

# Ungeneralizable generalizations? A meta-meta-analysis of the influence of taxonomic bias on the study of behavior.

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 Meta-analysis is a powerful tool for synthesizing behavioral research and identifying  
3 general patterns. However, are the conclusions we draw from these analyses truly  
4 representative across animal groups? Alternatively, are our conclusions shaped by  
5 taxonomic biases in the underlying research? For example, in animal behavior, vertebrates  
6 are often overrepresented in the research we conduct. This taxonomic imbalance raises  
7 concerns about the validity of generalizations drawn in the field, especially from meta-  
8 analyses. To examine this issue, we examined the meta-analyses published in *Animal*  
9 *Behaviour*, *Behavioral Ecology*, and *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* from 2000 – 2024.  
10 We then conducted a “meta-meta-analysis” to calculate the degree to which overall effects  
11 in prior meta-analytical results may have been mis-estimated due to taxonomic bias. We  
12 found that taxonomic biases in the primary research strongly influence effect size estimates  
13 in meta-analyses and can lead to improper inferences and generalizations. On average,  
14 meta-analytical averages are mis-estimated by ~35% ( $p < 0.01$ ) and significance changes  
15 in about 25% of instances when sampling is taxonomically representative. Because meta-  
16 analyses aggregate data, they propagate the biases present in an area of research, leading to  
17 potentially incorrect generalizations. Addressing this taxonomic bias is critical to  
18 generalizations that describe the true richness of animal behavior.

## 19 **Introduction**

20 A major goal of animal behavior research is to understand why animals behave the way  
21 they do from both proximate and ultimate perspectives (Tinbergen 1963). Drawing general  
22 conclusions to answer such questions across species can be challenging and meta-analyses  
23 have emerged as the primary tool for doing so. However, the inferences drawn from any  
24 analysis, including meta-analyses, are reliant on whether the data being used are an  
25 appropriate sample (Gurevitch and Hedges 1999, Jennions et al. 2013, Konno et al. 2020).  
26 Put another way, if the data going into behavioral meta-analyses are not representative of  
27 animal behavior broadly, then the resulting inferences may be incorrect.

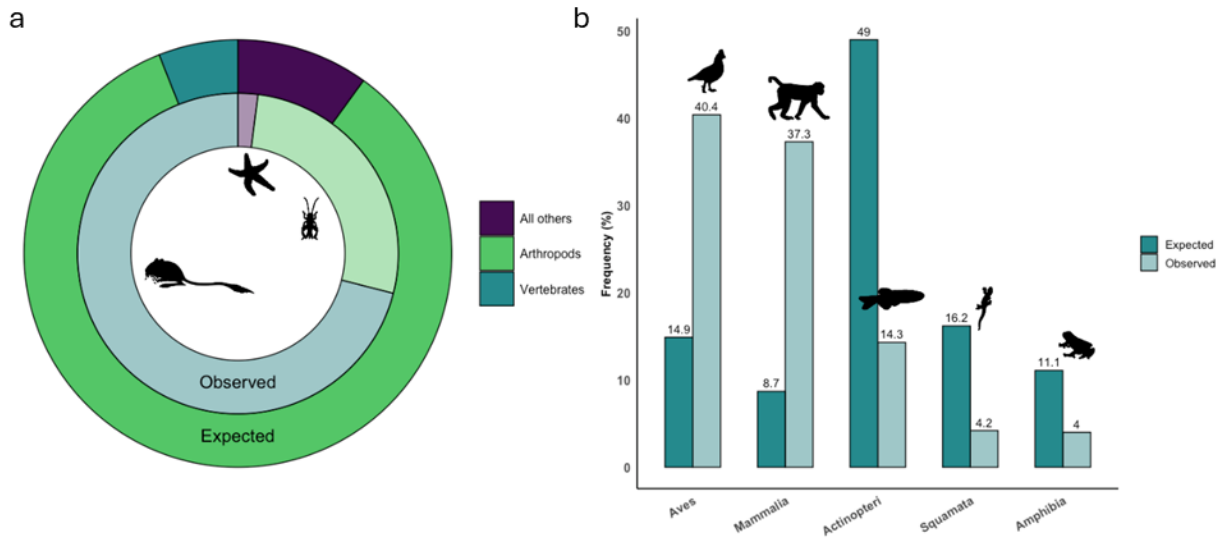
28 Biases in the data used in meta-analyses is a topic that has been extensively explored  
29 (e.g. Dickersin 2005, Rothstein et al. 2005). However, most of this discussion has focused on

30 issues like the well-known “file drawer problem” and time-lag bias. The file drawer problem  
31 concerns publication bias wherein “statistically significant” findings are more likely to be  
32 published (reviewed by Dickersin 2005). This bias leads to the absolute magnitude of effect  
33 sizes being overestimated. Time-lag bias refers to the general observation that effect sizes  
34 tend to decrease over time (Trikalinos and Ioannidis 2005), as has been found in ecology  
35 generally (Jennions and Møller 2002). Time-lag bias leads to the absolute magnitude of  
36 effect sizes being overestimated early in a field’s development. While not trivial, both types  
37 of biases can be at least partially addressed statistically within meta-analyses (Nakagawa  
38 and Santos 2012, Nakagawa et al. 2022).

