total} = \frac{\sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within}}{\sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within} + |\mu|}, (9)$$

273 Here we propose between-study  $(M_{between})$  and within-study  $(M_{within})$  versions by

stratifying  $M_{total}$ , which allows for a more precise quantification of heterogeneity at specific

275 strata:

276 
$$M_{between} = \frac{\sigma_{between}}{\sigma_{between} + \sigma_{witin} + |\mu|}, (10)$$

277 
$$M_{within} = \frac{\sigma_{within}}{\sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within} + |\mu|}$$
, (11)  
278  $M_{total}$  and its stratified variants are still standardised measures that quantify the size of  
279 heterogeneity relative to the magnitude of meta-analytic mean effect, providing intuitive  
280 interpretation. For example,  $\sigma_{total} = 0$  leads to  $M_{total} = 0$ , indicating the population mean  
281 effect is fully generalisable, and replicable across different contexts (see a case study in  
282 **Extended strategies: Non-phylogenetic and phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity and**  
283 generality). One the other hand,  $M_{total}$  and its stratified variants are truncated at one, which  
284 overcomes the issue of  $CV_{total}$  when the magnitude of meta-analytic mean effect  $|\mu|$   
285 approaches zero. Note that there is another mean- and variance-scaled metric,  $M_{total}^2$ , where

 $\sigma_{total}$  and  $|\mu|$  are replaced by their squared values (See Appendix).  $CV_{total}$ ,  $M_{total}$  and

 $M_{total}^2$  can be all be easily stratified using multilevel meta-analytic models.

## 289 Results and Discussion

## Empirical patterns of heterogeneity and implications for effect generality 290 Source of heterogeneity 291 We used the variance-standardised metric $I^2$ to measure sources of heterogeneity. The 25th, 292 50th, and 75th percentiles corresponded to 79%, 91%, and 97% $I_{total}^2$ , respectively (Fig. 3), 293 which is worth contrasting with the conventional thresholds for interpreting $I^2$ , which 294 typically categorize heterogeneity as small, moderate, or high at 25%, 50%, and 75% $I_{total}^2$ 295 296 (Higgins et al. 2003), respectively. Thus, on average (50th percentile), 91% of variance in effect sizes can be attributed to the 'true' biological or methodological differences in research 297 298 contexts, and may therefore be explainable using appropriate predictors. It also means that variation in true effect sizes is ten times larger than typical sampling error variance ( $\frac{\sigma^2}{\overline{\nu}}$ = 299 $\frac{I^2}{(1-I^2)} = 10$ ; see Figs. S1 and S2 for empirical distributions of $\sigma^2$ and $\bar{\nu}$ ). 300

301

302	While $I_{total}^2$ displayed a left-skewed and single-modal distribution, its stratified counterparts
303	$I_{between}^2$ and $I_{within}^2$ , demonstrated a right-skewed distribution with multi-modal patterns
304	(Fig. 3). There was no consistent trend suggesting neither type of stratified heterogeneity
305	consistently outweighed the other across the $512$ meta-analyses (Fig. 3). Intriguingly, $47\%$
306	(242 out of 512) of the meta-analyses exhibited smaller between-study level heterogeneity
307	than within-study level heterogeneity ( $I_{between}^2 < I_{within}^2$ ; Fig. 4). Within this subset of meta-
308	analyses, the median values for $I_{total}^2$ , $I_{between}^2$ and $I_{within}^2$ were 95%, 21%, and 63%,
309	respectively.

310

311 Our results highlight a key finding often overlooked by traditional heterogeneity

312 quantification practices: findings from many meta-analyses with high total heterogeneity can

still be generalized at the between-study study level. Such generalization is achievable when replication is defined as the testing of the null hypothesis at the between-study level, and when within-study methodological and biological variations can be adequately accounted for (i.e., within-lab heterogenization; Richter 2017) because some meta-analyses have relatively low heterogeneity at the between-study study level.



