

1 **Familiarity with social partners influences affiliative interactions but not spatial associations**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 To successfully navigate complex social environments, animals must manage their relationships with  
15 familiar group members and strangers introduced via fission-fusion or demographic processes by  
16 deciding who, how often, and when to interact. However, it is not clear how animals balance the risks  
17 and benefits of interacting with familiar and stranger conspecifics. We studied whether familiarity  
18 among group members affect the patterning and timing of spatial associations and affiliative  
19 interactions in a captive group of 22 monk parakeets (*Myiopsitta monachus*) captured from four  
20 geographically distinct sites. We tested whether familiar and stranger dyads differed in the presence,  
21 strength, and timing of spatial and affiliative relationships. We found that general patterns of spatial  
22 proximity between birds were unaffected by capture site. In contrast, all affiliative interactions, like  
23 allopreening and beak touching, occurred significantly more often among familiar birds compared to  
24 stranger dyads. These affiliative interaction networks were also more densely connected, but  
25 relationships were not always stronger among familiar birds compared to strangers. Familiar and  
26 stranger birds did not differ in the timing of initiation of spatial proximity, while most affiliative  
27 interactions among strangers occurred significantly later in the experiment compared to familiar birds.  
28 In contrast, we found that the familiar and stranger spatial networks were equally well-connected, but  
29 associations were stronger among familiar birds. Our results show that monk parakeets discriminate  
30 between familiar and unfamiliar birds and suggest that birds use their previous experiences to make  
31 affiliative social decisions. By investigating the effect of familiarity on spatial and affiliative interactions  
32 we gain a better understanding of how individuals manage the costs and benefits of interacting with  
33 unfamiliar individuals.

34 **KEYWORDS:** AFFILIATIVE RELATIONSHIPS, PROXIMITY, FAMILIAR, NOVEL RELATIONSHIPS, PARROT, SOCIAL NETWORK

35

36 **INTRODUCTION**

37 Group-living provides many benefits, but social groups often change in size and composition as  
38 individuals disperse to a new group or area and seek to form relationships or pair bonds with novel  
39 individuals, or strangers (Shizuka & Johnson, 2020; Silk et al., 2014). These intrinsically dynamic social  
40 environments require that individuals manage the presence and strength of preexisting relationships  
41 with group members and potential relationships with strangers, but balancing associations between  
42 familiars and strangers presents a trade-off that can affect reproductive success, health, and longevity  
43 (Archie et al., 2014; Cameron et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2017). How animals navigate this dilemma is not  
44 well understood, and we have limited quantitative information on how strangers initiate and develop  
45 relationships with each other.

46 Individuals may maintain strong stable relationships, or pair bonds, with a few partners that persist  
47 across multiple years (Bales et al., 2021), and these relationships can provide substantial benefits  
48 including enhanced longevity and reproductive success in birds, fish, and mammals (Archie et al., 2014;  
49 Cameron et al., 2009; Nowicki et al., 2018). By maintaining relationships with social partners, pairs  
50 develop familiarity or trust through repeated positive experiences (Carter et al., 2020; Sánchez-  
51 Macouzet et al., 2014; van de Pol et al., 2006). For example, familiar pairs may become more efficient or  
52 coordinated in behaviors like resource acquisition and defense (Nowicki et al., 2018), pair displays (Prior  
53 et al., 2020), and parental care (Griggio & Hoi, 2011; Sánchez-Macouzet et al., 2014). Familiarity with  
54 social partners can create a more stable or predictable social environment which can buffer individuals  
55 from negative effects of novel social environments or social instability (Cimarelli et al., 2021; Schaffner &  
56 Smith, 2005; Young et al., 2014). While maintaining familiar relationships minimizes the time and energy  
57 costs associated with searching for suitable mates, investing substantial time and energy into one  
58 another can be costly or even lethal (Blumstein et al., 2018; Weber et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017) and  
59 could prevent animals from forming relationships with potentially higher quality partners.

60 Alternatively, maintaining relationships may not be feasible in social groups that experience high rates of  
61 turnover (due to immigration/emigration/births/deaths), or animals may disperse from their natal group  
62 to seek reproductive partners. In such cases, establishing relationships with novel individuals could  
63 provide increased social opportunity for high quality partners and mates (Kohn et al., 2015), increased  
64 access to social information (Aplin et al., 2012; Garg et al., 2022), or facilitate social stability (Lewis,  
65 2008). Forming novel relationships may also function as a social bet-hedging strategy to minimize  
66 negative effects associated with losing any one social partner (Carter et al., 2017) or to maintain social  
67 network position (Firth et al., 2017). However, initiating and developing novel relationships can involve  
68 some level of risk. When first interacting with strangers, individuals may have minimal or unreliable  
69 information about other's threat level in case of aggression (Chaine et al., 2018), propensity to affiliate,  
70 or reliability as a social partner (Carter et al., 2020). Interacting with familiar and novel individuals  
71 includes costs and benefits, and to successfully navigate complex social environments, animals must  
72 decide who to interact with, how often, and when to initiate interactions with strangers.

73 Understanding when and how animals decide to associate with familiars and strangers can lend insight  
74 into animal social decision-making processes and clarify the importance of social history on informing  
75 future affiliative decisions (Schusterman et al., 2000; Taborsky & Oliveira, 2012). To identify how  
76 effectively animals balance relationships with familiars and strangers, quantitative assessments of spatial  
77 associations and affiliative interactions are necessary. A multimodal approach can provide a more  
78 nuanced understanding of the relative importance of different association types. Without considering  
79 several association types, researchers risk an incomplete understanding of social preferences and may  
80 underestimate the effect of familiarity on social interactions. Parrots (family: Psittaciformes) are a  
81 compelling avenue for exploring this relationship because despite their suspected cognitive and social  
82 complexity (Hobson et al., 2014; Luescher, 2006), we lack quantitative data to test fundamental  
83 assumptions about their socioecology. This gap limits opportunities for effective conservations strategies

84 aimed at many species of parrots whose populations are declining or considered vulnerable,  
85 endangered, or critically endangered (Uehling et al., 2019; Vergara-Tabares et al., 2020).

