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2 **Preliminary data on the activity of male and female**  
3 **common pheasants *Phasianus colchicus* during the breeding**  
4 **period in a Mediterranean area**

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23 Running title: Activity rhythms of Pheasant.

24

25 **Abstract**

26

27 Assessing patterns of activity rhythms in wildlife is pivotal for species conservation. In this  
28 work, we aimed at determining the curve of activity rhythms of male and female common  
29 pheasants *Phasianus colchicus* in a Mediterranean area in central Italy. We used camera-  
30 trapping and we computed the inter-sexual temporal overlap of activity rhythms in the  
31 breeding period. We collected 129 independent records of common pheasants (males, N = 90;  
32 females, N = 39). Males were mostly active in the morning, whereas female activity was mostly  
33 concentrated at dawn and dusk, showing an intermediate overlap of diurnal activity rhythms  
34 ( $\Delta_1 = 0.55$ ). Recorded patterns of activity rhythms confirmed the importance of ecotones for  
35 the conservation of this species, which represent an important prey for several native  
36 carnivores.

37

38 **Key words:** Activity rhythms; camera traps; Galliformes; game birds; *Phasianus colchicus*.

39

## 40 INTRODUCTION

41 Assessing patterns of activity rhythms of animal species is pivotal both for conservation and  
42 for wildlife management (Lovari & Rolando 2004, Refinetti 2008). However, determining  
43 peaks of activity rhythms is challenging, due to the logistic constraints to observe targeted  
44 taxa in all the habitat types where they live, including dense forests and thick scrublands, and  
45 throughout the 24 hours (Lovari & Rolando 2004, Zwerts et al. 2021). Up to now, camera-  
46 trapping to determine activity rhythms has been applied mostly to medium- and large-sized  
47 terrestrial mammals (O'Connell et al. 2011, Lynam et al. 2013). When applied to birds, camera-  
48 trapping has been used to assess occurrence, occupancy, or parental behaviour at nests  
49 (O'Brien & Kinnaird 2008 for a review; Anile et al. 2022). Nevertheless, together with non-  
50 flying birds (Ratites), some bird groups spend most of or the whole of their active time foraging  
51 on the ground, including waders and Galliformes (Tran et al. 2021). Camera-traps have been  
52 also used to describe patterns of activity rhythms of some galliform species, mostly in tropical  
53 countries (Mohd-Azlan & Engkamat 2013, Fan et al. 2020, Pla-Ard et al. 2021). The common  
54 pheasant *Phasianus colchicus* is native to Central and Eastern Asia and it has been introduced  
55 for hunting to most of Europe, North America and Oceania (BirdLife International 2016). The  
56 breeding period of this species in Italy extends from March to early September (Genovesi et  
57 al. 1999). In spring (mid-March to early June) males establish breeding territories, which are  
58 actively defended from other males. On the other hand, females are not territorial. Each  
59 female typically has a seasonally monogamous relationship with one territorial male, which is  
60 polygynous (Venturato et al. 2009). Female common pheasants tend to choose dominant and  
61 bright males (Venturato et al. 2009). Then, females create shallow depressions in the ground  
62 in densely-vegetated areas, where they lay one egg/day up to 7-15 eggs. Afterwards, females  
63 remain close to the nest, incubating the eggs for most of the day, leaving only to feed. Each

64 female breeds no more than once a year, with an average time to hatching of 25 days (cfr.  
65 Genovesi et al. 1999).

66 Ecological needs include food and cover availability for both sexes (Genovesi et al. 1999, Nelli  
67 et al. 2012), with males defending territories (Ridley & Hill 1987, Hill & Robertson 1988, Riley  
68 et al. 1998). The common pheasant is a highly sexually dimorphic species, with males being  
69 30-40% larger than females (Witzel 1991) and showing an ornamented, bright and coloured  
70 plumage, long tail, red wattle and ear-tufts. Females are cryptic and non-ornamented, as they  
71 search for food need to be camouflaged to keep predators far from nests and chicks/juveniles.  
72 Conversely, bright males are highly visible to predators, although the cost of natural selection  
73 is lower than the benefits provided by sexual selection. Therefore, they may need to find a  
74 trade-off between their spatiotemporal behaviour and the avoidance of predators and,  
75 potentially, hunters (Mori et al. 2017).

