



## Repeated training of homing pigeons reveals age dependent idiosyncrasy and visual landmark use.

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1 **Repeated training of homing pigeons reveals age dependent idiosyncrasy and visual landmark use.**

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17 **Repeated training of homing pigeons reveals age dependent idiosyncrasy and visual landmark use.**

18 Recent research into the navigational strategies of homing pigeons (*Columba livia*) in the familiar area  
19 has highlighted the phenomenon of route fidelity – birds forming idiosyncratic flight paths to which  
20 they are loyal over multiple releases from the same site, and even returning to this path when released  
21 from a near-by unfamiliar location. Such results highlight the potential importance of visual landmark  
22 cues in the homing process. However, not all birds have been shown to produce idiosyncratic routes  
23 or show this route-joining behaviour. Here we use birds with and without flight experience to study  
24 the formation of idiosyncratic routes when released repeatedly from a single location, followed by  
25 two off-route releases with differing topography to see how flight experience and local landmark  
26 features can influence navigational strategy in the familiar area. We found that, over the course of 20  
27 sequential releases, birds with greater flight experience tended to form idiosyncratic routes whereas

28 less experienced birds did not show this tendency. When released from near-by sites (from which the  
29 birds had not previously been released), a range of navigational strategies were seen, including flying  
30 parallel to the learned route (suggestive of a learned compass direction), a direct flight path towards  
31 home (again indicative of compass use), re-joining the learned route, and following the coastline.  
32 These latter strategies are suggestive of landmark usage. Analysis using time lag embedding was also  
33 used to assess the off-route releases, and the short-term correlation dimension values produced  
34 (ranging from 1.5-2.5) were also indicative of strategies using one or two factors (landmarks, compass,  
35 or a combination of these two). Individual birds often showed different strategies at different sites,  
36 suggesting that the use of different navigational cues is highly flexible and situationally dependent.

#### 37 KEYWORDS

38 Ageing, correlation dimension; familiar landmark; homing pigeon; idiosyncrasy; navigation, spatial  
39 memory, route fidelity, time lag embedding.

#### 40 HIGHLIGHTS

- 41 • Birds with greater flight experience form idiosyncratic routes more readily.
- 42 • Multiple homing strategies occur when released close to a familiar site.
- 43 • Age and site-specific biases occurred in which strategies were used.
- 44 • Flexibility within individuals was seen in terms of strategy choice and cue use.

45 The study of pigeon homing has for many years been focused on how the birds are able navigate from  
46 an unfamiliar location for so-called “true navigation”, usually framed in the paradigm of Kramer’s  
47 “map and compass” theory (Kramer, 1953). Here, navigation is broken down into a two-step process,  
48 with a “map” providing a relative location from which the appropriate direction can be determined,  
49 and the “compass” providing a real-world directional heading. The map stage of navigation theorises  
50 a system of relatively stable gradients which vary predictable over a significant distance, such that  
51 birds can learn the spatial relationships of these gradient concentrations to produce a mental

52 navigational map (Holland, 2014). A large body of evidence supports a role of olfactory cues in the  
53 formation of a map (Wallraff 2005, Gagliardo, 2013 for review), although alternative roles for olfactory  
54 cues have been proposed (Jorge et al. 2009, 2010, but see Gagliardo et al. 2011, 2018). Other cues  
55 have also been proposed to play a role in the map, such as the magnetic field (Wiltschko and Wiltschko  
56 2009), infrasound (Hagstrum, 2000, 2013), and gravity (Blaser et al. 2014). Both magnetic (Beason,  
57 2005; Keeton, 1971; Walker, 1998; Wiltschko et al., 1981; Wiltschko and Wiltschko, 1972) and solar-  
58 cues have been found to provide compass information (Guilford and Taylor, 2014; Schmidt-Koenig,  
59 1990) in terms of magnetic declination and the time-compensated solar azimuth compass.

60 When navigating close to the loft in a familiar area, evidence suggests that both the sun compass and  
61 magnetic compass still play significant roles. Birds subjected to clock-shift procedures to alter their  
62 perception of time of day, and therefore their interpretation of the time-compensated sun compass,  
63 show a relatively predictable deflection angle away from the home direction when navigating, and  
64 this deflection can be seen even when navigating close to the loft (Armstrong et al., 2013; Chappell,  
65 1997; Wiltschko et al., 1994). Experiments attaching magnets to the heads of navigating pigeons in  
66 order to disrupt access to the magnetic compass (by producing a local strong magnetic field) show  
67 that deflection under clock-shift increases, suggesting that there is some influence of the magnetic  
68 compass on the chosen direction also, and that the cues are being combined (Gagliardo et al., 2009;  
69 Wiltschko and Wiltschko, 2007, 2001).

70 When navigating in the familiar area, however, the importance of familiar area cues, particularly visual  
71 landscape features, has been highlighted (Braithwaite and Guilford, 1991; Burt et al., 1997), although  
72 curiously, not always supported (Schmidt-Koenig and Schlichte, 1972; Schmidt-Koenig and Walcott,  
73 1978). Early studies found that birds deprived of object vision via the use of frosted lenses were able  
74 to home from significant distances (up to 130km) (Schmidt-Koenig and Schlichte, 1972), although  
75 many birds with frosted lenses were only able to locate the vicinity of the loft (0.5-5km) (Schmidt-  
76 Koenig and Walcott, 1978). Surprisingly, birds deprived of object vision and rendered anosmic were

77 still able to orient successfully from a familiar area, again suggesting that object vision is not necessary  
78 for homing, and that at least one other cue was necessary to explain homing (Benvenuti and Fiaschi,  
79 1983). However, a subsequent study did not support this and suggested a crucial role for vision if birds  
80 were made anosmic (Streng and Wallraff 1992). Later investigations found that birds able to view the  
81 landscape prior to release showed increased homing performance, suggesting that, when available,  
82 visual access to the landscape can be important in homing (Braithwaite and Guilford, 1991; Burt et al.,  
83 1997).

84 The introduction of a whole new series of possible cues, unique to the local landscape, means that  
85 strategies of navigation in the familiar area may be highly variable dependent on individual location.  
86 Studies have highlighted the importance of landscape features such as rivers, roads and hedgerows  
87 which make up patterns of straight lines in the environment to determine flight path structure (Lipp  
88 et al., 2004), as well as how the density of edges in the landscape influences how well routes are  
89 learned (Mann et al., 2014). The importance of landscape features when learning to navigate in the  
90 familiar area is evident and brings in to question how the cues used outside of the familiar area  
91 (olfactory, magnetic, solar) are integrated with the visual landmark cues.

92 Familiarity with an area comes in two forms – general flight experience in the local area, and  
93 experience flying from a particular release site. Previous studies have demonstrated that homing  
94 efficiency is greater in birds generally familiar with an area in comparison with naïve individuals  
95 (Meade et al., 2006), suggesting that familiarity influences the navigational strategy. Studies of birds  
96 released repeatedly from the same location show that birds tend to show an increase in route  
97 efficiency and fidelity (Biro et al., 2006, 2004; Meade et al., 2005). However, these birds do not  
98 produce maximally efficient routes, instead developing individually stereotypical routes, with  
99 efficiency reaching a plateau once the route has been established. Furthermore, birds released from  
100 sites alongside the learned route have been shown to return to the established route, rather than  
101 flying a direct route (Biro et al., 2006, 2004). This suggests that, instead of flying on a direct compass

102 heading towards home, birds use the local landscape cues to inform their routes. One study found  
103 that bottlenecks in tracks from repeated releases occurred alongside salient landmark cues,  
104 suggesting the learned routes are constrained by particular landmark features (Mann et al., 2011).

105 However, the Frankfurt group failed to replicate these results (Wiltschko et al., 2007), with pigeons  
106 failing to show an increase in efficiency, or produce stereotyped routes. A later analysis found that  
107 birds unfamiliar to the area had a similar efficiency to familiar birds, but that birds released multiply  
108 from the same site did show a general increase in efficiency (Schiffner et al., 2013). Given the  
109 importance of individual landscape features unique to a particular area, it is possible that the ability  
110 to learn local routes varies between locations or landscape features (Mann et al., 2014). Therefore,  
111 we use a new location to test the hypotheses that birds develop stereotypical routes when navigating  
112 repeatedly from a known location, and that they will preferentially return to this learned route when  
113 released at a novel site nearby. Additionally, we classify our test groups as “old” and “young” birds,  
114 with over ten years or less than one year of experience respectively, to investigate how age and  
115 navigational experience affects navigational ability in the familiar area.