86 We assessed how monk parakeets (*Myiopsitta monachus*) spatially associate and affiliatively interact  
87 with familiar and stranger birds to better understand how birds may balance the risks and benefits of  
88 navigating a novel social environment. Monk parakeets are a highly social parrot native to South America  
89 (Bucher et al., 1991; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000) although they have established breeding colonies  
90 globally (South & Pruett-Jones, 2000; Uehling et al., 2019). Throughout their native and introduced  
91 range, monk parakeets typically live in resident colonies where pairs are the fundamental social unit  
92 (Avery et al., 2012; Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et al., 2014), and in the wild and in captivity, parakeets  
93 often form strong affiliative bonds with 1-2 group members regardless of sex (Eberhard, 1998; Hobson et  
94 al., 2014). Neighboring monk parakeet colonies often temporarily fuse to forage resulting in large  
95 foraging flocks that may consist of up to hundreds of individuals (Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et al.,  
96 2014; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000). These patterns mean that parakeets may regularly encounter novel  
97 social environments and are therefore an apt system to explore the effect of familiarity on relationship  
98 formation. Additionally, experimental social manipulations of monk parakeet social groups show that  
99 aggression among group members is likely structured by previous interactions rather than individual  
100 characteristics, like badges of status or relative size (Hobson & DeDeo, 2015; van der Marel et al., 2023a)  
101 indicating that social history is important for future social decision-making.

102 Given monk parakeets are likely to encounter novel individuals in the wild and the significance of past  
103 experiences on social interactions in an agonistic context, we hypothesized that the presence, strength,  
104 and initiation of spatial associations and affiliative investments would be shaped by familiar/stranger  
105 relationship status. We created a novel social group of feral monk parakeets by introducing subgroups  
106 captured from four geographically distinct sites into a large flight pen. During the experiment, we  
107 recorded several behavioral types (two spatial associations and five affiliative interactions) that occurred

108 between individuals from the same capture site (familiar) and from different capture sites (strangers).  
109 We predicted that birds from the same site would preferentially spatially associate with one another, and  
110 that all behaviors would be more common and more frequent among familiar dyads than stranger dyads.  
111 Similarly, we expected that familiar dyads would initiate associations earlier compared to stranger dyads.  
112 If there are preferential associations and differences between the presence, strength, and differences in  
113 timing of relationship initiation, then this would provide support for our hypothesis and suggest that  
114 monk parakeets differentiate between familiar and stranger birds potentially due to the risks and  
115 benefits of associating and interacting. Alternatively, birds may readily form novel relationships. In this  
116 case, we would assume that familiarity might not be a factor when deciding to associate and the risks of  
117 associating and interacting are relatively equal. Ultimately, our results will lend insight into how monk  
118 parakeets navigate complex social environments.

## 119 **METHODS**

### 120 **Ethics statement**

121 We declare we have no competing interests. All animal-related research activities were approved by the  
122 University of Cincinnati (IACUC protocol#AM02-19-11-19-01) and the USDA NWRC (Quality Assurance  
123 #3203). The United States Department of Agriculture, Wildlife Services, National Wildlife Research  
124 Center (USDA WS NWRC) captured birds from southeast Florida. During experiments, observers were  
125 blind to the experimental bird's sex and capture site.

### 126 **Bird capture sites and experimental social group**

127 We performed experiments at the USDA, Florida Field Station, in Gainesville, FL, USA. Our experiments  
128 were performed in February 2021 with feral-caught monk parakeets (n = 22; 8 females and 14 males)  
129 from four geographically distinct capture sites across southeast Florida (Site 1: n = 5, Site 2: n = 6, Site 3:  
130 n = 7, and Site 4: n = 4). The average distance between capture sites was 16.06 km (range: 3.28 - 30.85  
131 km). We treated birds from the same site as potentially familiar with each other because observational

132 studies of populations within their native range reported high site fidelity and short dispersal distances  
133 (1.2 km) (Bucher et al., 1991; Dawson Pell et al., 2021; Martín & Bucher, 1993). We assumed that birds  
134 from different sites were likely unfamiliar to one another because the minimum distance between our  
135 capture sites exceeded twice the reported dispersal distance (2.4 km). Our setup provided the  
136 opportunity for a maximum of 179 possible novel relationships and 52 familiar relationships. Monk  
137 parakeets are sexually monomorphic, and we did not know the sex of the birds prior to the experiment.  
138 Birds were genetically sexed prior to the start of the experiment.

139 To preserve unfamiliarity between birds from different sites, we quarantined groups of 2-3 birds from the  
140 same capture site for two weeks prior to the experiment following their capture. Quarantining birds was  
141 necessary to prevent the spread of infectious disease and to ensure birds were fit for experimentation.  
142 These pairs or trios were quarantined in 2 x 2 m cages in a covered outdoor aviary in which birds could  
143 be in physical contact with their cage mate(s), and visual and auditory contact with same-site individuals.  
144 Birds captured from different sites were visually separated, but all birds in the aviary were in vocal  
145 contact with each other during the quarantine period.

146 For individual identification, birds were given a uniquely numbered metal leg band. Additionally, birds  
147 were randomly assigned a unique three-color combination. To aid in identification during the  
148 experiment, the color ID was applied with nontoxic permanent markers (Sharpie, Inc.®) (Hobson et al.  
149 2014) across each bird's head, cheeks, and chest. Color marks remained conspicuous throughout the  
150 experiment.

151 To begin the experiment, we simultaneously released all birds in a large 2,025 m<sup>2</sup> semi-natural outdoor  
152 flight pen on April 5, 2021. The flight pen contained artificial and natural perches used for enrichment  
153 and shade. We marked the area with a grid using string on the ground to assist observers in identifying  
154 the locations of the birds (see details below). We observed the birds for 22 days, ending on April 26,

155 2021. During this time birds were allowed to interact freely and remained undisturbed (aside from daily  
156 husbandry and two observers recording interactions from blinds within the flight pen). Birds had  
157 constant access to food (seed mix provision) and water which were replaced daily, and birds were able to  
158 forage on grass within the flight pen. We began collecting proximity and social interaction data as soon  
159 as all birds were released into the flight pen (see details below). Daily observations took place between  
160 08:00 and 19:00 by a total of four observers from three different blinds. To maximize the amount of data  
161 recorded, all observers collected data simultaneously, and breaks between observers were taken in shifts  
162 such that at minimum three observers were present.

### 163 **Spatial and social data collection**

164 During observation hours, we recorded seven behaviors to analyze spatial associations and affiliative  
165 interactions (Table 1). We examined patterns across multiple behaviors to capture aspects of flocking and  
166 affiliative relationships and because the tradeoff between forming a novel relationship and maintaining  
167 exclusively familiar relationships might vary depending on the social context or behavior (i.e., shared  
168 space or social grooming) (Carter et al., 2020; J. Silk et al., 1999). All interaction observations were  
169 recorded in real time directly onto iPads using the Animal Observer application (Caillaud, 2016; Luescher,  
170 2006; van der Marel et al., 2022).

