

8

18

- 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?
- 6 Lendvai ÁZ<sup>1,2\*#a</sup>, Akçay Ç<sup>1</sup>, Ouyang JQ<sup>1,3</sup>, Dakin R<sup>4,5</sup>, Domalik A<sup>5</sup>, St John PS<sup>5</sup>, Stanback
- 7 M<sup>6</sup>, Moore IT<sup>1</sup>, Bonier F<sup>1,5</sup>
- 9 <sup>1</sup> Department of Biological Sciences, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA, USA
- <sup>2</sup> Department of Evolutionary Zoology and Human Biology, University of Debrecen,
- Debrecen, Hungary
- 12 <sup>3</sup> The Netherlands Institute of Ecology (NIOO-KNAW), Wageningen, the Netherlands
- 13 <sup>4</sup> Department of Zoology, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada
- 14 <sup>5</sup> Department of Biology, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada
- 15 <sup>6</sup> Department of Biology, Davidson College, NC, USA
- 16 #a Current address: Department of Evolutionary Zoology and Human Biology, University
- of Debrecen, Hungary.
- Word count (excluding tables): 5086, 3 Figures, 2 Tables
- 21 \*corresponding author: <a href="mailto:lendvai@vt.edu">lendvai@vt.edu</a>



# **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.
<b>Keywords</b> : behavioral sampling, optimization, PIT-tag, RFID, parental care, feeding
rate



46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

### 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



69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

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



133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

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.

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

155

156

#### **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 R<sup>2</sup> 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 R<sup>2</sup> 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



178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

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 R<sup>2</sup> 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



201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

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 R<sup>2</sup> 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.

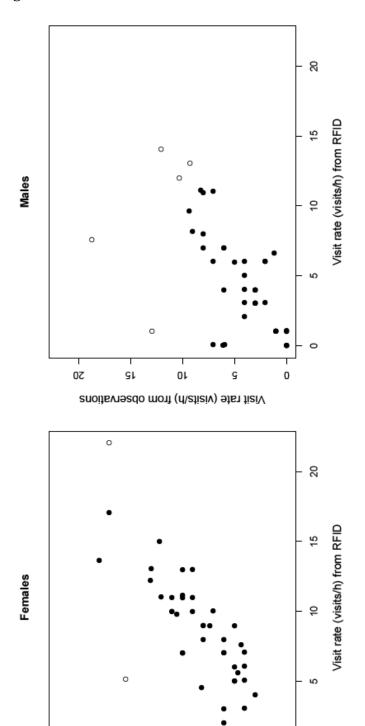
## **Results**

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 = 0.10



221	43, Fig. 1). There was a strong positive linear relationship between visits inferred
222	from RFID logs and observed visits, with only a few exceptions (Fig. 1). In most
223	cases, the exceptions involved the failure of the RFID system to detect visits that
224	were noted by an observer, which may be due to failure of the PIT-tag or the
225	antenna, although observer error is also possible.
226	
227	Fig. 1. Visit rate (the number of feeding visits/h) of female and male tree
228	swallows inferred from 1h-behavioral observations (y-axis) and RFID
229	readings (x-axis). Open circles denote influential data points that have
230	disproportionate effect on the relationship as measured by the
231	influence.measures function in R. Note that the statistical analyses provided in
232	the main text were carried out including these data points, and therefore provide a
233	conservative estimate of these relationships.
234	

