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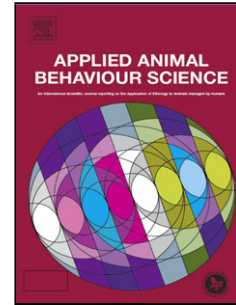
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1 **Calculating association indices in captive animals: controlling for enclosure size and shape**

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11
12 *Highlights*

- 13 • *Studies using an association index often fail to account for enclosure size and shape*
- 14
- 15 • *We propose a correction for such indices which controls for enclosure size and shape*
- 16
- 17 • *Our simple R script can be used to determine chance encounters in any area*
- 18
- 19 • *Shape did not affect the probability of a chance encounter in large areas*
- 20
- 21
- 22

23 **Abstract**

24 Indices of association are used to quantify and evaluate social affiliation among animals living
25 in groups. Association models assume that physical proximity is an indication of social
26 affiliation; however, individuals seen associating might simply be together by chance. This
27 problem is particularly pronounced in studies of captive animals, whose movements are
28 sometimes severely spatially restricted relative to the wild. Few attempts have been made to

29 estimate – and thus control for – chance encounters based on enclosure size and shape. Using
30 geometric probability and Geographic Information Systems, we investigated the likely effect of
31 chance encounters on association indices within dyads (pairs of animals), when different
32 distance criteria for defining associations are used in shapes of a given area. We developed a
33 simple R script, which can be used to provide a robust estimate of the probability of a chance
34 encounter in a square of any area. We used Monte Carlo methods to determine that this
35 provided acceptable estimates of the probability of chance encounters in rectangular shapes and
36 the shapes of six actual zoo enclosures, and we present an example of its use to correct observed
37 indices of association. Applying this correction controls for differences in enclosure size and
38 shape, and allows association indices between dyads housed in different enclosures to be
39 compared.

40

41 **Key words:** behaviour modelling; geometric probability; index of association; social behaviour.

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Indices of association were originally developed by ecologists to analyse how often
45 plant species were found in proximity to one another (Southwood, 1968) but have also been
46 used since at least the 1970s to quantify social relationships between individual animals living
47 in groups (e.g. lions (*Panthera leo*): Schaller, 1972; feral cats (*Felis catus*): Rees, 1982; spider
48 monkeys (*Ateles geoffroyi*): Chapman, 1990; spotted hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta*): Szykman et al.,
49 2001; Spix's disc-winged bats (*Thyroptera tricolor*): Vonhof et al., 2004; cheetahs (*Acinonyx*
50 *jubatus*): Chadwick et al., 2013). Association indices assume that physical proximity is an
51 indication of social affiliation (Bejder et al., 1998; Knobel & Du Toit, 2003; Whitehead, 2008)
52 and calculate the proportion of time individuals in dyads are seen together (Whitehead &
53 Dufault, 1999; Godde et al., 2013).

54 The association index, however, masks the extent to which individuals have come into
55 proximity for reasons other than attempting to associate for social purposes. It has formerly
56 proven difficult to calculate how often individuals are seen associating together simply by

57 chance. The random gas model (Equation 1; Schülke & Kappeler, 2003) has been used to
 58 calculate expected encounter rates in wild populations (Waser, 1975; Schülke & Kappeler,
 59 2003; Hutchinson & Waser, 2007; Leu et al., 2010), where the expected frequency of encounter
 60 (f) is dependent on the density (p) of a species, the velocity of the animals (v), the group spread
 61 (s) and the distance criterion that defines association (d).

$$f = \frac{(4pv)}{\pi(2d + s)} \quad (1)$$

62 However, this method relies on variables that can be difficult to measure, such as group spread
 63 (dispersion) and the velocity (rate of movement) of the animals.

64 Whilst the majority of studies using indices of association have been conducted on wild
 65 populations (Whitehead & Dufault, 1999), some authors have used association indices to
 66 investigate social behaviour in captive animals. An association index was used by Knobel and
 67 du Toit (2003) to document the social structure of a pack of captive African wild dogs (*Lycaon*
 68 *pictus*), and Romero and Aureli (2007) calculated association indices in a group of zoo housed
 69 ring-tailed coatis (*Nasua nasua*). Neither of these studies took into account chance encounters.
 70 The problem of chance encounters is more pronounced in a captive environment, where the
 71 space available to animals is limited relative to the wild and where enclosure sizes (and shapes)
 72 vary across facilities, making direct comparison of association indices difficult. For instance,
 73 animals housed in an enclosure measuring 100 m² are more likely to be observed in proximity
 74 simply by chance than animals housed in an enclosure measuring 2000 m², and animals in a
 75 square enclosure measuring 100 m² are more likely to be found together by chance than animals
 76 in a rectangular enclosure of the same area.

