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3   **The effect of temporally variable environmental stimuli and group size on emergence**
4   **behaviour**

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7   **Short title:** Environmental stimuli and group emergence behaviour

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9   **Lay summary:** Colonies of humbug damselfish change their behavioural response to a
10   predation threat in accordance with the tide. The majority of work in animal decision making
11   centres on individuals, however, animals are affected by the movements of their near-
12   neighbours. Moreover, whilst environmental factors affecting decision making vary spatially
13   within habitats, the role of temporal variation of environmental factors has been relatively
14   ignored. This study addresses both of these issues in a manipulative field experiment.

15

16   **Abstract:**

17   How animals trade-off food availability and predation threats is a strong determinant of animal
18   activity and behaviour, however, the majority of work on this topic has been on individual
19   animals, despite the modulating effect the presence of conspecifics can have on both foraging
20   and predation risk. Whilst these environmental factors (food and predation threat) vary
21   spatially within habitats, they also vary temporally, and in marine habitats this can be
22   determined not only by the diel cycle but also the tidal cycle. Humbug damselfish, *Dascyllus*
23   *aruanus,* live in small groups of unrelated individuals within and around branching coral heads
24   which they collectively withdraw into to escape a predation threat. In this study we measured
25   the proportion of individuals in the colony that were outside the coral head before and after
26   they were scared by a fright stimulus and compared the responses at high tide and low tide. We
27   found that a greater proportion of the shoal emerged after the fright stimulus at high tide and

28 in larger groups than at low tide or in smaller groups. We also quantified the pattern of

29 emergence over time and discovered the rate of emergence was faster in larger shoals as time

30 progressed. We show that shoals of fish change their behavioural response to a predation

31 threat in accordance with the tide, exemplifying how temporally variable environmental factors

32 can shape group movement decisions.

33

34 **Introduction**

35 It is widely recognised that searching for food and evading predators are two major factors

36 influencing animal behaviour. How animals trade off these two factors is a key question in

37 behavioural ecology (Sih 1982; Dill 1983; Lima and Dill 1990; Smith 1997). For example, an

38 animal's selection of certain food types or foraging behaviours may change in response to the

39 level of predation threat, and ultimately areas of higher resource profitability may be partially

40 or completely avoided if the predation threat is perceived to be too great (Abrahams and Dill

41 1989; Lima and Dill 1990). Predatory threats will also affect the amount of time an animal

42 spends in a safe place before returning to forage (Ydenberg and Dill 1986; Lima and Dill 1990).

43 As the threat of predation exists during times when prey need to perform other activities such

44 as feeding or finding mates, behavioural adaptations of prey should be particularly sensitive to

45 the degree of predation risk and how it balances with current demands and opportunities (Dill

46 1983; Lima and Dill 1990).

47 In addition to the need to balance risk against reward, most animals are subject to circadian

48 rhythms (Helfman 1986), while marine animals, particularly those that inhabit shallow waters,

49 are also subject to circatidal rhythms (Gibson 1992). The tide can have significant effects on the

50   appropriateness of habitats and marine animals may have behavioural patterns that are

51   synchronized with the tidal cycle (Northcott et al. 1990; Gibson 1992) in order to improve their

52   fitness. Some juvenile flat fishes time their migrations to different parts of the beach with the

53   tide (Kuipers 1973) and activity levels of monkeyface prickleback, *Cebidichthys violaceus*

54   (Ralston and Horn 1986)*,* and purple marsh crab, *Sesarma reticulatum* (Palmer 1967) are also

55   synchronised with the tide. While much work has been done on how the spatial distribution of

56   animals is affected by the trade-off between foraging and predation, less attention has been

57   given to how this trade-off changes in accordance with consistent temporal rhythms (Metcalfe

58   et al. 1999), such as tidal height, which are vitally important forces that alter the costs and

59   benefits of performing different behaviours.

60   For animals that live in groups the behavior of conspecifics is an additional factor that interacts

61   with other environmental stimuli to alter the trade-off between foraging and predation. The

62   decisions of animals that live in groups are influenced by the behavior of other individuals in the

63   group (Krause and Ruxton 2002; Ward et al. 2013) and animals need to strike a balance

64   between conformity and individuality (Herbert-Read et al. 2013). Whilst the presence of

65   conspecifics may decrease the risk of predation due to the many-eyes, dilution or confusion

66   effect, food competition generally increases with the number of individuals at a food patch

67   (Ward et al. 2006).

