



## 17 **Abstract**

18 Bio-logging devices play a fundamental and indispensable role in movement ecology studies, par-  
19 ticularly in the wild. However, researchers are becoming increasingly aware of the influence that  
20 attaching devices can have on animals, particularly on their behaviour, energy expenditure and  
21 survival. The way a device is attached to an animal's body has also potential consequences for the  
22 collected data, and quantifying the type and magnitude of such potential effects is fundamental to  
23 enable researchers to combine and compare data from different studies, as much as it is to improve  
24 animal welfare.

25 For over two decades, large terrestrial birds have been in the focus of long-term movement ecol-  
26 ogy research, employing bio-logging devices attached with different types of harnesses. However,  
27 comparative studies investigating the effects of different harness types used on these species are  
28 scarce.

29 In this study, we tested for potential differences in data collected by two commonly used harness  
30 types, backpack and leg-loop, on the flight performance of 10 individuals from five raptor species,  
31 equipped with high resolution bio-logging devices, in the same area and time. We explored the  
32 effect of harness type on vertical speed, horizontal speed, glide ratio, height above sea level, dis-  
33 tance travelled, proportion of soaring and flapping behaviour, and VeDBA (a proxy for energy  
34 expenditure) between and within individuals, all used as fine-scale measures of flight performance.  
35 Birds equipped with leg-loops climbed up to  $0.65 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  faster, reached 19% greater heights while  
36 soaring, and spent less time in active flight compared to birds equipped with backpacks, suggesting  
37 that backpack harnesses, compared to leg-loops, might cause additional drag affecting the birds'  
38 flight performance. A lower rate of sinking while gliding, a slightly higher glide ratio, higher hor-  
39 izontal speed while soaring, and lower VeDBA, were also indicative of less drag using leg-loops.

40 Our results add to the existing literature highlighting the design-related advantages of leg-loops,  
41 and support the use of leg-loops as a better alternative to backpack harnesses for large soaring  
42 birds, when possible. Our study also highlights how apparently small changes in device attach-  
43 ment can lead to notable improvements in tagging practice, with implications for animal welfare,  
44 data interpretation and comparability.

## 45 **Keywords**

46 Tagging methods, harness type, backpack, leg-loop, soaring birds, bio-logging, flight performance

## 47 **Background**

48 The recent advances in the movement ecology field are sparked by the growing possibilities to  
49 remotely measure the movement and behaviour of animals in the wild. The use of bio-logging  
50 devices, such as GPS loggers, accelerometers and internal sensors, allow us to record an unprece-  
51 dented amount of quantitative information concerning the movement and behaviour of an animal,  
52 its physiological condition and its environmental context (Williams et al. 2020).

53 Despite the fundamental role of bio-logging techniques in movement ecology studies, and the en-  
54 suing gain in knowledge, researchers are increasingly aware of the potential effects that bio-logging  
55 devices can have on animal behaviour and survival. Flying animals are in that respect of spe-  
56 cial concern. Bio-logging is fundamental to studying their long-distance movements; however, the  
57 added weight of a device can challenge their ability to remain aloft. In addition, the device's shape  
58 and position can increase drag during flight, and its attachment, when done without the neces-  
59 sary diligence, create discomfort around the wings. Recent studies suggested an adverse effect  
60 of bio-logging on several aspects of avian behaviour and ecology (Barron et al. 2010), including  
61 lower recapture and survival rate, a decreased likelihood of nesting success, nesting productiv-  
62 ity and nesting propensity, changes in foraging trip duration, as well as an increase in energy  
63 expenditure, predation risk and death (Calvo & Furness 1992, Culik et al. 1993, Ballard et al.  
64 2001, Zuberogoitia et al. 2012, Trefry et al. 2013, Vandenabeele et al. 2014, Watanuki et al. 1992,  
65 Miller & Davis 1993, Navarro et al. 2008, Taylor et al. 2010). However, other studies did not  
66 find neither short- nor long-term differences in reproductive success, survival, activity budget and  
67 return rate at the colonies, attributable to the attachment of bio-logging devices Hamel et al.  
68 (2004), Thaxter et al. (2016). Very few studies investigated the effect of the use of bio-logging  
69 on flight performance, but some highlighted how birds can reach different flight speeds depending  
70 on tag placement (Gessaman & Nagy 1988, Wilson & Culik 1994, Curk, T., Scacco, M. et al.  
71 2021). More commonly, studies focus on the effects of device weight relative to the animal's body  
72 mass, the device shape and induced drag depending on the medium in which the animal moves  
73 (Vandenabeele et al. 2012, Wilson & Culik 1994, Bowlin et al. 2010), the device position relative  
74 to the centre of mass (Wanless et al. 1989, Powell et al. 1998, Vandenabeele et al. 2014) and the  
75 material of the harness used to attach the device (Barron et al. 2010, Vandenabeele et al. 2013).  
76 Harnesses are indispensable for long-term bio-logging studies (Naef-Daenzer 2007). Large terres-  
77 trial birds (raptors and large soaring birds), including many endangered species, are often the  
78 subject of such important research, but few studies investigated the effect of harness type on these

79 species. In fact, studies investigating the effect of the type of harness used to attach a device  
80 are mostly concentrated on waterbirds like penguins, waterfowl and seabirds. In addition, stud-  
81 ies comparing different types of harnesses on individual species are overall scarce (Thaxter et al.  
82 2014), especially in the case of terrestrial birds, and are usually based on few individuals (but see  
83 (Steenhof et al. 2006)).

84 Long-term studies on raptors usually employ backpack-type (thoracic) harnesses (Thaxter et al.  
85 2014, Naef-Daenzer 2007, Anderson et al. 2020). Some studies on raptors found that this type of  
86 harness causes irritation under the wings, physical discomfort and increases preening behaviour  
87 (Booms et al. 2011, Stahlecker et al. 2015, Anderka & Angehrn 1992). Other studies showed that  
88 backpack harnesses decreased the survival in Spotted Owls *Strix occidentalis* (Paton et al. 1991)  
89 and Prairie Falcons *Falco mexicanus* (Steenhof et al. 2006). Birds equipped with this harness type  
90 are also at risk of entangling their wings, especially if the harness is too loose. On the contrary,  
91 if too tight, this might inhibit the action of flight muscles or the deposition of fat (Naef-Daenzer  
92 2007, Thaxter et al. 2014). In addition, the design of backpack harnesses, consisting of two loops  
93 connected over the sternum, makes it difficult to impossible for the harness to fall off, in case of  
94 rupture of one of the loops. This will force the bird to unnecessarily keep carrying a damaged  
95 harness, in an improper position and often failing to work, yet hindering the bird's movements.

