

Model of insect swarming

- Swarms are often observed in insect formations, flocks of birds, schools of fish and bacterial colonies.
- They tend to maintain their shape over long time periods.
- What is the minimal mathematical model that exhibits such behaviour?
- Consider a particle model where each insect is represented by a particle whose position is given by x_j , $j = 1 \dots N$.
- Kinematic model ignores the acceleration effects [first order]. The simplest such model is:

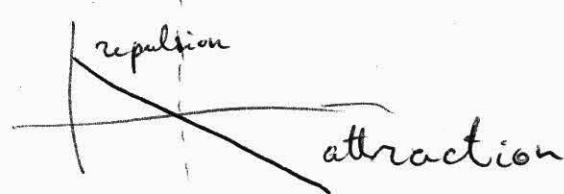
$$(1) \quad \frac{dx_j}{dt} = \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^N F(|x_i - x_j|) \frac{x_j - x_i}{|x_j - x_i|}$$

Here, $F(|x_i - x_j|)$ is the force exerted by x_i on x_j & it is assumed that all particles are identical.

- If $F(|x_i - x_j|) > 0$ then x_i and x_j repulse each other
- If $F(|x_i - x_j|) < 0$ then x_i and x_j attract each other

- We consider an interaction force $F(r)$ which is attractive at large distances and is repulsive at short distances, such as for example:

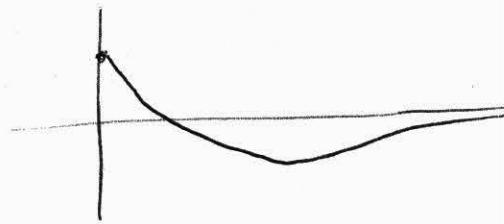
$$(2) \quad F(r) = 1 - r$$



- Often, a Morse force is used, it is :

$$(3) \quad F(r) = e^{-r} - G e^{-r/L}$$

with $G < 1$ and $L > 1$



- Q: Does (2) or (3) lead to swarming?
- Numerically, distinct regimes are observed
 - If $F(r) > 0$ for all $r > 0$, the particles collapse to a single point, $x_i(t) \rightarrow \bar{x}$ as $t \rightarrow \infty \forall i$
 - If $F(r) < 0$ for all $r < 0$, the particles spread, $|x_i| \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty \forall i = 1 \dots N$
 - If $|x_i(t)| < R$ particles form a swarm.

Numerically, two types of swarming behaviour are observed: either the swarm size increases as N is increased, or else the swarm size approaches some limit R independent of N . The two types are

illustrated in 2-D by taking Morse force:

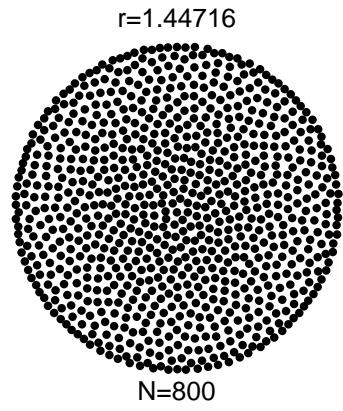
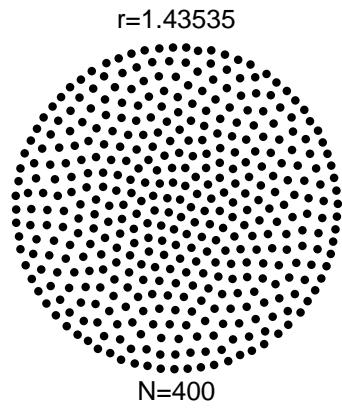
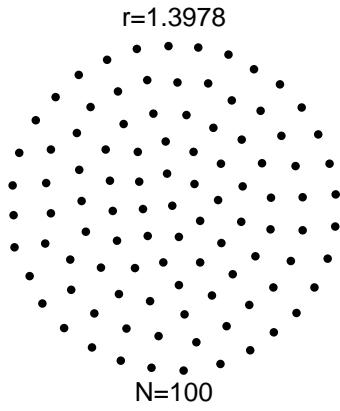
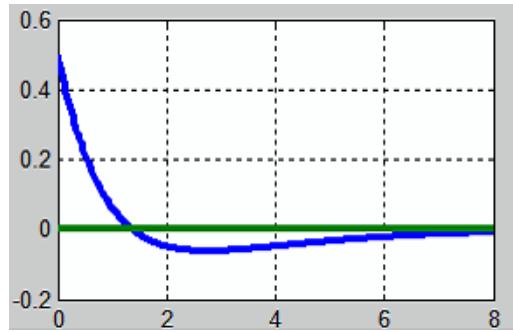
$$F(r) = \bar{e}^{-r} - G e^{-r/L}$$

