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11 **Size-assortative mating in a long-lived monogamous seabird**

12

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 Mate choice is a key process in animals to optimize the fitness benefits of reproduction, and it is generally guided by  
31 phenotypic features of potential partners that mirror reproductive abilities. Assortative mating occurs when there is  
32 within-pair selection for specific functional traits that can confer fitness benefits. Assortative mating can be positive if  
33 mates are more similar, and negative if they are more dissimilar than expected by chance. Mate choice is particularly  
34 important in long-lived species with biparental care, such as procellariiforms that form long term monogamous bonds.  
35 We assessed the mating strategy of a sexually dimorphic Mediterranean procellariiform, the Scopoli's Shearwater  
36 (*Calonectris diomedea*), by testing for assortative mating according to bill (in accordance with previous studies on a  
37 sister species) and tarsus size (proxy of body size). We found that shearwaters adopted a positive size-assortative  
38 mating by tarsus length, while mating for bill size was random. Moreover, tarsus length was positively correlated with  
39 the duration of incubation shifts, when individuals are fasting on eggs. The observed assortative mating could be the  
40 results of choice by similarity between individuals, likely because partners with similar relative size have similar  
41 tolerance to fasting. Alternatively, the observed pattern could be the product of mutual mate choice, with a selection for  
42 large size that could confer competitive abilities in nest selection, defense, foraging aggregations and fasting ability.  
43 While our data suggest strong assortative mating in the Scopoli's Shearwater ( $R = 0.4$ ), we cannot fully disentangle the  
44 multiple processes at play acting on mate choice.

45 **Keyword:** bill depth, *Calonectris diomedea*, mate choice, reproductive behaviour, Scopoli's Shearwater, tarsus length

46 **Zusammenfassung**

47 **Größen-assortative Paarung bei einem langlebigen, monogamen Seevogel**

48 Die Partnerwahl ist ein wichtiger Prozess bei Tieren, um die Fitnessvorteile der Fortpflanzung zu optimieren, und sie  
49 wird im Allgemeinen von phänotypischen Merkmalen potenzieller Partner geleitet, die die Fortpflanzungsfähigkeiten  
50 widerspiegeln. Assortative Paarung tritt auf, wenn innerhalb eines Paares eine Selektion auf bestimmte funktionale  
51 Merkmale stattfindet, die Fitnessvorteile bringen können. Assortative Paarung kann positiv sein, wenn sich die Partner  
52 ähnlicher sind, und negativ, wenn sie unterschiedlicher sind als zufällig erwartet. Die Partnerwahl ist besonders wichtig

53 bei langlebigen Arten mit biparentaler Pflege, wie z. B. bei Sturmtauchern, die langfristige monogame Bindungen  
54 eingehen. Wir untersuchten die Paarungsstrategie eines geschlechtsdimorphen mediterranen Sturmtauchers, des  
55 Gelbschnabel-Sturmtauchers (*Calonectris diomedea*), indem wir auf assortative Paarung nach Schnabel- (in  
56 Übereinstimmung mit früheren Studien an einer Schwesterart) und Tarsuslänge (stellvertretend für die Körpergröße)  
57 prüften. Wir fanden, dass Sturmtaucher eine positive größen-assortative Paarung nach Tarsuslänge zeigen, während die  
58 Verpaarung nach Schnabellänge zufällig war. Darüber hinaus korrelierte die Tarsuslänge positiv mit der Dauer der  
59 Inkubationsschichten, wenn die Individuen auf den Eiern fasten. Die beobachtete assortative Paarung könnte das  
60 Ergebnis einer Auswahl nach Ähnlichkeit zwischen den Individuen sein, wahrscheinlich, weil Partner mit ähnlicher  
61 relativer Größe eine ähnliche Toleranz gegenüber dem Fasten haben. Alternativ könnte das beobachtete Muster das  
62 Ergebnis einer gegenseitigen Partnerwahl sein, bei der eine Selektion auf Größe erfolgt, die Wettbewerbsvorteile bei der  
63 Nestwahl, der Verteidigung, bei der Bildung von Futtergruppen und beim Fasten mit sich bringt. Während unsere Daten  
64 auf eine starke assortative Paarung beim Gelbschnabel-Sturmtaucher ( $R = 0,4$ ) hindeuten, können wir die verschiedenen  
65 Prozesse, die bei der Partnerwahl eine Rolle spielen, nicht vollständig entschlüsseln.