116 According to the predictions of earlier studies, birds forming idiosyncratic routes should show a  
117 general increase in efficiency over early releases, but plateau below maximum efficiency (Flack et al,  
118 2012; Guilford and Biro, 2014; Meade et al., 2005). Birds should show an increase in route fidelity,  
119 with a bird’s later releases more similar to each other than earlier releases. Once an idiosyncratic route  
120 has been formed, it should be relatively distinct compared to the routes of others. Off-route releases  
121 may produce a variety of strategies, with an expectation of either a) a direct route home, based on a  
122 compass heading; b) a return to the learned route which is then followed home, presumably more  
123 reliant on visual landmark cues (Biro et al., 2004); or c) possible offset of the learned route from the  
124 novel release site, similar to the offset routes seen when clock-shifting birds from a learned route (Biro  
125 et al., 2007).

126 METHODS

127 *Subjects, Training and Releases*

128 A total of 21 birds in two age categories (ten young birds, only one year old and eleven old birds,  
129 nine/ten years old) were trained to fly repeatedly from a single release site at Y Felinheli (within 5km)  
130 over the course of two months, from the 19/09/2017 – 14/11/2017, with a total of twenty releases  
131 from the site. All of the birds had flight experience in the local area but had not participated in previous  
132 homing experiments. The birds were kept indoors usually during the day and did not have  
133 independent free access to the outdoors. Old and young birds had a greatly different flight experience  
134 prior to the tracked releases from Felinheli (table 1).

135 During the experimental releases, birds were released individually. The majority of releases took place  
136 once per day, apart from pairs 2 and 3, 5 and 6, 10 and 11, and 13 and 14 which took place in the same  
137 day (morning and afternoon releases). All 21 birds completed the 20 training flights from Y Felinheli,  
138 although a few flights were not successfully recorded. Any incomplete tracks were removed from the  
139 analysis. All of the experimental flights were tracked using a GPS recorder (i-gotU USB GPS Travel and  
140 Sports Loggers, 15.5g with outer casing removed), with position fixes every second and an accuracy of  
141  $\pm 5\text{m}$ . Trackers weighed less than 5% of the birds' bodyweight, and all birds had experience carrying  
142 the trackers before the experimental releases. The trackers were attached to the back between the  
143 wings using a Velcro strip glued to trimmed feathers. Following the repeated releases from Y Felinheli,  
144 two off-route releases were performed, one from just across the Menai Strait on Anglesey, and one  
145 further inland (see Figure 1 for a map of the release sites and home loft location). Off-route release 1  
146 was 1.64km from the Y Felinheli release site, and off-route release 2 was 1.16km. Both off-route  
147 releases were conducted once on separate days. All birds were housed at the Bangor University  
148 Treborth Botanic Gardens loft, under natural daylight. Birds had free access to water and grit, and 25g  
149 of food per bird per day.

150 *Data Analysis*

151 *Processing*

152 All tracks were processed and analysed using RStudio. Firstly, a low-pass filter was applied to the  
153 latitude and longitude values to remove noise at the frequency of data collection. Following this,  
154 calculations were applied to produce continuous flight bearings (CFBs, the bearing of each point from  
155 the release site) for each point, distance travelled between each point, current heading, and  
156 instantaneous deflection (ID, the difference between the current heading and the home direction) at  
157 each point (Agostinelli and Lund, 2017, 2018; Hijmans, 2019). Point of decision analysis was then used  
158 to remove early circling behaviour from the tracks (Schiffner and Wiltschko, 2009). The mean vector  
159 length of current bearings was calculated across each set of ten consecutive points, and a cut-off for  
160 navigational behaviour chosen when three of these consecutive mean vector lengths were all greater  
161 than 0.85, implying relatively consistent direction of flight. This cut-off of 0.85 was chosen after testing  
162 multiple values, as providing the best balance between removing circling behaviour without excluding  
163 too much of the track. As well as this, a radius of 200m around the home loft was removed from the  
164 tracks to discount the circling behaviour around the loft, as this distorts calculations of efficiency.  
165 Following this processing, various calculations were performed to analyse the tracks.

166 *Efficiency*

167 Efficiency of a tracks is calculated as the shortest beeline distance divided by the actual distance flown  
168 between the start and end points, ranging between zero and one. Efficiency was then compared  
169 between young and old birds using the Mann-Whitney U test, and a linear mixed model was used to  
170 analyse the factors influencing change in efficiency, with release number and age as fixed effects, and  
171 bird as a random effect (Bates et al., 2015). An ANOVA test was used to compare a full and reduced  
172 model to identify the significant factors.

173 *Idiosyncrasy*



174 In order to investigate whether birds showed individually unique routes, a mean route was computed  
175 for each bird, consisting of the three final successful tracks recorded from Y Felinheli. The mean track  
176 was first created as a series of equally-spaced points from the start to the end of the track. For each  
177 point along the mean track, the nearest time-independent point on each of the tracks to be averaged  
178 was found, and the mean track point moved to the mean of the nearest neighbour points. Once this  
179 had been applied to the entire track, points were moved to fill out any gaps and reduce bunching  
180 along the mean route by moving any points more than a set distance apart to the half-way point  
181 between them.

182 Once the mean route had been constructed, the nearest-neighbour distances were calculated to three  
183 tracks from the same individual (tracks 13, 15 and 16 as these were available for all birds), and to  
184 tracks from a different individual (individual chosen at random for each track, tracks 8, 9, 10 and 12).  
185 The average nearest neighbour distance for “self” and “other” comparisons was calculated for each  
186 bird and compared using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

#### 187 *Off-route releases*

188 To investigate the directional choices made when released from the off-route locations, CFBs were  
189 calculated for the mean tracks of each bird (as described above). As the CFBs describe the angle from  
190 the release site at each point along the track, matching CFBs from two tracks suggest a copying of the  
191 known route. ID was also calculated for the mean tracks and compared to the ID values from the off-  
192 route releases. The mode of each of these measures was calculated to identify the predominant  
193 direction of flight over the course of the tracks. These measures, alongside visual inspection of the  
194 flight paths, were used to classify the off-route releases into different categories of navigational  
195 behaviour.

#### 196 *Time lag embedding*

197 We analyzed data by means of time lag embedding to determine the underlying characteristics of the  
198 navigational process used by Homing Pigeons - *Columba livia f. domestica* (Schiffner et al., 2011). Time  
199 lag embedding is a method derived from dynamic systems theory, an advanced area of mathematics  
200 and physics focused on understanding and describing complex dynamic systems. Time lag embedding,  
201 commonly used to characterise dynamic systems (i.e. systems that change over time) (Nehmzow,  
202 2006; Small, 2005), allows the physical/data driven reconstruction of a system in phase space.  
203 Observations of a system can be used to construct a multi-dimensional phase space, where each axis  
204 in this space represents a parameter of the system (Takens, 1981). The number of parameters (or  
205 degrees of freedom) in this space, therefore, is the minimum number of independent variables  
206 necessary to describe the system. The proper embedding dimension was determined using a false  
207 nearest neighbour approach and the correct time lag was estimated using a non-parametric  
208 normalized mutual information algorithm to deal with the sensor noise.

#### 209 *Correlation dimension*

210 In order to estimate the number of navigational factors used by the birds' navigational system we  
211 calculated the correlation dimension, a measure of the degrees of freedom of the system. The  
212 methods described here have been tested rigorously in mathematical systems where the exact  
213 number of degrees of freedom is known and have been applied successfully to tracks of homing  
214 pigeons, allowing unprecedented insight into their navigational system (Schiffner et al., 2016, 2014,  
215 2011; Schiffner and Wiltschko, 2014, 2013).