77 Despite the spatial confinement of captive animals rendering their free movement
 78 limited, relative to cage mates, few attempts have been made to estimate – and thus control for –
 79 chance encounters based on enclosure size and shape. Stricklin et al. (1979) investigated
 80 spacing relationships in square, circular and triangular pens using computer simulations and
 81 actual observations of cattle (*Bos taurus*). The results of their simulations demonstrated the
 82 effects of pen size and shape on the mean nearest-neighbour distance, with greater distances in

83 the triangle than in the square or the circle when pen size was held constant. Although this study
84 used a different measure of spatial arrangement (distance to nearest neighbour rather than an
85 index of association), the work highlighted the effects of pen size and shape on spacing
86 arrangements and the importance of adequate pen size in ensuring the welfare of group-housed
87 animals.

88 In a recent paper, we devised a simple Monte Carlo-based simulation to ascertain the
89 effects of chance encounters on indices of association among captive cheetah pairs (Chadwick
90 et al., 2013). Monte Carlo simulations have been used in studies of wild animals to test whether
91 or not individuals have preferred associates (Bejder et al., 1998; Carter et al., 2013) by
92 producing randomly generated data sets for comparison with real data sets. Using data generated
93 by our simulation, we were able to produce corrected indices of association that took into
94 account chance encounters based on enclosure size (Chadwick et al., 2013). However, our
95 calculations of the probability of a chance encounter were limited to hypothetical square
96 enclosures.

97 Here, we use geometric probability and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) to build
98 on the model devised by Chadwick et al. (2013) and explore the effects of area and shape on the
99 probability of chance associations. Our aim was to produce a simplified method of determining
100 the likely effect of chance encounters on association indices when particular distance criteria for
101 defining associations were used in shapes of a given area. Such a method would allow enclosure
102 size and shape to be taken into account in studies using an association index.

103

104 **2. Methods**

105 **2.1 Theoretical background**

106 If the location of animal A in two-dimensional space is x_a, y_a and the location of animal
107 B is x_b, y_b , the Euclidean distance between these points is calculated using Pythagoras'

108 Theorem:

$$\text{Distance } (d) = \sqrt{(x_a - x_b)^2 + (y_a - y_b)^2} \quad (2)$$

109 If this value (d) is less than the threshold (l) which defines association ($d < l$) then the animals
110 will be deemed to be associating together.

111 Probability distributions for random line picking are known for various geometric
112 shapes (Solomon, 1978; Mathai, 1999; Weisstein, n.d.) and can be used to determine the
113 probability of a chance encounter. The probability ($\Pr\{d < l\}$) that any two points randomly
114 picked within a square are less than l (the threshold which defines association) apart can be
115 calculated using Equations 3 – 5 (Weisstein, n.d.). This is known as the Square Line Picking
116 problem, and the probability is given directly by the distribution function of the distance
117 between two points randomly picked within the square.

118 Let d = the distance between two points chosen at random, l = the threshold which
119 defines association and L = the length of the side of the square. If $0 < l < L$:

$$\Pr\{d < l\} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^4 - \frac{8}{3} \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^3 + \pi \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 \quad (3)$$

120 If $L < l <$ the length of the diagonal of the square:

$$\Pr\{d < l\} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^4 - 4 \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 \tan^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 - 1} \right) + \frac{4}{3} \left(2 \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 + 1 \right) \sqrt{\left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 - 1} + (\pi - 2) \left(\frac{l}{L}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} \quad (4)$$

121 If $l >$ the length of the diagonal of the square:

$$\Pr\{d < l\} = 1 \quad (5)$$

122 In calculating the probability of a chance association, we assume that resources are
123 evenly distributed throughout the area, that animals make use of the whole area, and that each
124 consecutive location plotted for each individual in the dyad is independent of the previous
125 location. Similar assumptions have been made in previous studies. Schülke and Kappeler (2003)
126 and Leu et al. (2010) used the random gas model to calculate expected encounter rates based on
127 random movement of individuals. The gas model has also been used to estimate mating success

128 in males, defined as the number of females fertilised in an average reproductive cycle, assuming
129 that mate searching is random (Dunbar, 2002). Despite their assumptions, such models still have
130 value because they provide an estimation of minimal possible outcomes for comparison with
131 observed values; in this case, the minimum number of times spatially restricted animals would
132 theoretically be seen together by chance based on the size and shape of their enclosure.

133

134 **2.2 Procedures**

135 The probability of a chance encounter in hypothetical square shapes was calculated
136 using Equations 3 – 5 (Weisstein, n.d.). The effect of altering the distance criterion on the
137 probability of a chance encounter was examined by varying the value of l from 1 unit through
138 10 units.

