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Iva Dostálková, Marek Špinka. When to go with the crowd: Modelling synchronization of all-ornothing activity transitions in grouped animals. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 2010, 263 (4), pp.437. 10.1016/j.jtbi.2009.12.031 . hal-00578721

HAL Id: hal-00578721 https://hal.science/hal-00578721

Submitted on 22 Mar 2011

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Author's Accepted Manuscript

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PII:S0022-5193(10)00003-2DOI:doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2009.12.031Reference:YJTBI 5821

To appear in: Journal of Theoretical Biology

Received date:23 March 2009Revised date:8 October 2009Accepted date:31 December 2009



www.elsevier.com/locate/yjtbi

Cite this article as: Iva Dostálková and Marek Špinka, When to go with the crowd: Modelling synchronization of all-or-nothing activity transitions in grouped animals, *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2009.12.031

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| 1 | When to go with the crowd: Modelling synchronization of all-or- |
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| 2 | nothing activity transitions in grouped animals |
| 3 | |
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| 13 | 6 |
| 14 | Abstract |
| 15 | For groups of animals to keep together, the group members have to perform switches between |
| 16 | staying in one place and moving to another place in synchrony. However, synchronization |
| 17 | imposes a cost on individual animals, because they have to switch from one to the other |
| 18 | behaviour at a communal time rather than at their ideal times. Here we model this situation |
| 19 | analytically for groups in which the ideal times vary quasi-normally and grouping benefit |
| 20 | increases linearly with group size. Across the parameter space consisting of variation in the |
| 21 | grouping benefit/cost ratio and variation in how costly it is to act too early and too late, the |
| 22 | most common optimal solutions are full synchronization with the group staying together and |
| 23 | zero synchronization with immediate dissolution of the group, if the group is too small for the |
| 24 | given benefit/cost ratio. Partial synchronization, with animals at the tails of the distribution |
| 25 | switching individually and the central core of the group in synchrony, occurs only at a narrow |
| 26 | stripe of the space. Synchronization cost never causes splitting of the group into two as either |
| 27 | zero, partial or full synchronization is always more advantageous. Stable solutions dictate |
| 28 | lower degree of synchrony and lower net benefits than optimal solutions for a large range of |
| 29 | the parameter values. If groups undergo repeated synchronization challenges, they stay |
| 30 | together or quickly dissolve, unless the animals assort themselves into a smaller group with |
| 31 | less variation in the ideal times. We conclude with arguing that synchronization cost is |
| 32 | different from other types of grouping costs since it does not increase much with increasing |
| | |

33 group size. As a result, larger groups may be more stable than smaller groups. This results in 34 the paradoxical prediction that when the grouping benefit/grouping cost ratio increases, the 35 average group sizes might decrease, since smaller groups will be able to withstand 36 synchronization challenges. 37 38 Keywords: group behaviour; modelling of behaviour; synchronization; group cohesion; group 39 size 40 INTRODUCTION 41 42 Many animals live in stable or semi-permanent groups or at least spend shorter or 43 longer periods of time in loose aggregations. In order to stay in proximity, group members 44 need to coordinate when to stay in one place and when to travel. In other words, each animal 45 has to strike a compromise between switching behavioural activities in close synchrony with 46 others and switching the activities as close as possible to its individual ideal time (e.g., 47 Ruckstuhl, 1999; Meldrum and Ruckstuhl, 2009). 48 One example of such situation is fleeing from a predator. In many instances, the 49 predator is noted well ahead of possible attack (either directly by the animal itself or through 50 the alert behaviour of other flock/herd members, Sirot and Touzalin, 2009) and then an 51 "economics of fleeing" comes into effect (Ydenberg and Dill, 1986). Initially, the costs of 52 staying are minute (because the risk of a successful attack from large distance is negligible) 53 and therefore lower than the costs of fleeing (including energy for the flight and lost 54 opportunity to continue with foraging or resting). As the predator approaches, costs of staying increase at an accelerating rate (because of the climbing probability of actual attack and risk 55 of being caught) while the costs of fleeing remain stable or increase only slightly (e.g. the 56 57 animal has to run faster or for longer). At the moment when the costs of staying overcome the 58 costs of fleeing, the animal should depart. Because many factors affecting both types of costs (such as individual ability to evade attack, current position in the group, satiation/energy 59 reserves) vary between individuals, the ideal departure time is different for each animal. If 60 everybody sticks to its ideal timing, animals will depart individually, the group will 61 62 disintegrate and the benefits of staying and behaving together will be lost. On the other hand, 63 should the group stay fully together and enjoy the associated benefits, everybody has to make 64 a smaller or larger concession from its ideal timing. This dilemma is present in every situation 65 where grouped animals can draw a benefit from switching synchronously from one behaviour

67 monitoring a predator to fleeing. However, departure from a place is perhaps the most typical example and therefore the model will be described in terms of who leaves when. 68 69 Synchronization can be viewed as a consensus decision making (Conradt and Roper 70 2005; Conradt and List, 2009). Several theoretical and empirical studies have documented 71 that animals can "agree" on the common solution using simple behavioural rules (Couzin et al 72 2005; Amé et al 2006; Martín et al 2006). If there are just two or a few disjunct possible 73 solutions (e.g., a choice between distinct spatial goals or shelters) then simple local rules can 74 be found that guide the group either to one of the goals, or lead to splitting of the group (Amé 75 et al 2006, Couzin et al, 2005). Also, for groups of two animals and a continuous range of 76 possible preferences (e.g., times of a behavioural switch), models have been developed that 77 combine the mechanisms of coordination (e.g., communicating about inner state, simple 78 reaction to the behaviour of the other animal) with their fitness outcomes (Rands et al., 2003; 79 Dostálková and Špinka, 2007). Situations where there is a continuum of preferences in larger 80 groups have been much less investigated. The only two previous studies to address these 81 questions in terms of costs and benefits are those by Conradt and Roper. In the first paper, 82 Conradt and Roper (2003) show that agreeing democratically on the time of the switch is 83 usually more beneficial for the group than yielding to the time enforced by one leader animal, 84 even if that animal has more experience or better judgement than the others. In their next 85 study, Conradt and Roper (2007) document that for groups of three animals, agreeing on any 86 of the three times preferred by the three group members is evolutionary stable. They then 87 expand this analysis to larger groups and argue that also for those, any shared decision (e.g., even departing when the first animal wants to depart) is evolutionary stable. This is due to the 88 89 fact that if a small subset of the group chooses to depart at another time, it will acquire some 90 benefit from more appropriate timing (i.e. it will decrease its consensus costs), but it loses the 91 whole benefit of acting together with the original large group. This argument holds only if the costs are small relative to grouping benefits. Conradt and Roper (2007) state this verbally but 92 93 stop short of analysing the balance between consensus costs and grouping benefits 94 quantitatively and that is where our study carries on. 95 The trade-off can result in four types of situations: either all animals "agree" on a 96 common departure time (full synchronization); or each animal leaves individually (no

to another such as departure from a resting place, stopping migration to rest, switching from