66

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75 between Italian Institute for Environmental Protection and Research (ISPRA) and Parco Nazionale dell'Arcipelago di La  
76 Maddalena signed in 2018 and 2019 respectively. LC was supported by Marine and Environmental Sciences Center  
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78

79

## 80 **Introduction**

81 Mate choice is an important process in wild animals which optimizes individual fitness by successfully producing as  
82 many high-quality offspring as possible. Mate choice can be defined as any pattern of behaviors that leads members of  
83 one sex to be more likely to mate with specific members of the opposite sex than with others (Bateson 1983). Mate  
84 choice is less likely to occur in polygamous species, where one or both sexes try to mate with as many partners as  
85 possible to increase their reproductive success, or when the costs of evaluating the partner are higher than the payoff of  
86 choosing a preferred partner (Rosenthal 2017). On the contrary, when constraints acting on reproductive success are  
87 more severe (e.g. number of eggs that can be produced, parental care, genetic compatibility), mates should adopt a  
88 different strategy leading to a non-random mate choice, since individual mating success is affected by the quality of the  
89 partner (Bateman 1948; Kvarnemo 2018; Schneider and Fromhage 2010). In mutually monogamous species, where  
90 both partners mate only with the highest quality mate possible (Kvarnemo 2018), the choice of partner is key for  
91 successful reproduction (Bateson 1983).

92         It is difficult to fully understand which drivers modulate mate choice (Ryan et al. 2007), but generally it is  
93 based on specific traits in the opposite sex that signal their reproductive qualities (Andersson and Simmons 2006).  
94 When a nonrandom mating strategy is driven by a specific feature (e.g., related to age, rank, phenotypes, or  
95 physiological conditions), and when there is a correlation of such features within the pair, then assortative mating  
96 occurs (Schreiber and Burger 2001). Assortative mating can be positive (often known simply as assortative mating) if  
97 mates have similar traits, or negative (often termed disassortative mating) if specific traits are more different between pair  
98 members than expected by chance (Burley 1983). Assortative mating can provide fitness benefits and shape the genetic  
99 structure of populations. Indeed, negative assortative mating may increase heterozygosity and maintain genetic variation  
100 in a population, while positive assortative mating may increase within-locus homozygosity and inflate the variance of  
101 quantitative traits (Jiang et al. 2013; Lynch and Walsh 1998). Negative assortative mating has been observed in both  
102 mammals (e.g., *Canis lupus occidentalis*, Hedrick et al. 2016) and birds (e.g., *Zonotrichia albicollis*, Hedrick et al.  
103 2018; *Calonectris borealis*, Nava et al. 2014), but it is actually relatively rare and might result from type I errors  
104 occurring across studies (Jiang et al. 2013). Conversely, positive assortative mating has been observed more frequently  
105 (Jiang et al. 2013), based for example on morphological (Einoder et al. 2008), behavioural (Podos 2010), or  
106 physiological traits (Caillaud and Via 2000). However, the apparent ubiquity of assortative mating in animal  
107 populations has been recently questioned. Indeed, assortative mating might emerge even when it is not a product of  
108 mate choice, but rather an artifact of measurement error or experimental design. Wang et al. (2019) showed, for

109 instance, that assortative mating can disappear when both partners are measured by independent observers and, thus,  
110 that a robust methodological approach is crucial.

