# Paint Blob Detection and Decoding for Identification of Honey Bees

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- Abstract: This paper evaluates a new method for the automated re-identification of honey bees marked with paint codes using fewer annotations than previous methods. Monitoring honey bees and understanding their biology can benefit from studies that measure traits at the individual level, requiring methods for re-identification. Marking with colored paint is one method used by biologists for re-identification in the field because it is noninvasive and readable by humans. This work uses the YOLOv8 object detection approach to detect and classify colored paint markings. A new algorithm to decode the identity based on bi-color left/right paint code is proposed. The proposed approach was evaluated on an extensive dataset with 64 distinct color code identities composed of combinations of 8 different colors, with the test set featuring over 4000 images of 64 unseen individuals. The proposed approach reached 93% top-1 accuracy in the recognition of 1 vs 64 identities, achieving better performance than previous methods while requiring fewer annotated images per identity. The proposed approach also provides insights into the factors affecting re-identification accuracy, such as illumination and paint color combinations, facilitating improved experimental design and data collection strategies for future insect monitoring applications.

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

Honey bees play a crucial role in ecosystems and human societies, as important and frequent pollinators in ecosystems worldwide (Hung et al., 2018). It is estimated that in the USA alone, honey bee pollination generates 12 billion dollars annually in crops (Khalifa et al., 2021).

Honey bee behavior analysis is important for optimizing conservation and management strategies. Understanding bee behavior could allow for selective breeding for specific genetic traits, potentially yielding economic benefits. Field experiments often involve measuring behaviors at the individual level. However, it is time-consuming and challenging to maintain accurate records of many individuals. To obtain statistically relevant sample sizes, current experimental methods can take weeks of data collection (Cakmak et al., 2009; Giray et al., 2015; Noel et al., 2018).

During these experiments, individuals are marked by scientists to simplify the counting and tracking processes. Several marking techniques are used, in-



Figure 1: Sample of image of honey bees with paint codes from (Santiago-Plaza et al., 2024) and the annotation of bounding boxes for each paint marking, as well as the head.

cluding attaching numbers tags, barcodes (Crall et al., 2015), or RFID elements to the bees' thorax (Streit et al., 2003). Simple paint markings are a less intrusive way of distinguishing individuals. We seek to automate the detection and tracking of these paint codes, to distinguish individuals without altering their natural behavior in the field.

Recently, the potential of automatically identifying paint marks with machine learning approaches

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was tested by comparing supervised color classification and supervised contrastive learning (SCL) (Santiago-Plaza et al., 2024). The authors evaluated the effect of training data amount and variety on performance, to suggest protocols for practical applications. The results, showing 85% top-1 accuracy to recognize 1 within 64 identities demonstrated strong potential for automated detection of paint markings. However, these models rely on large amounts of training data to achieve the best re-identification accuracy. Obtaining such training data is an intensive, time-consuming, and costly process, which limits the methods' usability in dynamic real-world applications.

In this work, we explore an alternative approach for re-identification that takes advantage of more finegrained annotation to reduce the number of training images required, while providing more generalizable and explainable outputs. The proposed approach is based on the modern convolutional neural network (CNN) based object detection method YOLOv8 (Jocher et al., 2023) to detect and classify individual paint blobs and a new algorithm to convert these detections into color codes.