- 97 synchronization); or something in between occurs with some individuals departing on their
- 98 own while the rest leaves at a common time (partial synchronization); and lastly, animals may

| 99 | be also leaving in smaller subgroups (group splitting). Our model aims at answering three |
|-----|---|
| 100 | questions. First, how probable are the cases of full, partial and zero synchronization, and of |
| 101 | group splitting? How do these probabilities depend on the benefit of being synchronized, and |
| 102 | the costs departing too early or too late? Second, are the animals in a group able to cooperate |
| 103 | on an optimal synchronization or are the evolutionary stable strategies for this |
| 104 | synchronization problem suboptimal in terms of resulting net benefits? Third, the |
| 105 | sychronisation of group departures may have an important influence on group stability and |
| 106 | therefore stable group size. Therefore we also asked: Will repeated synchronization |
| 107 | challenges lead to group stabilization or disintegration? |
| 108 | |
| 109 | MODEL I DESCRIPTION: ONE COMMON DEPARTURE VERSUS INDIVIDUAL |
| 110 | DEPARTURES |
| 111 | 6 |
| 112 | The detailed elaboration of the model and derivation of its results is given in Appendix |
| 113 | A. We suppose that a group of N animals is about to switch from one behaviour to another |
| 114 | (e.g., to leave a resting place or to switch from monitoring a predator to fleeing). The animals |
| 115 | in the group have different ideal times for the switch. These individual ideal times t_i^* are |
| 116 | symmetrically distributed around zero and constrained to the interval ($-t_{max}$, t_{max}). For |
| 117 | simplicity we assume $(-t_{max}, t_{max}) = (-1, 1)$ (Fig. 1). For most of the animals, the individual |
| 118 | ideal times are not far from $t^* = 0$ while only a negligible proportion of animals prefer times |
| 119 | immediately after $t^* = -1$ or just before $t^* = 1$. In other words, the probability of the position |
| 120 | of ideal time t^* for a randomly chosen animal is the highest for $t^* \approx 0$ and it is close to zero |
| 121 | for t^* near -1, 1. We assume that concrete ideal times t^* are realizations of continous random |
| 122 | variable "ideal time" defined by its density function <i>f</i> . |
| 123 | The model is setup in terms of grouping benefits and synchronization costs. |
| 124 | An animal that departs at a moment t_i when a fraction $p(t_i)$ $(0 \le p(t_i) \le 1)$ of the <i>N</i> -sized group |
| 125 | depart gets a grouping benefit proportional to the number of animals in the departing group, |
| 126 | $p(t_i) NQ$, where Q is a constant. If an animal departs too early, i.e. at a time t_i before its ideal |
| 127 | time t_i^* , it is penalised by - $(1-\omega)L(t_i^* - t_i)$; if it leaves too late at $t_i > t_i^*$, it receives the penalty |
| 128 | of $-\omega L(t_i - t_i^*)$. The parameter ω ($0 \le \omega \le 1$) describes whether it is more costly to leave |
| 129 | prematurely ($\omega < 0.5$) or rather with a delay ($\omega > 0.5$). The product NR (where $R = Q/L$ and |

130 $NR \ge 0$) is the second parameter of the model. The ratio R = Q/L quantifies how important it 131 is to be in synchrony with others, relative to the importance of departing close to the individual ideal time. The ratio R is multiplied by the group size N because the model 132 133 assumes that the larger the group, the higher the grouping benefit. Thus the product NR 134 quantifies how much an animal can get from synchronization: the higher the parameter NR, 135 the higher net potential benefit can the animals cash from being staying with the group. 136 The model examines how an animal should behave (i.e., when to leave) in order to accrue the highest possible net benefit, given its specific ideal time t_i^* and the parameters NR 137 138 and ω . Parameters NR and ω are equal for all animals in the group. Group size N is considered 139 fixed for this model. We consider two strategies: either to depart individually at its own ideal 140 time, or to leave together with other animals in one mass departure (Fig. 1). The solitary 141 departure avoids any penalization for improper timing but gets no benefit from synchronization, hence its net benefit is zero. The animals participating in the mass departure 142 143 benefit from synchronization (in direct proportion to the percentage of animals that leave with 144 them), but pay for deviating from their ideal times. The cost of participating in the mass 145 departure are higher for animals at the tails of the distribution and therefore, animals at the tails should be more inclined to use the solitary strategy while animals with their t_i^* closer to 146 the centre of the distribution should rather join the mass departure (Fig. 1). We suspect that 147 when $\omega <> 0.5$, the time of mass departure t_D will be different from zero and also the times t_1 148 149 and t_2 (breaking points where the solitary changes into the mass departure strategy and back) 150 will be asymmetrically positioned. In the solution of the model, we are searching for such 151 combination of times t_1 , t_D and t_2 that brings the highest net benefit, depending on the 152 parameters NR and ω . If $t_1 = t_2$, then each animal departs on its own and there is no 153 synchronization. If $-1 < t_1 < t_2 < 1$, then some animals depart solitary and some in the mass 154 departure, and we label this partial synchronization. And finally full synchronization occurs when $t_1 = -1$ and $t_2 = 1$. 155

- 156 The net benefit function $B(t_1, t_D, t_2)$ is the sum of the grouping benefit function $B_G(t_1, t_D, t_2)$
- 157 and timing cost function $B_C(t_1, t_D, t_2)$.
- 158 $B(t_1, t_D, t_2) = B_G(t_1, t_D, t_2) + B_C(t_1, t_D, t_2)$, where

159
$$B_G(t_1, t_D, t_2) = NR \left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} f(x) dx\right)^2$$

160
$$B_C(t_1, t_D, t_2) = -\omega \int_{t_1}^{t_D} (t_D - x) f(x) dx - (1 - \omega) \int_{t_D}^{t_2} (x - t_D) f(x) dx$$

161 Thus, the individually departing animals do not get any grouping benefits and do not pay any 162 timing (synchronization) costs, whereas for animals leaving in the mass departure, the net 163 benefit equals the grouping benefit minus the synchronization costs due to un-ideal timing of 164 the departure.

165 We look for two types of solutions: an optimal and a stable one. The optimal solution

166 is such that an animal acquires, on average, the highest summary net benefit, whereas the

167 stable solution is a solution whose net benefit cannot be improved by unilateral adoption of

another solution by a small subset of the animals.

