

1 **The effect of familiarity on the temporal dynamics of spatial and affiliative associations in**
2 **monk parakeets**

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14 **Abstract**

15 To successfully navigate dynamic social environments, animals must manage their relationships by
16 deciding who to interact with, how often, and when. Relationships may develop between familiar
17 group members, but novel relationships can also form as strangers join groups. The process
18 through which relationships form among strangers is not well-known for most species. We used a
19 captive population of monk parakeets (*Myiopsitta monachus*) with known familiar and stranger
20 relationships to test how novel relationships form among strangers. We established a novel social
21 group by combining 22 parakeets captured from four geographically distinct locations. We
22 quantified how familiar relationships differed from stranger relationships and whether we could
23 detect convergence of the patterning and timing of spatial and affiliative associations across three
24 contexts: general spatial proximity, nearest neighbor identity, and affiliative interactions. We found
25 that familiar networks were consistently more well-connected during the experiment, but stranger
26 birds formed relationships across all three association contexts. Spatial proximity associations
27 formed readily for both familiar and stranger birds, while nearest neighbor and affiliative
28 interactions developed more quickly among familiar dyads, indicating that the rate and patterning
29 of how these relationships were formed differed. We found that the birds consistently preferred
30 familiars across all behaviors with no clear patterns of convergence between familiars and
31 strangers but the degree of preference depended on the social context. Overall, these findings
32 suggest that parakeets recognize and differentiate between birds they might have encountered
33 previously and that relationships with familiar and stranger conspecifics are not interchangeable.
34 We discuss the differences in the effect of familiarity on spatial associations compared to affiliative
35 contact and the extent to which these results suggest that monk parakeets balance the risks and
36 benefits of associating with familiar and stranger birds.

37 **Keywords: Affiliative relationships, proximity, familiar, novel relationships, parrot, social**
38 **network**

39 **Introduction**

40 A considerable amount of research across diverse animal species demonstrate an ability to
41 recognize conspecifics (Tibbetts & Dale, 2007), and that the presence of familiar conspecifics plays
42 a key role in shaping social interactions among social group members. Social animals tend to
43 preferentially associate and affiliate with conspecifics they have previously shared space (Shizuka
44 et al., 2014), groomed (Carter et al., 2020), cooperated (Ripperger et al., 2019), or successfully
45 reproduced with (Yanagitsuru et al., 2024). Preferentially associating with familiar social partners
46 may provide individuals with a predictable social environment and increase social stability (Aragón
47 et al., 2007; Senar et al., 1990), and maintaining stable relationships with social partners enhance
48 efficiency and coordination in behaviors such as resource acquisition and defense (Nowicki et al.,
49 2018), pair displays during courtship (Prior et al., 2020a), and parental care (Griggio & Hoi, 2011;
50 Sánchez-Macouzet et al., 2014). Relationships with familiar social partners can have important
51 consequences for individual fitness (Archie et al., 2014), breeding success and offspring survival
52 (Culina et al., 2020; Riehl & Strong, 2018).

53 However, social groups often change in size and composition. Unfamiliar individuals, or strangers,
54 may encounter one another as neighboring groups may temporarily fuse with one another to forage
55 (Silk et al., 2014) or as individuals permanently disperse to a new group or area and seek to form
56 relationships or pair bonds with novel partners (Shizuka & Johnson, 2020). The presence of
57 strangers can also shape social interactions. Establishing novel relationships can provide
58 alternative benefits compared to familiar relationships such as increased social opportunity for
59 high-quality partners and mates (Kohn et al., 2015) or access to social information (Aplin et al.,
60 2012; Garg et al., 2022) or may function as a social bet-hedging strategy to minimize negative
61 effects associated with losing a social partner (Carter et al., 2017).

62 Ultimately, successfully navigating dynamic social environments requires animals to decide whom
63 to interact with, how, and when. When individuals encounter a novel social environment where
64 both familiar and unfamiliar conspecifics may offer distinct social benefits, they face a trade-off
65 (Cohen et al., 2007). Before engaging with strangers, individuals may take time to assess the risks
66 inherent to associating and overcoming social uncertainty (Antonacci et al., 2010), evaluate
67 potential social options, and gain familiarity (Carter et al., 2020; Griffiths & Magurran, 1997).

68 Although we expect that relationships sometimes form between former strangers, it is often
69 difficult to observe when and how strangers encounter one another for the first time and to quantify
70 how these interactions evolve over time. As a result, our understanding of how unfamiliar
71 individuals become familiar social partners remains limited for many social species (Carter et al.,
72 2020; Cohen et al., 2007; Prior et al., 2020b; Ripperger et al., 2019). Comparisons of the patterning
73 and timing of associations between relationship types (familiar and strangers) and assessing
74 convergence in these patterns could provide important insight into how relationships develop and
75 how and when familiarity is established with social partners. By tracking these associations and
76 comparing trends between familiar and strangers, we can assess whether and how relationships
77 with strangers develop to resemble those with known partners. Understanding these dynamics can
78 provide insight into the mechanisms that drive social bond formation and maintenance across
79 different species.

80 We assessed how monk parakeets (*Myiopsitta monachus*) spatially associate and affiliatively
81 interact with familiar and strangers over time to test how new relationships differ from familiar
82 relationships. Monk parakeets are a highly social parrot making them a suitable system for
83 exploring the effect of familiarity on affiliative relationship formation. They are native to South
84 America (Bucher et al., 1991; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000) and have established breeding colonies
85 globally (Edelaar et al., 2015; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000; Uehling et al., 2019). Throughout their

86 native and introduced range, monk parakeets typically live in resident colonies which often
87 temporarily fuse with neighboring colonies to forage resulting in large flocks that may consist of up
88 to hundreds of individuals (Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et al., 2014; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000).
89 Experimental social manipulations of monk parakeet social groups show that aggression among
90 group members is likely structured by previous interactions rather than individual characteristics,
91 like badges of status or relative size (Hobson & DeDeo, 2015; van der Marel et al., 2023) indicating
92 that social history is important in social decision-making processes. Within social groups, pairs are
93 the fundamental social unit (Avery et al., 2012; Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et al., 2014), and in the
94 wild and in captivity, parakeets form strong affiliative bonds with 1-2 group members regardless of
95 sex (Eberhard, 1998; Hobson et al., 2014). Quantitative assessments of monk parakeet social
96 structure in an experimentally formed captive social group showed that affiliative relationships can
97 develop quickly and were relatively stable compared to flocking and agonistic relationships
98 (Hobson et al., 2013). However, this study was conducted with birds with unknown past social
99 histories prior to their capture, and it was unclear if there were familiar/stranger relationships or
100 how these results may be affected by the presence of strangers. Despite the clear importance of
101 affiliative relationships (Hobson et al., 2013, 2014, 2015) and social history in monk parakeet
102 societies (Hobson & DeDeo, 2015; van der Marel et al., 2023), there has yet to be a study which
103 explicitly accounts for familiar/stranger relationships in this species.