216 The method used to determine the correlation dimension is identical to the original algorithm  
217 described by Grassberger and Procaccia (Grassberger and Procaccia, 1983). By estimating the  
218 correlation dimension we can determine the nature of the underlying process: deterministic systems  
219 have an integer dimension (e.g. 1.0, 2.0, etc.); random systems are dimensionless; chaotic  
220 deterministic systems have a fractal/non integer dimension (e.g. 1.3, 2.1, etc.). Here we specifically  
221 estimated the short-term correlation dimension, a lower bound rolling estimate of the actual

222 correlation dimension over a fixed time window calculated over the entirety of the track to analyse  
223 the tracks and potential changes in the navigational process throughout the pigeon's journey to its  
224 home loft.

#### 225 *Theoretical considerations*

226 When considering an animal's navigational process, the degrees of freedom, as represented by the  
227 correlation dimension, indicates the number of independent sensory modalities involved in the  
228 navigational process - where the same sensor could pick up several independent cues. Applied to  
229 tracks of an animal the correlation dimension thus, allows us to draw conclusions about the  
230 navigational strategy used; low correlation dimensions suggest simpler forms of navigation, like  
231 navigation based on point-like information, while higher correlation dimensions suggest navigation  
232 based on multiple environmental gradients (Schiffner et al., 2011).

233 The effects of the different releases and types of behaviours on the short-term correlation dimension  
234 were tested using the Aligned Rank Transformed ANOVA (ART-ANOVA), a non-parametric approach  
235 utilizing GLMM and Global ranking to ensure normal distribution of the data (Wobbrock et al., 2011).  
236 For post hoc comparison, we employed least squared means using the Tukey method for multiple  
237 comparisons. While this method can ensure that data is drawn from a normal distribution, it still  
238 requires testing for homogeneity of variances. The Leneve's test, used to test for homogeneity of  
239 variances, ensured homogeneity of variances in all tests. In each test we considered the effect of either  
240 the release number or the type of behaviour and the distance from home as fixed effects, and the  
241 bird's identity as a random effect.

#### 242 *Ethical Statement*

243 All applicable animal welfare guidelines were followed including the ASAB/ABS Guidelines for the  
244 treatment of animals in research. The project was reviewed by Bangor University AWERB and received  
245 approval for work to be carried out (approval number: CNS2017EJP01).

246 RESULTS

247 *Efficiency*

248 Efficiency was calculated with the exclusion of early circling and circling around the loft, as described  
249 in the methods. There was a general increase in efficiency over the first five releases, with young birds  
250 showing a much lower efficiency in the first few releases (Figures 2 and 3a). Comparison of the groups  
251 using the Mann-Whitney U test found a significant difference in efficiency between young and old  
252 birds during the first 4 releases (Mann-Whitney U Test:  $W = 1129$ ,  $P = 5.028 \times 10^{-4}$ ), but not during the  
253 final 4 releases (Mann-Whitney U Test:  $W = 1053$ ,  $P = 0.268$ ), (figure 3a and 3b respectively). The mean  
254 efficiency stabilises between 0.8-0.9, showing that the birds are not using maximally efficient routes,  
255 even when removing circling behaviour.

256 A linear mixed model found that both Release and Age group were significant predictors of Efficiency,  
257 with an ANOVA comparison of a full model including an interaction between Age and Release and a  
258 reduced model without the interaction showing a significant difference (ANOVA:  $P = 5.519 \times 10^{-5}$ ).

259 *Idiosyncrasy*

260 Mean tracks were calculated from the final three releases from Y Felinheli for each bird. Figure 4 shows  
261 these tracks, as well as the mean efficiency averaged across the last three tracks, and the mean area  
262 between the tracks is also given in  $\text{km}^2$ . No significant difference was found in the area between the  
263 final tracks between the old and young birds (Wilcoxon signed-rank test:  $W = 41$ ,  $P = 0.349$ ). No  
264 correlation between mean efficiency and area between tracks was found when a linear regression was  
265 applied (ANOVA:  $F_{1,19} = 0.0125$ ,  $P = 0.912$ ). Comparison of the calculated mean tracks (Figure 4) to  
266 “self” and “other” tracks produced a list of average nearest neighbour distances for each individual.  
267 Using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test, we find a significant difference between the self-comparisons and  
268 other-comparisons of mean nearest neighbour distance (Wilcoxon signed-rank Test:  $V = 218$ ,  $P =$

269  $1.918 \times 10^{-3}$ ), with self-distances being lower on average than comparisons to the tracks of other birds  
270 (Figure 6).

271 Figure 5 breaks down the above to compare the “self” and “other” distances between young and old  
272 birds. There is a significant difference in the “self” distances between young and old birds (Mann-  
273 Whitney U Test:  $U = 28$ ,  $P = 0.034$ ) with old birds showing lower nearest neighbour distances than  
274 young birds. However, there is no significant difference in the “other” distances between young and  
275 old birds (Mann-Whitney U Test:  $U = 61$ ,  $P = 1$ ). The significant difference between self and other  
276 comparisons is maintained when looking at old birds alone (Wilcoxon signed-rank Test (paired):  $V =$   
277  $65$ ,  $P = 1.953 \times 10^{-3}$ ), but not young birds ( $V = 47$ ,  $P = 0.240$ ).

#### 278 *Short-term Correlation Dimension Analysis*

279 Using time lag embedding to calculate the short-term correlation dimension for each track of repeated  
280 releases we observe a highly significant effect of the release number on the correlation dimension  
281 (ART ANOVA:  $F_{16,2903} = 44.565$ ,  $P < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ ), which is also confirmed by the post hoc comparisons. Figure  
282 6 suggests that this transition is not instantaneous, but rather gradual. The majority of initial flights  
283 have a higher correlation dimension (Green colours: 2-2.5) compared to the later flights (Red colours:  
284 1-1.5). These final values are close to what we would expect if the birds would switch to following  
285 landmarks to aid their navigation. Two caveats though, the short-term correlation dimension is  
286 generally lower than the actual correlation dimension and there is a lot of variation in this data set.  
287 However, because of the high variation and the fact that we are looking at averages it is evident that  
288 at least some of the birds do occasionally follow landmarks.

#### 289 *Off-route Releases*

290 Figure 7 shows the mean track and off-route releases for the young and old birds. From visual analysis  
291 of these tracks and use of CFBs and ID, off-route return strategies have been classified (Table 2). Flight  
292 strategies have been broken down into several classes: a coast-following (CF) strategy seen from the

293 first-off route release where the bird follows the Menai Strait coastline of the Anglesey side before  
294 crossing the Strait close to home; a direct route (D) where the bird flies a relatively straight course  
295 between the release site and home; parallel (P) where the bird flies parallel to the Y Felinheli route,  
296 and corrects towards home later on; joining (J) behaviour, where the bird clearly flies to and then  
297 along the established learned route; and finally cross (C) where the bird appears to cross but not join  
298 the established route.

299 CFB is a measure of the absolute bearing of a point from the release site. As the absolute bearing of  
300 the home loft from the first off-route release site is  $47.8^\circ$  and from the second off-route release  $12.6^\circ$   
301 (Figure 1), a modal CFB near these values for each release suggests a relatively direct route. Similarly,  
302 an ID of  $0^\circ$  suggests direct homewards flight, e.g. bird 919 with a CFB of 43 and ID of -2 for off-route  
303 release 1 and a CFB of 9 and ID of 3 for off-route release 2, both suggesting a direct flight path. The  
304 homewards bearing from the Y Felinheli release site is  $26.5^\circ$ , therefore modal CFBs near this on the  
305 off-route releases suggest a parallel of the learned route, e.g. birds 158 and 262, with CFBs of 26 for  
306 off-route release 2. A chi-squared contingency table analysis of flight strategy for each location finds  
307 no association between age and flight strategy from the first off-route release site (Chi-squared test:  
308  $\chi^2_3 = 0.952$ ,  $P = 0.813$ ), but an association close to significance at the second off-route release site with  
309 old birds favouring the parallel strategy (Chi-squared test:  $\chi^2_2 = 5.45$ ,  $P = 0.066$ ).