- 169 Therefore optimization procedure means to find triplets $[t_1, t_D, t_2]$ depending on NR and ω so
- 170 that the value of net benefit function B is maximal. Using the classical metod for maxima
- 171 finding we obtain the set of maxima $\left(\frac{\partial B}{\partial t_1} = \frac{\partial B}{\partial t_2} = \frac{\partial B}{\partial t_D} = 0\right)$ inside and on the borders of the
- 172 simplex $\{-1 \le t_1 \le t_2 \le 1\}$ that correspond to zero, partial and full behavioural
- 173 synchronization. After comparison of all possible maximal points for given parameters NR
- 174 and ω we obtain the point of global maximum the optimal strategy $I=[t_1, t_D, t_2]$.
- 175 The strategy I = $[t_1, t_D, t_2]$ is then stable, if the mixed net benefit is locally maximal. We
- 176 consider an alternative strategy J "sufficiently" close to the strategy I, defined as $J = [u_1, u_D, u_D]$
- 177 u_2]. The mixed net benefit can be defined as $B(I, J) = B_G(I, J) + B_C(J) = NR$

178
$$\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} f(x)dx\right)\left(\int_{u_1}^{u_2} f(x)dx\right) + B_C(J), \text{ where } B_C(J) = B_C(u_1, u_D, u_2) \text{ as defined earlier. Then I is}$$

179 stable if $B(I, J) \le B(I, I)$ for each $I \ne J$

180 181

MODEL II DESCRIPTION: SPLITTING INTO SUBGROUPS

182 The model assumes the same situation with the same costs and benefits as Model I.

183 However, for each level of relative grouping benefit (i.e., for each NR), it compares the net

184 benefit of two strategies: one mass departure versus departure in two subgroups. For

185 simplicity, time costs are kept symmetric (corresponding to $\omega = 0.5$) and only the optimal

186 solution is sought. The full description and solution of Model II is given in Appendix B.

RESULTS

189 Model I: optimal solution

190 Fig. 2 shows which of the three basic scenarios (full, partial and no synchronization) 191 brings the highest net benefit for specific combinations of NR and ω . Most of the parameter 192 space is occupied by either no synchronization (the area below the lower full line) or full 193 synchronization (the area above the upper full line) while partial synchronization is superior 194 only within the narrow croissant-shaped area. As ω deviates more and more from 0.5, full 195 synchronization becomes the most prominent strategy. This is because for ω near zero or one, 196 departing after or before the individual ideal time, respectively, gets almost no penalty and 197 thus animals can cheaply achieve a common departure by waiting very late or by acting very 198 prematurely. 199 Fig. 2 also maps (in grades of gray shading) the net benefits achieved by the optimal 200 strategies. Higher net benefits can be harvested (for the same value of parameter NR) for extreme values of ω , where either premature action or delay are cheap and full 201 synchronization is therefore easily achieved by agreeing to a very early or very late common 202

- 203 departure
- 204

188

205 Model I: stable solution

Fig. 3 illustrates the distribution of stable solutions across the parameter space. 206 207 Similarly to the optimal solutions, there is a croissant-shaped area (delimited by dashed lines in Fig 3) within which partial synchronization is a stable strategy. Above the croissant, full 208 synchronization is stable. The lower boundary for partial synchronization and the boundary 209 210 between partial and full synchronization are both shifted upwards (specifically, to twice as 211 high NR) in comparison with the optimal solution. That is, the stable solution dictates a lower 212 degree of synchronization than the optimal solution in a large area of the parameter space, 213 including a place where the optimal solution prescribes full synchrony while the stable 214 solution is no synchrony at all (Fig. 4). In this area, the stable strategy brings substantially 215 lower net benefit than the optimal one (Fig. 4). Why this is so? An animal should participate in the mass departure only if the benefit outweighs the cost. The cost of improper timing is 216 217 always paid solely by the specific individual, but there are two kinds of benefits: one goes to 218 the animal itself (as it is part of the synchronized subgroup) and another goes to every

219 synchronized animal because through the contribution of the focal animal, the synchronized

subgroup increases in size. In the optimal solution, where the costs and benefits are averaged over the group, both types of benefits enter the equation and they are able to pay for higher timing cost, thus drawing more of the animals from the tails into the synchronization. In the stable solution, only the first type of benefit counts and thus more animals will opt out the

224 synchrony.

225 The second difference between the stable and the optimal solutions is that zero

synchronization is a stable strategy across all the parameter space, and not only below the

227 croissant. In the areas of higher and high NR, i.e. within and above the croissant, two stable

228 strategies coexist: the partial/full synchronization and the zero synchronization, of which the

229 former brings higher net benefit. Zero synchronization is stable because once it becomes

230 established, each animal departs at a different time and therefore it is difficult for a small

231 fraction of animals to set foot with an alternative strategy, as their attempts to synchronize get_

- 232 no support from the majority.
- 233

234 Splitting into subgroups

235 Splitting into two subgroups is never an optimal strategy because for any given *NR*, the

236 optimal strategy with one central departure always brings higher net benefit than the best two-

237 departure option (Fig. 5).

238

239 Repeated synchronizations

What happens when the synchronization challenge is repeated? If the grouping 240 benefit/consensus cost ratio (NR) is high, then no animals are shed and the group remains of 241 242 the same size across a single or repeated challenges. Low NR leads to zero synchronization and therefore to immediate dispersal of the group on the first challenge. The interesting case 243 occurs with partial synchronization during which the group size is trimmed (Fig. 6). What 244 245 happens on the next encounter depends on what is the distribution of ideal times in the downsized group. To simplify the solution, we restrict the analysis of this problem to 246 247 symmetric costs of time (corresponding to $\omega = 0.5$ in the previous model) and to the optimal solution. 248 249 If each animal keeps its ideal time from one challenge to the next then during partial

250 synchronization both the group size and the variability of the density distribution of ideal

times is also trimmed (Fig. 6b), but the latter more so because the costly tails of the

252 distribution are shed. Therefore, the grouping benefit/consensus cost ratio increases and the

253 group size stabilizes at a reduced size. The derivation of this result is given in Appendix C.

254 We call this option the Assortment scenario as it results in a subgroup where members are

255 more alike in terms of their time preferences than in the original group.

256 If partial synchronization leads to a smaller group in which the variation of ideal times

257 remains as large as before the reduction (i.e. individuals do not keep their individual times

258 from one challenge to another, Non-Assortment scenario), then the consensus costs remain

259 unaltered while grouping benefits fall (Fig. 6c). Consequently, the group is reduced further

260 during next challenge or challenges until it disintegrates (see Appendix C).

261

262 Minimal group size

11 It follows from the analysis of repeated synchronizations that in Fig. 2, that the upper 1264 border of the partial synchronization area delineates the minimal R value for which the group 1265 of size N remains cohesive in the Non-Assortment scenario, and the lower border demarcates 1266 group cohesion boundary for the Assortment scenario. In the analysis of Models I and II, we 1267 have assumed that the group size was fixed, and the relative "per animal" grouping benefit R1268 was varied. Conversely, the chart can be understood as illustrating how the stability of a 1269 group depends on its size N, for a given "per animal" grouping net benefit R (Fig. 7).