111 Research on mate choice in birds has attracted a great deal of attention, partly because many birds form  
112 monogamous pair bonds (Mock and Fujioka 1990), and share parental care, which implies that an individual's  
113 reproductive success strongly depends on its partner's investment in reproduction. Mate choice is particularly important  
114 in long-lived species with long-term monogamous pair bonds, like seabirds. Accordingly, previous studies on seabirds  
115 have shown the occurrence of mate choice, e.g. positive assortative mating for age (e.g., *Sterna hirundo*, Bouwhuis et  
116 al. 2015), colour morph (e.g., *Sula dactylatra*, Rull et al. 2016), size (e.g., *Stercorarius longicaudus*, Seyer et al. 2020;  
117 *Rissa tridactyla*, Helfenstein et al. 2004) and body condition (e.g. *Sula nebouxii*; González-Medina et al. 2020). Good  
118 candidates to test for assortative mating in seabirds are procellariiforms, a group of highly pelagic seabirds comprising  
119 albatrosses, petrels and shearwaters, in which breeders generally have high inter-annual fidelity to both the mate and the  
120 nest site (Bried et al. 2003). During incubation, breeding individuals generally undertake long lasting foraging trips (i.e.,  
121 from 1 to 3 weeks, depending on the species) while the partner is incubating the egg, fasting, and waiting for the  
122 changeover. Since they share parental care, interaction of both partner's body mass plays an important role in the  
123 coordination of incubation shifts (Gillies et al. 2022), and a good synchronization between mates is crucial, because the  
124 partner that is not attending the nest must find enough food for its maintenance and still return before its mate has  
125 exhausted body reserves and left the nest unattended (Bried and Jouventin 2001). Therefore, we could expect that body  
126 size plays an important role in the selection of an optimal partner in procellariiforms.

127 Here, we investigated the mating strategy of Scopoli's Shearwater (*Calonectris diomedea*), a long-lived (> 20  
128 years, Fransson et al. 2017) sexually size-dimorphic Mediterranean procellariiform species with biparental care and  
129 long-term pair bonds. There are no previous studies on the mating strategy of this species, but there are two on its sister  
130 species, which breeds in the Atlantic Ocean, the Cory's Shearwater (*C. borealis*). The mating strategy of the Cory's  
131 Shearwater is controversial since both assortative mating and random mating strategies have been found when  
132 investigating preferences for bill size in two different colonies (Mougin 2000; Nava et al. 2014). In our study, we  
133 assessed the mating strategy of breeders from three colonies, investigating the preference for both bill and tarsus sizes.  
134 We examined bill in accordance with former studies and tarsus size since is considered as a proxy of body size (Peck et  
135 al. 2006; Senar and Pascual 1997).