310 In terms of mean flight efficiency and short-term correlation dimension (STCD) of the off-route  
311 releases, there is a significant negative correlation (-1.012), with STCD decreasing as efficiency  
312 increases (ANOVA:  $F_{1,40} = 4.447$ ,  $P = 0.0413$ ). There was no significant correlation between efficiency  
313 of the first and second off-route releases (ANOVA:  $F_{1,19} = 2.298$ ,  $P = 0.146$ ), nor STCD (ANOVA:  $F_{1,19} =$   
314  $1.081$ ,  $P = 0.312$ ).

315 Using time lag embedding to calculate the short-term correlation dimension for each track of off-  
316 route releases and comparing the prevalent types of behaviours (direct, parallel and coast-following)  
317 reveals a significant difference between direct routes and parallel routes, as well as differences

318 between those two types and the coast following type of behaviour. While there is variation in the  
319 correlation dimension estimates indicating that the visual categorisation is not exact, it was still  
320 sufficiently accurate to detect significant differences between the different types of routes (ART  
321 ANOVA:  $F_{2,214} = 44.731, P < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ ). These differences are also confirmed by the post hoc comparisons,  
322 showing again significant differences between the individual types of routes. Figure 8 shows that Coast  
323 following has the highest correlation dimension ( $CF \approx 2.5$ ). The Direct flights have a slightly lower  
324 correlation dimension ( $DIR \approx 2.0$ ) and the parallel flights have the lowest correlation dimension  
325 ( $PAR \approx 1.5$ ).

## 326 DISCUSSION

### 327 *Efficiency*

328 Figure 2 shows that average efficiency per flight increases over the first five flights, stabilising between  
329 0.8 and 0.9. This demonstrates an improvement in path efficiency with experience, but is still variable  
330 and plateaus before reaching maximal efficiency. Given that this measure of efficiency was calculated  
331 from tracks where circling behaviour had been removed, the numbers are a true representation of  
332 the efficiency of the navigational path. This initial increase in efficiency is in agreement with previous  
333 findings, where birds flew routes significantly longer than the beeline (Biro et al., 2004; Meade et al.,  
334 2005). Consistently inefficient routes suggest that the flight path is not based solely on a compass  
335 direction, which should produce a beeline home. However, it should also be noted that we would only  
336 expect highly efficient routes if birds were suitably motivated to return home. Within the small flight  
337 radius of the study this might not be the case.

338 When comparing young and old individuals (Figure 3) it becomes evident that the inexperienced birds  
339 have a much lower efficiency on the first four flights and show a much more significant increase in  
340 efficiency than the old birds. After  $\sim 5$  flights, both young and old birds show similar efficiencies on  
341 their learned routes. The earlier success of the old birds suggests that general experience may be

342 important in determining flight efficiency from novel locations. A linear mixed model of route  
343 efficiency against flight suggests that both bird age and flight number are significant predictors of  
344 efficiency, with a significant interaction between age and flight number. This supports the differing  
345 relationship between efficiency increase in young and old birds across the flights.

346 In contrast to previous work (Biro et al., 2006, 2004; Meade et al., 2005), the Frankfurt group failed to  
347 find an increase in efficiency when releasing birds from shorter distances, with only birds being  
348 released from 30km showing an increase in efficiency over multiple releases (Schiffner et al., 2013;  
349 2018). These birds were all experienced adults with significant homing experience in the region with  
350 efficiencies between 0.77 and 0.92 found (Wiltschko et al., 2007), although no significant increase in  
351 efficiency was seen over the recorded flights. The range of efficiencies is similar to the range at which  
352 the pigeons here stabilise at after the initial learning phase, and agrees with the results shown in Figure  
353 3, where the more experienced birds begin with a much greater efficiency. It is possible that greater  
354 general flight experience of the older birds here or the Frankfurt birds means that their flight efficiency  
355 is generally high, so no significant increase is seen. In contrast, the inexperienced birds show a  
356 significant increase in efficiency over the first few flights. Additionally, the combination of navigational  
357 factors unique to the different flight areas between the groups may contribute to which cues are  
358 preferentially used (Schiffner et al., 2013).

### 359 *Idiosyncrasy*

360 Despite the short distance of these flights, birds still show individually distinct paths. Calculation of a  
361 mean route based upon the final three successful flights allowed nearest-neighbour distances to be  
362 calculated against self and other tracks, giving a measure of similarity to a bird's own tracks and the  
363 tracks of other birds. Figure 5 shows that "self" distances were significantly lower than "other"  
364 distances, suggesting that individual birds fly routes which are more similar to their own other routes  
365 than those flown by other birds. Additionally, we observe an overall reduction of the short-term  
366 correlation dimension from the initial to the final releases, suggesting that with increased familiarity



367 birds rely on less cues supporting the formation of idiosyncratic routes based on visual cues (although  
368 reliance of visual cues cannot be directly tested without removing object vision, e.g. via the use of  
369 frosted lenses). This transition appears to be a rather gradual transition, rather than an abrupt switch  
370 between two modes of navigation with individuals switching back and forth between both - which  
371 would explain why this behaviour may sometimes to be hard to detect. However, splitting birds into  
372 the two age categories (Figure 5) shows that this difference is primarily due to the old birds, with  
373 young birds showing higher “self” distances. Only in old birds was the difference in nearest-neighbour  
374 distances significant between “self” and “other” tracks, suggesting that the formation of idiosyncratic  
375 routes may require more experience.

376 In previous studies where idiosyncratic routes were identified more experienced birds tended to be  
377 used, e.g. all birds older than two years (Biro et al., 2007, 2004; Meade et al., 2006, 2005), or four  
378 years (Biro et al., 2006). This suggests that greater flight experience may be an important factor in  
379 determining the use of visual cues associated with higher idiosyncrasy. It is possible that the one-year-  
380 old birds are more reliant on compass mechanisms to navigate, rather than using visual landmark  
381 information, or that younger less experienced birds display more exploratory behaviour. Clock-shift  
382 and magnetic treatments would be necessary to determine if compass mechanisms are being used;  
383 Biro et al found that clock-shifting birds which had learned a route resulted in an off-set track which  
384 paralleled the shape of the learned route, in the clock-shift direction (Biro et al., 2007). This  
385 demonstrates that both landmark and compass information is being combined.

#### 386 *Off-route releases*

387 Following the twenty training releases from Y Felinheli, two off-route releases (Figure 1) were  
388 conducted to test whether birds would return to their learned route from a short distance away. Our  
389 results identify several different navigational strategies, the most obvious being birds flying a relatively  
390 direct route from the release site to home. This suggests use of a compass heading to navigate, and is  
391 seen from both release sites, across young and old individuals (Table 2). Both of the off-route release

392 sites are relatively close to the Y Felinheli site, and birds have been trained in the general area, so it is  
393 possible that the birds possess a familiar area map from which they can produce the correct headings.  
394 Another strategy seen is taking a parallel track to the learned route. This is a relatively common  
395 strategy, identifiable as tracks with virtual vanishing bearings which match between the learned and  
396 off-route releases. In these cases, birds fly a parallel track to their learned route, usually correcting  
397 towards home once they have flown the correct distance. As with the direct route, this strategy  
398 suggests that the birds are relying on a compass heading, but this time a learned heading from their  
399 repeated releases, which they then copy when released at a nearby site.

400 A few birds showed the looked-for route joining behaviour, but in contrast with previous studies (Biro  
401 et al., 2006, 2004; Meade et al., 2005), this was not a common strategy. Re-joining the learned route  
402 suggests that the birds are at least partially relying upon visual cues, specifically the memory of cues  
403 associated with the repeated route, as the sites are in close enough proximity to each other that, from  
404 an aerial view, several landscape features should be visible from all sites, e.g. the coastline. It is  
405 possible that the short distance of the flights meant that joining the learned route was not necessary,  
406 with many birds simply taking the direct path. For the first off-route release site, the presence of the  
407 Menai Strait as an obstacle may have blocked birds from joining the original route, with uncertainties  
408 as to where to cross the body of water.