After discussing related work in section 2, we will introduce the method in section 3. Experimental results in section 4 will show the amount of data annotation necessary to achieve strong performance. A more detailed discussion in section 5 will identify the main sources of error, and discuss considerations for future use of paint marking identification in biological field studies of honey bees.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Traditional methods for behavioral experiments with honey bees depend on humans visually tracking individuals, a practice constrained by the human capacity to identify and monitor only a limited number of bees at once. Previous studies, for example, have tracked no more than four bees per trial (Cakmak et al., 2009). In order to track multiple honey bees simultaneously, researchers have used several types of marking methods with the goal of giving each individual a specific identity to detect and track. The primary methods used have been barcode tags (Rodriguez et al., 2022; Wario et al., 2015; Crall et al., 2015), RFID tags (Alburaki et al., 2021; Colin et al., 2022), and retro-reflective tags (Smith et al., 2021). Additionally, there have been proposed methods that do not require markings, both for bumblebees (Borlinghaus et al., 2023) and honey bees (Bozek et al., 2021; Chan et al., 2022). These methods typically leverage representation learning to distinguish individuals based on learned vectors (Romero-Ferrero et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Papafitsoros et al., 2022; Bergamini et al., 2018).

The use of paint marks is a middle ground between the tag-based marking methods and the unmarked methods, and has the benefit of being easily distinguishable by humans. This marking process is a simpler alternative to RFID or barcode tagging, as it may be done directly in the field by simply applying small paint dots directly on thoraxes of honey bees.

Approaches utilizing color mark detection have been applied to animal re-identification in other species. For instance, Bergamini et al. (2018) utilized multi-view embeddings and convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to re-identify individual cows by taking advantage of their natural spots. Similarly, specialized protocols have been developed for insect re-identification using color tags. One such system, AnTrax, tracks individual ants which have been marked with color tags in both their thorax and abdomen, using CNNs for identification (Gal et al., 2020). The approach is holistic, as both paint blobs are classified simultaneously, which requires the training of each pair of colors, with the annotation of several replicates to obtain reliable identification.

The case of honeybee re-identification using paint marks for foraging experiments was first examined by Meyers et al. (2023). Representation learning approaches showed promise on painted honeybees, achieving strong performance on a relatively small test set. A model trained on 16 identities using a supervised contrastive learning approach (SCL) to learn a 128-dimensional feature vector achieved 90% accuracy at paint code re-identification on 11 previously unseen identities. Work presented by Santiago-Plaza et al. (2024), more thoroughly evaluated this approach using a new dataset of 8062 images in various conditions, across 128 identities and 64 paint codes. This new data was used to train and evaluate the same architecture presented in Meyers et al. (2023), and a Color Recognition (CR) model. Up to 64 images per identity were labeled with an ID code for contrastive learning. The CR color classification model used a 16 digit binary code representing the presence or absence of 8 paint colors on either the right or left side of each bee thorax. Both models utilized a truncated ResNet backbone. While the contrastive learning model demonstrated a remarkable accuracy of 97.6% when used to identify only 8 identities, for all 64 test IDs the CR color classifier demonstrated the best performance with a top accuracy of 85%. These results demonstrated that paint markings hold strong promise for lightweight re-identification of honey bees. They also showed that contrastive learning better distinguishes IDs when trained on a larger distribution of conditions relative to their final application. Finally, with less training data, a classification approach that "reads" the color code may more easily achieve strong performance for re-identification.

### **3** METHODS

Following the implication from the related work towards the usefulness of more strongly supervised techniques for Re-ID, we evaluate in this paper the identification of individuals by explicitly detecting and classifying their individual paint marks, instead of considering only a holistic representation of the image. Although not using the full information available (we will ignore the abdomen appearance), the rationale is that detecting simpler concepts found in small numbers (individual paint blobs within 8 colors) and composing them into more complex and numerous ones (64 bi-color paint codes) will reduce the need for annotated data, and also provide better explainability of the re-identification errors.

### **3.1 Dataset and Annotations**

This work is based on the same 8062 image dataset gathered by Santiago-Plaza et al. (2024). The image dataset was created by processing video footage of 128 individual bees featuring 64 unique paint markings. Each bee was marked with a color ID consisting of one or two of eight shades of enamel paint: bright shades of red, lilac, yellow, blue, green, pink, orange and white. Markings were performed following standard practices as described in Giray et al. (2015). Individual honey bees were all marked during the first two days post-eclosion, described as *young adult bees*. During this time they are not yet strong enough to sting or fly away, greatly facilitating the handling and data collection.