104 Because monk parakeets are likely to encounter novel individuals in the wild and the significance of
105 past experiences on social interactions in an agonistic context, we hypothesized that familiarity
106 with social partners would shape spatial associations and affiliative interactions. To quantify how
107 relationships between stranger and familiar birds differed and how preference may change over
108 time, we combined groups of parakeets captured at different locations into a single large social
109 group. We then quantified how the presence and patterns of spatial associations and affiliative

110 interactions changed over several weeks. We predicted that if familiarity had a strong effect on
111 associations, birds would prefer familiar group members which would lead to differences in the
112 presence of associations between familiar and stranger birds across the experiment. We expected
113 that familiar dyads would exhibit associations earlier compared to stranger dyads because
114 previously connected birds would readily express those relationships in the flight pen, while
115 strangers would need to initiate novel relationships which we expected to take more time to
116 develop. We also predicted that as the birds associated with individuals who were initially
117 strangers, the preference for initially familiar partners over initially unfamiliar ones would diminish
118 over time. Once association patterns between familiars and strangers converged, we expected
119 them to remain stable.

120 **Methods**

121 ***Ethics statement***

122 All animal-related research activities were approved by the University of Cincinnati (IACUC protocol
123 #AM02-19-11-19-01) and the United States Department of Agriculture, Wildlife Services, National
124 Wildlife Research Center (USDA WS NWRC) (Quality Assurance #3203).

125 ***Bird capture sites and experimental social group***

126 The experiment was performed at the USDA WS NWRC, Florida Field Station, in Gainesville, FL,
127 USA. We used 22 feral monk parakeets (8 females and 14 males) captured by the USDA NWRC in
128 February 2021. Parakeets were captured from four geographically distinct capture sites in
129 southeast Florida (Site 1: n = 5, Site 2: n = 6, Site 3: n = 7, and Site 4: n = 4) that were on average
130 16.06 km (range: 3.28 - 30.85 km) apart from one another. All birds were genetically sexed, but the
131 sexes were not known until after the experiment.

132 Following their capture, we quarantined the birds for two weeks prior to the experiment. During
133 quarantine, birds from the same capture site were housed together in small groups of 2-3 birds in 2
134 x 2 m cages in a covered outdoor aviary. All birds from the same capture site were in visual contact
135 with each other. To preserve unfamiliarity/stranger status, birds captured from different sites were
136 visually separated. All birds in the aviary were in vocal contact with each other during the
137 quarantine period. We treated birds from the same site as potentially familiar with each other
138 because observational studies of populations within their native range reported high site fidelity
139 and short dispersal distances (1.2 km) (Bucher et al., 1991; Dawson Pell et al., 2021; Martín &
140 Bucher, 1993). We assumed that birds from different sites were likely strangers and unfamiliar to
141 one another because the minimum distance between our capture sites was twice as far as the
142 reported dispersal distance.

143 To allow for visual identification of individuals, we randomly assigned each bird a unique three-
144 color combination which was applied with nontoxic permanent markers (Sharpie, Inc.®) (Buhrman-
145 Deever et al., 2008; Hobson et al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Hobson & DeDeo, 2015; van der Marel et al.,
146 2023) across each bird's head, cheeks, and chest several days before the experiment began. We
147 refreshed color marks immediately before the birds were released into the flight pen, and the marks
148 remained conspicuous throughout the experiment. Ink and dye-based color marks are useful
149 alternatives to traditional methods like leg bands for species like parrots because these marks
150 enhance visibility from various angles and long distances and are unable to be manipulated or
151 removed by the birds (Buhrman-Deever et al., 2008; Ellis & Ellis, 1975; Kennard, 1961; Klump et al.,
152 2021). Additionally, we chose this method for identification because a full view of the monk
153 parakeets' tarsi is often obstructed by feathers and resighting bands can be time-consuming or
154 impossible depending on the bird's position (Senar et al., 2012; Toft & Wright, 2015).

155 The experiment took place in a large 2,025 m² semi-natural outdoor flight pen which contained
156 artificial and natural perches used for enrichment and shade. We marked the area with a grid
157 (roughly 5 x 5 m) using string on the ground to assist observers in identifying the locations of the
158 birds. During the experiment, birds had constant access to food (seed mix provision) and water
159 which were replaced daily, and birds could forage on grasses within the flight pen.

160 To begin the experiment, we simultaneously released 22 birds into the flight pen on April 5, 2021.
161 We observed the birds for 19 days, ending on April 26, 2021. Observers were blind to the birds'
162 capture sites and sex. During the experiment, birds interacted freely and remained undisturbed
163 (aside from daily husbandry and two observers recording interactions from blinds within the flight
164 pen). Observers began collecting proximity and social interaction data as soon as all birds were
165 released. Daily observations took place between 08:00 and 19:00 by a total of four observers from
166 three different blinds and were typically split into morning and evening sessions to capture periods
167 of the day where birds' activity was the highest. For all but one day during the experiment, all
168 observers took a break mid-afternoon (mean = 1.73 hrs.; min. = 1.08; max. = 2.67); this coincided
169 with periods where activity levels were low. Daily observations resumed following this break for the
170 afternoon session. To maximize the amount of data recorded during sessions, all observers
171 collected data simultaneously, and observers took breaks in shifts such that at minimum two
172 observers were present. To ensure interobserver reliability, all observers were trained in consistent
173 data collection prior to the experiment using a social group of monk parakeets who were not part of
174 the study in the same flight pen as the experimental group.

175 ***Spatial and social data collection***

176 We used a combination of scan and all-occurrence sampling (Altmann, 1974) to record seven
177 spatial associations and affiliative social interactions (Table 1). All observations were recorded in

178 real time directly onto iPads using the Animal Observer application (Caillaud, 2016; Luescher,
179 2006; van der Marel et al., 2022).