139 To investigate how robust the analytical method for calculating the probability of
140 chance associations was to differences in length:width ratios, we first conducted a Monte Carlo
141 randomisation test for a significant departure from the analytic estimate based on a square of the
142 same area, using R. In this test, for any combination of length and width representing an
143 enclosure, 200 pairs of random points within the enclosure were generated and the probability
144 of a chance association was calculated by dividing the number of obtained associations by the
145 number of pairs of points. The simulation was repeated 10,000 times and the probability of
146 chance associations for each replication was compared to the analytic solution for a square of
147 the same area to give the randomisation test. The test was one-tailed because the probability of
148 an encounter in a rectangle can never be higher than the probability of an encounter in a square
149 of the same area. A significant P-value (<0.05) suggests that the analytic solution for a square
150 does not adequately estimate the probability of chance encounters in a rectangle of the specified
151 length and width. Optimisation with respect to the absolute difference between 0.05 and the
152 output of the randomisation test was used to estimate the maximum length:width ratio of a
153 rectangle that can be adequately estimated by the analytic square method. The optimisation was
154 carried out using rectangles of total area 100 units², with lengths ranging from 1 unit to 10 units
155 and a distance criterion of 5 units.

156 In order to investigate the probability of a chance encounter in irregular shapes, we used
157 Geographic Information Systems to generate 200 pairs of random points within images of real
158 zoo enclosures. This equated to 200 observations and was considered to represent a reasonable
159 sampling effort in a field study.

160 Ordnance Survey MasterMap™ data for six actual zoo exhibits in the UK (Figure 1)
161 were downloaded using the EDINA Digimap Ordnance Survey Service
162 (<http://edina.ac.uk/digimap>). These enclosures were used in a study of cheetah association
163 patterns by the first author (Chadwick, 2014). Aerial photographic images of the enclosures
164 (Google Earth, 2012), detailing the enclosure boundaries, were geo-corrected using ERDAS
165 Imagine® 2010. The geo-corrected images were then imported into ESRI (Environmental
166 Systems Resource Institute) ArcGIS™ 9.3.1, along with the OS MasterMap™ data, and vector-
167 based polygons were digitised representing the boundaries of each enclosure. The ‘Generate
168 Random Points’ tool, found in Hawth’s Analysis Tools for ArcGIS™ (Beyer, 2004), was used
169 to generate 200 pairs of random points within each polygon. Since the polygons were combined
170 with the Ordnance Survey data in the GIS, every generated point had real-world co-ordinates
171 and the distances between them could be calculated.

172 The probability of a chance association was calculated by dividing the number of
173 simulated associations by the number of pairs of points (200). The simulation was repeated
174 1000 times for each enclosure (Bejder et al., 1998) and the mean probability of a chance
175 encounter (and standard deviation) was calculated. The results of the simulation were compared
176 to the analytic solution to examine differences in the probability of a chance association
177 between actual zoo enclosures and hypothetical squares of the same area.

178

179 **3. Results**

180 The probability of a chance encounter, calculated using geometric probability for
181 squares of up to 2000 units², is shown in Figure 2.

182 The optimisation of the randomisation tests showed that the analytic solution for
183 squares accurately estimates the probability of a chance encounter until the length of the

184 rectangle is more than ~ 3.2 times the width. Above this ratio, the analytic solution is
185 significantly different from the Monte Carlo solution for the rectangle (Figure 3).

186 The probability of a chance encounter calculated using Monte Carlo simulations in GIS
187 for actual zoo exhibits was compared with the analytic solution for squares of the same area.
188 The probability calculated using GIS was within one standard deviation of the analytic solution
189 in all cases (Figure 4).

190 As would be expected, increasing the distance criterion that defined association through
191 1 unit to 10 units resulted in an increase in the probability of a chance encounter (Figure 5).

192

193 **4. Correcting observed indices of association**

194 Given that the analytic solution accurately estimates the probability of a chance
195 encounter in irregular shapes, we developed a simple R script using the analytic solution
196 (available as electronic supplementary material) which can be used to calculate the probability
197 of a chance encounter. The output of the script can also be used to correct observed indices of
198 association (Chadwick et al., 2013). First, the expected number of chance encounters can be
199 obtained by multiplying the probability of a chance encounter by the number of field
200 observations made. An index of association based on the number of chance encounters can then
201 be calculated, and subtracted from the index calculated using field observations (e.g. Table 1;
202 Chadwick, 2014). An observed number of associations that is lower than the simulated number
203 of chance encounters (thereby resulting in a corrected association index with a negative value)
204 would indicate avoidance, rather than association (Leu et al., 2010).