39 More generally, and potentially more importantly, we do not have a good idea of how  
40 taxonomically biased the data going into meta-analyses might be (Gurevitch and Hedges  
41 1999). However, for animal behavior research, we do know that individual research  
42 projects are conducted in a highly taxonomically biased manner. Rosenthal et al. (2017)  
43 examined papers published in *Animal Behaviour* between 1953 and 2015 and found that  
44 vertebrates were strongly over-represented (Figure 1A). At the coarsest level, vertebrates  
45 represent only 5% of animal species but were the focus of study in 71% of surveyed  
46 studies. Even within vertebrates there was considerable bias in what animals were studied  
47 (Rosenthal et al. 2017): endotherms were far more frequently studied than expected based  
48 on their taxonomic representation (Figure 1B) and well over 50% of all studies were on  
49 birds or mammals (Figure 1B). When invertebrates were specifically studied, most  
50 behavioral research was conducted in a single order (Hymenoptera, Rosenthal et al. 2017).  
51 Interestingly, this bias in favor of vertebrates is reduced in sexual selection and sexual  
52 conflict research. Zuk et al. (2014), found that roughly 30 percent of sexual selection and 50  
53 percent of sexual conflict research is conducted with insects. However, even in these areas  
54 of study, vertebrates remain over-represented and over 20 percent of the work done on  
55 insects was from a single genus (i.e. *Drosophila*, Zuk et al. 2014).

56 This potential for biased inferences also has impacts beyond our basic  
57 understanding of behavior. From an applied perspective, as discussed by Rosenthal et al.  
58 (2017), taxonomic bias in the study of behavior can affect conservation and management  
59 efforts, understanding population dynamics, and understanding zoonotic disease risk.  
60 Consequently, evaluating the presence of taxonomic bias in animal behavior meta-analyses  
61 and considering how such bias may affect the inferences we draw is of considerable  
62 importance. Specifically, it is necessary to know whether the conclusions we draw from  
63 meta-analyses are representative and generalizable.

64 We sought to address this concern by asking two questions: First, is the taxonomic  
65 bias identified by Rosenthal et al. (2017) also present in the data used in meta-analyses?  
66 Second, does taxonomic bias lead to misestimation and incorrect inferences in meta-  
67 analytical results?



68  
69 Figure 1. Taxonomic bias in the animals used in the study of animal behavior as identified by  
70 Rosenthal et al. (2017) both in general (a) and just within vertebrates (b).

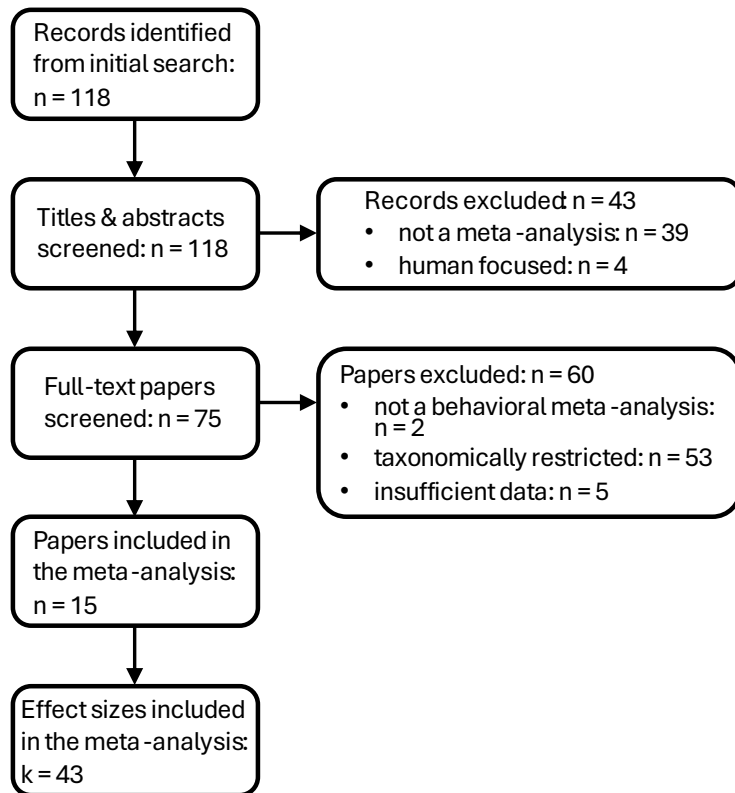
## 71 **Methods**

72 To answer these two questions, we identified the meta-analyses published in three leading  
73 behavioral journals. We then determined the taxonomic representation of the constituent  
74 studies used in these meta-analyses and how estimates from these meta-analyses would  
75 change if the data were sampled in a taxonomically representative manner.

### 76 *Identifying meta-analyses*

77 To identify meta-analyses in animal behavior, we searched the journals *Animal Behaviour*,  
78 *Behavioral Ecology* and *Sociobiology*, and *Behavioral Ecology* for meta-analyses published  
79 in 2000 – 2024 using Web of Science (Core Collection, Science Citation Index Expanded).  
80 We used the search string  $TS=(meta-anal* OR meta OR meta anal*)$ . This search returned  
81 118 articles and was conducted on 4 February 2025. The titles and abstracts of these  
82 articles were then screened based on two search criteria: 1) the study had to have been  
83 identified by the authors as a meta-analysis, and 2) the study had to have been focused on  
84 non-human animals. Based on these search criteria, we identified a total of 75 articles for  
85 secondary screening (*sensu* Foo et al. 2021).