68   Humbug damselfish, *Dascyllus aruanus*, live in small groups of unrelated individuals (hereafter

69   "colonies") within and around branching coral heads. Groups of humbug damselsfish are

70   territorial and maintain the same group structure (Jordan et al. 2010). They are planktivores

71   and feed in the water column directly above and around their coral head. One of the suggested

72   explanations for the species' preference for group living is the advantage individuals receive

73   from the increase in predator vigilance and the dilution effect (Sweatman 1985). Like in many

74   group living species, predation threats are reduced through a collective fleeing response

75   (Marras et al. 2011; King et al. 2012; Salazar et al. 2013), and individuals collectively seek refuge

76   within the branches of the coral until the threat has passed. The amount and variety of food

77   available and therefore the feeding rate of humbug damselfish is greatest during high tide,

78   when plankton availability is greatest (Forrester 1991). This therefore creates a good natural

79   study system to explore not only how animal groups trade-off feeding and predation threat, but

80   also how this is affected by consistent temporal rhythms.

81   Many studies have looked at habitat use and decisions of where to feed in response to

82   predation threat (Dill 1983; Lima and Dill 1990; Sih 1982). For the territorial humbug

83   damselfish, there is more flexibility over when to feed than there is where to feed, as the patch

84   is restricted to the immediate area surrounding their coral head. In this system fish exist in a

85   binary state, they are either outside of a coral refuge, in which case they are typically foraging,

86   or they're in the coral refuge, in which case they are not. Certainly there is variance of prey

87   distribution and type around the coral head, but for the purposes of this study the fish are

88   considered to be either within the patch and therefore able to forage, or in hiding. Therefore,

89   we measured the proportion of individuals in the colony that were outside the coral head

90   before and after they were scared by a fright stimulus and compared the responses at high tide

91   and low tide. We showed that groups of damselfish change their behavioural response to a

92   predation threat depending on the tide, exemplifying how temporally variable environmental

93   factors can shape group movement decisions.

94

95   **Methods**

96   Research was conducted at 3rd Lagoon, One Tree Island (-23° 30' 26'', 152° 5' 25''), Great Barrier

97   Reef between March 28th and April 10th 2014. Fifty-six colonies of humbug damselfish

98   (*Dascyllus aruanus*) were selected for this experiment, ranging in size from 3 to 24 individuals

99   and each colony was assayed once, half were assayed during high tide (HT) and half during low

100 tide (LT). A trial was considered to occur at one of the two tidal categories if it was performed

101 within 2 hours either side of the maximum or minimum tidal amplitude. As trials were

102 conducted over two weeks, trials at HT (07:50-16:50h) and LT (08:20-15:50h) covered the range

103 of daylight hours. Therefore, circadian rhythm effect was controlled for in the experimental

104 design. The colonies occupied *Pocillopora damicornis* and *Acropora palifera* coral heads and

105 colonies had to be more than 5m from another colony to reduce the chance that fish would

106 travel between colonies, which occurs when the coral heads are closely packed or continuous

107 (Öhman et al. 1998). Care was taken to ensure the colonies used in the two treatments were

108 spatially mixed, evenly dispersed between the two coral species, and not clumped to reduce

109 confounding effects of environmental variables. A precise block design was not possible,

110 however, due to the natural distribution of colonies and because the priority was to have a

111 similar range of group sizes between the two tidal treatments.

112 *Fright stimulus*

113 The fright stimulus apparatus (hereafter "apparatus") was a custom made device with an

114 aluminum frame with a blue and white 28cm long rubber fishing lure (Williamson® Live Little

115 Tunny Skip Jack 6951221) attached to a zip line made from monofilament line. A pulley system

116 allowed for the user to stand 250cm from the humbug colony and shoot the model predator

117 forwards 200cm. Care was taken to ensure the model predator approached each colony at a

118 consistent speed of approximately 2 ms^{-1}. The apparatus was placed 50cm to the right of the

119 colony and the model predator would reach the colony at a consistent angle and height (50 cm)

120 from the sea floor (Figure 1). The apparatus was weighed down with two pairs of 2kg weights

121 attached with cable ties so that it did not move in the current or when force was applied to

122 propel the model predator towards the colony. All experiments were conducted while

123 snorkeling at depths ranging from 160 and 330cm.

124 *Experimental procedures*

125 A colony was located and in preparation for the assay the apparatus was placed to the right of

126 the coral head facing directly downstream of the current tidal flow (Figure 1). After a period of

127 10 min the experimenter would then place two Panasonic LUMIX underwater HD cameras 1.5m

128 from the coral and start the film. One camera would film from the left side and one from

129 directly in front of the colony (Figure 1). The experimenter would then stand still at the end of

130 the apparatus for 5 min to allow the colony to resume normal foraging behaviour before pulling

131 the fishing line and propelling the model predator towards the colony. Pilot tests confirmed

132   that 5min was ample time for the fish to resume normal feeding behaviour. The experimenter

133   then stayed still for the next 2 min before moving to stop the film on both cameras.

