

This article was downloaded by: [Cornell University Library]

On: 18 March 2015, At: 06:43

Publisher: Taylor & Francis

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: Mortimer House, 37-41 Mortimer Street, London W1T 3JH, UK



## Bioacoustics: The International Journal of Animal Sound and its Recording

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/tbio20>

### An evaluation of manual and automated methods for detecting sounds of maned wolves (*Chrysocyon brachyurus* Illiger 1815)

Luciana H.S. Rocha<sup>ab</sup>, Luane S. Ferreira<sup>c</sup>, Bruna C. Paula<sup>a</sup>, Flávio H.G. Rodrigues<sup>a</sup> & Renata S. Sousa-Lima<sup>abd</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Laboratory of Bioacoustics, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal, Brazil

<sup>b</sup> Graduate Program in Psychobiology, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal, Brazil

<sup>c</sup> General Biology Department, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil

<sup>d</sup> Bioacoustics Research Program, Lab of Ornithology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA

Published online: 18 Mar 2015.



CrossMark

[Click for updates](#)

To cite this article: Luciana H.S. Rocha, Luane S. Ferreira, Bruna C. Paula, Flávio H.G. Rodrigues & Renata S. Sousa-Lima (2015): An evaluation of manual and automated methods for detecting sounds of maned wolves (*Chrysocyon brachyurus* Illiger 1815), *Bioacoustics: The International Journal of Animal Sound and its Recording*

To link to this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09524622.2015.1019361>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Taylor & Francis makes every effort to ensure the accuracy of all the information (the "Content") contained in the publications on our platform. However, Taylor & Francis, our agents, and our licensors make no representations or warranties whatsoever as to the accuracy, completeness, or suitability for any purpose of the Content. Any opinions and views expressed in this publication are the opinions and views of the authors, and are not the views of or endorsed by Taylor & Francis. The accuracy of the Content should not be relied upon and should be independently verified with primary sources of information. Taylor and Francis shall not be liable for any losses, actions, claims, proceedings, demands, costs, expenses, damages, and other liabilities whatsoever or

howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with, in relation to or arising out of the use of the Content.

This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden. Terms & Conditions of access and use can be found at <http://www.tandfonline.com/page/terms-and-conditions>

## An evaluation of manual and automated methods for detecting sounds of maned wolves (*Chrysocyon brachyurus* Illiger 1815)

Luciana H.S. Rocha<sup>a,b\*</sup>, Luane S. Ferreira<sup>a1</sup>, Bruna C. Paula<sup>a2</sup>, Flávio H.G. Rodrigues<sup>c3</sup> and Renata S. Sousa-Lima<sup>a,b,d4</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Laboratory of Bioacoustics, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal, Brazil;

<sup>b</sup>Graduate Program in Psychobiology, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte, Natal, Brazil;

<sup>c</sup>General Biology Department, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil;

<sup>d</sup>Bioacoustics Research Program, Lab of Ornithology, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA

(Received 15 November 2014; accepted 10 February 2015)

Although bioacoustics is increasingly used to study species and environments for their monitoring and conservation, detecting calls produced by species of interest is prohibitively time consuming when done manually. Here we compared four methods for detecting and identifying roar-barks of maned wolves (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*) within long sound recordings: (1) a manual method, (2) an automated detector method using Raven Pro 1.4, (3) an automated detector method using XBAT and (4) a mixed method using XBAT's detector followed by manual verification. Recordings were done using a song meter installed at the Serra da Canastra National Park (Minas Gerais, Brazil). For each method we evaluated the following variables in a 24-h recording: (1) total time required analysing files, (2) number of false positives identified and (3) number of true positives identified compared to total number of target sounds. Automated methods required less time to analyse the recordings (77–93 min) when compared to manual method (189 min), but consistently presented more false positives and were less efficient in identifying true positives (manual = 91.89%, Raven = 32.43% and XBAT = 84.86%). Adding a manual verification after XBAT detection dramatically increased efficiency in identifying target sounds (XBAT + manual = 100% true positives). Manual verification of XBAT detections seems to be the best way out of the proposed methods to collect target sound data for studies where large amounts of audio data need to be analysed in a reasonable time (111 min, 58.73% of the time required to find calls manually).

**Keywords:** *Chrysocyon brachyurus*; roar-barks; manual detection; automated detection

### Introduction

Bioacoustics is increasingly used to study species and environments for their monitoring and conservation (Laiolo 2010; Pijanowski, Farina, et al. 2011; Pijanowski, Villanueva-Rivera, et al. 2011). Rapid advances in technology and informatics are making it possible to acquire far more acoustic data than anyone can ever listen to, which calls for new methods of data management, visualization and analysis (Towsey et al. 2014).

A general problem in bioacoustics applications is detecting calls produced by species of interest. The most reliable method used for this purpose is still manual detection, which consists in visual and aural inspection of spectrograms and selection of target sounds (Urazghildiev and Clark 2007). This method demands a lot of time and effort and it can be

---

\*Corresponding author. Email: [lua.lupin@gmail.com](mailto:lua.lupin@gmail.com)

biased due the subjectiveness of operators, since people vary in their ability to detect and classify calls due to differences in age, experience and hearing (Digby et al. 2013).

Alternatively, sound analysis software preprogrammed to identify specific target sounds has been used with varying degrees of success. Automated detection has been recently achieved with high success for many mammal taxa including bats (Adams et al. 2010), whales (Baumgartner and Mussoline 2011) and elephants (Thompson et al. 2009, 2010; Venter and Hanekom 2010; Zeppelzauer et al. 2015). Using an automated detector can reduce the amount of labour required by rejecting portions of data that contain no target signal (Urazghildiiev and Clark 2007). Detector effectiveness depends on results with a high percentage of target signals (hits) detected and a low percentage of *false positives*. Such effectiveness is highest for species that have low call variability.