96 Backpack harnesses are still widely used, particularly on terrestrial birds, and continue to provide  
97 indispensable insight into the movement of animals and their interactions with the environment,  
98 offering the basis for effective conservation and mitigation measures. However, alternative harness  
99 types deserve some attention. In recent years, leg-loop harnesses (or Rappole-type harnesses), orig-  
100 inally introduced for passerines, have started being used on larger species too, especially seabirds  
101 (Thaxter et al. 2014, Rappole & Tipton 1991). Leg-loop harnesses consist of two loops, each  
102 passing around the bird's thighs, with the device resting on its lower back. Their design leaves  
103 wings, flight muscles and major fat deposits untouched. It also reduces the risk of entanglement,  
104 and contrary to backpacks, if one side of the harness gets damaged, a leg-loop harness will fall off.

105 Leg-loops, albeit certainly also representing a burden on the studied individuals, might therefore  
106 be considered a valid alternative to backpack harnesses. However, the applicability of leg-loops  
107 is not universal, as for species with short thighs it isn't a safe attachment method (Rappole &  
108 Tipton 1991, Naef-Daenzer 2007). Also, due to the position on the lower back, one study re-  
109 ported difficulties in solar-charging the battery of devices attached with leg-loop design (Thaxter  
110 et al. 2014). Therefore as for backpack harnesses, the applicability of leg-loops has to consider

111 the morphological, demographic, and behavioural specifics of the species studied, with the goal of  
112 minimising impact on the natural behaviour of the individuals as an ethical responsibility, while  
113 also maximizing data quality and acquisition.

114 Leg-loop harnesses have been recently used on raptor species, but to our knowledge no study  
115 investigated their long-term reliability compared to the more commonly employed backpack har-  
116 nesses, nor their short-term effects on the birds' behaviour and flight performance. In this respect,  
117 despite the advantages of leg-loop harnesses, their design forces the device in a position that,  
118 compared to backpack harnesses, is further away from the bird's centre of mass, and could cause  
119 higher energetic costs Vandenabeele et al. (2014). This potential consequence has hitherto been  
120 neglected and would be important to investigate.

121 In this study, we tested the effects of backpack and leg-loop harnesses on the flight performance of  
122 10 individuals from five raptor species, equipped with high resolution bio-logging devices. Specifi-  
123 cally, we explored the effect of using backpack *vs* leg-loop attachment on vertical speed, horizontal  
124 speed, glide ratio, height above sea level, distance travelled, proportion of soaring and flapping  
125 behaviour, and VeDBA (Vectorial Dynamic Body Acceleration, a proxy for energy expenditure  
126 (Wilson et al. 2020)), all used as measures of flight performance. The species involved were: grif-  
127 fon vulture (*Gyps fulvus*), Rüppell's vulture (*Gyps rueppelli*), Himalayan griffon vulture (*Gyps*  
128 *himalayensis*), tawny eagle (*Aquila rapax*) and black kite (*Milvus migrans*). These five species are  
129 characterised by different morphology, spanning a range of body masses from 0.8 to 8.4 Kg and  
130 wing spans from 1.38 to 2.8 m. The study was performed in a falconry park during a week of  
131 data collection, consisting of three flight sessions per day. During each flight session, we equipped  
132 the birds with high resolution GPS and accelerometry devices. The falconry park provided the  
133 unique setting of a common-garden experiment: all 10 individuals from the five species flew si-  
134 multaneously in the same area, thus experiencing roughly the same environmental conditions; this  
135 minimized confounding factors related to the environmental context and facilitated comparisons  
136 across species. It also allowed us, during subsequent days, to collect data on the same individuals  
137 while attaching devices on them with one or the other harness type. This helped minimizing  
138 differences in flight performance related to the individuals' behaviour rather than on the harness  
139 type. Moreover, all individuals were used to be handled on a daily basis, which likely reduced the  
140 stress usually associated with handling wild birds.

## 141 **Results**

### 142 **Analysis of the behavioural segments**

143 Between the 28<sup>th</sup> of June and the 1<sup>st</sup> of July 2018, in a falconry centre in Rocamadour (France), we  
144 collected GPS and tri-axial accelerometry (ACC) data on 10 individuals from five raptors species:  
145 Eurasian griffon vulture (n=4), Rüppell's vulture (n=1), Himalayan griffon vulture (n=2), tawny  
146 eagle (n=2) and black kite (n=1). GPS and ACC devices were attached to the birds using harnesses  
147 fitted either as a leg-loop or as a backpack.

148 The unit of this analysis was the behavioural segment, classified based on the GPS data as either  
149 soaring or gliding, and based on the ACC data as either passive or active flight. Our data included a  
150 total of 2172 observations (37 for the control individual, 2135 for the treatment individuals), where  
151 each observation corresponded to the average flight parameters of one behavioural segment. The  
152 five flight parameters associated to each segment were: mean vertical speed, mean horizontal speed,  
153 glide ratio (as the horizontal distance covered per unit of vertical distance dropped), maximum  
154 height a.s.l. and mean VeDBA; their distribution relative to harness type, for both the control  
155 and treatment groups, is shown in figures 1 and 2.

### 156 **Control group**

157 The dataset of the control individual included two flight sessions during which two devices were  
158 attached simultaneously to the bird, one with a leg-loop and one with a backpack harness, and  
159 collected a total of 37 observations (18 backpack and 19 leg-loop). All behavioural segments  
160 included in this dataset were classified as passive behaviour (either soaring or flapping). Using  
161 the two-sided Wilcoxon tests we detected no significant difference in the distribution of the five  
162 flight parameters between backpack and leg-loop segments, indicating that the accuracy of the  
163 information measured by the devices was not affected by their position [mean vertical speed:  $W =$   
164  $170.5$ ,  $p = 1$ ; mean horizontal speed:  $W = 145$ ,  $p = 0.44$ ; glide ratio:  $W = 27$ ,  $p = 0.75$ ; maximum  
165 height a.s.l.:  $W = 180.5$ ,  $p = 0.78$ ; mean VeDBA:  $W = 146$ ,  $p = 0.46$ ].

