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- 1 Analysis of the optimal duration of behavioral
- 2 observations based on an automated continuous
- monitoring system in tree swallows (*Tachycineta bicolor*):
- 4 is one hour good enough?
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Abstract

Studies of animal behavior often rely on human observation, which introduces a number of limitations on sampling. Recent developments in automated logging of behaviors make it possible to circumvent some of these problems. Once verified for efficacy and accuracy, these automated systems can be used to determine optimal sampling regimes for behavioral studies. Here, we used a radio-frequency identification (RFID) system to quantify parental effort in a bi-parental songbird species: the tree swallow (Tachycineta bicolor). We found that the accuracy of the RFID monitoring system was similar to that of video-recorded behavioral observations for quantifying parental visits. Using RFID monitoring, we also quantified the optimum duration of sampling periods for male and female parental effort by looking at the relationship between nest visit rates estimated from sampling periods with different durations and the total visit numbers for the day. The optimum sampling duration (the shortest observation time that explained the most variation in total daily visits per unit time) was 1h for both sexes. These results show that RFID and other automated technologies can be used to quantify behavior when human observation is constrained, and the information from these monitoring technologies can be useful for evaluating the efficacy of human observation methods. **Keywords**: behavioral sampling, optimization, PIT-tag, RFID, parental care, feeding rate



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Introduction

The behavior of animals is notoriously variable. Therefore, finding a sampling regime that can accurately quantify behavior is challenging [1]. Most studies measuring animal behavior rely on human observation and subsequent analysis ('coding'). However, regardless of whether the observer watches the animals directly or quantifies behavior from recorded video, the procedure requires considerable time and effort. Consequently, availability of human resources and/or video recording equipment limits such studies of animal behavior. In addition, it may be desirable to limit disturbance of the animals, (e.g., to reduce impacts of the observer on behavior), further constraining human activity around the study subjects. Finally, human observation is prone to errors. Even if there were no limits or constraints on human observation, statistical power rises as an asymptotic function of sample size: thus, after a certain point, the value of each additional sample begins to decline. Therefore, it may be more efficient to stop data collection before the informational asymptote is reached, to maximize the return for observer effort [2]. For all these reasons, a careful consideration of sampling effort is warranted. Although the duration of observation periods has important consequences for statistical power, and thus the required sample size and effort, often the duration of observation periods selected seems arbitrary. For instance, many behavioral studies of parental behavior use 1 hour behavioral watches [3–5], or sometimes even shorter observation periods [6–10]. These studies do not explicitly justify or validate the duration of the chosen observation period; therefore, the degree to



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which these observational samples are representative of subjects' behavior on longer time-scales is often unknown. Although several studies have provided analyses of different sampling regimes [2,11-13], these results may be difficult to generalize across species because of potential differences in the nature of behavior. Furthermore, some of these studies have relied solely on direct observations, which are by definition limited by manpower and human attention (e.g., a human observer cannot reasonably watch focal individuals from dawn to dusk), and human presence may also alter the behavior being studied. Here, we use continuous recordings of parental provisioning visits from two populations of tree swallows (*Tachycineta bicolor*) to investigate the efficacy of different behavioral observation sample durations on accuracy of estimated provisioning rates. We used an automated monitoring system based on radiofrequency identification (RFID) technology [14] that recorded every visit of the parents to the nest box throughout the entire day. Our aim was to determine the relation between observation period duration and statistical accuracy of estimated visit rate, so we can aid other researchers in choosing a sampling regime for their particular study system, and demonstrate the degree to which duration of sampling regime can influence accuracy. We first validated RFID readings with data from 1-hr behavioral observations. Next, we estimated the optimal duration of behavioral observations that would maximize the amount of between-nest variation in parental behavior explained, while minimizing the effort to collect such samples. In doing so, we also emphasize that the optimal observation period for other systems may differ depending on various factors which we discuss below. Nonetheless, our approach to



estimating the relationship between sampling effort and proportion of variance
explained could be used in other systems to determine the required sampling effort
to obtain a desired degree of accuracy.