171 We assessed spatial associations in two ways: (1) *spatial proximity* and (2) *nearest neighbor* associations.

172 To collect proximity associations, observers scanned the entire flight pen every five minutes and  
173 recorded which grid cell each bird was in, creating a “snapshot” of each bird’s X and Y coordinates within  
174 the flight pen. During data analysis, we calculated Euclidean distances between all identified birds for  
175 each scan. Any birds within three meters or less of each other were scored as in proximity. We chose  
176 three meters because it was less than the median ( $n = 4$ ) Euclidean distance observed across scans and  
177 was consistent with past spatial association distances (Hobson et al. 2014). We used nearest neighbor  
178 associations to identify birds in peaceful proximity. Nearest neighbor associations were collected in the



179 absence of social interactions where observers scanned the flight pen and recorded the identity of the  
180 closest bird within one meter for each bird.

181 We quantified five affiliative contact interactions: (1) *shoulder-to-shoulder* interactions, (2) *allopreening*,  
182 (3) *beak touching*, (4) *allofeeding*, and (5) *copulation* events (see Table 1). Affiliative interactions were  
183 recorded as they occurred using an all-occurrence sampling method (Altmann, 1974). These behaviors  
184 best reflect affiliative relationships among same and opposite sex monk parakeets in the wild and in  
185 captivity and are consistent with previous research with this species (Bucher et al., 1991; Eberhard,  
186 1998; Hobson et al., 2014).

**Table 1:** Description of the seven behaviors observed.

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Description</b>
Proximity	Shared space: birds found within a 3m radius of one another; Indicates flock membership
Nearest neighbor	Identity of the bird perched closest to the observed individual, within a minimum distance of 1m; Indicates spatial preference within a flock
Shoulder-to-shoulder	Two birds sitting in physical contact side by side
Allopreen	Two birds preen (groom) each other's feathers
Beak touch	Two birds simultaneously and rapidly touching culmens together; often occurs while posturing upwards with heads raised
Allofeed	Birds regurgitating (or simulating regurgitation) food into each other's beaks
Copulation	Two birds touch cloacas

187

188 Prior to data analysis, we filtered our data to include only positively identified individuals where the  
189 behavior was one of our seven behaviors of interest (Table 1). Because we had multiple observers and  
190 because some behaviors were sampled at different frequencies, we also filtered our data to include a  
191 maximum of one observation per dyad per behavior per 5-minute observation interval.

## 192 **Statistical analyses**

193 We performed all data analyses in R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team 2021). We used igraph (Csárdi et al.,  
194 2024) for network analyses and created figures using ggplot2 (Wickham 2016) and igraph.

195 We used social network analysis to quantify patterns of assortativity and to test for differences in the  
196 distribution and intensity of associations. We used permutation-based reference models, a common tool  
197 to analyze non-independent data like social interactions, to test for differences between observed  
198 patterns compared to those expected if familiar/stranger status was randomized (Croft et al., 2011;  
199 Hobson et al., 2021). Reference models are generated over thousands of iterations in which key features  
200 of the data are permuted while other aspects of the network structure are maintained. In this way,  
201 potential correlations between observed structure of the association data and the feature of interest are  
202 broken. A test statistic which captures the relationship of interest is calculated for each iteration of the  
203 reference model resulting in a distribution of test statistics. Comparisons can then be made to determine  
204 whether there are meaningful differences between the observed values of the test statistic and the  
205 permuted values by quantifying the proportion of permuted values that are more extreme than the  
206 observed (Farine & Carter, 2022; Hobson et al., 2021). Our reference models maintained all aspects of  
207 the network structure including the identity of the dyad, the behavior used, and the number of birds  
208 from each site. For each iteration ( $n = 10,000$ ), we permuted the site each bird was captured from  
209 therefore randomizing the type of relationship (i.e., familiar or stranger) between dyads. We calculated  
210  $P$ -values by quantifying the proportion of permuted values that were more extreme than the observed  
211 value in a one-tailed comparison. The observed coefficients were considered significantly different than  
212 the permuted coefficients if the observed value was less than 5% of the permuted coefficients. A result  
213 of  $P = 0$  would indicate that 100% of permuted values were less extreme than the observed value (either  
214 all higher or all lower, depending on whether the observed value fell above or below the reference  
215 distribution).

216 ***Testing for preferential associations between familiar and stranger dyads***

217 To examine whether birds preferentially associate with familiar conspecifics, we first created weighted  
218 and undirected networks for each behavior. Weighted networks, which consider the frequency of  
219 interactions among nodes, or birds, are more robust to sampling noise when calculating assortativity  
220 compared to binary networks which represent only the presence of associations (Farine, 2014). We then  
221 calculated assortativity coefficients,  $r_a$ , using the function `assortativity_nominal()` (Csárdi et al., 2024).  
222 This function returns a value ranging from negative one to one to indicate the degree of homophily, or  
223 the tendency for birds to associate with others with similar traits (i.e., other birds from the same site).  
224 Values close to one indicate that birds from the same site tend to associate, and values close to negative  
225 one indicate that birds from the same site tend not to associate. We constructed a permutation-based  
226 reference model to test for statistical significance of observed assortativity for each behavior. We  
227 quantified assortativity coefficients with the same function described above to identify the level of  
228 assortativity. We then compared the observed assortativity coefficients to those produced by each  
229 iteration of the permuted networks. We predicted that birds would preferentially associate across all  
230 behaviors by site, so we expected that observed assortativity coefficients for each behavior would be  
231 greater than the randomized relationships in the reference distribution.

232 ***Quantifying differences in the presence and strength of relationships***

233 We then tested how familiarity may affect the presence of associations by first creating separate  
234 networks for stranger and familiar birds and for each behavior and calculating *density* for each network.  
235 Network density indicates the proportion of the total possible connections (edges) that were observed,  
236 and values range from zero to one. High density or a value near one would indicate a highly connected  
237 network in which birds interact with many of the available social partners. A low density or a value near  
238 zero would indicate a sparsely connected network in which birds only associate with a few possible social  
239 partners. To compare connectivity between familiar and stranger associations networks, we subtracted

240 the density of the stranger network from the density of the familiar network. Values range from negative  
241 one to one. A positive difference would indicate that density among familiar dyads is greater than  
242 density among strangers, and a negative difference would indicate that density among strangers is  
243 greater than among familiar birds. A greater difference would indicate a larger discrepancy between the  
244 connectedness of familiar and stranger networks. We predicted network density for all behaviors among  
245 familiar dyads to be greater than that of stranger dyads, and we expected that observed differences in  
246 network density to be greater than the values produced by the reference model. We used the same  
247 reference model as before to permute capture sites of birds while maintaining all other aspects of  
248 network structure, and the differences in network density as our test statistic to test for meaningful  
249 differences between the observed values and values produced by the reference model.