Canid complex acoustic repertoires result from different selective pressures acting on production, usage and vocal responses by different individuals from a particular species and as a result of individual signal variation during different ontogenetic phases (Kleiman 1967; Kleiman and Eisenberg 1973; Dabelsteen and Darden 2006). Ontogenetic changes in canids occur both in acoustic features of vocalizations and in patterns of call production in a specific environmental or social context (Coscia et al. 1991; Schassburger 1993; Dabelsteen and Darden 2006). Aspects of canid sound communication such as phonetics (Riede and Fitch 1999), syntax (Tembrock 1976), semantics (Lehner 1978; Brady 1981; Newton-Fisher et al. 1993) and nonlinear phenomena (Wilden et al. 1998; Riede et al. 2000; Sábato 2011) grant even greater variability to this group's vocal repertoire. Thus, for animals with a large degree of vocal variation, such as canids, a larger training set is necessary and detector performance tends to be reduced (Digby et al. 2013).

The maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus* Illiger 1815) is the biggest South American canid (Rodden et al. 2004) and it is currently in the "Near threatened" category according to the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species (IUCN 2014). Captive maned wolves' vocal repertoire was first described by Brady (1981) and comprised eight sound types. Recently, Sábato (2011) increased to 10 the number of sound types described for the species. Of these, nine are used for short and medium-distance communication. The tenth is a long distance call named the 'roar-bark', which consists of high amplitude tonal syllables emitted in sequences and presumably functions to space individuals in adjoining home areas (Kleiman 1972). Roar-barks exhibit intra-individual variability in several parameters both in frequency and time domains, which makes this vocalization potentially useful for individual discrimination (Brady 1981; Sábato 2011). In this study we used manual and automated detection methods to identify maned wolf's roar-barks in recordings collected in the Serra da Canastra National Park (Minas Gerais, Brazil). Human effort and unsupervised computer processing times required to process a 24-h sound recording were compared as well as the comprehensiveness of the resulting detections and the number of false positives identified by each method.

## Methods

### *Sound recordings*

Recordings of maned wolves were collected at the Serra da Canastra National Park, Minas Gerais, Brazil in December 2013. The park has an area of almost 2000 km<sup>2</sup> and its vegetation is composed basically of highland grasslands (Cerrado), with rocky outcrops in large areas and riparian vegetation along river banks (MMA/IBAMA 2005). The maned wolf population density in Serra da Canastra is one of the highest in the world: 0.08 individuals/km<sup>2</sup> (Consorte-McCrea and Santos 2014).

An autonomous recorder (Song Meter SM2+, Wildlife Acoustics, Inc., Concord, MA, USA) with two SMX-II weatherproof microphones (Wildlife Acoustics, Inc.) positioned on the right and left side of it was attached to a 1.8 m wood stake and placed in the Park (20°15'36"S, 46°33'W). We used the Song Meter SM2+ Configuration Utility software version 3.2.4 (Wildlife Acoustics, Inc.) to program the Song Meter in order to record during five nights (from 6 pm until 6 am), since this is the period of day when wolves are more active and vocalize more (Dietz 1984). All recordings were saved into 30 min-long segments for later analyses using the built-in SM2+ configuration tool (sample rate = 44.1 kHz; channels = stereo; gain = 36 dB; 16-bit WAV files).

### **Manual detection**

Two experienced sound analysts manually scanned 24 h of audio recordings collected in Serra da Canastra National Park for maned wolf's roar-barks. Experience was defined by prior visual and aural inspection of spectrograms of at least 200 h of data searching for maned wolf roar-barks. Sound spectrograms of channel 1 of each recording were browsed in Raven Pro 1.4 (Cornell Bioacoustics Lab, Ithaca, NY, USA; Charif et al. 2010) using a DFT window size of 2048 samples and Hann window. Aural inspection of amplified selections was done to confirm detection of very faint calls. While browsing a file, all calls detected were selected (Figure 1). Time of call occurrence, number of calls in each sequence and number of sequences were registered.

### **Raven's automated detector**

The first method of automated detection used was Raven's Band Limited Energy detector (Mills 2000), which operates by estimating the background noise of a signal and using it to find sections of the signal that exceed a specified signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) threshold in a specific frequency band, during a specific time (Charif et al. 2010). Following Raven's manual and after a series of trials using different parameter configurations (minimum frequency, maximum frequency, minimum duration, maximum duration, minimum separation, minimum occupancy, SNR threshold, block size, hop size and percentile), we chose the one that had the best performance in various files, with sequences of different SNR calls (see Results).

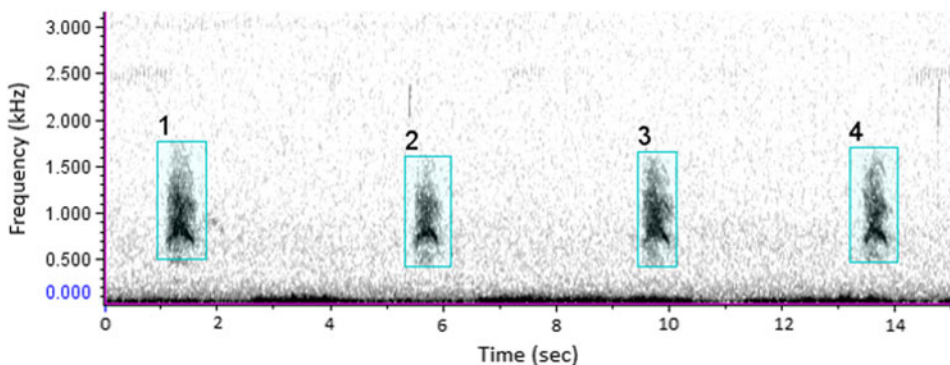


Figure 1. Sound spectrogram of a sequence of four maned wolf roar-barks selected in Raven Pro 1.4.

After configuring the detector, Raven allows a user to run a *Batch Detection*, which consists in using the same detector in a large number of files at the same time. All identified calls were manually reviewed to test the efficiency of this method.