318

319 Fig. 3:



- 321 assessed using pluralistic measures and stratified across different strata. Total heterogeneity measures
- 322 (A C):  $I_{total}^2$ ,  $CV_{total}$  and  $M_{total}$ . Between-study heterogeneity measures (D E):  $I_{between}^2$ ,

323  $CV_{between}$  and  $M_{between}$ . Within-study heterogeneity measures (G – I):  $I_{wihtin}^2$ ,  $CV_{within}$  and 324  $M_{within}$ . Three dashed lines correspond to the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, respectively. In panels 325 B, E, and H, the *CV* was truncated at five for figure clarity, as very large *CV* values can be challenging 326 to interpret when the meta-analytic mean effect is small. For example, the maximum *CV* observed in 327 the 512 meta-analyses was 106, which was inflated by a small meta-analytic mean effect of 0.03. For 328 the figures without truncation, please refer to Figure S3.

329

### 330 Magnitude of heterogeneity

331 When the mean-standardised metric CVtotal was used to quantify the magnitude of heterogeneity, the calculated 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles of CV<sub>total</sub> values were 1.0, 1.8, 332 and 3.5, respectively (Fig. 3). Therefore, the standard deviation (in this case, heterogeneity) 333 was, on average (50-th percentile), nearly twice that of the meta-analytic mean effect. The 334 distributions of both CVtotal and its stratified versions, CVbetween, and CVwithin, displayed a 335 336 right-skewed pattern with a single-mode (Fig. 3). In contrast, the distribution of the mean-337 variance-standardised metric  $M_t$  exhibited a more symmetrical pattern, with the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles of  $M_{total}$  values being 0.5, 0.6, and 0.8, respectively (Fig. 3), albeit with 338 339 a minor peak around zero.

340

341 Notably, stratification analysis revealed that  $M_{between}$  and  $M_{within}$  had patterns similar to

- those observed for *CV<sub>between</sub>* and *CV<sub>within</sub>*. This similarity is expected as they can be
- 343 mathematically transformed into one another using equations  $M_{total} =$

344  $CV_{total}/(1 + CV_{total})$  and  $logit(M_{total}) = \log (CV_{total})$ . The median values for both

- 345  $CV_{total}$  and  $M_{total}$  across the 512 meta-analyses signify a high amount of heterogeneity,
- 346 thereby warranting a thorough exploration into the drivers influencing such context
- 347 dependence. However, stratification of  $M_{total}$  also suggests that meta-analyses with high

- 348 heterogeneity can possess a considerable likelihood of generality at the between-study level,
- 349 given low  $M_{between}$  (as we pointed out above with  $I^2$ ). On average, there was a median
- 350  $M_{between} = 0.3$  (SD is 41% of the meta-analytic mean effect) observed in 47% of the meta-
- analyses (242/512) with smaller  $M_{between}$  values compared to  $M_{within}$  values (Fig. 4).



Between-study Withi Stratified heterogeneity

Within-study



353 Fig. 4:

Paired comparison of stratified heterogeneity estimates derived from 512 meta-analyses for three heterogeneity metrics (A)  $I^2$ , (B) coefficient of variation, *CV* and (C) *M*. Heterogeneity was stratified at both 'between-study' and 'within-study' levels (x-axes). Each point represents an estimate from each meta-analysis. For panel B, *CV* has been truncated at five for figure clarity. For the full figures without truncation, please refer to Figure S4. For other details see Fig. 3.