180 We assessed spatial associations in two ways: (1) *spatial proximity* and (2) *nearest neighbor*
181 associations (Table 1). To record spatial proximity, observers completed scan samples every five
182 minutes by scanning the entire flight pen and recorded each birds' X and Y coordinates within the
183 flight pen and their activity (i.e., vigilant, foraging perching, resting, preening, nest building), creating
184 a "snapshot" of each bird's location and behavior. We used the location coordinates to find the
185 distance between each pair of birds during each scan and used these distances to categorize
186 whether birds were associated during a scan. We used nearest neighbor associations to indicate
187 birds in peaceful proximity. To collect nearest neighbor associations, observers scanned the flight
188 pen and recorded the identity of the bird perched closest to each bird within a maximum distance
189 of 1 meter. Nearest neighbor associations were collected opportunistically in the absence of social
190 interactions and at least every five minutes using an all-occurrence sampling method (Altmann,
191 1974). Whether birds flock and maintain peaceful proximity associations is an active choice and
192 are common indices to quantify social structure in birds (Morales Picard et al., 2020).

193 We quantified affiliative contact with five distinct interactions: (1) *shoulder-to-shoulder*
194 interactions, (2) *allopreening*, (3) *beak touching*, (4) *allofeeding*, and (5) *copulation* events (Table 1).
195 Affiliative interactions were recorded as they occurred using an all-occurrence sampling method
196 (Altmann, 1974). We pooled these affiliative physical contact behaviors for analyses because these
197 behaviors typically reflect strong affiliative relationships among same and opposite sex pairs of
198 monk parakeets in the wild and in captivity (Bucher et al., 1991; Eberhard, 1998; Hobson et al.,
199 2014).

Table 1: Description of the seven behaviors observed.

Behavior	Description
Spatial proximity	Shared space: birds found within 3m of one another; Indicates flock membership
Nearest neighbor	Identity of the bird perched closest to the observed individual, within a maximum distance of 1m; Indicates spatial preference within a flock
Shoulder-to-shoulder	Two birds sitting in physical contact side by side
Allopreen	A bird preens (groom) another bird'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

200

201 ***Quantifying proximity, nearest neighbor, and affiliative associations***

202 We performed all data cleaning and analyses in R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2021) and created
 203 figures using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

204 To determine spatial proximity associations, we used data collected from scan sampling. During
 205 data cleaning, we filtered the data by including scans where more than 50% of birds were identified,
 206 then we further filtered scans to include scans where 80% or more of the birds' behaviors were

207 identified and their exact location was known. This procedure ensured that scans were
208 representative of persistent spatial associations where individuals had the opportunity to interact
209 with, observe or learn socially from each other. To quantify dyadic proximities from scan location
210 data, we calculated Euclidean distances between all dyads in each scan. Dyads within three
211 meters or less of each other were scored as in proximity. We chose three meters because it was
212 less than the median (4m) distance observed across scans and was consistent with flocking
213 distances reported in captive experiments with this species (Hobson et al., 2014). We also note that
214 the aviary was large enough and resources were distributed around the aviary such that birds from
215 different capture sites could have isolated in distinct areas in the flight pen each with access to
216 their own perches, shade, food, and water without being considered in proximity.

217 We used our all-occurrence dataset to quantify nearest neighbor associations and affiliative
218 interactions. We used a two-step process to filter the all-occurrence data. We included only
219 records where the individual was positively identified, and the behavior recorded was one of our six
220 behaviors of interest. To standardize the temporal scale at which different behaviors were sampled
221 and remove any duplicated associations recorded during observations, we then filtered to include a
222 maximum of one observation per dyad per behavior per 5-minute observation interval.

223 To quantify daily patterns of preferential associations, we constructed separate weighted,
224 undirected networks for proximity, nearest neighbor, and pooled affiliative interactions for each day
225 of the experiment. Weighted networks account for the frequency of interactions among individuals,
226 with edge weights reflecting how often nodes, or birds, are observed together. In each network,
227 edges (i.e., relationships) represent the proportion of observed associations between dyads relative
228 to the total possible associations. We calculated association probabilities based on either the total
229 number of scans completed or the number of 5-minute observation intervals per day.

230 ***Quantifying the presence of relationships by familiarity status***

231 To compare the presence of familiar and stranger relationships within each association context, we
232 calculated network density, or the proportion of social connections in each network. We calculated
233 density by dividing the total observed edges in stranger and familiar networks by the total number of
234 possible edges by familiarity status. Density values range from zero to one, and a high density or a
235 value near one would indicate a highly connected network in which birds interacted with many of
236 the available social partners. A low density or a value near zero would indicate a sparsely
237 connected network in which birds only associated with a few possible social partners.

238 To assess overall network connectivity, we first calculated familiar and stranger network density for
239 each association type across the entire experiment. We then assessed daily trends in connectivity,
240 where we calculated daily familiar and stranger density for each association context. We expected
241 to find a greater overall network density among familiar birds compared to strangers, which would
242 suggest familiar birds established more relationships compared to strangers. Additionally, we
243 predicted that this difference would be evident in daily network densities, with familiars
244 consistently showing denser networks each day.

245 ***Testing for differences in the timing of associations by familiarity status***

246 To assess whether associations were observed earlier among familiars compared to strangers, we
247 calculated the cumulative proportion of relationships observed during each hour of the experiment.
248 To compare the time to first association between familiar and stranger dyads, we performed a
249 Kaplan-Meier survival analysis, using the R packages "survival" (version 3.7-0) (Therneau et al.,
250 2024) and "survminer" (version 0.4.9) (Kassambara et al., 2021). With this approach, we calculated
251 the probability of observing a relationship for the first time for each hour of the experiment, and we
252 used a non-parametric log-rank test to determine whether familiarity status had an effect on the

253 observation hour relationships were first observed for each association type. The null hypothesis
254 was that the distribution of first association times would be identical for familiars and strangers,
255 while the alternative hypothesis was that these distributions would differ. This analysis assumes
256 non-informative censoring. The analysis also assumes there is no recruitment bias of experiencing
257 an association, and that the timing of events are precise (Goel et al., 2010; Etikan et al., 2017).
258 Censoring occurred for dyads that had not been observed associating/interacting for the first time
259 by the end of the experiment. We assume that this censoring was non-informative, and that these
260 dyads had the same probability of experiencing association at any given time as those dyads who
261 were observed associating within the experiment. We expected that familiar dyads would exhibit
262 associations earlier compared to stranger dyads, as we assumed that previously connected birds
263 would readily reestablish relationships in the flight pen, whereas strangers would require more time
264 to initiate novel relationships.

265 ***Assessing assortment by familiarity status***

266 To determine whether preferences for familiar individuals varied by behavior, we compared the
267 pooled daily assortativity values calculated for each behavior using a one-way ANOVA, and given a
268 significant effect, we used a Tukey Honest Significant Difference (HSD) post-hoc test to identify
269 pairwise differences between behaviors.