134   *Data Collection*

135   The videos from both cameras were converted from .wmv to .avs format with

136   DirectShowSource. The .avs files were then opened with VirtualDub (v 1.9.11) and the video

137   was converted from 15 frames per second to 1 frame per second. The footage 60 sec before

138   and 60 sec after the fright stimulus was exported as a stack of 120 individual .jpeg images and

139   opened with imageJ (Image Processing and Analysis in Java, version 1.48, 2014). Here the

140   number of fish that were outside of the coral head were counted for each frame. A fish was

141   considered outside of the coral head if its whole body could be seen without any coral

142   obstructing its body. This was done for both camera angles and the largest value from either

143   camera angle was considered as the maximum number of fish emerged at that frame. This

144   value was then divided by the total number of fish in the colony to give a proportion of fish

145   emerged from the coral head every frame.

146   *Data Analysis*

147   <u>Do tide and shoal size affect mean emergence?</u>

148   A linear mixed effects (LME) model was used to assess whether the fright stimulus was

149   effective, by evaluating the effect of stage (before or after the stimulus) on the proportion of

150   fish emerged. To control for the repeated-measures nature of the data (each shoal was

151   assessed multiple times), we included shoal identity as the random factor in the model.

152   Throughout our analysis, proportion emerged was arcsin transformed to meet the assumptions

153   of normality, which was assessed through visual inspection of quantile-quantile plots and plots

154   of standardised residuals against fitted values.

155   We used linear mixed effects models to assess the effect of tide (high/low), group size and their

156   interaction on the proportion of fish emerged from the coral head during the 60 seconds before

157   and the 60 seconds after the fright stimulus. Non-significant interactions were removed

158   following Crawley (2005) and only main effects are presented here.

159

160   <u>Does the emergence pattern vary as a function of shoal size and tide?</u>

161   Next, we assessed whether the pattern of emergence from the coral head differed depending

162   on shoal size and tide. For each shoal, we calculated the mean and maximum proportion of the

163   shoal that had emerged from the coral head by 5 time points after the stimulus: 5, 10, 15, 30

164   and 60 seconds. We also calculated the time at which the maximum emergence for each time

165   category was reached. We used linear mixed effects models to assess the effect of tide, shoal

166   size, time and their interactions on the response variables, which were arcsin transformed to

167   meet the assumptions of normality, assessed through visual inspection of plots as above. Shoal

168   identity was included as the random factor. For analysis, shoal size was included as a

169   continuous variable, but for visualization of interactions, shoal size was also converted into a

170   categorical variable (small: ≤ 8 fish and large: ≥ 9 fish), to give approximately equal numbers of

171   shoals in the small and large category. Both analyses are presented here (Table 1).

172   All analysis was performed in R v 2.13.0 (R Development Core Team (2011)) with the lme4

173   package (Bates et al 2011).

174

175   **Results**

176   *Do tide and shoal size affect mean emergence?*

177   The fright stimulus was effective in causing fish to hide: there was a significant effect of stage

178   (before/after) on the proportion emerged (t = 58.852, df = 6719, p < 0.001, effect size =

179   0.461±0.008), which was lower in the minute after the stimulus than in the minute before the

180   stimulus (Figure 2). There was no effect of either shoal size (t = -0.625, df = 53, p = 0.535, effect

181   size = -0.004±0.006) or tide (t = -0.945, df = 53, p = 0.349, effect size = -0.049±0.052) on the

182   proportion of fish emerged from the coral head before the fright stimulus, and no interaction.

183   After the fright stimulus, however, both shoal size (t = 4.214, df = 53, p < 0.001, effect size =

184   0.027±0.006) and tide (t = -2.470, df = 53, p = 0.017, effect size =0.142±0.057), but not their

185   interaction, affected the proportion of fish emerged from the coral head. After the stimulus, a

186   greater proportion emerged at high tide (Figure 2, 3) and in larger groups (Figure 3) than at low

187   tide or in smaller groups, respectively.

188   *Does the emergence pattern vary as a function of shoal size and tide?*

189   There was a significant effect of tide, and a significant interaction between time and shoal

190   size on mean emergence (table 1a), suggesting that mean emergence is lower at low tide

191   (figure 4a), and that this increases over time, but does so faster in larger shoals (table 1b,

192   figure 4b). For maximum emergence, there was a significant effect of shoal size (table 1c),

193   with maximum emergence increasing with shoal size, and a significant interaction between

194   time and tide (table 1c, figure 4c). Maximum emergence increased over time, but at a more

195   rapid rate at low tide (figure 4c). There was no effect of tide on the time that maximum

196   emergence is reached, but there was an interaction between shoal size and time, with

197   smaller shoals reaching maximum emerged more rapidly than larger shoals (table 1d, e,

198   figure 4d).

199

200   **Discussion**

201   The results show that group movement behavior was affected by environmental factors,

202   including those that vary temporally. All shoals showed similar levels of emergence before the

203   fright stimulus, regardless of shoal size and the state of the tide, and the fright stimulus was

204   effective in reducing the proportion of the colony outside of the coral head in the immediate

205   aftermath of the simulated attack. Both tide and shoal size affected how the fish responded to

206   the fright stimulus with a greater proportion of the colony emerging at high tide (when food

207   availability is highest) and in larger groups (where predation risk is likely reduced).