During the image dataset creation process, detection models for image extraction tracked individuals as they moved through the camera's field of view. Thus, each final image is associated to a sequential group of images of the same individual, called a *track*. Tracks are not human reviewed, and may be noisy in real-world applications with many bees present and with the potential for occlusions.

The source dataset (Santiago-Plaza et al., 2024) consists of 128 individual bees divided into two batches each with 64 identities. All images were annotated with one of the 64 color ID (left and right color), which was known and fixed for each track.

For this paper, a subset was additionally annotated for the spatial location and color of each paint blob. The evaluation was designed to train exclusively on individuals from batch 1 and test on batch 2. This evaluation approach is designed to evaluate the generalization to individuals not seen during the training, and limiting the need for retraining models in the field when new individuals are added to the list of identities to be recognized.

A total of 9 images for each of the 64 color IDs was annotated: 7 images per color ID were randomly sampled in batch 1 and 2 images in batch 2. These images were annotated for the bounding boxes for each individual paint mark using the online annotation tool CVAT (Sekachev et al., 2020) as shown in Fig. 1. Each bounding box was labeled with one of the 8 color classes. During training, the 7 images per color ID from batch 1 were split further into 5 for training and 2 for validation.

In addition, the bee head's bounding box was annotated. While our goal is to decode the paint markings for re-ID, detecting the head as an additional class will allows us to infer the relative location of the markings regardless of bee orientation, further described below.

### 3.2 Colored Paint Mark Detection

To implement this method, we use a YOLOv8 model for detecting and classifying paint marks on honey bees. YOLO-based architectures have demonstrated potential in ecological applications. For instance, Chappidi and Sundaram (2024) achieved a mean Average Precision (mAP) of 96.03% in detecting animals in complex environments using a YOLO-based model. Moreover, YOLO-based architectures have been widely employed for wildlife detection and in agricultural contexts (Schneider et al., 2018; Badgujar et al., 2024).

Individual paint marks were detected using a YOLOv8x detection/classification model trained on the bounding boxes and 9 classes defined in the dataset (8 distinct colors classes and 1 head class).

Training was performed with a batch size of 32 and an average of 470 epochs with early stopping at a patience of 100. Training data was augmented with random rotation arund the center within a range of  $0-180^{\circ}$ , and by mirroring the image horizontally or vertically with a probability of 50%. All honeybee individuals were centered around the waist keypoint to ensure that no data would be lost when performing such rotation.

### 3.3 Image Level ID Recognition

Once individual paint blobs were detected, a geometric approach was implemented to locate the relative position of the markings regardless of orientation. Our method uses the relative angles between the detection of the head and the paint markings to determine the order-dependent color code, therefore recognizing the left and right sides.

The center of each bounding box was calculated using their respective coordinates. Once each center was obtained, the middle point between the paint markings was calculated. Three vectors were defined: one between the midpoint and the center of the bounding box for the head (head vector)  $\vec{A}$  and two between the midpoint and the center of each color mark's bounding box (color vectors)  $\vec{B}, \vec{C}$ . Algorithm 1 uses dot and cross products of the color vectors with the head vector to calculate angles  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  with respect to the head vector, as shown in Figure 2. The maximum of these two angles is selected to indicate the left color detection.