### 166 **Treatment group**

167 The dataset of the treatment group included 92 flight sessions from 10 individuals. During each  
168 flight session, individuals were equipped with either a leg-loop or a backpack harness. The com-  
169 plete dataset included a total of 2135 observations (789 backpack and 1346 leg-loop). The flight

170 parameters mean vertical speed and mean horizontal speed were each used as response variable  
171 in two LMMs (one for the soaring and one for the gliding flight segments, including 1208 and 927  
172 observations respectively). Maximum height a.s.l. was also analysed in two separate LMMs but  
173 the number of observations was halved (every second observation excluded) to reduce temporal  
174 auto-correlation, obtaining 604 soaring segments and 464 gliding segments. Glide ratio was anal-  
175 ysed during gliding segments only (859 observations). VeDBA was only considered during passive  
176 flight, given the low number of active flight segments included in our dataset ( $N = 69$ ); also in this  
177 case the dataset was halved to reduce temporal auto-correlation, obtaining 1037 observations. All  
178 models' results listed below, unless otherwise specified, show estimate  $\pm$  st.err.

179 In the vertical speed model associated to soaring, the effect of harness type differed between  
180 species, the interaction term being significant compared to the null model [ $\chi^2 = 15.17$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ].  
181 All vultures species equipped with leg-loops reached significantly higher vertical speeds while soar-  
182 ing, up to  $0.65 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  higher (Rüppell's vulture), compared to the backpack group [leg-loop:Griffon  
183 vulture =  $0.51 \pm 0.20$ ; leg-loop:Himalayan vulture =  $0.39 \pm 0.21$ ; leg-loop:Rüppell's vulture =  
184  $0.65 \pm 0.25$ ], while the effect on the black kite and the tawny eagle was statistically non significant  
185 (Table 1). In the gliding model the effect of harness type did not differ between species [ $\chi^2 =$   
186  $4.99$ ,  $p = 0.29$ ] but overall all species showed a significant increase in vertical speed (lower sinking  
187 rate) when equipped with leg-loops [leg-loop =  $0.15 \pm 0.08$ ] (Table 1).

188 In the case of the horizontal speed, in the soaring segments the effect of harness type did not differ  
189 between species [ $\chi^2 = 2.95$ ,  $p = 0.57$ ] but overall, all individuals showed a significant increase in  
190 horizontal speed when equipped with leg-loops and were predicted to fly up to  $0.44 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  faster  
191 when equipped with leg-loops [leg-loop =  $0.08 \pm 0.02$ ] (Table 2). In the horizontal speed model  
192 associated to gliding, the different species showed a different response to harness type [ $\chi^2 = 10.38$ ,  
193  $p = 0.034$ ], but this difference was statistically significant only in the Himalayan vulture and in the  
194 black kite. Himalayan vultures were predicted to glide  $2.12 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  slower when wearing a leg-loop  
195 [leg-loop:Himalayan vulture =  $-2.12 \pm 0.80$ ]. On the contrary, the smallest species, the black kite,  
196 showed a significant increase in horizontal speed when equipped with a leg-loop [leg-loop =  $1.37$   
197  $\pm 0.70$ ] (Table 2).

198 In the glide ratio model the effect of harness type did not differ between species [ $\chi^2 = 2.52$ ,  $p =$   
199  $0.64$ ] but overall, birds equipped with leg-loops showed a small and slightly significant increase in  
200 glide ratio [leg-loop =  $0.16 \pm 0.08$ ]. This translates in about 1.07 m increase in horizontal distance  
201 covered per meter of drop for birds wearing leg-loops (Table 3).

202 In both models predicting the maximum height a.s.l. the effect of harness type did not differ  
203 between species, the interaction terms being non significant compared to the null models [soaring:  
204  $\chi^2 = 9.42$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ; gliding:  $\chi^2 = 6.86$ ,  $p = 0.14$ ]. Both models showed that birds reached  
205 higher altitudes when equipped with leg-loops. This effect was highly significant during soaring,  
206 associated to a 19% increase in altitude [soaring: leg-loop =  $0.19 \pm 0.05$ ], and slightly significant  
207 during gliding [gliding: leg-loop =  $0.11 \pm 0.006$ ] (Table 4).

208 Finally, also in the model predicting mean VeDBA the interaction term between harness type and  
209 species was not significant [ $\chi^2 = 9.06$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ]. Overall, all birds showed a statistically significant  
210 decrease in VeDBA (-8%) when equipped with a leg-loop compared to a backpack [leg-loop =  $-0.08$   
211  $\pm 0.22$ ] (Table 5).

212 In three of the seven models (vertical speed and height a.s.l. during soaring and horizontal speed  
213 during gliding), the effect size associated to the harness type was higher than the among-individuals  
214 and among-dates variability (intercept standard deviation) (Tables 1,2,4). This suggests that the  
215 statistically significant variance which we found in at least some of the flight parameters, associ-  
216 ated with the harness type, is higher than the variance encountered between individuals and could  
217 therefore be relevant from a biological perspective.

## 218 **Analysis of the flight sessions**

219 The unit of this analysis was the flight session, therefore it was only applied to the treatment group,  
220 as the control individual was only tracked for two flight sessions. The dataset contained a total of 92  
221 observations, where each observation corresponded to one flight session, whose performance were  
222 summarised in terms of: total flight duration, total distance covered during the flight, proportion of  
223 soaring flight along the track, proportion of active flight and cumulative VeDBA. We applied one-  
224 sided Wilcoxon test (greater) and found that the difference in flight parameters between harness  
225 types was never significantly higher than the baseline, except in the case of the proportion of  
226 active flight. In this case, the difference in the proportion of active flight performed with one or  
227 the other harness type was significantly higher than the baseline [one-sided Wilcoxon test:  $V =$   
228  $40456$ ,  $p = 0.0002$ ]; the mean of the difference between groups was positive, meaning that birds  
229 wearing backpacks spent a higher proportion of time using active flight compared to birds wearing  
230 leg-loops.



## 231 Discussion

232 In this study we compared the effect of leg-loop and backpack harnesses on the flight perfor-  
233 mance of 10 individuals from five raptor species, in a unique setting that allowed us to minimize  
234 confounding factors related to environmental context, individual behaviour and handling stress.  
235 To our knowledge, this is the first cross-species comparison of the effect of two harness types on  
236 fine-scale flight performance. During the analysis we accounted for the animal's flight behaviour,  
237 and analyzed flight performance at the scale of the behavioural segments as well as at the scale of  
238 the flight session.