### 235 Figure 1.



236

50

G١

١٥

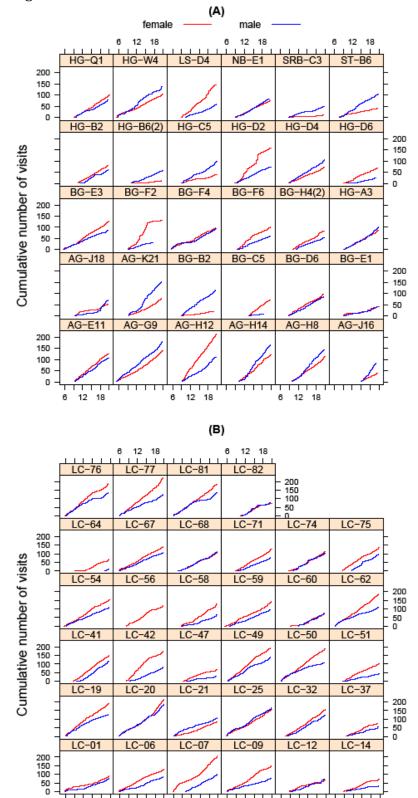
Visit rate (visits/h) from observations

G



237	Next, we looked at the RFID logs of the entire day. In nearly every case, the
238	cumulative number of visits increased monotonically and linearly during the day in
239	both sexes in most nests (Fig. 2), suggesting that diel variation in visit rate was
240	negligible.
241	
242	Fig. 2. The cumulative number of parental visits in tree swallow nests in (A)
243	Canada and (B) North-Carolina. In both (A) and (B), each panel corresponds to
244	one nest (the nest identifier is printed above each panel), with the blue line
245	representing the male and the red line the female parent.
246	

### 247 Figure 2.



12 18

12 18

Time of day (hours)



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.



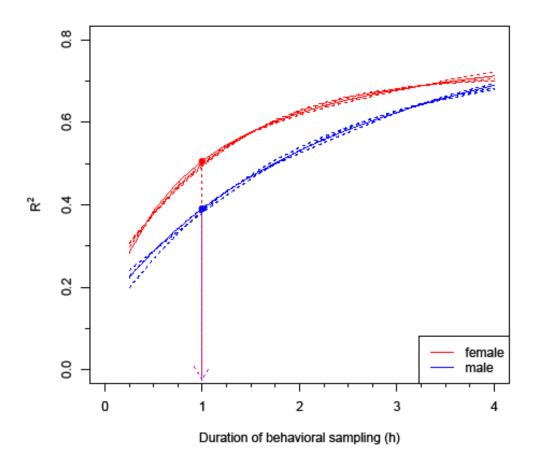
Table 1. Proportion of variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) and its 95% confidence interval generated by bootstrapping, statistical significance (p-values), and the sample size (N) of the relationship between 1h-samples and the total daily visit rate based on the time of onset of the 1h-sample for female and male tree swallows.

time	R <sup>2</sup> [95% CI]	p-value	R <sup>2</sup> [95% CI]	p-value	N
tille	(female)	(female)	(male)	(male)	IN
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: $\Delta AICc$ = 3.763 and 1.90 for Gompertz and AR respectively, males: $\Delta AICc$ =
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: $\Delta AICc=7.05$ , males: $\Delta AICc=3.33$ ).
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
Gompertz curve provided optimal duration estimates of 45 minutes for females and
1.5 hours for males.

Fig. 3. Optimal durations of observation periods for female and male tree swallows. The solid lines show the best fit curve to the data (a three parameter Michaelis-Menten model) for the relation between R<sup>2</sup> and observation period duration (15 minutes - 4 hours). The dashed lines show three alternative model fits (Gompertz, Asymptotic regression and General Additive Model). Red and blue dots indicate the optimal sampling effort for females and males respectively, that maximizes R<sup>2</sup> and minimizes the duration of observation (indicated by the dashed arrows).





Repeating the same analyses on day 3 and day 8 logs on a different set of 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

### 335 regimes.

334

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 <i>vs</i>	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		

 $\ensuremath{^{\text{a}}}$  This column indicates whether 1h sample could significantly predict longer (or

whole day) provisioning behavior.

338

339

340

336

337

Interestingly, we did not observe a systematic effect of time of the day on accuracy (R<sup>2</sup>), although early morning and evening samples tended to give poorer



342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

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

estimates. Indeed, the cumulative number of observations increases steadily

system. But researchers need to consider minimum level of variation explained

variance acceptable for their study, as well as other, e.g., logistical, constraints.



365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

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.