86 During the secondary screening we verified that the 75 articles met our inclusion  
87 criteria. Additional inclusion criteria at this stage were that the meta-analyses were not  
88 taxonomically restricted (e.g. focused solely on primates) and that available data were  
89 sufficient to estimate effect size means for vertebrates and invertebrates. When data were  
90 not available from online sources, we requested the data directly from the authors. This  
91 ultimately led to a sample size of 15 articles and 43 estimates (Figure 2, Table 1).



92  
93 Figure 2. PRISMA diagram of included studies and effect size estimates

94 *Identifying taxonomic representation*

95 For each article we determined whether specific estimates within a meta-analysis were  
96 from vertebrates or invertebrates. We then compared this representation of estimates to  
97 that expected based on known animal diversity. Because of the expected lack of non-  
98 vertebrate estimates (Figure 1a) and the large number of non-vertebrate phyla, we  
99 compared the representation of vertebrates and invertebrates. We compared this  
100 representation based on the taxonomic diversity without accounting for differences in  
101 abundance.

102 *Estimating taxonomic misestimation of meta-analytical results*

103 To determine the degree to which taxonomic representation could lead to misestimation of  
104 meta-analytical results, we compared meta-analytic grand means to estimates of what  
105 those means would be if estimates were drawn proportionally from the diversity of  
106 Animalia. We did so by calculating the marginalized means for each included meta-analysis  
107 under the assumption of taxonomically representative sampling (sensu Nakagawa et al.  
108 2023).

109 For example, consider a meta-analysis based on 100 estimates with 75 estimates  
110 coming from vertebrates and 25 from invertebrates. This degree of taxonomic mis-  
111 representation is consistent with the findings of Rosenthal et al. (2017). Assuming equal

112 precision of estimates, the grand mean effect size in this meta-analysis would be primarily  
113 driven by the mean for vertebrates: if the mean effect size for vertebrates were 0.5 and the  
114 mean for invertebrates was -0.5, the overall “grand mean” would be 0.25. However, this  
115 overall mean is taxonomically biased as vertebrates only represent around 5% of all  
116 animals (vertebrates: 4.74%; Catalogue of Life, 2025). If the estimates in this hypothetical  
117 example were drawn proportionally from the animal kingdom, the grand mean would  
118 instead have been estimated as -0.45.

119 We estimated the marginalized means given the observed data (“data-proportional”)  
120 and under taxonomic representative sampling (“taxonomic-representative”) with the  
121 `metafor` package in R (Viechtbauer 2010, Viechtbauer and López - López 2022,  
122 Nakagawa et al. 2023). This process is known as “poststratification” and is often used in  
123 recalibrating survey results (Gelman et al. 2021). Using the `predict` function of  
124 `metafor`, we estimated the marginalized taxonomic-representative value with an  
125 assumption of 5% of estimates being from vertebrates and 95% of estimates being from  
126 invertebrates. This also allowed us to estimate the uncertainty around the taxonomic-  
127 representative mean (Viechtbauer and López-López 2022).

128 Many of the constituent studies conducted multiple meta-analyses and we  
129 attempted to replicate as many of those as possible. In all cases we attempted to replicate  
130 the original analyses either using code originally provided by the authors or de novo code  
131 based on the described methods and as the effect sizes used or described by the authors.  
132 When possible, this included the inclusion of phylogenetic error structure. For each meta-  
133 analysis we estimated the data-proportional ( $\mu_{dp}$ ) and taxonomic-representative ( $\mu_{tr}$ )  
134 overall mean estimates and their uncertainties. We also determined the statistical  
135 significances ( $\alpha < 0.05$ ) of  $\mu_{dp}$  and  $\mu_{tr}$ .

### 136 *Data analysis*

137 For each meta-analytical estimate pair from a study, we compared the data-proportional  
138 versus taxonomic-representative estimates to quantify the relative, proportional effect of  
139 taxonomic misrepresentation on overall effects in meta-analysis. To do so, we calculated the  
140 absolute value of the log ratio (Hedges et al. 1999):

$$141 \quad \left| \log \frac{\mu_{tr}}{\mu_{dp}} \right|$$

142 we used the absolute value as this allowed comparison across studies regardless of  
143 whether data-proportional or taxonomic-representative estimates were larger. This also  
144 allowed us to compare estimates across meta-analyses even when those original meta-  
145 analyses used different effect sizes. The two limitations of this approach are that it does not  
146 allow analysis in cases where the signs of estimates change and the use of absolute values

147 can result in over-estimation of magnitudes (Morrissey 2016, see below). Fortunately, sign  
148 changes only occurred for 3 of the 43 pairs of estimates (see results).

149 As an additional analysis, we also calculated the absolute difference between data-  
150 proportional and taxonomic-representative estimates. Because the constituent meta-  
151 analyses used different effect sizes themselves (i.e. Zr, log-odds ratios, and various  
152 standardized mean differences), we first transformed all effect sizes to Zr following  
153 equations in Borenstein et al. (2009). We then calculated the absolute value of the  
154 differences between data-proportional and taxonomic-representative Zr scores.