136

## 137 **Materials and Methods**

138 Study species and areas



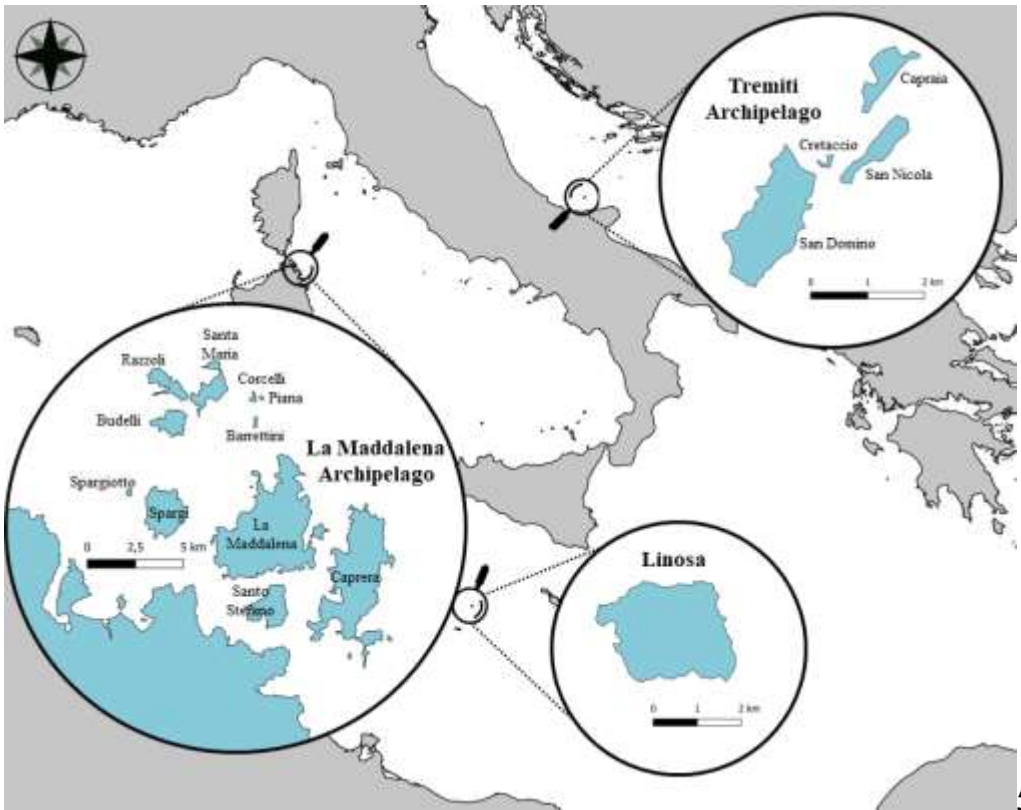
139 The Scopoli's Shearwater is a medium size procellariiform species breeding only in the Mediterranean basin and feeding  
140 mainly on small pelagic fish, crustaceans, and squids (Grémillet et al. 2014); they also feed opportunistically on discard  
141 from fishing vessels (Cecere et al. 2015; Cianchetti-Benedetti et al. 2018). The species shows sexual dimorphism, with  
142 males being ca. 20% heavier than females, and having larger skeletal size and higher wing loading (De Pascalis et al.  
143 2020). It does not show sexual dimorphism in plumage, but calls can be used to reliably sex individuals. Typically,  
144 males have a high-pitched call, while females make lower calls (Curé et al. 2016). Data were collected in three colonies  
145 located around the Italian Peninsula over 13 years: Linosa Island (Pelagie Archipelago) in 2008, 2009 and 2012, Tremiti  
146 Archipelago in 2009 and 2010, and La Maddalena Archipelago from 2011 to 2021 (Fig.1).

147

148 Biometric measures and sex identification

149 During the breeding season, breeders were caught by hand at burrows and ringed with a unique alphanumeric metal ring  
150 for individual identification. For each individual, we measured tarsus length, bill length and bill depth using a dial  
151 caliper ( $\pm 0.1$  mm). Overall, we collected morphometric data from 95 pairs (Linosa: 55; Tremiti: 17; La Maddalena:  
152 23). Individuals were measured by two different researchers, and members of the pair were often measured in different  
153 years, limiting the possible biases identified by Wang et al. (2019) in the assessment of assortative mating. Birds were  
154 sexed using individual or partner vocalization (Curé et al. 2009). Individuals that did not vocalize during capture or  
155 handling were sexed according to the sex of the partner or comparing morphometric measures and body mass of the two  
156 pair members. Molecular sexing of 38 individuals using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) confirmed our initial sex  
157 assignment in 100% of those cases (Ilahiane et al. 2022), demonstrating that our morphometric and vocalization-based  
158 sexing methods were highly reliable. To assess the sex, PCRs were performed using the CHD1F/CHD1R primer set  
159 (Çakmak et al. 2017), following the thermal cycling protocol suggested by Ilahiane et al. (2020).

160



161

5

162 **Fig. 1.** Map of the three study areas: Linosa, hosting 10.000 Scopoli's Shearwater pairs, Tremiti Archipelago hosting  
 163 300-400 pairs (Baccetti et al. 2009) and La Maddalena Archipelago hosting 200-500 pairs (Morinay et al.2022).