409 A final strategy was seen which demonstrated landscape following: when released from the first off-  
410 route site on Anglesey, several birds fly along the coast, and correct their route when reaching a  
411 particular landmark. For example, four of the old birds fly along the Menai Strait (160, 504, 552, 588),  
412 with 160 correcting towards the loft when Menai Bridge is reached, and 504/552 correcting after  
413 reaching Llanfairpwllgwyngyll. The same can be seen in many of the young birds. Following of  
414 landscape features has been previously documented (Lipp et al., 2004; Mann et al., 2014), and  
415 suggests that predominant features may override other navigational cues. However, the following of  
416 the coastline may simply be a temporary guide to help maintain the correct heading, as it roughly

417 agrees with necessary heading, meaning that multiple navigational cues are combined, which is  
418 supported by the comparatively higher short term correlation dimension observed in birds that are  
419 using this strategy.

420 From the second release site there is far less evidence of following the landscape, with many parallel  
421 routes, most predominant in the old birds. The use of parallel routes is reminiscent of (Biro et al.,  
422 2007), where clock-shifted birds flew in parallel to the learned route. The authors took this as evidence  
423 of combining compass and landmark cues when navigating, which is supported by the variety of  
424 strategies demonstrated by these birds. The lack of distracting landscape features from the second  
425 off-route release site may be responsible for the reduced landmark following and predominance of  
426 parallel/direct flights.

427 Most birds did not show a fixed strategy at both of the off-route release sites, suggesting a flexibility  
428 of navigational strategy, responding to the particular local conditions of an unfamiliar release site.  
429 Many birds which showed a preference for landscape following from the first off-route release site  
430 flew either a direct or parallel route from the second site, demonstrating that both compass and visual  
431 landmark mechanisms could be used.

432 The coast following behaviour had the highest correlation dimension (2.5), suggesting that the birds  
433 following the coast were using the coastline as an additional cue instead of relying on it alone. The  
434 direct flights had a slightly lower correlation dimension (DIR: 2.0) and the parallel flights had the lowest  
435 correlation dimension (PAR: 1.5), with such a low correlation dimension suggesting reliance on the  
436 lowest number of factors. Given the idiosyncratic nature of the training routes, it is likely that an  
437 entrained compass heading may be responsible for the majority of the navigational information, with  
438 other factors being used more sparingly during the flight. From figure 6 we can see that the correlation  
439 dimension is not stable across the course of a flight, however, suggesting that the number of cues  
440 used may vary significantly across the course of a flight. Although this results in a single visually  
441 classified strategy, the actual information informing the flight path may be highly variable.

442 CONCLUSION

443 This study has demonstrated that pigeons can learn idiosyncratic routes when flying repeatedly from  
444 a nearby location, but this occurs more readily in birds with greater experience. These idiosyncratic  
445 routes were characterised by a low correlation dimension supporting the formation of idiosyncrasies  
446 in the routes, that most likely rely primarily or even exclusively on visual cues. We found a general  
447 increase in flight efficiency over the first few flights, although this was generally restricted to the young  
448 birds, which began with much more inefficient routes. Off-route releases demonstrated a variety of  
449 navigational strategies characterised by distinct differences in the short-term correlation dimension  
450 and therefore the number of cues involved in the underlying navigational process, although few birds  
451 returned to the learned route. Instead, birds used either additional landscape features (in this case  
452 the curve of the coastline) or compass directions (either a direct route home or paralleling the learned  
453 route) to navigate from the unfamiliar sites. These results suggest that multiple forms of navigational  
454 information are important when homing in a familiar area, and that the strategy used is flexible,  
455 depending on the particular local conditions.

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606 **Table 1:** Subject flight experience.

Release Location	Bearing from loft (degrees, North=0)	Distance from loft (km)
Young Birds		
Roman camp (53.233818, -4.127970)	58	3.6
Parc Menai (53.206992, -4.185048)	-144	1.4
Llanfairp.g. (53.220457, -4.194661)	-74	1.5
Llandygai roundabout (53.219084, -4.105247)	87	4.5

Old Birds

Penmon (53.2950670, -4.0611793)	41	11.5
Caernarfon foreshore (53.1393739, -4.2825671)	-140	11.3
Waterloo port road (53.1526017, -4.2649993)	-139	9.4
Plas Menai (53.1698685, -4.2434940)	-138	7.0
Bush road (53.1815830, -4.2025464)	-153	4.4
Beach road (Felinheli 53.1838068, -4.2116039)	-145	4.5
Glan faenol (53.2045917, -4.1968571)	-131	2.1
Treborth sports fields (53.2148962, -4.1763044)	-135	0.3
Cadnant corner (53.2335445, -4.1568771)	30	2.2
Shore at chateau rhianfa (53.2376368, -4.1428572)	41	3.1
Lon ganol (53.2428050, -4.1420308)	36	3.6
Gazelle foreshore (53.2442042, -4.1286935)	44	4.3
Gallows point (53.2547081, -4.1052416)	47	6.2
Beaumaris foreshore (53.2628903, -4.0879517)	48	7.6
Friars bay (53.2764597, -4.0839630)	42	8.9
Traeth lleiniog (53.2907610, -4.0704235)	40	10.7

607 Table showing the release locations for the young and old birds demonstrating their range of flight  
 608 experience. Both the distance and bearing of the release site from the loft is given. Release locations  
 609 are given by name and coordinates.

610 **Table 2:** Individual tracks measurements for off route releases one and two.

Bird	Off-route release 1					Off-route release 2				
	Strategy 1	CFB	ID	Efficiency	STCD	Strategy 2	CFB	ID	Efficiency	STCD

Young Birds

176	CF	20	3	0.629	2.783	J	4	-6	0.529	1.733
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187	D	48	13	0.885	2.633	P	30	63	0.614	1.567
283	CF	8	-64	0.370	2.183	J	3	-6	0.485	2.033
285	CF	21	-30	0.456	1.733	C	-9	-34	0.898	1.580
287	CF	9	-39	0.642	2.400	D	13	8	0.862	1.967
312	D	40	-36	0.641	2.267	D	15	2	0.978	0.550
418	C	67	-45	0.170	2.583	J	7	-10	0.265	1.980
422	P	6	-47	0.590	2.433	D	9	4	0.966	3.300
431	D	45	29	0.809	2.633	D	11	17	0.924	1.325
508	P	19	-69	0.259	1.900	D	10	7	0.937	1.950

Old Birds

158	D	41	-17	0.829	2.100	P	26	37	0.783	3.000
160	CF	44	-27	0.324	2.514	P	36	-81	0.300	1.467
262	D	43	-34	0.804	2.300	P	26	27	0.818	1.125
269	D	46	-10	0.848	2.800	P	23	21	0.726	1.125
504	CF	21	-40	0.345	2.067	D	5	-23	0.945	0.200
552	CF	29	-39	0.339	2.550	D	16	3	0.839	0.975
587	J	48	-7	0.535	2.150	P	42	26	0.625	2.500
588	CF	17	-60	0.731	2.250	J	7	-19	0.551	2.225
889	P	-2	-35	0.762	0.620	P	10	-3	0.837	1.220
900	D	23	-37	0.750	0.800	D	7	-7	0.969	0.450
919	D	43	-2	0.805	1.100	D	9	3	0.930	1.450

611 For each of the 21 birds, mean continuous flight bearings (CFBs, degrees), mean instantaneous  
612 deflection (ID, degrees), mean flight efficiency and median short term correlation dimension (STCD)  
613 has been given.

614 **Figure 1:** Satellite map of the homing pigeon home and release sites, including the name of each site,  
615 the latitude and longitude of each site in decimal degrees and the distance from the release site to  
616 the loft in kilometres and the absolute bearing from the release site to the loft in degrees.

617 **Figure 2:** Mean efficiency of each release split into young (gold) and old (light blue) birds, with 95%  
618 confidence intervals shown. Releases 1-20 are from Y Felinheli; 21 is the first off-route release from  
619 Anglesey; 22 is the second off-route release (Figure 1).

620 **Figure 3:** Box and whisker plots of track efficiency split by age group (gold=young; light blue=old) for  
621 (a) releases 1-4 and (b) releases 17-20. Centre line gives the median of the groups, the box edges the  
622 first and third quartiles, and the whiskers the maximum and minimum of the groups. Circles represent  
623 outliers.

