

# *A pipeline with pre-processing options to detect behaviour from accelerometer data using Machine Learning tested on dairy goats.*

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## **ABSTRACT**

Animal behaviour is a significant component in the evaluation of animal welfare. Conducting continuous observations of animal behaviour is a time-consuming task and may not be feasible over extended periods for all animals. Thus, new technologies like sensors and cameras can be used to assess individual behaviour continuously. Combined with Artificial Intelligence (AI), accelerometers are promising to continuously and individually detect animal behaviour from the acceleration signals and characteristics of the behaviour. Such devices are commercialised for cattle but they have not been widely developed for small ruminants. Being able to automatically monitor behaviour at an individual scale represents a crucial step towards an objective assessment of animal welfare.

This paper aims to present the use of a pipeline called ACT4Behav (Accelerometer-based Classification Tool for identifying Behaviours) involving a supervised classification algorithm for automatically characterising specific animal behaviours using accelerometer data, and to explore the best pre-processing steps for each behaviour. This algorithm is designed to be general-purpose and applicable with different species, behaviours and accelerometers. This paper presents the use of this pipeline with eight indoor-housed goats equipped with ear-mounted accelerometers. Rumination, head-in-the-feeder, standing and lying behaviours were continuously sampled from camera recordings for 11 consecutive hours for each goat using The Observer software. The developed pipeline was used to identify optimal descriptive features and data preparation steps for each prediction model, one for each behaviour. A sensitivity analysis was conducted to assess the impact of the processing techniques and parameter value on the resulting AUC (Area Under the Curve) score, used as the performance score of the models. This analysis allowed the identification of the adequate filtering techniques, time-window segmentations, application of various transformations to raw data,

38 and feature selections for each behaviour. Tuning the data pre-processing for each behaviour  
39 enhanced the ability to predict rumination (AUC score=0.800), head in the feeder (AUC  
40 score=0.819), lying (AUC score=0.829) and standing (AUC score=0.823) behaviours. When the  
41 application of the models on goats that did not participate in the training was tested by  
42 training the models on six goats and testing it on the two other goats, the AUC score for the  
43 four behaviours decreased (0.644, 0.733, 0.741 and 0.749 respectively for rumination, head  
44 in the feeder, lying and standing).

45  
46 **Keywords:** animal behaviour, accelerometer, ruminant, dairy goat, Machine Learning, processing  
47 techniques

48  
49 **Abbreviations:** ACCx, acceleration on the x-axis; ACCy, acceleration on the y-axis; ACCz, acceleration  
50 on the z-axis; AI, Artificial Intelligence; AUC, Area Under the Curve; FP rate, False Positive rate; ML, Machine  
51 Learning; PLF, Precision Livestock Farming; RFID, Radio Frequency Identification; ROC curve, Receiver  
52 Operating Characteristic curve; ts, time-series; TP rate, True Positive rate.

## 53 1. Introduction

54 Climate change and global population growth are leading agriculture to evolve and adapt towards more  
55 sustainable systems while ensuring health and welfare, and global food security. Europe is promoting  
56 agroecology as a key concept to transform our agricultural and food system. Despite the high interest of  
57 this transition, the animal will be faced with more environmental variations, and animal welfare could  
58 potentially be impacted. Accordingly, there is a growing societal demand to ensure the welfare of livestock  
59 animals. A further issue is that as farms grow in terms of number of animals and production, it is more  
60 difficult for farmers to care for each individual. Moreover, in these intensification conditions, welfare  
61 assessment represents a complex challenge given the focus of current welfare evaluation protocols on the  
62 herd or on the farming system rather than individual assessment (Winckler, 2019). Animal behaviour  
63 measures are key to assessing animal welfare (Bercksmans, 2014; Buller et al., 2020). For example,  
64 González et al. (2008) showed that feeding behaviour can be used as an early sign in the detection of sick  
65 cows. Feeding behaviour in calves has been used to detect gastrointestinal infections before the  
66 appearance of clinical signs (Svensson and Jensen, 2007). Similarly, a change in the pattern of drinking in  
67 pigs can be associated with a diarrhoea outbreak (Madsen and Kristensen, 2005). Thereby, behavioural  
68 information can provide a valuable indication of the physiological state of animals (Frost et al., 1997,  
69 Hansen, 2015) and can be used as an early sign of variation in animal welfare. Indeed, behavioural  
70 assessment plays a crucial role for farmers in evaluating the health and well-being of their livestock but it  
71 is not feasible for all the animals and over extended periods (Müller & Schrader, 2003).

72  
73 Advancements in technology, particularly Precision Livestock Farming (PLF) technologies, have  
74 paved the way for transformative changes in how we approach animal behaviour assessment (Berckmans,  
75 2014; Vogt, 2019). Real-time and near-time tracking technologies have unlocked the potential for collecting  
76 a diverse range of data over extended periods, encompassing not only production metrics and physiological  
77 states but also behavioural insights (Bailey et al., 2021). These advancements significantly empower  
78 livestock productivity and welfare enhancement, according to Bailey et al. (2021).

79  
80 Multiple sensors have been developed to monitor animal behaviour and the 3-axis accelerometer  
81 has quickly become popular to assess behavioural states in various animal species. These sensors measure

82 changes in an object's acceleration on the three axes (x-, y- and z-axis). As a result, combined with Artificial  
83 Intelligence (AI), commercial devices are developed to quantify livestock behaviour, especially for species  
84 with economic interest (Borchers et al., 2016; Pereira et al., 2018) such as cattle, with CowManager (Agis,  
85 Harmelen, the Netherlands) detecting eating behaviour and rumination, the HOB0 Data Logger (HOB0  
86 Pendant G Acceleration Data Logger, Onset Computer Corporation, Pocasset, MA), the AfiAct Pedometer  
87 Plus (Afimilk, Kibbutz Afikim, Israel) and the Track A Cow (ENGS, Rosh Pina, Israel) to monitor lying time,  
88 the CowAlert IceQube (IceRobotics Ltd., Edinburgh, Scotland) to quantify lying time and detect lameness  
89 (Thorup et al., 2015), and the Smartbow (Smartbow GmbH, Jutogasse, Austria) to monitor rumination time  
90 and to detect oestrus (Schweitzer et al., 2019). Most of these systems are used in the context of health  
91 alteration, for example detection of disease, or of behaviours that could impact animal health and  
92 performance. Since the reliability of these systems is not always reported, it is not possible to adapt them  
93 to other species such as small ruminants. Those limitations suggest that further research is needed to adapt  
94 existing algorithms to a wide range of behaviours on small ruminants based on accelerometer data.

