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Evaluation of proper sensor position for classification of sheep behaviour through accelerometers / Decandia, M.; Rassu, S. P. G.; Psiroukis, V.; Hadjigeorgiou, I.; Fountas, S.; Molle, G.; Acciaro, M.; Cabiddu, A.; Mameli, M.; Dimauro, C.; Giovanetti, V.. - In: SMALL RUMINANT RESEARCH. - ISSN 0921-4488. - 201:(2021), p. 106445. [10.1016/j.smallrumres.2021.106445]

The publisher's version is available at:

<https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.smallrumres.2021.106445>

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1 Evaluation of proper sensor position for classification of sheep behaviour through accelerometers.

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11

12 Abstract

13

14 Automated classification and identification of feeding behaviour through sensors, has the potential to allow
15 improvements in animal health and welfare. Sensor position, as well as epoch setting of segmented signal
16 data, affects classification accuracy in behavioural activity discrimination. The aim of this study was to
17 evaluate the effects of position, at different time epoch setting, of a tri-axial accelerometer based device
18 (BEHARUM) on the classification of behaviour types such as grazing, ruminating and other activities in
19 sheep grazing a chicory-based sward. Sheep were video recorded, during accelerometer deployment, by
20 fixed camera. Mean, variance and inverse coefficient of variation (i.e. mean/ standard deviation), of the raw
21 acceleration data for each axis, as well as the resultant variance and inverse coefficient of variation values of
22 the three axes, were calculated for the following positions: mouth, **nape**, collar and epoch settings: 5s, 10s,
23 30s, 60s, 120s, 180s, 300s. Video recordings were coded manually assigning to each position and epoch the
24 prevailing behaviour. Multivariate discriminant analysis (DA) was used to distinguish between the three
25 behaviour types. To evaluate the performance of DA in discriminating the three activities, overall accuracy

26 and Coehn's k coefficient were calculated, based on the error distribution in assignment. Mouth position
27 recorded the highest accuracies and Coehn's k coefficient in 300 seconds time epoch setting (88% and 0.8
28 respectively), as well as collar position (90% and 0.8 respectively), while nape position showed the **best**
29 performance in 180 and 300 seconds (80% and 0.6 respectively). Overall, the best performance of DA was
30 obtained using collar position in particular at 300s time epoch.

31
32 **Keywords:** discriminant analysis, feeding behaviour, accelerometer, dairy sheep

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34

35 **1. Introduction**

36

37 Feeding behaviour could be considered as the whole process by which the animal ingests the feed in order to
38 match their nutrient requirements. Grazing and ruminating are the most important daily behaviour types for
39 ruminants in terms of time allocation. Monitoring these behaviours of free-ranging ruminants is an effective
40 way to understand pasture-animal interface relationships, to better manage grassland systems (Coates and
41 Penning, 2000) as well as to assess animal health and welfare (Walton et al., 2018).

42 Embedded and wearable devices encompassing tri-axial accelerometers are currently used to classify and
43 monitor changes in ruminant feeding activity (Van Hertem et al., 2013; Vázquez Diosdado et al., 2015;
44 Mattachini et al., 2016). Some studies classifying feeding behaviour of sheep reported high classification
45 accuracy through these devices (>90%) (Umstätter et al., 2008; McLennan et al., 2015; Alvarenga et al.,
46 2016; Giovanetti et al., 2017a; Decandia et al., 2018).

47 However, there are **various** factors, such as sensor position, sampling frequency, window sizes etc that can
48 affect performance of behavioural classification using accelerometers.

49 There have been a number of studies that have deployed accelerometer sensors on small ruminants, which
50 have **often** used either leg, collar or halter mounting positions. Marais et al. (2014) attaching accelerometers
51 around the neck of sheep identified grazing behaviour with low accuracy, probably because of the position
52 chosen to attach the accelerometer. Moreau et al. (2009) observed that, in goats fed at pasture, the
53 accelerometers placed at the withers were able to detect satisfactorily the head position (up or down), but

54 when the sensor was fixed to the neck, it seemed even more effective in detecting feeding behaviour. Mason
55 and Sneddon (2013) evaluated a sensor placed near the head/neck of sheep grazing predominantly ryegrass
56 pasture and found promising results in distinguish grazing versus simply standing. Nadimi et al. (2011) used
57 a two-axis accelerometer placed at the nape of sheep at pasture in order to observe the position of the head
58 (down or up) and reported that this device was able to identify the head movements successfully. Giovanetti
59 et al., (2017a) found good results in feeding activity classification with accelerometer sensor placed in a
60 muzzle, also obtaining a good estimation of the number of bites. Whilst these deployments may be
61 acceptable in a research context, from a commercial perspective, the most applicable, industry acceptable,
62 standard is an eartag or a collar that aligns with conventional husbandry practices.

63 Another factor considered on the classification of behaviour is the use of epochs, which groups data over a
64 predetermined time period (Robert et al., 2009; Yoshitoshi et al., 2013; Decandia et al., 2018).