### ***XBAT's automated detector***

The second method of automated detection was performed using the Data Template Detector of XBAT-R7 (Extensible Bioacoustic Tool; Figueroa 2007) on MATLAB R2010a (MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA). The Data Template Detector searches for sounds that cross-correlate to one or more pre-set sound templates and logs all events for which the correlation value exceeds a specified threshold. Initially we evaluated how to select call templates based on a series of trials using different template sounds and thresholds to conclude that pre-scanning was the best option to select appropriated templates. Pre-scanning was made with a previous roar-bark sample from another site using a high threshold (0.60). Pre-scanning time was not counted in the total time for the XBAT automated detector. Target sound templates were selected from pre-scanning the data. After exhaustive trials using different spectral portions of roar-barks (i.e. fundamental frequency or second harmonic), four template selection types (Figure 2) were used because this combination of templates detected more roar-barks. After scanning completion, XBAT detections were reviewed in the browse log window to verify efficiency of this method. Furthermore, different spectrogram configurations: slice sizes, frequency ranges, threshold values, and brightness and contrast levels were tested with the same set of call templates to evaluate the influence of those parameters on XBAT detection performance.

### ***XBAT + manual***

In addition to the procedure described above, a manual search for missed vocalizations on each sequence found by XBAT automated detector was made and the time effort spent doing so was counted separately. After a positive XBAT detection, missed roar-barks were manually counted backwards and forwards until a 24 s window with no roar-barks were identified, which was considered the sequence duration. This window time was chosen considering sequences of roar-barks in our data. This fourth mixed method was labelled 'XBAT + manual'. XBAT was used as the basis of this method because it presented better performance than Raven for our data (see Results).

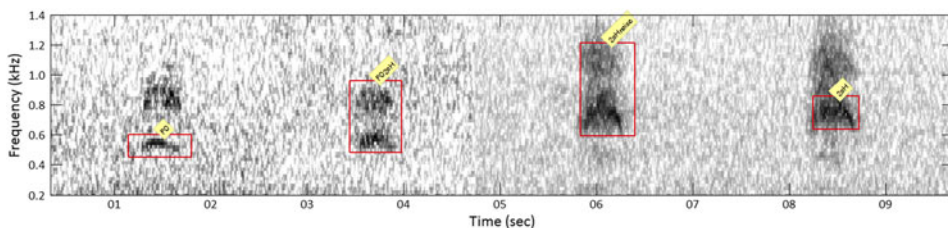


Figure 2. XBAT sound spectrogram showing the selections of the four templates used. From left to right-F0: Fundamental frequency. F02oH: Fundamental frequency to second harmonic. 2oHnoise: Second harmonic plus noise at higher frequencies. 2oH: Second harmonic.

### ***Comparing methods***

Manual and automated detections were made using the same computer with the same 48 half-hour files, totalling a 24-h sound recording. Prior testing of many different configurations for each automated detector was done to verify which parameter settings yielded more detection within each tool, which allowed us to better understand how each detector works. Total processing time required to detect target sounds using the manual method was calculated as the sum of the time spent manually browsing and selecting sounds in each individual half-hour file. Mean manual processing time was calculated using the same data (amount of time browsing and selecting target sounds in each half-hour file).

For each automated detector, total processing time was calculated as the sum of the time spent configuring the detector plus the time running the detector (i.e. computer processing time) in all files and the time needed to review the detections. In order to calculate the mean time required to automatic analyse each file, the total time needed to configure and run each automated detector was divided by 48 (the number of files used). The resulting time was added to the time spent to verify detections in each file to calculate processing time for each half-hour file. Manual browsing and selection of sounds, configuration of detector parameters and review of the resulting automated detections were all considered human effort because it required operator input. Time taken by the detector to scan all files was considered computer processing time because it required no input from operators and allowed the analysts to dedicate themselves to another task.

Two measures of sound detection efficiency were taken: the number of false positives and comprehensiveness. Scanning comprehensiveness was measured according to Swiston and Mennill (2009) as the number of correctly identified sounds (true positives) by each method over the total number of target sounds. Comprehensiveness was calculated for detections of individual roar-barks and detections of sequences of roar-barks and the results are presented as percentages.

### ***Statistical analyses***

All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 (SPSS, Inc., 2011, Chicago, IL, USA). We compared processing time for each 30-min file using Friedman's ANOVA test followed by post hoc Wilcoxon's matched-pairs tests. The Bonferroni correction was used to determine statistical significance ( $\alpha$  level was reduced to 0.0125 for a 95% confidence interval). Only  $p$  values below this level were considered significant.

## **Results**

### ***Automated detectors' configuration***

Raven's best detector parameter configuration was as follows: minimum frequency = 300 Hz, maximum frequency = 900 Hz, minimum duration = 0.2 s, maximum duration = 0.85 s, minimum separation = 2.8 s, minimum occupancy = 50%, SNR threshold = 8 dB, block size = 3 s, hop size = 1 s, percentile = 50%. Regarding the best parameter configuration for XBAT, we found it to be 2048 FFT, auto advance, Hann distribution type, 1200 slices size, frequency range from 200 to 1400 Hz, brightness 1 and contrast 0.43. We used the highest threshold value (0.21) that resulted in the detection of at least one roar-bark in each sequence. Those detector configurations were used for all subsequent Raven and XBAT detection runs.

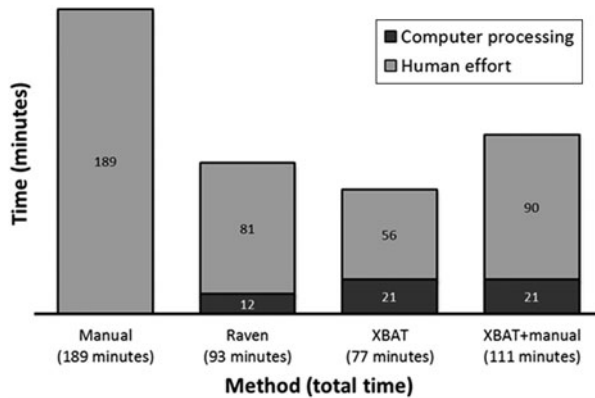


Figure 3. Time spent in human effort (light grey) and in computer processing (black) of a 24-h recording for each detection method used to target maned wolf's roar-barks.