155 For both the relative and absolute differences between pairs, the standard deviation  
156 of the differences was estimated as:

$$157 \quad \sqrt{sd_{dp}^2 + sd_{tr}^2 - 2sd_{dp} \times sd_{tr} \times r}$$

158 where  $sd_{dp}$  and  $sd_{tr}$  are the estimate standard deviations of the overall meta-analytical  
159 means (reported in the `metafor` outputs as standard errors) and  $r$  represents the  
160 correlation between the uncertainties (because the uncertainties are based on the same  
161 datasets). For the differences in Zr scores, we used the estimated uncertainties in the above  
162 equation. For the absolute value of log ratios,  $sd_{dp}$  and  $sd_{tr}$  were calculated as  $sd_{dp}/\mu_{dp}$  and  
163  $se_{tr}/\mu_{tr}$ , respectively.  $r$  is not analytically known but is between 0 and 1 and so was set to  
164 0.8. This did not substantively affect our conclusions or estimation (Supplemental  
165 Materials).

166 To estimate the overall effect of taxonomically biased sampling on meta-analytical  
167 inferences, we next fit a random effects meta-analysis with the study an estimate was  
168 drawn from as a random effect to the absolute standardized mean differences. We also  
169 included individual estimate identity as a random effect because each estimate was based  
170 on a different sample size and often addressing a different question. The overall effect size  
171 was estimated while weighting by the inverse of the standardized mean difference's  
172 sampling variance (Borenstein et al. 2009). We evaluated the magnitude and uncertainty of  
173 the grand mean as indicative of taxonomic bias in meta-analytical inferences. A significant  
174 grand mean would indicate significant taxonomic bias in meta-analytical estimates.

175 Importantly, calculating the grand mean of absolute values results in positive bias  
176 (Morrissey 2016). Therefore, we used an "analyze-then-transform" approach following  
177 Morrissey (2016). To do so, we transformed the meta-analytic grand means of the  
178 magnitude of taxonomic bias ( $x_{gm}$ ) and its uncertainty ( $se_{gm}$ ) according to a folded normal  
179 distribution as:

$$180 \quad x_{folded} = se_{gm} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \times e^{\left(\frac{-x_{gm}^2}{2se_{gm}^2}\right)} + x_{gm} \times \mathbf{erf}\left(\frac{x_{gm}}{\sqrt{2se_{gm}^2}}\right)$$

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$$sd_{folded} = x_{gm}^2 + se_{gm}^2 + x_{folded}^2$$

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where  $x_{folded}$  is the transformed grand mean and  $sd_{folded}$  is its standard deviation. **erf** is the Gauss error function. Uncertainties of parameters from linear models, like those provided by the `metafor` package, are reported as standard errors but these values specifically refer to the standard deviation of the parameter's sampling distribution and so were used here in lieu of standard deviations. We calculated the folded values for both the relative and absolute analyses.

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We next conducted a heterogeneity analyses to determine the contributors to variability in taxonomic bias. We determined whether there was significant heterogeneity among estimates based on Cochran's Q and its significance. We then calculated the proportion of variation ( $I^2$ ) attributable to sampling error, to study differences, and to estimate differences within studies (Nakagawa and Santos 2012).

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Because we were analyzing differences between marginal means, as opposed to original findings, there are not clear expectations of publication bias or approaches to testing for such bias. Moreover, because our estimates were constrained to be positive, typical funnel plots and trim-and-fill analyses were not appropriate. Given the lack of either a basis or methods, we did not conduct publication bias tests.

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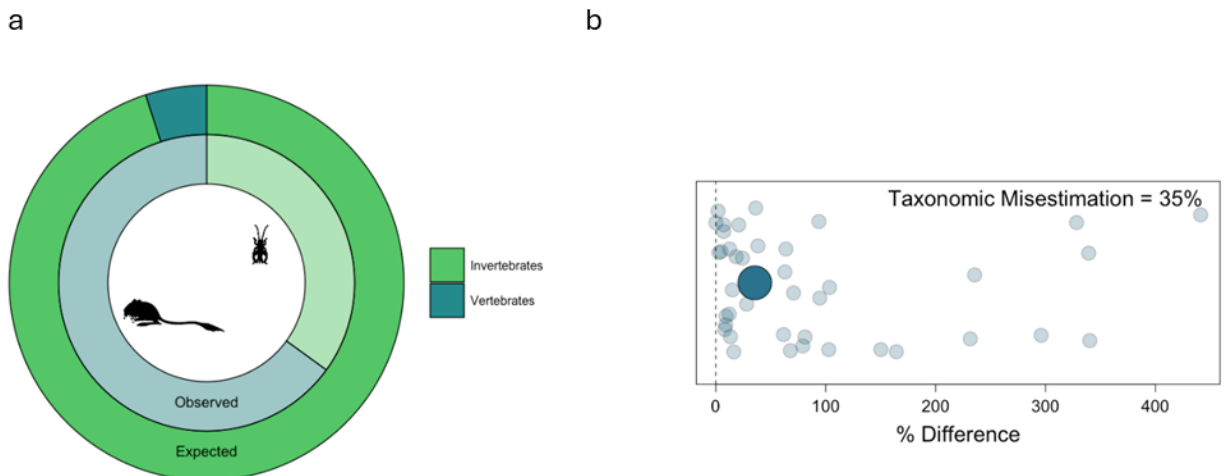
All analyses were conducted in the R statistical language (v4.5.0, R\_Core\_Team 2025).

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#### Data availability

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All data and analysis code are available at [link](#).



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Figure 3. a) Data included in meta-analyses by taxa. b) Overall (large dot) and individual estimates (small dots) of the percentage misestimation due to taxonomic misrepresentation (uncertainty around this misestimation is smaller than the point).