- If $G = 0.5$, $L = 2$, the swarm radius is $R \approx 1.5$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ and appears to be indep. of N .
- If $G = 0.5$, $L = 1.2$, the swarm radius increases with N while the particle density remains the same. This is illustrated in the figure below.

- The former case is called catastrophic while the latter is called H-stable.

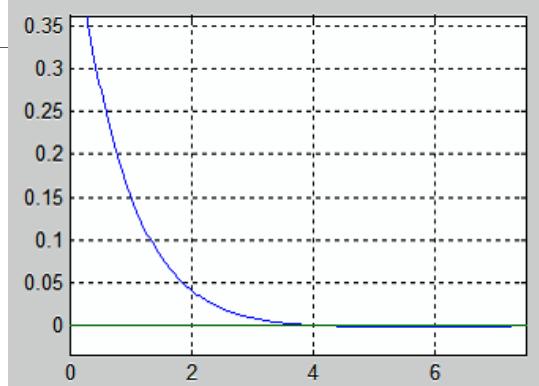
Example of catastrophic regime:

$$F(r) = e^{-r} - 0.5e^{-r/2}$$

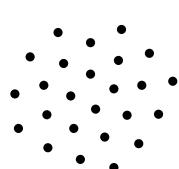


Example of h-stable regime:

$$F(r) = e^{-r} - 0.5e^{-r/1.2}$$

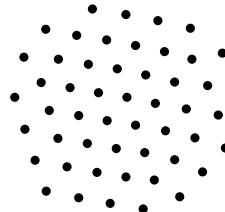


$r=9.56367$



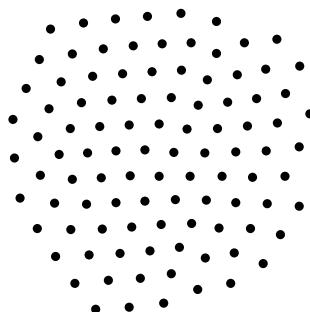
$N=25$

$r=13.3742$



$N=50$

$r=19.3298$



$N=100$

Continuum limit $N \rightarrow \infty$:

Let $p(x,t)$ = density of particles at position x and time t ; that is,

$$\int_{\Omega} p(x,t) dx \equiv \frac{\# \text{ of particles inside } \Omega}{N}$$

We assume that $p(x,t)$ becomes smooth in the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$. In addition, define $v(x,t) \equiv$ velocity field [i.e. vector].

$$\text{Then } v(x,t) = \int F(|x-y|) \frac{x-y}{|x-y|} p(y) dy.$$

Moreover, for $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t) dx &\equiv \text{net density in time } \Delta t \\ &= - \int_{\partial \Omega} \vec{v} \cdot \hat{n} p dS(x) \Delta t \quad [\text{amount of mass crossing boundary in } \Delta t] \\ &= \left(- \int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot (\vec{v} p) dx \right) \Delta t \quad [\text{integration by parts}] \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{We expand: } p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t) = \Delta t p_t(x, t) + O(\Delta t^2)$$

$$\text{to get } \int_{\Omega} \{ p_t + \nabla \cdot (\vec{v} p) \} dx = O(\Delta t).$$

Taking the limit $\delta t \rightarrow 0$ and $\mathcal{R} \rightarrow \{\times\}$,
we then get the continuous model:

$$\begin{cases} p_t + \nabla \cdot (p\vec{v}) = 0 \\ \vec{v} = K * p \end{cases}$$

(4)

Where $K(z) = F(|z|) \frac{z}{|z|}$ and

$$K * p = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} K(x-y) p(y) dy \text{ is the convolution}$$

Stability of constant states:

Since $K * 1 = 0$, $p = \text{const}$ is a steady state of (4). The distinction between a spreading and a catastrophic regime can be explained in terms of linear stability of a constant density state. In particular, the necessary condition for spreading density is that $p=1$ is stable w.r.t. linear perturbations; the necessary condition for catastrophic regime is that $p=1$ is unstable w.r.t. linear perturbations.