Materials and Methods

Study populations

We investigated nestling provisioning behavior in a bi-parental songbird, the tree
swallow, in two populations: at the Queen's University Biological Station, Ontario,
Canada (N44°34'2.02", W76°19'26.036", 121m elevation) in 2014, and near
Davidson College, Davidson, North Carolina, USA (N34°31′ 32.34″, W80°52′40″,
240m elevation) in 2014 and 2015. All procedures followed guidelines for animal
care outlined by Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour, and the Animal
Behavior Society and the Canadian Council on Animal Care, and were approved by
the Virginia Tech's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (#12-020) and the
Canadian Wildlife Service (#10771). In both populations, birds breed in nest boxes
[15,16]. In tree swallows, females feed their offspring at a higher rate than males on
average [17], and male visit rates show higher among-individual variance than
female visit rates (RD, JQO, AZL unpublished data).



Bird tagging and data collection

Both parents were captured in their nest box (females: day 10 of incubation, males:
day 2 or 3 post hatching) and equipped with a PIT-tag (passive integrated
transponder) that was incorporated into a plastic leg band (EM4102 tags from IB
Technology, UK). These leg bands were red for females and blue for the males. A
hexagonal or square antenna (diagonally about 6cm) was fixed around the entrance
of the nest box. On day 3 - day 5 post hatching, the antenna was connected to an
RFID reader that attempted to read a signal for 0.3 seconds, then paused for 0.2
seconds to save battery life and then this cycle was repeated continuously. This way,
the reader recorded every time a bird equipped with a PIT tag passed through the
antenna and thus the nest box entrance. The reader records the unique tag number
and the current date and time to the seconds in a log file. We used "Generation 2"
readers, an upgrade of the model described in [18] provided by Cellular Tracking
Technology, PA, USA. The readers were powered from a 12V, 5Ah motorcycle
battery (8.9×7.1×10.1 cm). The reader and the battery were placed in a waterproof
plastic container and hidden in the grass, below the nest box. To save power, we
programmed the readers to turn off during the night (between 22:00 and 04:00).
Therefore, on day 5, the readers recorded all visits that either parent made to the
box during the entire day in $n = 18$ nests. In 46 cases, the readers were first set up
on day 5, typically in the morning, between 07:00 and 10:00, so the duration of daily
recordings is shorter for these nests, but still covers most of the day (mean: 12.72 \pm
0.18 (SE) hours at a site with approximately 15 hours of daylight). In an additional
10 nests, RFID readers were deployed in the same manner, but the RFID readers



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yielded fewer than 200 total reads for that day (male and female combined; compared to the rest of the nests, where the average number of total reads was 1281 ± 149 (SE)), which indicates that the tags or antennae at these nests were not working properly, or the parents fed their nestlings at an unusually low rate. These nests were excluded from our analyses. The final sample sizes for RFID analyses in 2014 were 34 (Canada) and 30 (US) nests. To test whether our conclusions can be generalized through a wider range of nestling ages, in 2015, we also collected RFID logs from 13 nests on day 3 post hatching and 28 nests day 8 post hatching (US only). From the RFID logs, we determined the number of nest visits by filtering out continuous readings, generated when a bird is perching on the nest entrance (i.e., adjacent to the antenna). Our measure of visit rate based on the RFID logs may overestimate the actual number of feeding visits (e.g., birds sometimes go into the nest box, reappear at the entrance and then go back to the box before finally leaving the box – this event would be treated as two separate visits in our analyses). Such cases, however, are relatively infrequent (see Results). In 2014, each nest was also directly monitored by a human observer for one hour to quantify the visit rates of the parents, and to determine whether RFID logs provide a similar estimate of visit rates by correlating the observational data with the visit rate calculated from the RFID logs. A total of 45 nests were directly observed while the RFID readers were in operation. The observer sat at about 30 m from the nest box at an angle that would allow him or her to determine the color of band (and therefore the sex) every time a bird entered. Because our primary



interest in this study was accuracy in quantifying between-nest variation, we used only one day (day 5) of observation at a standard stage of chick rearing.