270 To detect daily patterns in assortativity, we calculated assortativity (r_a) using the
271 `assortment.discrete()` function from the `assortnet` package (Farine, 2023) using weighted networks
272 for proximity, nearest neighbor, and affiliation. Weighted networks are well-suited for calculating
273 assortativity because they are more robust to sampling noise compared to binary networks which
274 represent only the presence of associations (Farine, 2014). Assortativity ranges from negative one
275 to one: values near one would indicate that birds captured the same site preferentially associated

276 with each other and preferred familiars, and preferred to associate with strangers, and values near
277 zero would indicate no preference for stranger or familiar birds. We expected that parakeets would
278 preferentially assort with familiar birds, resulting in positive spatial and affiliative assortativity
279 values.

280 We tested whether observed daily associations for each behavior differed from random
281 expectations using a permutation-based reference model. Permutation approaches are often used
282 to test for patterns within non-independent data like social interactions (Croft et al., 2011; Farine,
283 2017; Hobson et al., 2021). Reference models are generated often over thousands of iterations by
284 permuting key features of the data while maintaining other aspects of the network structure. In this
285 way, potential correlations between the observed structure of the association data and the feature
286 of interest can be broken. A summary measure which captures the relationship of interest is
287 calculated for each iteration of the reference model resulting in a distribution of expected values
288 under the null hypothesis. To determine statistical significance, we quantified the proportion of
289 expected values from this distribution that are at least as extreme as the observed (Farine & Carter,
290 2022; Hobson et al., 2021). Using a one-tailed comparison, we considered a result statistically
291 significant if the observed value was more extreme than 95% of the reference values. We report this
292 as a P-value, representing the proportion of reference model values that exceed the observed value.
293 A P-value of 0.00 indicates that none of the reference model values were more extreme than the
294 observed data.

295 We used this reference model approach to randomize each bird's capture site in each network. The
296 resulting assortativities produced by each iteration were those expected if the birds interacted
297 exactly as observed, but without regard for each other's capture sites or familiar/stranger status.
298 The model maintained all aspects of the daily network structure including the identity of the dyad,
299 and the type and frequency of behavior used. We used 1,000 permuted datasets to build our

300 expected reference distribution if the capture site did not affect association patterns. If assortativity
301 was positively affected by familiarity status, we expected our observed assortativities would be
302 significantly higher than assortativities from randomized data, with less than 5% of randomized
303 values being as high as our observed ($P < 0.05$) indicating that birds preferred familiar birds.

304 ***Detecting the convergence and stability of preferences between familiars and strangers***

305 To detect changes in preferences between familiars and strangers in spatial and affiliative
306 associations, we assessed whether assortativity coefficients converged to random expectations
307 over time. We expected that birds would initially prefer to associate with familiar partners and these
308 metrics would be significantly different from random expectations and that as the social group
309 began to associate, these metrics would shift from significant to nonsignificant. These patterns
310 would indicate a convergence in patterns of associations between familiars and strangers.

311 Additionally, we expected that once patterns converged, they would remain converged. To further
312 assess patterns of stability, we fit a linear regression to model the effect of time on network
313 assortativity values for each association context. We used the slope to determine whether
314 assortativities increased, decreased, or remained constant over time to indicate stability. A positive
315 slope would indicate that assortativity tended to increase over experimental days, while a negative
316 slope would indicate that assortativity tended to decrease. A slope close to zero would suggest
317 stability over time, or a lack of association between assortativity and study day. We expected that
318 assortativity would be stable and slopes would be near zero once the stranger effect disappeared.

319 **Results**

320 We observed the experimental group comprised of 52 possible familiar and 179 possible stranger
321 relationships for a total of 132.30 observation hours across 19 observation days. Each day we

322 observed an average of 6.96 (\pm 1.54 SD) hours. After data cleaning, we analyzed 28,431 spatial
323 associations collected from 359 scans. We observed 3,514 nearest neighbor associations, and
324 6,310 affiliative interactions (3,117 shoulder contact interactions, 2,785 allopreening interactions,
325 289 beak touching interactions, 52 allofeeding interactions, and 67 copulations).

326 ***Quantifying the presence of relationships by familiarity status***

327 When we quantified network density among familiars and strangers across aggregated spatial
328 proximity, nearest neighbor associations, and affiliative interaction networks, we found that familiar
329 and stranger proximity networks were equally well-connected (Figure 1a; familiar density = 1.00,
330 stranger density = 1.00), and nearest neighbor networks were nearly equally well-connected (Fig.
331 1a; familiar density = 1.00, stranger density = 0.98). Affiliation networks were more well-connected
332 among familiar birds compared to strangers (Fig. 1a; familiar density = 0.69, stranger density =
333 0.32).