164

165 Incubation shift length

166 During breeding, Scopoli's Shearwaters from the three studied colonies perform long-lasting foraging trips (up to 20  
 167 days, Cecere et al. 2013, Cecere et al. 2014), implying prolonged fasting. Since fasting capacity is generally positively  
 168 correlated with body size in birds (Barbraud and Chastel 1999; González-Solís et al. 2000), we tested if larger  
 169 individuals performed longer shifts (i.e. longer fasting) to interpret the role of body-size in fasting capacity and discuss  
 170 its possible consequences on mate choice. We measured the length of a single incubation shift in 57 individuals (Linosa:  
 171 13 individuals, 01/06-15/07 2008; Tremiti: 26 individuals, 24/06-11/07 2009 and 15/06-07/07 2010; La Maddalena: 18  
 172 individuals 04/06-04/07 2011), each from a different pair. Scopoli's Shearwaters attend the colony only at night,  
 173 avoiding moonlight conditions and leaving the breeding site at night or just before the sunrise (Rubolini et al. 2015). All  
 174 monitored nests were easily reachable, consisting of shallow burrows and crevices, and each one was checked during  
 175 the day to assess the identity of the incubating bird. To aid individual recognition and avoid unnecessary handling for  
 176 reading metal rings, we marked all of the incubating birds with a yellow non-toxic marker (picric acid) on the chest.  
 177 Then, nests were visited every day and when the partner was found incubating, we caught it and marked it with purple

178 picric acid. The monitoring continued until the next change-over. The individuals marked in purple were the ones for  
179 which we measured the incubation shift length, since we knew the exact day of nest arrival.

180

181 Statistical analyses

182 To check and quantify the reliability of morphometric measures (i.e., tarsus length, bill length and bill depth), we  
183 checked their repeatability, benefitting from multiple measures of the same individual collected in different years. We  
184 fitted Linear Mixed Models (LMM) with one of the three body measures as a dependent variable and bird identity as a  
185 random effect, without entering any fixed effect. Then, we assessed the repeatability (i.e., the relative partitioning of  
186 variance into within- and between-individual source of variance) using the “rptR” R package (Stoffel et al. 2017). To  
187 test for assortative mating (positive or negative) vs. random mating, we assessed the correlation of each body measure  
188 between pair members using Pearson correlation tests, separately for each colony since we cannot rule out density  
189 dependent effects on mate choice (i.e. different mating strategies according to the number of breeding individuals in a  
190 colony; Bried et al. 2021). However, the test for the significance of differences between correlations performed using  
191 “cocor” R package (Diedenhofen and Musch 2015), showed no differences between colonies either for tarsus length or  
192 bill ( $p$  always  $> 0.05$ ). Therefore, we pooled together data from different colonies, and we ran a new Pearson correlation  
193 test.

