

Oranzees model description

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This document provides a general description of the “oranzees” model. The code to run and test the model can be found in the scripts `main.R` and `test.R`. The consecutively numbered R markdown documents (01-oranzees.Rmd to 06-oranzees.Rmd) document the full development of the model.

The oranzees world

The oranzees model is an individual-based model, fully written in R, that reproduces a world where six populations of “oranzees” (an hypothetical ape species) live. The set-up is inspired by the research described in the paper *Cultures in Chimpanzees* (Whiten et al. 1999). The oranzees six populations are located in the continent “Pongogea”, at positions analogous to the six populations of chimpanzees in Whiten et al. (1999), see Figure 1.

The population sizes are also taken from the real chimpanzees populations considered in the study above. Following Lind and Lindenfors (2010), we use data from R. W. Wrangham (2000):

Group	Population size
Uossob	20
Elabik	42
Ognodub	49
Iat Forest	76
Ebmog	50
Elaham	95

In the oranzees world, 64 behaviours are possible (in Whiten et al. (1999) this corresponds to 65). Behaviours are divided in two categories, including 32 *social* and 32 *food-related* behaviours (more about this below).

The probability of expressing a behaviour depends, among other things, by its associated *ecological availability* and *genetic propensity*.

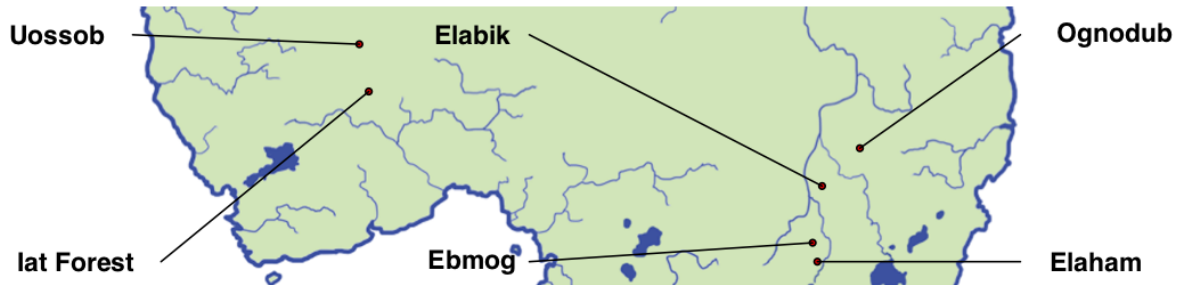


Figure 1: Location of the six populations of oranzees in Pongogea.

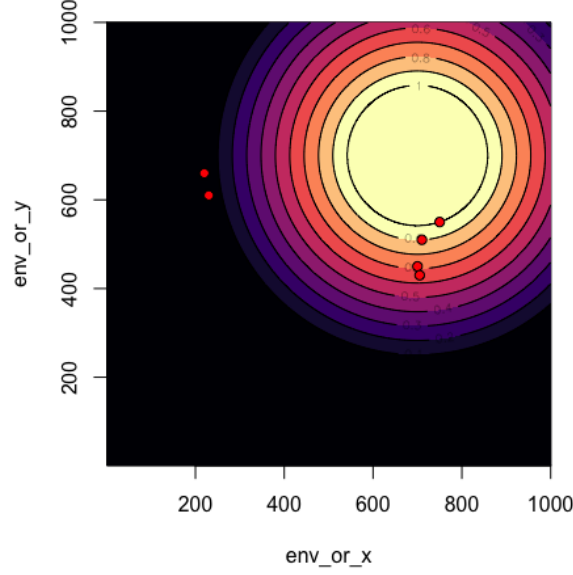


Figure 2: Example of calculation of p_g . The red points represent the oranzee populations.

Genetic propensity

Genetic propensity is a probability $p_g(0, 1)$, assigned to each behaviour, that stands for the genetic propensity to express this behaviour. This probability is assigned randomly and independently to each behaviour. A parameter of the model, α_g , determines the probability that the genetic propensity of each behaviour is equal for all the six populations, or if it is different.

If it is different, we assign it using a geographical gradient. For each behaviour, we choose a random point and calculate its distance to each population. Distances are then transformed to p_g by rescaling them between 0 and 1, so that for the farther population $p_g = 0$ i.e. the associated behaviour will be impossible to express.

In the example in Figure 2 a particular behavior will have $p_g = 1$ in the Ognodub site, $p_g = 0$ in Iat Forest and Uossob, and intermediate values in the other sites.