## 206 **Results**

### 207 *Taxonomic Representation of Data in Meta-Analyses*

208 We found that the data used in behavioral meta-analyses was highly taxonomically biased  
209 in favor of vertebrates (Figure 3a, Table 1). 65% of the estimates used in meta-analyses  
210 were from vertebrates, slightly less than the bias observed more broadly in behavioral  
211 research (Rosenthal et al. 2017), but far, far greater than the 5% expected according to  
212 taxonomic representation.

### 213 *Relative Effect of Taxonomic Misrepresentation on Meta-Analytical Inferences*

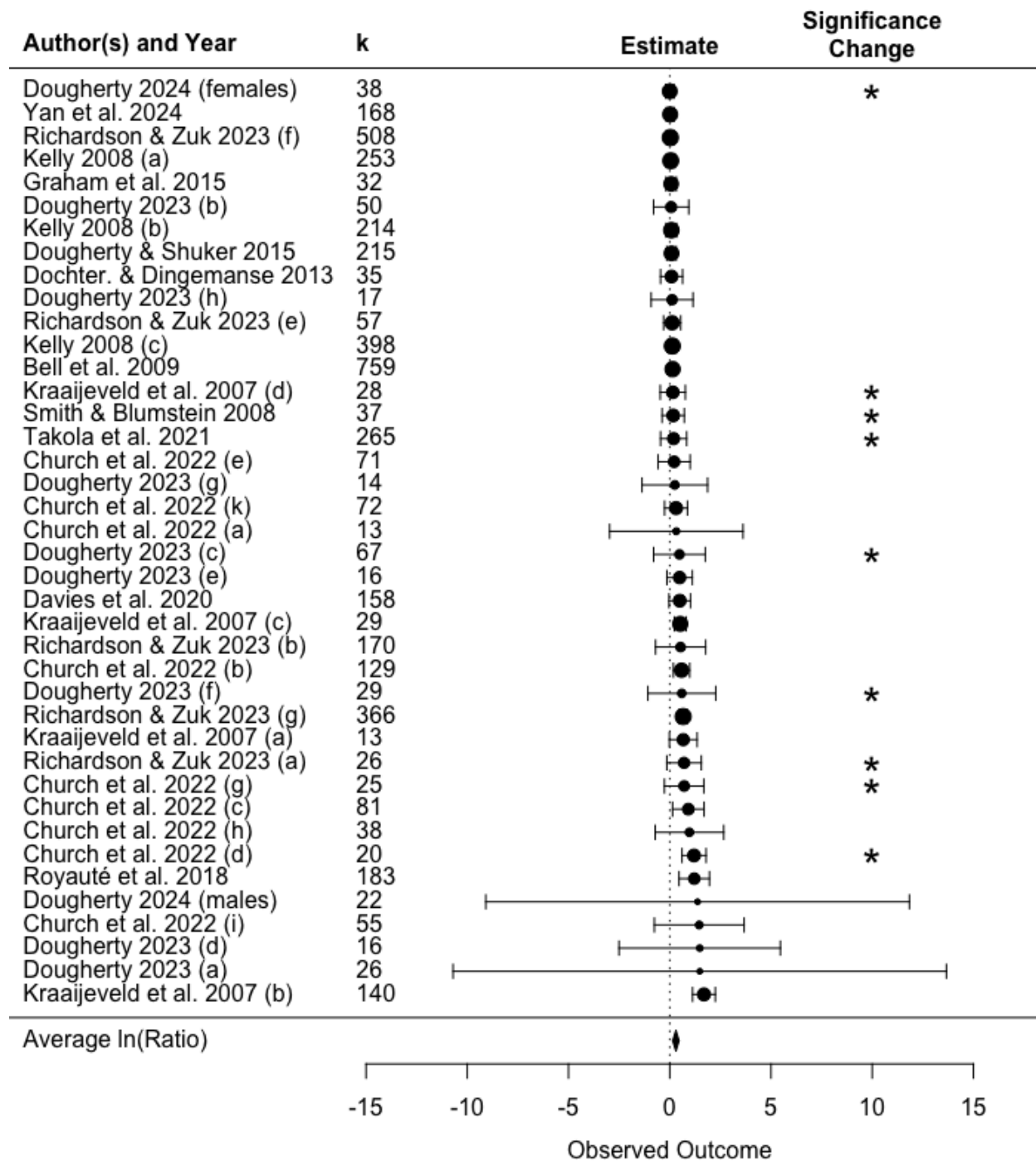
214 The meta-analytical mean, after transformation due to the folded distribution, of absolute  
215 log ratios was 0.30 (s.e. = 0.08,  $p < 0.01$ ; Figure 4). Put another way, meta-analytical means  
216 are, on average, misestimated by 35% (Figure 3b). Significance changed between the data-  
217 proportional and taxonomic-representative estimates for 10 of 43 estimate pairs (Figure 4),  
218 though the signs of effects only changed for 3 pairs.

219 There was significant heterogeneity among estimates ( $Q_{df:39} = 102.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Of  
220 this heterogeneity, most was attributable to sampling variance ( $I^2 = 0.69$ ). But there was  
221 also considerable heterogeneity among studies ( $I^2 = 0.13$ ) and among estimates within  
222 studies ( $I^2 = 0.19$ ).