65 These calculated epoch values are assumed to be representative of the estimated intensity of activities
66 measured during the set time period. The choice of the epoch duration is linked to the type of animal
67 behavior. Usually short epochs may be preferable when the animal shifts between behavioural activity types
68 rapidly, as found in grazing sheep by some authors (Alvarenga et al., 2016; Decandia et al., 2018), whereas
69 an opposite selection (longer epochs) is suitable in grazing beef cattle shifting slowly between activities
70 (Giovanetti et al., 2017b). The choice of longer epochs can offer the advantage of data-smoothing through
71 time averaging, while the disadvantage is a higher proportion of mixture of two or more activities of varying
72 intensity, resulting in the data average reflecting an intermediate intensity (Barwich et al., 2020). In a
73 previous work using an accelerometer sensor in grazing sheep, 30-60-s sample window recorded the best
74 accuracy to classify grazing, ruminating and other activities (Decandia et al., 2018). To develop a real
75 world's practical and useful solution, it is important to evaluate various positions for sensors, as well as the
76 most energy efficient way of sampling and processing the data (i.e., choosing the sampling rate and size of
77 the time window for feature extraction). To address these challenges, a study was performed to evaluate the
78 effect of position (mouth, nape and collar) with different time epoch settings (5, 10, 30, 60, 120, 180 and
79 300s) of a tri-axial accelerometer based device on the classification of behavioural types such as grazing,
80 ruminating and other activities in grazing dairy sheep.

81

82

83 **2. Materials and Methods**

84

85 *2.1. Experimental site and animal management*

86 The study was conducted at Bonassai experimental farm of the agricultural research agency of Sardinia
87 (AGRIS Sardegna), located in the NW of Sardinia, Italy (40° 40' 16.215" N, 8° 22' 0.392" E, 32m a.s.l). The
88 animal protocol described below was in compliance with the EU regulation on animal welfare and all
89 measurements were taken by personnel previously trained and authorized by the institutional authorities
90 managing ethical issues both at Agris Sardegna and the University of Sassari.

91 The study was conducted in the first two weeks of May 2019. Three milking adult Sarda ewes, 3.5 ± 0.8
92 years old (mean \pm standard deviation), live weight of 43.5 ± 1.5 kg, body condition score of 2.5 ± 0.2 ,
93 lactation stage of 83 ± 18 days in milk, and milk yield of $1,200 \pm 120$ g *ewe*⁻¹ day⁻¹ were used.

94 The ewes were machine milked twice daily at 0700 h and 1500 h. During milking, animals were individually
95 fed in the milking parlour with commercial concentrate (400 g *ewe*⁻¹ day⁻¹) split into two meals. In the first
96 week, the ewes were accustomed to graze, from 0830 to 1430 h, one experimental plot (250 m²) sown with a
97 monoculture of chicory (*Cichorium intybus* L.). In the remaining daytime, the animals were kept indoors and
98 group-fed ryegrass hay *ad libitum*.

99 In the second week of May, on three occasions (test days) after the morning milking, the ewes were carted
100 on a trailer to the experimental plot and equipped with the **accelerometer** devices (**see description in the next**
101 **paragraph**) before the access to pasture. At the end of the grazing session, the ewes were carted back to the
102 milking machine and afterward to the stall where, at 1700 h, the devices were removed. To facilitate
103 individual identification, sheep were numbered with coloured livestock spray on both flanks.

104

105 *2.2 Description of the **accelerometer based** device (**BEHARUM**) and feeding behaviour recording*

106 The BEHARUM device (Giovanetti et al., 2017a) includes a tri-axial accelerometer sensor, inserted in a
107 micro-electromechanical compact system (MEMS) with on-board peripherals, that samples raw accelerations
108 at a frequency of 62.5 Hz and converts them, through an analogue-to digital converter with a resolution of 8
109 bits, in digital levels ranging from 0 to 255. Then the microcontroller selects three converted values per

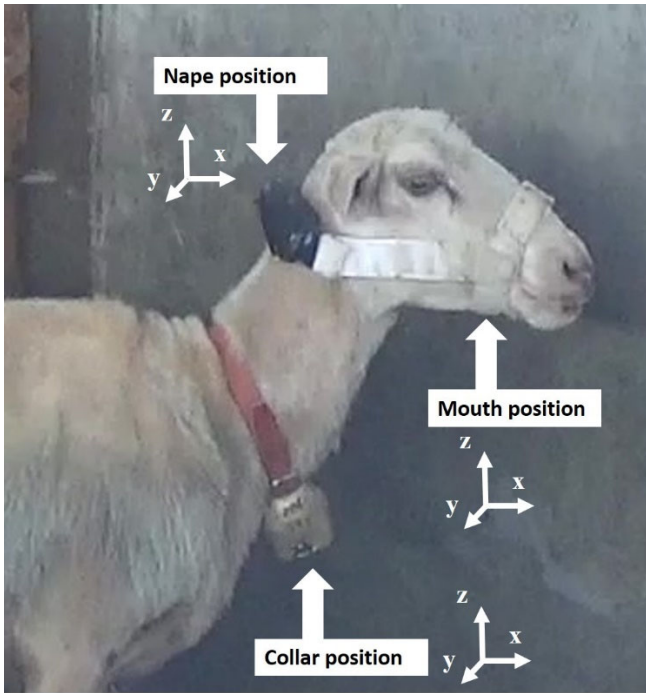
110 second per axis. The converted data could be sent (via LoRa wireless system) to a nearby computer receiver
111 equipped with an antenna or to a remote computer through a local server using the GSM services, as well as
112 recorded in a micro secure digital (SD) card inserted in the MEMS. A software package (DAS Client,
113 Electronic System) was installed on the computer to activate or deactivate the BEHARUM device and
114 manage data acquisition. In this experiment, we adopted the recording of acceleration and force data on
115 micro SD card.