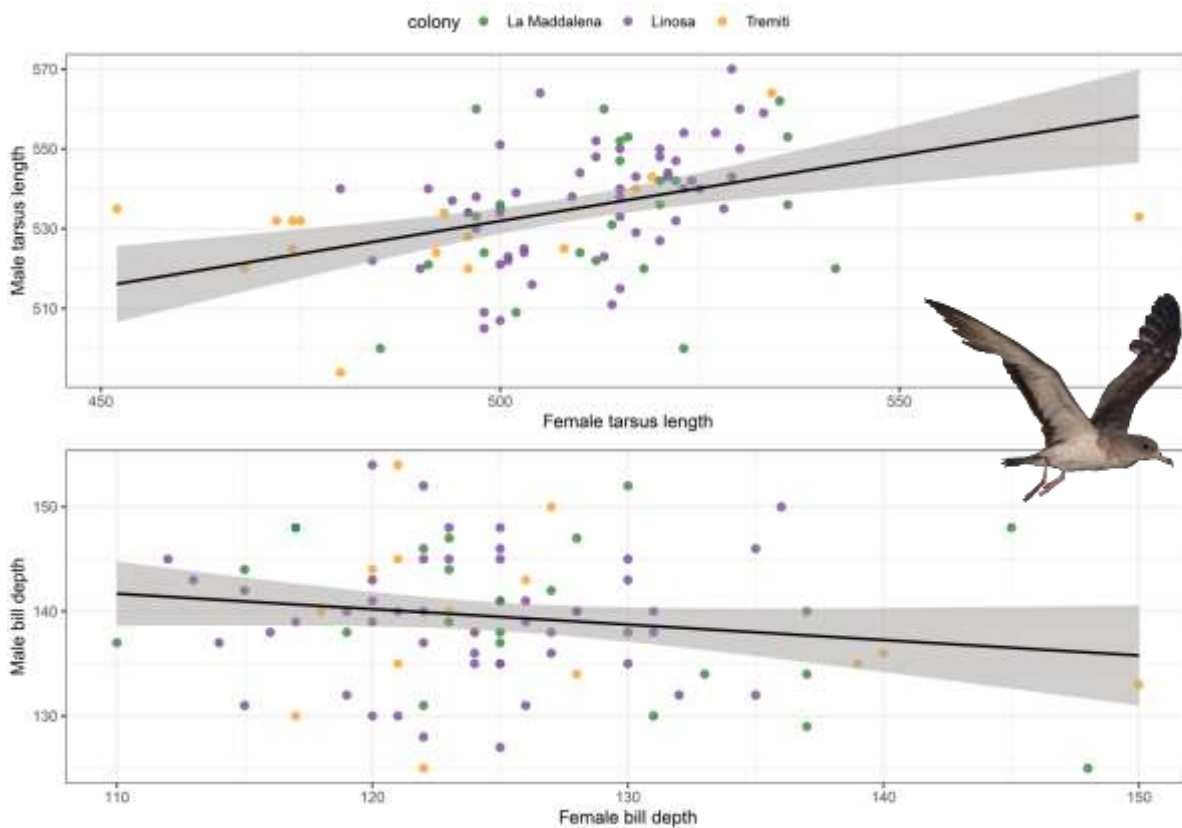
194 To test if the length of the incubation shift depended on individual body size, we fitted a Linear Model (LM)  
195 with the length of incubation shift as the dependent variable, and tarsus length (proxy of body size), sex, colony and day  
196 of the year as independent variables. Tarsus length was centred by sex to account for sexual differences in size and thus  
197 collinearity with sex. The day of the year was included to account for difference in movement patterns according to the  
198 progress of the incubation stage (foraging trips are shorter close to hatching, Ramos et al. 2003). Due to logistic  
199 constraints we did not record the exact dates of egg-laying, however Scopoli’s Shearwaters are quite synchronous in  
200 laying (Cramp and Simmons 1977, Cachia-Zammit and Borg 1987), allowing us to use the day of the year as a proxy of  
201 the laying day. In this model, bird identity was not entered as a random effect since we recorded only one incubation  
202 shift for each individual. We also tested the effect of the two-way interaction between sex and tarsus length (and colony  
203 and tarsus length as well), but they were removed from the final models because not being significant.

204 LMs were run using the ‘stats’ R package (R Core Team 2021). All model assumptions were carefully inspected for  
205 each fitted model using the ‘performance’ R package (Lüdecke et al. 2021). All analyses were performed using R 4.1.1.  
206 (R Core Team 2021).

207 **Results**

208 Both tarsus length and bill depth were highly repeatable, with  $R_{pt} = 0.80$  and  $R_{pt} = 0.82$  respectively. The repeatability  
209 of bill length was low ( $R_{pt} = 0.62$ ) and for this reason the measure was considered less reliable and not used in the  
210 following analyses. Tarsus length was positively correlated between pair members ( $R = 0.4$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $N = 93$ ), while  
211 bill depth was not ( $R = -0.17$ ,  $p = 0.11$ ;  $N = 89$ ) (Fig. 2). However, a positive assortment for size may also result from  
212 individuals of different sizes reaching the breeding grounds at different times, as the Scopoli's Shearwater is a  
213 migratory species (Campioni et al. 2022). To rule out this hypothesis, we analysed migratory tracks from individuals  
214 tagged with geolocators and assessed whether arrival date at the colony was correlated with individual body size (See  
215 Supplementary Materials). We did not find any correlation between body size and of date of arrival, although some care  
216 must be taken in the interpretation of this result, given the small sample size ( $n=14$ ). Finally, the length of incubation  
217 shifts was positively correlated with tarsus length, when controlling for colony and sex (Table 1).