624 **Figure 4:** Mean tracks (black) produced using nearest-neighbours to average the final three successful  
625 recordings for each bird (orange) from the Y Felinheli release site, young birds (top) and old birds  
626 (bottom). The mean area between the final three tracks has been given for each bird (km<sup>2</sup>), as well as  
627 the mean efficiency of the final three tracks.

628 **Figure 5:** Box and whisker plot comparing the average “self” and “other” nearest neighbour distances  
629 for each bird, between young (gold) and old (light blue) individuals. Centre line gives the median of  
630 the groups, the box edges the first and third quartiles, and the whiskers the maximum and minimum  
631 of the groups.

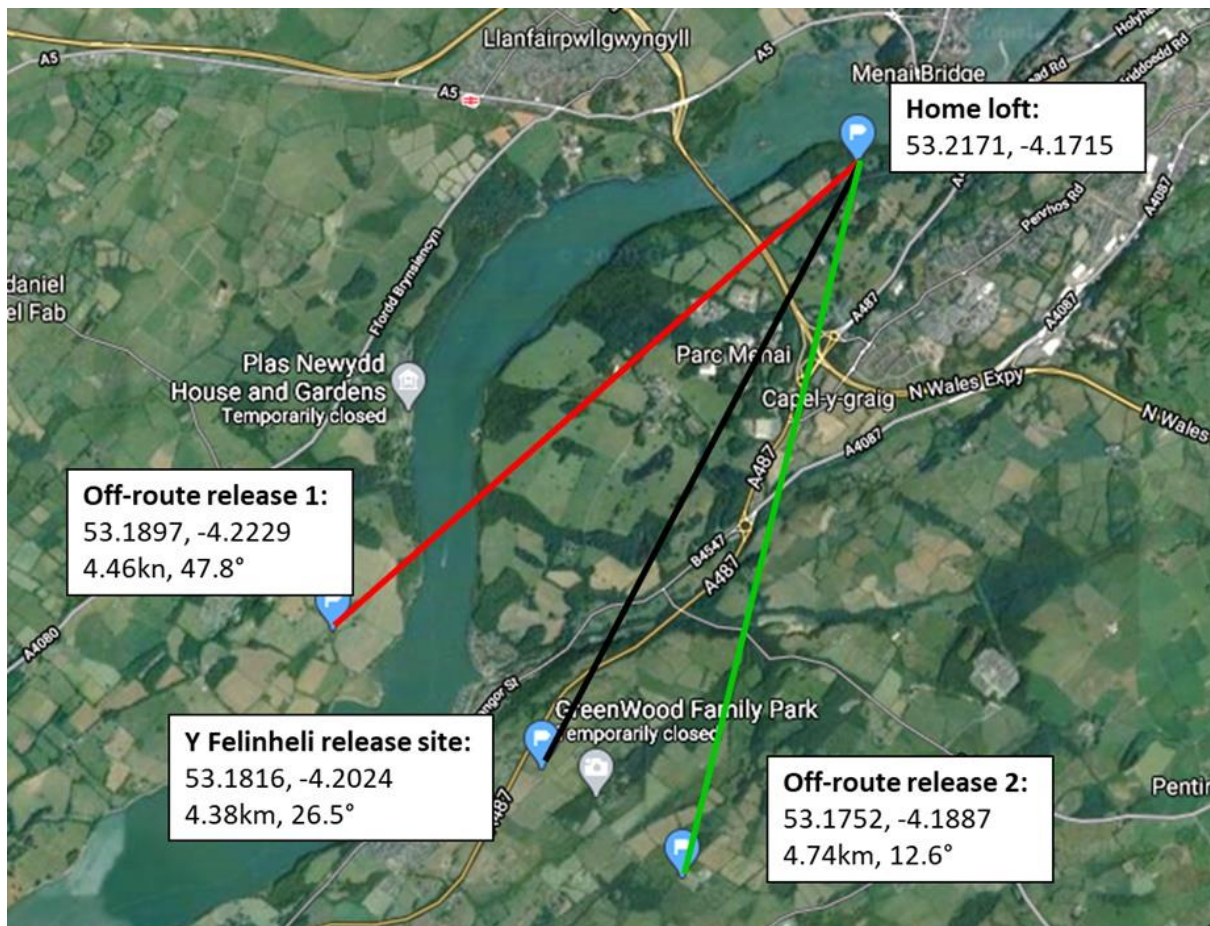
632 **Figure 6:** Averages of the short-term correlation dimension for the individual releases, shown as a  
633 gradient with earlier releases in green transitioning through brown to later releases in red. Release  
634 number has been labelled at the end of each line, in the matching colour.

635 **Figure 7:** Tracks for each bird showing the calculated mean track from the last three successful  
636 recording from Y Felinheli (black), the first off-route release (red) and the second off-route release

637 (green), (a) young birds; (b) old birds. Classification of the flight strategy of each off-route release is  
638 abbreviated in the matching colour for each bird at the top of the plot: CF = coast following; D = direct;  
639 P = parallel; C = cross; J = join.

640 **Figure 8:** Short-term correlation dimensions at 500m intervals for each bird classified by flight strategy  
641 for off-route release 1 (a) and off route release 2 (b). Green lines show the coast-following behaviour  
642 (CF), red a parallel route (P) and yellow a direct route (D), with unbroken lines representing old birds  
643 and dashed lines representing young birds.

644 Figure 1

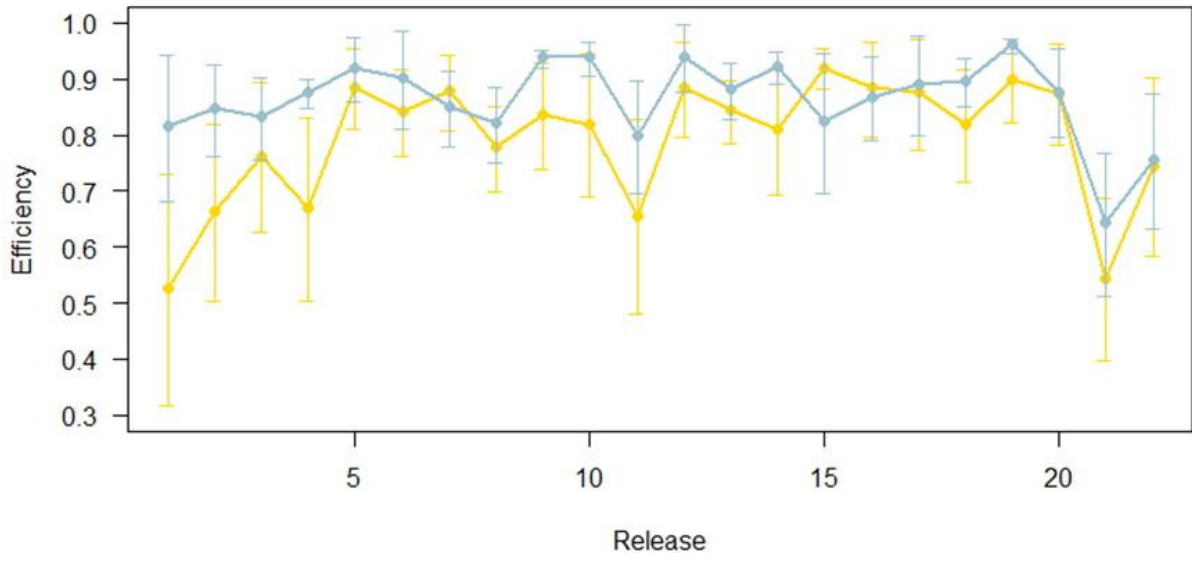


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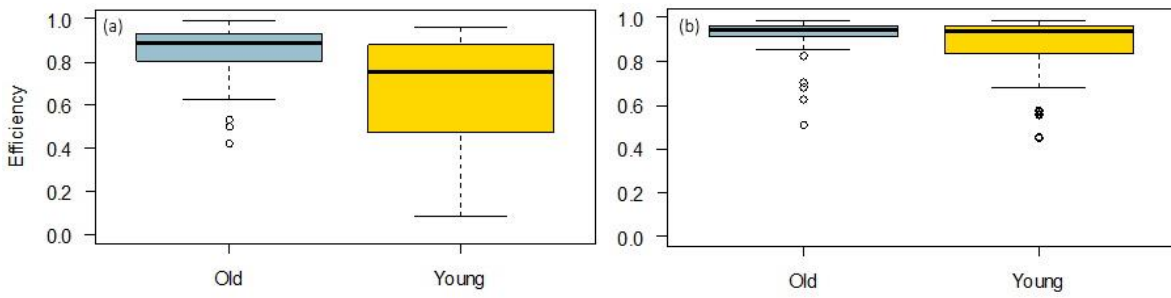
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648 Figure 2



