

Automatic classification system for grazing, ruminating and resting behaviour of dairy sheep using a tri-axial accelerometer

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1 **Automatic classification system for grazing, ruminating and resting behaviour of dairy sheep using a**  
2 **tri-axial accelerometer.**

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5

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12

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 A device based on a tri-axial accelerometer was used to measure behavioural parameters of dairy sheep at  
15 pasture. Short tests were performed in grazing conditions to collect accelerometer data simultaneously with  
16 video recordings of sheep behavioural activities (grazing, ruminating and resting). The raw acceleration data  
17 was processed to create 12 variables: mean, variance and inverse coefficient of variation (ICV;  
18 mean/standard deviation) for the X-, Y- and Z-axis and the resultant at 1-min intervals. A database inclusive  
19 of the 12 acceleration variables and the three behavioural activities detected for each minute was then  
20 created. Three multivariate statistical techniques were used to discriminate the behavioural activities using  
21 the acceleration data: stepwise discriminant analysis (SDA), canonical discriminant analysis (CDA), and  
22 discriminant analysis (DA). Based on the acceleration variables selected by SDA, the subsequent CDA  
23 significantly discriminated the three behaviours by extracting two canonical functions. **The first canonical**  
24 **function (CAN1)** discriminated the grazing activity from the resting and ruminating, whereas **the second**  
25 **(CAN2)** differentiated the grazing from the ruminating behaviour. **After** bootstrap resampling, the DA  
26 correctly assigned **93.0%** of minutes to behavioural activities. **Stepwise** regression analysis was used to  
27 estimate the bite frequency (total number of bites/min) using a subset of acceleration data that contained only

28 minutes in which sheep were grazing. In this case, 15 variables were tested and out of them, only one was  
29 selected, the sum of X-axis value per minute (SX), which explained 65 % of the total variation of the bite  
30 frequency.

31

32 **Keywords.** Feeding behaviour, accelerometer, wireless communication technology, discriminant analysis.

33

34

## 35 **INTRODUCTION**

36 Grazing, ruminating and resting are the main daily activities of ruminants and play a key role in regulating  
37 their forage intake. Monitoring these three activities is important to take management decisions in grazing  
38 systems. According to Hodgson (1982), daily herbage intake of grazing animals is equal to (bites/unit time)  
39  $\times$  (intake/bite)  $\times$  (grazing time). The rate of biting (bites/unit time), i.e. the severing of herbage during the act  
40 of grazing, together with the bite mass (intake/bite), represents the intake rate (fresh or dry matter /unit of  
41 time). The mean rate of biting over 24 h may be calculated from total bites divided by total grazing time  
42 (Penning and Rutter, 2004). The total number of bites as well as the behavioural activities of the animals at  
43 pasture can be estimated by either direct observation or using automatic recording systems.

44 The direct and continuous observation of behavioural activities is labour intensive and time consuming  
45 (Ungar and Rutter, 2006). Automatic grazing jaw-movement recorders set up around the muzzle of animals  
46 based on electric resistance (Penning 1983; Rutter et al. 1997) or a pressure (Nydegger et al., 2011; Zehner et  
47 al., 2012; Ruuska et al., 2016) have been used in discriminating between grazing and ruminating in cattle and  
48 sheep with good accuracy. Sound recording has been also identified as a good method for analysing the  
49 ingestive jaw movements of grazing ruminants (Laca et al., 1992; Delagarde et al., 1999). The method, using  
50 an inward-facing microphone, allows to accurately assess bite rate and, more recently, to distinguish among  
51 bites, chews and ruminating jaw movement, as well as combined chew-bites (Laca and Wallis De Vries,  
52 2000; Galli et al., 2006; Ungar and Rutter, 2006). Other systems based on electromyography provide  
53 estimates of feeding behaviour by positioning electrodes closely attached to the masticatory muscle of the  
54 masseter during jaw movement and measuring electrical potential oscillation in dairy cows (Büchel and  
55 Sundrum, 2014).