116 On each test day, the 3 experimental ewes were equipped each with 3 BEHARUM devices placed in 3
117 different positions (mouth, nape and collar, Figure 1). In mouth position the BEHARUM, inserted in a halter,
118 was placed under the lower jaw of the sheep; in nape position the BEHARUM was fixed in the back part of
119 the halter behind the head; in collar position the BEHARUM was inserted in a traditional brazen bell without
120 clapper, hang in a lightweight leather tie.

121 A video camera (Sanyo Xacti VPC-TH1, Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd. OSAKA, Japan) was fixed to the tripod
122 and positioned in a corner outside of the field in order to record the feeding behaviour of sheep, one at a
123 time, equipped with the accelerometer sensors during accelerometer deployment. Video recordings of each
124 animal lasted 20–25 min. The internal clock of the camera as well as the internal clock of the computer were
125 both synced with the website (<https://time.is>) prior to deployment. This ensured both the camera and
126 accelerometers were synchronized in time to allow accurate annotation of the accelerometer data after
127 behavioural recordings were made.

128

129



130

131 **Figure 1.** BEHARUM devices placed in 3 different positions (mouth, nape and collar).

132

133 *2.3. Data pre-processing*

134 On the basis of the **collected** videos, for each position, a file including the three acceleration values **recorded**

135 **every second** for each axis and one of the three behavioural activities (grazing, ruminating, and other

136 activities) **accomplished by the animal** per second was created. We obtained a total of 96,395, 102,746, and

137 80,370 records per mouth, nape and collar position respectively. Behaviour activities were classified

138 according to Gibb (1998). Grazing activity included the act of searching for food while walking with the

139 head down without evidence of biting, or standing still with the head down while biting and chewing either

140 with the head down or the head up. Ruminating activity included regurgitation, chewing and swallowing of

141 bolus, in lying or standing position. Other activities included all the activities not taken into account in

142 grazing and ruminating, e.g. lying down or standing without rumination, and travelling etc. Mean (MX, MY,

143 MZ), variance (VX, VY, VZ), inverse coefficient of variation (i.e. mean/ standard deviation, ICVX, ICVY,

144 ICVZ), of acceleration data for each axis, as well as the resultant mean (MRES), variance (VRES) and ICV

145 (ICVRES) values of the three axes (Watanabe et al., 2008), were calculated for the following epoch settings:

146 5s, 10s, 30s, 60s, 120s, 180s, 300s. **The mean and standard deviation of these variables for each experimental**

147 **animal, each position and each epoch are reported in supplementary materials.** Video recordings were coded

148 manually assigning to each epoch the prevailing behaviour; that is to say grazing, ruminating or other
149 activities. We considered as prevailing the behaviour with the highest percentage among the three activities
150 performed by the animal within epoch setting. For each epoch setting, data were arranged in a multivariate
151 manner with fifteen columns including the epoch, the prevailing activity and the thirteen acceleration
152 variables (MX, MY, MZ, VX, VY, VZ, ICVX, ICVY, ICVZ, MRES, VRES, ICVRES). Eventually, we
153 obtained twenty-one datasets, seven for each sensor position and, within position, one for each epoch setting
154 under study.

155

156 *2.4. Data processing*

157 The twenty-one datasets were submitted to two multivariate statistical techniques to discriminate between the
158 three behavioural activities: canonical discriminant analysis (CDA), and discriminant analysis (DA). All
159 statistical analyses were performed by using the SAS software (SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, NC). CDA was used to
160 test the ability of the variables involved (the thirteen acceleration variables) in discriminating between
161 groups (grazing, ruminating and other activities) (Mardia et al., 2000). In general, if d indicates the number
162 of groups, the CDA derives $d-1$ linear equations, called canonical functions (CAN) that are used to predict
163 the group to which an object belongs.

164 The structure of a CAN is:

$$165 \text{ CAN} = c_1X_1 + c_2X_2 + \dots + c_nX_n$$

166 where c_i are the canonical coefficients (CC) and X_i are the n involved variables. CCs indicate the partial
167 contribution of each original variable in composing the CAN. In consequence, the higher the absolute value
168 of a CC, the higher the weight of the corresponding variable in composing the CAN. In the present research,
169 d was equal to 3 (the three behaviours) and, in consequence, two CANs were obtained.

170 *The distance between groups was evaluated by using the Mahalanobis' distance, a metric specifically*
171 *developed to calculate distances in a multivariate space that assigns different weights to correlated variables.*
172 *The effective groups' separation was then tested by using the Hotelling's T-square test (De Maesschalck et*
173 *al., 2000). DA was then used to classify epochs into one of the three behaviours (Mardia et al., 2000). To*
174 *validate the derived discriminant functions, each dataset was randomly divided into training and validation*
175 *dataset in the proportion of 4:1. This partition of the dataset was iterated 5000 times by using a bootstrap*

176 procedure (Efron, 1979). At each run, DA was applied to the training dataset to predict behaviours in the
177 validation dataset and errors in assignment were recorded. To evaluate the performance of DA in
178 discriminating between the three activities, precision, sensitivity (also known as recall), F-score, specificity
179 and accuracy were computed, based on the error distribution in assignment, using the following equations:

180
$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP};$$

181
$$\text{Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN};$$

182
$$\text{F-Score} = 2 \times \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Sensitivity}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Sensitivity}};$$

183
$$\text{Specificity} = \frac{TN}{TN+FP};$$

184
$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+TN+FP+FN};$$

185 where TP, TN, FP and FN are true positive, true negative, false positive and false negative counts
186 respectively. F-score combines precision and sensitivity into one numerical measure and it was calculated as
187 the harmonic mean of precision and sensitivity. This index reaches the best and the worst score at 1 and 0,
188 respectively (Mitchell, 1997). The Coehn's k coefficient was calculated (Fleiss, 1981) to evaluate the
189 agreement between observed and model predicted corrected for agreement that would be expected by
190 chance, both for each behaviour and overall. The k values were judged according to the criteria of Landis
191 and Koch (1977).