359

## 360 Meta-scientific evidence on (in)congruence between different metrics

We found only moderate agreement between heterogeneity measured as  $I^2$  and the 361 362 alternatives (*CV<sub>total</sub>*: *r*<sub>spearman</sub> = 0.32, 95% CI = [0.24, 0.40], *M<sub>total</sub>*: *r*<sub>spearman</sub> = 0.33, 95% CI = [0.25, 0.41]; Fig. 5). In cases of meta-analyses with  $I^2$  larger than 75% or smaller than 25% 363 364 (identified as large and small heterogeneity by conventional benchmarks Higgins et al. 2003), the disagreement between  $I^2$  and CV, as well as  $I^2$  and M, became even more pronounced 365 (Fig. S5 – S7). In contrast, a near-perfect agreement was observed between  $CV_{total}$  and 366  $M_{total}$ , as expected ( $r_{spearman} = 1, 95\%$  CI = [0.99, 1]; Fig. 4). Therefore, cross-meta-analysis 367 (meta-scientific) evidence suggests that  $I^2$  as a measure of heterogeneity is not consistent 368 with magnitude measures ( $CV_{total}$  and  $M_{total}$ ) for ecological and evolutionary data. We also 369 found that out of the 512 meta-analyses featuring medium to large  $I_{total}^2$  values (>50% based 370 371 on conventional guidelines), 80 had small CVtotal (Fig. 5), indicating that more than 20% of 372 the large  $I_{total}^2$  values were caused by small sampling errors rather than larger amount of 373 heterogeneity. These findings emphasize the importance of considering multiple metrics to 374 obtain a holistic understanding of heterogeneity in meta-analyses (see Interpreting heterogeneity and discerning effect generality using a pluralistic framework). 375



## 377 Fig. 5:

Disagreement (or agreement) between different heterogeneity metrics. For other details see Fig. 3. The Spearman correlation estimates ( $r_{spearman}$ ) were: 0.32, 95% CI = [0.24, 0.40] for  $I_{total}^2$  and  $CV_{total}$ , 0.33, 95% CI = [0.25, 0.41] for  $I_{total}^2$  and  $M_{total}$ , and 1, 95% CI = [0.99, 1] for $M_{total}$  and  $CV_{total}$ .

381

# 382 Extended strategies: Non-phylogenetic and phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity and383 generality

In ecological and evolutionary datasets, complexity often arises from the inclusion of diverse species, temporal, and spatial variations (Gurevitch *et al.* 2018). To address the challenge of quantifying heterogeneity in ecological and evolutionary datasets with increasingly complex structures that often involve high species-level heterogeneity, we propose decomposing heterogeneity into non-phylogenetic and phylogenetic species level strata. Such an approach offers a unique opportunity for further disentangling heterogeneity.



396	random-effects terms into Equation 1 would lead to the phylogenetic multilevel meta-analytic			
397	model (Nakagawa & Santos 2012; Cinar, Nakagawa & Viechtbauer 2022):			
398	$ES_{[i]} = \mu + u_{species[k]} + u_{phylogeny[k]} + u_{between[j]} + u_{within[i]} + e_{[i]}, (12)$			
399	where $u_{species[k]}$ denotes the non-phylogenetic species random effect, which follows a			
400	normal distribution with mean zero and variance $\sigma^2_{species}$ ; $u_{phylogeny[k]}$ denotes the			
401	phylogenetic species random effect, which follows a multivariate normal distribution with			
402	mean zero and variance-covariance matrix $\sigma_{phylogeny}^2 A$ (where $\sigma_{phylogeny}^2$ is the			
403	phylogenetic species variance, and $A$ is phylogenetic correlation matrix based on the distance			
404	between species on a molecular-based phylogenetic tree).			

With Equation 12 in hand, the total variance can be stratified at the phylogenetic and nonphylogenetic species level ( $\sigma_{phylogeny}^2$  and  $\sigma_{species}^2$ ). Such stratification allows for the assessment of the generality of a focal effect within these strata, as illustrated in the empirical example below. Phylogenetic and non-phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity can be measured using  $I_{phylogeny}^2$  and  $I_{species}^2$ , respectively:

411 
$$I_{phylogeny}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{phypogeny}^{2}}{\sigma_{phypogeny}^{2} + \sigma_{species}^{2} + \sigma_{between}^{2} + \sigma_{within}^{2} + \bar{\nu}}, (13)$$

412 
$$I_{species}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{species}^{2}}{\sigma_{phylogeny}^{2} + \sigma_{sspecies}^{2} + \sigma_{between}^{2} + \sigma_{within}^{2} + \bar{\nu}}, (14)$$