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Statistical analyses

Our analysis proceeded in two stages. In the first stage, we compared the visits inferred from the RFID logs with the visits noted during the observations for the same hour. In the second stage of our analyses, we used the RFID data to determine if different sampling durations could reliably estimate overall daily behavior. We first calculated the overall daily visit rate (number of visits divided by the duration of the total recording period) for both males and females in each nest from the RFID logs. We used the same logs and sampled 1h-long periods starting at different times of the day using all possible start times and calculated the sample visit rate again for both sexes. Then, separately for males and females, we used a linear regression to test how well visit rates calculated from the 1h samples predict the total daily visit rates. Because our focus was on between-nest variation, we extracted the R² from the linear model as a measure of the proportion of variance explained. We also obtained 95% confidence intervals for these estimates using nonparametric bootstrapping. Specifically, we calculated the R² of the linear relationship between the hourly and the daily feeding rate using a random sample with replacement and 10000 replicates.

Next, we repeated the above process while varying the duration of the sampling window from 15min to 4h by 15-min increments. We set the maximum at



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4h because, in most field conditions, longer direct observations are not feasible, and even with video recordings, battery life sets logistical constraints. For every hour from 07:00 to 17:00, we calculated the R^2 based on different sampling window durations separately for the sexes.

We next sought to determine the optimal sampling duration. To do that, we first fit a series of curves to the R² obtained at different observation periods. We fitted multiple curves because, while we expected the data would follow a saturation curve (i.e., very long observations will reach an asymptote in terms of proportion of between-individual variation explained), we did not have an a priori expectation that the data would fit one particular type of saturation curve over another. In practice, the fitted curves differed little in their shape (see Results). We fit three models that are often used to model such relationships, using the package drc [19] in the R computing environment (version 3.2) [20]. First, we fitted a threeparameter Gompertz growth curve. The Gompertz curve converges towards an asymptote and the steepness of the curve changes with an inflection point in between the start and the asymptotic part of the curve. Next, we fitted a three parameter Michaelis-Menten model, a saturation curve that does not have an inflection point, and a three parameter asymptotic regression. We estimated the goodness of fit of each model using modelFit in drc, where a significant value indicates a lack of fit, and used the second order Akaike Information Criterion to compare the fit of different models. Finally, we also fit a general additive model to the data using the gam function in the gam package that uses penalized regression splines. This method fits the model using a penalized likelihood maximization, in



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which the model likelihood is modified by the addition of a penalty for each smooth function, resulting in a balance between smoothness and goodness of fit. It does not assume that there is an inflection point or asymptote.

We then used two optimization algorithms to find the marginal value that gives the optimal sampling effort, defined as the one that maximizes the rate of return of statistical accuracy in R² units per unit of sampling time. First, for the Gompertz fit, we took the local minimum of the second derivative of the fitted curve, which gives the inflection point of the first derivative where the concavity of the steepness of the curve changes towards the asymptotic decrease. For the other fits, the steepness of the curve monotonically decreases, and therefore there is no inflection point. In these cases we used the 'minimally important change' threshold, that is often used in clinical trials to find an balance between specificity and sensitivity of a treatment (that also follows a hyperbolic saturation curve), and has been recently shown to provide the optimal cutoff value [21]. This method uses a sum of squared method to find the point on the curve that maximizes the outcome while minimizing the cost (in our case, statistical accuracy and observational duration, respectively). An R script of the analyses (\$1 File) and the dataset (\$2 Dataset) are provided as electronic supporting information.