56 Recently the use of tri-axial accelerometers, sometimes coupled with GPS sensors (Wark et al., 2007), has  
57 been implemented to monitor cattle behaviour, discriminating among different activities of cows at pasture  
58 such as lying, standing, resting and grazing (Seo et al., 2006 cited by Watanabe et al., 2008), or walking,  
59 drinking and hay intake (Scheibe and Gromann, 2006). Moreover, accelerometers attached to animals allow  
60 the measurement of animal energy expenditure (Halsey et al., 2008; Miwa et al., 2015), travel speed (Bidder  
61 et al., 2012), activity and feeding behaviour (Robert et al., 2009; Moreau et al., 2009; Watanabe et al., 2008).  
62 The most common sampling frequencies used in studies with accelerometer based sensors were 10, 16 and  
63 32 Hz, depending on the frequency of the movement being classified. These instruments usually incorporate  
64 a microprocessor and a memory to store data until the device is retrieved. However some sensors can  
65 incorporate wireless communication technologies, (ZigBee, Bluetooth, Wibree and WiFi), and are commonly  
66 used in sensor network based research works (Aqeel-ur-Rehman et al. 2014). Recorded data can be then  
67 processed to, for example, select threshold values that distinguish the behavioural activities (Moreau et al.,  
68 2009) or develop a quadratic discriminant analysis of transformed variables that automatically classify  
69 different behaviours (Watanabe et al., 2008). Other statistical methods such as the classification tree, k-  
70 means classifier, multiple-model adaptive estimation approaches, and multilayer perceptron (MLP)-based  
71 artificial neural network (ANN) have been also tested (Schwager et al., 2007; Nadimi and Sogaard, 2009;  
72 Nadimi et al., 2012).

73 Despite the growing literature concerning the use of accelerometers in classifying behavioural activities in  
74 grazing ruminants, only few references reported the application of this type of sensors to identify and classify  
75 jaw movements i.e. bites (Chambers et al., 1981; Umemura, 2013; Oudshoorn and Jørgensen, 2013). The  
76 accurate prediction of the number of grazing bites is of great interest to estimate intake in grazing animals  
77 but it remains a challenging goal under field conditions. Automatic bite counts was proposed by Chambers et  
78 al. (1981) in cattle and sheep to distinguish between the ripping of grass and other jaw movements. This  
79 equipment, which combined a micro-switch, an accelerometer and a mercury-switch to detect jaw  
80 movements, head movements and head state (up and down) respectively, showed little difference both in  
81 cattle and sheep in the agreement between direct observation and bitemeter estimates of the number of  
82 grazing bites. Some progress has recently been achieved by Umemura (2013) that found that pedometer  
83 values (counts), obtained by attaching the equipment to the neck collar as a pendulum, are well related to the

84 number of visually observed grazing bites in cattle, even though the determination coefficients may vary  
85 from 0.79 to 0.90. Finally, Oudshoorn and Jørgensen (2013) used a 3-axis accelerometer to record cow bites  
86 and found that the Z-axis had periodic content consistent with the manual bite markings. Their results were  
87 encouraging since the bite frequency automatically recorded was not statistically different from the manual  
88 count.

89 The objectives of this study were: to statistically discriminate the feeding behaviour of sheep into three  
90 different classes (i.e. grazing, ruminating and resting) using an X-Bee tri-axial accelerometer based sensor  
91 and to estimate the bite frequency (number of bites per min of grazing) on the basis of acceleration variables.

92

93

## 94 MATERIALS AND METHODS

95

### 96 *Experimental site and animal management*

97 The study was conducted at Bonassai experimental farm of the agricultural research agency of Sardinia  
98 (AGRIS Sardegna), located in the NW of Sardinia, Italy (40° 40' 16.215" N, 8° 22' 0.392" E, 32 m a.s.l.).

99 The animal protocol below described was in compliance with the EU regulation on animal welfare and all  
100 measurements were taken by personnel previously trained and authorized by the institutional authorities  
101 managing ethical issues both at Agris Sardegna and the University of Sassari.

102 This current study was conducted from the 28<sup>th</sup> of 2013 to the 6<sup>th</sup> of February 2014 over 6 weeks. Three non-  
103 lactating adult Sarda ewes were used in the study with an age of 2.6±0.6 years (mean±standard deviation)  
104 and live weight of 46.0±1.0 kg. Two animals were used as “focal animal” to monitor the feeding behaviour,  
105 the third was used as companion animal.

106 The ewes were kept in a stall and fed ryegrass hay and commercial concentrate in the first three days of each  
107 experimental week. Then, for the subsequent three days, they were accustomed to graze from 0900 to 1600h  
108 one of the experimental plots previously established with monocultures of the following forage species:  
109 alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L., week 1), Italian ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam., week 2, 3), sulla  
110 (*Hedysarum coronarium* L., week 4, 5) and chicory (*Cichorium intybus* L., week 6). These forages were  
111 chosen because they are widespread in Mediterranean sheep production systems and stimulate a wide range

112 of behavioural responses, which have been already explored in micro-sward studies by our laboratory  
113 (Giovanetti et al., 2011). The seventh day of each week (test day), the feeding behaviour of the ewes was  
114 monitored when they were allocated from 0900 to 1600h to a 20 x 20 m observation arena, fenced within  
115 each experimental plot using sheep electric net.