239 At the level of the behavioural segment, the control individual showed no difference in the flight  
240 parameters collected simultaneously by the two harness types, showing that the information we  
241 collected were not likely to be affected by the positioning of the device on the animal's back. The  
242 results of the models investigating the effect of harness type on the treatment individuals showed  
243 differences in flight performance associated to the two harness types, that suggest a lower drag  
244 associated with leg-loop compared to backpack harnesses. In particular, our models showed that  
245 birds equipped with leg-loops climbed up to  $0.65 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  faster and reached heights 19% higher while  
246 soaring. A decreased drag associated with the use of leg-loops was also suggested by a lower rate  
247 of sinking while gliding and a slightly higher glide ratio, both suggesting that birds equipped with  
248 leg-loops could cover a higher horizontal distance per unit of drop in height. Birds wearing leg-  
249 loops also showed a higher horizontal speed while soaring and a lower VeDBA, which suggests a  
250 lower energy expenditure. However, the variability of these last four parameters associated to the  
251 use of leg-loops was comparable to the inter-individual variability; therefore the observed differ-  
252 ence in these parameters between the two harness types might not be biologically relevant. Most  
253 species equipped with backpack, except for the black kite, showed a higher horizontal speed while  
254 gliding, although only for two species this difference was significant. The higher horizontal speed  
255 was associated with, and probably offset by, a higher sinking rate, which is probably why back-  
256 packed individuals resulted in a similar or slightly lower glide ratio compared to birds equipped  
257 with leg-loops. Differences in horizontal speed might also result from different wind conditions,  
258 which were not measured. Although we did not have access to high resolution wind information  
259 to compare airspeed between harness types, we included date as random intercept in the models  
260 as an attempt to control for differences in atmospheric conditions at least between the days.

261 At the level of the flight session, birds wearing leg-loops seemed to spend less time using active  
262 flight compared to individuals wearing backpacks, but no other differences were detectable in any

263 of the other flight parameters. A lower proportion of active flight should correspond to a lower  
264 energy expenditure during the flight session, although we did not find any difference in cumulative  
265 VeDBA between harness types.

266 Overall, most of our results showed lower flight performance associated with the use of backpack  
267 harnesses, probably as a consequence of additional drag caused by the device in its position. This  
268 is consistent with a study that visualised the flow over a model penguin, which demonstrated that  
269 device-induced turbulence was lower when loggers were placed further back on the body, specifi-  
270 cally after the point with maximum girth, where the boundary layer becomes turbulent Bannasch  
271 et al. (1994). In our study, the reduction in drag associated with the leg-loop harness resulted in  
272 a substantial improvement in flight performance compared to birds with backpacks. For instance,  
273 the increase in vertical speed for griffon vultures equipped with leg-loops ( $0.51 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ) was 45%  
274 of the average vertical speed reported for this species soaring in Israel ( $1.1 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  Harel & Nathan  
275 (2018)). It is clear that this could make a substantial difference to the overall cross country speed  
276 of these birds given the time they spend in soaring flight (birds in Israel undertook 22.8 thermal  
277 soaring cycles per day Harel & Nathan (2018)), even before the improvements in horizontal speed  
278 and glide ratio are factored in. We note that other considerations may also affect the optimal  
279 logger location, as attaching loggers lower down the back can change the centre of gravity Van-  
280 denabeele et al. (2014). This is less likely to be an issue for large birds, such as those in this study,  
281 where loggers constitutes a small fraction of their body mass.

282 The fact that few centimetres difference in the position of the device on the animal's back could  
283 decrease drag with a reduced impact on the birds' flight performance should encourage the re-  
284 search community to invest more in studying the effect of device attachments. In the last 25 years,  
285 several studies highlighted side effects of backpack harnesses on terrestrial bird species (Booms  
286 et al. 2011, Stahlecker et al. 2015, Paton et al. 1991, Steenhof et al. 2006, Naef-Daenzer 2007).  
287 Our results add to the existing literature in support of considering leg-loops as a good alternative  
288 to backpack harnesses, at least for the raptor species investigated in this study. In addition to the  
289 positive effect on the birds' flight performance, suggested by our results, the design of leg-loops  
290 has other clear advantages. Leg-loops leave wings, flight muscles and major fat deposits untouched  
291 (Naef-Daenzer 2007, Thaxter et al. 2014) and they reduce the risk of entanglement as, in case of  
292 damage, they fall off. Leg-loop harnesses are also faster to fit on birds, reducing handling time  
293 (especially important when handling wild species), and potentially their stress level. Finally, leg-  
294 loops require less material, hence reducing the overall weight of the harness.

295 Our results suggested no apparent detrimental effect of leg-loop harnesses, but the data used in  
296 this study are based on a limited period of data collection and captive individuals. We therefore  
297 did not investigate other important parameters such as change in the individual's behaviour before  
298 and after equipping the animals with harnesses, nor potential long-term effects on the individuals'  
299 reproductive success and survival. These potential effects have to be investigated independently,  
300 as they cannot be excluded based on results related to flight parameters only. The experience  
301 gained with long-term studies using a specific harness type is also useful to evaluate technical  
302 improvement. One study, using leg-loops on seabirds, reported that due to the tag position on the  
303 animal's back, the solar panel was covered by feathers and could not charge the device's battery  
304 (Thaxter et al. 2014). In our study we used devices without solar panels, and we could therefore  
305 not investigate such technical problems. However, we are aware of long-term tracking studies on  
306 griffon vultures using solar-powered tags fitted as leg-loops (Fluhr et al. 2021, Monsarrat et al.  
307 2013, Phipps et al. 2019), as well as a few other ongoing studies with large soaring raptors wearing  
308 leg-loop mounted GPS devices. We thus think that technical problems related to energy harvest-  
309 ing can be species specific and in many cases overcome, maybe even reduced through the mere  
310 use of leg-loops, at least within the limits posed by the local atmospheric conditions (e.g. hours  
311 of sun) and the species-specific behaviour (e.g. time spent flying) and plumage.  
312 Investigating the effect of harness type on fine-scale flight parameters is also relevant in the context  
313 of data standardization and comparability (Curk, T., Scacco, M. et al. 2021). The measures of  
314 flight performance investigated in our study are commonly used parameters in movement ecology  
315 studies focusing on comparing flight behaviour and performance across species, populations or  
316 environmental contexts. The data used in such studies are often collected by different research  
317 groups using different devices with possibly different attachment methods. It is therefore of pri-  
318 mary importance to investigate how the methodology used to measure these information affects  
319 the collected data. Not only to the benefit of the animals' welfare, but also to avoid systematic  
320 bias in our results, which would invalidate data comparability and lead to misinterpreting the  
321 behaviour we are trying to measure (Curk, T., Scacco, M. et al. 2021, Barron et al. 2010).