270

271

DISCUSSION

272 Our models yield three main insights into the links between the grouping-benefit-273 versus-consensus-costs trade-off, behavioural synchronization and group size and stability. 274 First, the results indicate that synchronization of departures will often be an all-or-275 nothing phenomenon. Model predicts that if the benefit of staying in a group of animals 276 depends linearly on the size of the group (which is the assumption of the model) and the cost 277 of staying in the group varies quasinormally among the group members, then the group will 278 most of the time either switch behaviour synchronously and thus stay together, or all 279 individuals will behave independently and the group will disintegrate. The cases when 280 animals at the tails of the distribution will act solitarily and the rest of the group in synchrony 281 are predicted to be rare. In other words, the overall grouping-benefit-to-consensus-costs ratio

282 is predicted to decide, in most cases, for all animals to either depart synchronously or 283 individually, with individual differences such as boldness/fearfulness (Reale et al., 2007) or 284 satiation (Rands et al., 2004) playing only a marginal role in this situation. Moreover, Model 285 II shows that splitting into two subgroups brings lower net benefit than the central 286 synchronization in one group, indicating that synchronization challenges will not lead to 287 separation into smaller units. Finally, the analysis of repeated synchronization events with no assortment shows that even when partial synchronization occurs, the group will quickly 288 289 diminish and disintegrate. 290 Second, Model I shows that when individuals in groups behave selfishly, a much

291 weaker synchronization, higher probability of group disintegration and lower net benefits are 292 predicted than in groups that behave optimally from the overall fitness point of view. This is 293 due to the fact that the cost of staying with the group is carried individually by each animal, 294 whereas benefits from the presence of the individual in the group are cashed both by the 295 animal in question (it enjoys the company of others) and by all other group members (because 296 the groups stays larger). Therefore, if the animal counts in only its own benefits (the stable 297 solution), it is prepared to expend less costs to stay in the group than if everybody's benefits 298 are taken into account. Moreover, Model I documents that zero synchronization is a stable 299 solution all across the parameter space. Why zero synchronization is stable everywhere and 300 full synchronization is not? Full synchronization is unstable with low NR since any individual 301 can, independently of what others do, default from the synchrony, leave at its individual ideal 302 time and cash in the benefit of not paying any penalty for improper timing. In the contrary, 303 skipping individually from zero synchronization to a partial or full synchronization just by individual action is impossible, since in order to achieve synchrony, you need pals to go with 304 305 you. The existence of zero synchronization as a solution for the entire parameter space in the stable, but not in the optimal solution further underscores the general implication of our 306 307 models that evolutionary stable regime of synchronized departures will often bring 308 substantially lower net benefit than the optimal one. 309 The optimal-stable solution dichotomy shows that there is a Prisoners Dilemma type

of game underlying our models (Fletcher and Zwick, 2007). If an animal plays Stable against a group that plays Optimal, it gets a better pay-off than if it would play Optimal. However, as animals shift from the Optimal to the Stable strategy, the whole group gradually starts playing Stable, and everybody ends with a worse pay-off than it would get if the whole group kept playing Optimal. The combination of our two models thus predicts that sub-optimally low

315 degree of synchronization will be frequently observed in departures and other major cohesion

316 influencing behavioural switches unless the optimal strategy could be maintained by altruism-

- 317 supporting mechanisms such as relatedness, reciprocity or assortment (Fletcher and Zwick,
- 318 2006, 2007; Frommen et al., 2007; Fischhoff et al., 2009).

319 Third, and perhaps most interestingly, the current study brings to light the

320 phenomenon of minimal stable group size. To our knowledge, this is the first study pointing

321 to this phenomenon and identifying synchronization of behaviour as its driving force. Our

322 results indicate that the need to synchronize the starts and stops of movements will in many

323 cases set a minimal threshold group size below which group cohesion will no longer be

324 beneficial. The situation is especially clear in the non-assortment scenario, where groups

325 above a size that makes full synchronization stable are predicted to stay together while

326 smaller groups should disintegrate. Thus the model predicts that when per capita grouping

327 benefits are high, the average group size should decrease because small groups will be able to

328 withstand synchronization challenges.

How does this seemingly paradoxical prediction arise? The synchronization cost 329 330 differs substantially from other types of grouping costs considered so far. In most of the 331 models and reviews published to date, the costs to an individual of being in a group were 332 thought in terms of foraging interference (Stillmann et al., 2000; Sansom et al., 2007), 333 reproductive interference (Westneat and Sherman, 1997), proximity-transmitted pathogens (Côté and Pohlin, 1995) or similar factors. For instance, in their influential book, Krause and 334 335 Ruxton (2002, page 41) list twelve different types of grouping costs, but do not mention 336 synchronization cost. The costs listed by Krause and Ruxton were assumed to increase with increasing group size, often at an accelerating rate (Fig. 8a). In contrast, the synchronization 337 cost in our model remains constant, irrespective of group size (Fig. 8b). This is because the 338 synchronization cost to an individual is given by the time distance between its ideal time and 339 340 the time of common departure and this distance neither shrinks nor expands if more or fewer other animals also pay their costs. Previous models assumed that even very small grouping is 341 better than solitary life and sought to find the optimal and the maximal stable group size (Fig. 342 8a). Our model shows that when the need to synchronize is the major cost of grouping, then 343 344 net benefit may be lower in small groups than in solitary animals and a certain group size is

345 needed for the grouping benefits to offset the synchronization costs (Fig. 8b). It remains to be

346 investigated how important role the movement synchronization costs play in determining

347 animal group sizes in nature. In some cases, it is possible that the synchronization and other

348 types of grouping costs will combine so that the resulting cost function, together with 349 depreciating grouping benefits, will set both minimum and maximum profitable group size (Fig. 8c). Our results also show that smaller groups are stable if animals assort according to a 350 351 feature that determines their preferred departure times such as boldness/shyness (Croft et al., 352 2009) or body size (Ruckstuhl, 1999; Hoare et al., 2000). 353 The predictions of our models are linked to two crucial assumptions, namely that the 354 grouping benefit increases linearly with the group size, rather than according to a depreciating 355 function, and that the heterogeneity in ideal departure times is unimodally distributed. If the 356 first assumption is relaxed, regular group splitting might occur in the form of a fission-fusion 357 dynamics (Conradt and Roper, 2000; Pays et al., 2007). If ideal times are not unimodally 358 distributed, more permanent splitting will probably happen, such as in the case of sexual 359 segregation (Ruckstuhl and Kokko, 2002). Also, the total constancy of synchronization cost 360 over all group sizes is an idealization since in very small groups with quorum decision-361 making, individual animals will have some influence on the time of common departure and 362 cost will be consequently somewhat lower. Further, our model only addresses possible 363 decrease in size, splitting or dissolution of already existing groups, but not their formation or 364 increase through individuals joining. Finally, the models only address major behavioural 365 transitions in a world where being member of a group is an all-or-nothing state that has to be 366 defended or abandoned during a challenge, rather than a state defined by a continuous 367 proximity in space (Ruckstuhl and Kokko, 2002; Rands et al., 2004) or continuous degree of synchronization in time (Šárová et al., 2007; Michelena et al., 2008). Nevertheless, Models I 368 369 and II apply not only to timing, but also to any situation where a group, in order to stay 370 together, must reach a consensus along a continuous variable such as gradient in space, 371 escalation of conflict with other group etc. 372 In conclusion, this study documents that synchronization of activity switches such as 373 departures brings a specific type of grouping costs that has specific consequences. First, it 374 may most often cause groups to either stay together or completely dissolve during 375 synchronization challenges. Second, it implies that groups will often react to synchronization challenges with lower-than-optimal synchronization because of the Prisoners-Dilemma type 376 377 of payoff inherent to the situation. And third, synchronization cost will often set a limit of a 378 smallest group size below which grouping is no longer advantageous over the solitary 379 condition. 380