116

#### 117 *Accelerometer device and feeding behaviour recording*

118 On each test day, one experimental sheep at a time was fitted with a halter equipped with a tri-axial  
119 accelerometer sensor, positioned under the lower jaw of the sheep. This device detects the animal's  
120 movements by measuring the accelerations on the X (longitudinal), Y (horizontal) and Z (vertical) axis  
121 (Figure 1).

122 The sensor is inserted in a micro-electromechanical compact system (MEMS) with on-board peripherals. The  
123 central part of the system is an 8-bit high performance microcontroller. It also features integrated modules  
124 such as programmers connector, piezoelectric film element, wireless XBee that can transmit up to 1.5 km.  
125 The power supply of the system is guarantee by a Lithium-Polymer (Li-Po) battery, connected via on-board  
126 battery connector. The acceleration sensor used was the ADXL335 (Analog Devices, One Technology Way,  
127 P.O. Box 9106, Norwood, MA 02062-9106, USA), a complete tri-axial accelerometer with signal  
128 conditioned voltage output. It records both dynamic accelerations, related to changes in the movements of  
129 the sheep and static accelerations ( $-9.8 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ ), caused by earth's gravity. The microcontroller samples raw  
130 acceleration data at a frequency of 62.5 Hz and encodes the data, through an analogue-to-digital converter  
131 with a resolution of 8 bits, into levels ranging from 0 to 255. Then, the microcontroller selects the first three  
132 peaks of accelerations per second and axis. In motionless circumstances, the microcontroller is programmed  
133 to return values equal to zero (static accelerations) for the three axes. Acceleration data were sent by a  
134 wireless XBee system to a nearby computer equipped with an antenna. A software package (DAS Client,  
135 Electronic System), installed on the computer, activates or deactivates the accelerometer device and manages  
136 data acquisition.

137 The feeding behaviour of sheep were video recorded during accelerometer deployment by fixed camera  
138 (Sanyo Xacti VPC-TH1, Sanyo Electric Co., Ltd. OSAKA, Japan). Video and accelerometer recordings were  
139 split into 30-45 min sub-periods during the time on the plots in order to re-align the camera or substitute its

140 memory card. During these recording breaks, the halter with the accelerometer was rotated between the two  
141 experimental sheep. The internal clock of the camera was synchronised with the internal clock of the  
142 computer. This ensured both the camera and accelerometer were synchronized in time to allow accurate  
143 annotation of the accelerometer data after behavioural recordings were made.

144

#### 145 *Preliminary data processing*

146 A file including the three acceleration values for each axis and one of the three behavioural activities  
147 (grazing, ruminating, and resting) per second, based on the recorded videos, was created. Behaviour  
148 activities were classified according to Gibb (1998). Grazing activity included the act of searching for food  
149 while walking with the head down without evidence of biting, or standing still with the head down while  
150 biting and chewing either with the head down or the head up. Ruminating activity included regurgitation,  
151 chewing and swallowing of bolus, in lying or standing position. Resting activity included all other activities,  
152 basically lying down or standing without rumination, and travelling.

153 The mean (MX, MY, MZ), variance (VX, VY, VZ) and inverse coefficient of variation (ICVX, ICVY,  
154 ICVZ) i.e. mean/standard deviation of acceleration data for each axis and per min as well as the resultant  
155 mean (MRES), variance (VRES) and ICV (ICVRES) values of the three axis, per min, were then calculated  
156 according to Watanabe et al. (2008).

157 The video-recorded behaviour of the animals was classified, at 1-min intervals, into one of the three  
158 prevailing activities in each minute between grazing, ruminating and resting, therefore the final dataset  
159 consisted of the three activities combined with the twelve variables concerning acceleration.

160 A subset of data that contained only minutes in which sheep were grazing was extracted from the final  
161 dataset and the number of bites per minute, counted from video recorded files, was added. Three other  
162 variables, the sum of the acceleration values per each axis and per min (SX, SY, SZ), were included to the  
163 subset that, at the end, contained 15 accelerometer variables.

164

#### 165 *Statistical analysis*

166 An exploratory analysis of the final database was conducted using a one-way ANOVA model to test the  
167 effect of behavioral classes (three levels: grazing, ruminating and resting) on each single accelerometer

168 variable. The Bonferroni correction was adopted to control the multiple testing error rate. Three multivariate  
169 statistical techniques were used to discriminate the three behavioural activities: stepwise discriminant  
170 analysis (SDA), canonical discriminant analysis (CDA), and discriminant analysis (DA). All statistical  
171 analyses were performed by using the SAS software (SAS Institute Inc, 2014).