95

96 Riaboff et al. (2022) described the three-step methodology commonly used in the literature for  
97 predicting ruminant behaviour from accelerometer data. These are data collection, data pre-processing  
98 that prepares the data for input in the behavioural classification model, and the development of the  
99 behavioural classification model. Numerous studies have compared various processing techniques and  
100 model development strategies, such as the best features to use (Smith et al. 2016; Kamminga et al., 2018;  
101 Riaboff et al., 2019), the Machine Learning (ML) algorithms (Lopez et al., 2013; Smith et al. 2016; Kamminga  
102 et al., 2018; Sakai et al., 2019), the signal filtering techniques (Riaboff et al., 2019) and the time-windows  
103 size (Smith et al. 2016; Riaboff et al., 2019). To date, no established methodology systematically searches  
104 for the best features and processing techniques to predict each targeted behaviour accurately from raw  
105 accelerometer data. The main objective of this study was to use a pipeline, called ACT4Behav  
106 (Accelerometer-based Classification Tool for identifying Behaviours), that integrates a comprehensive  
107 exploration of each data processing step to determine the best-fitted model for each behaviour, applied  
108 here to raw accelerometer data to characterise certain goat behaviours. To do so, a “sensitivity analysis”  
109 was used to evaluate the impact of variations of key factors at the data pre-processing step. These factors  
110 were filtering techniques, time windows sizes, inclusion of additional time series data, data transformation  
111 methods, and variations in feature selection. The performance score, which assesses the quality of  
112 behaviour predictions, served as an indicator of the model's reliability within the same experimental  
113 context. In this work, the main performance score was the AUC (Area Under the Curve) score. Accuracy,  
114 balanced accuracy, F1-score, sensitivity and specificity were also calculated. However, in this study,  
115 detecting behaviours in goats that were not part of the model's training was also tested to reflect the ability  
116 of the model to generalise across different animals. Moreover, in this study, detection of behaviours in  
117 goats that were not part of model's training dataset was also tested to reflect the ability of the model to  
118 generalise detection of behaviours on data from new goats. The model was trained with a dataset of six  
119 goats and its performance was tested on the two remaining goats.

120

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. Animals

121 Data collection was carried out in the experimental goat unit of INRAE in Thiverval-Grignon, France in  
122 March 2022. Eight indoor-housed dairy Alpine goats were equipped with MSR145 3D-accelerometer (TH  
123 Industrie) sensors that can measure accelerations in the positive and negative directions, with a maximum  
124 magnitude of 15 g. The goats were normally group-housed in a straw bedded area but for the purpose of  
125 having reference measures of feeding behaviour, they were group-housed in the same slatted-floor pen of  
126

127 8 animals for 24 days with continuous access to feed and water. Each goat had its own feed trough that  
128 was released via the electronic ear-tag when the goat allocated to the trough placed its head next to the  
129 antenna. This work was carried out under licence (Apafis number #24314-2019120915403741 v5).

## 130 2.2. Acceleration data collection

131 Goats were equipped with accelerometers attached to the RFID ear tag of the animal (**Figure 1**). The  
132 accelerometers were 27 × 16 × 53 mm in size and weighed approximately 20 g. The accelerometers were  
133 powered with a 230 mAh lithium-polymer battery and were programmed to record the acceleration on the  
134 x-y-z-axis at a frequency of 5 Hz. Data from eight animals was collected for 24 consecutive hours.

## 135 2.3. Behavioural observation

136 Video recordings were made using cameras, one placed above every pen to provide visual information  
137 on the goat behaviour (**Figure 2**). The time of the video recording system was synchronised to the same  
138 time as the accelerometers by manually and vigorously agitating the accelerometers in front of the  
139 cameras. The shake pattern was set as a reference time to match the video recordings to the accelerometer  
140 data. During the observation process, each animal was uniquely marked with a number on its back using  
141 animal spray paint. This numbering system allowed the observer to track and differentiate the goats  
142 throughout the observation. The videos were labelled by a single trained observer using The Observer® XT  
143 software version 16.0 (Noldus Information Technology, 2022), using a pre-established ethogram. The  
144 ethogram of all the annotated activities is available in **Appendix 1**.



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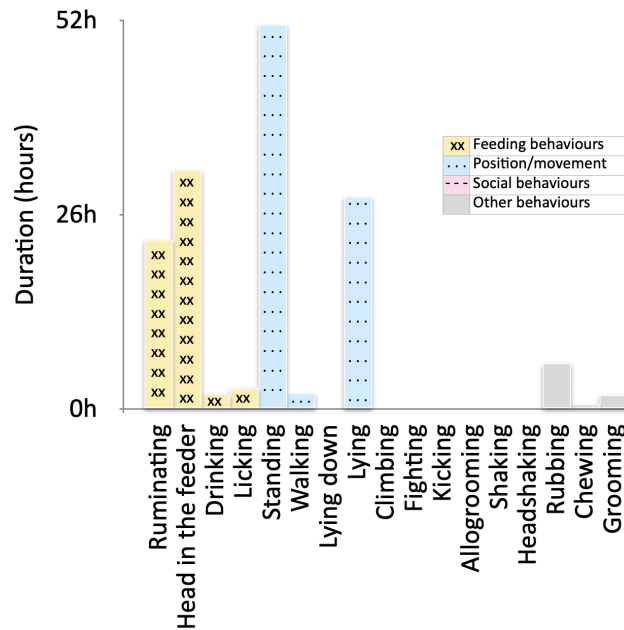
**Figure 1** - A goat with an accelerometer fixed with tape to the right RFID ear tag in lateral view.

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**Figure 2** - Screenshot of the video system above the goat pens. Each goat has a number painted on its back with yellow animal spray paint.

149 The ethogram was designed to describe the goats' activities within this experimental system. The  
150 behaviours were categorised into five distinct groups, ensuring an exhaustive description of all the  
151 activities. These categories included (i) feeding behaviour, (ii) social behaviour covering interactions  
152 between goats, such as grooming and fighting, (iii) position and movement behaviour describing activities  
153 related to the goats' posture and movement, such as standing, walking, and lying down and (iv) the "other  
154 behaviour" category accounted for actions that did not fit into the previous groups. Lastly, the  
155 "disturbance" category captured any unexpected or disruptive events that could affect the goats'  
156 behaviour. It is worth to mention that at any given time during the observation period, each goat was  
157 expected to exhibit a behaviour from each category. The behaviours « ruminating », « lying », « standing »  
158 and « head in the feeder » were selected to develop the classification model because of their large  
159 representation in the observation period to maximise available data for model development, and for their

160 relevance regarding welfare and health status of the animals. In this context, it has been shown that general  
 161 activity levels and time spent feeding are reduced under bad health conditions such as lameness (Thorup  
 162 et al., 2016), while time spent lying can increase. The recordings were analysed only during the presence  
 163 of daylight, which was approximately 11 hours per day for each of the eight goats. **Figure 3** shows the  
 164 cumulative time spent in each behaviour by all the eight goats during 11 hours each.



165  
 166 **Figure 3** - Total duration of the behaviours on video recordings in eight goats during 11 hours each.  
 167 The bars of the histogram are colour-coded according to behaviour categories. On the x-axis are the  
 168 various observed behaviours. On the y-axis, the total cumulative time spent by the eight animals on  
 169 each behaviour.

170 Raw data, i.e. accelerometer data and corresponding behaviours, is available online  
 171 (<https://doi.org/10.57745/LGZBM1>) (Mauny et al, 2024a).

## 172 2.4. Data pre-processing

173 In this section, the different steps of the pipeline that prepare data for use in the ML algorithm are  
 174 detailed. The data was pre-processed separately for each behaviour, resulting in four binary classification  
 175 models, one for each behaviour.

### 177 2.4.1. Additional time-series

178 Additional time-series calculation involved generating supplementary time-series derived from the  
 179 original accelerometer data (acceleration on the x-axis, on the y-axis and on the z-axis). These additional  
 180 time series served to enhance the depth of information available by calculating time-series independently  
 181 from the sensor orientation or time-series related to the two main components of the acceleration.  
 182 Additional time-series were calculated from the raw or filtered acceleration data.

183 *Norm.* The ear placement of the sensors on the identification tag of the animals was made without  
 184 considering the orientation of the sensors. The ear is quite mobile on the goat, making the sensor highly  
 185 responsive to any movement of the animal. Consequently, it was proposed to compute the Euclidean norm,

186 referred to as the magnitude of the acceleration, which is an additional time series that is not affected by  
 187 the orientation of the sensor, e.g. Fida et al., 2015.