192
193 **3. Results**

194
195 *3.1. Discrimination between behaviour activities*

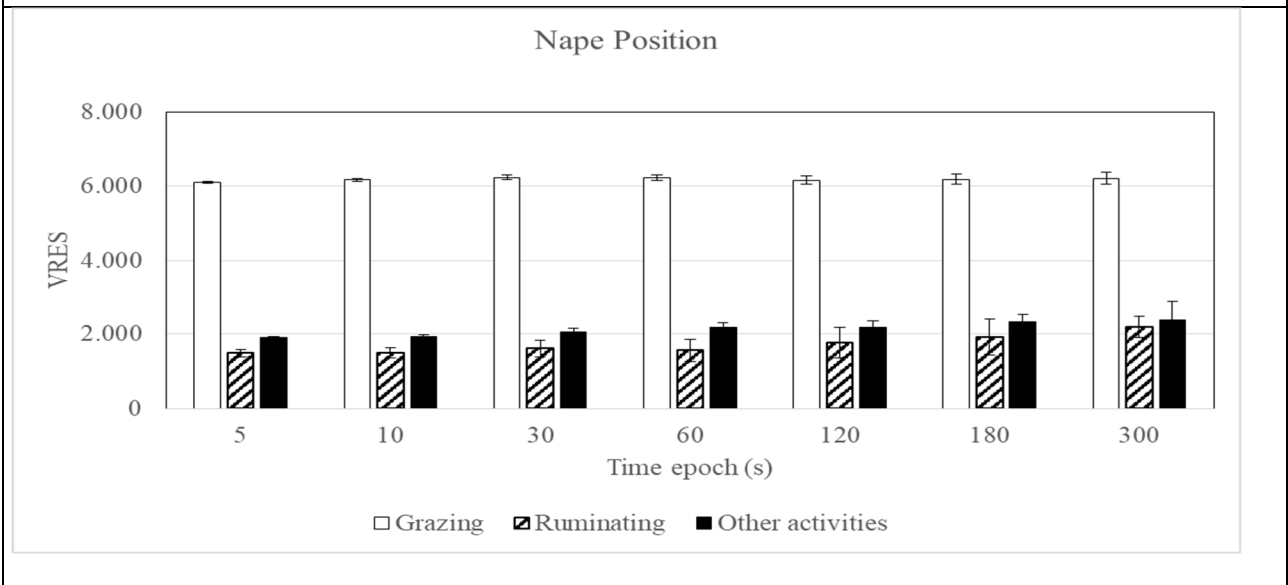
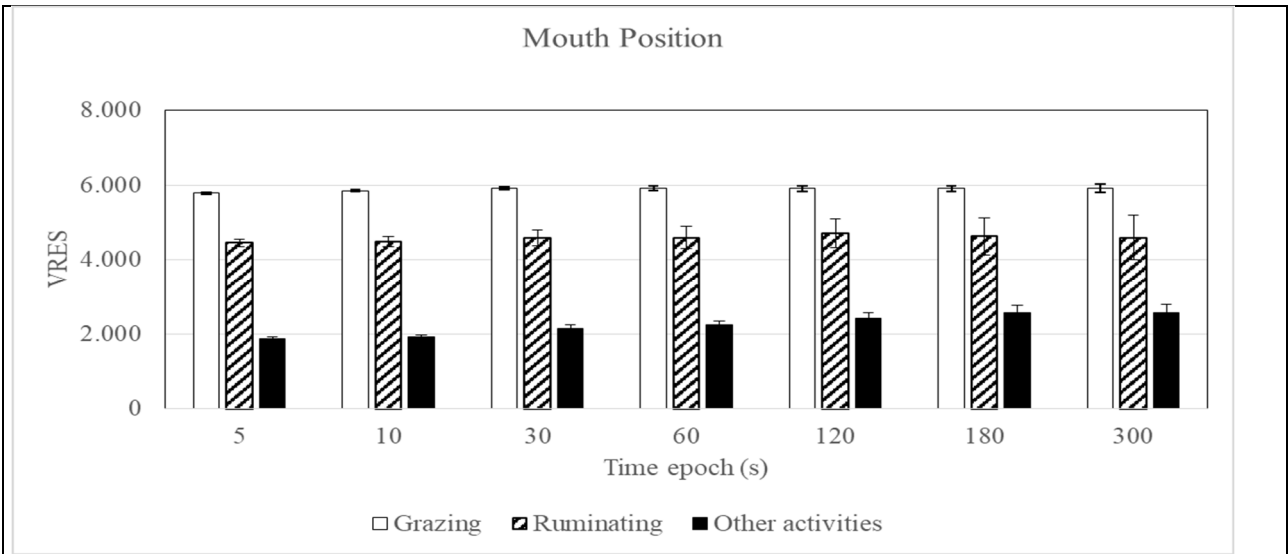
196 In developing multivariate techniques, the MRES variable was discarded from the analysis because it was
197 not linearly independent from the other variables. In all sensor position and epochs studied, the CDA
198 significantly discriminated between the three behaviours (Hotelling's test $P < 0.0001$) by extracting two
199 canonical functions (CAN1 and CAN2) for each sensor position and epoch set. The variance explained by
200 CAN1, ranged among epochs between 0.90 and 0.92 in mouth position, 0.94 and 0.99 in nape position and
201 0.87 and 0.96 in collar position. The variance explained by CAN2 ranged between 0.08 and 0.10 in mouth
202 position, 0.01 and 0.06 in nape position and 0.03 and 0.13 in collar position. In fact, CAN1 was able to