208   Humbug damselfish, like many animals who live under threat of attack, appear to act as risk

209   balancers (Pitcher et al. 1988), emerging more quickly from their refuge when in larger groups

210   and when there is more food. It is probable that humbug damselfish were less affected by the

211   perceived risk of the fright stimulus at high tide as they traded off the risk of predation for the

212   increased foraging opportunities at high tide, and indeed in this experiment fish were more

213   polarized in the water column and seemed to be feeding more actively and at a greater rate

214   during high tide, when we know plankton density is greatest (Forrester 1991).

215   Considering all three response variables (mean emergence, maximum emergence and time to

216   maximum emergence) both shoal size and tide were important in determining the pattern of

217   emergence behaviour after the fright stimulus. Smaller shoals reached their maximum

218   proportion emerged faster than larger shoals did, although this is likely to be a result of fewer

219   of them emerging in total, hence the number being reached faster. As expected the maximum

220   proportion of shoal emerged was greater for larger shoals and, crucially, shoal size was also

221   important in determining the pattern of emergence, with the mean proportion of shoal

222   emerged increasing over time faster in larger shoals. There is initially little effect of shoal size

223   on mean emergence at early time points, straight after the fright stimulus, however, the

224   difference increased as time progressed. A possible explanation for this is that as the mean

225   proportion of fish outside the coral head was a greater absolute number in larger groups, this

226   promoted the increased rate of emergence for the remaining fish as they perceived the

227   environment to be safer than if the absolute number of fish emerged was lower. This is

228   comparable to a social amplification effect and positive feedback found in fleeing response of

229   cockroaches, allowing larger groups to respond faster than smaller groups (Salazar et al. 2013).

230   Distinguishing between potential causes of this pattern of emergence, however, is problematic.

231   Although it may be that each individual's assessment of its own per capita risk was lower in

232   larger groups, it may be that larger groups assessed the potential predation risk more

233   accurately than smaller groups by a combination of division of vigilance and information

234   transfer (Morgan 1988; Ward et al. 2011). Larger groups are generally more effective at

235   collecting and integrating information and then using the information to make effective

236   decisions than smaller groups (Couzin 2009). These processes are not mutually exclusive,

237   however, and it is likely that a combination of increased group decision accuracy and the

238   dilution effect contributed to the observed pattern.

239   Tide was also an important factor determining the pattern of emergence following the fright

240   stimulus, with a higher mean proportion of the shoal emerging at high tide. The maximum

241   proportion of fish emerged increased over time at both tidal heights, and although it was

242   always greater at high tide, the rate of increase over time was faster at low tide. Once again,

243   this may be because the absolute number of maximum proportion emerged is lower at low

244   tide.

245   Whilst there is more food in the water column for fish at high tide, there is often also an

246   increase in predation threat, especially if high tide coincides with dawn or dusk (Munz and

247   McFarland 1973; Helfman 1986). In this experiment, there were certainly more predators active

248   during high tide, predominately large schools of piscivores such as spangled emperors

249   (*Lethrinus nebulosus*), and occasionally the damselfish made directed movements towards their

250   coral heads as large predatory fish swam past (Pers. obs.). Despite this increased predatory

251   threat at high tide, humbug damselfish still feed more at this time (Forrester 1991), which

252   suggests that feeding efficiency is large enough to overcome their tendency to display risk

253   sensitive behavior in the face of a threat. The tide affects the costs and benefits of many

254 behaviours as it significantly alters the environment, particularly for those that are inter-tidal or

255 living at shallow depths. Many of these species are group living, and the results of this

256 experiment highlight the importance of tidal effect on group movement properties.

257 Sixty seconds after the fright stimulus the proportion of fish outside of the coral head still had

258 not returned to the levels before the fright stimulus, regardless of tide or shoal size. We should

259 expect a gradual return to foraging activity levels, or perhaps even an increase to overcome the

260 opportunities lost whilst in hiding, however, this will increase in relation to the time passed

261 since the predation threat and depend on the severity of the threat and the likelihood of the

262 threat returning. Juvenile Atlantic salmon, 20 min after the predation threat, only returned to

263 33% of their pre-predator intake rates (Metcalfe et al. 1987). Although actual intake rates were

264 not calculated, humbug damselfish responded surprisingly quickly to the predation threat,

265 returning to a vulnerable position where foraging was once again possible. Perhaps it was

266 because they face constantly high levels of predation risk threat on the coral reef and have

267 adapted to recover from a threat quickly (particularly a false one) in order to achieve a

268 sufficient intake of energy. Guppies from environments with high levels of predation, for

269 example, are known to feed at greater rates and display greater tenacity after a predation

270 threat than guppies from low predation environments (Fraser and Gilliam 1987). Another

271 possible explanation for the fast nature of the damselfish's response to a predation threat is

272 that it is driven by competition for resources. If competition is high for resources, which is

273 probable in areas with a high predation threat, larger groups are expected to emerge faster

274 than smaller groups.