Notice that $\alpha_g = 0$ does not mean that there are not genetic influences on the behaviours, but that there are no *differences* between the populations with this respect.

Ecological availability

Ecological availability can be thought as a probability $p_e(0, 1)$ that represents the likelihood of finding a resource, or its nutritional value, in each site. Ecological availability is assigned only to food-related behaviours, and it is calculated in the same way of p_g , using the parameter α_e to determine the probability of ecological availability being different in the six populations.

When $p_e = 0$, the associated behaviour will be absent with an “ecological explanation” (according to the coding in Whiten et al. (1999))

The life of oranzees

We assume that a time step t of the simulation represents a month. Demography is very simple: from when they are 25 years old, there is a 1% probability an oranzee will die each month, or they die when they are 60

years old. The number of individuals in the population is fixed, so each time an oranzee dies is replaced by a newborn. At the beginning of the simulations, the populations are randomly initialised with individuals between 0 and 25 years old.

A newborn oranzee does not have any behaviour. Behaviours can be innovated at each time step/month. The process of innovation is influenced by: (i) the oranzees ‘state’, which depends from the behaviours an individual already possesses, (ii) the frequency of the behaviours already present in the population (“socially-mediated innovation”), and (iii) the ecological availability and genetic propensity associated to the behaviour.

Oranzees state

Social behaviours

In the case of social behaviours, we assume four sub-categories of behaviours, each with eight possible different behaviours, that serve the same goal, as illustrated here (notice the categories’ names are purely indicative):

Sub-category								
play	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
display	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
groom	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
courtship	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32

We assume that the state is based on how many of the four goals are fulfilled. A goal is considered fulfilled if an oranzee has at least one behaviour out of the four in the sub-category. An oranzee has a state value of 0.25 if, for example, has at least one behaviour among behaviours 1 to 8, and none of the others, and a state value of 1 if there is at least one behaviour in each sub-category.

p_{state} , the probability to innovate a social behaviour, is drawn from a normal distribution with mean equal to $1 - \text{state}$ (this means that even when all goals are fulfilled, that is the mean is zero, there is still some probability to innovate).

Food-related behaviours

Food-related behaviours are also divided in sub-categories/goals, with the differences that there is a variable number of behaviours in each sub-category, and that sub-categories are associated to two different ‘nutrients’. The idea is that individuals need to balance their nutritional intake, so that their optimal diet consist in a roughly equal number of foodstuff for one and the other nutrient.

Sub-category									Nutrient
A	33	34	35	36	27	38	39	40	Y
B	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	Z
C	49	50	51	52					Y
D	53	54	55	56					Z
E	57	58							Y
F	59	60							Z
G	61								Y
H	62								Z
I	63								Y
J	64								Z

The state, for food-related behaviours, depends on the total amount of food *and* on the balance between

nutrients, and it is calculated as the sum of each sub-category fulfilled (as above, for this there needs to be at least one behaviour) minus the difference between the number of sub-categories providing nutrient Y and the number of sub-categories providing nutrient Z. As above, all is normalised between 0 and 1, and p_{state} is then calculated.

Innovation

While the probability of innovation depends on p_{state} as described above, what behaviour an oranzee will innovate depends both on the frequency of the behaviours already present in the population, and on the ecological availability and genetic propensity associated to the behaviour. A further parameter of the model, S , controls the probability that each innovation is socially-mediated. When an innovation is socially-mediated, each behaviour has a probability to be innovated drawn from a normal distribution with mean equals to its total instances in the population. (The normal distribution is useful because allows for absent behaviours to be anyway possible to be innovated, with low probability). When the innovation is not socially-mediated, the probability of innovating each behaviour is random. Only one behaviour per category can be innovated at each time step.

After that, the behaviour chosen in the previous step is actually innovated with probability depending on its genetic propensity (or on a combination of its genetic propensity and ecological availability in case of food-related behaviours).

Output of the model

The main output we are interested is the number of behaviour that would be considered “cultural” in the populations of oranzees according to the coding of Whiten et al. (1999). We run simulation for $t_{\text{max}} = 6000$ (corresponding to 500 years of oranzee-time). We then classify each behaviour in each population as:

- *customary*: a behaviour observed in over 50% of individuals in at least one age class.
- *habitual*: a behaviour observed in at least two individuals over all the population.
- *present*: a behaviour observed in at least one individual over all the population.
- *absent*: a behaviour never observed.
- *ecological explanations* is a behaviour that is absent because of local ecological features (i.e. associated to $p_e = 0$).