381

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

| 382 | Supported by grant IAA601410612 from GA AV ČR and grant MZE0002701404. |
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461 FIGURE CAPTIONS Fig. 1 An example of the density and distribution functions f(t) and F(t) in Model I. This 462 463 specific function was used for calculating results displayed in Figs. 2 to 6. The dotted line and 464 the left scaling on the y-axis displays the density function f(t) of the ideal individual times t 465 within the group. The thin solid line and the right scaling on the y-axis displays the 466 distribution function F(t), representing the number of animals that are beyond their ideal time 467 t. The bold solid line illustrates an example of the two behavioural options available in the model. Animals that have their ideal switch points before time t_1 and after time t_2 leave 468 individually at their respective ideal times, while all animals with $t_1 \le t \le t_2$ depart together at 469 470 t_D . The letters b, c, d denote intervals used for description of the model in Appendix A. 471 472 Fig. 2 Optimal strategies and their net benefits as dependent on the parameters ω and NR. The 473 thick lines demarcate boundaries between the areas of zero synchronization, partial synchronization and full synchronization The net benefit increases with the darkness of the 474 shading. The curved lines are isolines of equal levels of net benefit. The net benefit level is 475 476 described by the number on the isolines. 477 Fig. 3 Stable strategies, and their net benefits, as dependent on the parameters ω and NR. The 478 two dotted lines demarcate boundaries between the areas of zero synchronization, partial 479 480 synchronization and full synchronization. The shading and the isolines have the same 481 meaning as in Fig. 2. 482 Fig. 4 Differences between benefits of stable and optimal strategies in the parameter space ω , 483

484 *NR*. The thick and dotted lines are those given in Figs. 2 and 3. The darker the shading, the

- 485 higher is the difference in benefit between the optimal and the stable strategy. The curved
- 486 lines are isolines of equal levels of this difference.
- 487
- 488 Fig. 5 Net benefits of the one-departure (solid curve) and two-departure (dashed curve)
- 489 strategies in Model II, as dependent on NR.

- 491 Fig. 6. Effect of repeated synchronizations in the case of a 50% partial synchronization. a)
- 492 Original density function f(t) (dashed line, left scaling on the y-axis) and cumulative
- 493 distribution function F(t) (full line, right scaling on the y-axis) before the partial
- 494 synchronization. After the partial synchronization, only half of the animals are left in the
- 495 group and therefore the functions change shape to b) in the case of Assortment scenario and to
- 496 c) in the case of Non-Assortment scenario. N = number of animals in the group, $\sigma =$
- 497 variability of the density distribution. See text for more explanation.
- 498
- 499 Fig. 7. Group stability as dependent on the group size. For this example, the *R* parameter was
- 500 fixed at R = 0.02.
- 501
- 502 Fig. 8. Grouping benefits and costs as dependent on group size according to a) previous
- 503 models published before this study, b) this study and c) possible combined scenario. Solid
- 504 lines = grouping benefit, dashed lines = grouping cost. N_{min} , N_{max} = minimal and maximal
- group size in which net benefit is higher than in solitary animals. N_{opt} = group size bringing
- 506 the highest benefit.
- 507

| 508 | APPENDIX A: DETAILS AND SOLUTION OF MODEL I |
|-----|---|
| 509 | |
| 510 | 1. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT IDEAL SWITCH TIMES |
| 511 | We suppose that: |
| 512 | 1. We have the set of <i>N</i> animals. |
| 513 | 2. There exist the ideal switch points denominated as t_i^* for the animal $i, 1 \le i \le N$ that |
| 514 | are the realizations of the random variable T^* , which is defined by its continuous |
| 515 | density function <i>f</i> . |
| 516 | 3. The function <i>f</i> has the following properties: |
| 517 | a. f is symmetric in 0. |
| 518 | b. $f(t) > 0$ in the interval $(-1, 1), f(t) = 0$ for $t \notin (-1, 1)$. |
| 519 | c. $f'(t) \ge 0$ in the interval $(-1, 0), f'(t) < 0$ in the interval $(0, 1)$ |
| 520 | d. $\int_{-1}^{1} f(t)dt = 1.$ |
| 521 | |
| 522 | 2. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT STRATEGIES |
| 523 | A strategy $I = [b, c, d]$ is defined by costants b, c, d |
| 524 | $b = t_1 - (-1) = t_1 + 1$ |
| 525 | $c = t_D - t_1$ |
| 526 | $d = t_2 - t_D \text{ (see Fig. 1)},$ |
| 527 | Where $b + c + d \le 2$, $b \ge 0$, $c \ge 0$, $d \ge 0$. The behaviour of an individual <i>i</i> with the ideal switch |
| 528 | time t_i^* is determined by the position of t_i^* on the interval (-1, 1), according to Table A.1 |
| 529 | |
| 530 | 3. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT THE NET BENEFIT FUNCTION |
| 531 | |

- 532 Let U(x, b, c, d) be the utility function for ideal switch point placed in position x on time axis.
- Let it be continuous function to the exclusion of points -1+b, -1+b+c, -1+b+c+d. Let it be 533
- 534 defined by the following Table A1.
- 535
- Table A1. Definitions of behaviours and of the utility function. For synchronized departures, 536
- the first part of the utility function quantifies the grouping benefit, the second quantifies the 537
- synchronization costs. R, ω are parameters, $R \ge 0, 1 \ge \omega \ge 0$ 538

539

| Intervals defining position of | Behaviour | Utility function Fo | rmatted Table |
|--|------------------------------|---|---------------|
| ideal switch time point | | U(x, b, c, d) | |
| $t_i^* \in (-1, -1 + b)$ | non-synchronized departures, | 0 | |
| 1 ()) | each at individual t_i^* | | |
| $t_i^* \in (-1+b, -1+b+c)$ | synchronized departure | -1+b+c+d | |
| | at $-1 + b + c$ | $NR \left(\int f(x) dx \right) - \omega \left((-1 + b + c) - x \right)$ | |
| | | -1+b | |
| $t_i^* \in (-1 + b + c, -1 + b + c + c)$ | synchronized departure | -1+b+c+d | |
| d) | at $-1 + b + c$ | $NR \left(\int f(x)dx \right) - (1 - \omega)(x - (-1 + b + c))$ | |
| | | -1+b | |
| $t_i^* \in (-1 + b + c + d, 1)$ | non-synchronized departures, | 0 | |
| | each at individual t_i^* | | |