172

173 **Twelve variables** concerning accelerations (MX, MY, MZ, VX, VY, VZ, ICVX, ICVY, ICVZ, MRES,  
174 VRES, ICVRES) and one categorical variable containing the three activities (grazing, ruminating, resting)  
175 **were used in the analysis.** The SDA was exploited to select variables that better discriminated groups. This  
176 step **was** crucial to avoid over-fitting problems when new activities are going to be assigned to one of the  
177 three behaviors. Moreover, considering that the battery duration depends on the amount of data transmitted  
178 or stored, the selection of a reduced set of variables, able to correctly discriminate groups, could partially  
179 solve the battery charge problem.

180 The ability of selected variables in discriminating groups was tested by using CDA (Mardia et al., 2000). In  
181 general, if  $k$  indicates **the** number of groups, the CDA derives  $k-1$  linear equations, called canonical functions  
182 (CAN) that are used to predict the group to which an object belongs. The structure of a CAN is:

183

$$\text{CAN} = c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 + \dots + c_n X_n$$

184 where  $c_i$  are the canonical coefficients (CC) and  $X_i$  are the scores of the  $n$  involved variables. CCs indicate  
185 the partial contribution of each original variable in composing the CAN. In consequence, the higher the  
186 absolute value of a CC, the higher the weight of the corresponding variable in composing the CAN. The  
187 distance between groups evaluated by using the Mahalanobis' distance, whereas the effective groups'  
188 separation was tested by using the corresponding Hotelling's T-square test (De Maesschalck et al., 2000).

189 DA was then exploited to classify objects into one of the involved groups. In practice, the canonical  
190 functions are applied to each object thus producing a discriminant score. An object is assigned to a particular  
191 group if its discriminant score is lower than the cutoff value obtained by calculating the weighted mean  
192 distance among group centroids (Mardia et al. 2000).

193 To validate the derived discriminant functions, the complete dataset was randomly divided into training and  
194 validation dataset in the proportion of four to one. This partition of the dataset was iterated 5,000 times by



195 using a bootstrap procedure (Efron, 1979). At each run, DA was applied to the training dataset to predict  
196 behaviors in the validation dataset and errors in assignment were recorded.

197 To evaluate the performance of DA for discriminating the three behaviour activities, the sensitivity,  
198 specificity, precision and accuracy were calculated, based on the error distribution in assignment, using the  
199 following equations:

200  $\text{Sensitivity} = \text{TP}/(\text{TP} + \text{FN})$

201  $\text{Specificity} = \text{TN}/(\text{TN} + \text{FP})$

202  $\text{Precision} = \text{TP}/(\text{TP} + \text{FP})$

203  $\text{Accuracy} = (\text{TP} + \text{TN})/(\text{TP} + \text{TN} + \text{FP} + \text{FN})$

204 Where TP, TN, FP and FN are true positive, true negative, false positive and false negative counts  
205 respectively.

206 The K coefficient was calculated (Fleiss, 1981) to evaluate the agreement between observed and model  
207 predicted corrected for agreement that would be expected by chance, both for each behavior and overall. The  
208 K values were judged according to criteria of Landis and Koch (1977).

209 The subset of data containing only grazing behaviour was analysed by regressing the video recorded rate of  
210 biting (number of bites per minute) on the acceleration variables (MX, MY, MZ, VX, VY, VZ, ICVX,  
211 ICVY, ICVZ, MRES, VRES, ICVRES, SX, SY, SZ) by using a stepwise model to select the best variables  
212 subset to predict the number of bites.

213

214

## 215 RESULTS

216 Since the variation of each variable was great, especially for maximum values, data were edited by using as  
217 threshold values the mean of each variable plus two standard deviations. After correction, the final dataset  
218 contained 675 minutes.

219 The ANOVA model applied to all variables is displayed in Table 1. Apart from VZ and VRES, for which  
220 ruminating and resting were similar, the three activities were significantly different. The highest values were  
221 obtained for grazing followed by ruminating and resting.

222

223 *Discrimination of behaviour activities*

224 SDA applied to the entire dataset selected **seven** (Table 2) among the twelve original variables. The  
225 subsequent CDA significantly discriminated the three behaviours (Hotelling's test  $P < 0.0001$ ) by extracting  
226 two canonical functions. The variance explained by CAN1 and CAN2 was 0.68 and 0.32, respectively.  
227 Canonical coefficient (CC) values, reported in **T**able 2, show that both in CAN1 and CAN2, the greatest CCs  
228 were for VRES and VZ.

229 Figure 2 shows **that** canonical functions **can** separate the three behavioural activities. CAN1 discriminates the  
230 grazing activity from the resting and ruminating ones, whereas CAN2 differentiates the resting from the  
231 ruminating behaviour. In particular, the lowest Mahalanobis' distance was obtained between ruminating and  
232 resting (183), whereas greater distances were obtained for grazing and ruminating (324) and grazing and  
233 resting (311).