So we let $p(x,t) = 1 + \varphi(x,t)$; $\varphi \ll 1$;

then $p^v = (1 + \varphi) K * (1 + \varphi) = K * \varphi + O(\varphi^2)$

Setting $\varphi(x,t) = e^{xt} \varphi(x)$ we get the linearized equations:

$$(5) \quad \lambda \varphi + K * \varphi = 0.$$

Next, we make an ansatz: $\varphi(x) = e^{im\vec{x}}$, $i \equiv \sqrt{-1}$

and compute: $K * \varphi = e^{im\vec{x}} \int e^{-my^i} F(y) \frac{y}{|y|} dy$

so that

$$\boxed{\lambda = +im \cdot \int e^{-my^i} F(y) \frac{y}{|y|} dy}$$

Next, consider the case of small frequencies, $m \ll 1$.

Then $e^{-my^i} = 1 - my^i$ and using $K * 1 = 0$

We get:

$$\int e^{-my^i} F(y) \frac{y}{|y|} dy = -imy^i F(y) \frac{y}{|y|} dy.$$

In the case of 1-D, this becomes:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} my F(y) \frac{y}{|y|} dy = 2m \int_0^{\infty} y F(y) dy.$$

For the Morse force, $F(y) = e^{-\frac{M}{|y|}} - G e^{-\frac{|y|}{L}}$

we then obtain :

$$\int_0^\infty y F(y) = 1 - GL^2$$

so that $\boxed{\lambda = 2m^2(1 - GL^2)}$

there, in 1-D, the spreading will happen ~~if~~ only if $GL^2 < 1$
 otherwise, if $GL^2 > 1 \Rightarrow$ catastrophic regime.

In 2-D, let $y = r(\cos\theta, \sin\theta)$ so that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} m_1 y \frac{F(|y|)}{|y|} y dy = \iint_{r=0}^{2\pi} \int_{\theta=0}^{\infty} r(m_1 \cos\theta + m_2 \sin\theta) \frac{F(r)}{r} r(\cos\theta, \sin\theta) r dr d\theta$$

$$= \left(m_1 \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 \theta d\theta}_{\pi}, m_2 \underbrace{\int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 \theta d\theta}_{\pi} \right) \underbrace{\int_0^\infty F(r) r^2 dr}_{2 - 2GL^3}$$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda = 2\pi(m_1^2 + m_2^2)(1 - GL^3)}$

Conclusion: The catastrophic swarm for the

Morse force forms if $0 < G < 1$, $L > 1$ and

$$GL^2 > 1 \text{ [in 1-D]} \text{ or } GL^3 > 1 \text{ [in 2-D]}$$

Explicit solutions to aggregation model

Next, consider the case

$$(6) \quad F(r) = \begin{cases} 1-r & \text{in } 1\text{-D} \\ \frac{1}{r}-r & \text{in } 2\text{-D.} \end{cases}$$

We claim: the steady state to (4) with $F(r)$ given by (6) is given by:

$$(7) \quad p(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in B_1(0) \\ 0, & x \notin B_1(0) \end{cases}$$

where $B_1(0) = \{x : |x| < 1\}$.