| Algorithm 1: Find Left Color.   |
|---|
| <b>Input:</b> Center points $C_{\text{head}}, C_1, C_2$   |
| Output: The maximum angle between   |
| vectors, representing the left paint  |
| center.   |
| $M \leftarrow \frac{c_1 + c_2}{2}$  |
| $\vec{A} \leftarrow M \vec{C}_{head}$   |
| $\mathbf{B} \leftarrow M \mathbf{C}_1$  |
| $\mathbf{C} \leftarrow MC_2$  |
| $\theta_1 \leftarrow \arccos\left(\frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{C}}{\ \vec{\mathbf{A}}\ \ \vec{\mathbf{C}}\ }\right)$        |
| $\Phi_1 \leftarrow \arccos\left(rac{oldsymbol{ar{A}}\cdotoldsymbol{ar{B}}}{\ oldsymbol{ar{A}}\ \ oldsymbol{ar{B}}\ } ight)$  |
| $\mathbf{	heta}_2 \leftarrow rcsin\left(rac{\ \mathbf{A}	imes \mathbf{C}\ }{\ \mathbf{\vec{A}}\ \ \mathbf{\vec{C}}\ } ight)$ |
| $\Phi_2 \leftarrow rcsin\left(rac{\ ec{\mathbf{A}} 	imes ec{\mathbf{B}}\ }{\ ec{\mathbf{A}}\  \ ec{\mathbf{B}}\ } ight)$     |
| if $\theta_2 < 0$ then  |
| $  \theta_1 \leftarrow 360 - \theta_1$  |
| end   |
| if $\Phi_2 < 0$ then  |
| $  \Phi_1 \leftarrow 360 - \Phi_1$  |
| ena   |
| return $\max(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\Phi}_1)$   |

Once the relative order of the bounding boxes is calculated, the bee identity can be decoded by mapping each ordered color pair to its identity. In the case where only one paint blob is detected, it is mapped to one of the 8 single color codes.



Figure 2: Illustration of a painted honey bee thorax. Boxes represent detections of head and color blobs, with theta (in green) and phi (in red) angles identified. See Algorithm 1 for details.

### 3.4 Track Level ID Recognition

The dataset contains the track information. Each track is associated to a unique ID. To leverage this information, which can be obtained in the field when monitoring and tracking multiple individuals, a consensus can be obtained by aggregating the IDs inferred in each individual images in the same track. In this work, we considered that the track's overall ID is obtained through majority voting (i.e. the class most represented in the images within the track).

# 3.5 Evaluation

Due to the multi-step nature of identification in this method, evaluations at various levels of granularity



Figure 3: Impact of the number of annotated images per class during training on the bounding box detection/classification performance on 128 test images. *Color classes* uses YOLOv8 for both detection and color classification of the 8 colors of paint, *Single class* uses YOLOv8 for just paint detection, aggregating all colors into one class. Error shown is standard deviation across 5 different training sets.

were performed. These evaluations at various stages of the process help to understand where the model fails and is most impacted by changes in training data and distribution.

**Bounding Boxes.** Fully trained models were first evaluated on 128 annotated test images to obtain metrics of bounding box performance. Bounding box predictions were evaluated with and without individual color classification. As a single stage model, YOLOv8 performance is typically evaluated on both detection and classification at once. By aggregating all color classes into a single class, we can isolate just the detection step of the process and compare the relative error between detection and classification tasks. YOLOv8 models were evaluated using the mean average precision (mAP) of detection of bounding boxes at an IoU of 0.5 for predicted bounding boxes.

**Identity Prediction.** The models were then used to predict bounding boxes for all 4019 images of batch 2. Because YOLOv8 models can detect more than two blobs per sample, only the two most confident non-head bounding boxes were examined per image. To account for single color IDs, remaining predictions were filtered by a confidence threshold of 0.25. Afterward, each image was parsed to obtain an ID prediction using the geometric approach described in Section 3.3. By evaluating on the entirety of batch 2, application of this method on new identities was rigorously evaluated.

Finally, models were evaluated on test images connected to tracks, and IDs were predicted using the consensus of predicted identity from the entire track. For this evaluation, tracks with fewer than 3 images were excluded, leading to a total of 493 tracks.