379

380

381

382

383

384

## Acknowledgements

We thank Djilali Hamza (Queen's University, Kingston) for his kind and generous help with fine-tuning the optimal inductance of our antennas. Thanks go to Eli Bridge, Jim Adelman, and Sahnzi Moyers for help with troubleshooting, László Pap



385	for assembling reader units and Spencer and Drew Gill for help with the field work.				
386	We thank Zoltán Barta, András Kosztolányi and Mark F Haussmann for useful				
387	insights and discussion about the optimization algorithms. We are grateful to Frank				
388	Phelan and the Queen's University Biological Station for logistical help in the field				
389	and Mary Preston for continuous support for the field vehicle. We thank C. Morgan				
390	and Gosling Brothers for providing high-quality lubricant and B. Kulin for critical				
391	help and orientation in the dark.				
392					
393	<b>Supporting Information</b>				
394	S1 File. R script of the analysis.				
395	S2 Dataset. Parental feeding rates by 15 minutes intervals provided as an R				
396	dataset.				
397	References				
398 399 400	1. Haccou P, Meelis E. Statistical Analysis of Behavioural Data: An Approach Based on Time-structured Models. Oxford University Press; 1992.				
401 402 403	2. Schwagmeyer P, Mock DW. How to minimize sample sizes while preserving statistical power. Anim Behav. 1997;54: 470–474.				
404 405 406 407	3. Ouyang JQ, Muturi M, Quetting M, Hau M. Small increases in corticosterone before the breeding season increase parental investment but not fitness in a wild passerine bird. Horm Behav. 2013; doi:10.1016/j.yhbeh.2013.03.002				



408 409 410 411	4.	DeVries MS, Jawor JM. Natural variation in circulating testosterone does not predict nestling provisioning rates in the northern cardinal, Cardinalis cardinalis. Anim Behav. 2013;85: 957–965. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2013.02.019
412 413 414 415	5.	Niederhauser JM, Bowman R. Testing sources of variation in nestling-stage nest success of Florida Scrub-Jays in suburban and wildland habitats. J Field Ornithol. 2014;85: 180–195. doi:10.1111/jofo.12059
416 417 418	6.	Carey M. Effects of Brood Size and Nestling Age on Parental Care by Male Field Sparrows (spizella-Pusilla). Auk. 1990;107: 580–586.
419 420 421 422	7.	Verspoor JJ, Love OP, Rowland E, Chin EH, Williams TD. Sex-specific development of avian flight performance under experimentally altered rearing conditions. Behav Ecol. 2007;18: 967–973. doi:10.1093/beheco/arm089
423 424 425 426	8.	Hogle NC, Burness G. Sex-specific environmental sensitivity is transient in nestling Tree Swallows (Tachycineta bicolor). J Ornithol. 2014;155: 91–100. doi:10.1007/s10336-013-0991-y
427 428 429 430	9.	Bortolotti LE, Harriman VB, Clark RG, Dawson RD. Can changes in provisioning by parent birds account for seasonally declining patterns of offspring recruitment? Can J Zool. 2011;89: 921–928. doi:10.1139/z11-068
431 432 433 434 435	10.	Gómez J, Michelson CI, Bradley DW, Norris DR, Berzins LL, Dawson RD, et al. Effects of geolocators on reproductive performance and annual return rates of a migratory songbird. J Ornithol. 2013;155: 37–44. doi:10.1007/s10336-013-0984-x
436 437 438 439	11.	García-Navas V, Sanz JJ. Environmental and Within-Nest Factors Influencing Nestling-Feeding Patterns of Mediterranean Blue Tits (Cyanistes caeruleus). The Condor. 2012;114: 612–621. doi:10.1525/cond.2012.110120
440 441 442 443	12.	Pagani-Nunez E, Carlos Senar J. One hour of sampling is enough: Great Tit Parus major parents feed their nestlings consistently across time. Acta Ornithol. 2013;48: 194–200. doi:10.3161/000164513X678847
444 445	13.	Murphy MT, Chutter CM, Redmond LJ. Quantification of avian parental behavior: what are the minimum necessary sample times? J Field Ornithol.