250 Similarly, we tested how familiarity may affect the frequency of associations by quantifying *strength* for  
251 each network. Strength describes how frequently dyads interact by summing the weights of the edges  
252 that connect them. In our case, values can vary depending on the frequency of associations and  
253 interactions, but higher values indicate more associations and stronger relationships, and lower values  
254 indicate less associations and weaker relationships. We used Cohen's *d* from Welch's T-test to compare  
255 association strength between familiar and stranger dyads. We used the function `cohensD()` from the `lsr`  
256 package (v.0.5.1 Navarro 2015). Network strength served as the dependent variable and the  
257 independent variable was a binary distinction between 'familiar' or 'stranger'. Given that the birds were  
258 in captive conditions, all individuals were equally likely to be observed, and we did not have any  
259 sampling biases for individuals, sexes, or sites. This approach allowed us to incorporate the necessary  
260 constraints within the reference model that might otherwise need to be addressed with other statistical  
261 tools (Franks et al., 2021; Hart et al., 2022). We predicted association strengths to be greater among  
262 familiar dyads compared to strangers, so we expected observed Cohen's *d* values to be negative. We also  
263 expected that values produced by the reference model to be greater than the observed. We determined

264 if the observed values were significantly different from the permuted values using a one-tailed  
265 comparison.

### 266 ***Testing for differences in the timing of relationship initiation***

267 To test how familiarity may account for differences in relationship initiation, we identified the day that  
268 each behavior was initiated, or the first day behaviors were observed, among dyads over the course of  
269 the experiment. Because the data were not normally distributed, we used a one-tailed Mann-Whitney U  
270 test to test for significant differences between the median initiation days between familiar and strangers  
271 for each behavior. To quantify the magnitude of differences between familiar and strangers, we  
272 calculated the rank-biserial correlation ( $r_{bc}$ ), the effect size of a Mann-Whitney U test, with the function  
273 `wilcox_effsize()` from the `rstatix` package (Midroit et al., 2021; Kassambara 2023). Rank-biserial  
274 correlation values range from zero to one. Coefficient values near zero would indicate a small effect, and  
275 values near one would indicate a large effect. We predicted that familiar dyads would initiate all  
276 behaviors earlier compared to strangers, and we expected that the observed rank-biserial correlation  
277 coefficients would be greater than the coefficients produced by the reference model.

278 We used the same framework as the reference model described above. However, this reference model  
279 permutes the raw data used to construct the network rather than the summarized network data itself.  
280 This is to maintain the date and time that the associations were observed. We determined if the  
281 observed coefficients were significantly different from the permuted coefficients using a one-tailed  
282 comparison.

## 283 **RESULTS**

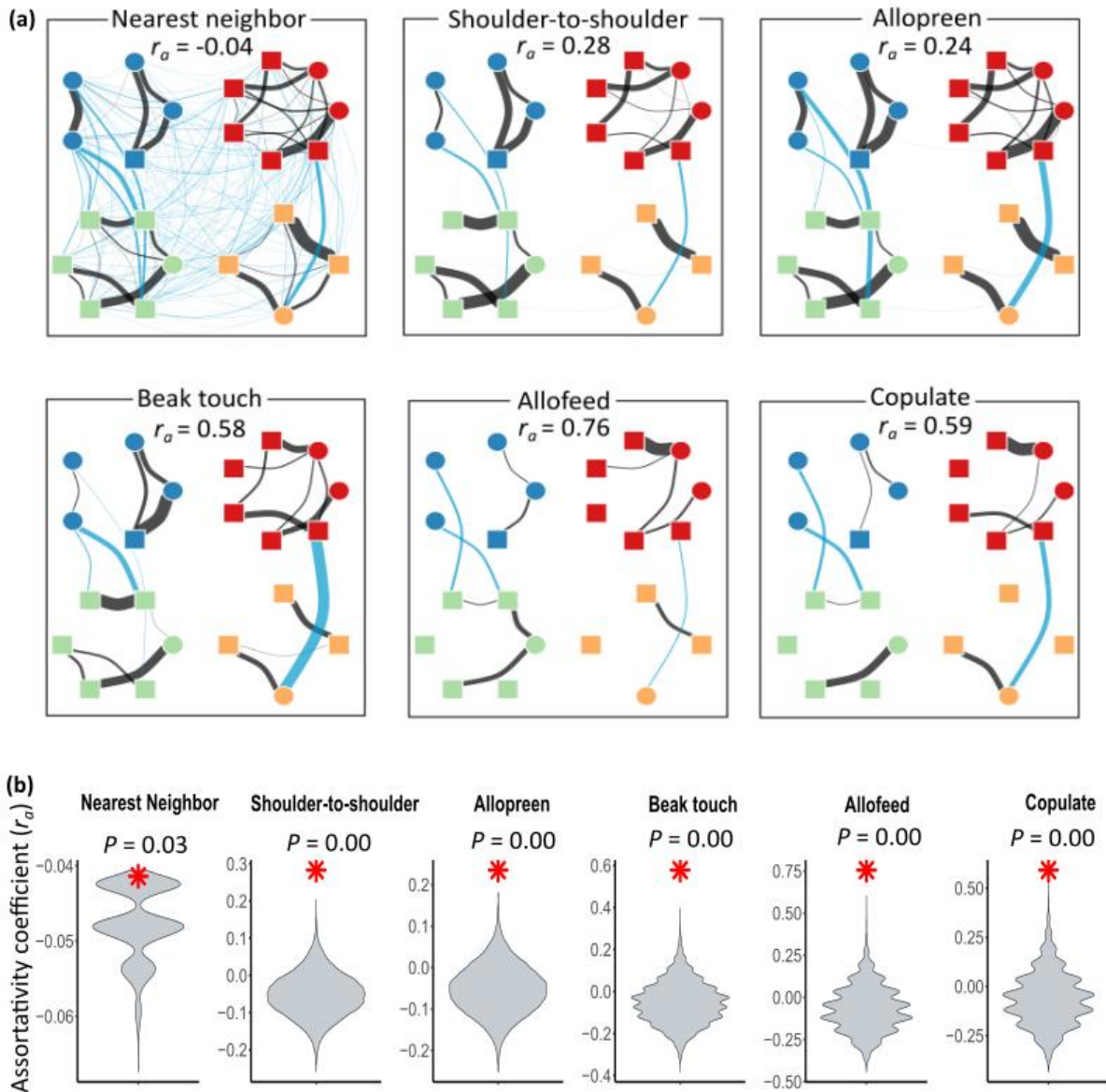
284 We observed the experimental group comprised of 179 possible strangers for a total of 132.30  
285 observation hours across 19 observation days. Each day we observed an average of 6.96 ( $\pm$  1.54 SD)

286 hours. We observed over 16,500 spatial associations and affiliative interactions among familiar dyads,  
287 and over 23,000 among strangers.