76 Only little information is available on the patterns of activity rhythms of the common  
77 pheasant, although the species is anecdotally reported to be diurnal (Dalke 1937). Venturato  
78 et al. (2010) carried out radiotracking only during the daylight and showed that pheasants  
79 were active in daytime. Genovesi et al. (1999) reported that pheasants tend to use cover  
80 habitats (e.g., wooded areas, scrublands) at night and in the central hours of the day, whereas  
81 being active in feeding habitats mostly at dawn and dusk, although their activity rhythms have  
82 never been described in detail. However, no data on activity peaks and sexual differences  
83 occurs whereas, given the remarkable sexual dimorphism, some differences in ecology and  
84 behaviour have been suggested (Ridley & Hill 1987, Mateos & Carranza 1999, Venturato et al.,  
85 2010). Intersexual differences in plumage colours may reflect differences in behaviour  
86 between male and female pheasants.

87 Given the limited flight performances of the common pheasant (Robertson et al. 1993,

88 Tobalske & Dial 2000) and the main feeding activity on the ground (Doxon & Carroll 2010),  
89 aim of our work has been to assess the patterns of daily activity rhythms of male and female  
90 common pheasants by means of camera-trapping (Lashley et al. 2018). We predicted that (i)  
91 activity would be primarily concentrated in daytime with a peak at dawn and dusk (cfr.  
92 Genovesi et al. 1999), and that (ii) males and females would show different patterns of activity,  
93 with males more active in dark hours (i.e., immediately before sunrise and immediately after  
94 sunset), as being less cryptic than females.

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## 98 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### 99 ***Study area***

100 We conducted our field-work in March-August 2020-2021, i.e., during the breeding period of  
101 the common pheasant, in the surroundings the Gabellino plateau, in Southern Tuscany,  
102 Central Italy (43.083° N, 10.989° E; 1350 ha, 475–903 m above sea level). Local pheasant  
103 releases for hunting purposes mostly occur after the breeding period; therefore, our study  
104 was conducted on naturalized birds, possibly born wild. In our survey period, the mean annual  
105 rainfall was 670 - 26 mm and the mean annual temperature was  $15.9 \pm 7.7^\circ\text{C}$ . Over 60% of the  
106 study area was covered with deciduous woodlands (*Quercus cerris* L., *Castanea sativa* Mill.,  
107 *Ostrya carpinifolia* Scop., and *Carpinus betulus* L.). Scrubland (*Juniperus communis* L., *Rubus*  
108 spp., and *Spartium junceum* L.: about 2%) created a sort of belt around woodlands. Open  
109 habitats, i.e., fallows and cultivations (mostly sunflowers and cereals), covered respectively  
110 about 25% of the study area. The study area hosts a rich community of vertebrate species,  
111 with over 30 mammal species and near 100 species of birds (Vannini et al. 2013, Mori et al.

112 2014). Ecotones between forest/shrubs and open areas were characterised by areas without  
113 vegetation or with low plants such as field roads or ploughed strips, i.e. where visibility for  
114 camera-traps was the highest.

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### 116 ***Camera trapping***

117 Our sampling design consisted in 12 camera-sites active continuously (Mori et al. 2021). We  
118 placed one camera trap (Multipir 12 Scouting Camera) per site. Sites were separated from  
119 one-another by at least 300–500 m, to increase independence of records, as the greatest  
120 home range size of the common pheasant in Mediterranean countries (i.e., areas rich in food  
121 resources) include smaller areas (around 2 ha.) throughout the year (Ashrafzadeh et al. 2021).  
122 Common pheasants may have also larger home-range sizes (e.g., 0.11-0.55 km<sup>2</sup>) where  
123 environmental heterogeneity is low (Draycott et al. 2009, Mayot et al. 2017), but, given the  
124 local high habitat heterogeneity (Vannini et al. 2013), we suggest that home-range size would  
125 be smaller and comparable with those described by Ashrafzadeh et al. (2021). Camera traps  
126 were placed in all four major habitat categories in the study area (see Figure 1): open areas  
127 (fallows or cultivations, N = 3 sites), scrublands (N = 3 sites), woodlands (N = 2 sites) and  
128 ecotones (N = 4, 2 on the side of open areas and 2 on the side of the woodland/scrubland:  
129 Mori et al. 2021). Camera traps were tied at trees with ropes and chains. Cameras were  
130 located on the closest tree to points selected with QGIS (QGIS Development Team 2019)  
131 through a habitat-based stratified randomization of sampling points, to sample all habitat  
132 types proportionally to their local availability. Cameras were placed at a height of ~70–100 cm  
133 from the ground level and they were activated 24 h/day, to record one video of 60 s/event for  
134 47-62 days per season. All cameras were hidden with local vegetation (e.g., pieces of tree  
135 branches and herbaceous plants) to reduce neophobic reactions by animals. We avoided