## 4 RESULTS

### 4.1 Detection and Classification

Figure 3 shows the impact of the number of training images per identity on the quality of bounding box detection. Models were trained with different random subsets of the annotated training images, ranging from 1 to 5 images per identity. For each training set where there were fewer than 5 images per identity, bootstrap sampling was performed to obtain at least 5 runs. The plot shows the average and standard deviation mAP with IoU of 50% (mAP50) metric for all runs of a given training set. The *color\_class* model is the standard approach: each paint color is annotated

with its own class. The second *single\_class* model aggregated all paint colors into a single class. Although the YOLOv8 model was also trained to detect the heads for subsequent ID decoding, all mAP metrics shown are calculated exclusively in the paint classes. A top mAP50 of 0.98 detection alone, and 0.96 on detection and classification was achieved using the total of 320 annotated images. The models trained with just one annotated class per identity still showed remarkable performance, with an average mAP50 of 0.86 and a maximum of 0.91.

### 4.2 Identification from a Single Image

The classification of ID for each image was evaluated using top-1 accuracy. Figure 4 compares the identification accuracy by number of training images per class alongside the results of Santiago-Plaza et al. (2024). The BBox ReID Method is the currently presented method of decoding YOLOv8 detections, compared with a supervised contrastive learning (SCL ReID) approach and the color recognition approach (CR), to contrast with the higher supervision level of the bounding box approach. The YOLOv8 based method shows greater performance compared to the other approaches, while requiring an order of magnitude fewer images per class in the training set.

### 4.3 Identification Using Multiple Views

We can further improve ID level classification by leveraging multiple views of the same individual. Figure 5 shows the relative identification performance of YOLOv8 based ReID using recognition at image and track levels. In *Single image* the decoding of the predicted bounding boxes is used for the ID prediction independently in each image. In *Track*, the majority voting for each track is computed before evaluating the accuracy. For the largest model (trained on 5 images per ID), the accuracy for the single image re-id method was 89.7%, while track-level re-id achieved 93%.

### **5 DISCUSSION**

**Paint Detection and Classification.** Figure 3 demonstrates that even with only one annotation per identity the YOLOv8 model is able to detect and classify on average 85% of paint marks, reaching a top mAP50 with the largest training dataset of 95%. When comparing the average mean metrics of the *color\_class* and the *single\_class* models, it appears



Figure 4: Comparison of re-identification accuracy per number of training images per class between YOLOv8 based detection (BBox ReID), supervised contrastive learning (SCL ReID) and color recognition approach (CR) methods. Error shown for BBox approach is standard deviation over multiple training sets.

that regardless of the training set size, a relatively constant level of error results from misclassification relative to misdetection. The two average mAP50 series follow near parallel trajectories, demonstrating that even when the model is relatively less accurate in its detections it is not proportionally less accurate in its classifications.

**ID By Decoding Paint Marking at Scale.** The proposed bounding box-based ReID approach consistently outperforms re-identification using other methods. It performs better than both the supervised contrastive learning (SCL) and color recognition (CR) approaches with fewer annotations. At just 2 annotated images per class, the bounding box method is able to identify unseen codes at an accuracy of 82.7%



Figure 5: Comparison of BBox Re-identification accuracy between using both single image and track consensus approaches to determine ID, for several number of training images per class.

, roughly 4 times greater than the best performing model using other methods. Additionally, the bounding box method does not need a reference set to generalize to new identities such as in SCL methods.

The integration of identification at the track level increases accuracy across all training sets, reaching a peak accuracy of 93%. However, there appears to be a diminishing benefit of track level ID with increasing identification accuracy. For training sets with one image per class, using track level predictions increased the accuracy on average 6.9% while on the largest training set, the benefit was 3.3%. This trend suggests that there remains an upper limit of performance due to hard samples regardless of momentary poor image conditions or occlusions, which are expected to be corrected for across the duration of the track.

**Confused Classes.** Drawing upon the implication of a set of hard identities, and the results that a relatively constant amount of detections are misclassified, we quantitatively and qualitatively examined the worst performing identities. Figure 6 shows correct and incorrect predictions on the three worst performing identities, each with an average accuracy of <50% across all models. Table 1 displays the most frequent mis-classifications of these identities, and their respective frequencies.