### 288 ***Testing for preferential associations between familiar and stranger dyads***

289 Assortativity coefficients ( $r_a$ ) from weighted undirected networks ranged from -0.05 to 0.76. Proximity  
290 networks were slightly disassortative and were not significantly assorted by familiarity ( $r_a = -0.05$ ,  $P =$   
291 1.00). This result is likely because proximity coefficients produced by the reference model were nearly  
292 the same as the observed because proximity networks were fully connected among familiar dyads, and  
293 nearly entirely connected among strangers (see next section for details on network connectivity).

294 Although the observed nearest neighbor associations were slightly disassortative, we found that these  
295 networks were significantly more assortative by site than expected by chance (Fig. 2a-b;  $r_a = -0.04$ ,  $P =$   
296 0.03). We found all dyads positively assorted by site for all affiliative behaviors and these were  
297 statistically significant. Of the affiliative networks, shoulder-to-shoulder and allopreening interactions  
298 were the least assortative (Fig. 2a-b;  $r_a = 0.28$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ; and  $r_a = 0.24$ ,  $P = 0.00$ , respectively) meaning  
299 that dyads often but not always perched with or allopreened familiar birds. Assortativity coefficients for  
300 beak touching, allofeeding, and copulation interactions were very high (Fig. 2a-b;  $r_a = 0.58$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ;  $r_a =$   
301 0.76,  $P = 0.00$ ;  $r_a = 0.59$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ) suggesting birds typically used these behaviors with familiar birds.

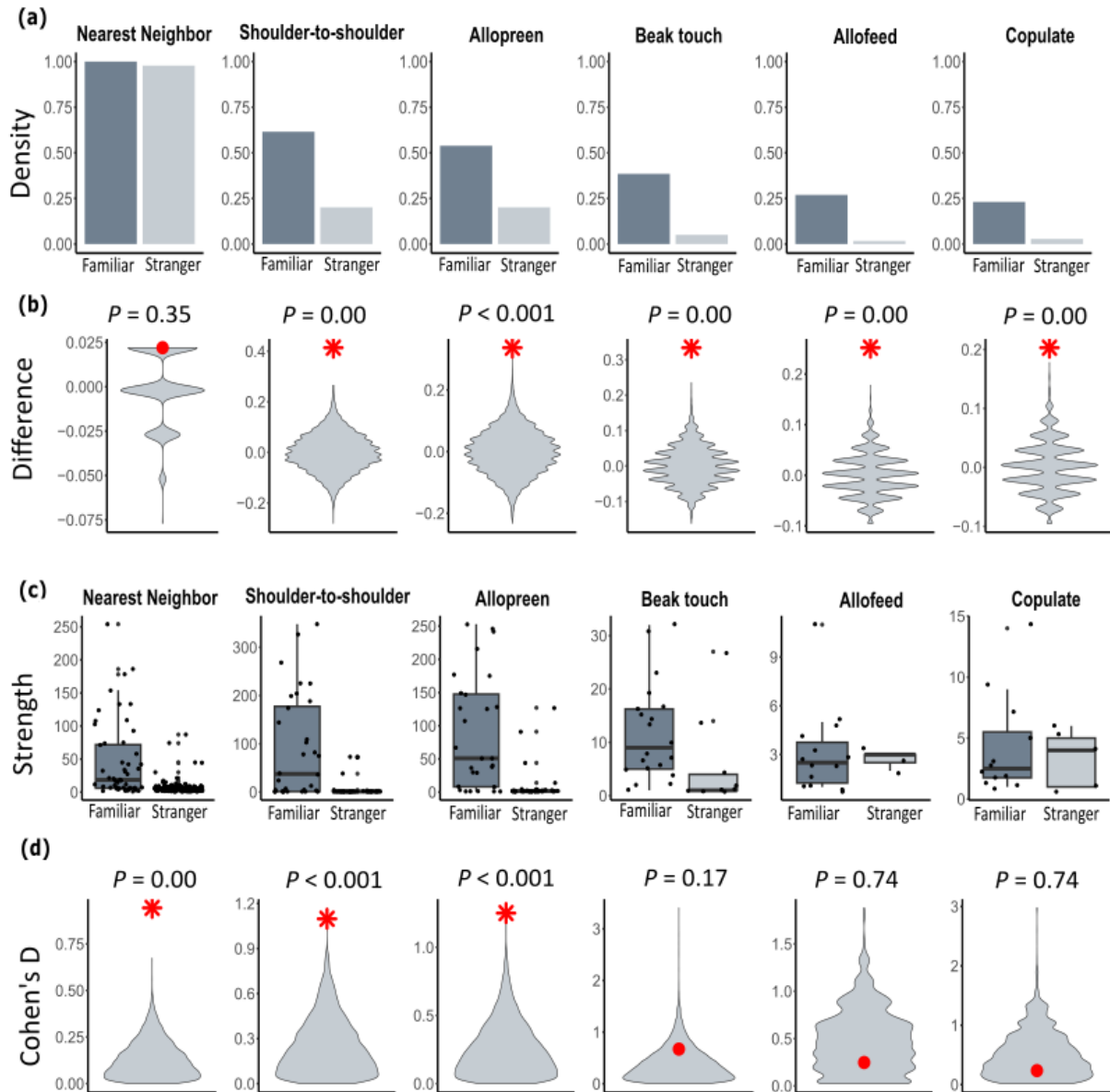


**Figure 2:** Networks of six behaviors showed differences between stranger and familiar relationships and several differences in assortativity across the entire study period. Panel a shows observed association networks for each behavior, where individuals are represented by colored nodes and are connected by an edge if one individual was ever observed behaving towards the other using one of the six behaviors. Node color represents capture site (blue = Site 1, green = Site 2, red = Site 3, and orange = Site 4). Node shape indicates sex (males = square and females = circle). Black edges represent associations between familiar birds, or birds from the same site. Blue edges represent associations between stranger birds, or birds from different sites. The width of the edge indicates association strength. The thicker the edge, the more pairs associated. Edge weights were scaled to the maximum edge weight per behavior. Panel b shows how observed values of assortativity for each behavior compared to values generated from random expectations. Observed values are indicated in red and significant values are indicated by an asterisk; randomized distributions are shaded in grey. See Figure 3 for network density measures.