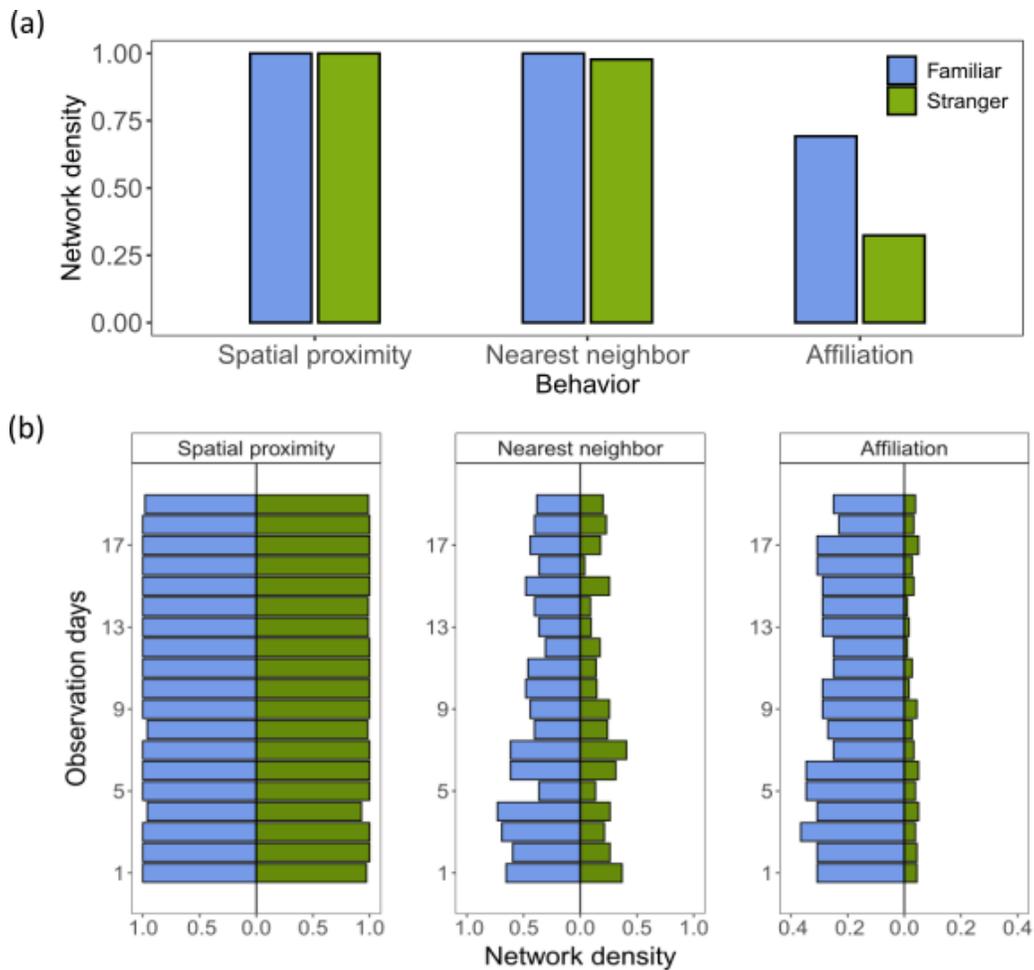


Figure 1: Spatial relationships were as common among familiar (blue) as strangers birds (green), and affiliative contact interactions were more common among familiars. These patterns were reflected in (a) overall networks aggregated across the experiment and (b) daily network trends.

334

335 When we compared daily network densities between familiars and strangers for each association
 336 context, we found that spatial proximity networks were consistently equally well-connected among
 337 familiars and strangers while nearest neighbor and affiliation networks were more well-connected
 338 among familiar birds compared to strangers (Fig.1b; Supplementary table 1). These results suggest
 339 that familiar networks were consistently more well-connected during the experiment, but at least
 340 some stranger birds formed relationships across all three association contexts.

341 ***Differences in the timing of behavior initiation***

342 When we compared the cumulative proportion of familiar and stranger dyads observed for the first
343 time for each association type, we found no difference in median proportions for spatial proximity
344 associations, a moderate difference for nearest neighbor associations, and the highest difference
345 for affiliative interactions (Figure 2). Median observation times for spatial proximity associations
346 between familiar and strangers were similar while median times for affiliative interactions for
347 familiars was earlier compared to strangers (Fig. 2). The median cumulative proportion of familiar
348 and stranger dyads in spatial proximity were observed in hour 3 of the experiment (familiar: range =
349 1-5; stranger: 1 -11; Fig. 2a). The median cumulative proportion of nearest neighbors were observed
350 in hour 3 and strangers in hour 12 (familiar: 1-120; stranger: 1-146; Fig. 2b). The median cumulative
351 proportion of affiliative interactions were observed in hour 15 and in hour 42 between familiars and
352 strangers, respectively (familiar: 1-141; stranger: 1-166; Fig. 2c). These results suggest that familiars
353 and strangers readily formed spatial proximity associations and that familiars readily formed
354 nearest neighbor associations and affiliative interactions but that strangers took time to develop
355 nearest neighbor associations and affiliative interactions.

356 However, when we compared the distribution of first association times (observation hours)
357 between relationship types with a Kaplan-Meier survival analysis, we found significant differences
358 in the time to first proximity association ($\chi^2 = 7.5$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.006$; Supplemental Figure 2a), nearest
359 neighbor ($\chi^2 = 20.5$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$; Supp. Fig. 2b), and affiliation ($\chi^2 = 38$, $df = 1$, $p = p < 0.001$;
360 Supp. Fig. 2c) indicating that familiar birds exhibited these behaviors in relationships more quickly
361 across association contexts compared to strangers.