188 
$$a_{mag} = \sqrt{acc_x^2 + acc_y^2 + acc_z^2}$$
 with  $acc_i$  the acceleration on the  $i$ -axis.  
 189

190 The magnitude of the signal was calculated to account for the variety of sensor orientations.

191 *High-passed Filtered data.* To focus on the behaviour of an animal, the dynamic acceleration of the  
 192 signal can be extracted by subtracting the static acceleration from the raw acceleration (Lush et al., 2018).  
 193 In the recorded signal, we expect static acceleration to vary slowly and therefore to correspond to low  
 194 frequencies, which can be eliminated using a high-pass filter, as proposed by Smith et al. (2016). The  
 195 performance of the model was evaluated and compared with raw accelerometer data and with filtered  
 196 acceleration data.

197 *Pitch and roll angles.* According to Riaboff et al. (2022), pitch and roll angles are useful to predict  
 198 behaviours that involve different postures and head tilt like putting the head in the feeder, standing or  
 199 lying.

200 *Rotated acceleration data.* To ensure accurate and comparable analysis, a strategy was developed to  
 201 standardise the orientation of the accelerometer. If we consider that the typical posture of a goat is head  
 202 straight and upright, then the goal is to align the data so that the vertical axis (0, 0, 1) corresponds to a  
 203 uniform reference direction. The multivariate median or mean is used as an estimator of the central  
 204 tendency of the data, considering all three acceleration axes, assuming that most of the time, the goat is  
 205 in this typical posture, i.e., head straight and upright. Subsequently, a rotation matrix was computed based  
 206 on the difference between the calculated multivariate median and the desired reference direction (0, 0, 1).

207 These additional time-series were calculated from the formulas indicated in **Table 1**. **Pitch and roll angles,**  
 208 **along with a transformation of the acceleration data, were calculated from each acceleration value and**  
 209 **added as new variables to the dataset.** The influence on the performance scores of the predictive model  
 210 for each behaviour when adding these additional time-series was compared to the performance of the  
 211 model without adding additional time-series (**Figure 4**). Combining the time-series was also tested.  
 212

213 **Table 1 - Additional time-series calculated from the raw or filtered acceleration**

<i>Time-series</i>	<i>Formula</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>Pitch angle</i>	$pitch = \arctan\left(\frac{-acc_x}{\sqrt{acc_y^2 + acc_z^2}}\right)$	<i>Characterises the rotation around the z-axis</i>
<i>Roll angle</i>	$roll = \arctan\left(\frac{acc_y}{acc_z}\right)$	<i>Characterises the rotation around the x-axis</i>
<i>Rotated acceleration data (mean)</i>	$R = rotation_{mean} = [mean(acc_x), mean(acc_y), mean(acc_z)]$	<i>Transformation of the data to standardise the sensor orientation</i>

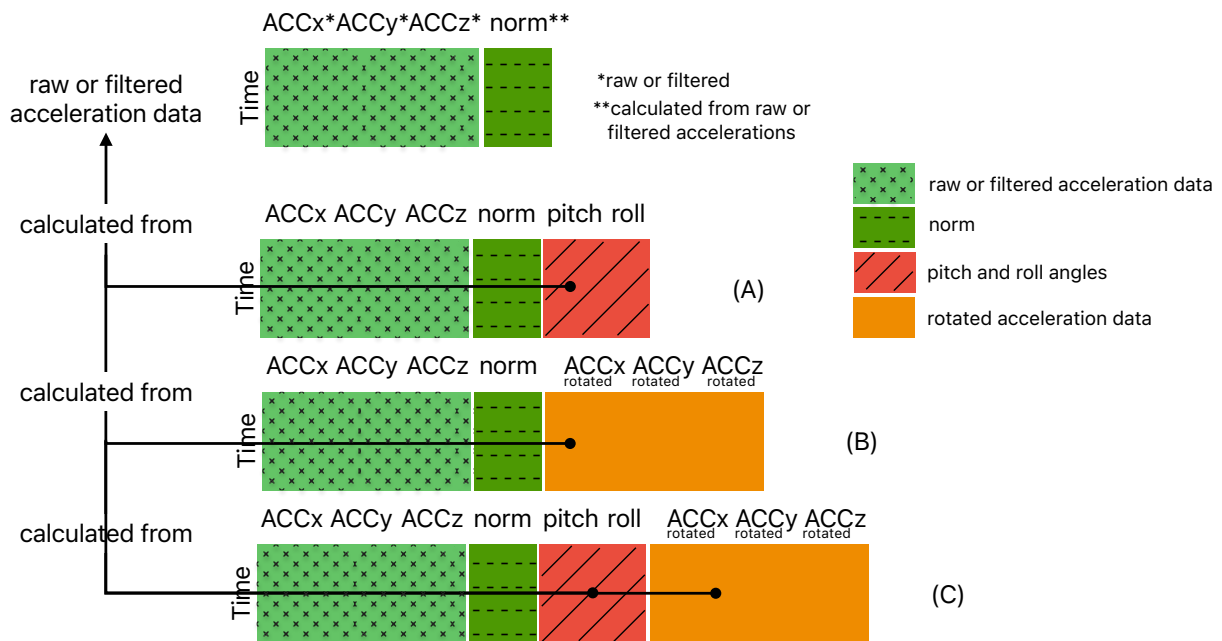
**Rotated acceleration data (median)**

$$R = rotation_{median} = [median(acc_x), median(acc_y), median(acc_z)]$$

$$[acc_x, acc_y, acc_z] * R = [0,0,1]$$

$$acc_{rotated} = acc_i * R^{-1}$$

214 **Note:**  $acc_i$  is the acceleration on the  $i$ -axis,  $R$  is the rotation matrix which is computed based on the mean or the median



215

216 **Figure 4** - Overview of the dataset with raw or filtered acceleration data (light green) and the norm  
 217 (dark green) without additional time-series and overview of the dataset when adding pitch and roll  
 218 angles (red) as additional time-series (A) or when adding rotated acceleration data (orange) as  
 219 additional time-series (B) from raw or filtered acceleration data (light green) or combining them (C).

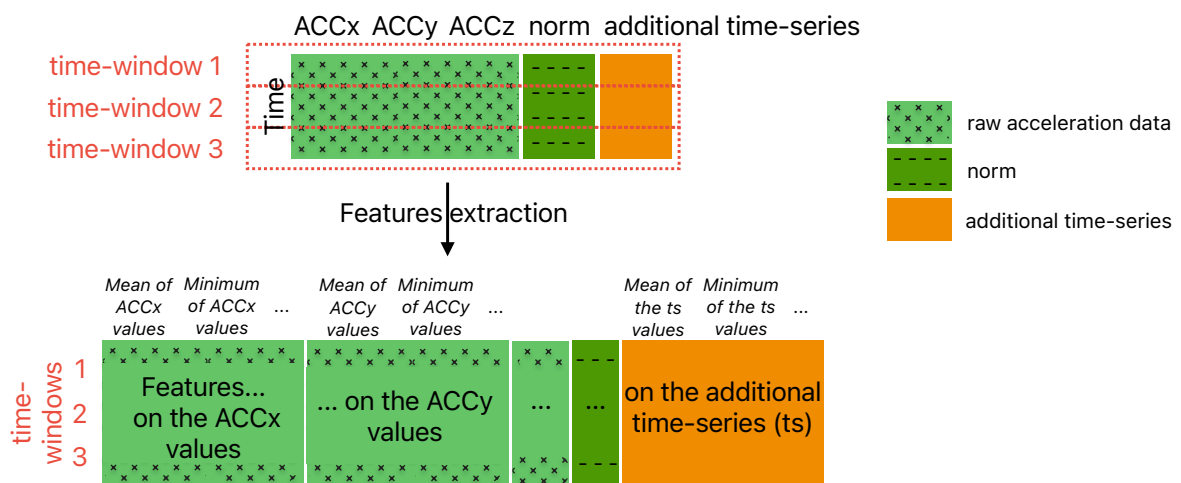
#### 220 **2.4.2. Features extraction and segmentation into time-windows**