Proof: Let $G(r) = \int F = \begin{cases} r - \frac{r^2}{2}, & \text{in } 1\text{-D} \\ \ln r - \frac{r^2}{2}, & \text{in } 2\text{-D.} \end{cases}$

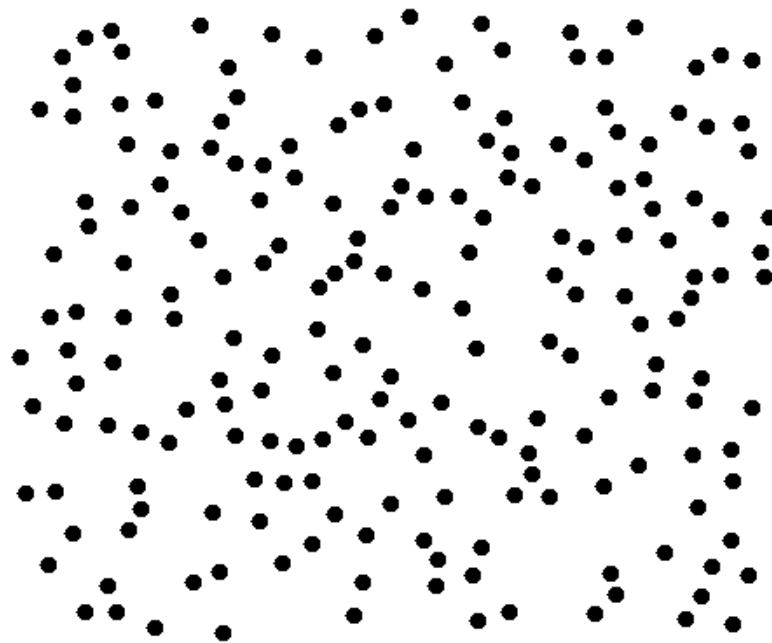
We have: $v = \int \nabla_x G(|x-y|) p(y) dy.$