234 **After** the bootstrap resampling, the DA correctly assigned 93% of minutes to behavioural activities. Errors in  
235 assignment, **specificity, sensitivity, precision and accuracy of DA for discriminating the sheep behavior**  
236 **activities and K coefficient of agreement between observed and predicted values are displayed in Table 3.**

237 **The overall accuracy in DA assignment of minutes to the three behaviors was 93%. The precision was 95%**  
238 **for grazing, 94% for resting and 89% for ruminating. The activity with the highest sensitivity (96%),**  
239 **specificity (97%) and accuracy (96%) of classification was grazing. Ruminating and grazing were predicted**  
240 **with the same specificity (97%). About 10% of rumination was misclassified as resting since these two**  
241 **activities are similar for some of the variables considered in the DA (VRES and VZ). Resting activity**  
242 **reported lower specificity (95%) and accuracy values (94%) than grazing and ruminating.**

243

244 *Prediction of rate of biting*

245 **Stepwise regression selected only SX and this explained 65 % of the total variation for rate of biting. The**  
246 **intercept was not significantly different from zero ( $P = 0.66$ ) but the slope (0.06) was highly significantly**  
247 **different from zero ( $P < 0.001$ ).**

248

249

250 **DISCUSSION**

251

252 *Discrimination of behaviour activities*

253 Under the conditions of this experiment, all accelerometer variables had the highest value when the sheep  
254 were grazing, the lowest while resting, being the rumination response intermediate (Table 1). Actually when  
255 the sheep is grazing, all axes are involved in detecting different dynamic movements with a strong  
256 preponderance of vertical axis (Z). Grazing activity is a complex process. The sheep while walking or  
257 standing lower and raise its head to search the herbage, gathers and manipulate the herbage with their lips,  
258 grips it between its incisors and severe it from the sward (biting) often with a jerk of the head (vertical  
259 movement). The herbage severed is then chewed, formed into a bolus and finally swallowed (Penning and  
260 Rutter, 2004). Biting and chewing may be carried out simultaneously as “chew-bites” (Laca and Wallis De  
261 Vries, 2000). This activity determines horizontal, vertical movements of the head and lateral and vertical  
262 movement of the jaw.

263 In ruminating, movements of the head and jaw are more regular related to regurgitation, chewing and  
264 swallowing of merycic boluses. This activity involves lateral and vertical movements of the jaw that are  
265 mainly revealed by the Y and Z-axis of the sensor. Resting activity, which includes sheep lying down,  
266 standing or travelling in absence of jaw activity, reports the lowest values for almost all variables in all axes  
267 with the exception of VZ and VRES values (Table 1) that are similar to ruminating probably because of a  
268 lower variability of vertical movements of the head in these two activities.

269 The SDA selected 7 variables (Table 2) out of the 12 original ones. In particular, all variances (VX, VY, VZ  
270 and VRES) one mean (MZ) and two ICV variables (ICVX and ICVZ) were included in the final model.

271 Watanabe et al. (2008) in a similar experiment involving grazing cows, found that the best discrimination  
272 among the three behaviour classes (95.7% of correct assignment) was obtained by retaining 8 variables: MX,  
273 MY, MZ, MRES, ICVX, ICVY, ICVZ, ICVRES. The above cited authors suggested that mean variables  
274 were effective in detecting body posture (static acceleration) whether the ICV variables detected well both  
275 differences in body posture and movements (dynamic acceleration) for each activity.

276 In the present experiment, means are less important than variances and ICVs in detecting activities probably  
277 because accelerations related to the head and jaw movements are more variable in sheep than in cows,  
278 particularly when grazing. This result is in agreement with Chambers at al. (1981) who reported, similar

279 wave forms of the accelerometer outputs during grazing in sheep and cows but with higher variability of  
280 acceleration and peak values in sheep than cows. The authors ascribed these results in part to the greater  
281 inertia of the cow's head movement and in part to the typical cow's head movement that involves some  
282 circular movement. In sheep, on the other hand, head movement is essentially backward and forward in the  
283 longitudinal axis of the body. Moreover, sheep make greater use of the lips in manipulating herbage that  
284 causes a greater ratio of jaw to head movements than cows. Actually cattle are able to open their mouth  
285 wider than sheep and to increase the grazed area by extending their tongue thus reaching both an higher  
286 herbage mass per bite (bite mass) and an higher herbage intake rate (g DM/min). Parsons et al. (1994)  
287 suggested that the main factor affecting intake rate was the handling time, i.e. the time required to take a bite  
288 of herbage of a given mass and to manipulate and chew that herbage before swallowing it. The higher intake  
289 rate achieved by cattle than sheep is due to a lower proportion of total jaw movements allocated to masticate  
290 herbage during grazing. This is probably related to their higher rumen retention time that allows better fiber  
291 fermentation in the rumen and requires a lower number of mastication jaw movements per bite of herbage  
292 ingested (Van Soest, 1994). It can be stated the sheep have higher handling costs than cows per unit of  
293 herbage ingested that causes a greater variability in jaw/head movements and, as a consequence, in  
294 accelerations.