-1+b+c

540

541

The net benefit B for given b, c, d and for given position of ideal switch point (e.g. for 542 ٠

given x on time axis) is defined B(x, b, c, d) = f(x)U(x, b, c, d) where f(x) is the density 543

- 544 function defined above.
- The net benefit B for the whole group is defined as 545 •

$$B(b, c, d) = \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c} B(x,b,c,d) dx + \int_{-1+b+c}^{-1+b+c+d} B(x,b,c,d) dx = \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c} f(x) U(x,b,c,d) dx + \int_{-1+b+c}^{-1+b+c} B(x,b,c,d) dx = \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c} f(x) U(x,b,c,d) dx$$

-1+b+c+d

547
$$\int_{-1+b+c}^{-1+b+c+d} f(x)U(x,b,c,d)dx$$

549 4. CALCULATION OF OPTIMAL STRATEGIES

$$\begin{array}{lll} 4.1 \text{ Derivation of the net benefit function} \\ 51 & B(b, c, d) = -\omega \left((1+b+c) \right) \int_{-1,b}^{-1,b,b,c} f(x) dx + \omega \int_{-1,b,b}^{-1,b,b,c} f(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+b+c) \int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx - \int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + NR \left(\int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+b+c) \int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + NR \left(\int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+b+c) \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,b,c,cd}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c,cd}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1,b,c,cd} f(x) dx + \int_{-1,b,c}^{-1$$

573
$$c = \frac{(1-\omega)d}{\omega}$$

574 According to the conditions for the function f and according to the mean value theorem we can see that $1/2 \le \frac{\omega(1-\omega)}{2NR} \le f(0)$. 575 As slopes of the lines in the right sides of relations (A.4) - (A.6) are the same, the solution of 576 this system is unique. That means there exists unique triplet [b, c, d] inside of the simplex 577 578 $b + c + d \le 2$, $b \ge 0$, $c \ge 0$, $d \ge 0$ that can be maximum of *B*. This fact is valid for each $[\omega, NR], \omega (1 - \omega) \ge NR \ge \frac{\omega(1 - \omega)}{2f(0)}.$ 579 580 581 4.3. Other maxima. Other maxima are placed on the border of the simplex. The possible points of maxima are 582 583 $b \ge 0$, c = d = 0, and b = 0, c + d = 2. The first case describes the set of non-synchronized switches, the second case describes the set of totally synchronized switches. 584 585 586 4.4. Conclusion - the points of maxima of optimal strategies ZERO SYNCHRONIZATION. If $NR \le \frac{\omega(1-\omega)}{2f(0)}$, then zero synchronization strategy 587 [b, 0, 0], is the optimal strategy and brings the net benefit. 588 B(b, 0, 0) = 0.589 590 PARTIAL SYNCHRONIZATION. If $\frac{\omega(1-\omega)}{2f(0)} < NR < \omega (1-\omega)$, then partial 591 synchronization strategy [b, c, d], b + c + d < 2, b > 0, c > 0, d > 0, $c = \frac{(1 - \omega)d}{\omega}$, 592 593 such that relations (A.4) - (A.7) are valid, is the optimal strategy and brings the net 594 benefit

$$B(b, c, d) = \omega \int_{-i+b+c}^{-i+b+c} y(x) dx - (1-\omega) \int_{-i+b+c}^{-i+b+c+d} y(x) dx + NR \left(\int_{-i+b}^{-i+b+c+d} y(x) dx\right)^{2}$$

$$FULL SYNCHRONIZATION. If $NR \ge \omega (1-\omega)$, then the full synchronization strategy $(1-\omega)$, then the full synchronization $(1-\omega)d$, is the optimal strategy and brings $(0, c, d]$, $c + d = 2$, such that $c = \frac{(1-\omega)d}{\omega}$, is the optimal strategy and brings the net benefit $(0, c, 2-c) = NR - \int_{-i+c}^{1} xf(x) dx$, $(1-\omega) - \int_{-i+c}^{1-b+c+d} y(x) dx + \int_{-i+c}^{1-b+c+d} y(x) dx + \int_{-i+c}^{1-b+c+d} y(x) dx + \int_{-i+c}^{1-b+c+d} y(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+p+q) \int_{-i+p+q+r}^{-i+p+q+r} y(x) dx - (1-\omega) + \int_{-i+p+q}^{1-i+p+q+r} y(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+p+q) \int_{-i+p+q+r}^{-i+p+q+r} y(x) dx - (1-\omega) + \int_{-i+p+q}^{1-i+p+q+r} y(x) dx + (1-\omega)(-1+p+q) \int_{-i+p+q+r}^{-i+p+q+r} y(x) dx + (1-\omega)($$$

615
$$G(p,q,r) = B(l, J) - B(l, I) = -\omega(-1 + p + q) \int_{-1+p}^{-1+p+q} f(x)dx + \omega \int_{-1+p}^{-1+p+q} f(x)dx + (1-\omega)(-1 + p + q) \int_{-1+p+q}^{-1+p+q} f(x)dx + (1-\omega)(-1 + p + q) \int_{-1+p+q}^{-1+p+q} f(x)dx + (1-\omega)(-1 + p + q) \int_{-1+p+q}^{-1+p+q+r} f(x)dx + (1-\omega)(-1 + p + q) \int_{-1+p}^{-1+p+q+r} f(x)dx +$$

637
$$NR \int_{|a|+b}^{a+b+c+d} f(x) dx = (1 - \omega)d, \ b < 1 \text{ and } b + c + d > 1$$

638

- 639 5.3. Other stable strategies
- On the border of the simplex $p + q + r \le 2$, $p \ge 0$, $q \ge 0$, $r \ge 0$ other stable strategies are 640
- placed. Here in addition $b + c + d \le 2$, $b \ge 0$, $c \ge 0$, $d \ge 0$. 641
- 642 If the point [b, c, d] is point of local maximum of the function G and if we have normal vector
- $n = (n_1, n_2, n_3)$ to the border of the simplex $p + q + r \le 2, p \ge 0, q \ge 0, r \ge 0$ at that point [b, 643
- c, d], then there exist positive numbers λ_1 , λ_2 , λ_3 so that 644 nanus
- $\mathrm{d}G/\mathrm{d}r \lambda_1 n_1 = 0$ 645
- $\mathrm{d}G/\mathrm{d}q$ λ_2 $n_2=0$ 646
- $\mathrm{d}G/\mathrm{d}p \lambda_3 \ n_3 = 0$ 647
- 648
- Therefore we can conclude results about all maxima of G. 649