Now define $\omega(x) = \int G(|x-y|) p(y) dy.$

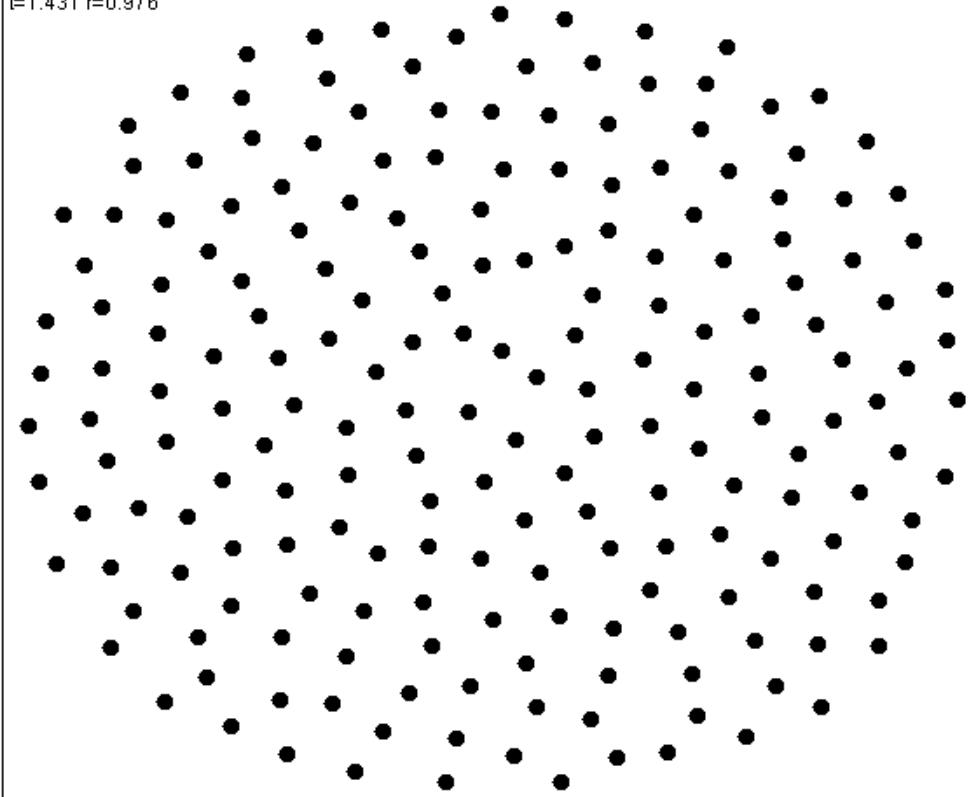
Consider the 2-D case first. Then

$$\Delta_x G = 2\pi \delta(x-y) - 2$$

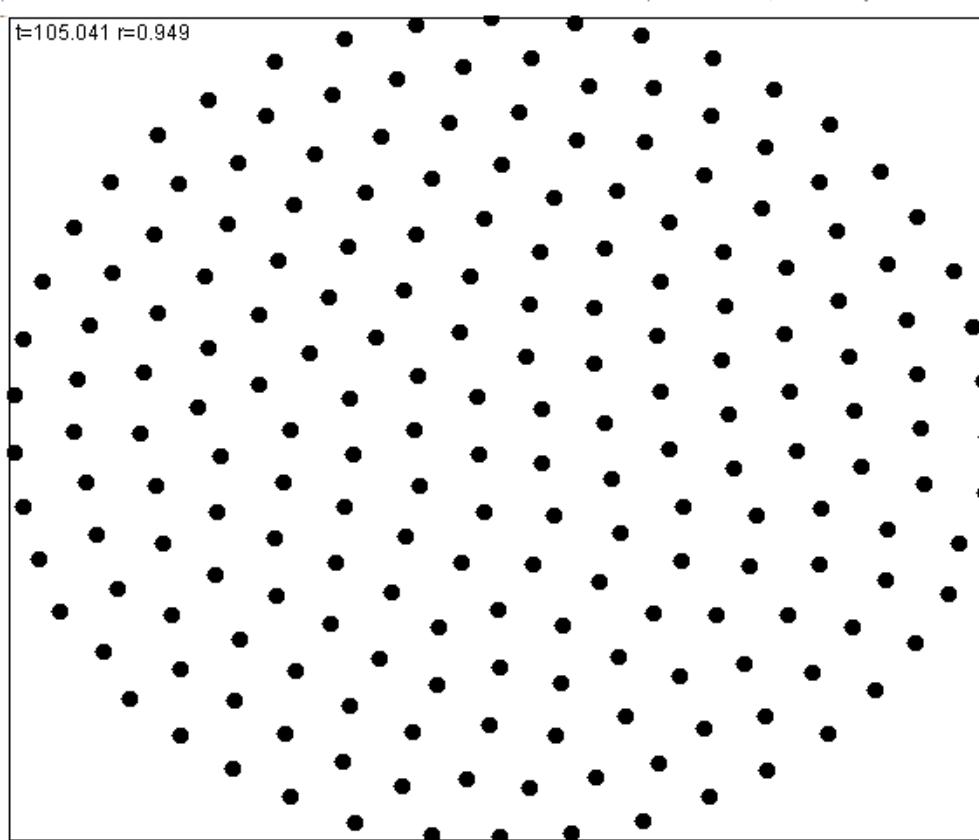
$t=0.087$ $r=0.765$



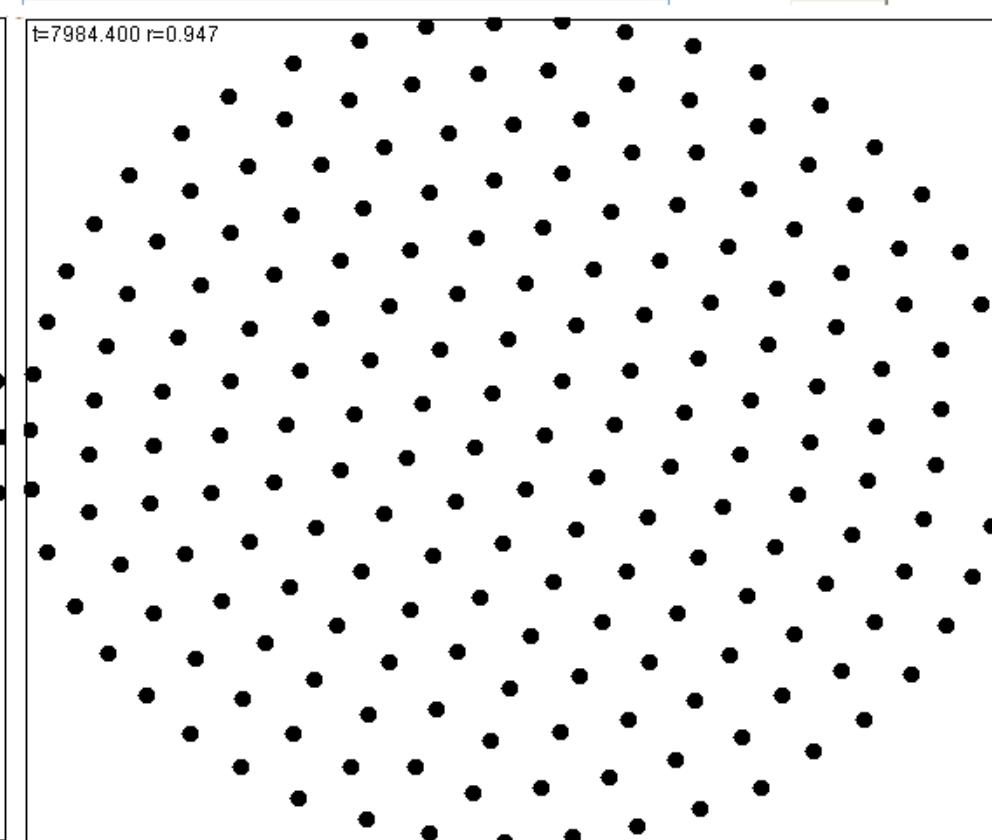
$t=1.431$ $r=0.976$



$t=105.041$ $r=0.949$



$t=7984.400$ $r=0.947$



Constant density-state in 2D, $F(r)=1/r-r$; $N=200$ particles.

so that $\Delta\omega = 2\pi\rho(x) = 2M$.

where $M = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \rho(x) dx$.

We seek a steady state with the property that

$$\begin{cases} \rho = 0; \vec{v} \neq 0 \text{ outside } B_L(0) \\ \rho \neq 0; \vec{v} = 0 \text{ inside } B_L(0) \end{cases}$$

where $L > 0$ is some constant to be found.

Then $\nabla \cdot v = 0 = \Delta\omega$ inside $B_L(0)$

$$\Rightarrow \rho(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{M}{\pi}, & x \in B_L(0) \\ 0, & x \notin B_L(0) \end{cases}$$

so Moreover, $M = \int \rho = \pi L^2 \left(\frac{M}{\pi}\right) \Rightarrow L = 1$

This proves (7).

In 1-D, we have: $\Delta G = 2\delta(x-y) - 1$

$$\Rightarrow 2\rho(x) - M = 0 \Rightarrow \rho(x) = \frac{M}{2}, x \in [-L, L]$$

$$\text{and } M = \int_{-L}^L \rho(x) dx = \frac{M}{2}(2L) \Rightarrow L = 1$$