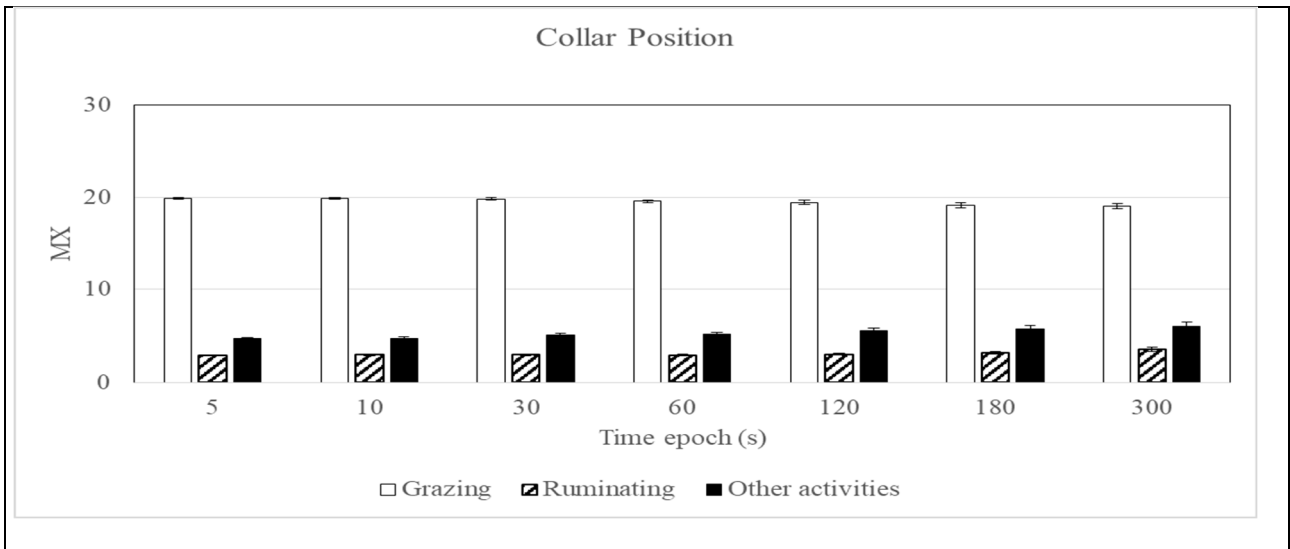
203 significantly separate, for all positions and epochs, the three behaviors unlike CAN2. The variance explained
204 by CAN1 and CAN2 as well as the CC values for each position and epoch are presented in supplementary
205 materials. In mouth and nape positions the variable with the highest CC in CAN1 was VRES (the resultant
206 variance of the three axes), whereas in collar position it was MX (the mean of X axis). The trend of these
207 variables, expressed as a mean of the entire dataset for each epoch in the 3 behaviours studied, for the
208 different positions and time epochs, is reported in Figure 2. In nape and collar positions CAN1 discriminates
209 the grazing activity from that of ruminating, while other activities being intermediate, whereas in mouth
210 position CAN1 discriminates grazing from other activities, being ruminating intermediate, with the exception
211 of highest epochs (180s, 300s), as confirmed by the Mahalanobis' distances (Table 1). The lowest values of
212 error in assignment, after the bootstrap resampling, were observed in collar and mouth position compared to
213 nape position (Figure 3).

214

215

216





217

218 **Figure 2.** Trend of variables with the greatest contribution to CAN 1 for grazing, ruminating and other
 219 activities in different sensor positions and time epochs (means \pm SE). VRES= resultant variance of
 220 acceleration data of the three axes; MX= Mean of acceleration data for X axis.

221 **Table 1.** Mahalanobis distances from main behavioural activities at different sensor positions and time epoch settings.