275   Inter-individual variation between damselfish (for example size) was not recorded in this study,

276   however, it is known that larger individuals feed further from the coral head than smaller

277   individuals (Forrester 1991; Pers. obs.) where they have first selection of preferred prey (Coates

278   1980) and this is strongly related to their linear dominance hierarchy. African cichlid fish,

279   *Melanochromis chipokae,* further from a shelter begin their retreat to safety before fish closer

280   to the shelter (Dill 1990) and in many bird species, the sequence of the resumption of feeding

281   after a predation threat follows the dominance hierarchy with subordinates emerging first

282   (Hegner 1985; Laet 1985; Hogstad 1988) (it is suggested that subordinance in these systems

283   may be strongly correlated with energetic need (Lima and Dill 1990)). Future research would do

284   well to focus on individual phenotypic variability within groups, how it interacts with

285   differences in internal state, and whether it can predict the first responder to a threat or how

286   information is transferred throughout the group. Humbug damselfish colonies are an

287   appropriate study system to answer these questions although a more advanced video

288   monitoring system, with higher frame rates and ideally automated multi-agent tracking, would

289   need to be employed to accurately measure phenotypically determined behavioural differences

290   between individuals within each shoal.

291   This experiment has tested how animal groups may adjust their behavior to meet the costs and

292   benefits produced by varying environmental stimuli. Specifically we show that humbug

293   damselfish colonies under natural environmental conditions responded to a predation threat by

294   adjusting their decision-making process in relation to the tide and shoal size. A greater

295   proportion of the colony emerge after the fright stimulus at high tide and they show evidence

296 of a social response in larger shoals with a greater proportion of the colony emerging in larger

297 shoals and the mean proportion of the shoal emerging at a faster rate in larger shoals. This is

298 the first study, to the authors' knowledge, to show that shoals of fish change their collective

299 behavioural response to a predation threat in accordance with the tide. The humbug damselfish

300 system has previously been used to explore the mechanisms of group movement decisions

301 (Mann et al. 2013; Ward et al. 2013), however, this finding, that the state of the tide affects

302 emergence behaviour, allows us to conduct new experiments to further our understanding of

303 the effect of risk sensitivity on decision-making and information transfer - whilst simultaneously

304 controlling for inter-group differences by performing repeated measures on the same group at

305 different times when costs and benefits vary. This study has furthered our understanding of

306 how social interactions and environmental heterogeneities can affect group behavior and,

307 crucially, has shown the capability and importance of testing emergent group properties in the

308 field.

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414   **Table legends**

415   Table 1: Linear mixed effects models assessing the effect of time, tide and shoal size on mean
416   emergence (a, b), maximum emergence (c) and time to maximum emergence (d, e). Shoal size
417   is included as a continuous variable (a, c, d) and as a categorical variable (b, e) where it is
418   involved in a significant interaction effect.

	Fixed effect	Value	Std Error	DF	t	p
a) Mean emergence (figure 4a)						
	Time	<-0.001	0.001	222	-0.078	0.938
	Tide	-1.556	0.053	53	-2.942	**0.005**
	Shoal Size	0.008	0.006	53	1.300	0.199
	Time*Shoal Size	<0.001	<0.001	222	7.008	**<0.001**
b) Mean emergence (categorical shoal size; figure 4b)						
	Time	0.004	<0.001	222	12.037	**<0.001**
	Tide	-0.160	0.056	53	-2.839	**0.006**
	Shoal Size	-0.034	0.058	53	-0.598	0.555
	Time*Shoal Size	-0.002	0.001	222	-3.412	**<0.001**
c) Maximum emergence (figure 4c)						
	Time	0.008	0.001	222	11.053	**<0.001**
	Tide	-2.279	0.082	53	-3.383	**0.001**
	Shoal Size	0.025	0.009	53	2.774	**0.008**
	Time*Tide	0.002	0.001	222	2.358	**0.019**
d) Time to maximum emergence						
	Time	0.050	0.005	222	10.936	**<0.001**
	Tide	0.090	0.098	53	0.922	0.361
	Shoal Size	0.085	0.015	53	5.559	**<0.001**
	Time*Shoal Size	-0.001	0.000	222	-2.725	**0.007**
e) Time to maximum emergence (categorical shoal size, figure 4d)						
	Time	0.034	0.004	222	12.146	**<0.001**
	Tide	0.073	0.114	53	0.637	0.527
	Shoal Size	-0.524	0.148	53	-3.543	**<0.001**
	Time*Shoal Size	0.0103	0.004	222	2.649	**0.009**

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422

423 **Figure legends**

a.