205 For example, in a recent study of cheetah association patterns, 143 recordings were
206 made of a pair of males in enclosure 1 at Chester Zoo (Figure 1a; Chadwick, 2014). This dyad
207 was seen in proximity (within 5 m) 86 times. A simple ratio index of association was calculated
208 (Equation 7: Ginsberg & Young, 1992), where x is the number of separate occasions when A
209 and B are observed together, y_A is the number of separate occasions when only A is observed, y_B
210 is the number of separate occasions when only B is observed, and y_{AB} is the number of separate
211 occasions when A and B are observed not associated. Although here we have used the simple

212 ratio index, our correction can be applied to any index of association (see Whitehead (2008) and
 213 Godde et al. (2013) for discussions of alternative association indices).

$$I_A = \frac{x}{(x + y_{AB} + y_A + y_B)} \quad (6)$$

214 The observed index of association for this dyad was calculated as follows:

$$I_A = \frac{86}{(86 + 54 + 3 + 0)} = 0.601 \quad (7)$$

215 The area of the enclosure was 497.06 m². For a hypothetical square of the same area,
 216 the side length (L) is 22.295 units ($\sqrt{497.06}$). Using our R script (consisting of the analytic
 217 solution given by Equation 3 above (Weisstein, n.d.)) and a threshold for association (l) of 5
 218 units, the probability of a chance encounter was calculated as follows:

$$\Pr\{d < 5\} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{5}{22.295} \right)^4 - \frac{8}{3} \left(\frac{5}{22.295} \right)^3 + \pi \left(\frac{5}{22.295} \right)^2 = 0.129 \quad (8)$$

219 Thus, the expected number of chance encounters in 143 recordings is:

$$143 \times 0.129 = 18 \quad (9)$$

220 and the index of association based on chance encounters is calculated as follows:

$$I_A = \frac{18}{(18 + 125 + 0 + 0)} = 0.126 \quad (10)$$

221 The index of association based on chance encounters is then subtracted from the index
 222 calculated using field observations to give the corrected index:

$$0.601 - 0.126 = 0.475 \quad (11)$$

223 During the study, the space available to the animals varied and they were given access
 224 to different combinations of enclosures 1, 2 and 3 on different observation days (Figure 1a).

225 Thus, corrected indices of association were also calculated for this dyad in each combination of
226 enclosures to which they had access (Table 1), enabling direct comparisons of association
227 indices between the three enclosures to be made (Chadwick, 2014).

228

229 **5. Discussion**

230 Our results demonstrate that captive studies using an association index to quantify
231 social relationships should take into account chance encounters. In captive animals, the
232 probability of a chance encounter is affected by enclosure size and shape. However, there have
233 been few attempts to estimate – and thus control for – the effects of enclosure size and shape on
234 chance encounters and indices of association. Here, we used geometric probability and
235 Geographic Information Systems to produce a simplified method of calculating the probability a
236 of chance encounter when particular distance criteria for defining associations were used in
237 shapes of a given area.

238 The probability of a chance encounter in a square of a given area can be determined
239 analytically (Solomon, 1978; Mathai, 1999; Weisstein, n.d.). However, it is unlikely that space-
240 restricted animals will be limited to square-shaped areas. The effect of shape on the probability
241 of chance encounters was investigated by applying a Monte Carlo simulation to rectangular
242 shapes and spatially-referenced images of actual UK zoo enclosures. The analytic solution for
243 squares accurately estimates the probability of chance encounters in a rectangle until the length
244 of the rectangle is ~3.2 times the width. This suggests that the analytical method is robust to
245 fairly large variations in shape. Furthermore, the probability of a chance encounter within all of
246 the actual zoo enclosures investigated was within one standard deviation of the calculated
247 probability for a square of the same area. Geometric probability can therefore be used to
248 approximate the number of chance encounters in irregular, non-geometric shapes.

249 As area increased, the probability of a chance encounter decreased. Animals housed in
250 larger enclosures are less likely to be observed in proximity simply by chance than those in
251 smaller enclosures. High corrected indices of association for dyads in large areas may therefore
252 be considered to represent actual associations among individuals. However, associations can

253 occur between animals in confined spaces for reasons other than the animals choosing to be
254 together; for example mutual attraction to resources (Mitani et al., 1991; Pepper et al., 1999;
255 Ramos-Fernández et al., 2009), or, in captive animals, gathering at the entrance to indoor
256 accommodation (Stoinski et al., 2001). Thus, corrected indices of association should be
257 interpreted alongside behavioural observations of affiliative or aggressive interactions, since
258 relationships are not solely based on spatial proximity (Whitehead & Dufault, 1999; Whitehead,
259 2008). Future work to further validate our proposed correction will incorporate behavioural
260 observations to distinguish between chance encounters and specific social encounters in captive
261 animals.