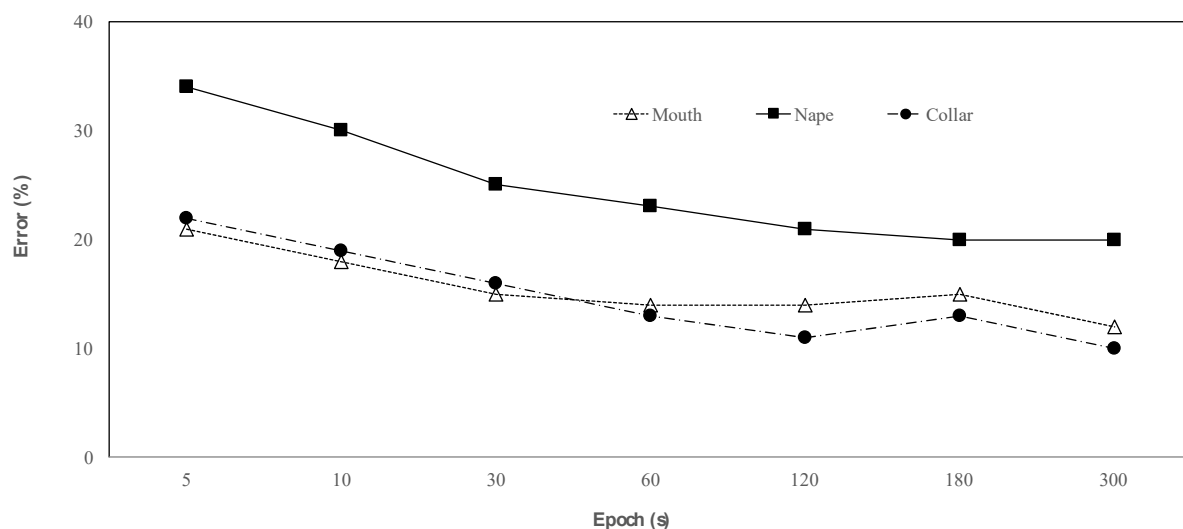
222

Position		Time epoch settings (s)													
		5		10		30		60		120		180		300	
Mouth	GR*	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA
	RU	5.0	6.6	6.6	8.5	9.6	11.1	11.5	12.1	12.5	12.9	12.4	11.2	14.0	13.8
Nape	GR	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA
	RU	4.3	3.3	5.6	4.4	6.8	5.5	7.3	5.7	7.0	6.5	7.1	5.7	6.9	6.6
Collar	GR	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA	RU	OA
	RU	6.7	6.2	9.9	8.3	15.9	11.6	20.4	13.8	23.1	14.4	20.9	13.6	26.7	14.4

223 *GR=Grazing; RU=Ruminating; OA= Other activities

224

225 Collar and nape positions showed a slight reduction of error in assignment passing from 5s to 300s, whereas
226 mouth position presented a quite constant error values in particular after 30s. The lowest value of error was
227 detected in collar position at 300s epoch (Figure 3).



228

229 **Figure 3.** Distribution of errors in assignment of discriminant analysis after bootstrap procedure
230 among sensor positions and epoch settings.

231

232 3.2. Performance of the discriminant model analysis

233 Table 2 reports the performance of DA (**Precision, Sensitivity, F-Score, Specificity and Accuracy**) for the 3
234 behaviour studied (grazing, ruminating, other activities) in the different sensor positions and epoch settings.

235 Considering grazing activity, all performance, a part from sensitivity and F-Score, were higher in collar
236 position in quite all the epochs especially when compared to the nape, while the mouth was intermediate.

237 Sensitivity and, consequently, F-Score were higher in mouth position. As regards ruminating, nape sensor
238 position achieved the best performance for precision and specificity. Sensitivity and F-Score showed lower
239 values in ruminating activity for all positions whereas accuracy was rather high and similar in mouth and
240 collar positions.

241 The best performance of DA model for other activities was detected in mouth and collar position with higher
242 values in mouth at shorter (5s, 10s, 30s, 60s) and in collar at longer epochs (120s, 180s 300s).

243 Overall accuracy and Coehn's k coefficient are presented in Table 3. On average, the highest values of
244 overall accuracy were found in mouth position for 5s, 10s and 30s epochs (79%, 82% and 85% respectively)
245 similarly to collar position (78%, 81% and 84% respectively), while the lowest were reported in nape (66%,
246 70% and 75% respectively). Performance turns around for 60s, 120s, 180s and 300s in collar position (87%,
247 89%, 87% and 90% respectively) that overcame mouth position (86%, 86%, 85% and 88% respectively) the
248 nape position showing the lowest values (77%, 79%, 80% and 80% respectively). The Coehn's k coefficient
249 mirrored the pattern of overall accuracy (Table 3) reaching the highest values in bigger epochs for mouth and
250 collar positioning. The best overall performance of discriminant analysis was obtained using a combination
251 of collar position and 300s time epoch (Table 3).

253 **Table 2.** Performance of the discriminant analysis model at different sensor position and time epoch settings (%).

Position		Mouth							Nape							Collar						
Epoch (s)		5	10	30	60	120	180	300	5	10	30	60	120	180	300	5	10	30	60	120	180	300
Grazing	Precision	84.8	88.2	91.4	92.8	92.5	91.9	95.4	80.2	86.3	87.9	88.1	88.1	87.4	87.4	87.7	91.7	93.8	94.8	95.4	94.2	96.9
	Sensitivity	97.9	98.2	97.7	97.5	98.0	97.6	98.6	91.7	91.7	94.4	95.4	96.1	94.6	92.7	94.0	94.8	96.1	97.6	98.0	98.1	96.9
	F-Score	90.9	92.9	94.5	95.1	95.2	94.7	96.9	85.5	88.9	91.0	91.6	92.0	90.8	90.0	90.7	93.3	94.9	96.2	96.7	96.1	96.9
	Specificity	77.1	81.2	85.7	87.2	86.7	85.0	90.8	64.5	72.0	76.0	76.2	75.3	73.7	73.6	79.3	85.3	88.8	90.2	91.4	88.8	93.9
	Accuracy	88.9	91.2	93.0	93.7	93.8	93.0	95.9	81.1	85.0	87.9	88.6	89.0	87.4	86.3	88.3	91.3	93.5	95.0	95.7	94.8	95.9
Ruminating	Precision	52.1	53.3	55.2	55.2	57.1	50.9	55.9	81.3	77.1	77.0	75.8	75.0	81.8	47.1	40.8	47.5	54.0	61.1	67.1	66.7	66.7
	Sensitivity	36.4	41.6	50.3	55.6	58.5	60.0	57.6	14.5	16.1	18.5	20.0	22.4	27.3	24.2	31.8	36.9	47.3	56.3	64.0	59.4	75.0
	F-Score	42.8	46.7	52.6	55.4	57.8	55.1	56.7	24.7	26.7	29.8	31.6	34.5	40.9	32.0	35.8	41.5	50.4	58.6	65.5	62.8	70.6
	Specificity	94.3	94.5	94.9	94.9	95.0	94.7	94.7	98.8	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.9	96.2	93.6	94.3	95.1	95.9	96.3	96.2	96.2
	Accuracy	85.8	87.6	89.9	90.9	91.3	91.7	90.9	76.7	80.2	82.9	84.7	86.4	88.3	87.4	86.0	87.2	89.9	91.8	93.0	92.0	94.2
Other activities	Precision	76.7	78.6	79.9	79.7	80.6	81.5	80.9	23.4	26.1	39.9	48.2	53.5	56.6	65.1	66.8	64.5	70.5	76.0	80.7	76.6	81.0
	Sensitivity	65.1	67.9	70.8	70.1	68.8	65.5	72.4	46.9	55.7	66.3	69.4	68.5	69.8	70.7	62.5	66.1	69.8	72.6	76.5	72.0	77.1
	F-Score	70.4	72.8	75.1	74.6	74.3	72.7	76.4	31.3	35.6	49.8	56.9	60.0	62.5	67.8	64.6	65.3	70.2	74.2	78.6	74.2	79.0
	Specificity	92.0	92.7	93.1	93.4	93.9	94.3	94.6	77.6	78.7	81.8	84.2	86.5	87.2	89.6	88.7	88.3	90.0	92.3	93.9	93.3	94.3
	Accuracy	84.2	85.7	86.9	87.1	87.1	86.3	89.3	73.4	75.9	79.4	81.7	83.2	83.9	85.6	81.7	82.9	84.9	87.3	89.6	88.3	90.1