303 ***Quantifying differences in the presence and strength of relationships***

304 Observed differences in network density were equal to or greater than zero for all behaviors, indicating  
305 that familiar networks were equally, or more densely connected compared to stranger networks. We  
306 found no significant difference in network density between familiar and stranger proximity networks, as  
307 both networks were completely connected (difference = 0.0;  $P = 1.00$ ). Nearest neighbor density  
308 between strangers and familiar birds also did not significantly differ (Figure 3a-b, difference = 0.02;  $P =$   
309 0.35). In contrast, the affiliative networks between familiar dyads were more densely connected than  
310 among stranger dyads and the magnitude of this difference was significant (Fig. 3a-b, shoulder-to-  
311 shoulder: difference = 0.41;  $P = 0.00$ ; allopreening: difference = 0.34,  $P < 0.001$ ; beak touching: difference  
312 = 0.33,  $P = 0.00$ ; allofeeding: difference = 0.25,  $P = 0.00$ ; and copulation: difference = 0.20,  $P = 0.00$ ).





**Figure 3:** Together the plots show differences in the presence and strength of some but not all behaviors between familiar and stranger dyads. Panel a shows the observed density of familiar and stranger networks for each behavior, and panel b shows the observed difference in network density (indicated in red) compared to the distribution of differences produced by the reference model (shaded in grey). Panel c shows observed association strengths among familiar and stranger dyads for each behavior. Panel d shows how the observed Cohen's d value, or effect sizes, (indicated in red and significant values are indicated by an asterisk) compared to the distribution in values produced by the reference model for each behavior (shaded in grey).

313

314 Cohen's d effect sizes ranged from 0.24 to 1.25, and the observed association and interaction strength

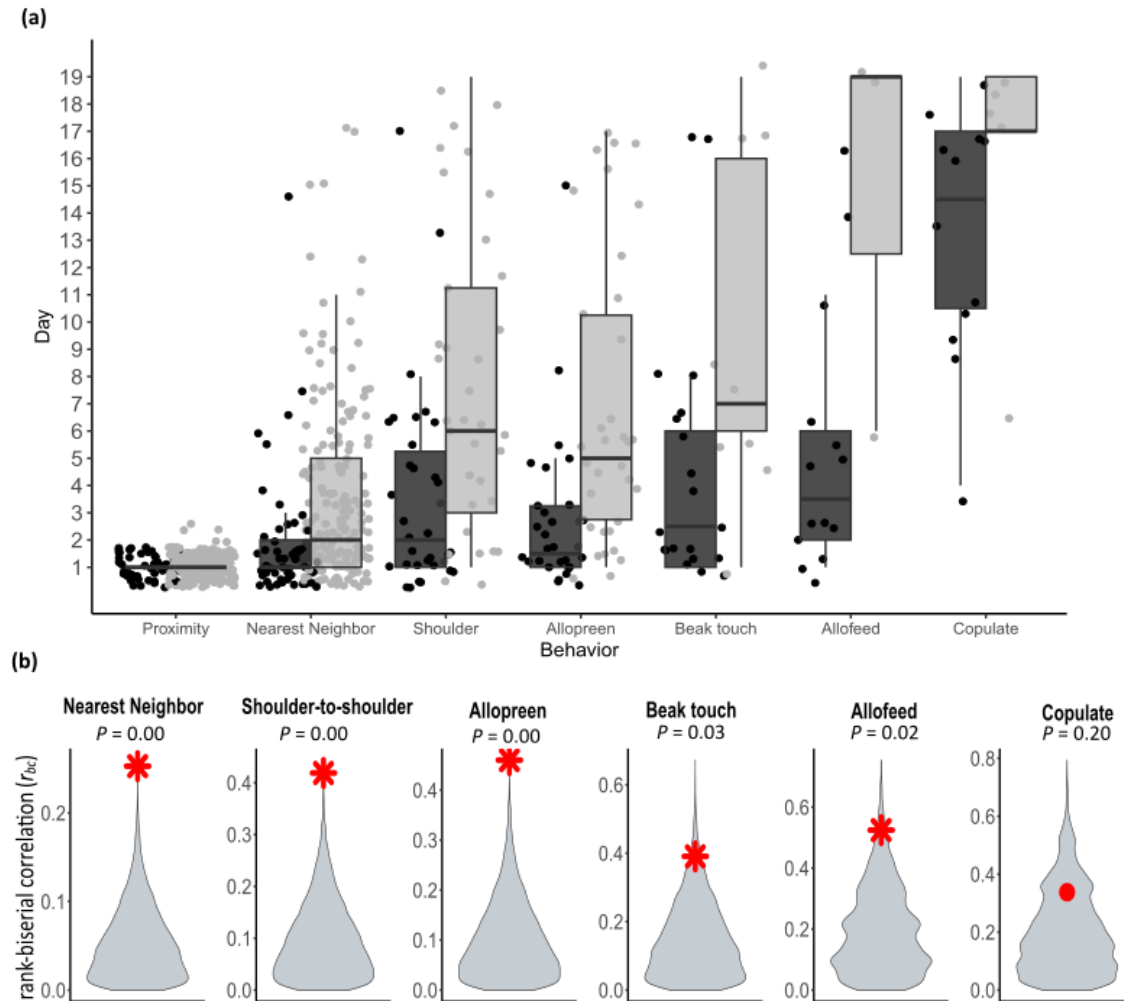
315 between familiar and stranger dyads are shown in figure 3c and 3d. Proximity and nearest neighbor

316 associations were significantly stronger among familiar birds compared to strangers (Proximity: Cohen's  
317  $d = 1.10$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ; and Figures 3c-d; Nearest neighbor: Cohen's  $d = 0.94$ ,  $P = 0.00$ ). Similarly, shoulder-to-  
318 shoulder and allopreening interactions were significantly stronger among familiar birds (Fig. 3c-d;  
319 Cohen's  $d = 1.10$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Cohen's  $d = 1.25$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , respectively) indicating a large effect of  
320 familiarity on relationship strength. Beak touching, allofeeding, and copulation interactions were smaller  
321 indicating a smaller effect of familiarity on relationship strength but were not significant (Fig. 3c-d;  
322 Cohen's  $d = 0.67$ ,  $P = 0.17$ ; Cohen's  $d = 0.25$ ,  $P = 0.74$ ; and Cohen's  $d = 0.24$ ,  $P = 0.74$ , respectively).