### *Processing time*

Both automated detectors and the mixed method (XBAT + manual) reduced the total time required to process a 24-h recording (Manual = 189 min; Raven = 93 min; XBAT = 77 min; XBAT + manual = 111 min; Figure 3). The Raven automated detector required more human effort to verify the output of the detectors (computer processing = 14 min; human effort = 79 min) than XBAT's (computer processing = 21 min; human effort = 56 min). XBAT + manual method required 34 extra minutes of human effort (computer processing time = 21 min; human effort = 90 min) to review all roar-barks sequences found using XBAT's detector.

Time to process each file was significantly shorter using automated detector or the mixed method than manual detection (mean rank for a 30 min file: manual = 3.71; Raven = 2.27; XBAT = 1.78; XBAT + manual = 2.24.  $X^2(3) = 65,144$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

### *Detection comprehensiveness and false positives*

Manual detection resulted in 170 roar-barks with different SNR in the 24-h recording analysed (91.89% of total calls). Raven's detector found only 60 roar-barks (32.43% of the total number of calls) while XBAT's detector had a better performance, resulting in 157 roar-barks (84.86%). Missed signals for both detectors were mainly distant (faint) calls, sometimes missing their fundamental frequency bands. Raven also missed some close calls when they were too noisy. The mixed method adding *a posteriori* manual selection of sounds around XBAT automated detections achieved 100% comprehensiveness (185 roar-barks) (Figure 4).

Roar-barks were distributed in 29 sequences (12 of 1 or 2 roar-barks and 17 of 3 or more) in the 24-h recording. Raven's detector identified only 10 sequences, while XBAT found all of them. When analysing the number of individual roar-barks in each sequence, we observed that Raven only found sequences of three or more. XBAT + manual did not enhance the number of sequences found, only the number of individual roar-barks detected (Figure 5).

Raven's detector resulted in 119 false positives while XBAT's detected 1456. Raven's false positives were mostly wind (63%), but also insects (32.8%), recording self-noise (2.5%) and other unidentified sounds (1.7%). These signals were in the same frequency

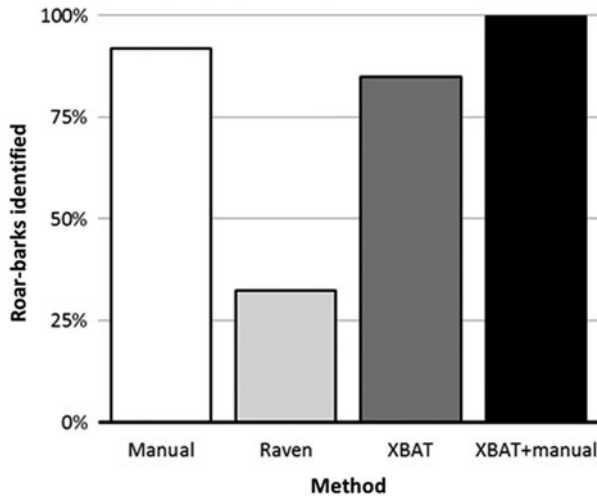


Figure 4. Percentage of correct roar-barks identifications by each method in a 24-h recording.

band that Raven’s detector was searching for the roar-barks. Figure 6 shows examples of Raven’s detector false positives.

Since we used four XBAT templates and a low threshold value, a higher number of false positives was expected because it included a variety of frequency bands. Therefore, XBAT detection resulted in much more false positives, thus we selected 25% of all XBAT’s wrong detections to verify which types of sounds most contributed to these false detections. XBAT detected mostly rain (45%), but also insects (19%), wind (18%), recording self-noise (14%) and other unidentified sounds (4%). Figure 7 shows examples of XBAT’s detector false positives. XBAT and Raven differed in which non-target signals

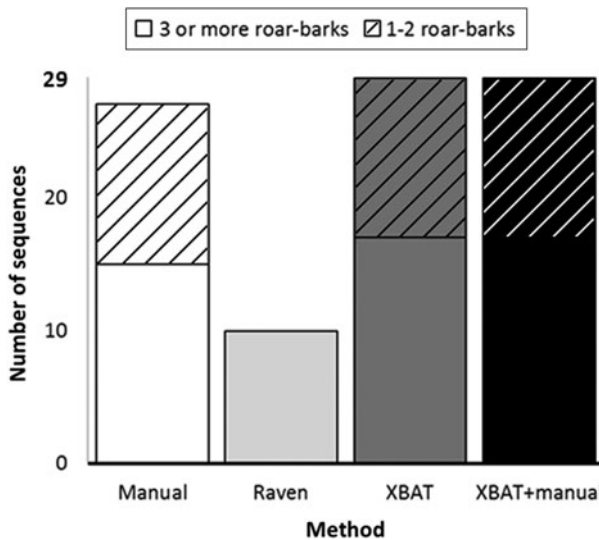


Figure 5. Number of sequences identified by each method in a 24-h recording. Hashed portion shows sequences of one or two roar-barks, solid area shows sequences of three or more roar-barks.