254 **Table 3.** Overall accuracy and Coehn’s k coefficient of the discriminant analysis model at different sensor
 255 position and time epoch settings.

Epoch	Mouth		Nape		Collar	
	Accuracy	Coehn’s k	Accuracy	Coehn’s k	Accuracy	Coehn’s k
5s	79 %	0.6	66 %	0.3	78 %	0.6
10s	82 %	0.7	70 %	0.4	81 %	0.6
30s	85 %	0.7	75 %	0.5	84 %	0.7
60s	86 %	0.7	77 %	0.5	87 %	0.7
120s	86 %	0.7	79 %	0.6	89 %	0.8
180s	85 %	0.7	80 %	0.6	87 %	0.7
300s	88 %	0.8	80 %	0.6	90 %	0.8

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257

258 4. Discussion

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260 4.1. Discrimination between behaviour activities

261 CDA significantly distinguished the three different behaviours. In particular, CAN1 accounted for most of
 262 variation in all positions and epochs, thus clearly separating grazing from ruminating and other activities.

263 This result is confirmed by the Mahalanobis’ distances (Table 1) that are greater either between grazing and
 264 ruminating (collar and nape position) or between grazing and other activities (mouth position) than between
 265 ruminating and other activities, *in agreement with findings of Decandia et al., (2018)*. Jaw movements are
 266 surely most frequent in grazing and ruminating than other activities, which includes mainly resting, thus
 267 affecting the sensor especially if positioned in mouth.

268 However, jaw movements from grazing are very different from those of rumination, allowing the DA to
 269 distinguish between these two activities. Grazing jaw movements are actually composed by irregular
 270 sequences of biting, chew biting, chewing and swallowing while rumination is a quiet and regular cyclic
 271 process of regurgitation, chewing and swallowing.

272 VRES represents the variable with the greatest influence on the variation of CAN1, which discriminate
273 mainly grazing activity from the others two behaviours (ruminating and other activities), when the sensor is
274 placed in the animal's mouth and nape (Figure 2). In those positions the sensor is more solicited by jaw
275 movements (mouth position) and head movements (mouth and nape position) than in collar position, in
276 particular in grazing activity that includes various dynamic movements such as biting, chewing and head
277 shaking while lowering the head. For that reason, in mouth and nape position, VRES, which measures the
278 total amount of variation of the acceleration signal through three dimensions, can differentiate grazing from
279 other behaviours.

280 Positioning the sensor in the collar it smooths the effect of jaw/head movements; actually, the variable that
281 showed the highest CC for CAN1 is MX (the mean of accelerations in the axis X) that encompasses
282 movements in the backward-forward direction. The sensor behaves like a pendulum as the animal lower the
283 head while grazes and rips the grass with a blow.

284 Collar and mouth positions showed the lowest errors in assignment (Figure 3) compared to nape position.
285 The low error in assignment in collar position is a comforting result from the point of view of animal welfare
286 being grazing sheep, especially on extensive farms, accustomed to the use of leather collar with the hanging
287 bell. The error in assignment of **accelerometer** mouth position is in line, even if a little bit higher, with what
288 previously found with the same sensor (Giovanetti et al., 2017a; Decandia et al., 2018). The effect of epoch
289 setting on assignment error showed a slight reduction in collar and nape positions, whereas in mouth position
290 it decreased passing from 5 to 30-60s epochs, and then stabilizing (Figure 3). This result partially confirms
291 what was already observed with the same device by Decandia et al. (2018). In that study the effect of epochs
292 was stronger with best results (lowest assignment error) in 30 and 60s epochs, that can be explained to the
293 difference of the forage species tested. In the present experiment, a chicory-based pasture was used. Chicory
294 is a plant characterised by a rosette growth habit and large, tender leaves usually slowly grazed by sheep
295 with high bite mass (as fresh matter) but low bite rate (Giovanetti et al., 2011). Therefore, the discrimination
296 of the behaviours, in particular grazing, probably needs longer epochs.