## 322 **Conclusions**

323 Bio-logging devices are indispensable in movement ecology research, but comparative studies in-  
324 vestigating the effect of different device attachments are rare. The available harness types differ in  
325 terms of the body parts they restrict, in how easily they can move or fall off and in the resulting

326 position of the device on the animal body, which can in turn affect the device's drag. The results of  
327 our study showed that in large terrestrial species, leg-loop harnesses can be advantageous not only  
328 in terms of their design but also because of the reduced drag imposed to the birds, which results  
329 in better fine-scale flight performance, and are therefore a good alternative to the commonly used  
330 backpack harnesses.

331 The awareness and quantification of the bias caused by different attachment types will not only  
332 benefit our study species, but also allow our research community to make best use of existing data  
333 and gain better and more complete insight into the movement ecology field, by using larger sets  
334 of data and taking advantage of the comparative aspect that meta-analyses can provide.

## 335 **Methods**

### 336 **Data collection**

337 The work was conducted in Rocamadour, France at the *Le Rocher des Aigles* falconry centre  
338 (44.801962°N, 1.612855°E). This study site overhangs a 120 m-deep canyon, providing natural  
339 soaring conditions for raptors. Each animal, trained with falconry techniques for the public shows,  
340 was released from their perch and flew freely three times a day (at 10:00, 12:00 and 14:00, local  
341 time). After their release, the birds usually took-off immediately and had the possibility to fly  
342 for about 1 hour (with an average flight duration of 41 minutes) to a maximum distance of 12.8  
343 Km from the releasing point [ $764.9 \text{ m} \pm 29.4$  (mean  $\pm$  st.err.)]. Between the 28th of June and  
344 the 1st of July 2018, we collected GPS and ACC data on 10 individuals from five raptors species:  
345 Eurasian griffon vulture (n=4), Rüppell's vulture (n=1), Himalayan griffon vulture (n=2), tawny  
346 eagle (n=2) and black kite (n=1). During each flight, we recorded the time of departure and return  
347 of each individual to later isolate only GPS and ACC data collected during the flight sessions.

### 348 **Devices and harness types**

349 The devices (70 g weight) were fastened with Velcro on a small aluminium plate and attached  
350 to the birds' body using a Teflon-nylon harness. The total weight of transmitter, aluminium  
351 plate and harness was 90 g. The harness was fitted to the birds either as a leg-loop or as a  
352 backpack. Backpack harnesses were looped around the bird's wings with the two loops crossing  
353 on the sternum, and the device positioned on the animal's back between the scapulas (thoracic  
354 X-strap harness, described by Bildstein, Botha and Lambertucci (Anderson et al. 2020)). Leg-loop  
355 harnesses were looped around the bird's thighs and the device positioned on the animal's lower  
356 back, on the pelvis above the tail (Anderson et al. 2020).

357 We used GPS-ACC devices (Technosmart, IT) of different generations. Some devices had GPS and  
358 accelerometer sensors separated into two units: *Gipsy 1* (n=8) and *Gipsy 5* (n=1) recorded GPS  
359 locations at 4 Hz, and were associated with either *AXY 1* (n=4) or *AGM* (n=3) sensors, which  
360 collected ACC data at 25 Hz. Finally *Axytreck* devices (n=3) collected both 1 Hz GPS and 25  
361 Hz ACC. All devices recorded GPS and ACC information continuously. At the beginning of each  
362 day, all tags were positioned on a wooden slat to be switched on and calibrated simultaneously.

### 363 **Control group**

364 We used as control group data collected from one Eurasian griffon vulture during one day. During  
365 that day and two flight sessions, this control individual was equipped simultaneously with both  
366 backpack and leg-loop. Both devices measured the same behaviour at the exact same time, and  
367 the GPS and ACC devices deployed were of the same generation (*Gipsy 1* and *AXY 1*). Therefore,  
368 we expect that potential differences between the flight parameters measured using the two harness  
369 types should be purely methodological and associated to the position of the device on the animal's  
370 body. This allowed us to assess if, for the same given behaviour, the position of the device on the  
371 animal's back could affect the information we collect.

### 372 **Treatment group**

373 We randomized the combination of device and harness type associated to each individual, to  
374 disentangle potential effects associated to the device type, the harness type and the individual  
375 behaviour. Each individual bird could thus experience both types of attachment and different  
376 devices. Thus, each flight session of the day was considered as a separate unit and during each  
377 flight session, individuals were equipped with either a leg-loop or a backpack harness.

### 378 **Data processing and behavioural segmentation**

379 The original dataset included 10 individuals from five species and a total of 96 flight sessions  
380 (40 with backpacks and 56 with leg-loops). Within each flight session, ACC and GPS data were  
381 recorded continuously. ACC data were collected at 25 Hz; GPS data at 1 and 4 Hz depending on  
382 the device generation, but they were all sub-sampled to 1 Hz (one GPS fix per second).

383 We used ACC data to identify active flight. We first calculated the static component of acceleration  
384 by taking running means (smoothed values) of the raw acceleration values of each of the three  
385 axis over a period of 0.5 seconds, corresponding to two complete flapping cycles (we observed an  
386 average of four flapping cycles per second) (Shepard et al. 2008). We then obtained the dynamic  
387 component of acceleration by subtracting the smoothed values from the raw values. We finally used  
388 the dynamic acceleration of the three axes to derive the VeDBA (Williams et al. 2015, Wilson et al.  
389 2020). We averaged the VeDBA values per second and applied a K-means clustering algorithm  
390 with  $k=2$  to distinguish between active and passive flight. Average VeDBA values and activity  
391 classes were then associated to the GPS location matching in time.

392 To segment the GPS data, we applied a running mean of 15 s on the vertical speed; we then

393 applied K-means clustering with  $k=2$  on the smoothed vertical speed to distinguish soaring from  
394 gliding behaviour. Vertical speed, horizontal speed and step length between consecutive GPS fixes  
395 were calculated for each flight session separately using the R package `move` (Kranstauber et al.  
396 2020).

397 The results of the two K-means clusterings, the one based on the smoothed VeDBA and the one  
398 based on the smoothed vertical speed, were finally combined in one variable with four classes:  
399 passive soaring, passive gliding, active soaring and active gliding. The results of the segmentation  
400 procedure were inspected visually by plotting the raw ACC values of the three axes and the GPS  
401 trajectories in three dimensions.