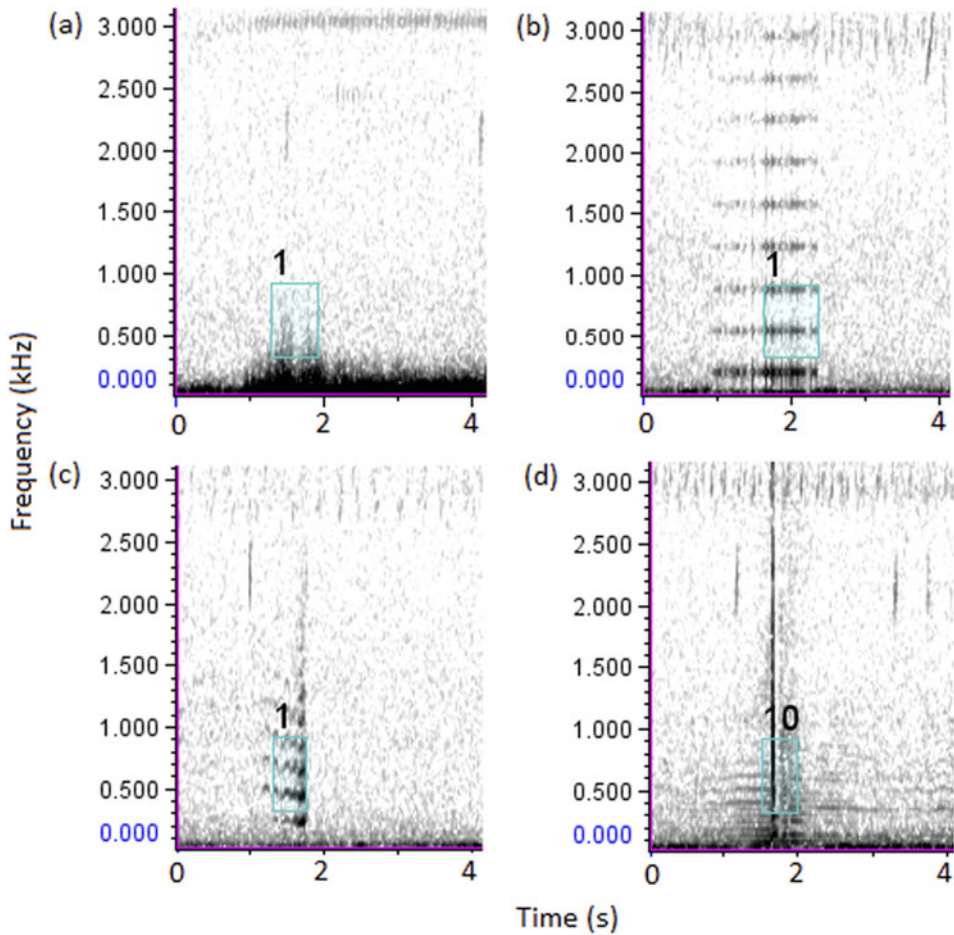


Figure 6. Sound spectrograms exemplifying Raven’s false positives. (a) Wind, (b) recording system self-noise, (c) insect flying nearby and (d) insect hitting the microphone.

were detected (false positives). Only 32% of false positives were shared between the two detection tools.

### Discussion

Scanning a 24-h recording for maned wolf’s roar-barks using automated or mixed methods (Raven, XBAT or XBAT + manual) was faster than browsing it manually (Figure 3). However, automated methods missed more target sounds and returned more false positive than manual detection. For both automated methods, more false positives also meant more reviewing time. The mixed method, on the other hand, achieved 100% comprehensiveness, detecting all target sounds and, therefore, had the best result (Figure 4).

#### *Automated detectors’ configuration*

Decreasing XBAT’s threshold gradually enhanced the number of true positives until it found all sequences. However, at the same time, it exponentially increased the number of false positives. Changing Raven’s detection threshold did not work in a predictable way

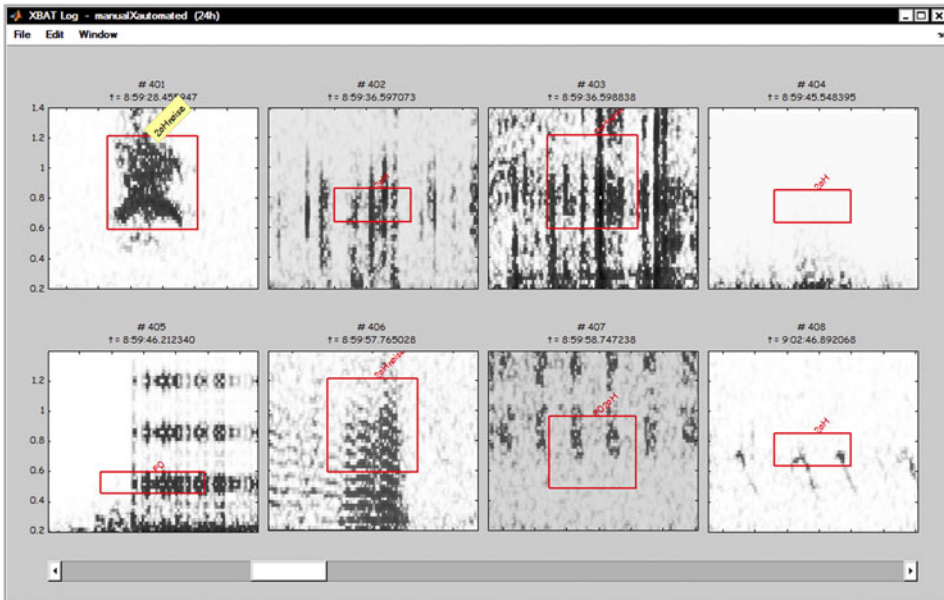


Figure 7. Browse log window from XBAT showing one roar-bark (upper left) and seven examples of false positives (in order: rain, rain, wind, recording system self-noise, insect flying nearby and two types of insect sound). Numbers following # are the event number (from a total of 1613) and numbers following = are the time of the event. Spectrogram boxes are 0.2–1.4 kHz  $\times$  1.4 s.

like XBAT's detector did. Decreasing the threshold increased the number of true positives up to a point. After that, the number of hits varied randomly and the same happened with false positives.