218



219

220 **Fig. 2.** Relationships between tarsus lengths (mm) of pair members (Person test:  $R = 0.4$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ,  $N = 93$ ), in the  
221 upper panel, and between bill depths (mm) of pair members ( $R = -0.17$ ,  $P = 0.11$ ;  $N = 89$ ), in the lower panel,  
222 considering all data from the three studied colonies: Linosa island, Tremiti archipelago and La Maddalena archipelago  
223 (see Fig. 1). Although for our analyses we used a correlative approach, since we did not assume a cause-effect

224 relationship, to plot the correlation we used a LM for graphical reasons. Photo of Scopoli's Shearwater by A.  
225 Benvenuti.

226

227 **Table 1:** Results of the fitted Linear Model to test the effect of body size (tarsus length) on the length of incubation  
228 shifts (N = 57, days). The model includes data from the three colonies (Linosa, La Maddalena archipelago and Tremiti  
229 archipelago; see Fig. 1), with only one measure for each individual.

<b>Predictor</b>	<b>Estimate ± SE</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>P</b>
Intercept	9.13±7.05	1.29	0.20
Sex (female)	0.72± 0.64	1.12	0.26
Tarsus centred by sex	0.07 ± 0.01	4.25	< <b>0.001</b>
Colony (La Maddalena)	2.22 ± 1.01	2.19	< <b>0.03</b>
Colony (Tremiti)	-0.46 ± 0.98	-0.46	0.64
Day of the year	-0.01 ± 0.03	-0.28	0.77

230

## 231 Discussion

232 We investigated the existence and nature of assortative mating in the Scopoli's Shearwater, a seabird with long-term  
233 monogamous pair bonds. Using only highly repeatable, and thus reliable, morphometric measurements from three  
234 different colonies, we found that Scopoli's Shearwaters adopt a positive assortative mating strategy by body size, with a  
235 correlation of tarsus length, but not bill depth, between pair members. Moreover, tarsus length positively correlated with  
236 the duration of incubation shifts while it was likely not correlated with the spring arrival date at the colony.

237 Mixed evidence on the existence of assortative mating has been observed for the Cory's Shearwater (*C.*  
238 *borealis*), the Atlantic sister species of the Scopoli's Shearwater. Indeed, both random (Mougin 2000) and negative  
239 assortative mating by bill size (Nava et al. 2014) have been described for birds breeding in two distinct colonies.  
240 Moreover, the latter study found no evidence of assortative mating by tarsus and wing length (Nava et al. 2014). Such  
241 differences between studies and between the two *Calonectris* species might be colony or species-specific or they could  
242 be due to differences in how measures have been collected. Differently to what has been observed in the black-legged  
243 kittiwake (Helfenstein et al. 2004), we found no effect of tarsus length on the arrival date at the colony, although some  
244 care must be taken given the small sample size of this analysis. Hence, it is likely that the observed size-assortative

245 mating is not a byproduct of higher encounter rates in spring among individuals which are similar in relative size, and  
246 we argue that it is likely a product of mate choice.