Dynamics for $F(r) = 1-r$ in 1D:

We compute: $v(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1 - |x-y|) \text{sign}(x-y) \rho(y) dy$

$$= 2 \int_{-\infty}^x \rho(y) dy - M(x+1)$$

[where we assume, WLOG, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y \rho(y) dy = 0$

$$\text{and } M = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(y) dy]$$

$$\text{So define } \omega(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(y) dy ; \quad (8)$$

$$\text{then } V = 2\omega - M(x+1)$$

$$\text{and } V_x = 2p - M$$

$$\text{Now } p_t + (Vp)_x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow p_t + Vp_x = -V_x p \quad (9)$$

Characteristic curves: We ~~do~~ define the characteristic $X(t; x_0)$ to be sol'n to:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt} X(t; x_0) = V \\ X(0, x_0) = x_0 \end{cases}$$

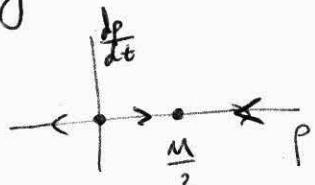
$$\text{Then along } X, \text{ we have: } \begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt} p = -V_x p \\ p(0; x_0) = p_0(x_0) \end{cases}$$

where $p_0(x_0)$ is the initial density distribution

Thus: $\boxed{\frac{dp}{dt} = p(M-2p)}$

so that $\boxed{p \rightarrow \frac{M}{2} \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty}$