Results

Visit rates calculated from day 5 RFID logs and direct behavioral observations were highly correlated (females: r = 0.68, $p = 0.2 \times 10^{-7}$ and males: r = 0.67, $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; N = 0.68, $p = 0.2 \times 10^{-7}$ and males: r = 0.67, $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; N = 0.68, $p = 0.2 \times 10^{-7}$ and males: r = 0.68, $p = 0.2 \times 10^{-7}$ and males: r = 0.68, $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; N = 0.68, $p = 0.2 \times 10^{-7}$ and p = 0.68, $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$ and $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$ and $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$ and $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; $p = 0.4 \times 10^{-7}$; p = 0.4



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43, Fig. 1). There was a strong positive linear relationship between visits inferred from RFID logs and observed visits, with only a few exceptions (Fig. 1). In most cases, the exceptions involved the failure of the RFID system to detect visits that were noted by an observer, which may be due to failure of the PIT-tag or the antenna, although observer error is also possible. Fig. 1. Visit rate (the number of feeding visits/h) of female and male tree swallows inferred from 1h-behavioral observations (y-axis) and RFID **readings (x-axis).** Open circles denote influential data points that have disproportionate effect on the relationship as measured by the influence.measures function in R. Note that the statistical analyses provided in the main text were carried out including these data points, and therefore provide a conservative estimate of these relationships. Next, we looked at the RFID logs of the entire day. In nearly every case, the cumulative number of visits increased monotonically and linearly during the day in both sexes in most nests (Fig. 2), suggesting that diel variation in visit rate was negligible. Fig. 2. The cumulative number of parental visits in tree swallow nests in (A) **Canada and (B) North-Carolina.** In both (A) and (B), each panel corresponds to one nest (the nest identifier is printed above each panel), with the blue line representing the male and the red line the female parent.

After combining data from both populations, we examined how the time of day when the 1h sample began predicted the total daily visit rate. Observations of 1h in duration significantly predicted the total daily visit rate across all start times (Table 1). However, the proportion of variance explained varied substantially depending on when the 1h sampling began. Mid-day sampling tended to provide the best estimates, whereas evening and early morning hours gave the worst estimates for both females and males.

Table 1. Proportion of variance explained (R²) and its 95% confidence interval generated by bootstrapping, statistical significance (p-values), and the sample size (N) of the relationship between 1h-samples and the total daily visit rate based on the time of onset of the 1h-sample for female and male tree swallows.

time	R ² [95% CI]	p-value	R ² [95% CI]	p-value	N
time	(female)	(female)	(male)	(male)	14
06:00	0.60 [0.31; 0.83]	4.3e-04	0.34 [0.08; 0.68]	1.9e-02	16
07:00	0.57 [0.41; 0.77]	3.2e-04	0.26 [0.05; 0.57]	3.0e-02	18
08:00	0.40 [0.15; 0.77]	2.0e-03	0.24 [0.04; 0.54]	2.5e-02	21
09:00	0.40 [0.19; 0.60]	9.2e-06	0.36 [0.18; 0.57]	3.5e-05	41



10:00	0.52 [0.31; 0.70]	4.8e-10	0.25 [0.09; 0.43]	1.2e-04	55
11:00	0.59 [0.42; 0.74]	2.9e-13	0.16 [0.03; 0.41]	1.1e-03	62
12:00	0.66 [0.52; 0.78]	1.6e-15	0.52 [0.33; 0.71]	4.0e-11	62
13:00	0.70 [0.55; 0.81]	2.0e-16	0.65 [0.46; 0.78]	2.2e-15	62
14:00	0.53 [0.35; 0.71]	1.8e-11	0.47 [0.28; 0.63]	5.6e-10	63
15:00	0.50 [0.31; 0.68]	6.0e-11	0.64 [0.46; 0.77]	2.7e-15	64
16:00	0.31 [0.20; 0.59]	1.6e-06	0.30 [0.13; 0.48]	3.0e-06	64
17:00	0.49 [0.31; 0.66]	1.4e-10	0.50 [0.28; 0.68]	8.4e-11	64
18:00	0.44 [0.25; 0.61]	3.1e-09	0.59 [0.35; 0.81]	8.9e-14	64
19:00	0.50 [0.30; 0.66]	8.7e-11	0.47 [0.27; 0.64]	3.9e-10	64