295 Although sheep have probably a different accelerometer pattern than cows while grazing, part of the higher  
296 variability of the acceleration detected in this experiment rather than in others focused on cattle (e.g.  
297 Watanabe et al., 2008) could be due to the wide range of forage monocultures tested in this experiment. In  
298 fact, these forage species are known to give different foraging responses (Giovanetti et al., 2011) and  
299 probably affect differently the movements and accelerations associated to their biting and chewing.

300 If we look to the contribution of the X, Y and Z-axes to the discriminant function, we can observe that the Z-  
301 axis (vertical body axis) is always represented with the three categories of variables (mean, variance and  
302 ICV). This result can be explained considering that during all monitored behaviours (namely grazing,  
303 ruminating and resting) vertical movements are always performed by the animal.

304 CDA was then exploited to verify if, on the basis of the variables selected by the SDA, minute data came  
305 from different behaviour activities. The CAN1 versus CAN2 scatter plot (Figure 2) displayed a clear  
306 separation among the three behaviours. In particular, CAN1, which accounted for 68 % of total variability,

307 was able to separate grazing from the other two behaviours. This marked difference is confirmed by the  
308 ANOVA results that reported greater values in grazing activity than ruminating and resting. To separate the  
309 ruminating from resting, the second canonical function (CAN2), which explained the remaining 32 % of  
310 variance, is needed. In both CAN1 and CAN2, the variables VRES and VZ showed the highest absolute CC  
311 values (Table 2). This result indicates that the separation of the three behaviours is mainly determined by  
312 those variables. This was an expected result because VRES combines the variances of the three axis X, Y  
313 and Z and VZ is one of the most important **variable** in the three activities. Furthermore, the Hotelling's test  
314 was highly significant for all the Mahalanobis' distances.

315 In our experiment, we **found a precision of 95% for grazing, 94% for resting and 89% for ruminating** (Table  
316 3). This result is slightly lower than what found by Watanabe et al (2008) in cattle who reported 98% of  
317 correct assignment in grazing behaviour, followed by resting (92.8%) and ruminating (92.3%) activity.

318 **An important outcome of the present study is the high statistical agreement (0.89), determined with K**  
319 **coefficient, which represents a measure of fortuity (or not) agreement between observed and predicted by the**  
320 **model for each behaviour (Table 3). Among the three behaviours, grazing showed the highest agreement (K**  
321 **= 0.92). Considering all the performances (sensitivity, specificity, precision and accuracy) in the assignment**  
322 **of behavior activities (Table 3), the results of this validation exercise overall suggest that the technology**  
323 **developed in the present study is particularly appropriate to precisely and accurately monitor sheep grazing**  
324 **behavior.**

325 **Moreover, despite some limitation, the results of this experiment outperform the goodness of fit of the**  
326 **classification of grazing behaviour reported by other authors in sheep, even when no distinction between**  
327 **ruminating and resting was tempted.**

328 For instance, Marais et al., (2014), placing a tri-axis accelerometer device around the neck of the sheep, were  
329 able to identify different sheep behaviours with a high accuracy for standing, walking and running (95.2%,  
330 93.7% and 99.5% of correct assignment, respectively) but grazing was misclassified as lying in 35% of  
331 cases. McLennan et al. (2015), validating an automatic recording system, was only able to distinguish  
332 between active (miscellanea including grazing, walking, standing, ruminating and standing) and inactive  
333 behaviours (lying ruminating and lying) in sheep without giving any indication of the specific activity  
334 performed by the animal. More recently, Alvarenga et al. (2016), positioning a 3-axis accelerometer under

335 the lower jaw of the sheep, achieved 84.3%, 97.3% and 92.9% for sensitivity, specificity and precision with  
336 K of 0.79 in classifying grazing behaviour considering a length epoch of 5 seconds. Although these authors  
337 obtained results similar to ours, they reported an overall lower accuracy (81.9% vs. 93.0%) and were unable  
338 to measure rumination activity, which is of high nutritional relevance.