221 Predictions were not made on the raw acceleration data: an important pre-processing step is the  
 222 transformation of the raw accelerometer data into 'features', which can be various descriptive quantities  
 223 and which are statistical variables for the ML models. The calculated features constitute the input of each  
 224 ML model. To do so and for each animal, the accelerometer time-series data were segmented into time-  
 225 windows. Each window was the statistical unit of the dataset thereafter and the features were calculated  
 226 on each time-window. The literature on recognizing human activities via accelerometer data highlights a  
 227 diversity of possible time-window segmentations (Bersch et al., 2014) such as fixed-size overlapping, or  
 228 not, sliding window (Pietka, 1988) or variable-size sliding window (Laguna et al., 2011). However, in the  
 229 context of classifying ruminant behaviours, fixed-size windows are predominantly used, mostly without  
 230 overlap (Riaboff et al., 2022). In this study, in order to find which size of time-window gives the best  
 231 performance score for each behaviour, several sizes of time-windows were tested for each behaviour,  
 232 ranging from 10 seconds to 120 seconds. The prediction of a given behaviour was approached as one binary  
 233 classification model, where label 1 corresponded to the behaviour happening during more than 50% of the  
 234 time-window.

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236 In the field of ruminant behaviour prediction, previous studies have relied on a predefined set of  
 237 features in both the time and frequency domains. In this study, an extensive feature extraction on each  
 238 time-serie of the dataset was chosen to explore features that were never considered in previous studies.  
 239 This was followed by a feature selection based on the importance of each feature during the model  
 240 development rather than limiting the number of features before the prediction.

241 A wide range of 777 different features was automatically calculated (Python (version 3.10) package  
 242 tsfresh (Christ et al., 2018)) on each time-window and on each extracted time-series (Figure 5). The  
 243 calculated features are descriptive statistics features (mean, median, standard deviation, etc.), temporal  
 244 characteristics (number of crossings, count above/below thresholds, etc.), value distribution features  
 245 (percentiles, quantiles, histograms, etc.), spectral domain features (features derived from the frequency  
 246 domain using Fast Fourier Transform), pattern measures (pattern counting, entropy-based calculations,  
 247 etc.), signal characteristics (energy-related characteristics), anomaly detection and regression features  
 248 (autoregressive models coefficients, polynomial fitting coefficients, etc.).



249  
 250 **Figure 5** - Overview of the features extraction process of every time-series (ts), i.e. raw acceleration data (light  
 251 green), norm (dark green) and additional ts (orange), and on each time-window (represented in red dashed  
 252 lines) of the dataset

## 253 2.5. Behaviour classification model

254  
 255 In supervised learning, the ML model is developed by training the algorithm on a labelled dataset called  
 256 the training set, where each input data point is associated with a corresponding label, i.e. a behaviour. The  
 257 pre-processed dataset is therefore split into a training set, a validation set, and a test set.

258 For training, the Catboost algorithm (Prokhorenkova et al., 2019) was used, which is an implementation  
 259 of the Gradient Boosting algorithm for classification and regression. It is based on the principle of  
 260 aggregating a large number of decision trees (a flowchart structure where each node represents a decision,  
 261 each branch the outcome of the decision and each leaf a class in classification tasks) that best predict the  
 262 training set with constraints to limit overfitting. Those constraints are given by hyperparameters, e.g. the  
 263 number of leaves, the maximum depth of each decision tree and the minimum number of samples required



264 to be at a leaf node. A thorough hyperparameter tuning was performed using the validation set (“validation  
265 set” in Figure 6; “val” set in Figure 7) and based on the highest AUC Area Under the Curve) score obtained.

266 After training, a model was generated and the validation set (“val”) was used to calculate preliminary  
267 performance scores of the model to tune the hyperparameters. Once the model was trained and tuned,  
268 the test set (“test set” in Figure 6; “X\_test”, “y\_test” in Figure 7) was used to evaluate the final performance  
269 of the model with unseen data: the model predicts the behaviour from the test set data without having the  
270 corresponding labels. Then, the predicted behaviours are compared to the corresponding observed labels  
271 to calculate the final performance score.

272 In this work, two different types of models were developed based on two data split approaches (Figure  
273 6):

274 (1) The dataset was divided based on the time-windows of all goats for sensitivity analysis, meaning  
275 that data from all goats was used during the training of the model and predictions were done for  
276 the same goats on different periods of time.

277 After the data pre-processing, time-windows for each goat were computed and 20% of those time-  
278 windows were excluded to create the test set, the 80% left was split into a training set (75%) and  
279 a validation set (25%).

280 (2) Performance scores were also computed using a goat-based split. In this case, the training was  
281 done on data from a group of goats and predictions were made on another group in the same  
282 context. Two goats were selected for testing, and the data of the six other goats was used to split  
283 the time-windows into training (75%) and validation (25%) sets. A cross-validation technique was  
284 employed using four distinct pairs of goats for testing, meaning rotating the pair of goats which  
285 was going to be used for the test set. For each pair of goats used for the test set, the performance  
286 score of the model was calculated using the AUC score. The mean of the four AUC scores was the  
287 final AUC score of the model.



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**Figure 6** - Dataset splits into training, validation and test sets with a time-windows split approach (1) a goat-based split approach (2).

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The final performance of the models was evaluated using usual evaluation metrics: AUC score, accuracy, balanced accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and F1-score, calculated on the test set with the formulas presented in **Appendix 2**.

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## 2.6. Features selection

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The features\_importances\_ function from the scikit-learn package (Pedregosa et al., 2011) was used to evaluate the importance of each feature. It looks at all the decisions made by each tree in the model. It then figures out which features were most helpful on average for making those decisions and calculates a weight, which indicates the impact of that feature on the prediction. The features are then ranked by their weight, allowing us to keep only a limited number of the features with the highest importance. After the features selection, the performance of the models was recalculated with 2000, 1000, 500, 100, 80, 50, 20 and 10 most important features selected with the AUC score.

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Without features selection, the models were trained with 777 features multiplied by n (the number of time-series in the dataset). Note that the high dimensionality of the data was not addressed in this work, as Gradient Boosting can handle high-dimensional datasets and train models with thousands of features. But by selecting the most important features, it is possible to improve the performance score of the models

307 by focusing on the most relevant ones, and reduce the preprocessing workload, resulting in smaller data  
308 volumes and faster processing times.