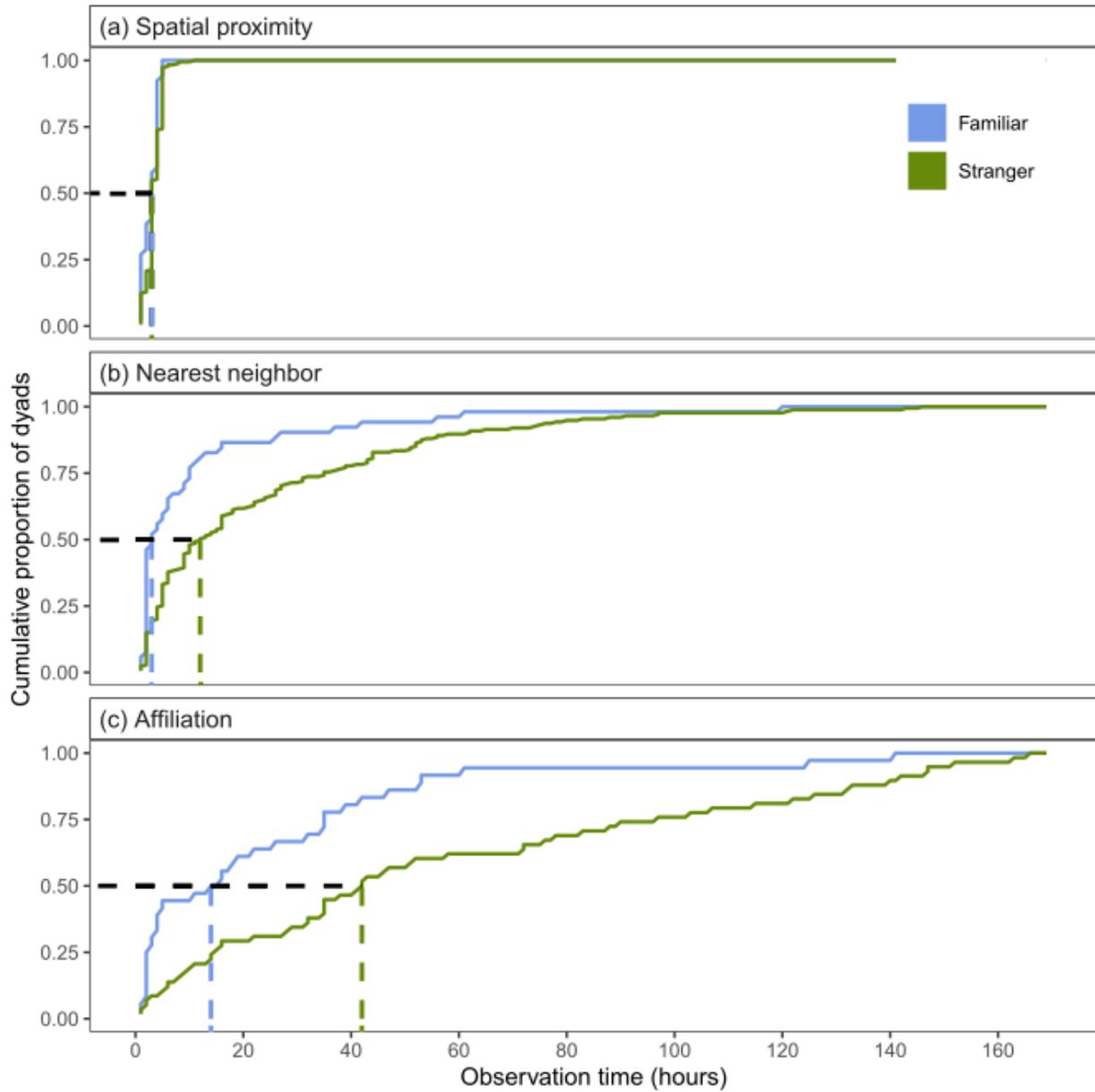


Figure 2: Cumulative proportion of relationships observed between familiar (blue) and stranger (green) dyads observed associating for the first time shows no differences between median observation times (back dashed line) of (a) spatial proximity associations and a moderate difference between (b) nearest neighbor associations, and the highest difference between (c) affiliative interactions.

362 ***Assortment by familiarity status***

363 When we compared observed daily assortativity values for proximity, nearest neighbor, and
364 affiliation, we found significant differences in assortativity across the three contexts (mean:
365 proximity = 0.03; nearest neighbor = 0.59; affiliation = 0.88; $F(2, 54) = 423.5, p < 0.001$). A Tukey
366 HSD post hoc test confirmed that all pairwise comparisons between behaviors were statistically
367 significant indicating distinct levels of assortativity for each behavior ($p < 0.001$; Supplemental
368 Table 3). Assortativity was lowest for proximity associations, moderate for nearest neighbor
369 associations, and highest for affiliative interactions (Figure 3). These results show that the birds
370 assorted preferentially with familiar birds across all contexts but that the strength of this preference
371 was much stronger for nearest neighbor and affiliative associations compared to spatial proximity.
372 The birds had the least preference for familiar birds for proximity associations and were often in
373 proximity with strangers.

374 When we compared the pooled daily observed assortativity values to those produced by the
375 reference model, we found that associations across all three contexts were significantly more
376 assortative than expected if the familiarity status was randomized (Fig. 3). However, when we
377 compared the proportion of reference values that were as extreme as the minimum observed
378 assortativity, we found that the extent to which these behaviors differed from random differed
379 across contexts. Proximity assortativities were slightly higher (Fig. 3a; $P = 0.004$), and nearest
380 neighbor assortativities were moderately higher than expected assortativities when familiarity
381 status was randomized (Fig. 3b; $P = 0.001$). Affiliative assortativities differed completely from
382 random expectations (Fig. 3c; $P = 0.00$). This result suggests that the extent of the preference for
383 familiars varied by behavior.

384

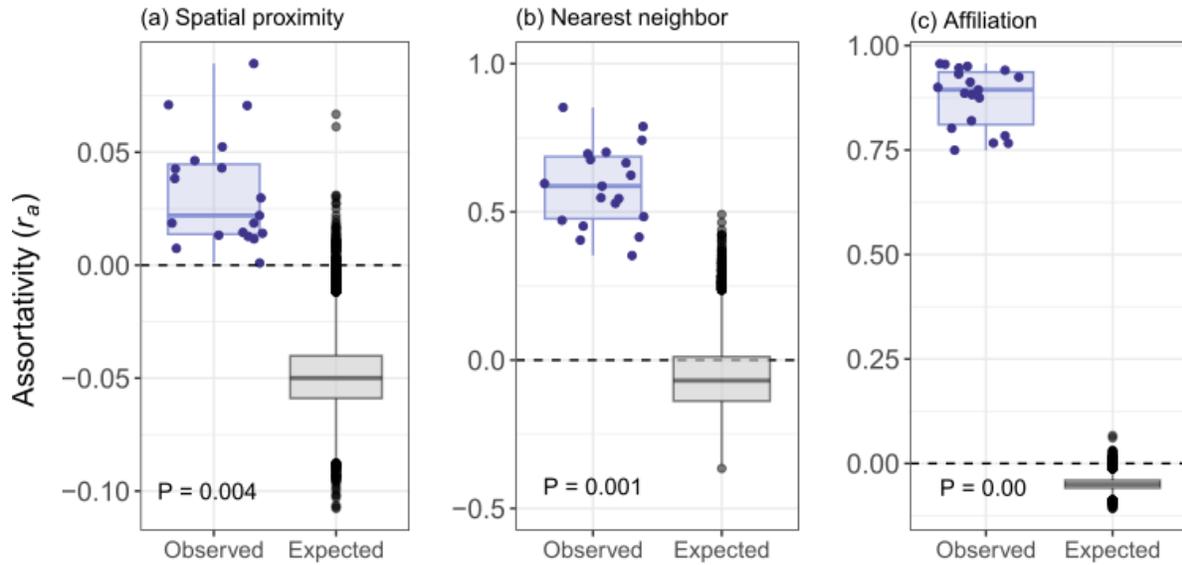


Figure 3: Daily observed assortativity values (purple) compared to the reference model's random expectations (gray) for (a) proximity, (b) nearest neighbor, and (c) affiliative behaviors. Positive assortativity values indicate preferences for familiars, values near zero indicate neutral associations, negative assortativity values indicate preference for strangers.

385

386 When we compared values of assortativity to those produced by the reference model for each day,
 387 we found that all observed assortativity values were higher than all assortativities calculated from
 388 the randomized data ($P = 0.00$ for all days and associations, see Supp. Table 4). These results
 389 indicate that the birds maintained preferences for familiar birds throughout the experiment.