(Notice the last category in Whiten et al. (1999) (*unknown*, i.e. “the behaviour has not been recorded, but this may be due to inadequacy of relevant observational opportunities”) does not apply in our case.)

Age classes to calculate customary behaviours are defined as follows:

- *adults*: individuals that are more than 16-year old.
- *subadults*: individuals between 8 and 16-year old.
- *juveniles*: individuals that are less than 8-year old.

Finally, we use the coding to calculate the “patterns” described in Whiten et al. (1999):

- *A*: patterns absent at no site.
- *B*: patterns not achieving habitual frequencies at any site.
- *C*: patterns for which any absence can be explained by local ecological factors.
- *D*: patterns customary or habitual at some sites yet absent at others, with no ecological explanation, i.e. the “cultural” behaviours.

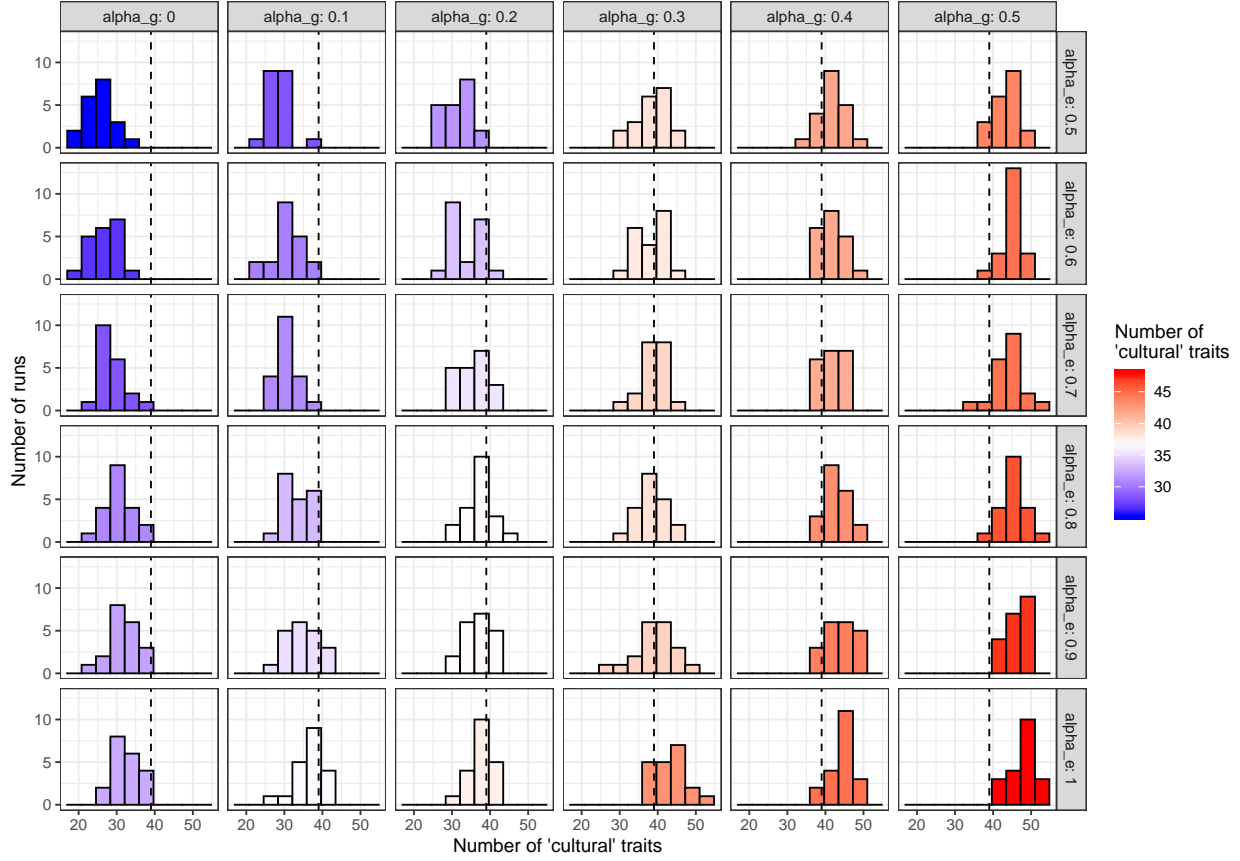


Figure 3: “Cultural” behaviours in oranzees, varying ecological and genetic diversity. Red colour indicates more “cultural” behaviours with respect of Whiten et al. (1999); blue colour indicated less.