413 We derive the alternative stratified version of measures as follows:

414 
$$CV_{phylogeny} = \frac{\sigma_{phylogeny}}{|\mu|}, (15)$$

415 
$$CV_{species} = \frac{\sigma_{species}}{|\mu|}$$
, (16)

416 
$$M_{phylogeny} = \frac{\sigma_{phylogeny}}{\sigma_{phylogeny} + \sigma_{species} + \sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within} + |\mu|}, (17)$$

417 
$$M_{species} = \frac{\sigma_{species}}{\sigma_{phylogeny} + \sigma_{species} + \sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within} + |\mu|}, (18)$$

419	To illustrate the insights gained through these extended measures, we present an empirical
420	example. We re-analysed a phylogenetic meta-analysis originally conducted by (Risely et al.
421	Risely, Klaassen & Hoye 2018). Our focus centres on a subset of this analysis, specifically
422	examining the impact of infection status on the cost (e.g., movement capacity) of migratory
423	animals. Our re-analysis yielded three observations. Firstly, $I_{total}^2 = 97\%$ exceeded the 75th
424	percentile of the empirically derived heterogeneity distribution (Fig. 6 and Table 1). This
425	suggests a high amount of heterogeneity according to the conventional benchmarks (Higgins
426	et al. 2003). However, when we employed magnitude metrics to measure heterogeneity, they
427	fell below the 25th and 50th percentiles of the empirically derived heterogeneity distribution
428	$(CV_{total} = 1.3 \text{ and } M_{total} = 0.6)$ . This discrepancy was attributed to the small typical sampling
429	variance $\bar{\nu}$ , which was found to be 0.001 in this case, underscoring $I_{total}^2$ 's limitation of
430	relying on $\bar{\nu}$ to capture relative magnitude of heterogeneity. On the other hand, we emphasise
431	that the proper interpretation of $I_{total}^2$ is to use it to indicate the source of heterogeneity rather
432	than the magnitude, as it represents the variance of the true effect in the context of the
433	variance of the observed effect. For example, $I_{total}^2 = 97\%$ suggests a heterogeneity can
434	explain most (97%) of the variability in effect size (only 3% is explained by the sampling
435	variance, or the heterogeneity is 32 times larger than that of statistical noise).



437 Fig. 6:

438 Heterogeneity quantification and stratification for multiple metrics. (A) The heterogeneity is

439 quantified using raw variance, (B) source measure  $I^2$ , (C) magnitude measure CV, and (D) magnitude

440 measure *M*, and stratified at phylogenetic (Phylo), non-phylogenetic (Spp), between-study (Between),

441 and within-study (Within) levels. The source measure  $I^2$  sometimes aligns well with the raw variance,

442 as observed in this example (A and B). However, we note that  $I^2$  values can be challenging to

443 interpret as the magnitude of heterogeneity, especially when the typical sampling error variance is

444 extremely small or large. This challenge is often encountered with certain effect size measures, such

445 as the log coefficient of variation ratio (lnCVR), as demonstrated in a real example at

446 https://yefeng0920.github.io/heterogeneity\_guide/.

448	Secondly, the estimated mean effect was highly likely to be generalizable and replicable at	
449	the between-study- and species-context, if controlling for within-study experimental contexts	
450	(e.g., age, sex, outcomes). This is indicated by the stratification analysis that between-study	
451	level heterogeneity was extremely low, despite a large heterogeneity according to	
452	conventional benchmarks (Higgins et al. 2003). Traditional meta-analytic practices would	
453	overlook these valuable insights, potentially leading to erroneous conclusions. For example,	
454	random-effects meta-analysis shows that this dataset has high study-level heterogeneity	
455	$(I_{total}^2 = 96\%;$ Fig. 4 and Table 1). However, stratification of heterogeneity further indicated	
456	that it was not attributable to the between-study level but, rather, was mainly explained by the	
457	phylogenetic signal ( $I_{phylogeny}^2 = 76\%$ ).	