339

#### 340 *Prediction of rate of biting*

341 The stepwise regression, applied to the subset of the final dataset, selected only one variable, the sum of  
342 acceleration in the X-axis per minute (SX), thus confirming that the head movement during biting is mainly  
343 backward and forward in the longitudinal axis of the body. Our results confirm the difficulty, to count bites  
344 using an accelerometer in field condition, in line with the few studies available in the literature, to the best of  
345 our knowledge.

346 The partial agreement with visual observation (65%) obtained in the regression model is probably  
347 explainable by different reasons such as: 1) the sensitivity of accelerometers could provide undesirable  
348 signals during recording sessions due to head movements not related to grazing activity; 2) the rate of biting  
349 is so high in sheep that is sometimes difficult to capture the single bite event, unless video recording is run  
350 from very close or under controlled conditions (micro-sward trials); 3) the visual bite count includes also  
351 chew-bites that probably produces acceleration signals different from those originated by bites alone.

352 Finally, we cannot rule out that using raw signal analysis of accelerometer data can provide better prediction  
353 of rate of biting or total bite number than using the sum of acceleration values in the X-axis per minute, as  
354 found in cows by Andriamandroso et al., (2015) who obtained a mean error of about 5 %.

355

356

#### 357 **CONCLUSION**

358 Accelerometers combined with wireless communication technology are useful tools to discriminate grazing,  
359 ruminating and resting behaviour activities of grazing sheep. The multivariate statistical approach allowed to  
360 reduce the number of variables that are needed to assign acceleration minutes to the appropriate behavior  
361 classes with a mean accuracy of 93% and K coefficient of 0.89. Some ruminating activities were  
362 misclassified as resting probably because the latter included walking and other non classified activities.

363 The sum of accelerations in the X-axis per minute provides a good proxy of the number of bites per minute.  
364 Better performances could be obtained in the future by processing data with different time epochs and  
365 possibly using raw data instead of minute-based statistical parameters.  
366 Other sensors could be added to this device in order to improve the overall classification accuracy and to  
367 effectively drive the management of pastoral resources.

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500 Figure 1. Halter equipped with a tri-axial accelerometer sensor.

501 Figure 2. Plot of canonical variables (CAN 1, CAN 2) generated from discriminant analysis.

DRAFT

Halter equipped with a tri-axial accelerometer sensor



micro-electromechanical compact system including accelerometer sensor

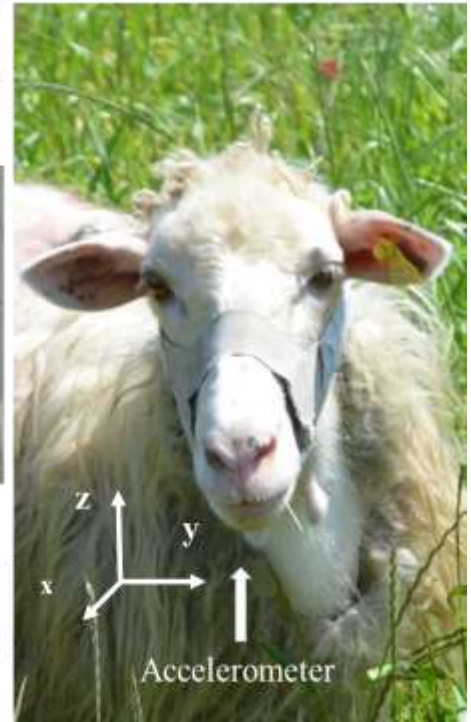


Figure 1. Halter equipped with a tri axial accelerometer sensor.