247 Positive assortative mating (hereafter just assortative mating) by size, as we observed, is a widespread and  
248 relatively common phenomenon among long-lived monogamous birds (Helfenstein et al. 2004; Seyer et al. 2020). Two  
249 general hypotheses have been proposed to explain its occurrence (Jiang et al. 2013). The first one suggests that  
250 assortative mating is an adaptive response to direct or indirect selective pressures, that can act on the fitness of  
251 individuals and/or their offspring. Alternatively, assortative mating can be an incidental consequence of specific  
252 constraints (e.g., spatio-temporal barriers) that drive individuals with similar attributes to mate. The correlation of tarsus  
253 length between partners that we observed was relatively strong (0.4) compared to the mean correlation between partners  
254 for positive assortative mating (0.28) reported in the meta-analysis by Jiang et al. (2013), suggesting that a mechanism  
255 generating strong assortative mating is at play. However, the identification of such a mechanism is extremely difficult,  
256 particularly without an experimental approach.

257 In our study system, a mechanism of choice by similarity could be at play. In this case, the advantage of having  
258 similar relative body-sizes could be a matching in fasting abilities. Fasting ability is crucial in coordinating shifts, and it  
259 should be well matched within the pair to increase shift alignment, or divergences can occur if birds are not able to  
260 adjust their foraging trips to account for each other's fasting ability, leading to a mismatch and subsequent breeding  
261 failure (Chaurand and Weimerskirch 1994; Pinaud and Weimerskirch 2002). We speculate that pairs with individuals of  
262 similar relative size (relative within sex, i.e., large females and large males, small females and small males) likely are  
263 capable of fasting for similar timespans, decreasing the likelihood of egg neglect and increasing fitness. For example, a  
264 large female and a large male, despite the absolute differences in size, are likely to have comparable fasting abilities  
265 (also considering their differences in metabolism and physiology, Navarro et al. 2007), reducing the mismatch that  
266 would be present in a pair composed of individuals with different relative sizes. This hypothesis is supported by the  
267 positive effect of tarsus length (i.e., a proxy of body size, Peck et al. 2006; Senar and Pascual 1997) on the duration of  
268 incubation shifts (and therefore fasting periods). However, direct selection favoring trait-matched mate pairs have been  
269 documented but is rare (Jiang et al. 2013).

270 The observed assortative mating could as well be the result of mutual mate choice, a more common process,  
271 where birds have a preference for large-sized individuals. In this case, the preference for large partners is often coupled  
272 with a size-dependent competitive exclusion, that leads larger and more competitive individuals to obtain the preferred  
273 partner, while smaller and inferior competitors are forced to choose a suboptimal one (Baldauf et al. 2009, Taborsky et  
274 al. 2009). In the Scopoli's Shearwater, mating with a large partner could confer a set of crucial advantages. For

275 example, large individuals could be more competitive in the interactions with conspecifics and heterospecifics, resulting  
276 in a higher quality nest-site selection and defense (Werner et al. 2014) and dominance in foraging aggregations  
277 (González-Solís et al. 2000). Larger body size could also improve egg thermoregulation, and since it is related to fasting  
278 ability, it could confer additional buffer time when fasting. Finally, large individuals could have a higher food load  
279 capacity, resulting in a better provisioning of chicks and therefore an increased fitness.

280 Overall, we suggest that, in accordance with Jiang et al. (2013) first hypothesis, assortative mating by size  
281 could confer a fitness advantage to individuals. However, the mechanisms underlying the observed assortative mating  
282 cannot be fully disentangled. It is likely which, given the ecology of the species, the choice of an optimal partner is  
283 influenced by its competitive and fasting abilities, that are a product of body size. However, several other selective  
284 processes act on body size and sexual dimorphism in seabirds, making the full picture even more complex. Correlative  
285 approaches can provide valuable insights into these processes, but ultimately experimental approaches are needed to  
286 gain a deep understanding of mate choice.

287

## 288 **Declarations**

289 Ethical approval

290 Our work was undertaken following the international, national and institutional ethical guidelines on the care and use of  
291 captured animals. Birds were caught, ringed, handle, and equipped with leg-mounted geolocators by the Italian Institute  
292 for Environmental Protection and Research (ISPRA), under the authorization of Law 157/1992 [Art.4(1) and Art 7(5)],  
293 which regulates research on wild bird species in Italy.

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