136 placing camera traps in front of known roosts and nesting sites to avoid (1) disturbance and  
137 breeding failures (Herranz et al. 2002, Richardson et al. 2009) and (2) continuous activation of  
138 camera-traps. Our cameras were placed at least at 80-100 metres from known nests. Checks  
139 of cameras occurred once every 10 days to download data and replace empty batteries. We  
140 did not record any camera trap failure (e.g., batteries) or damage.

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142 **Figure 1.** Camera-trap records of the common pheasant in our study area.



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### 147 ***Statistical analysis***

148 Analyses were carried out on the total year scale. For all pheasant videos, we reported the

149 date and the solar hour, directly shown on the video, on a dataset. Records were also divided  
150 by sex of individuals. We limited pseudoreplication bias by counting as one “independent  
151 event” all videos of male or female pheasant taken by the same camera trap in less than 30  
152 min (Monterroso et al. 2014, Viviano et al. 2021, see also Lashley et al. 2018 for the wild turkey  
153 *Meleagris gallopavo*), keeping in our dataset only one record, placed in the mid-time between  
154 the first and the last video. We used the software R (version 3.6.1., R Foundation for Statistical  
155 Computing, Wien, Austria: [www.cran.r-project.org](http://www.cran.r-project.org)), package “overlap” (Meredith & Ridout  
156 2014) to estimate activity rhythms and patterns of inter-sexual temporal overlap. We  
157 computed the coefficient of overlapping ( $\Delta$ ) between temporal activity patterns of male and  
158 female pheasants. The coefficient of overlapping ranges between 0 (no overlap) and 1 (total  
159 overlap: Linkie & Ridout 2011, Meredith & Ridout 2014). We calculated the  $\Delta_1$  estimator as  
160 one of the samples of the comparison (i.e., female pheasant, cf. Results) was < 75 records  
161 (Linkie & Ridout 2011, Meredith & Ridout 2014). The 95% confidence intervals (hereafter, 95%  
162 CIs) of the coefficient estimator were estimated using 10,000 bootstrap replicates. Overlap  
163 was “intermediate” with  $\Delta$  included between 0.50 and 0.75 was considered as, “high” with  $\Delta$   
164 > 0.75, “very high” with  $\Delta$  > 0.90 (Viviano et al. 2021). The Hermans-Rasson  $r$  test was  
165 computed through the package “CircMLE” (Fitak 2020), to assess whether the common  
166 pheasant showed a random activity pattern over hours of captures (Landler et al. 2019).  
167 “Night” was defined as the period included between 1 h after the sunset and 1 h before the  
168 sunrise (Lazzeri et al. 2022). We got the sunset and sunrise with the package “suncalc” in R  
169 (Thieurmel et al. 2019), and we considered as crepuscular hours the range time when the sun  
170 is between  $12^\circ$  and  $0.833^\circ$  below the horizon (Lazzeri et al. 2022). The remaining part of the  
171 24h cycle was defined as “daylight”.