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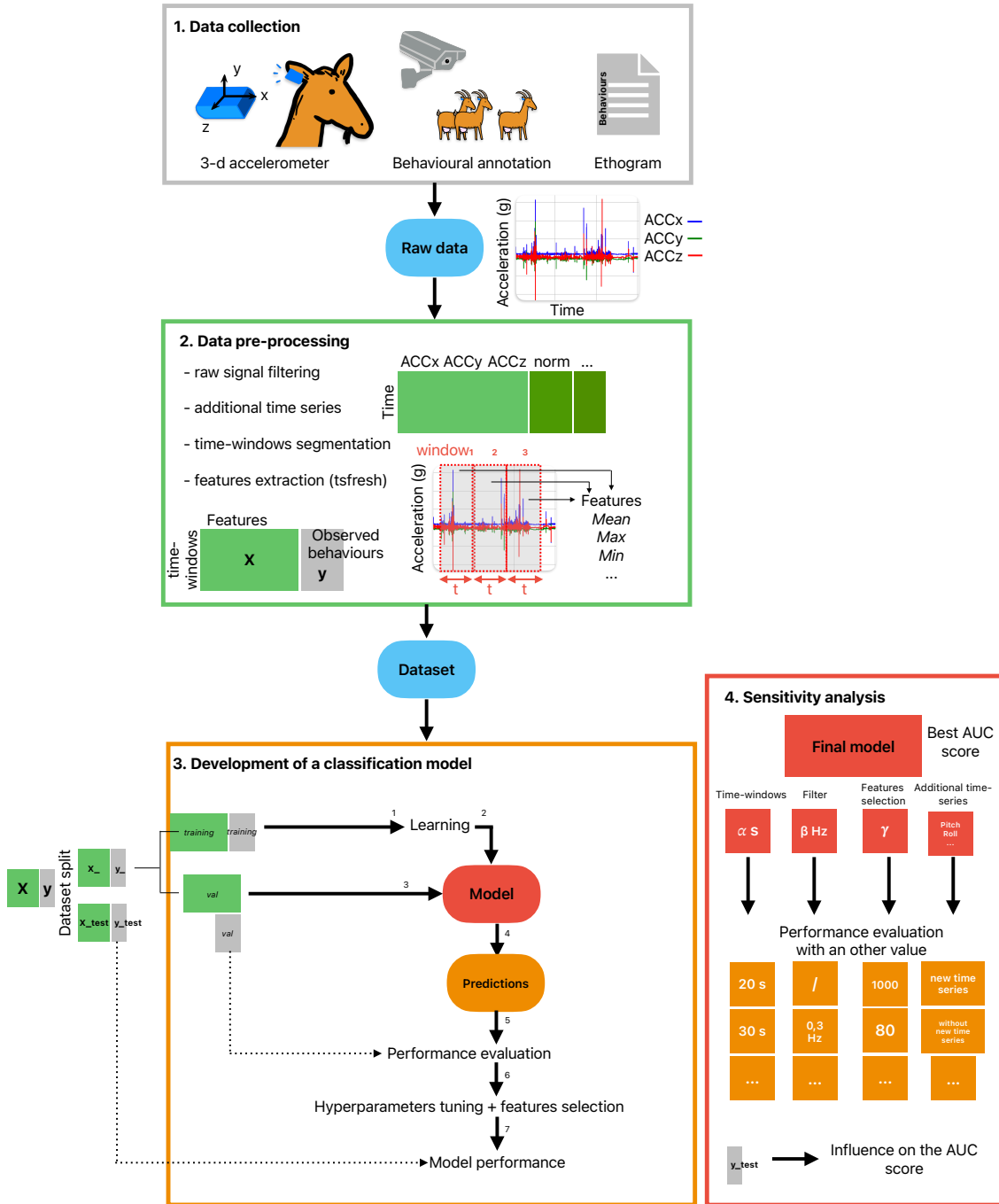
## 310 2.7. Sensitivity analysis

311 Variations in the choices of each pre-processing step and features selection were tested on the  
312 performance score of the models. To do so, the influence of the value of the cutoff frequency of the high  
313 pass filter, presence or absence or additional time series, size of the time-windows and the number of the  
314 best selected features were studied:

- 315 - Raw acceleration data filtering: cutoff frequencies of 0.05 Hz, 0.01 Hz, 0.1 Hz, 0.2 Hz, 0.3 Hz, 0.4  
316 Hz
- 317 - Additional time-series calculation (combined or not): pitch, roll, rotated acceleration data  
318 (mean/median)
- 319 - Size of the time-window: 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80, 120 seconds
- 320 - Features selection: no selection, 2000, 1000, 500, 100, 80, 50, 20, 10 best features selected

321 We used the AUC score as a key performance metric to assess the effectiveness of each pre-processing  
322 option. We tested how variations in the pre-processing steps affected the AUC score. It is important to  
323 note that while commonly used metrics such as accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and F1 score provide  
324 valuable insights into model performance, they are threshold-dependent. When working with binary  
325 classification problems, the predicting models gives prediction probabilities in output. To calculate the  
326 accuracy for example, a fixed threshold set at 0.5 classifies the prediction probabilities into 0 when lower  
327 than 0.5 and 1 when higher than 0.5. Then, it compares the true labels of the samples with the predicted  
328 labels and calculates the accuracy. The AUC score measures the area under the Receiver Operating  
329 Characteristic (ROC) curve, which plots the True Positive (TP) rate (sensitivity) against the False Positive  
330 (FP) rate across various threshold values. Accordingly, the AUC score provides a single measure to evaluate  
331 model performances that can be used to determine which model is better on average. A value above 0.70  
332 is considered to be a “strong model”, while a value below 0.60 is considered to be a “weak model” (Kelleher  
333 et al., 2020). A value of 1 would mean a perfect classification.

334 The different steps of model development are represented in **Figure 7**.



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**Figure 7** - Flowchart representing the pipeline of the process of raw acceleration data and associated behaviours processing to automatic predictions and sensitivity analysis of the pre-processing steps. The data collection (1.) is described in the sections 2.1, 2.2 & 2.3. The data pre-processing (2.) is presented in section 2.4. The development of the model (3.) is explained in section 2.5. The sensitivity analysis (4.) methodology is presented in section 2.7.

344

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Sensitivity analysis

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346 The behaviour "ruminating" is used as an illustrative example to present the results in detail. The results  
347 of "head in the feeder", "lying" and "standing" behaviours are presented in **Appendices 3, 4 and 5**.

349 For rumination, the best AUC score (0.800) was obtained with a 10 and 20 seconds time window (**Table**  
350 **2**), no filtering (**Table 3**), three additional time-series (median rotated data, pitch and roll series (**Table 4**)  
351 and a selection of the 100 first-best features (**Table 5**).

352 **Table 2** Classification performance for the behaviour "ruminating" using the algorithm with different  
353 selected time-window sizes.

Time-window sizes (s)	AUC
10	0.800
20	0.800
30	0.792
40	0.790
50	0.773
60	0.746
80	0.795
120	0.782

354

355 **Table 3** Classification performance for the behaviour "ruminating" using the algorithm with different  
356 cut-off frequencies.

Cut-off frequencies (Hz)	AUC
No filtering	0.800
0,01	0.749
0,05	0.741
0,1	0.734
0,2	0.731
0,3	0.747
0,4	0.762

357

358 **Table 4** Classification performance for the behaviour "ruminating" using the algorithm with and  
359 without additional time-series.

Additional time-series	AUC
None	0.769
Euler angles	0.774
Rotated acceleration data (mean)	0.797

Rotated acceleration data (median) 0.798

Rotated acceleration data (mean) + Euler angles 0.781

Rotated acceleration data (median) + Euler angles 0.800

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**Table 5** Classification performance for the behaviour “ruminating” using the algorithm with features selection.