262 As would be expected, increasing the distance criterion that defined association through
263 1 unit to 10 units resulted in an increase in the probability of a chance encounter. It is important
264 for researchers to select a distance criterion that defines an association which is biologically
265 meaningful to their study species. In their review of techniques for analysing vertebrate social
266 structure, Whitehead and Dufault (1999) found large variation in the distances between
267 individuals which constituted an association. Some authors considered animals to be associated
268 if they were within 1 m of each other (e.g. common marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*): Koenig &
269 Rothe, 1991), and in other studies animals were considered to be associated if they were within
270 500 m of each other (e.g. giraffes (*Giraffa camelopardalis*): Leuthold, 1979). In our earlier
271 paper, we considered male cheetahs to be associating if the distance between them was 5 m or
272 less (Chadwick et al., 2013). This distance criterion was previously established in field studies
273 of coalitions of wild male cheetahs in the Serengeti (Caro, 1994). The definition of an
274 association will depend upon the interactions and behaviours of the study species and the ease
275 of observing individuals. Nonetheless, our results highlight the importance of selecting an
276 appropriate definition of association that corresponds to both the behaviour of the animals being
277 studied and the size and shape of the area to which they have access.

278 Given that the probability of a chance encounter calculated using Geographic
279 Information Systems was within one standard deviation of the analytic solution, and that the
280 analytic solution proved robust to quite large changes in shape, geometric probability can be

281 used to estimate the probability of chance encounters between individuals in any confined
282 space. We developed a simple R script which can be used by researchers to calculate the
283 probability of a chance encounter in an enclosure of any shape, and to correct observed indices
284 of association. We have used the simple ratio index to demonstrate how indices of association
285 can be corrected, however the correction can be applied to any index of association (see
286 Whitehead (2008) and Godde et al. (2013) for discussions of alternative association indices),
287 and enables association indices to be compared across different sized – and shaped – enclosures.

288 Our proposed correction is especially relevant when animals are limited to small spaces
289 and can be applied not only to zoo animals but to any confined animals, for example farm and
290 laboratory animals. However, the concern for overestimating association may not only be
291 limited to captive animals since free-ranging animals, for example animals in managed areas
292 (e.g. sanctuaries or reserves), often have restricted ranges. Indeed, animals in totally wild
293 environments may also be naturally limited in their ranging; for example, territorial species,
294 where an individual's or group's movement may be restricted by the presence of neighbours.

295 In calculating the probability of a chance association, we assume that resources are
296 evenly distributed throughout the area, that animals make use of the whole area, and that each
297 consecutive location plotted for each individual in the dyad is independent of the previous
298 location. We acknowledge that our calculations provide minimal association indices based on
299 enclosure size and shape, and do not include the effects of habitat preference or resource
300 distribution. In addition, we recognise that relationships are not solely based upon spatial
301 proximity and observations of social interactions should be used alongside spatial associations
302 to allow conclusions to be drawn about the social relationships between individuals. A given
303 observation of two animals in close proximity can occur as a consequence of both social
304 motivation and non-social movement of individuals, and our proposed correction may
305 underestimate the true association between individuals when a combination of social and
306 random association occurs. Nonetheless, we have devised the first method for correcting indices
307 of association to take into account chance encounters based on spatial restrictions. Correcting

308 the index in this way controls for enclosure size and shape, and facilitates direct comparisons of
309 association indices for dyads housed in different enclosures.

310

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317

318 **7. References**

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408

409 **Table and Figure Captions**

410 **Fig 1** Shapes and areas of the cheetah enclosures at (a) Chester Zoo (Cheshire, UK); (b) Exmoor
 411 Zoo (Devon, UK); (c)(i) and (c)(ii) Port Lympne (Kent, UK); (d) West Midland Safari Park
 412 (Worcestershire, UK) and (e) ZSL Whipsnade Zoo (Bedfordshire, UK). Four combinations of
 413 the three enclosures at Chester Zoo were used to generate random points as these were the
 414 combinations used for husbandry reasons: enclosure 1 alone; enclosures 1 and 2; enclosures 1
 415 and 3; enclosure 3 alone. (Not to scale. Crown Copyright/database right 2013. An Ordnance
 416 Survey/EDINA supplied service.)

417

418 **Fig 2** Probability of a chance encounter in squares of up to 2000 units². The distance criterion (*l*)
 419 was fixed at 5 units

420

421 **Fig 3** Relationship between length:width ratio and P value for randomisation tests for significant
422 departure from analytic estimates based on a square. The total area of the rectangle was fixed at
423 100 units². The distance criterion (*l*) was fixed at 5 units

424

425 **Fig 4** Probability of a chance encounter in actual enclosures, calculated using geometric
426 probability and Monte Carlo simulations in GIS. For the Monte Carlo simulations, the mean
427 probability is plotted and error bars represent one standard deviation. The distance criterion (*l*)
428 was fixed at 5 units

429

430 **Fig 5** The effect of altering the distance criterion (*l*) on the probability of a chance encounter in
431 squares of increasing area

432

433 **Table 1** Observed and corrected indices of association for a pair of male cheetahs, housed in
434 three combinations of zoo enclosures (Chadwick, 2014)