### 223 *Absolute Effect of Taxonomic Misrepresentation on Meta-Analytical Inferences*

224 The meta-analytical mean of absolute differences between Zr scores was 0.15 (s.e. = 0.06,  $p$   
225 = 0.01). However, one estimate pair differed by around 3 times more than the next largest  
226 difference (Figure S1). When excluded, the difference dropped to 0.098 (se = 0.026) and  
227 remained significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). Whether with or without this extreme data point, these  
228 effects translate to substantive differences in more conventional effect sizes: a difference  
229 between Zr scores of 0.15 corresponds to a difference of 0.29 between correlations and a  
230 difference of 0.091 converts to a difference in correlations of 0.20. There was significant  
231 heterogeneity among estimates ( $Q_{df:41} = 2.1 \times 10^5$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) but 99% of this heterogeneity  
232 was attributable to sampling variance with no appreciable heterogeneity among studies or  
233 estimates ( $I^2 < 0.01$ ).





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Figure 4. Within-study estimates and standard errors of the relative magnitude of taxonomic bias on meta-analytical estimates.

## 237 Discussion

238 We found that the degree of taxonomic bias on meta-analytical estimates in the study of  
239 animal behavior was surprisingly large (Figure 3). Specifically, our results demonstrate that  
240 meta-analytical means from behavioral meta-analysis are misestimated by around 35%.  
241 The observed magnitude of misestimation also led to changes in significance for around  
242 25% of estimates. This degree of an effect can lead to incorrect inferences being drawn.

243 Our analysis of the absolute magnitude of the effect on meta-analytical estimates  
244 demonstrates a somewhat smaller impact of taxonomic bias. However, this is not entirely  
245 unexpected because effect sizes estimated in meta-analyses are typically quite small  
246 (Møller and Jennions 2002, Low-Décarie et al. 2014) and so absolute differences will  
247 necessarily be constrained to also be small. Even in absolute terms, this bias still translates  
248 into substantial difference in the magnitudes of effects, changing correlations by around  
249 0.3. Further, we were initially concerned with relative and inferential impacts, which cannot  
250 be determined from absolute differences.

251 As one example, consider the findings of Royauté et al. (2018). We use this example  
252 as one of us (NAD) was the senior author of that study and so as to not single out other  
253 authors. In Royauté et al. (2018), the authors concluded that correlations between  
254 behaviors and physiological or life-history traits were not in the direction expected  
255 according to the “pace-of-life” syndrome (POLS) hypothesis proposed by Réale et al. (2010).  
256 This was a novel and surprising finding given the intuitive predictions of POLS and its  
257 dramatic impact on discussions of how behavior might be integrated with physiology and  
258 life-history. The conclusion in that paper was based on the meta-analytical mean, estimated  
259 as  $r = 0.06$  (95% CI:  $-0.01 : 0.14$ ), which was predicted to have been positive according to  
260 POLS. However, as reported by Royauté et al. (2018), there was a significant difference  
261 between vertebrates and invertebrates regarding support for POLS. There also was  
262 substantial taxonomic bias in the data that went into Royauté et al.'s (2018) analysis. Here,  
263 via the estimation of marginal means adjusting for taxonomic bias, we see that if the  
264 sampling of vertebrates and invertebrates was taxonomically proportional, the meta-  
265 analytical mean would have been estimated as  $r = 0.22$  and would have been significantly  
266 different than zero. While this is a relatively modest absolute difference in estimates, it is a  
267 large relative difference ( $\sim 2.4$  times, Figure 4). This ends up resulting in a substantive  
268 reinterpretation of the evidence for POLS: If the data going into the original analysis were  
269 consistent with actual taxonomic representation, and the estimates of the original analysis  
270 hold, this would have been taken as meta-analytical support for POLS. We suspect similar  
271 changes in conclusions might be drawn from other meta-analyses if taxonomic bias were to  
272 be similarly addressed.

273 Importantly, changes in interpretation as discussed above are dependent on how  
274 robust our marginal mean estimates are for invertebrates. This is not currently clear and,

275 across the included meta-analyses, the poor representation of invertebrates (Figure 3a,  
276 Table 1) necessarily means that these estimates have greater uncertainties than do  
277 estimates for vertebrates. Also, because of the poor representation of invertebrates in  
278 behavioral studies, the diversity *within* invertebrates could not be captured in our analysis.  
279 Because invertebrates are also not proportionally sampled (Zuk et al. 2014), our field's  
280 meta-analytical conclusions may be even more biased than revealed here.

281 While changes in interpretation due to taxonomic bias might be discouraging, they  
282 also are of intrinsic interest. Sub-group analysis (Borenstein et al. 2009), a long-standing  
283 part of meta-analyses in other fields and stratification, would allow the evaluation of when  
284 a hypothesis like POLS holds in some taxonomic groups and not others.. For example, it is  
285 also perhaps more interesting to ask why POLS holds in invertebrates but not vertebrates  
286 rather than simply asking whether the hypothesis is supported in general. Such analyses  
287 may allow for greater insight than currently provided by most behavioral meta-analyses

288 This example and our overall finding confirms concerns raised by others. In  
289 particular, Gurevitch and Hedges (1999) discussed how researcher biases and taxonomic  
290 preferences in the generation of original data have the potential to affect subsequent meta-  
291 analytical inferences. However, the degree to which this was an actual problem was not  
292 clear until our analysis here. This is a concerning problem but not a new one. As discussed  
293 by Rosenthal et al. (2017), taxonomic bias in the study of animal behavior is pervasive and  
294 pronounced (their data are recreated in Figures 1a & 1b).