172



173 **RESULTS**

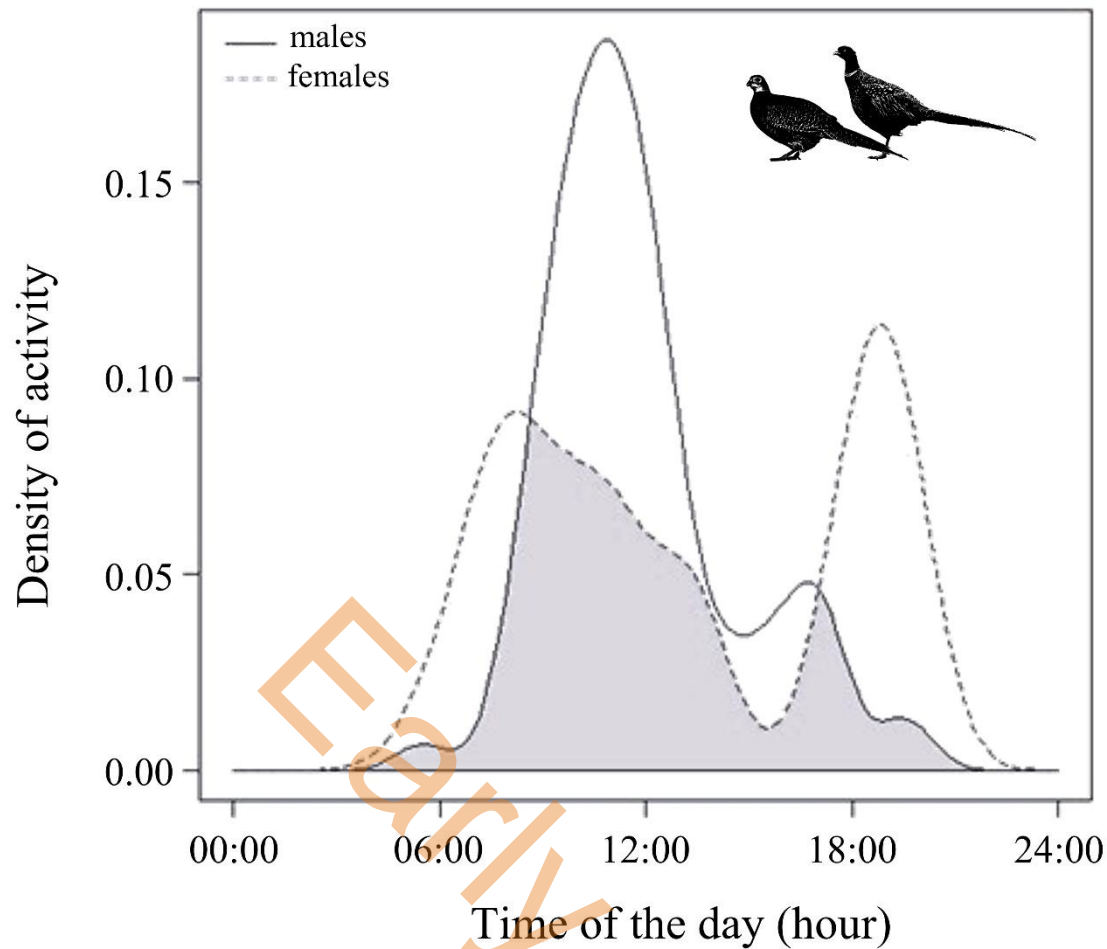
174 We collected a total of 129 records of common pheasants (males, N = 90; females, N = 39:  
175 Supplementary Material 1), at 8 out of 12 camera-trap sites, 83.45% in daylight hours and  
176 16.55% in crepuscular hours. At each camera trap, we were able to identify at least  $3.62 \pm 1.41$   
177 individuals (mean  $\pm$  SD, range: 2-6 individuals), based on sex, body size and tail length.

178 Our small sample size prevented us to distinguish between activity in the pre-egg laying  
179 period, and in the chick-rearing period.

180 Records were mainly from ecotone and open areas (100 events from 6 camera-traps), with  
181 few events from scrublands (21 events from 1 camera trap) and woodlands (8 events from 1  
182 camera trap). All records from scrublands and woodlands, (i.e., the 3.1% of the total records)  
183 were obtained in crepuscular hours.