435

436 **Electronic Supplementary Material R** script used for estimating the probability of a chance
437 encounter in a square of a supplied area with a set distance criterion

438

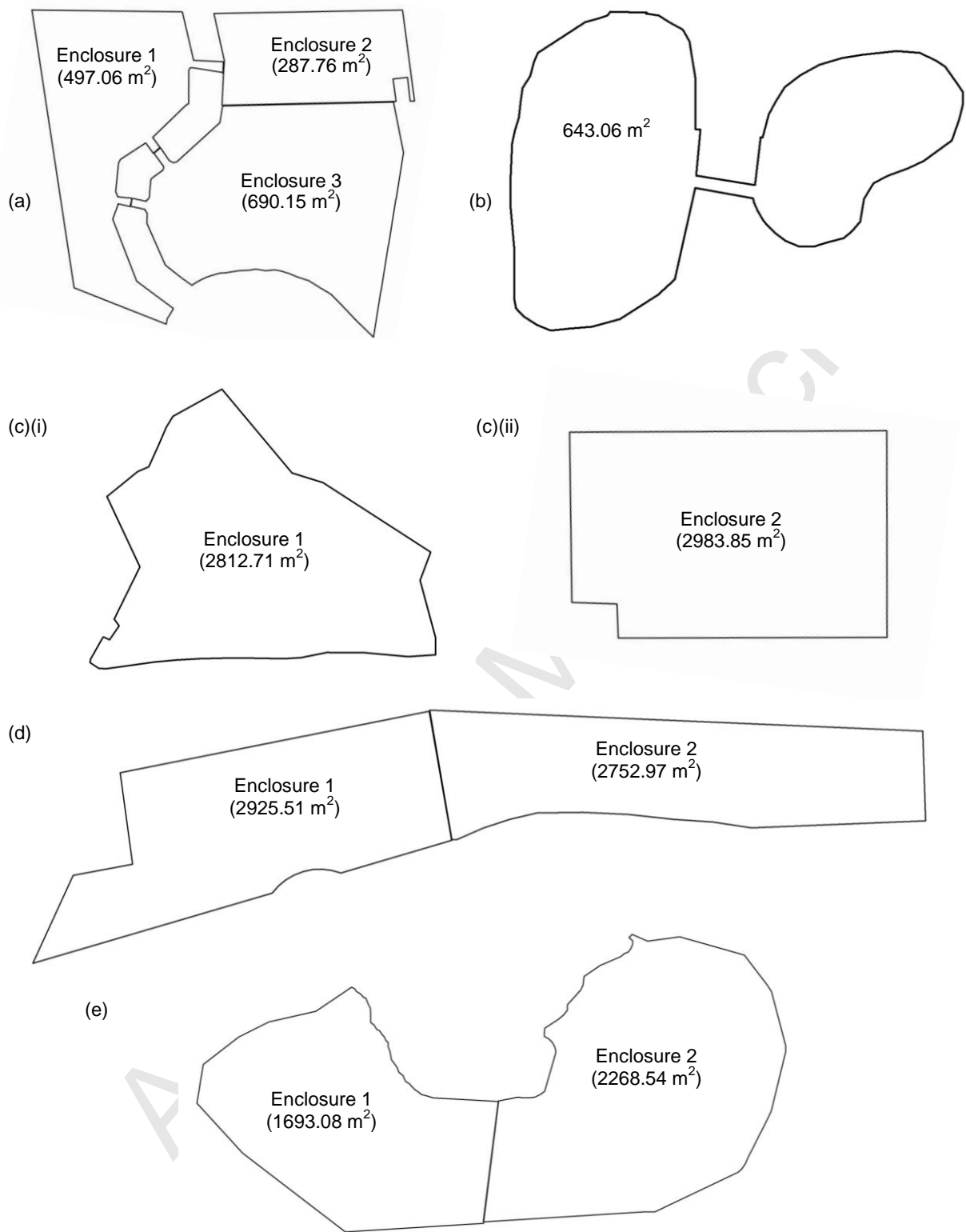
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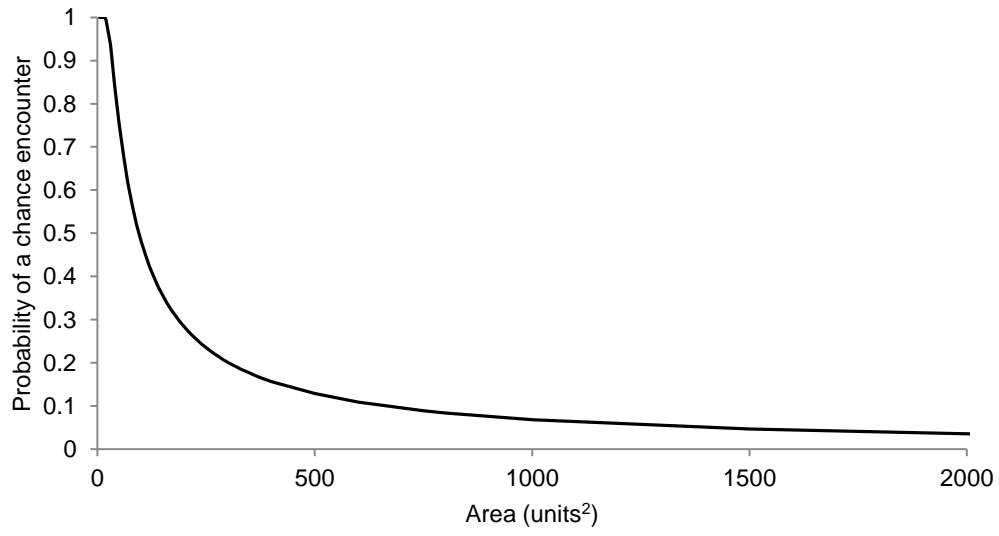
Enclosure	Area	No. of field recordings	$\Pr\{d < 1\}$	No. of chance encounters	Observed I_A^1	Chance I_A^1	Corrected I_A^1
Chester 1	497.06	143	0.129	18	0.601	0.126	0.475
Chester 1 & 2	784.82	291	0.085	25	0.605	0.086	0.519
Chester 1 & 3	1187.21	35	0.058	2	0.735	0.057	0.678