# 459 Interpreting heterogeneity and discerning effect generality using a

## 460 pluralistic framework

461	Given that two strategies for heterogeneity quantification (i.e., new metrics and stratification			
462	of heterogeneity) offer distinct insights into empirical patterns of biological generality (Figs.			
463	<b>2</b> to 7), we propose adopting a pluralistic framework to comprehensively assess generality by			
464	more thoroughly characterising and presenting meta-analytic heterogeneity. Our			
465	recommendations are fourfold (Table 1):			
466	(1) Employ a multilevel meta-analytic framework: We strongly advocate for the use of a			
467	multilevel meta-analytic framework (Equation 1), as opposed to random-effects meta-			
468	analysis, for the modelling and stratification of heterogeneity. Additional random			
469	effects can be incorporated into Equation 1 as needed to further dissect heterogeneity.			
470	For example, the application of the phylogenetic multilevel meta-analytic model			
471	(Equation 12) allows for the disentanglement of species-specific heterogeneity.			
472	(2) Quantification and stratification of pluralistic heterogeneity measures: We recommend			
473	transparently reporting all variance components, including typical sampling error			
474	variances in the main text, supplementary tables, or figures (Figs. 6 and 7 and Table			
475	1). As such, pluralistic metrics can be computed using the formula above. $I^2$ , $M$ (with			
476	CV being derivable from $M$ ), and their stratified versions should be reported as the			
477	default measures. These measures provide complementary information, for example,			
478	the source and magnitude (examples see Table 1). We also provide parametric			
479	bootstrapping solutions to estimate the uncertainty (e.g., 95%CI) for each of the			
480	measures.			
481	(3) Check the model parameter identifiability: When models incorporate many random			
482	effects, issues of parameter identifiability may arise, wherein unique variance			

483 estimates that maximize the likelihood function may not exist (see **Methods**; Raue *et* 

484	al. 2009). Therefore, we recommend assessing whether variance components are all		
485	identifiable through means such as checking profile likelihood, before proceeding		
486	with heterogeneity quantification and stratification.		
487	(4) Carefully interpret heterogeneity measures: It is important to interpret both total and		
488	stratified heterogeneity to evaluate variation in effect sizes, aiding in the examination		
489	of general rules in the fields of ecology and evolution. However, neither the		
490	conventional benchmarks (25, 50, and 75% as small, moderate and high		
491	heterogeneity; Higgins et al. 2003) nor those of empirically derived distributions		
492	(Table 1 and Fig. 3) are currently suitable for informing interpretation. Nevertheless,		
493	the empirically derived distribution can be employed to interpret heterogeneity within		
494	the context of existing ecological and evolutionary meta-analyses.		
495			
496	Overall, we argue that ecologists and evolutionary biologists should treat heterogeneity and		
497	the meta-analytic mean effect size with equal importance and discuss both when making		
498	biological conclusions (Higgins, Thompson & Spiegelhalter 2009). Our pluralistic approach		
499	provides a framework to achieve it.		
500			

## 501 Table 1

502 Summary of heterogeneity measures, their stratified counterparts, and empirically derived benchmark values. SMD denotes standardised mean

- 503 difference. lnRR denotes log response ratio. Zr denotes Fisher's r-to-z transformed correlation coefficient. 2-by-2 table denotes often
- 504 dichotomous (binary) effect size measures, such as log odds ratio, log risk ratio. Uncommon measures represent less frequently used effect size