150cm
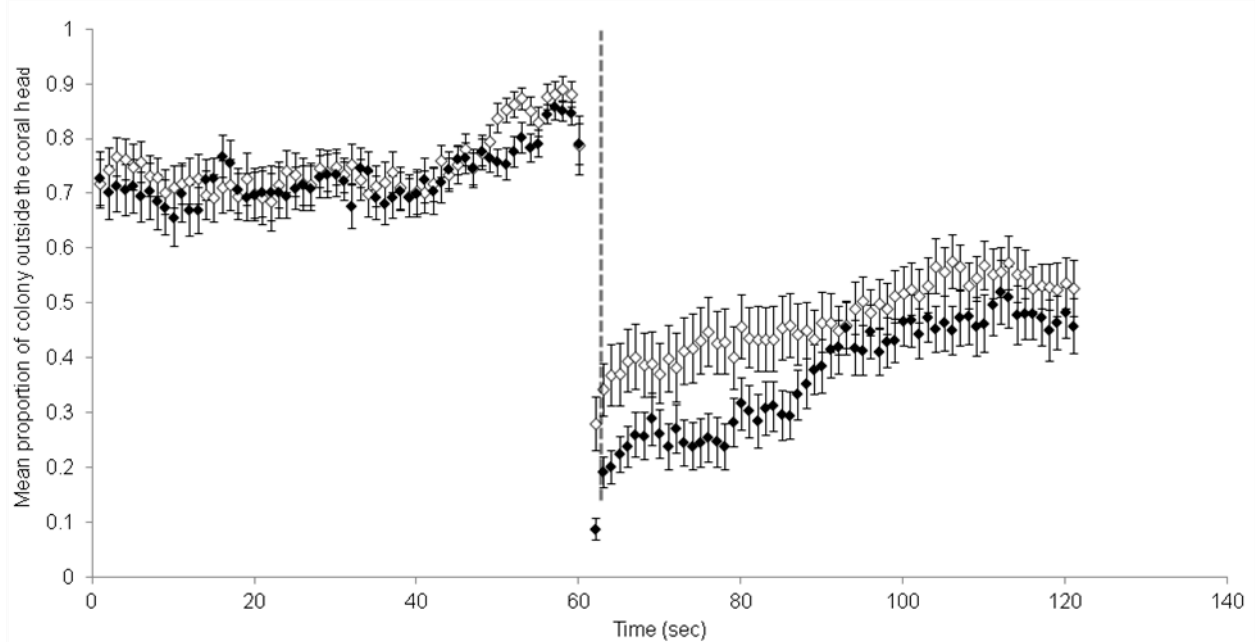
50cm

150cm

current

250cm

75cm

b.

50cm

250cm
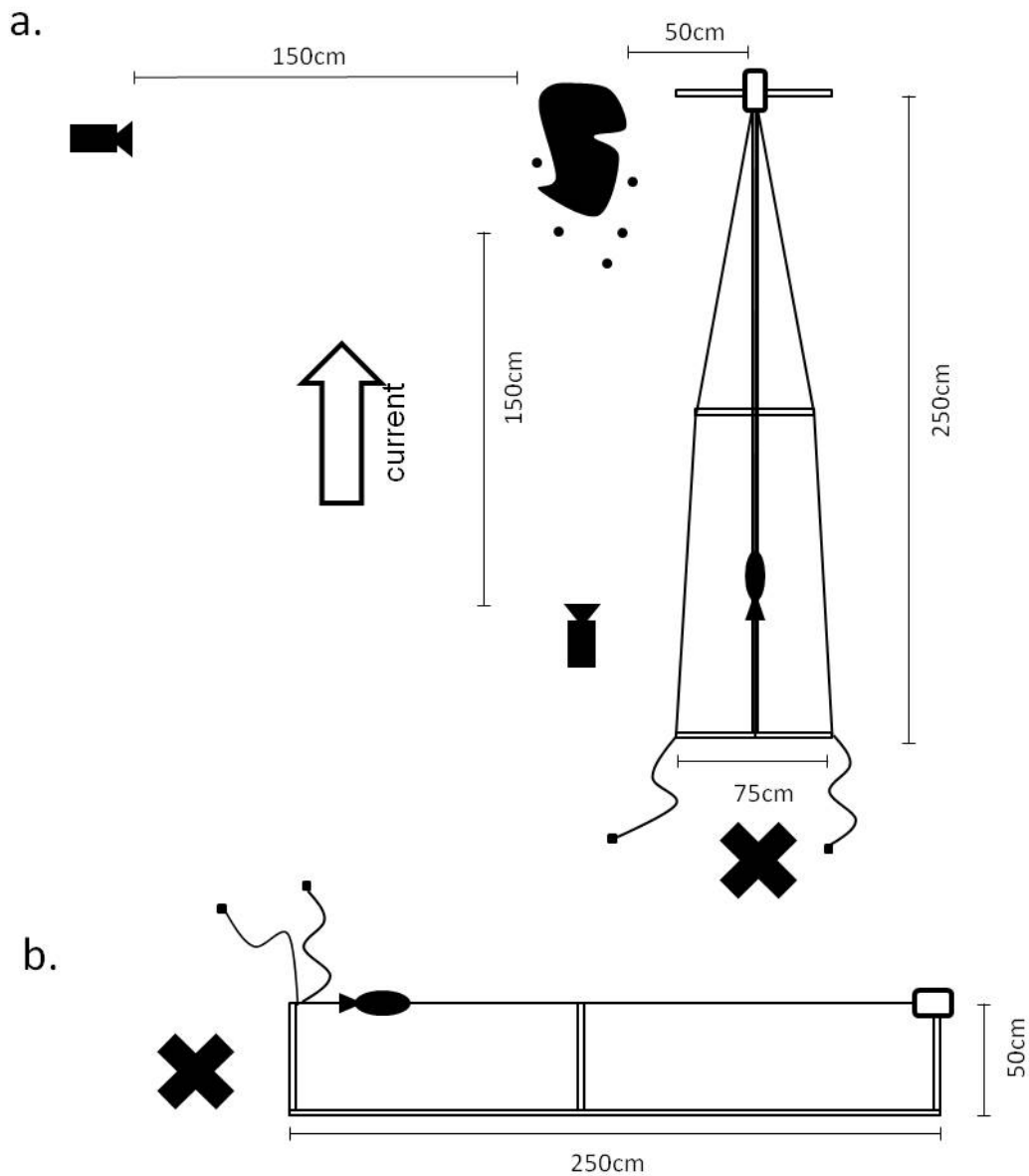
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425 Figure 1. Diagram of experimental set-up showing placement of the fright stimulus apparatus in