## 402 **Datasets**

403 We analysed the effect of harness type on the flight parameters measured at two different levels.  
404 We first focused on the level of the behavioural segment: consecutive GPS fixes belonging to the  
405 same behavioural class were assigned to the same segment ID, and their flight parameters averaged  
406 across the segment. Therefore, each entry of the dataset used in the analysis corresponded to  
407 one behavioural segment with the following associated parameters: mean vertical speed, mean  
408 horizontal speed, glide ratio (ratio between the distance covered in the horizontal plane and the  
409 distance dropped in height during each gliding segment), maximum height above sea level (a.s.l.)  
410 and mean VeDBA. The segments were highly variable in terms of their duration (number of  
411 consecutive fixes). To improve comparability of the flight parameters across segments of different  
412 duration we excluded segments longer than 733 fixes ( $>0.01\%$  percentile). This dataset included  
413 both the control (1 individual) and the treatment groups.

414 We then worked at the level of the flight session. Each observation of this dataset corresponded  
415 to one flight session, whose performance was summarised in terms of: total flight duration, total  
416 distance covered during the flight, proportion of soaring flight along the track, proportion of active  
417 flight and cumulative VeDBA. The control individual was excluded from this dataset, as it was  
418 only tracked for two flight sessions.

## 419 **Analysis of the behavioural segments**

420 The average horizontal speed associated to the segments included in the analysis had a bi-modal  
421 distribution, with medians at  $0.35 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  and  $11.40 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ , and a clear natural divide at  $4 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ . We  
422 thus used a  $4 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  threshold to separate low from high speed segments [max. speed in low speed

423 segments:  $3.28 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ; min. speed in high speed segments:  $4.59 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ]. The segments associated to  
424 very low speeds occurred during flight and could not be associated to a specific behaviour. For  
425 the following analysis we therefore considered only high speed segments (with average horizontal  
426 speed  $> 4 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ).

427 Control and treatment groups were analysed separately.

428 For the control individual, we used two-sided Wilcoxon signed rank tests to assess if the differ-  
429 ences in mean vertical speed, mean horizontal speed, glide ratio, maximum height a.s.l. and mean  
430 VeDBA measured using the two harness types was significantly different from 0.

431 For the treatment group, we used linear mixed-effects models (LMM) (R package `lme4`) (Bates  
432 et al. 2015) to test the effect of harness type on the flight performance parameters measured at the  
433 level of the flight segments. Mean vertical speed, mean horizontal speed, glide ratio, maximum  
434 height a.s.l. and mean VeDBA were used as response variables. As vertical speed, horizontal  
435 speed and height a.s.l. are known to differ between the soaring and gliding phases, we tested  
436 each of these three flight parameters separately, once during soaring and once during gliding. In  
437 contrast, as both soaring and gliding phases are expected to result in a similarly low activity level  
438 of VeDBA, we ran only one model for all passive flight segments testing for differences in VeDBA  
439 in attachment types. Glide ratio was only analysed for gliding segments. We found unrealistically  
440 high glide ratios (between 100 and 914) to be associated with very low sinking rate (mean vertical  
441 speed  $> -0.16 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ , more similar to horizontal flight than gliding); we therefore included in the  
442 glide ratio model only gliding segments with vertical speed  $< -0.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ .

443 In all models, harness type and species were included as interacting categorical predictors, to  
444 account for potential differences in the way the different species were affected by the two harness  
445 types. Using ANOVA, we assessed the statistical significance of the interaction term and of the  
446 harness type, by comparing the full model with null models not including these terms. Hour of the  
447 day (with 0 centered at 12:00 UTC) was also included as predictor in all models to acknowledge  
448 changes in flight parameters at different times of the day. Finally, we included the segment length  
449 (number of fixes in the segment) to account for the variability in the duration of the behavioural  
450 segments. Date of the flight session and individual identity were included as random terms in all  
451 models.

452 The height a.s.l. and VeDBA models were run on a subset of the dataset, including one every sec-  
453 ond observation to reduce temporal auto-correlation. The variable horizontal speed during soaring  
454 was square-root transformed while the variables height a.s.l. and VeDBA were log transformed



455 and all models were fitted with a Gaussian error distribution.

## 456 **Analysis of the flight sessions**

457 We used non-parametric Wilcoxon tests on the treatment individuals to compare the measured  
458 flight parameters between harness types. Specifically, for each species  $\alpha$  and for each flight param-  
459 eter  $P$ , we computed the absolute difference between all combinations of observations of backpack  
460 ( $BP$ ) and leg-loop ( $LL$ ). This difference was defined as:

$$461 \Delta P^\alpha = |P_i^{\alpha, BP} - P_j^{\alpha, LL}|,$$

462 where  $i$  and  $j$  represent the  $i^{th}$  and  $j^{th}$  observation (flight session) associated to each harness  
463 type. To avoid replicates, we ensured that the number of observations was equal between the  
464 two groups: when the number of observations was higher for one of the two harness types, we  
465 randomly sub-sampled the number of observations associated to the second harness type.

466 We then tested whether the distribution of absolute differences between the groups ( $\Delta P^\alpha$ ) was  
467 higher (one-sided Wilcoxon test) than the mean of absolute differences within groups (baseline).

468 The baseline  $B$  was defined as:

$$469 B = \bar{X}(|P_i^{\alpha, H} - P_j^{\alpha, H}|),$$

470 where  $H$  represents the respective harness type and  $\alpha$  the species, as the baseline was calculated  
471 within species and within harness type.

472

473 Data processing and analysis were performed in R (R Core Team 2020).

## 474 **Ethic statement**

475 The study was conducted under the permit for equipping vultures with loggers as part of the  
476 licence granted to O. Duriez from the Research Centre for Bird Population Studies (CRBPO) of  
477 the Natural History Museum (MNHN, Paris). According to the French law of 22 September 2008,  
478 the CRBPO has the delegation by the Ministry of Ecology, Energy, Sustainable Development and  
479 Land Settlement for allowing the owners of a general bird ringing licence to capture and handle  
480 birds from protected species and mark them (with rings or any devices like loggers). The study  
481 was conducted under a formal agreement between the animal rearing facility (Rocher des Aigles)  
482 and CNRS. Birds were handled by their usual trainer, under the permit of the Rocher des Aigles  
483 (national certificate to maintain birds "Certificat de capacité" delivered to the director, Raphaël

484 Arnaud on 4 November 1982). Care was taken to minimize discomfort to the birds and loggers  
485 were removed promptly after flights.