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650 Figure 3



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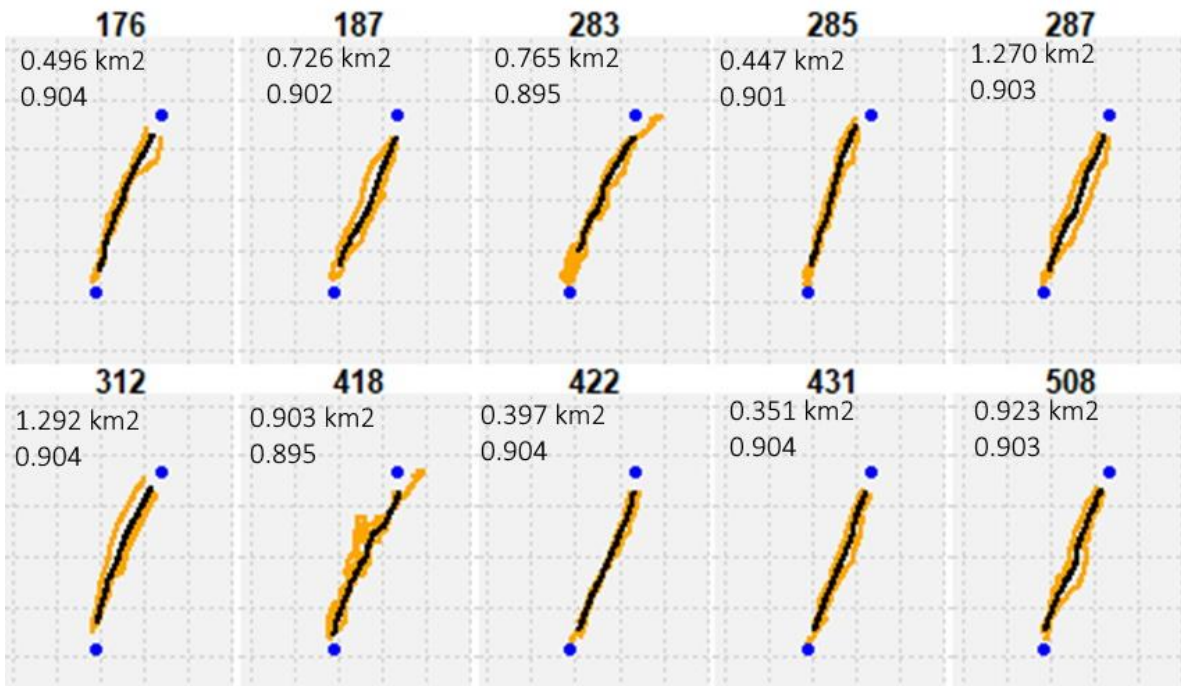
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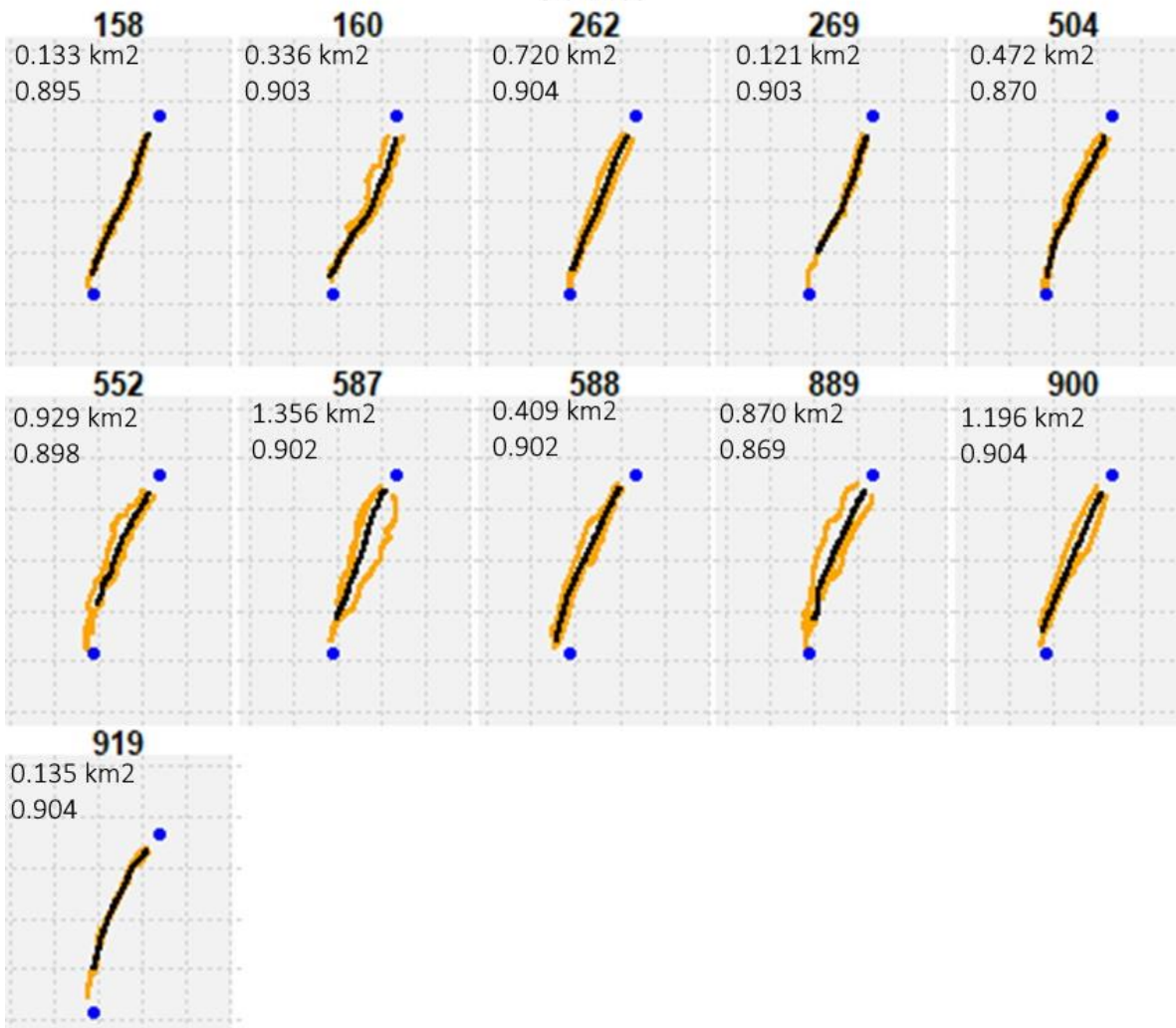
657 Figure 4