We tested several other XBAT template detector parameters. Increasing or decreasing the FFT value, even substantially, yields small changes in true positives or false positives. However, computer processing time increased or decreased, respectively. Unfortunately, visual identification of sounds on the spectrogram became too hard to justify a decrease of FFT to decrease computer processing time. Changing the frequency range had no effect whatsoever, except when excluding the initial 200 Hz. When this highly noisy low frequency band is included, XBAT filters are affected and spectrogram visualization is impaired. Similarly, brightness and contrast changes had small effects other than jeopardizing spectrogram visualization. Changing window slices also had a very small effect on true and false positives, but reduction or increase in computer processing time was proportional. We used a slightly smaller number than the maximum slices per window and successfully obtained a decrease in computer processing time without losing efficiency. Finally, it should be noted that the XBAT template detector allows template matches to be exclusive or non-exclusive. Non-exclusive searches had a slightly shorter computer processing time but yielded a greater number of matches, increasing the number of false positives and redundancy in true positive matching (several true positives were found two or three times, overestimating the number of detections).

### *Processing time*

Processing time was influenced by the number of roar-barks found (true or false positives) in each file no matter which method was used. Raven's detector only needed 14 min of

independent processing, but it required more manual effort to check all detections (and two-thirds of them were false positives). XBAT's detector took longer to configure and scan all files (21 min), but required less time of human verification, even considering that XBAT's detector returned more false positives than Raven's tool. Adding a manual selection after XBAT's detection (XBAT + manual) increased the human effort from 56 to 90 min, but it still represents less than half the time needed to detect all calls manually (189 min).

One factor that influenced the reduced time spent in verifying detections in XBAT is that Raven Pro 1.4 plots its results in different archives, which requires re-opening each individual file with matches. XBAT, on the other hand, plots every match in a single separated window, making it much faster to browse between matches and files (Figure 7). However, the recently released Raven Pro 1.5 brings as a new feature a detection browsing window similar to XBAT's, which probably would facilitate manual verification of detections and reduce processing time.

Current demand for big data analyses prevents humans from manually detecting target sounds, and all automated methods presented here (and also the mixed method) reduced the time required to analyse a 24-h recording. Automated scanning can also run in different computers at the same time, which can further improve the efficiency of automated detections many fold.

### ***Detection comprehensiveness and false positives***

Automated methods were less efficient than manual browsing both in correctly identifying target sounds and in the number of false positives. Raven's detector only found 32.43% of all roar-barks and could not find any sequence of one or two calls (Figure 5). Raven misclassified as target sounds those generated by wind, insects and microphone static (Figure 6), and the number of false positives was almost twice as high as the number of hits (true positives). Recent studies using Raven's Band Limited Energy Detector to find sounds of fin whales (Morano et al. 2012) and migrant songbirds (Van Doren et al. 2015) show high true positive percentages: 79% comprehensiveness for whales and 96% in low noise conditions for birds, although also capturing a large number of false positives in the bird study (more than 90% of detections). Raven's detector also showed high accuracy in detection of motor vehicle noise in a forested landscape (Brown et al. 2013). Our Raven roar-bark detector performance was poorer than the Raven performance for sounds from those examples and can be attributed to the high variability of our target signals, especially concerning their low SNR, which could have resulted in several missed calls.

The XBAT automated detector found 100% of roar-bark sequences and 84.86% of all individual roar-barks. This detector showed better comprehensiveness than other studies using the same method, perhaps because they used higher thresholds (Charif and Pitzrick 2008; Swiston and Mennill 2009) or only one template as reference (Borker et al. 2014), while we used four of them. Oswald et al. (2011) found high detection rates for high SNR whale 'boings' (between 90% and 100%), but only 22–59% for lower quality calls. In our study, a total of 1456 false positives were detected, almost 10 times the number of hits. For reasons already discussed above, XBAT false positives were more readily discriminated than Raven's, making reviewing time faster for XBAT despite the very high number of false positives (Figure 7). It is also interesting to notice that both Raven's and XBAT's false detections were sounds generated by abiotic factors (wind and rain), self-noise and insect activity. Similar types of sounds were false positives in other studies using these tools (Swiston and Mennill 2009; Brown et al. 2013; Van Doren et al. 2015).

XBAT's detector was the fastest method and had good comprehensiveness, making it very useful in studies where finding all target sounds is not mandatory and time is a constraint. For instance, if a conservation study wants to determine whether a species is present in an area, this fast sound data analysis method would be more effective than other methods.

The mixed method of manually verified sequences detected by XBAT (XBAT + manual method) reached 100% of accuracy and was considered the best method to find all target sounds in the data-set. The mixed method surprisingly found 15 roar-barks that were missed during manual browsing due to their low SNR. This method is well suited for studies involving temporal variation, for example, where missing a few vocalizations can bias the entire result.

## Conclusions

Although several techniques for automated sound detection have been tested in the past years, most of them have been designed with specific target species' signals in mind and more generic approaches are desired (Blumstein et al. 2011). Both Raven and XBAT's detectors provide a fast alternative to manual browsing of large audio files, but at the cost of detection comprehensiveness. Since no highly advanced informatics skills are needed to configure their detectors, these tools become very user-friendly for biologists.

The XBAT + manual mixed method proved to be very successful to detect target sounds in our data, identifying 100% of all roar-barks and sequences recorded in the field. In cases where it is important to find all vocalizations, automated methods will still require improvements, and additional manual browsing might be useful. However, both automated detectors missed mostly very faint calls.

Missing faint sounds during automated signal detection is probably a problem of SNR. The higher the background noise, the more likely a faint target signal will be missed. Therefore, some means of increasing SNR, such as denoising recordings, should be useful to improve signal detection. In addition, the capability to identify and exclude transient non-target signals would improve performance by reducing false detection rates. Both solutions are currently in development for several signal processing tools.