650

- 651
- 652 5.4. Conclusion - stable strategies
- The following three strategies (and no other strategy) are locally stable: 653

- ZERO SYNCHRONIZATION. The zero synchronization strategy [b, 0, 0], is stable 655 ٠
- 656 for any combination of values R, ω and brings the net benefit
- B(b, 0, 0) = 0.657
- 658

659 • PARTIAL SYNCHRONIZATION. If
$$\frac{\omega(1-\omega)}{f(0)} \le NR \le 2\omega (1-\omega)$$
, then partial
660 synchronization strategy $[b, c, d]$, $b+c+d < 2$, $b > 0$, $c > 0$, $d > 0$, $c = \frac{(1-\omega)d}{\omega}$, is
661 stable and brings the pet benefit

stable and brings the net benefit

662
$$B(b, c, d) = \omega \int_{-l+b}^{-l+b+c} xf(x) dx - (1-\omega) \int_{-l+b+c}^{-l+b+c+d} xf(x) dx + NR \left(\int_{-l+b}^{-l+b+c+d} f(x) dx \right)^2$$

FULL SYNCHRONIZATION. If $NR \ge 2\omega$ (1- ω), then the full synchronization

667
$$B(0, c, 2 - c) = NR - \int_{-1+c}^{1} xf(x) dx,$$

| 669 670 | APPENDIX B: DETAILS AND SOLUTION OF THE MODEL II |
|-------------------|--|
| 671 672 | 1. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT IDEAL SWITCH TIMES |
| 673 674 675 | The assumptions are the same as in Model I in Appendix A. |
| 676 | 2. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT STRATEGIES |
| 677 | A strategy $I = [r,s]$ is defined by costants r,s where $r \ge 0$, $s \ge 0$, $r+s \le 1$. The behaviour of an |
| 678 | individual <i>i</i> with the ideal switch time t_i^* is determined by the position of t_i^* on the interval (-1, |
| 679 | 1), according to Table B.1 |
| 680 681 | Ċ |
| 682 | 3. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT THE NET BENEFIT FUNCTION |
| 683 | Let $U(x, r, s)$ be the utility function for ideal switch point placed in position x on time axis. |
| 684 | Let it be continuous function to the exclusion of points –r-s, -s, 0, s, r+s. Let it be defined by |
| 685 | the following Table B.1. |
| 686 | |
| 687 | Table B.1. Definitions of behaviours and of the utility function. For synchronized departures, |
| 688 | the first part of the utility function quantifies the grouping benefit, the second quantifies the |
| 689 | synchronization costs. R is a parameter, $R \ge 0$. |

| intervals defining position of | Behaviour | benefit - cost function | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|--|
| ideal switch time point | | U(x, b, c, d) | |
| $t_i^* \in (-1, -r - s)$ | non-synchronized departures, | 0 | |
| | each at individual t_i^* | | |
| $t_i^* \in (-r\text{-}s, -s)$ | synchronized departure at -s | $2 NR \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c+d} f(x) dx + (x+s)$ | |
| $t_i^* \in (-s, 0)$ | synchronized departure at -s | $2 NR \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c+d} f(x) dx - (x+s)$ | |

| $t_i^* \in (0, s)$ | synchronized departure at <i>s</i> | $2 NR \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c+d} f(x) dx - (s - x)$ |
|----------------------|---|---|
| $t_i^* \in (s, r+s)$ | synchronized departure at s | $2 NR \int_{-1+b}^{-1+b+c+d} f(x) dx - (x-s)$ |
| $t_i^* \in (r+s, 1)$ | non-synchronized departures, each at individual t_i^* | 0 |

691

692 4. CALCULATION OF OPTIMAL STRATEGIES

693 4.1. Derivation of the benefit function

694
$$B(r,s) = -2 \int_{s}^{r+s} xf(x)dx + 2s \int_{s}^{r+s} f(x)dx + 2 \int_{0}^{s} xf(x)dx - 2s \int_{0}^{s} f(x)dx + 2NR \left(\int_{0}^{r+s} f(x)dx\right)^{2}$$

695

4.2. Conditions for the local maxima of benefit. 696

USG To obtain internal maxima we have the following conditions inside of the simplex 697

 $r+s \leq 1, r \geq 0, s \geq 0$: dB/dr = dB/ds = 0. 698

699 Therefore the following relations must be valid:

700
$$\frac{\partial B2}{\partial r} = f(r+s) 4 NR \left(\frac{-r}{2NR} + \int_{0}^{r+s} f(x)dx\right) = 0$$
(B.1)
701
$$\frac{\partial B2}{\partial s} = f(r+s) 4 NR \left(\frac{-r}{2R} + \int_{0}^{r+s} f(x)dx\right) + 2 \int_{s}^{r+s} f(x)dx - 2 \int_{0}^{s} f(x)dx = 0$$
(B.2)
702 Conditions (C.1), (C.2) are true if and only if
703
704
$$\frac{r}{2R} = \int_{0}^{r+s} f(x)dx = 2 \int_{s}^{r+s} f(x)dx = 2 \int_{0}^{s} f(x)dx.$$

705 From that $\frac{1}{4f(0)} \le NR \le 1$
706
707 4 3 Other maxima

705 From that
$$\frac{1}{4f(0)} \le NR \le 1$$

706

- 707 4.3. Other maxima.
- 708 Other maxima are placed on the border of the simplex. The possible points of maxima are
- 709 r = s = 0, and r + s = 1. The first case describes the set of non-synchronized switches, the
- 710 second case describes the set of totally synchronized switches.
- 711 2.4. Conclusion - the points of maxima of optimal strategies

There exists interval
$$(\alpha, \beta) \in (\frac{1}{4f(0)}, 1)$$
 so that the following points are valid:
ZERO SYNCHRONIZATION. For each NR , $NR \leq \alpha B$ (0, 0) is maximum of B .
 $B(0,0) = 0$.
PARTIAL SYNCHRONIZATION. For each NR , $\alpha < NR < \beta$, there exists $[r, s], r + s < 1, r > 0, s > 0$ so that relations (1) - (2) are valid and $B(r, s)$ is maximum of B .
 $B(r, s) = -2 \int_{s}^{ref} yf(x) dx + 2 \int_{0}^{s} yf(x) dx + 2 NR (\int_{0}^{ref} f(x) dx)^{2}$
FULL SYNCHRONIZATION. For each $NR, NR \geq \beta$, there exists
 $[r, s,], r + s = 1, \int_{s}^{1} f(x) dx = \int_{0}^{s} f(x) dx$ so that $B(1 - s, s)$ is maximum of B .
 $B(1 - s, s) = -2 \int_{s}^{1} xf(x) dx + 2s \int_{0}^{1} f(x) dx$ so that $B(1 - s, s)$ is maximum of B .
 $B(1 - s, s) = -2 \int_{s}^{1} xf(x) dx + 2s \int_{0}^{1} f(x) dx + 2 \int_{0}^{s} yf(x) dx - 2s \int_{0}^{s} f(x) dx + NR/2$
 $\frac{5}{2}, MODELS I AND II COMPARISON.$
 $\frac{5.1. Reduced model I.$
The model described in Appendix A can be reduced to symmetric case, if $\omega = 1/2$.
We defined the following transformations of variables in the model I:
 $-1 + b = -e, -1 + b + c = 0, -1 + b + c + d = e$. Then benefit function is function of one variable
 $re:$
 $B(e) = -2 \int_{0}^{r} xf(x) dx + 4 NR (\int_{0}^{r} f(x) dx)^{2}$
The conditions for maxima of B are similar to general model I:
 $rac{1}{3}$
 $Reconstructions for maxima of B are similar to general model I:
 $rac{1}{4f(0)}, B(0)$ is maximal.$