446 447		2015;86: 41–50. doi:10.1111/jofo.12087
448 449 450 451	14.	Bonter DN, Bridge ES. Applications of radio frequency identification (RFID) in ornithological research: a review. J Field Ornithol. 2011;82: 1–10. doi:10.1111/j.1557-9263.2010.00302.x
452 453 454 455	15.	Bonier F, Moore IT, Martin PR, Robertson RJ. The relationship between fitness and baseline glucocorticoids in a passerine bird. Gen Comp Endocrinol. 2009;163: 208–213. doi:10.1016/j.ygcen.2008.12.013
456 457 458 459	16.	Shutler D, Hussell DJT, Norris DR, Winkler DW, Robertson RJ, Bonier F, et al. Spatiotemporal Patterns in Nest Box Occupancy by Tree Swallows Across North America. Avian Conserv Ecol. 2012;7. doi:10.5751/ACE-00517-070103
460 461 462 463 464	17.	Ardia DR. Site- and sex-level differences in adult feeding behaviour and its consequences to offspring quality in tree swallows (Tachycineta bicolor) following brood-size manipulation. Can J Zool. 2007;85: 847–854. doi:10.1139/Z07-070
465 466 467 468	18.	Bridge ES, Bonter DN. A low-cost radio frequency identification device for ornithological research. J Field Ornithol. 2011;82: 52–59. doi:10.1111/j.1557-9263.2010.00307.x
469 470	19.	Ritz C, Streibig JC. Bioassay analysis using R. J Stat Softw. 2005;12: 1–22.
471 472 473 474	20.	R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, ISBN 3-900051-07-0, URL http://www.R-project.org; 2014.
475 476 477 478 479 480	21.	Froud R, Abel G. Using ROC Curves to Choose Minimally Important Change Thresholds when Sensitivity and Specificity Are Valued Equally: The Forgotten Lesson of Pythagoras. Theoretical Considerations and an Example Application of Change in Health Status. PLoS ONE. 2014;9: e114468. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0114468
481 482 483	22.	Leonard M, Horn A. Provisioning rules in tree swallows. Behav Ecol Sociobiol. 1996;38: 341–347. doi:10.1007/s002650050250



484 485 486 487	23.	Whittingham LA, Dunn PO, Clotfelter ED. Parental allocation of food to nestling tree swallows: the influence of nestling behaviour, sex and paternity. Anim Behav. 2003;65: 1203–1210. doi:10.1006/anbe.2003.2178
488 489 490 491	24.	McCarty JP. The Number of Visits to the Nest by Parents Is an Accurate Measure of Food Delivered to Nestlings in Tree Swallows. J Field Ornithol. 2002;73: 9–14. doi:10.2307/4131060
492 493 494 495	25.	Wheelwright NT, Schultz CB, Hodum PJ. Polygyny and male parental care in Savannah sparrows: effects on female fitness. Behav Ecol Sociobiol. 1992;31: 279–289. doi:10.1007/BF00171683
496 497 498 499 500	26.	Johnsen A, Delhey K, Schlicht E, Peters A, Kempenaers B. Male sexual attractiveness and parental effort in blue tits: a test of the differential allocation hypothesis. Anim Behav. 2005;70: 877–888. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2005.01.005
501 502 503 504	27.	Rose AP. Temporal and Individual Variation in Offspring Provisioning by Tree Swallows: A New Method of Automated Nest Attendance Monitoring. PLoS ONE. 2009;4: e4111. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0004111
505 506 507 508	28.	Ardia DR. Geographic variation in the trade-off between nestling growth rate and body condition in the tree swallow. The Condor. 2006;108: 601–611. doi:10.1650/0010-5422(2006)108[601:GVITTB]2.0.CO;2
509 510 511 512 513	29.	Tuyttens FAM, de Graaf S, Heerkens JLT, Jacobs L, Nalon E, Ott S, et al. Observer bias in animal behaviour research: can we believe what we score, if we score what we believe? Anim Behav. 2014;90: 273–280. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2014.02.007
514		