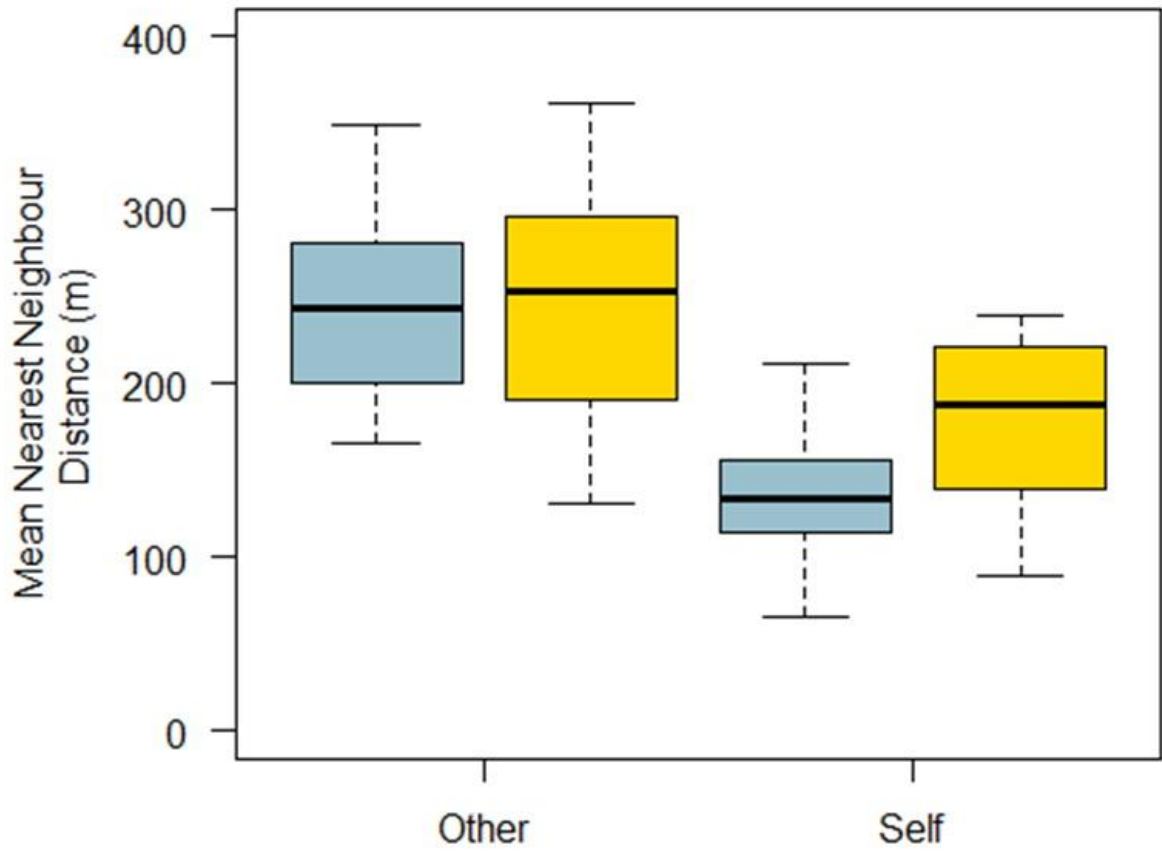
### Young Birds



### Old Birds

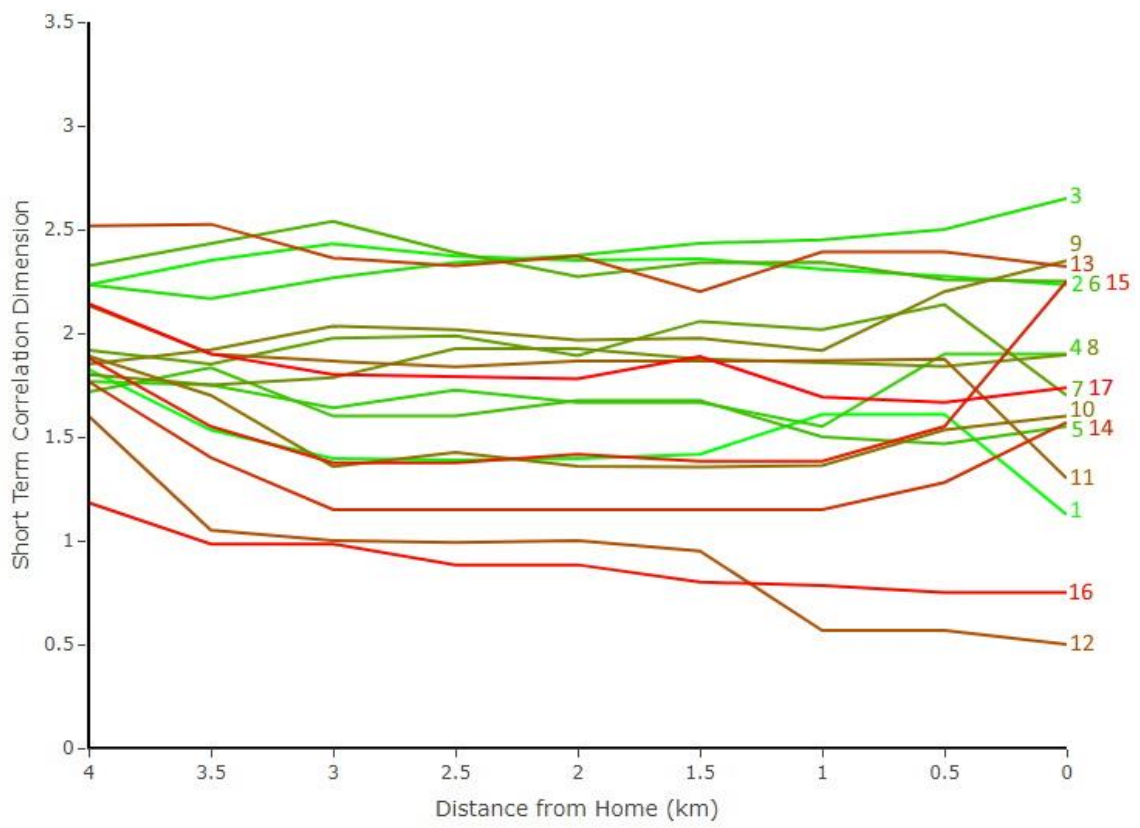


659 Figure 5



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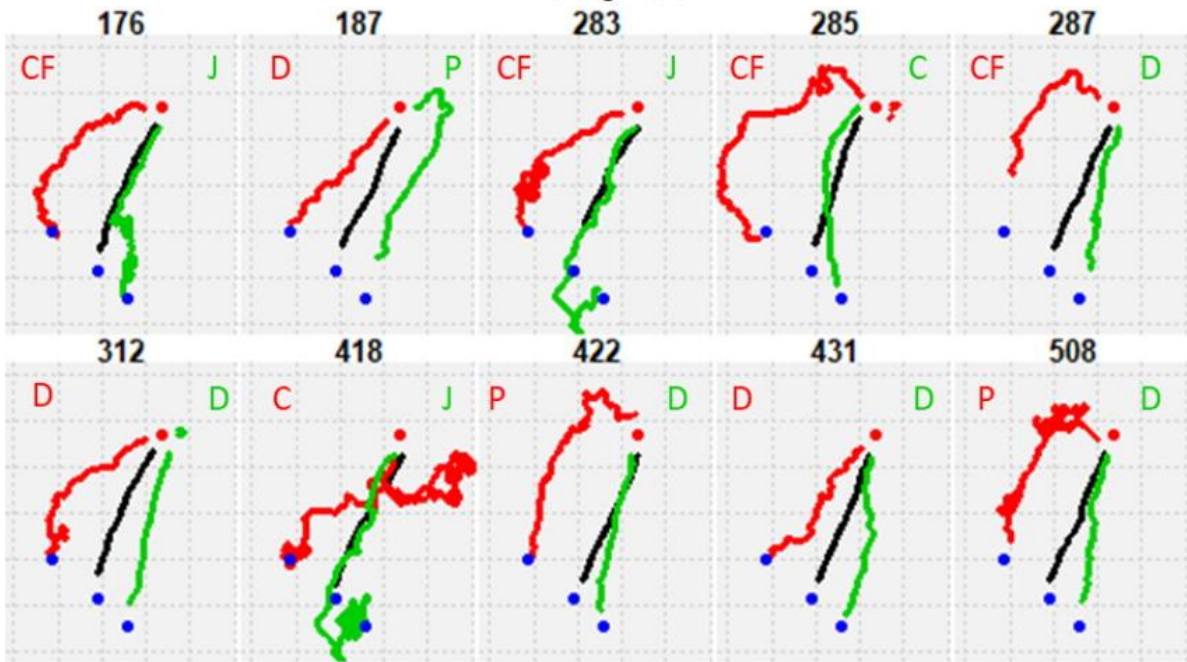
661 Figure 6



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663 Figure 7

Young Birds



Old Birds