184 Activity of both males and females showed a non-random pattern throughout the 24h cycle,  
185 peaking in late morning around 10:00-11:00 for males, whereas females showed a double  
186 peak in crepuscular hours (Hermans-Rasson test:  $r = 69.9-75.2$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). We recorded an  
187 intermediate overlap of activity rhythms between males and females during the breeding  
188 period ( $\Delta_1 = 0.55$ , 95%CI = 0.44-0.75: Figure 2). Males and females were sometimes recorded  
189 together, particularly in early morning (in 93% of records with a male and a female together).

190



191

192 **Figure 2.** Overlap of activity patterns between male and female pheasants (March-August).

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194

## 195 **DISCUSSION**

196 Our work showed for the first time the patterns of activity rhythms of the common pheasant,

197 a common game species. In our study area, the species showed a bimodal pattern during the

198 breeding period, with the first significant activity peak in the morning and other at sunset, i.e.,

199 at about 19:00. Records were mainly from ecotones and open areas, with few events from

200 scrublands and woodlands, which are habitat types used mostly for resting (Genovesi et al.

201 1999, Ashoori et al. 2018), and where it is much more complicated to obtain records from

202 camera traps. Our data suggested an intermediate activity overlap between males and

203 females. In detail, females are mainly active on the ground at crepuscular hours, whereas  
204 males showed a peak of activity in late morning, in contrast with our hypothesis. However,  
205 patterns of activity rhythms are in line with the sexual selection behaviour described for the  
206 species (Mateos 1998). Male ornaments are signals directed both to females and other  
207 competing males, influencing the decision-making processes of females and the results of  
208 male-male encounters (Mateos 1998). Therefore, territorial male sexual traits need to be well-  
209 detected, thus resulting in an increased activity in light hours, which may explain our results  
210 (Ridley & Hill 1987). However, male pheasants may limit their movements in late morning or  
211 afternoon to reduce the probability of encounters with humans, as well as to avoid the hottest  
212 hours of the day in spring and summer. Conversely, females may be active mostly in  
213 crepuscular hours, as the best trade-off between reducing predation risk (i.e., when predators  
214 are the least active, see Viviano et al. 2021, for the red fox in the same study area) and  
215 satisfying nutritional needs. The total activity peak in the morning (mostly due to male activity)  
216 confirmed the behaviour observed through camera-trapping for another sexually-dimorphic  
217 pheasant species, the blood pheasant *Ithaginis cruentus*, during the breeding period (Fan  
218 et al., 2020). This increased activity by bright and ornamented males in light hours may be  
219 linked to the fact that most predators (i.e., cats, foxes), apart from diurnal raptors and the  
220 pine marten, are nocturnal (see Viviano et al. 2021, for the same study area). The lower  
221 number of female camera-trap events with respect to males may depend on the fact that  
222 females are active in thick scrublands where positioning camera-traps may be challenging  
223 (Smith et al. 1999). However, we also placed our camera traps in dense bramble and broom  
224 scrubs, where no pheasant was recorded (Mori et al. 2021); therefore, we are confident that  
225 our analysis showed reliable results.

226 Moreover, our dataset was limited to the only breeding period; therefore, we cannot rule out

227 that a seasonal effect on activity patterns of the common pheasant may occur. Furthermore,  
228 future research with an increased sample size in each habitat type would help to detect  
229 whether habitats influence activity patterns by this species. According to Genovesi et al.  
230 (1999), time of the day (i.e., hours) may influence habitat use by pheasants, with cover  
231 habitats (mostly above the ground, e.g., on tree branches) mostly attended at night and in the  
232 hottest hours of the day (i.e., early afternoon), and open habitats for feeding mostly used at  
233 dawn and dusk (Dalke 1937).

234 We are aware of the limitations due to our low sample size, particularly for females, which  
235 have secretive habits and spend most time in cover habitats (tall grasslands) to protect broods.  
236 Moreover, camera-traps are effective in open places, but species detection could be  
237 considerably reduced in dense vegetation areas, which may have produced some bias in our  
238 results.

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241

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257

258 **DECLARATIONS**

259 **Research ethics** All procedures performed in this study did not involve animal handling and  
260 were in accordance with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments.

261 **Conflict of interest** Authors certify that they have no affiliation with or involvement in any  
262 organization or entity with any financial or non-financial interest in the subject matter or  
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