B(0) = 0.

• PARTIAL SYNCHRONIZATION. For each NR,
$$\frac{1}{4f(0)} < NR < 0.5$$
, there exists $0 < 0.5$

737
$$e < 1$$
, so that $\frac{eL}{4NQ} = \int_{0}^{e} f(x) dx$ and function *B* is maximal.

738
$$B(e) = -2 \int_{0}^{e} xf(x)dx + 4 NR \left(\int_{0}^{e} f(x)dx\right)^{2}$$
739

• FULL SYNCHRONIZATION. For each NR ,
$$NR \ge 1/2$$
, $B(1)$ is maximal

741
$$B(1) = -2 \int_{0}^{1} xf(x) dx + NR$$

- 743 5.2. Models I and II comparison
- 744 We denoted

744 We denoted
745
$$B1(e) \equiv -2 \int_{0}^{e} xf(x)dx + 4 NR \left(\int_{0}^{e} f(x)dx\right)^{2}$$
 and
746 $B2(r,s) \equiv -2 \int_{s}^{r+s} xf(x)dx + 2s \int_{s}^{r+s} f(x)dx + 2 \int_{0}^{s} xf(x)dx - 2s \int_{0}^{s} f(x)dx + 2 NR \left(\int_{0}^{r+s} f(x)dx\right)^{2}$

747 Let (NR)₁ is that value of parameter that
$$\frac{1}{4}(\frac{1}{NR})_1 = \int_0^1 f(x)dx = 1/2$$
. That means (R)₁ is limit

- point common for full and partial synchronization in reduced model I. 748
- 749 Let $(R)_2$ is that value of parameter that $(NR)_2 = \beta$ in model II. Therefore the definition of
- 750 $(NR)_2$ in Model II is the same as definition $(NR)_1$ in reduced model I.

751 Then
$$B1(1) - B2(s, 1-s) = -2 \int_{0}^{1} xf(x)dx + 1/2 + 2 - 2 \int_{0}^{s} xf(x)dx - \frac{1-s}{2} =$$

752
$$-4 \int_{0}^{s} xf(x)dx + s/2 \ge 0$$
. This fact follows from $\int_{s}^{r+s} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{s} f(x)dx$ and $\frac{r}{2}(\frac{1}{NR})_{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

- 753 But that means $B1(e) \ge B2(r, s)$, where e is maximal point for B1 and [r, s] is maximal point 754 for *B*2. 755
- 756 5.3. Conclusion - models I and II comparison. 757

759 SYNCHRONIZATION CHALLENGES 760 1. Assortment scenario During the first challenge, the benefit function is, according to Appendix B, part 5.1 761 , 763 and the optimal degree of partial synchronization is defined by 764 76 where e^* is the value of e bringing the optimal benefit during the first challenge. 766 767 After the first challenge and partial synchronization group size is thus reduced from N to pN768 769 where p is the proportion of animals that have departed together on the first challenge and 770 therefore remain in the group $p = \int_{-e^*}^{e^*} f(x) dx = 2 \int_{0}^{e^*} f(x) dx < 1.$ 771 All animals with their optimal times t^*_i within the interval $(-1, -e^*)$ or the interval $(e^*, 1)$ 772 disappear from the group. The the new density function $f_{assort}(x)$ is defined as 773 774

775
$$f_{assort}(x) = 0 \text{ for } x \in (-1, -e^*) \cup (e^*, 1),$$

776
$$f_{assort}(x) = \frac{1}{p} f(x) \text{ for } x \in (-e^*, e^*).$$

The new optimal degree of partial synchronization is defined by 777

778

758 APPENDIX C: GROUP STABILIZATION OR DISSOLUTION AFTER REPEATED

762
$$B(e) = -2 \int_{0}^{e} xf(x) dx + 4 NR \left(\int_{0}^{e} f(x) dx \right)^{2}$$
(C.1)

55
$$\frac{e^*}{4NR} = \int_{0}^{e^*} f(x)dx$$
 (C.2)

779
$$\frac{e_{assort}^*}{4pNR} = \frac{1}{p} \int_{0}^{e_{assort}^*} f(x) dx$$

- 780 This equation is identical to (D.2) and therefore
- 781 $e_{assort} * = e^*$, which means that all animals will depart together during the second challenge
- 782 and the group size will be stabilized.
- 783
- 784 2. Non-Assortment scenario
- 785 The density distribution of ideal times after the first challenge and partial synchronization
- under the non-assortment scenario $f_{nonassort}$ remains the same as before the challenge as
- 787 follows
- 788

789 $f_{nonassort}(x) = f(x)$ for $x \in (-1, 1)$.

- 790
- 791 From Appendix B we have for the partial synchronization during the first challenge

ted

792

793
$$\frac{e^*}{4NR} = \int_{0}^{e^*} f(x) dx$$

- 794
- and similarly for second challenge

796
$$\frac{e_{nonassort}^*}{4pNR} = \int_{0}^{e_{nonassort}} f_{nonassort}(x) dx = \int_{0}^{e_{nonassort}} f(x) dx$$

(C.3)

(C.4)

USC

797

798 The function
$$\alpha(e) = \int_{0}^{e} f(x) dx / \frac{e}{4NR}$$
 is decreasing and from (D.3) and (D.4) we have

799 $\alpha(e^*) = 1 > \alpha(e_{nonassort}^*) = 1/p$.

| 0 | Δ | 1 |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | υ | J |

Therefore $e_{nonassort}^* < e^*$ 802

- 803
- 804 and consequently a lower proportion of $p_{nonassort} < p$ will depart together on the second
- challenge, until eventually $e_{nonassort} * = p_{nonassort} = 0$ and the group will dissolve. 805
- 806
- For any given value of parameter R, the optimal strategy of the reduced one-departure model 807
- 808 brings higher net benefit than the optimal strategy for the two-departure model II.

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Accept