[explicitly, $\boxed{p = \frac{M}{2 + e^{-t}(-2 + \frac{M}{p_0})}}$]



From (9) we have:

$$\omega_t + Vp = 0 \Rightarrow \omega_t + V\omega_x = 0.$$

Thus, ω is constant along the characteristics
 $\Rightarrow \omega = \omega_{x_0} = \int_{-\infty}^{x_0} p_0(\tau) d\tau$

We get: $\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt} X = 2\omega_0 - M(x+1) \\ X(0; x_0) = x_0 \end{cases}$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} X = e^{-Mt} x_0 + \frac{1}{M} (1 - e^{-Mt}) (2\omega_0(x_0) - M) \\ P = \frac{M}{2 + e^{-t}(-2 + \frac{M}{P_0}))} \end{cases}$$

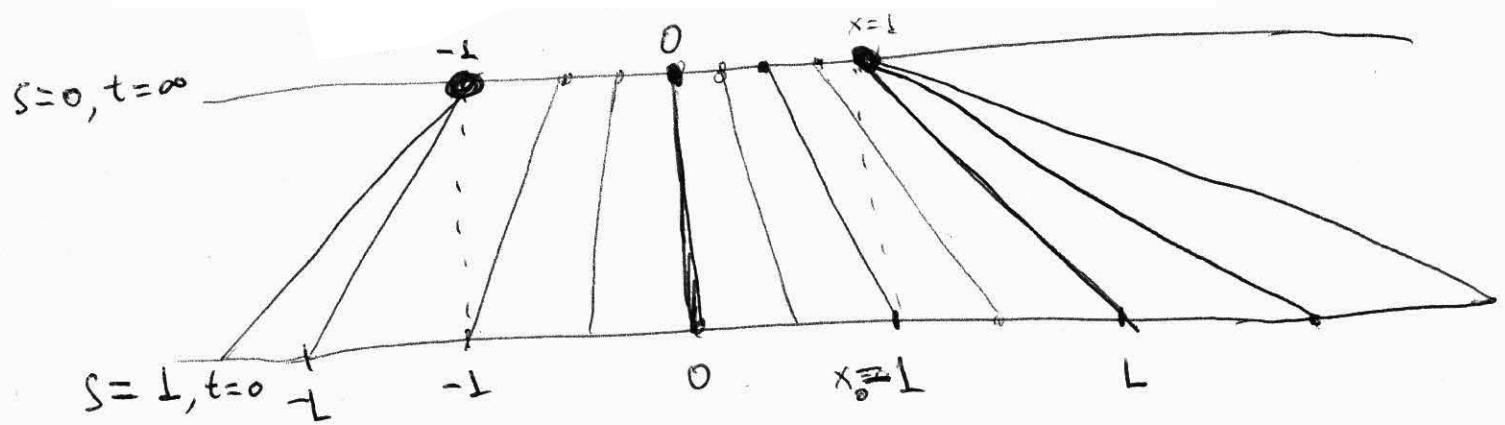
Example: Suppose $p_0(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in [-L, L] \\ 0, & x \notin [-L, L] \end{cases}$

Then $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(x) dx = 0$ and $M = 2L$ and

$$X = \begin{cases} -L + e^{-2Lt} (x_0 + 1), & x_0 < -L \\ \frac{x_0}{L} + e^{-2Lt} \left(x_0 \left(1 - \frac{1}{L}\right)\right), & x_0 \in [-L, L] \\ L + e^{-2Lt} (x_0 - 1), & x_0 > L \end{cases}$$

$$P = \begin{cases} 0, & |x_0| > L \\ \frac{L}{1 + e^{-t}(L-1)}, & |x_0| < L \end{cases}$$

Letting $s = e^{-2Lt}$, the graph of characteristics looks like:



- Characteristics intersect at $t=\infty, x=\pm 1$

- Note also that if $L=1$ then we recover (7)!

- We get :

$$\rho(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & |x| > R(t) \\ \frac{L}{1+e^{-t}(L-1)}, & |x| < R(t) \end{cases}$$

Where $R(t) = 1 + e^{-t}(L-1)$