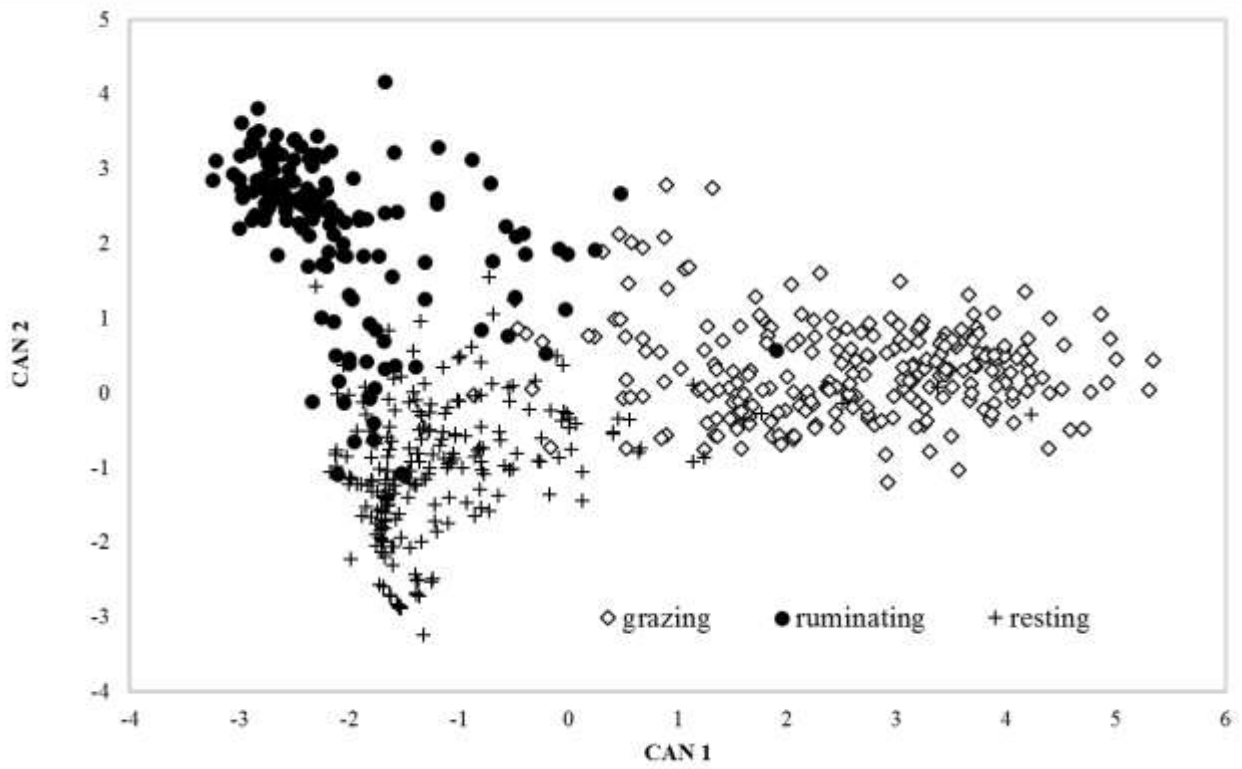


Figure 2. Plot of canonical variables (CAN 1, CAN 2) generated from discriminant analysis.

Table 1. The effect of the behavioural activity classes recorded in grazing sheep on the mean (M), variance (V) and inverse coefficient of variation (ICV) of acceleration values per minute along the X, Y and Z-axis and the resultant.

	Grazing	Ruminating	Resting	P<
Minutes	247	149	279	
MX	3.14±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	1.5±0.07 <sup>b</sup>	0.54±0.05 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
MY	4.40±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	2.74±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	0.78±0.07 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
MZ	6.95±0.11 <sup>a</sup>	1.41±0.14 <sup>b</sup>	0.88±0.10 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
MRES	4.83±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	1.90±0.09 <sup>b</sup>	0.73±0.07 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
VX	29.12±0.65 <sup>a</sup>	9.12±0.84 <sup>b</sup>	5.40±0.61 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
VY	34.33±0.80 <sup>a</sup>	17.44±1.04 <sup>b</sup>	6.69±0.76 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
VZ	113.25±2.93 <sup>a</sup>	6.34±3.77 <sup>b</sup>	14.57±2.75 <sup>b</sup>	0.0001
VRES	62.03±1.28 <sup>a</sup>	11.42±1.65 <sup>b</sup>	8.96±1.21 <sup>b</sup>	0.0001
ICVX	0.58±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.54±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.20±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
ICVY	0.76±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.67±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.26±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
ICVZ	0.68±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.57±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.22±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001
ICVRES	0.63±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.57±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.22±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.0001

Means followed by different letters differ significantly at P < 0.05.

Table 2. Standardized canonical coefficients.

Variable	Can1	Can2
MZ	4.60	-3.084
VX	2.74	-1.72
VY	3.15	-1.51
VZ	12.80	-6.50
VRES	-19.07	10.53
ICVX	-0.56	1.00
ICVZ	-0.28	1.69



Table 3. Distribution of the total error and performance in the assignment of behavior activities, predicted on the basis of accelerometer data.

Observed behaviour	Predicted behaviour			
	Grazing	Ruminating	Resting	Total
Grazing	234	8	6	247
Ruminating	1	133	15	149
Resting	9	9	261	279
Total	244	149	282	675
Sensitivity (%)	96	89	93	
Specificity (%)	97	97	95	
Precision (%)	95	89	94	
Accuracy (%)	96	95	94	93 <sup>#</sup>
k	0.92	0.86	0.89	0.89 <sup>§</sup>

<sup>#</sup> Overall accuracy of the discriminant analysis

<sup>§</sup> Kappa coefficient used as overall coefficient of agreement ( $P < 0.001$ ).