426 a.) aerial and b.) profile perspectives in relation to the direction of the current and position of

427 the coral head (irregular black shape, dots represent fish), cameras and position of

428 experimenter (X).

429

430   Figure 2. The mean proportion of the colony that is outside of the coral head at each frame (1

431   frame per sec) 60 sec before and 60 sec after the fright stimulus. The dotted black line

432   represents the time at which the fright stimulus reached the colony. Empty markers markers

433   represent the mean of colonies assayed at high tide, filled markers represent the mean of the

434   colonies assayed at low tide. Error bars are standard error of the mean.

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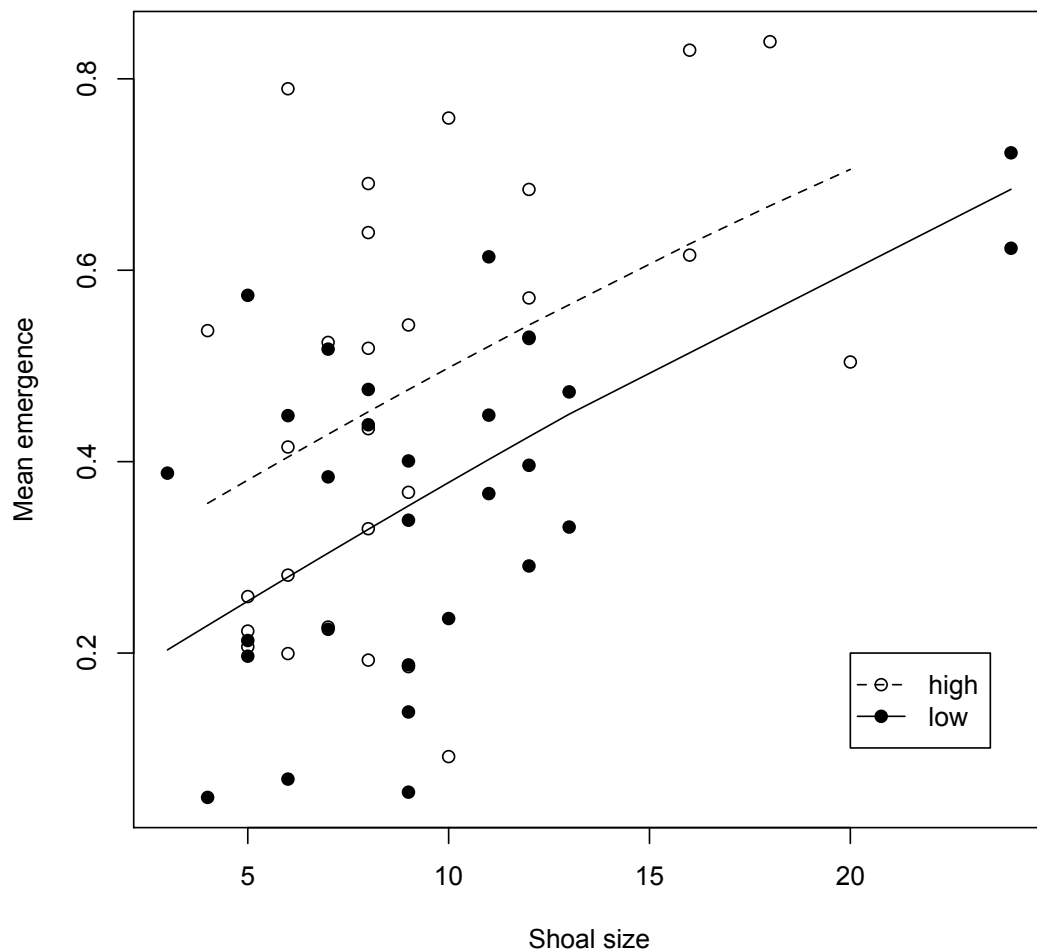
437