## 505 measures, such as raw mean difference and regression coefficients.

Types	Metrics	Interpretation and examples	Empirically derived benchmark <sup>1</sup>
Test statistic	Q	Null-hypothesis test. Statistical test of heterogeneity in effect sizes.	Not applicable
	$\sigma^2$		25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles (Fig. S1):
		Absolute magnitude measure of heterogeneity. Variance (square of	0.54, 1.25, 3.03 for SMD; 0.11, 0.27, 0.57 for
Unstandardisation		standard deviation) of the meta-analytic mean effect $(\sigma_{total}^2)$ and its	lnRR; 0.06, 0.12, 0.25 for Zr; 1.04, 1.20, 2.51
Ulistalidardisation		stratification at between- and within-study contexts ( $\sigma_{between}^2$ and	for the 2-by-2 table; 0.01, 0.04, 0.27 for
		$\sigma_{within}^2$ ).	uncommon measures. The percentiles of typical
			sampling variance $\bar{\nu}$ are reported at Fig. S2.
	I <sup>2</sup>	Heterogeneity source measure. Proportion of variance not due to	25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles (Fig. 3):
		statistical noise. It measures the source of heterogeneity. For example,	79%, 91%, 97% for overall; 78%, 89%, 96% for
Vanianaa		$\sigma_{total}^2 = 95\%$ denotes that 95% of variation is the result of nuisance	SMD; 88%, 95%, 99% for lnRR; 73%, 87%,
variance-		heterogeneity (i.e., differences in contexts). $\sigma_{between}^2 = 80\%$ and $\sigma_{within}^2$	95% for Zr; 71%, 73%, 89% for the 2-by-2
standardization		= 15% indicate differences in between-study contexts dominate the	table; 74%, 91%, 98% for uncommon measures.
		heterogeneity, pointing towards between-study level predictors as the	
		likely drivers of context-dependent variation.	
Moon standardization	CV	Heterogeneity magnitude measure. Variance expressed as the proportion	25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles (Fig. 3):
wican-standardization		of the mean effect. It is the measure of the magnitude of heterogeneity in	

		the context of mean effect. For example, $CV_{total} = 1.5$ , $CV_{between} = 0.8$ ,	1.0, 1.8, 3.5 for overall; 1.1, 2.0, 3.9 for SMD;
		and $CV_{within} = 0.5$ denote that total, between- and within-study variance	1.2, 1.9, 3.5 for lnRR; 0.8, 1.7, 2.9 for Zr; 1.2,
		are 150, 80, and 50% of the mean effect.	2.2, 2.7 for the 2-by-2 table; 0.7, 1.1, 1.3 for
			uncommon measures.
		Heterogeneity magnitude measure. Variance expressed as the proportion	25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles (Fig. 3):
	I- М 1	of the mean effect and a transformation of CV designed with better	0.5, 0.7, 0.8 for overall; 0.5, 0.7, 0.8 for SMD;
		properties. It is the measure of the magnitude of heterogeneity in the	0.5, 0.7, 0.8 for lnRR; $0.5, 0.6, 0.8$ for Zr; $0.5,$
Variance-mean-		context of mean effect. The interpretation can be eased by back-	0.7, 0.7 for the 2-by-2 table; 0.4, 0.5, 0.6 for
standardization		transformation with $M_{total} = CV_{total}/(1 + CV_{total})$ . For example,	uncommon measures.
		$CV_{total} = 0.6, CV_{between} = 0.5, \text{ and } CV_{within} = 0.4$ denote that total,	
		between- and within-study variance are 150, 100, and 67% of the mean	
		effect.	

506 <sup>1</sup>The distributions and percentiles could be underestimated if publication bias existed.

## Appendix

### Stratifying heterogeneity of hierarchical meta-analytic data

In this section, we elucidate the theoretical background behind employing a three-level metaanalytic approach to stratify datasets characterized by three-level hierarchical structure as outlined above. Note that the stratification of heterogeneity can be further extended to data structures with more than four strata as necessary (see a case study in Extended strategies: Non-phylogenetic and phylogenetic species-level heterogeneity and generality). In the first-stage modelling procedure, the true (population) effect size  $\mu_{between[j]}$  of j-th study is modelled using a normal distribution with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma_{between}^2$ , where  $\mu$  is the population mean effect or overall effect and  $\sigma_{between}^2$  denotes the extent to which  $\mu_{between[j]}$  deviates from the overall effect  $\mu$  Van den Noortgate *et al.* 2013; Cheung 2014. Moving to the second-stage modelling procedure, the *i*-th effect size  $\mu_{within[i]}$  within *j*-th study is modelling using a normal distribution with expectation  $\mu_{between[j]}$  and variance  $\sigma_{within}^2$ , where  $\sigma_{within}^2$  represents the extent to which within-study effect  $\mu_{within[i]}$  deviates from between-study effect  $\mu_{between[j]}$  Van den Noortgate *et al.* 2013; Cheung 2014. In the third-stage modelling procedure, the effect size estimate  $ES_{[i]}$  of  $\mu_{within[i]}$  is modelled using a normal distribution with expectation  $\mu_{within[i]}$  and sampling error variance  $v_{[i]}$ . This multilevel modelling framework provides a general way to decompose the variance of effect sizes into different strata, for example between- and within-study levels.