We also suggest specific additional improvements for XBAT. This tool sets a single threshold for each detection run regardless of the number of templates. The possibility of running a single detection with different thresholds values for each template would be an improvement since different templates may have different optimal thresholds. A single threshold forces the detection to be run with the lower optimal template threshold, therefore, increasing the number of false positives generated by the other templates. Other useful tools could be added to the XBAT core such as batch runs that iteratively use a set increase in detection threshold value (e.g. an increase of 0.1 resulting in sequential runs with thresholds set to 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, etc.), resulting in different XBAT logs. The resulting logs could be fed into yet another tool that would be able to compare and show the differences in detection logs and the user could access the best threshold to use without much human effort.

The maned wolf is considered 'Near threatened' by IUCN, thus it is important to conduct long-term monitoring of wild populations to better understand their biology. The mixed method used in this study was well suited to identify all target sounds and, therefore, can be very useful in studies that require a fast identification of maned wolf's roar-barks in a natural environment within long recordings. Passive acoustic monitoring can be an invaluable conservation tool for this species.

## Acknowledgements

We thank the Laboratory of Bioacoustics at the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte (LaB – UFRN) for support and technical assistance. For field and laboratory assistance, we are very grateful to Victor Sábato, Marina Duarte and Jean Santos. We also thank Wallisen Tadashi Hattori for statistical advice and two anonymous reviewers for suggestions that greatly improved our manuscript. Data collection at Serra da Canastra National Park was authorized by Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio) (SISBIO license number 41329-2).

## Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

## Funding

This study was supported by CNPq (*Edital Universal* [grant number 474000/2010-9] and *Bolsa Produtividade em Pesquisa* to FHGR [grant number 301665/2011-7]), FAPEMIG (PPM Program to FHGR), Idea Wild, and the Graduate Program in Psychobiology – UFRN.

## Notes

1. Email: [fsluane@gmail.com](mailto:fsluane@gmail.com)
2. Email: [brunacampospaula@outlook.com](mailto:brunacampospaula@outlook.com)
3. Email: [rodriguesfhg@gmail.com](mailto:rodriguesfhg@gmail.com)
4. Email: [sousalima.renata@gmail.com](mailto:sousalima.renata@gmail.com)

## References

- Adams MD, Law BS, Gibson MS. 2010. Reliable automation of bat call identification for eastern New South Wales, Australia, using classification trees and AnaScheme software. *Acta Chiropterol* 12(1):231–245. doi:[10.3161/150811010X504725](https://doi.org/10.3161/150811010X504725).
- Baumgartner MF, Mussoline SE. 2011. A generalized baleen whale call detection and classification system. *J Acoust Soc Am* 129(5):2889–2902. doi:[10.1121/1.3562166](https://doi.org/10.1121/1.3562166).
- Blumstein DT, Mennill DJ, Clemins P, Girod L, Yao K, Patricelli G, Deppe JL, Krakauer AH, Clark C, Cortopassi KA, et al. 2011. Acoustic monitoring in terrestrial environments using microphone arrays: applications, technological considerations and prospectus. *J Appl Ecol* 48(3):758–767. doi:[10.1111/j.1365-2664.2011.01993.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2011.01993.x).
- Borker AL, Mckown MW, Ackerman JT, Eagles-Smith CA, Tershy BR, Croll DA. 2014. Vocal activity as a low cost and scalable index of seabird colony size. *Conserv Biol* 28(4):1–9.
- Brady CA. 1981. The vocal repertoires of the bush dog (*Speothos venaticus*), crab-eating fox (*Cerdocyon thous*), and maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*). *Anim Behav* 29(3):649–669. doi:[10.1016/S0003-3472\(81\)80001-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-3472(81)80001-2).
- Brown CL, Reed SE, Dietz MS, Fristrup KM. 2013. Detection and classification of motor vehicle noise in a forested landscape. *Environ Manage* 52(5):1262–1270. doi:[10.1007/s00267-013-0123-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-013-0123-8).
- Charif R, Pitzrick M. 2008. Automated detection of Cerulean Warbler songs using XBAT data template detector software. Preliminary Report. Cornell University Bioacoustics Research Program.
- Charif R, Waack A, Strickman L. 2010. Raven Pro 1.4 user's manual. Ithaca, NY: Cornell Lab of Ornithology.
- Consorte-McCrea AG, Santos EF, editors. 2014. Ecology and conservation of the maned wolf: multidisciplinary perspectives. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, Taylor & Francis.
- Coscia EM, Phillips DP, Fentress JC. 1991. Spectral analysis of neonatal wolf *Canis lupus* vocalizations. *Bioacoustics* 3(4):275–293. doi:[10.1080/09524622.1991.9753190](https://doi.org/10.1080/09524622.1991.9753190).
- Dabelsteen T, Darden S. 2006. Ontogeny of swift fox *Vulpes velox* vocalizations: production, usage and response. *Behaviour* 143(6):659–681. doi:[10.1163/15685390677791351](https://doi.org/10.1163/15685390677791351).
- Dietz JM. 1984. Ecology and social organization of the maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*). *Smithson Contrib Zool* 392:1–51. doi:[10.5479/si.00810282.392](https://doi.org/10.5479/si.00810282.392).