Number of the best features selected	AUC
6993 (no features selection)	0.791
2000	0.792
1000	0.796
500	0.799
100	0.800
80	0.799
50	0.792
20	0.797
10	0.764

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373 The optimal pre-processing steps and features selection for each behaviour and their scores are  
 374 presented in **Table 6**. The pre-processing treatments listed in **Table 6** are those who give the best AUC  
 375 score for each behaviour. Accuracy, balanced accuracy, F1-score, sensitivity, and specificity of each model  
 376 are also mentioned.

377 **Table 6** Optimal processing steps for the four chosen behaviours with performance scores

	<b>Ruminating</b>	<b>Head in the feeder</b>	<b>Lying</b>	<b>Standing</b>
Time-windows size (s)	20	60	50	60
Raw acceleration filtering (Hz)	/	/	/	/
Additional time-series	Median + Euler angles	Mean + Euler angles	Mean + Euler angles	Euler angles
Features selection	100 best features	80 best features	80 best features	80 best features
AUC score	0.800	0.819	0.829	0.823
Accuracy (%)	78.7	73.7	78.1	74.6
Balanced accuracy (%)	70.6	73.8	76.5	70.3
F1-score (%)	56.3	67.7	70.6	81.5
Sensitivity (%)	54.2	74.3	69.8	95.4
Specificity (%)	58.6	62.2	71.3	71.2

378

379 The highest AUC score was obtained with 20 seconds time-windows for “ruminating”, 60 seconds for  
 380 “head in the feeder” and for “standing”, and 50 seconds for “lying”. The acceleration data filtering did not  
 381 improve the AUC score of the four behaviours. The Euler angles improved the AUC scores of the four  
 382 behaviours. The rotated acceleration data improved the AUC scores of “ruminating”, “head in the feeder”  
 383 and “lying” behaviours. For “head in the feeder”, “lying” and “standing” behaviours, the 80 best features  
 384 were sufficient to achieve the best predictive AUC score while the 100 best features were necessary for  
 385 “ruminating”.

### 386 **3.2. Feature importance**

387

388 The most important feature of each model for the prediction of the behaviour is the sum of reoccurring  
 389 values calculated on the rotated ACCx (acceleration on the x-axis) for “ruminating”. The sum of reoccurring  
 390 values identifies values that recur within the dataset, like a pattern.

391 The permutation entropy calculated on the rotated ACCz (acceleration on the z-axis) is the most  
 392 important feature for “head in the feeder” and the permutation entropy calculated on the norm is the most  
 393 important feature for “lying”. Permutation entropy is a measure of the complexity or unpredictability of a

394 time series. This feature belongs to the pattern measures category as it quantifies the amount of  
395 randomness in the sequence of observations.

396 The complexity estimate based on the Lempel-Ziv compression algorithm calculated on ACCz is the most  
397 important feature for “standing”. It converts the acceleration values of each time-window into binary  
398 values and measures the repetitiveness of binary sequences to detect a repetitive pattern.

### 399 3.3. Behaviour prediction with goat-based split approach

400

401 A decrease in the AUC scores for the four behaviours was observed when training each model with a  
402 goat-based split approach (**Table 7**). The most important decrease was obtained for “rumination” (-19.5%),  
403 dropping from 0.800 to 0.644. “Head in the feeder” and “lying” decreased by 10.5% and 10.6% respectively  
404 and standing by -9.0%.

405 **Table 7** Performance score of the four behaviours with a goat-based split approach and cross-  
406 validation

	Rumination	Head in the feeder	Lying	Standing
AUC score with a goat-split approach	0.644	0.733	0.741	0.749
AUC score with a time-window-split approach	0.800	0.819	0.829	0.823
Percentage change	-19.5%	-10.5%	-10.6%	-9.0%

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## 4. Discussion

409 This paper describes a supervised classification algorithm for automatically characterising four goat  
410 behaviours using accelerometer data. These behaviours were well represented in the dataset and are often  
411 well predicted in the literature in small ruminants like sheep with accuracies above 90% and/or f1-scores  
412 above 75% for standing and lying (Mansbridge et al., 2018; Walton et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2020) and  
413 ruminating (Hu et al., 2020; Decandia et al., 2021). Transitional behaviours or rare behaviours were  
414 observed but their short duration and low frequencies of occurrence made them impossible for supervised  
415 learning models to predict in the present dataset. Moreover, applying the presented pipeline in similar  
416 contexts during different periods or in different farms could be useful to detect similarities in the key  
417 factors for predicting certain behaviours. For instance, the present experiment was carried out on slatted-  
418 floor (commonly used in feeding trials) but other housing environments exist such as straw-bedded floor.  
419 The four behaviours could be expressed with a different acceleration pattern on straw and other  
420 behaviours might have been restrained on slatted-floor. This highlights the importance of the farm context  
421 that can influence animal behaviour.

422 The use of a goat-based split approach allows for evaluating the robustness of the model (Rahman et  
423 al., 2018). When training was done using different animals, a decrease in the AUC score was observed,  
424 particularly for rumination; AUC decreased from 0.800 to 0.644. This indicates a limited generalizability in  
425 predicting those behaviours on goats that did not participate in the training, which is the biggest challenge  
426 for developing long-term behavioural monitoring systems because the goal is to avoid using behavioural



427 observation. The difficulty lies in the high individual variability of the expressed behaviours, the available  
428 training data was not sufficient to train a strong model that can be used on goats that did not participate  
429 in the training in this farm context; training and testing and on a small dataset gathered in the same context  
430 is not enough to develop strong models. However, our work establishes a practical pipeline to pre-pre-  
431 processed data and generate models with data collected in several contexts. Using the pipeline to pre-  
432 process new datasets could allow to train afterwards stronger models from larger training datasets. The  
433 developed models show the potential of accelerometer data to reliably predict certain goat behaviours.

434 The analysis of the impact of using different selected values at each pre-processing step helps to  
435 identify the optimal parameters for each model. In the literature, the effect of the window size varies  
436 greatly from one study to another, from a few seconds (Robert et al., 2009) to several minutes (Vazquez-  
437 Diosdado et al., 2019). In our work, the best AUC scores were obtained with different time-window sizes  
438 depending on the considered behaviour (10 or 20 seconds for "ruminating"; 60 seconds for "head in the  
439 feeder" and "standing"; 50 seconds for "lying"). The 20 seconds time-window was selected for  
440 "ruminating" for faster computation. The size of the time-window can be explained as a trade-off between  
441 the greater amount of information that can be encompassed by a large time-window and the risk that a  
442 too large time-window would contain more than one behaviour being expressed (Banos et al., 2014). The  
443 challenge is to find the ideal window size, which the average duration of the predicted behaviour could  
444 also explain. The shorter the duration of the bout of behaviour, the smaller the window should be, and this  
445 relationship is influenced by the data acquisition frequency. A higher data acquisition frequency should  
446 allow to capture more details in acceleration patterns, which may result in better performance scores.  
447 Especially that the experimental context can interfere on the apparition and duration of a behaviour and  
448 have repercussions on the ideal size of the time-windows. Results show that a large time window is better  
449 for "head in the feeder" while a small time window seems to lead to the best score for "rumination". This  
450 could partly be explained by the fact that animals spend a longer time at the feeder after the feed delivery,  
451 while rumination corresponds to shorter events, often interrupted.