295 It is also worth emphasizing that relatively few studies could be included in our  
296 analyses and, as a result, the effects of taxonomic bias might therefore be even more severe.  
297 Specifically, 53 meta-analyses published in *Animal Behaviour*, *Behavioral Ecology*, and  
298 *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* were taxonomically restricted (Figure 2). Put another  
299 way, the taxonomic bias in the 15 studies included here necessarily underestimates the bias  
300 present in the 53 studies for which bias could not even be estimated. In some cases  
301 taxonomic restriction may be because a specific hypothesis applies to, for example,  
302 mammals but not reptiles. However, it is also possible that this represents a secondary  
303 opportunity for researchers to express taxonomic preferences (Gurevitch and Hedges  
304 1999). Taxonomically restricted meta-analyses, when not necessary, will further reduce the  
305 generality of conclusions.

306 If a broad goal of animal behavior research is to increase our general understanding  
307 of behavior, our results demonstrate that taxonomic bias should be a major concern. If,  
308 instead, we are primarily interested in examining personally interesting examples of  
309 behavior, the bias is of less importance. Regardless, a primary aim of meta-analyses *is* to  
310 draw generalizable inferences. Our results suggest that the taxonomic bias inherent in the  
311 behavioral literature makes this generalization difficult. This may profoundly affect how  
312 right and wrong we are about our understanding of behavior. Addressing this bias will

313 require individual researchers to consider whether their study system choices will increase  
314 the generality of our field's understanding.

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419

Table 1. Behavioral meta-analyses included in the current analyses

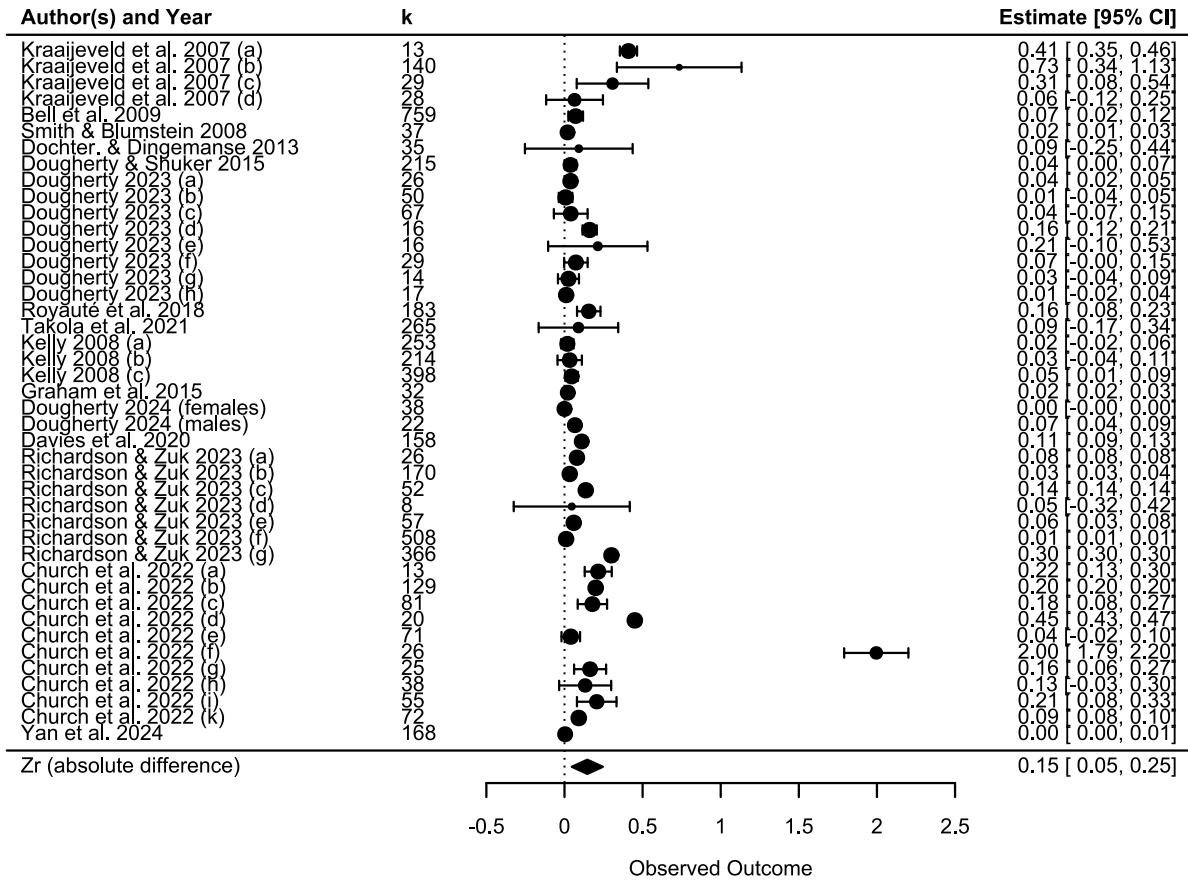
Study ID	Number of included analyses	Number of estimates in each analysis	Number of estimates for vertebrates	Number of estimates for invertebrates	Author(s) (Year)
K9	4	13	4	9	Kraaijeveld et al. (2007)
		140	135	5	
		29	26	3	
		28	23	5	
B11	1	759	493	266	Bell et al. (2009)
T40	1	265	261	4	Takola et al. (2021)
D44	3	38	2	36	Dougherty (2024)
		22	4	18	
Y46	1	168	47	121	Yan et al. (2024)
S56	1	37	31	6	Smith and Blumstein (2008)
D64	1	35	30	5	Dochtermann and Dingemanse (2013)
D67	1	215	92	123	Dougherty and Shuker (2015)
D85	1	158	125	33	Davies et al. (2020)
		13	12	1	
		129	85	44	
		81	74	7	
		20	19	1	
		71	56	15	
		26	25	1	
		25	22	3	
		38	35	3	
		55	49	6	
72	29	43			
C87	10	26	9	17	Church et al. (2022)
		170	61	109	
		52	24	28	
		8	4	4	
		57	43	14	
		508	92	416	
		366	325	41	
		26	8	18	
		50	27	23	
		67	41	26	
D90	8	16	6	10	Dougherty (2023)
		13	13	3	
		29	22	7	