The majority of the errors are consistently due to the same colors: orange, red, pink, and yellow. Pinkyellow is mistaken for pink-orange, pink-red is mistaken for pink only, and orange-red is mistaken for orange-pink. Although the data contains a variety of lighting conditions, relative differences in illumination can make distinguishing these closely related shades difficult. Given that changes in environmental lighting significantly affected paint detection accuracy, selected shades should be more distinguishable, particularly considering the wide possibilities of lighting variation in outdoor conditions in the case of real-world applications.



Figure 6: Randomly sampled examples of correct predictions (left) and incorrect predictions (right) of the 3 worst performing IDs with Top1 <50%. Numbers are model prediction confidence. Bounding box and confidence value text colors correspond to predicted color classes. GT: ground truth; Pred: prediction.

Table 1: Class label, mAP50, predicted labels and thier counts and percentages for the three worst performing test identities.

| Class       | mAP50 | Predicted   | Counts             | % of Class                          |
|-------------|-------|---|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Pink-Yellow | 0.13  | Pink-Orange<br><b>Pink-Yellow</b><br>Red-Yellow   | 42<br>6<br>1       | 0.86<br><b>0.12</b><br>0.02         |
| Pink-Red    | 0.3   | Pink<br><b>Pink-Red</b><br>Red-Yellow<br>Red-Pink | 37<br>23<br>3<br>1 | 0.58<br><b>0.36</b><br>0.05<br>0.02 |
| Orange-Red  | 0.45  | Orange-Pink<br>Orange-Red<br>Pink-Red<br>Red      | 35<br>26<br>2<br>1 | 0.55<br><b>0.41</b><br>0.03<br>0.02 |

### 6 CONCLUSIONS

This work presents a simple and effective method for identification of honey bees marked with colored paint codes. It achieves superior identification accuracy than other methods with orders of magnitude fewer training data. We highlight the practical advantages of a YOLOv8-based approach in automating experiments involving honey bees, particularly for behavioral research involving tracking individuals.

However, the findings also reveal certain limitations, including the challenges posed by color confusion among similar shades (e.g., pink-red, pinkorange) and the impact of varying illumination conditions on detection accuracy. These limitations underscore the need for careful selection of paint colors and standardized application protocols to ensure consistent performance. Best practices for paint marking of honey bees may be to use only one shade from confused pairs, such as only red or pink.

Experimental results also showed the gain of using spatio-temporal aggregation of information, as the track-level inference strongly improved identification accuracy. This approach highlights the potential for leveraging temporal information to address transient occlusions of individuals or poor image conditions in real-world scenarios.

Within bee research, this method could be readily applied to the artificial flower patch assay to understand individual foraging preferences and competition (Rodríguez-Cordero et al., 2024), and to track individual bees entering and exiting the colony to investigate social dynamics, foraging patterns, and disease transmission. Due to the simplicity and generality of paint marking, there is potential to apply this method to multiple biological, ecological or agricultural tasks, to monitor animal behavior, and especially insects, as they require particular attention when tagging due to their small size.

By addressing these limitations and exploring these future directions, this method can be further developed to serve as a versatile tool for ecological research, enabling more efficient and scalable monitoring of individual organisms across diverse environments, with a particularly lightweight form of marking

Furthermore, although we ignored the recognition of non-paint features (such as the abdomen patterns or body morphology) in this work in order to focus on the exploration of the potential of explicit paint detection, these other features are expected to bring complementary information. They could be used in future work in combination with the paint code to make the re-id more robust, or to multiply the number of individuals that can be recognized by using these other features to discriminate between individuals sharing the same paint code, potentially reducing the need for bi-color marks to single paint marks to further simplify the practical deployment in the field.

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