- Digby A, Towsey M, Bell BD, Teal PD, Giuggioli L. 2013. A practical comparison of manual and autonomous methods for acoustic monitoring. *Methods Ecol Evol* 4(7):675–683. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12060.
- Figueroa H. 2007. Extensible BioAcoustic Tool. Ithaca, NY: Cornell Bioacoustics Research Program, XBAT R7. Available from: <http://www.birds.cornell.edu/brp/software/xbat-installation>
- IUCN. 2014. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2014.1. Available from: <http://www.iucnredlist.org/>. Downloaded on 11 June 2014.
- Kleiman DG. 1967. Some aspects of social behavior in the Canidae. *Am Zool* 7:365–372.
- Kleiman DG. 1972. Social behavior of the maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*) and bush dog (*Speothos venaticus*): a study in contrast. *J Mammal* 53(4):791–806. doi:10.2307/1379214.
- Kleiman DG, Eisenberg JF. 1973. Comparisons of canid and felid social systems from an evolutionary perspective. *Anim Behav* 21(4):637–659. doi:10.1016/S0003-3472(73)80088-0.
- Laiolo P. 2010. The emerging significance of bioacoustics in animal species conservation. *Biol Conserv* 143(7):1635–1645. doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2010.03.025.
- Lehner PN. 1978. Coyote vocalizations: a lexicon and comparisons with other canids. *Anim Behav* 26:712–722. doi:10.1016/0003-3472(78)90138-0.
- Mills H. 2000. Geographically distributed acoustical monitoring of migrating birds. *J Acoust Soc Am* 108(5):2582. doi:10.1121/1.4743594.
- MMA/IBAMA. 2005. Management plan – Serra da Canastra National Park. Ministério do Meio Ambiente – MMA/Instituto Brasileiro do Meio Ambiente e dos Recursos Naturais Renováveis – Ibama, Brasília, Brasil.
- Morano JL, Salisbury DP, Rice AN, Conklin KL, Falk KL, Clark CW. 2012. Seasonal and geographical patterns of fin whale song in the western North Atlantic Ocean. *J Acoust Soc Am* 132(2):1207–1212. doi:10.1121/1.4730890.
- Newton-Fisher N, Harris S, White P, Jones G. 1993. Structure and function of red fox *Vulpes vulpes* vocalisations. *Bioacoustics* 5(1–2):1–31. doi:10.1080/09524622.1993.9753228.
- Oswald JN, Au WW, Duennebieer F. 2011. Minke whale (*Balaenoptera acutorostrata*) boings detected at the Station ALOHA Cabled Observatory. *J Acoust Soc Am* 129(5):3353–3360. doi:10.1121/1.3575555.
- Pijanowski BC, Farina A, Gage SH, Dumyahn SL, Krause BL. 2011. What is soundscape ecology? An introduction and overview of an emerging new science. *Landscape Ecol* 26(9):1213–1232. doi:10.1007/s10980-011-9600-8.
- Pijanowski BC, Villanueva-Rivera LJ, Dumyahn SL, Farina A, Krause BL, Napoletano BM, Gage SH, Pieretti N. 2011. Soundscape ecology: the science of sound in the landscape. *BioScience* 61(3):203–216. doi:10.1525/bio.2011.61.3.6.
- Riede T, Fitch T. 1999. Vocal tract length and acoustics of vocalization in the domestic dog (*Canis familiaris*). *J Exp Biol* 202(20):2859–2867.
- Riede T, Herzog H, Mehwald D, Seidner W, Trumler E, Böhme G, Tembrock G. 2000. Nonlinear phenomena in the natural howling of a dog-wolf mix. *J Acoust Soc Am* 108(4):1435–1442. doi:10.1121/1.1289208.
- Rodden M, Rodrigues F, Bestelmeyer S. 2004. Maned wolf (*Chrysocyon brachyurus*). In: Sillero-Zubiri C, Hoffman M, MacDonald DW, editors. Canids: foxes, wolves, jackals and dogs. Status survey and conservation action plan. Gland and Cambridge: IUCN/SSC Canid Specialist Group; p. 38–43.
- Sábato V. 2011. Aspects of the acoustic behaviour of the maned wolf *Chrysocyon brachyurus* (Illiger 1815) [Master's dissertation]. Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil.
- Schassburger RM. 1993. Vocal communication in the timber wolf, *Canis lupus*, Linnaeus: structure, motivation, and ontogeny. *Adv Ethol* 30:1–84.
- Swiston KA, Mennill DJ. 2009. Comparison of manual and automated methods for identifying target sounds in audio recordings of Pileated, Pale-billed, and putative Ivory-billed woodpeckers. *J Field Ornithol* 80(1):42–50. doi:10.1111/j.1557-9263.2009.00204.x.
- Tembrock G. 1976. Canid vocalizations. *Behav Process* 1(1):57–75. doi:10.1016/0376-6357(76)90007-3.
- Thompson ME, Schwager SJ, Payne KB. 2010. Heard but not seen: an acoustic survey of the African forest elephant population at Kakum Conservation Area, Ghana. *Afr J Ecol* 48(1):224–231. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2028.2009.01106.x.

- Thompson ME, Schwager SJ, Payne KB, Turkalo AK. 2009. Acoustic estimation of wildlife abundance: methodology for vocal mammals in forested habitats. *Afr J Ecol* 48(3):654–661.
- Towsey M, Parsons S, Sueur J. 2014. Ecology and acoustics at a large scale. *Ecol Inform* 21:1–3. doi:[10.1016/j.ecoinf.2014.02.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoinf.2014.02.002).
- Urazghildiiev IR, Clark CW. 2007. Detection performances of experienced human operators compared to a likelihood ratio based detector. *J Acoust Soc Am* 122(1):200–204. doi:[10.1121/1.2735114](https://doi.org/10.1121/1.2735114).
- Van Doren BM, Sheldon D, Geevarghese J, Hochachka WM, Farnsworth A. 2015. Autumn morning flights of migrant songbirds in the northeastern United States are linked to nocturnal migration and winds aloft. *The Auk* 132(1):105–118.
- Venter PJ, Hanekom JJ. 2010. Automatic detection of African elephant (*Loxodonta africana*) infrasonic vocalisations from recordings. *Biosyst Eng* 106(3):286–294.
- Wilden I, Herzel H, Peters G, Tembrock G. 1998. Subharmonics, biphonation, and deterministic chaos in mammal vocalization. *Bioacoustics* 9(3):171–196. doi:[10.1080/09524622.1998.9753394](https://doi.org/10.1080/09524622.1998.9753394).
- Zeppelzauer M, Hensman S, Stoeger AS. 2015. Towards an automated acoustic detection system for free-ranging elephants. *Bioacoustics* 24(1):13–29. doi:[10.1080/09524622.2014.906321](https://doi.org/10.1080/09524622.2014.906321).