Main results

We first check the number of “cultural” behaviours (pattern D in Whiten et al. (1999)) for all the *interesting* combinations of the parameters α_e and α_g , i.e. moderate to high environmental variability ($\alpha_e = (0.5, 1)$) and zero to moderate genetic difference ($\alpha_g = (0, 0.5)$). We run 20 simulations for each combination. The results show that in many conditions a number of “cultural” behaviours consistent with Whiten et al. (1999) would be found, in absence of any explicit copying mechanism implemented, see Figure 3.

Second, we check how well all patterns (“A”, “B”, “C”, “D”) corresponds to the patterns found in Whiten et al. (1999), in one of the conditions for which we have a good match for “cultural” behaviours ($\alpha_e = 0.8$; $\alpha_g = 0.2$). We find a good match, see Figure 4.

Finally, we study the effect of the parameter S (proportion of socially-mediated innovations), in three conditions: (a) no genetic differences and intermediate ecological differences (high-left angle of Figure 3, produces too few “cultural” traits), (b) good match with Whiten et al. (1999), and (c) intermediate genetic differences and high ecological differences (low-right angle of Figure 3, produces too many “cultural” traits). As expected, decreasing S lower the number of “cultural” traits, so that conditions where with $S = 1$ there were more “cultural” traits than in Whiten et al. (1999) could still produce analogous results, if less innovations are socially mediated, (e.g. left side of the right panel in Figure 5).

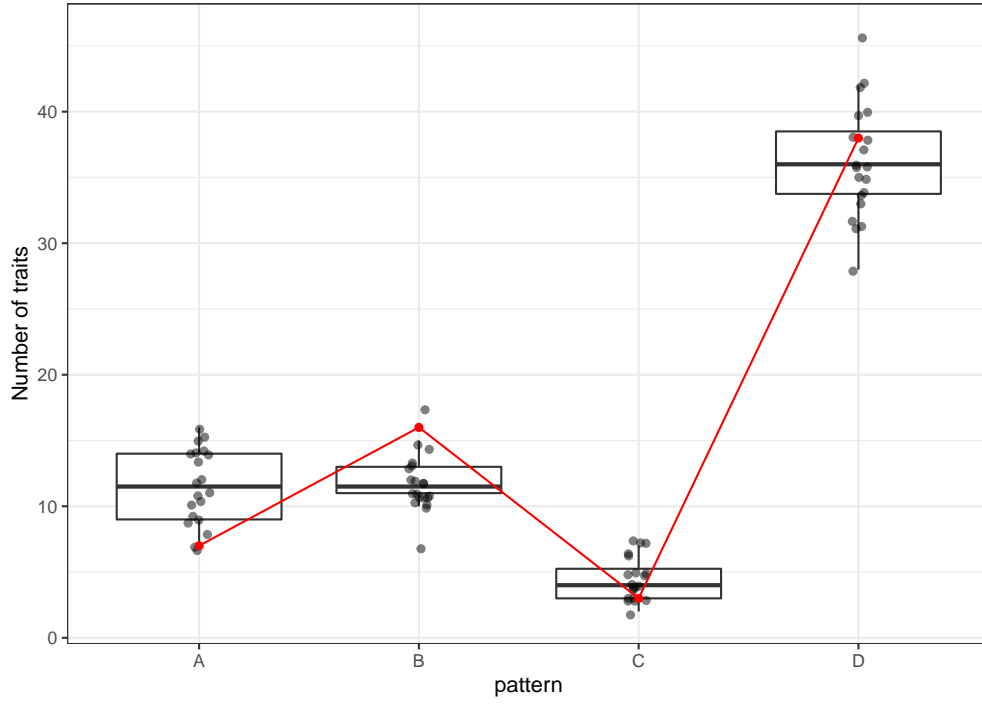


Figure 4: Traits for each of the four patterns (see above). The values in red are the values found in Whiten et al. (1999).