All of the parametric models we tested showed good fit to the data with the monotonic Michaelis-Menten model giving the best fit for both sexes (females: F = 0.078, p = 1.0, males: F = 0.036, p = 1.0). The Gompertz and the asymptotic regression (AR) models showed similar fit, but were somewhat less supported (females: Δ AICc= 3.763 and 1.90 for Gompertz and AR respectively, males: Δ AICc= 0.860 and 1.116, respectively). The general additive model (GAM) provided a monotonic smooth curve for both males and females, but these models had the least support (females: Δ AICc= 7.05, males: Δ AICc= 3.33).

Despite these differences in model fit, the Euclidean optimization function provided the same optimal duration for observations for all 4 curves, with the estimate being 1h for both sexes (Fig. 3). The concavity approach based on the



272 Gompertz curve provided optimal duration estimates of 45 minutes for females and 273 1.5 hours for males. 274 275 Fig. 3. Optimal durations of observation periods for female and male tree 276 **swallows.** The solid lines show the best fit curve to the data (a three parameter 277 Michaelis-Menten model) for the relation between R² and observation period 278 duration (15 minutes - 4 hours). The dashed lines show three alternative model fits 279 (Gompertz, Asymptotic regression and General Additive Model). Red and blue dots 280 indicate the optimal sampling effort for females and males respectively, that 281 maximizes R² and minimizes the duration of observation (indicated by the dashed 282 arrows). 284 Repeating the same analyses on day 3 and day 8 logs on a different set of 285

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individuals from 2015 gave identical results. The optimal duration of sampling (calculated using the Euclidean optimization) was 1h for both males and females provisioning younger (day 3) and older (day 8) nestlings. Similarly to the day 5 records, the concavity approach provided estimates of 45 minutes for females and 1.5 hours for males as an optimal duration for both day 3 and day 8 nestling ages.



Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated the utility of RFID data loggers for quantifying nest visit rates in a small songbird, and quantified the relationship between sampling period duration and statistical accuracy of estimates of parental behavior. We provide an optimization method that can be easily applied to provisioning data from other systems, whether collected by behavioral observations or by an automated recording system. Our results therefore provide a template for other behavioral studies seeking to measure behavioral traits with accuracy while maximizing efficiency.

For chick-rearing tree swallows, the optimal sampling period duration of about 1h for both sexes was robust to different types of curves fit to the data. A different optimization algorithm based on the change of the steepness of the curve provided a slightly different estimate: 45 min for females and 1.5h for males. Note that the latter approach only works with the Gompertz growth function with an inflection point. The Gompertz function did not fit our data as well as the monotonic Michaelis-Menten function, although the differences between these fits were small (Fig. 3). We recommend using the 'minimally important change' threshold [21] that uses simple Euclidean geometry and works with all presented model fits. This method is widely used in the medical fields [21], but has not been applied in an ecological context. We provide the script as an electronic supplement, so that other researchers can apply it to find the optimal sampling duration for their study systems.



Our data suggest that, depending on whether researchers want to analyze females, males, or both sexes, observation periods of between 45 and 90 minutes would be reasonable for a study of tree swallow parental feeding rates. Although feeding rate of the parents may change as the nestlings grow (e.g., [22,23] but see [24]), nestling age had no effect on the optimal duration of the sample. This conclusion seems to corroborate a growing list of studies that tested whether shorter observation durations can predict the parental behavior measured from a longer, whole-day sample [13]. These studies often concluded that 1h observation is sufficient to reliably reflect the variation in feeding rates among individuals (Table 2). These studies, however, typically tested only 1h or 2h as a sampling period. Here, we tested 16 different sample durations (from 15 mins to 4h) across the entire day. We found that 1h was not simply adequate, but it was the optimal sampling time, that maximized accuracy while minimizing the sampling time.