452 Filtering the data seems to decrease the model performance. Although it can appear that ear-mounted  
453 accelerometer signals are likely to be noisy (Chapa et al., 2020), filtering the signal does not seem to  
454 improve the performance of the prediction model in the case of animal behaviour prediction (Riaboff et  
455 al., 2019). In our study, and for the four behaviours, data filtering systematically decreased the AUC scores.  
456 High-pass filter excluding the low frequencies of the signal removes information from the signal that seems  
457 useful to predict the four behaviours. We conclude that the orientation of the static acceleration provided  
458 by raw acceleration data is useful to predict rumination, and lying and standing positions. Moreover, for  
459 each tested cut-off frequency, very low frequencies are filtered and thus, there are no major effects of the  
460 tested filters on the AUC scores. In several papers, calculating additional time-series like pitch and roll  
461 improved the performance prediction as it represents the rotation around two axes due to changes in  
462 position (Lush et al., 2018 during urination events in sheep; Vazquez-Diosdado et al., 2019 for walking, lying  
463 and standing behaviours in sheep). It approximates the head/body inclination during the expressed  
464 behaviour and thus is useful for predicting behaviours involving different postures and body/head tilt  
465 (Zobel et al., 2015, Lush et al., 2018). Pitch and roll enhanced the AUC score of the four behaviours in the  
466 present study, which often induce a unique head position. During rumination and standing, goats keep  
467 their head still and upright. When they have their head in the feeder, the head is mostly down, while they  
468 eat the food. During lying behaviour, goats can keep their head upright when ruminating or just observing  
469 their environment. They can also put their head down on another goat to rest or under their own body,  
470 inducing a few head movements. Moreover, additional time series enriches the features set, as tsfresh  
471 calculates several features on each time-series of the data. These features effectively decompose the  
472 original time-series into components that are not simply linear transformations but which capture more  
473 complex facets like non-linear entropic measures to quantify the complexity, unpredictability, or

474 irregularity of a time series for example. The most important features for “head in the feeder” and “lying”  
475 were features that calculate the permutation entropy on the z-axis rotated acceleration and on the norm  
476 respectively. This feature captures the complexity of a dynamic system by characterising the order relations  
477 between values of a time series (Henry & Judge, 2019). For instance, when comparing the means of the  
478 permutation entropy calculated on the norm when the goat was lying or not, the mean value for lying  
479 events ( $4.3\pm 0.3$ ) was lower than the one for non-lying events ( $4.5\pm 0.1$ ) (**Appendix 6**). This suggests that  
480 during lying events, the pattern in the time series data tends to be more predictable, it has higher order  
481 relations compared to periods without lying events, and it fits with the common intuition that lying is a  
482 mostly static behaviour. Generating a large set of features shows the potential for reliable predictors of  
483 these behaviours.

484 In this study, the AUC score was selected as the primary evaluation metric over accuracy, balanced  
485 accuracy, F1-score, specificity, and sensitivity. According to López et al. (2013), the AUC score is a  
486 comprehensive measure of classifier performance, encompassing the other metrics cited and providing a  
487 reliable measure to identify which model is better on average. AUC score is recommended when dealing  
488 with imbalanced data and when aiming to achieve good quality results for both classes, i.e., the presence  
489 of the behaviour or not (López et al., 2013), without being threshold-dependent. Therefore, the search for  
490 the best pre-processing steps focuses on improving the AUC score. Few studies use AUC score as the  
491 referential performance metric. Strong results have been obtained in cows, for example Cabezas et al.  
492 (2022) for rumination (AUC=0.967) and lying (AUC=0.894); Shen et al. (2020) obtained a score of 0.959 for  
493 feeding and rumination. In sows, Escalante et al. (2013) obtained an AUC score of 0.872 for feeding  
494 behaviour and 0.787 for lying. No studies on small ruminants used this metric to evaluate the performance  
495 of the model. The AUC scores of the models developed with a split based on the time-windows of all goats  
496 when predicting “ruminating”, “head in the feeder”, “standing” and “lying” were 0.800, 0.819, 0.829 and  
497 0.823 respectively.

## 498 **5. Conclusion**

499 This study aimed to develop a supervised classification algorithm to characterise goat behaviour  
500 automatically using accelerometer data. It involved a comprehensive analysis of various pre-processing  
501 techniques, parameter values, and feature sets to identify optimal configurations for behaviour prediction.  
502 Segmenting data into time windows and the computation of features based on the time series enriched  
503 the dataset, contributing to better describing the signal and improving the predictive capabilities of the  
504 model. While the model showed good performance in predicting “ruminating”, “head in the feeder” and  
505 posture behaviours, challenges were found in achieving acceptable scores when training involved different  
506 animals than the animals used for prediction. Collecting data on a small number of animals limits the  
507 prediction capacity of the model. The developed pipeline in this paper is freely available online  
508 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12624785>) (Mauny et al, 2024b) and lays a foundation to gather  
509 supplementary data for automated behaviour recognition using accelerometer data with automatic  
510 features calculation and selection. Its use is described in a datapaper (Mauny et al., in prep).

## 511 **6. Appendices**

**Appendix 1** Ethogram of the observed activities in the experimental setup.

<b>Behaviour</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Behaviour</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Standing</b>	Position	<i>The animal is standing still, all four limbs are on the ground. Occasionally, one limb may be raised, and the animal occasionally moves its head.</i>	<b>Kicked</b>	Social	<i>The animal is targeted by another animal. It receives a headbutt to its head or another part of the body.</i>
<b>Walking</b>	Position	<i>At least two limbs are in motion.</i>	<b>Fighting</b>	Social	<i>The animal fights with another individual. The animal headbutts the head or body of the other animal. The animal may rise on its hind legs and then fall back before headbutting another individual.</i>
<b>Lying down</b>	Position	<i>The goat first places its two front legs, knees on the ground, then the hindquarters fall down.</i>	<b>Allogrooming</b>	Social	<i>The animal's muzzle makes contact with the body of another animal.</i>
<b>Lying</b>	Position	<i>The animal is lying down and still, occasionally moving its head.</i>	<b>Other social interaction</b>	Social	<i>Social interaction not mentioned above.</i>
<b>Standing up</b>	Position	<i>The goat positions itself on its knees, forearms on the ground, and then lifts its hindquarters to stand up.</i>	<b>None</b>	Social	<i>No social interaction.</i>
<b>Climbing</b>	Position	<i>The goat places its front legs on a surface or an object.</i>	<b>Shaking</b>	Other	<i>The animal shakes its entire body vigorously and then often briefly shakes its head as a second step.</i>
<b>Milking</b>	Position	<i>The animal has left the pen to go for milking.</i>	<b>Head shaking</b>	Other	<i>The animal shakes its head only.</i>
<b>Other position</b>	Position	<i>Position or movement not mentioned above.</i>	<b>Rubbing</b>	Other	<i>The animal rubs its body against the barrier and moves forward while continuing to press its body against it.</i>
<b>Non-visible</b>	Position	<i>The movement/position of the animal cannot be determined with certainty or is not visible, incomplete...</i>	<b>Chewing</b>	Other	<i>Nibbles on something (anything that is not food or another goat).</i>
<b>Head in the feeder</b>	Feeding	<i>The animal opens its gate by placing its head in it.</i>	<b>Grooming</b>	Other	<i>The animal scratches or licks itself.</i>
<b>Drinking</b>	Feeding	<i>The animal has its muzzle in the water trough.</i>	<b>Scratching</b>	Other	<i>The goat uses one of its hind legs to scratch the front part of its body.</i>
<b>Ruminating</b>	Feeding	<i>The animal chews for a while. The regular jaw movements accompanied by ear movement can be observed, periodically interrupted by the swallowing of the bolus.</i>	<b>Other behaviour</b>	Other	<i>Other behaviour not mentioned above.</i>
<b>Salt block</b>	Feeding	<i>The animal licks the salt block.</i>	<b>None</b>	Other	<i>No other behaviour.</i>
<b>None</b>	Feeding	<i>The animal is not eating, does not have its muzzle in the water trough, and is not ruminating.</i>	<b>None</b>	Other	<i>No other behaviour.</i>
<b>Other feeding behaviour</b>	Feeding	<i>Feeding behaviour not mentioned above.</i>	<b>Disturbance yes</b>	Disturbance	<i>An unexpected/abnormal event occurs; an individual enters the device, noise, camera obstructed...</i>
			<b>No disturbance</b>	Disturbance	<i>Nothing abnormal/unexpected to report.</i>