439 ¹Simple ratio index: $I_A = x/(x + y_{AB} + y_A + y_B)$, where x = number of separate occasions A and B
 440 observed together, y_A = number of separate occasions only A observed, y_B = number of separate
 441 occasions only B observed, y_{AB} = number of separate occasions A and B observed not associated
 442 (Ginsberg & Young, 1992).

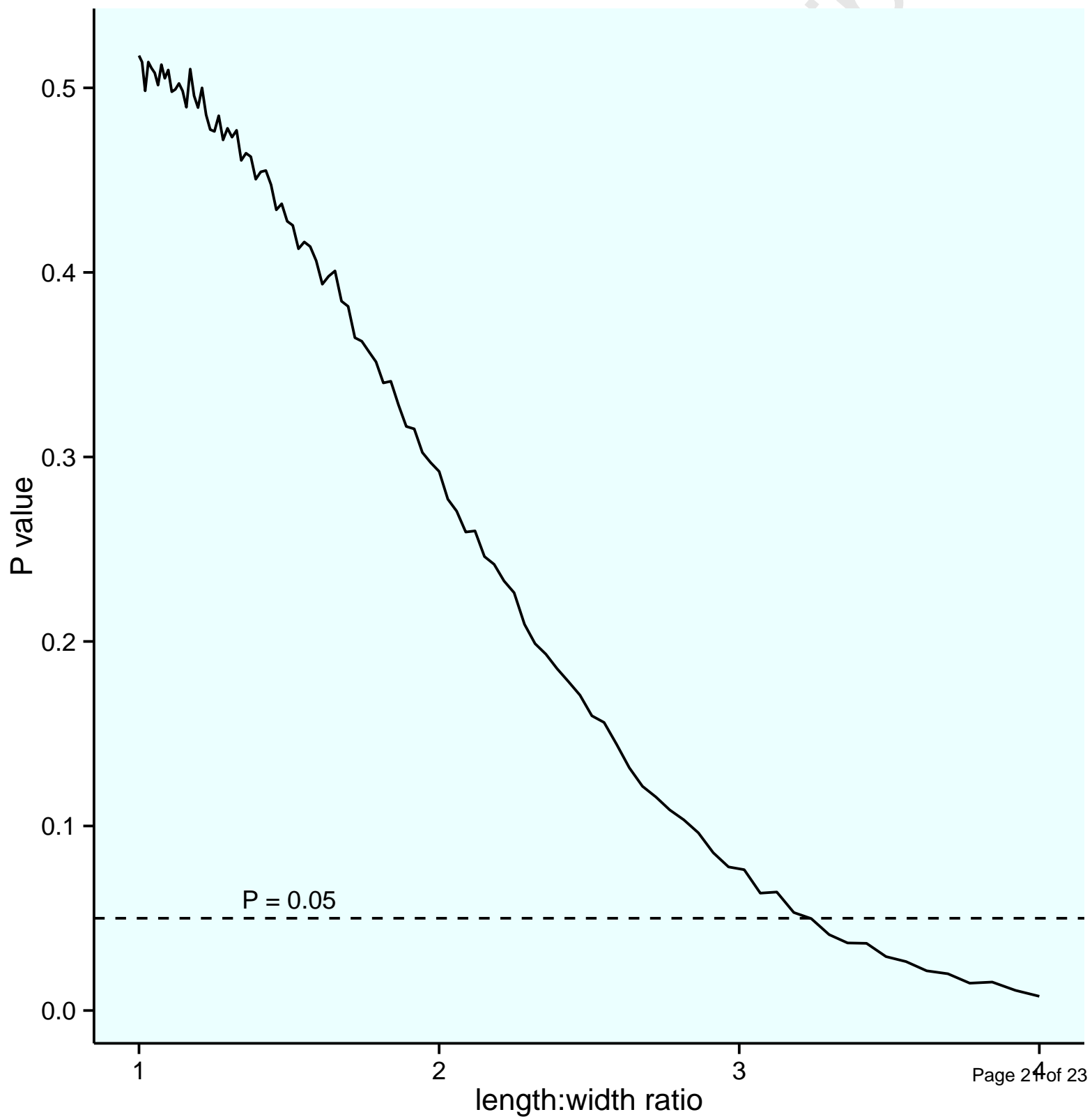
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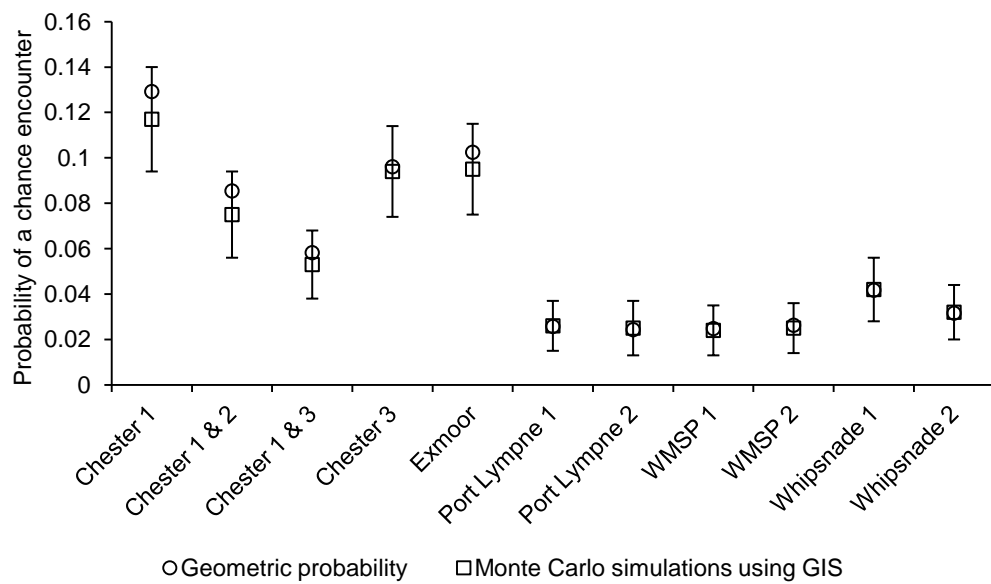
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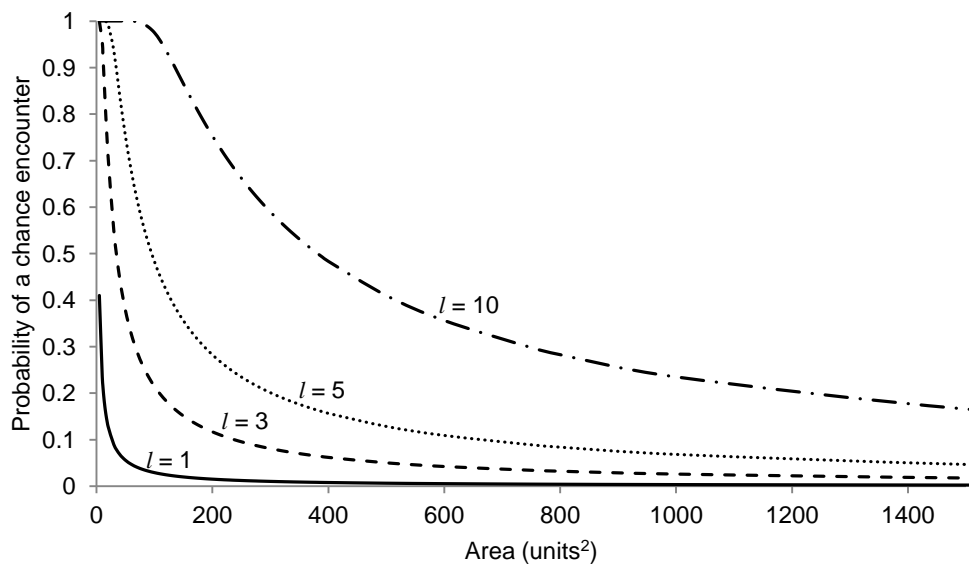




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