		14	5	9	
		17	6	11	
		253	187	66	
K102	3	214	168	46	Kelly (2008)
		398	339	59	
G106	1	32	3	29	Graham et al. (2015)
R110	1	183	145	38	Royauté et al. (2018)

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420 **Supplementary Materials**



421  
 422 **Figure S1.** Within-study estimates and standard errors of the magnitude of taxonomic bias  
 423 (absolute differences) on meta-analytical estimates.  
 424

425 **Supplementary Analysis: Effect of  $r$  on sampling variance.**

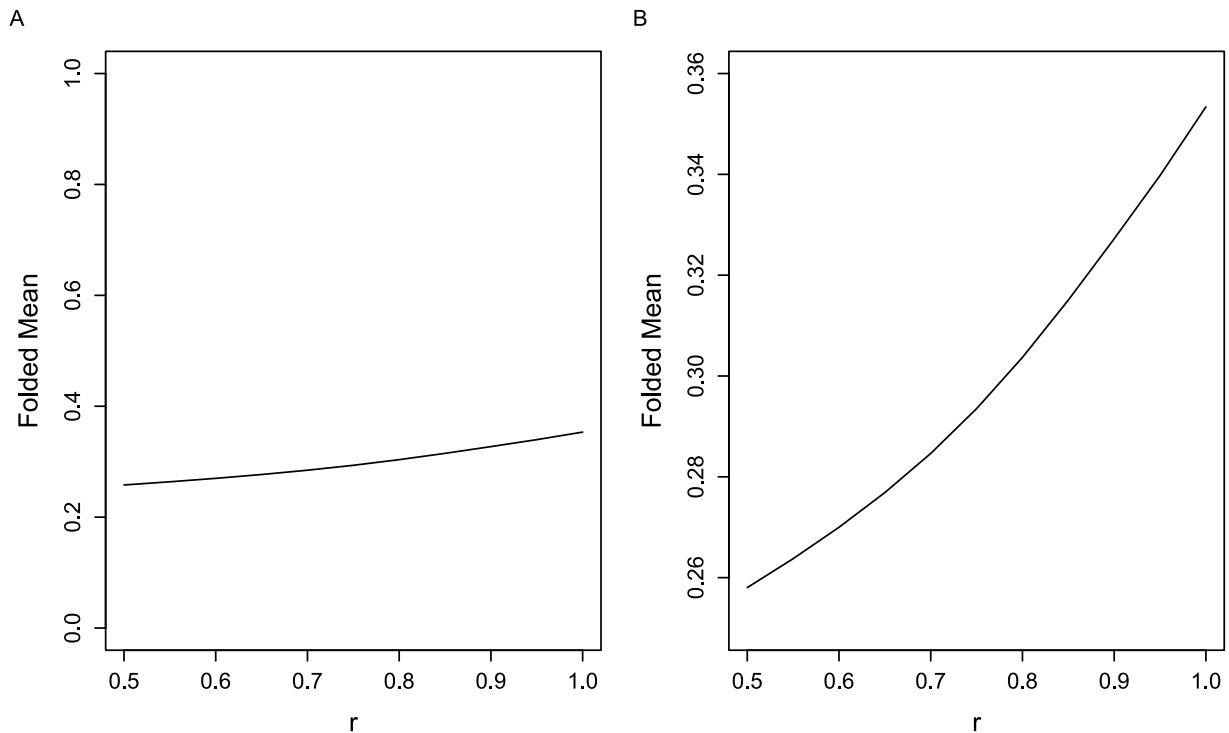
426

427 Because we estimated the standard deviation of estimates as:

428

$$\sqrt{sd_{dp}^2 + sd_{tr}^2 - 2sd_{dp} \times sd_{tr} \times r}$$

429 it was possible that choices about the value of  $r$  might influence the ultimate meta-meta-  
430 analytical results. We know that  $r$  is much greater than 0 since the same data were being  
431 used for the data-proportional and taxonomic-representative estimates. However, we don't  
432 know if this value is exactly 1. We *a priori* decided to use a value of 0.8 since the value is  
433 necessarily large but also calculated meta-analytical means over a range of values for  $r$   
434 (Figure S2). A higher  $r$ , corresponding to a more conservative estimate of the standard  
435 deviation, led to an increase in the meta-analytical estimate but did not change significance  
436 or our overall interpretation.



437

438 Figure S2. Change in the estimated folded mean for a range of values for  $r$ . A and B differ

439

only in the scale of the y axes.