## 486 **Availability of data and materials**

487 The data that support the findings of this study and the R scripts used to process and analyse  
488 the data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5531226>.

## 489 **Competing interests**

490 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## 491 **Funding**

492 AL was supported by the Erasmus+ Scholarship for Traineeship. We acknowledge funding from the  
493 Max Planck Institute of Animal Behavior. MS was supported by the German Academic Exchange  
494 Service (DAAD) and by the International Max Planck Research School for Organismal Biology.  
495 ES was supported by the European Research Council under the European Union's Horizon 2020  
496 research and innovation program (Grant 715874).

## 497 **Authors' contributions**

498 MS, KS and OD designed the study. MS and OD collected the data. AL and MS analysed and  
499 interpreted the data. AL and MS wrote the first draft of the manuscript. KS, ES, OD and MW  
500 provided valuable comments on the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version  
501 of the manuscript.

## 502 **Acknowledgements**

503 We would like to thank the falconry centre *Le Rocher des Aigles*, particularly directors R. Arnaud  
504 and D. Maylin, for their welcome and financial support, and all bird trainers for their technical  
505 help. We also acknowledge Camille Nouis for her help during the data collection and the pre-  
506 processing of the data. We are also thankful to Daniel Hegglin for the discussions and advice on  
507 leg-loop attachment in large soaring birds.

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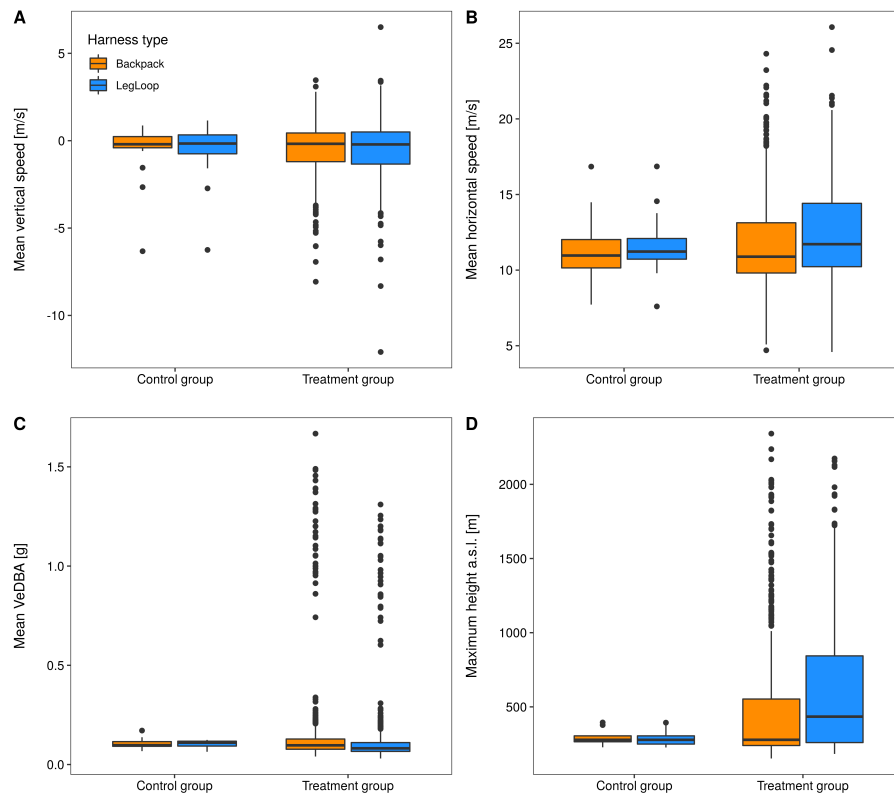


Figure 1: Average (A) vertical speed, (B) horizontal speed, (C) VeDBA, and (D) maximum height a.s.l. per behavioural segment, in the control bird and the treatment individuals. Different colours differentiate between individuals equipped with backpack and leg-loop harnesses.



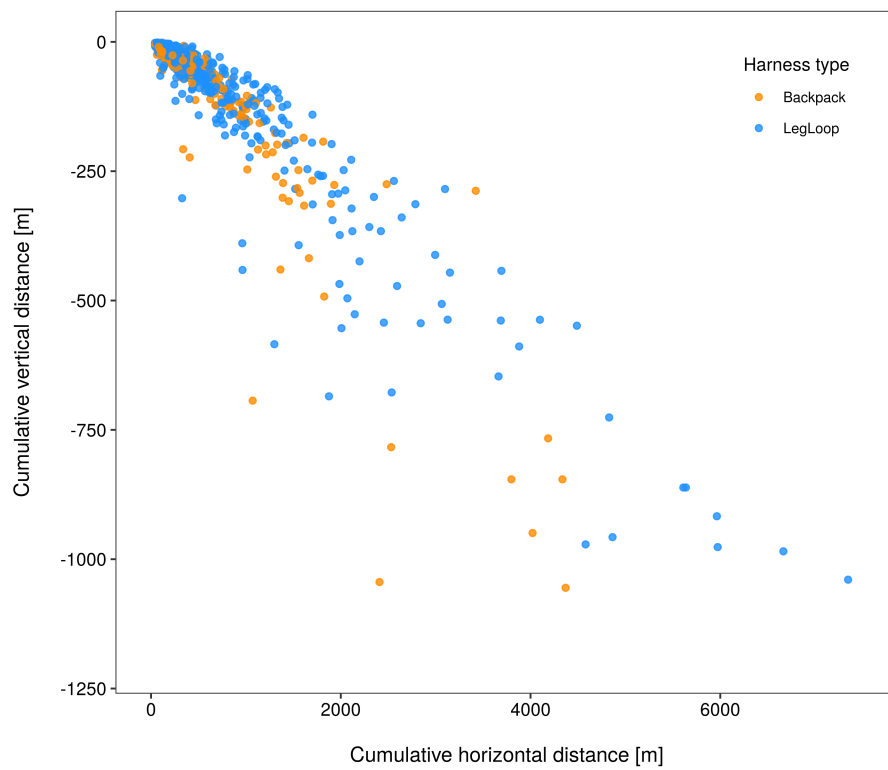


Figure 2: Cumulative distance covered in the horizontal plane relative to the cumulative vertical distance dropped per gliding segment. Different colours differentiate between individuals equipped with backpack and leg-loop harnesses.

Table 1: Output of the LMM with mean vertical speed included as dependent variable, number of fixes, hour of the day, harness type and species as fixed terms, individual identity and date as random intercepts. The interaction term between harness type and species was non significant in the gliding model and therefore excluded.