### 323 ***Testing for differences in the timing of relationship initiation***

324 All proximity associations for both familiar and stranger dyads were initiated within the first two days of  
325 the experiment (Fig 4a), and we did not find a significant difference between days ( $r_{bc} = 0.34$ ;  $P = 0.08$ ).  
326 We observed more variability in the days nearest neighbor associations were initiated. The median  
327 initiation day occurred on day one (range = 1-15) among familiar dyads and day two among strangers  
328 (range = 1-17; Fig. 4a), and we found significant differences between days nearest neighbor associations  
329 were initiated (Fig. 4b;  $r_{bc} = 0.25$ ;  $P = 0.00$ ). Similarly, we found significant differences between initiation  
330 days for shoulder-to-shoulder and allopreening interactions (Fig. 5b; Shoulder-to-shoulder:  $r_{bc} = 0.42$ ;  $P =$   
331  $0.00$ ; Allopreen:  $r_{bc} = 0.46$ ;  $P = 0.00$ ) which occurred four days earlier among familiar dyads compared to  
332 strangers for both behaviors (Fig. 4a). Beak touching, allofeeding, and copulation interactions were  
333 initiated much later in the experiment, and were initiated 4.5, 15.5, and 2.5 days (median) earlier among  
334 familiar dyads compared to strangers (Fig. 4a). We found significant differences between the days beak  
335 touching and allofeeding interactions were initiated (Fig. 4b; Beak touch:  $r_{bc} = 0.39$ ;  $P = 0.03$ ; Allofeed:  $r_{bc}$   
336  $= 0.52$ ;  $P = 0.02$ ). However, we did not find a significant difference between copulation interactions (Fig.  
337 4b;  $r_{bc} = 0.34$ ;  $P = 0.20$ ).

338



**Figure 4:** The days dyads were observed initiating behaviors were different between stranger and familiars. Panel a shows the days familiar and stranger dyads were observed initiating behaviors throughout the entire study. Panel b shows how observed rank biserial coefficients (indicated in red and significant results are indicated by an asterisk) for each behavior compared to coefficients generated from random expectations. Randomized distributions are shaded in grey.

339

340 **DISCUSSION**

341 Using a novel social group of monk parakeets, we examined whether familiar and stranger dyads differed  
 342 in the presence, strength, and timing of spatial associations and affiliative interactions. We found that  
 343 general patterns of spatial proximity between birds were unaffected by capture site, and familiar and  
 344 stranger birds did not differ in the timing of initiation of spatial proximity. In contrast, all affiliative

345 interactions, like allopreening and beak touching, occurred significantly more often among familiar birds  
346 compared to stranger dyads. These affiliative interaction networks were also more densely connected,  
347 but relationships were not always stronger among familiar birds compared to strangers. Most affiliative  
348 interactions among strangers occurred significantly later in the experiment compared to familiar birds. In  
349 contrast, we found that the familiar and stranger proximity networks were equally well-connected, but  
350 associations were stronger among familiar birds. Although our results for spatial associations and  
351 affiliative interactions differ, the observed patterns provide evidence that monk parakeets differentiated  
352 between familiar and unfamiliar birds in their affiliative interactions and indicate that known strangers  
353 could form affiliative relationships relatively quickly. We discuss the differences in the effect of familiarity  
354 on spatial associations compared to affiliative contact and the extent to which these results suggest that  
355 monk parakeets balance the risks and benefits of associating with familiar and stranger birds.

356 ***Strangers readily formed flocks but stayed close to familiar birds***

357 We found that birds were not in spatial proximity by site more than expected by chance. Nearest  
358 neighbor associations were significantly assortative by site. Proximity, but not nearest neighbor  
359 associations were initiated around the same time for familiar and stranger dyads. Spatial networks were  
360 equally well-connected among familiar and stranger dyads but were stronger among familiar dyads.  
361 Taken together, these results indicate that familiar and stranger birds readily formed flocks but  
362 maintained closer proximity to familiar birds. This result is consistent with observations of wild and  
363 captive monk parakeet social groups which indicate that forming foraging flocks is central to their  
364 socioecology (Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et al., 2014; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000).

365 Although the spatial results were contrary to our prediction, we do not think that proximity relationships  
366 are necessarily indicative of familiarity between birds from different capture sites. We suspect that the  
367 potential benefits of sharing space outweigh the risks of associating with strangers. Maintaining spatial  
368 proximity is a relatively low-risk, low-investment way for conspecifics to increase vigilance and predator

369 awareness or to increase foraging efficiency (Sorato et al., 2012; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000; van der  
370 Marel et al., 2019). Playback experiments in a captive group of monk parakeets indicate that sharing  
371 space may be beneficial for predator avoidance (Estien et al., 2020). Additionally, by sharing space with  
372 strangers monk parakeets may assess individual identity through unique vocal signatures (Smeele et al.,  
373 2023; Smith-Vidaurre et al., 2020) or conspecific's fighting ability (Beltrão et al., 2023; Hobson & DeDeo,  
374 2015; van der Marel et al., 2023b) while minimizing the risk of receiving aggression and maximizing the  
375 amount of time to flee or prepare for defense if rejected (Narizano & Carter, 2020; Silk et al., 1996).  
376 Social perturbation experiments in captive groups demonstrated that birds can infer the rank of others  
377 through observing fights among group mates and use previous experiences with group mates to inform  
378 future agonistic decisions (Hobson et al., 2014; Hobson & DeDeo, 2015; van der Marel et al., 2023).  
379 Additionally, proximity may offer the opportunity to assess conspecific's suitability as an affiliative partner  
380 (Carter et al., 2020).

381 Distances between capture sites were close enough for birds to travel (Dawson Pell et al., 2024), so it is  
382 possible birds from different capture sites could have encountered one another while foraging. However,  
383 birds would not need to travel far from their capture site to access food resources or nesting material  
384 because each capture site was located near a park or agricultural field and a body of water. Additionally,  
385 to access mutual foraging patches, birds would need to cross sites separated by urban-suburban areas  
386 and highways which may be difficult. Genetic evidence suggests that long-distance dispersal ranging  
387 from 10 – 100 km is possible in monk parakeets (Borray et al., 2023; Gonçalves da Silva et al., 2010).  
388 More research is needed to determine how typical this pattern is and to assess noise in samples.  
389 Although we cannot be certain that birds from different capture sites had not encountered each other,  
390 our results suggest that birds discriminate between same site and different site. Future research is  
391 needed to clarify how familiarity with social partners shapes affiliative social decisions.