From the implementation perspective, effect size estimate  $ES_{[i]}$  is not sequentially modelled through the three-stage process but rather directly modelled from the overarching distribution with an expectation  $\mu$  and variance-covariance matrix *VCV* Van den Noortgate *et al.* 2013; Cheung 2014:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{between}^{2} + \sigma_{within}^{2} + v_{[1]} & \cdots & \sigma_{between}^{2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{between}^{2} & \cdots & \sigma_{between}^{2} + \sigma_{within}^{2} + v_{[k]} \end{bmatrix}, (19)$$

The meta-analytic model specified with the variance-covariance matrix *VCV* is referred to as the multilevel meta-analytic model (Equation 1). *VCV* can be reparametrized as a compound symmetry random-effects structure within the framework of multivariate meta-analytic model Van den Noortgate *et al.* 2013; Cheung 2019.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{total}^{2} + v_{[1]} & \cdots & \rho \sigma_{total}^{2} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \rho \sigma_{total}^{2} & \cdots & \sigma_{total}^{2} + v_{[k]} \end{bmatrix}, (20)$$

where  $\sigma_{total}^2 = \sigma_{between}^2 + \sigma_{within}^2$  is the total variance in effect sizes and  $\rho = \sigma_{between}^2 / \sigma_{total}^2$  denotes intraclass correlation coefficient.

## **Extended heterogeneity metrics**

In addition to  $CV_{total}$ ,  $M_{total}$ , and their stratified counterparts (Equations 6 – 11), we introduce two related heterogeneity measures.  $CV_{total}$  has a potential shortcoming that it is not numerically equivalent to the sum of heterogeneity at between- and within-study levels  $(CV_{total} \neq CV_{between} + CV_{within})$ . This is because the total standard deviation  $\sigma_t$  is not equal to the sum deviations at each stratum ( $\sigma_{total} \neq \sigma_{between} + \sigma_{within}$ ). To address the numerical difference, we propose  $CV_{total}^2$ , an analogue to  $CV_{total}$ :

$$CV_{total}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{total}^2}{\mu^2}$$
, (21)

Similarly, we propose between-study level and within-study level variants ( $CV_{between}^2$  and  $CV_{within}^2$ ):

$$CV_{between}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{between}^{2}}{\mu^{2}}, (22)$$
$$CV_{wihtin}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{within}^{2}}{\mu^{2}}, (23)$$

Following the same principle,  $M_{total}^2$  can be obtained Cairns & Prendergast 2022:

$$M_{total}^2 = \frac{\sigma_{total}^2}{\sigma_{total}^2 + \mu^2}, (24)$$

We further propose between-study level  $(M_{total}^2)$  and within-study level  $(M_{total}^2)$  counterparts as:

$$M_{between}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{between}^{2}}{\sigma_{total}^{2} + \mu^{2}}, (25)$$
$$M_{within}^{2} = \frac{\sigma_{within}^{2}}{\sigma_{total}^{2} + \mu^{2}}, (26)$$

 $M_{total}^2$  and its stratified variants ( $M_{between}^2$  and  $M_{within}^2$ ) are re-scaling of  $CV_{total}^2$  and its stratified variants ( $CV_{between}^2$  and  $CV_{within}^2$ ). Therefore, they can be converted into each other using simple mathematical relationships, such as  $M_{total}^2^{-1} = CV_{total}^2^{-1} + 1$  or  $logit(M_{total}^2) = log(CV_{total}^2)$ .

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# **Supplementary Materials**

Table S1, Fig. S1 to Fig. S7.