	Soaring segments	Gliding segments
<b>Fixed effects</b>		
<i>Estimate (St. Err.)</i>		
Intercept	0.39 (0.15)*	-0.99 (0.33)*
Leg-loop	-0.29 (0.19)	0.15 (0.08)*
Tawny eagle	-0.18 (0.19)	-0.71 (0.43)
Griffon vulture	-0.22 (0.15)	-0.40 (0.37)
Himalayan vulture	-0.20 (0.16)	-0.33 (0.40)
Rüppell's vulture	-0.50 (0.17)*	-0.85 (0.46)
Hour	-0.08 (0.02)***	0.02 (0.03)
Number of fixes	0.004 (0.0002)***	-0.007 (0.0005)***
Leg-loop*Tawny eagle	0.02 (0.26)	
Leg-loop*Griffon vulture	0.51 (0.20)*	
Leg-loop*Himalayan vulture	0.39 (0.21).	
Leg-loop*Rüppell's vulture	0.65 (0.25)**	
<b>Random effects (N. groups)</b>		
<i>Intercept St. Dev.</i>		
Individuals	0.05 (10)	0.30 (10)
Date	0.16 (7)	0.15 (7)
Observations	1208	926
Marginal R <sup>2</sup>	0.25	0.19
Conditional R <sup>2</sup>	0.29	0.28
. p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001		

Table 2: Output of the LMM with the mean horizontal speed included as dependent variable, number of fixes, hour of the day, harness type and species as fixed terms, individual identity and date as random intercepts. In the soaring model the dependent variable was square root transformed. The interaction term between harness type and species was non significant in the soaring model and therefore excluded.

	Soaring segments	Gliding segments
<b>Fixed effects</b>		
<i>Estimate (St. Err.)</i>		
Intercept	2.63 (0.095)***	9.19 (1.13)**
Leg-loop	0.08 (0.02)***	1.37 (0.70)*
Tawny eagle	0.30 (0.11)*	2.92 (1.68)
Griffon vulture	0.76 (0.10)**	4.90 (1.28)*
Himalayan vulture	0.68 (0.11)**	4.61 (1.37)*
Rüppell's vulture	0.60 (0.12)**	3.49 (1.57).
Hour	-0.007 (0.007)	-0.04 (0.07)
Number of fixes	0.00009 (0.00008)	-0.009 (0.002)***
Leg-loop*Tawny eagle		-2.3 (1.46)
Leg-loop*Griffon vulture		-1.16 (0.75)
Leg-loop*Himalayan vulture		-2.12 (0.80)**
Leg-loop*Rüppell's vulture		-0.66 (0.98)
<b>Random effects (N. groups)</b>		
<i>Intercept St. Dev.</i>		
Individuals	0.08 (10)	1.03 (10)
Date	0.09 (7)	0.49 (7)
Observations	1208	927
Marginal R <sup>2</sup>	0.29	0.18
Conditional R <sup>2</sup>	0.38	0.30
. p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001		

Table 3: Output of the LMM with the square root of the glide ratio included as dependent variable, number of fixes, hour of the day, harness type and species as fixed terms, individual identity and date as random intercepts. The model included only gliding segment with vertical speed < 0.2 ms<sup>-1</sup>. The interaction term between harness type and species was not significant and therefore excluded.

	Gliding segments
<b>Fixed effects</b>	
<i>Estimate (St. Err.)</i>	
Intercept	3.35 (0.20)***
Leg-loop	0.16 (0.08)*
Tawny eagle	-0.41 (0.28)
Griffon vulture	0.09 (0.22)
Himalayan vulture	0.003 (0.23)
Rüppell's vulture	-0.30 (0.26)
Hour	0.009 (0.03)
Number of fixes	-0.005 (0.0005)***
<b>Random effects (N. groups)</b>	
<i>Intercept St. Dev.</i>	
Individuals	0.15 (10)
Date	0.16 (7)
Observations	859
Marginal R <sup>2</sup>	0.12
Conditional R <sup>2</sup>	0.16
. p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001	

Table 4: Output of the LMM with the log of the maximum height a.s.l. included as dependent variable, number of fixes, hour of the day, harness type and species as fixed terms, individual identity and date as random intercepts. Both models were run on a subset of the dataset (every second observation was discarded) to reduce temporal auto-correlation. In both models, the interaction term between harness type and species was non or slightly significant and therefore excluded.

	Soaring segments	Gliding segments
<b>Fixed effects</b>		
<i>Estimate (St. Err.)</i>		
Intercept	5.31 (0.13)***	5.45 (0.29)***
Leg-loop	0.19 (0.05)***	0.11 (0.059).
Tawny eagle	0.24 (0.16)	0.32 (0.36)
Griffon vulture	0.55 (0.13)**	0.62 (0.32)
Himalayan vulture	0.47 (0.13)*	0.46 (0.34)
Rüppell's vulture	0.35 (0.15).	0.65 (0.40)
Hour	-0.03 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)
Number of fixes	0.003 (0.0002)***	0.004 (0.0004)***
<b>Random effects (N. groups)</b>		
<i>Intercept St. Dev.</i>		
Individuals	0.07 (10)	0.27 (10)
Date	0.16 (7)	0.09 (7)
Observations	604	464
Marginal R <sup>2</sup>	0.27	0.24
Conditional R <sup>2</sup>	0.34	0.41
. p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001		

Table 5: Output of the LMM with the log of the mean VeDBA included as dependent variable, number of fixes, hour of the day, harness type and species as fixed terms, individual identity and date as random intercepts. The model included only passive flight and was run on a subset of the dataset (every second observation was discarded) to reduce temporal auto-correlation. The interaction term between harness type and species was only slightly significant and therefore excluded.

	<b>Passive segments</b>
<b>Fixed effects</b>	
<i>Estimate (St. Err.)</i>	
Intercept	-1.81 (0.12)***
Leg-loop	-0.08 (0.22)***
Tawny eagle	-0.14 (0.14)
Griffon vulture	-0.56 (0.13)*
Himalayan vulture	-0.62 (0.13)*
Rüppell's vulture	-0.50 (0.15).
Hour	-0.03 (0.007)***
Number of fixes	0.0007 (0.0001)***
<b>Random effects (N. groups)</b>	
<i>Intercept St. Dev.</i>	
Individuals	0.10 (10)
Date	0.09 (7)
Observations	1037
Marginal R <sup>2</sup>	0.29
Conditional R <sup>2</sup>	0.42
. p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001	