Table 2. Summary of published results testing different sampling

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Species	Data collection	Sampling	Is 1h good enough?a	Refer
	method	durations		ence
Eastern kingbird	observations	1h vs 2-3h	yes	[13]
(Tyrannus tyrannus)				
Savannah sparrow	observations	2h vs whole	1h was not tested, but 2h	[25]
(Passerculus		day	samples gave estimates	
sandwichensis)			that agreed closely with	
			the longer observations	
Blue tit	RFID	1h or 2h vs	yes	[26]
(Cyanistes caeruleus)		whole day		
Blue tit	RFID	1h vs whole	yes	[11]
(Cyanistes caeruleus)		day		
House sparrow	observations	1h or 2h vs	yes, but 2×1h or 2h	[2]
(Passer domesticus)		whole day	observations yielded more	
			accurate estimates	
Great tit	infrared	1h <i>vs</i> 7h	yes	[12]
(Parus major)	microcamera	(7:00-		
		14:00)		
Tree swallow	RFID	15 min- 4h	yes	this
(Tachycineta bicolor)		vs whole		study
		day		

^a This column indicates whether 1h sample could significantly predict longer (or

whole day) provisioning behavior.

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Interestingly, we did not observe a systematic effect of time of the day on accuracy (R²), although early morning and evening samples tended to give poorer



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estimates. Indeed, the cumulative number of observations increases steadily throughout the day in a linear fashion, which is consistent with earlier observations that tree swallows feed their young during daylight hours at a relatively constant rate [27,28]. Studies of avian parental care usually concentrate on the morning hours, mainly because the activity of insectivorous birds is often the highest during the early hours of the day and one might think that a relatively short observation period is the most reliable when there are a lot of behavioral activities to record. However, our results corroborate earlier conclusions that this is not necessarily the case [11]. For example, in the blue tit (*Cyanistes caeruleus*), parental feeding rate is indeed the highest in early morning, however, the sex differences in the feeding rate is also greater during the early hours, therefore, sampling the birds only during these hours could provide an inflated and the least reliable estimate of variation in sex differences in parental care patterns of this species [11]. We emphasize, however, that our approach here has been purely utilitarian, and increasing observation period duration to be greater than 1h will yield greater accuracy. If sample size is low, this may be desirable to attain greater statistical power. In our dataset, an increase of observation period duration from 1h to 2h could explain an additional ~15% of the variance (Fig. 3). So, as always in optimization, the currency will determine the optimal approach. We believe that

being able to quantify the gains of increased sampling periods, as we do here, will be valuable to researchers trying to find the optimum sampling regime for their own system. But researchers need to consider minimum level of variation explained variance acceptable for their study, as well as other, e.g., logistical, constraints.



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Finally, our data validate the use of RFID technology as a powerful tool to estimate parental visit rates. This tool provides an effective method for behavioral ecologists to circumvent the logistical and human resource limitations and observation bias that researchers face when designing behavioral field studies [29]. It is important to note that the RFID readers cannot discriminate between different behaviors performed during visits (such as feeding, brooding, nest defense, or courtship/copulation), and as such these methods are not yet able to completely replace behavioral observations for a variety of scientific questions (e.g. when researchers are interested in aggressive interactions). That said, the benefits of allday monitoring might outweigh the limitations of the system, for some scientific questions such as those that require quantification of feeding rates in nestbox breeding birds. Furthermore, the results presented here will be useful to those researchers using only behavioral observations as well. We believe the combination of behavioral observations with RFID (or similar) monitoring technologies is the most fruitful strategy for field research in the immediate future.

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387	Su	pporting Information
388	S1 l	File. R script of the analysis.
389	S2 I	Dataset. Parental feeding rates by 15 minutes intervals provided as an R
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