390

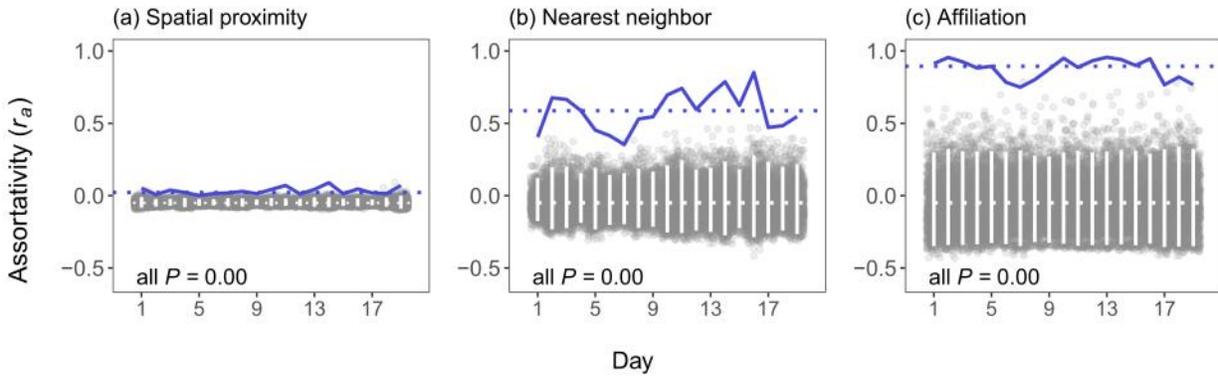


Figure 4: Comparisons of the daily observed (a) spatial proximity, (b) nearest neighbor, and (c) affiliation assortativity values (purple line) to daily random expectations (gray distribution) show that the birds maintained preferences for familiars throughout the experiment, and these patterns remained constant over time. The horizontal dotted lines represent the median observed assortativity in purple and the median reference assortativity values in white. Vertical white lines indicate the daily 95% confidence intervals of the reference distribution.

391

392 ***Detecting the convergence and stability of patterns between familiars and strangers***

393 Contrary to our predictions, none of the assortativity values in any of the three association contexts
 394 consistently decreased over time or converged to random expectations (Fig. 4; Supplemental Table
 395 4). These results suggest that the birds maintained their preferences for familiars and the patterning
 396 of these associations were distinct from associations with strangers across all association
 397 contexts. When we fit the observed assortativity values to linear models, we found that spatial
 398 proximity and nearest neighbor slope coefficients were positive and near zero (Proximity: $\beta = 0.001$,
 399 $R^2=0.07$, $F(1,17) = 1.36$, $p = 0.26$; nearest neighbor: $\beta = 0.006$, $R^2=0.07$, $F(1,17) = 1.28$, $p = 0.27$), and
 400 affiliative slope coefficients were negative and near zero ($\beta = -0.003$, $R^2=0.05$, $F(1,17)=0.83$, $p = 0.38$).
 401 These results indicate that the degree of preference for familiar partners remained constant over
 402 time.

403 **Discussion**

404 Using a novel social group of captive feral monk parakeets, we examined temporal changes in
405 preferences for familiars and stranger social partners by comparing the presence and timing of
406 relationship formation and assessing the convergence and stability of assortativity across spatial
407 and affiliative contexts. We found that familiar networks were consistently more well-connected
408 during the experiment, but relationships did form between some strangers across all three
409 association contexts. Overall, our results suggest that parakeets recognize and differentiate
410 between birds they might have encountered previously and that relationships with familiar and
411 stranger conspecifics are not interchangeable. We discuss the differences in the effect of familiarity
412 on spatial associations compared to affiliative contact and the extent to which these results
413 suggest that monk parakeets balance the risks and benefits of associating with familiar and
414 stranger birds.

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

416 Contrary to our prediction, we found that proximity networks were equally well-connected among
417 familiars and strangers and were established within the first several hours of the experiment. We
418 detected significant differences in when we observed the first association between familiars and
419 strangers, indicating that the rate and patterning of how these relationships were formed differed.
420 We also found that birds showed preferential spatial associations with familiar birds, but this
421 preference was not as strong as affiliative associations. We suggest that the statistical differences
422 detected between when relationships were first observed and patterns of assortativity may be due
423 to the high-resolution of data obtained and allowed us to detect fine-scale patterns which could
424 have increased the likelihood of detecting differences between familiars and strangers. These
425 results may not necessarily reflect strong biological significance. For example, rather than

426 observing subgroups of familiar birds spatially isolating from one another, we found that all spatial
427 proximity associations were observed within the first two days of the experiment. Taken together,
428 these results indicate that birds readily formed mixed flocks, but birds maintained closer proximity
429 to familiar birds.

430 Our results are consistent with observations of wild and captive monk parakeet social groups which
431 indicate that forming foraging flocks is central to their socioecology (Bucher et al., 1991; Hobson et
432 al., 2013, 2014; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000). Throughout their native and non-native range, monk
433 parakeets can flock in groups of hundreds of individuals although much smaller groups of 5-10
434 birds are more common particularly during the breeding season (Bucher et al., 1991; South &
435 Pruett-Jones, 2000). A similar study on the formation of monk parakeet social structure in captivity
436 found that spatial proximity associations were the most common among birds and that nearest
437 neighbor associations stabilized more quickly compared to other association contexts (Hobson et
438 al., 2013). This assessment of spatial proximity only report on flock size, composition, cohesion,
439 and do not explicitly examine how relationship status may affect their formation or maintenance.
440 Our results provide a novel perspective on monk parakeet flock composition and formation.

441 Establishing spatial associations with strangers could provide important benefits which outweigh
442 the risks of associating. Maintaining spatial proximity requires little investment of time or energy,
443 and individuals may benefit from increased foraging efficiency or increased vigilance and predator
444 awareness (Sorato et al., 2012; van der Marel et al., 2019). Assessments of monk parakeet flocks in
445 their non-native range found that individuals initiated fewer scans for predators and spent less time
446 scanning as flock size increased (South & Pruett-Jones, 2000) suggesting that the risk of predation
447 may play a significant role on the formation of spatial relationships in this species. Maintaining
448 proximity may also allow individuals the opportunity to safely gain important social information
449 about foraging techniques (Kulahci et al., 2016; Schnoell & Fichtel, 2012; J. B. Silk et al., 1996) or

450 assess conspecific's suitability as an affiliative or cooperative partner (Carter et al., 2020) which
451 can be important for optimizing social decisions. These benefits could explain why mixed flocks
452 were established early in the experiment.