392 ***Birds tended to affiliate with familiar partners, but could form novel relationships quickly***  
393 Shoulder-to-shoulder and allopreening interactions were the only behaviors to match our predictions.  
394 Unlike the other affiliative contact behavior, shoulder-to-shoulder and allopreening interactions were  
395 more common among familiar birds, were stronger and were initiated earlier among familiar dyads. Like  
396 other affiliative contact behaviors, strangers may delay initiating shoulder-to-shoulder contact or  
397 allopreening because they are riskier and require some investment to the actor. Similarly, the presence  
398 and strength of these relationships initiated early in the experiment among familiar birds could provide  
399 additional support that affiliative relationships from birds from the same capture site maintained their  
400 relationships post-release, but we cannot be certain. Unlike beak touching, allofeeding, and copulation,  
401 perching shoulder-to-shoulder and allopreening group mates likely do not require as high of an  
402 investment but still require contact, so there is some risk involved. We hypothesize that these behaviors  
403 may be important “transitional” behaviors as novel relationships develop. For example, female  
404 common vampire bats (*Desmodus rotundus*) test the waters with potential cooperative partners before  
405 escalating their relationship by sharing blood meals (Carter et al., 2020) and play among male Verreaux's  
406 sifaka (*Propithecus verreauxi*) is used to initiate social grooming relationships with unfamiliar males  
407 (Antonacci et al., 2010). However, further research on the order and timing behaviors are initiated  
408 among strangers is needed to clarify how behaviors are used to establish familiarity during relationship  
409 formation.

410 As predicted, we found that all affiliative interaction networks were assortative by site and were more  
411 densely connected among familiar birds compared to strangers. We found that shoulder-to-shoulder and  
412 allopreening, but not beak touching, allofeeding, or copulation interactions, were stronger among  
413 familiar birds. All affiliative behaviors, except for copulation, were initiated earlier among familiar birds  
414 compared to strangers. These results indicate that birds tended to affiliate with familiar partners but  
415 could form strong novel relationships relatively quickly. We suspect that affiliative interactions, like beak

416 touching, allofeeding or copulating, are a relatively higher investment to dyads and are also riskier for  
417 dyads to initiate compared to sharing space. Allofeeding, for example, results in a direct nutritional cost  
418 to the actor and is therefore particularly costly if the allofeeding is not reciprocated (Carter et al., 2020;  
419 de Kort et al., 2006). These behaviors could be particularly risky for strangers to initiate and may be the  
420 reason this behavior occurred later among stranger than familiar dyads. Affiliative contact behaviors  
421 initiated relatively early in the experiment among familiar birds could indicate that previously  
422 established relationships prior to experimentation might have remained intact following release into the  
423 flight pen (Ripperger et al., 2019). However, we cannot be sure about the experimental birds' social  
424 relationships prior to our experiment. It is interesting that these high-risk, high-investment behaviors  
425 among strangers were often as strong as familiar dyads and that they were initiated around the same  
426 time. Similarities between the strength and timing of these behaviors could suggest that strangers can  
427 develop familiarity with affiliative partners relationships quickly as is the case in other species like zebra  
428 finches (*Taeniopygia castanotis*) (Svec et al., 2009) and guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) (Griffiths &  
429 Magurran, 1997). A similar captive experiment with monk parakeets also found that monk parakeet  
430 affiliative relationships can develop quickly (even among same sex pairs); however, this study was  
431 conducted with long-term captive resident birds with unknown past social histories prior to their  
432 capture, and it was unclear if there were familiar/stranger relationships (Hobson et al., 2014).  
433 Alternatively, similarities between the strength and timing of affiliative interactions could indicate that  
434 birds may have needed time to adjust to their new environment and assess whether it was safe or  
435 suitable for raising offspring (Barclay, 1988). These two possibilities are not mutually exclusive.

436 In summary, we expected that birds would preferentially associate with familiar individuals across all  
437 behaviors. What we found was that birds spatially associated with both familiar and stranger birds, but  
438 affiliatively interacted preferentially with familiar birds. Our results provide support that birds from  
439 different capture sites were likely unfamiliar with each other. The flight pen was large enough that

440 subgroups of birds from capture sites could have formed and isolated from each other without being in  
441 proximity to others or interacting with others. While spatial mixing gives strangers the opportunity to  
442 socialize, not all chose to affiliate. However, some strangers developed affiliative relationships relatively  
443 quickly. The differences in patterns and timing of distinct association types between stranger and familiar  
444 birds suggest that familiarity with group members is likely important in affiliative social decision making,  
445 and that familiarity could be gained quickly. Our results indicate that the tradeoff of associating with  
446 large groups and the tradeoffs of associating with individuals varies and interacting with strangers may  
447 be risky in some social contexts, specifically those that require physical contact or an investment of time  
448 or energy. We do not think these results are an artifact of captive conditions (Webster & Rutz, 2020), but  
449 rather the result of decisions the birds were making about their locations relative to others and the ways  
450 they interacted. Future work should investigate how familiarity is gained during novel relationship  
451 formation and development.

452 Overall, our results are consistent with research across a diverse range of taxa which demonstrate  
453 preferential association with familiar conspecifics in different contexts (Gutmann et al., 2015; Keller &  
454 Reeve, 1998; Kohn et al., 2015; Prior et al., 2020; Ripperger et al., 2019; Tuliozi et al., 2018). Our  
455 experiment and analysis with monk parakeets provide an important reference point for understanding  
456 variation in parrot socioecology. Our results lend insight into how social behavior may influence effective  
457 conservation management practices including relocations, reintroductions, and the development of  
458 captive breeding programs that prioritize social welfare (Aydinonat et al., 2014; Berger-Tal et al., 2011;  
459 Greggor et al., 2016; Snijders et al., 2017). Without this knowledge, we cannot fully understand the  
460 social factors affecting species' vulnerability or resilience to environmental changes like human-induced  
461 climate change, urbanization, and deforestation.



462 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

463 CLO and EAH conceptualized the idea for the manuscript. CLO and AM performed the experiment and  
464 collected data. CLO analyzed the data and drafted the manuscript. EAH oversaw data collection and  
465 provided advice on data analyses. AM and EAH provided feedback on drafts of the manuscript. All  
466 authors edited and approved its final version.

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