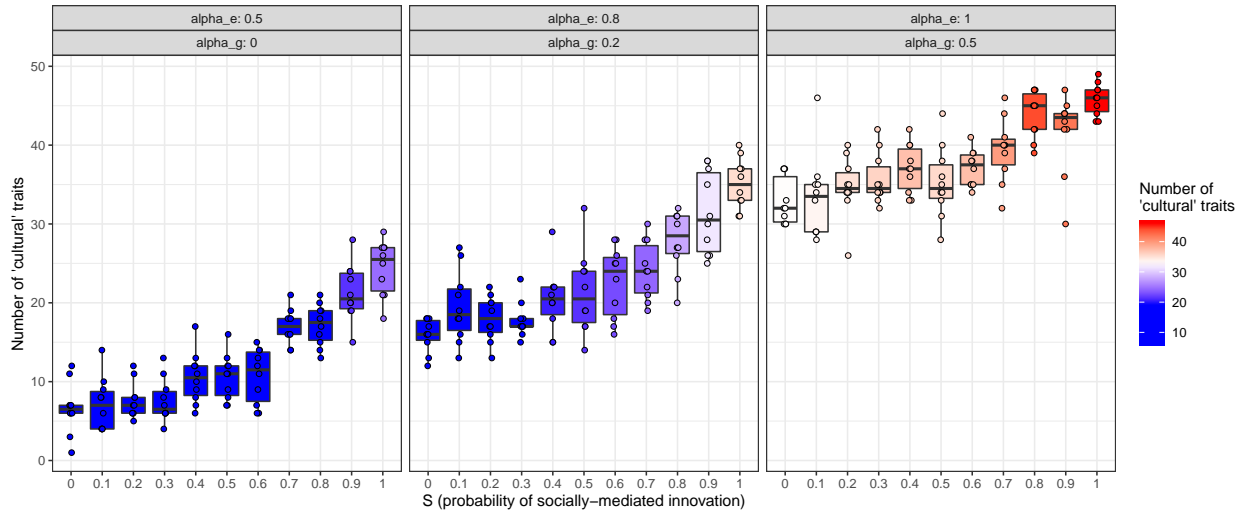


Figure 5: “Cultural” behaviours in oranzees, varying the probability of socially-mediated innovations.

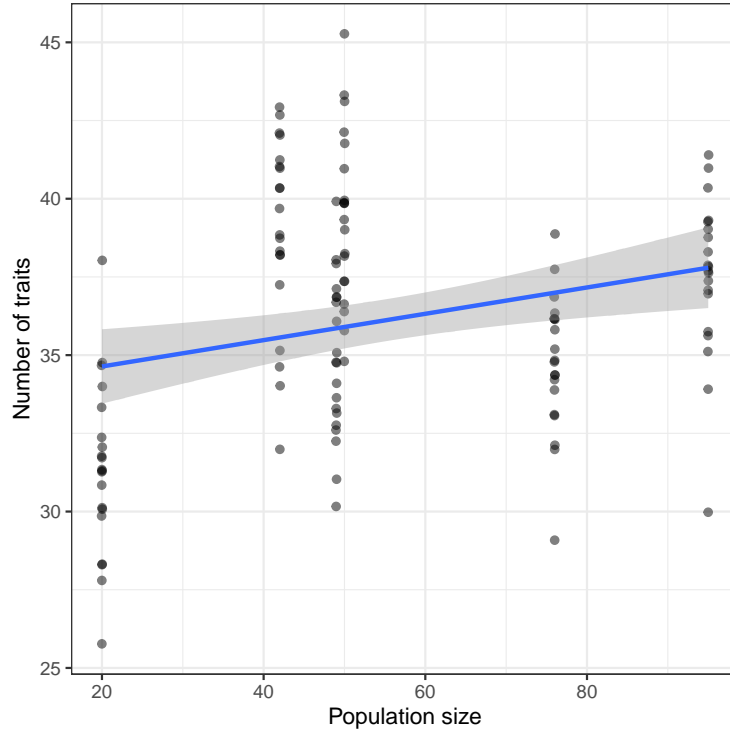


Figure 6: Correlation between population size and number of traits.

Additional result

A further interesting result is that the model reproduces the correlation between population size and number of behavioural traits that was found, for females, in chimpanzee populations in Lind and Lindenfors (2010) (see Figure 6).

References

- Lind, Johan, and Patrik Lindenfors. 2010. "The Number of Cultural Traits Is Correlated with Female Group Size but Not with Male Group Size in Chimpanzee Communities." *PLoS ONE* 5 (3). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0009241.
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- Wrangham, Richard W. 2000. "Why Are Male Chimpanzees More Gregarious Than Mothers? A Scramble Competition Hypothesis." In *Primate Males: Causes and Consequences of Variation in Group Composition*, 248–58. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.