453 **Birds tended to affiliate with familiar partners but could form novel relationships quickly**

454 Birds consistently had the highest preferences for affiliating with familiar partners but could form
455 strong novel relationships relatively quickly. We provide supporting evidence to suggest monk
456 parakeets are selective with whom they form affiliative relationships (Hobson et al., 2013, 2014,
457 2015). Additionally, research with this species shows that affiliative relationships could develop
458 quickly between pairs or trios (Hobson et al., 2014), and here, we provide a novel detailed
459 assessment which suggests that affiliative relationship can develop quickly among unfamiliar birds.
460 Pair bonds are widely considered to be an important aspect of parrot socioecology (Luescher, 2006;
461 Seibert, 2006) and are often assumed to be exclusive to long-lasting reproductive partners.
462 However, quantitative support provides evidence that social bonds in various parrot species may
463 be more flexible than previously assumed with some species, including monk parakeets, forming
464 trios with some same-sex partners (i.e., MMF/FFM) (Eberhard, 1998; Garnetzke-Stollmann &
465 Franck, 1991; Hobson et al., 2014). Understanding how these relationships emerge can lend insight
466 into what it means to be "pair bonded" within and across species.

467 We found that strangers often initiated affiliative behaviors much later in the experiment and after
468 sharing proximity. In group-living species, the importance of social contact, often social grooming,
469 is widely recognized for its importance in establishing trust and reducing stress and social
470 uncertainty among group members. For example, resident male Verreaux's sifakas (*Propithecus*
471 *verreauxi*) initiate play before establishing social grooming relationships with non-resident
472 unfamiliar males (Antonacci et al., 2010). Similarly, female common vampire bats (*Desmodus*

473 *rotundus*) first initiate low-cost grooming relationships with potential cooperative partners before
474 escalating to sharing blood meals (Carter et al., 2020). Our findings offer preliminary evidence for a
475 similar progression, where proximity escalates to affiliative contact as relationships develop.
476 Further research should clarify the mechanisms by which familiarity is developed among strangers
477 during affiliative relationship formation.

478 **The formation and stabilization of a novel social group**

479 We detected a consistent effect of familiarity on the presence, timing, and patterning of
480 associations, but the extent of the effect depended on the association context. We did not find
481 convergence of associations or interactions between strangers and familiars. We may have been
482 able to observe a convergence if the experiment were to continue, but it is unclear how long it may
483 take for familiarity to develop. Although our results are consistent with characterizations of social
484 structure formation and stabilization in monk parakeets across spatial and affiliative behaviors
485 (Hobson et al., 2013), without details of the birds' social histories prior to their capture, it is unclear
486 how familiarity may have affected these results. More studies are needed to assess the
487 generalizability of these results across social groups (Hobson et al., 2013, 2014).

488 **Potential limitations**

489 For this study, we have assumed that birds captured at different capture sites were likely strangers
490 and had not previously interacted. However, distances between capture sites were potentially close
491 enough for birds to travel to meaning birds from different capture sites could potentially have
492 encountered one another following a dispersal event or while foraging. Observational studies in
493 monk parakeets native range reported short dispersal distances (median = 1.2 km) (Martín &
494 Bucher, 1993) suggesting that monk parakeets have high site fidelity. However, genetic evidence

495 suggests that long-distance dispersal ranging from 10 – 100 km is possible in monk parakeets
496 (Borray et al., 2023; Dawson Pell et al., 2021; Gonçalves da Silva et al., 2010), although more
497 research is needed to determine how typical this pattern is and to assess noise in samples.
498 Additionally, despite the potential for dispersal, birds would not need to travel far from their capture
499 site to access food resources or nesting material because each capture site is located near a park
500 or agricultural field and a body of water, and to access mutual foraging patches, birds would need
501 to cross urban-suburban areas and highways. However, without tracking social histories of the
502 parakeets in the wild, we cannot be certain that birds from different capture sites had not
503 encountered each other. Although we could not confirm birds from different capture sites were
504 definitively strangers, our results provide support that birds from different capture sites were likely
505 unfamiliar with each other. If birds from different sites had prior familiarity with one another, the
506 distinct patterns of social discrimination we observed would likely have been less pronounced, as
507 such familiarity would have blurred the differences in their associations and interactions.

508 Another potential limitation of the study is the captive setting, which can affect behaviors in some
509 species and contexts (Webster & Rutz, 2020). Because we used recently-trapped feral birds, the
510 possibilities that long-term captivity affected the behavior of the birds was minimized. It is also
511 unlikely that the social results we report here were solely an artifact of captive conditions. This is
512 because the flight pen was large enough that subgroups of birds from capture sites could have
513 formed and isolated from each other without being in proximity to others or interacting with others.
514 Instead, our results were more likely the result of decisions the birds were making about their
515 locations relative to others and the ways they interacted. Additionally our results are consistent
516 with reports of monk parakeet social behaviors in wild settings throughout their native and
517 nonnative ranges (Bucher et al., 1991; Eberhard, 1998; South & Pruett-Jones, 2000).

518 **Conclusions**

519 We found that birds spatially associated with both familiar and stranger birds, but affiliatively
520 interacted preferentially with familiar birds, although the stability of these patterns varied. Our
521 results differed from our predictions, where we expected that birds would initially associate with
522 familiar individuals across all behaviors, but that these preferences would diminish over time as
523 strangers associated and gained familiarity. Our results contribute to a broader understanding of
524 monk parakeet social structure by providing additional insight into how the type of association and
525 presence of strangers may affect social structure formation and stabilization. Understanding how
526 monk parakeets develop and stabilize relationship is especially relevant given their status as one of
527 the most abundant and widely distributed non-native parrot species (Uehling et al., 2019).
528 Continued legal and illegal poaching practices to facilitate the pet trade, accidental and intentional
529 releases into non-native areas (Russello et al., 2008), and eradication efforts, like nest removal and
530 individual capture (Avery et al., 2002) disrupt parakeet social dynamics and may cause social
531 groups to collapse and novel social groups to form (Hobson et al., 2013). These results provide an
532 important reference point for understanding the importance of social dynamics in other non-native
533 parrot species like Indian ringneck (*Psittacula krameri*) and nanday parakeets (*Aratinga nenday*).
534 Overall, our results are generally consistent with research across a diverse range of taxa which
535 demonstrate preferential associations with familiar conspecifics in different contexts (Gutmann et
536 al., 2015; Keller & Reeve, 1998; Kohn et al., 2015; Prior et al., 2020a; Ripperger, Carter, Duda,
537 Koelpin, Cassens, Rüdiger, et al., 2019; Tuliozi et al., 2018) but highlight the importance of
538 considering several association types and across different temporal scales for complete
539 understanding of the effect of familiarity. Without considering several association types,
540 researchers risk an incomplete understanding of social preferences and may underestimate the
541 effect of familiarity on social decision-making processes. Temporal aggregation, while useful for

542 identifying general trends, obscures temporal trends which could indicate a more complex or
543 informative picture of the underlying dynamics.

544 **Author contributions**

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

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561 **Competing interests**

562 We declare we have no competing interests.

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