438   Figure 3. The mean proportion of fish emerged as a function of shoal size, at high (open circles,
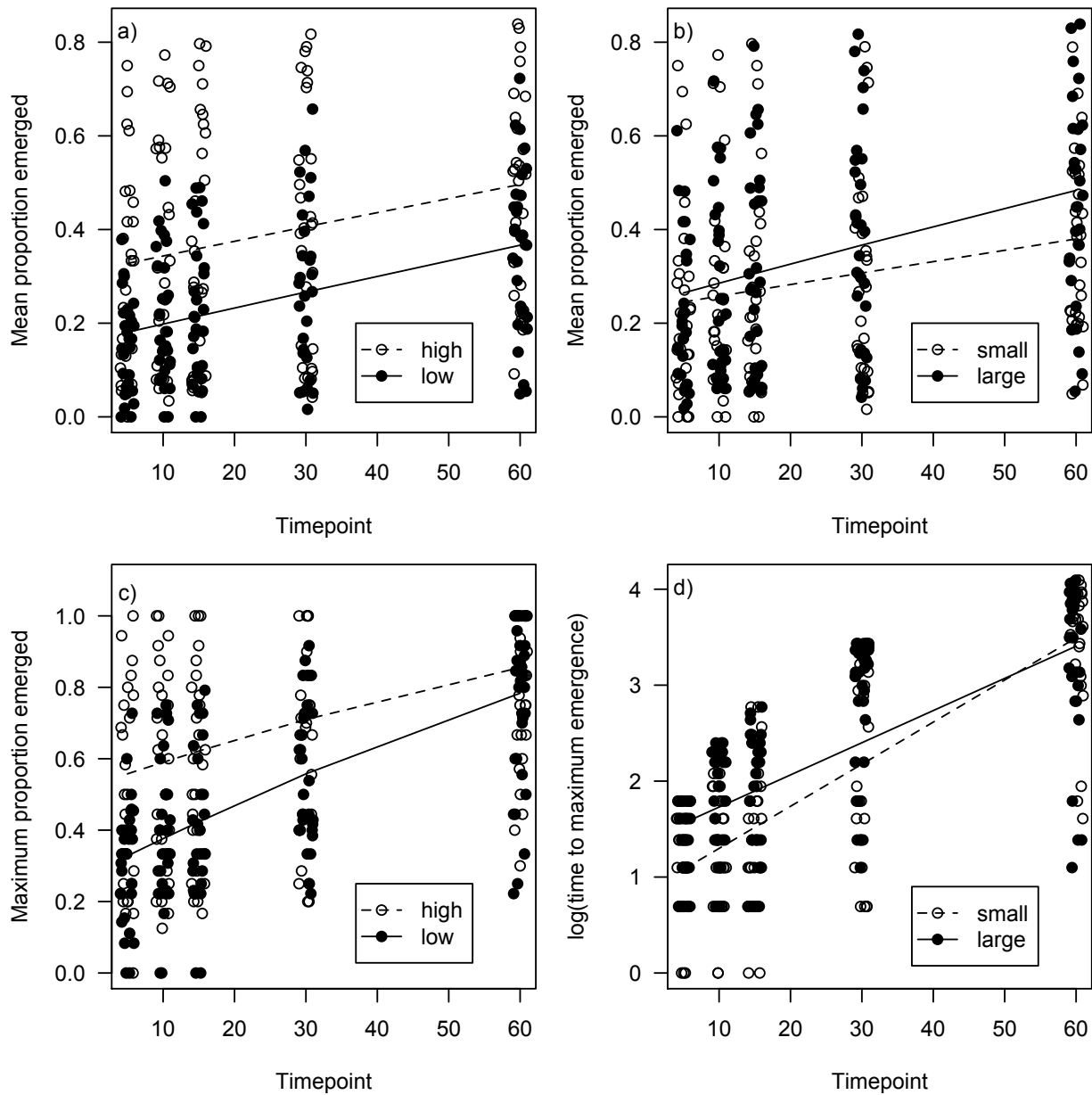
439   dashed line) and low (filled circles, solid line) tide. Fit lines are extracted from a linear model

440   assessing the effect of shoal size and tide on the mean proportion emergence (arcsin

441   transformed) for each shoal (tide: t = -2.502, p = 0.015, shoal size: t = 4.354, p < 0.001).

442

443

Figure 4. The mean (a, b), maximum (c) and time to maximum (d) proportion of fish emerged from the coral head. Data are presented as a function of time, at high (open circles, dashed line) and low (filled circles, solid line) tide (a, c), and in small (open circles, dashed line) and large (filled circles, solid line) shoals (b, d).