297

298 *4.2. Performance of the discriminant model analysis*

299 Collar position showed the best performance on the discriminant analysis for grazing activity overall, with
300 the only exception being the sensitivity metric that was better in mouth position (Table 2). In the latter
301 position, a very high proportion was correctly identified (true positive) as grazing, while ruminating and
302 other activities being misclassified (false positive). This may be due to the high detection of the jaw
303 movements in mouth position, being more frequent in grazing activity. Precision and sensitivity in mouth
304 and collar positions were similar to what recorded by Fogarthy et al., 2020 in Merino sheep for grazing
305 activity with an epoch of 10s whereas specificity was lower. A slightly higher performance of classification
306 algorithm, using machine learning techniques, was instead reported by Mansbridge et al., (2018) for grazing
307 using accelerometer and gyroscope sensors attached to collars and ear tags on sheep.

308 Nape sensor position recorded the best performance in terms of precision and specificity for ruminating.
309 Both parameters include at the denominator the false positive (misclassified as ruminating) that for nape
310 position were very few. False negative (ruminating misclassified as grazing or other activities) were
311 conversely high thus affecting sensitivity and, as consequence, F-Score showed very low values in
312 ruminating activity for this position. **Since the sensor fails to capture accelerations caused by jaw
313 movements, but not those of the head, the acceleration amplitude during rumination is smoothed and
314 therefore confused by the DA with movements related to other activities. This is actually demonstrated by
315 the very low precision of other activity.**

316 Accuracy in ruminating discrimination was slightly higher in collar than in mouth position in particular in
317 the highest epochs. The discriminant model analysis showed the best performance in mouth and collar
318 positions in other activities classification (Table 2). Mouth position confirmed best performance at shorter
319 epochs (Decandia et al., 2018) whereas collar position at longer ones.

320 Overall accuracy was higher in collar and mouth than nape position as well as Coehn's k coefficient of the
321 discriminant analysis model (Table 3). The highest overall accuracy of 90 % was obtained for collar data at
322 300s, similarly to what reported by Mansbridge et al., 2018 with a sensor placed in the same position in
323 sheep using a random forest classification model. In another study (le Roux et al., 2017), a collar tri-axial
324 accelerometer in Merino sheep showed instead lower predictive accuracies. Several studies compared
325 accelerometer-sensor positions in sheep, some of them finding different and often contrasting results of
326 classification models (Barwick et al., 2018a, b; Mansbridge et al., 2018). Barwick et al., (2018a) aiming at

327 discriminating normal and lame gait in sheep with tri-axial accelerometers mounted on collars, front leg, and
328 on an ear-tag, recorded best results with the last **sensor** position. The same authors (Barwich et al., 2018b)
329 confirmed the highest accuracy from eartag deployed accelerometer also for standing, grazing and walking
330 behaviours classification in sheep. Classification of grazing, ruminating and non-eating, in another study in
331 U.K. with sheep, using collar data, yielded better performances than ear data (Mansbridge et al., 2018).
332 These contrasting results were explainable by the different aim of these studies and the different behavioural
333 activities recorded. In other papers, the authors did not detect big differences of sensor position in
334 classification models results. Walton et al., (2018), evaluating the effects of position in sheep (ear and
335 collar), sampling frequency (8, 16 and 32Hz) and window size (3, 5 and 7s) of accelerometer sensor on the
336 classification of lying, standing and walking, recorded the best performance using combination of either 32
337 Hz and 7s or 32 Hz and 5s for both ear and collar sensors with negligible differences. The same authors
338 underlined that the differences between ear and collar position could be substantial for other behaviours such
339 as grazing/browsing. Rahman et al., (2018) revealed that different sensor placement in cattle (halter, collar
340 and ear) could achieve good classification accuracy without any important differences. In the current study
341 collar position showed better behavior classification accuracy than mouth and nape position even if the
342 performance of mouth position was only slightly worse. The choice of the position in commercial farms
343 should be mainly based on practical and animal welfare issues, keeping in mind the targeted behavioural
344 activities. Further studies should be aimed at evaluating the accuracy of **accelerometer** collar position for
345 detecting health problems and for bite counting estimation. As for the latter, **accelerometer** device, placed at
346 mouth position, has already shown very good performance either in controlled (Giovanetti et al., 2020) or
347 grazing conditions (Giovanetti et al., 2017a).

348

349

350 **5. Conclusion**

351 The current study found that collar-**attached** more than nape-**attached** and, to a lesser extend mouth-**attached**
352 accelerometers are able to distinguish among the three behaviours studied. Accuracy varied depending on the
353 epoch setting but was always higher in 300s, that should imply a reduction in data recording and battery
354 consumption.

355 The results from this study are promising and could be of significant value for a continuous monitoring of
356 behavior in full respect of animal welfare and health. Placing the sensor in the collar, a widely established
357 practice in grazing sheep wearing collar bells, do not actually disturb the animal and it would allow detecting
358 changes in the eating behaviour of sheep, indicative of health or management problems. These results could
359 potentially contribute to the development of an automated continuous monitoring systems that will make
360 real-time feeding and welfare management possible in dairy sheep.

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362

363 **Acknowledgements**

364 The Government of Sardinia (Italy) for the financial support (Projects CRP-17287 PO Sardegna, FSE 2007–
365 2013 LR 7/2007). The authors are also grateful to S. Picconi and S. Pintus, who gave technical assistance and
366 the other collaborators of the laboratories and farm of Bonassai research station and of the University of Sassari
367 who contributed to this work.

368 **Reference**

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