**Appendix 2** Confusion matrix (a) and performance model evaluation metrics (b)

(a)

	Positive	Negative
Positive	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
Negative	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

(b)

<i>Metric</i>	<i>Formula</i>
<i>Accuracy</i>	$\frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$
<i>Sensitivity (recall)</i>	$\frac{TP}{FN + TP}$
<i>Specificity</i>	$\frac{TN}{TN + FP}$
<i>Balanced accuracy</i>	$\frac{(\text{sensitivity} + \text{specificity})}{2}$
<i>Precision</i>	$\frac{TP}{TP + FP}$
<i>F1-score</i>	$2 * \frac{\text{recall} * \text{precision}}{\text{recall} + \text{precision}}$
<i>AUC score</i>	Area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve

**Appendix 3** Classification performance for “head in the feeder” using the Catboost algorithm with different selected time-window sizes (i), cut-off frequencies (ii), additional time-series (iii), numbers of selected features (iv).

Time-window sizes (s)	10	20	30	40	50	60	80	120
AUC score	0.772	0.779	0.775	0.779	0.784	0.819	0.770	0.773

Cut-off frequencies (Hz)	No filtering	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
AUC score	0.819	0.746	0.784	0.782	0.775	0.785	0.793

Additional time-series	None	Euler angles	Rotated acc data (mean)	Rotated acc data (median)	Rotated acc data (mean) + Euler angles	Rotated acc data (median) + Euler angles
AUC score	0.797	0.795	0.815	0.775	0.819	0.774

Number of the best features selected	6993 (no selection)	2000	1000	500	100	80	50	20	10
AUC score	0.816	0.817	0.819	0.818	0.818	0.819	0.817	0.808	0.792

**Appendix 4** Classification performance for “lying” using the Catboost algorithm with different selected time-window sizes (i), cut-off frequencies (ii), additional time-series (iii), numbers of selected features (iv).

Time-window sizes (s)	10	20	30	40	50	60	80	120
AUC score	0.809	0.789	0.780	0.787	0.829	0.817	0.801	0.775

Cut-off frequencies (Hz)	No filtering	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
AUC score	0.829	0.764	0.767	0.774	0.782	0.776	0.803

Additional time-series	None	Euler angles	Rotated acc data (mean)	Rotated acc data (median)	Rotated acc data (mean) + Euler angles	Rotated acc data (median) + Euler angles
AUC score	0.829	0.764	0.784	0.792	0.829	0.790

Number of the best features selected	6993 (no feature selection)	2000	1000	500	100	80	50	20	10
AUC score	0.822	0.822	0.826	0.826	0.825	0.829	0.823	0.811	0.810

**Appendix 5** Classification performance for “standing” using the Catboost algorithm with different selected time-window sizes (i), cut-off frequencies (ii), additional time-series (iii), numbers of selected features (iv).

Time-window sizes (s)	10	20	30	40	50	60	80	120
AUC score	0.790	0.799	0.820	0.774	0.804	0.823	0.802	0.801

Cut-off frequencies (Hz)	No filtering	0.01	0.05	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4
AUC score	0.823	0.808	0.797	0.772	0.780	0.792	0.798

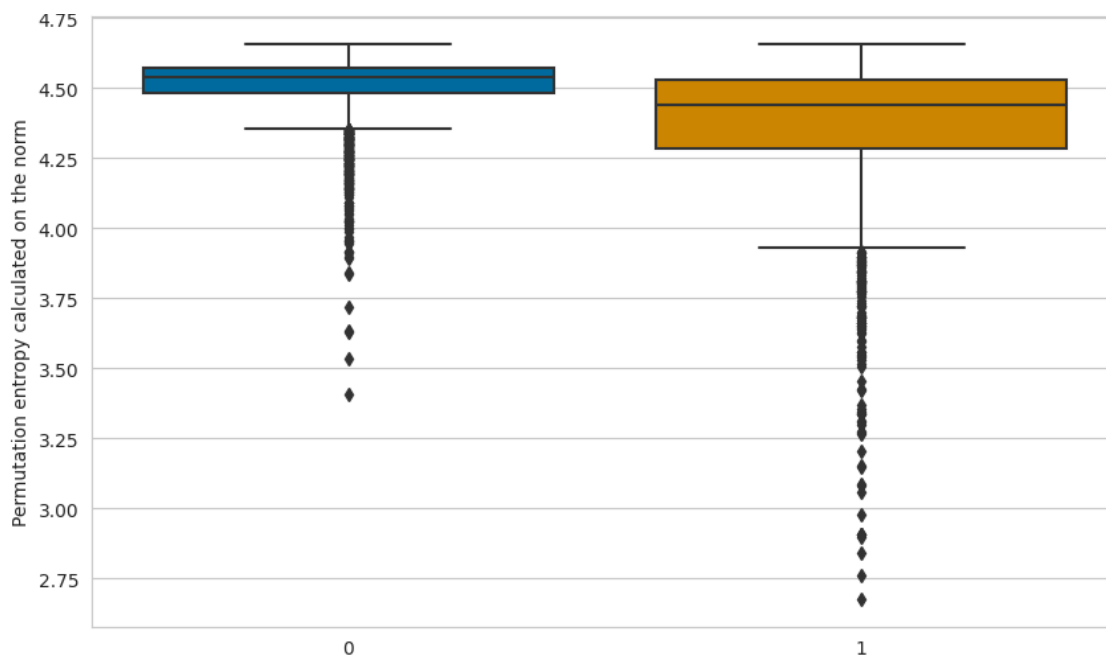
  

Additional time-series	None	Euler angles	Rotated acc data (mean)	Rotated acc data (median)	Rotated acc data (mean) + Euler angles	Rotated acc data (median) + Euler angles
AUC score	0.819	0.823	0.815	0.766	0.819	0.776

Number of the best features selected	4662 (no feature selection)	2000	1000	500	100	80	50	20
AUC score	0.819	0.818	0.819	0.819	0.819	0.820	0.816	0.801

**Appendix 6** Permutation entropy calculated on the norm distribution during non-lying (0) and lying events (1)



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### Data, scripts, code, and supplementary information availability

Data is available online: doi:10.57745/LGZBM1 <https://doi.org/10.57745/LGZBM1> (Mauny et al, 2024a)

Scripts and code are available online: doi: 10.5281/zenodo.12624785 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12624785> (Mauny et al, 2024b)

Description of the data and code is currently in preparation (Mauny et al, in prep).

*[The references of the datasets, scripts and codes should also be present in the reference list and cited in the text.]*

### Conflict of interest disclosure

The authors declare that they comply with the PCI rule of having no financial conflicts of interest in relation to the content of the article.

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