

**“Hits” emerge through self-organized coordination in collective response of free agents**Anindya S. Chakrabarti<sup>1</sup> and Sitabhra Sinha<sup>2,3</sup><sup>1</sup>*Economics area, Indian Institute of Management, Vastrapur, Ahmedabad 380015, India*<sup>2</sup>*The Institute of Mathematical Sciences, CIT Campus, Taramani, Chennai 600113, India*<sup>3</sup>*National Institute of Advanced Studies, Indian Institute of Science Campus, Bangalore 560012, India*

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Individuals in free societies frequently exhibit striking coordination when making independent decisions *en masse*. Examples include the regular appearance of hit products or memes with substantially higher popularity compared to their otherwise equivalent competitors or extreme polarization in public opinion. Such segregation of events manifests as bimodality in the distribution of collective choices. Here we quantify how apparently independent choices made by individuals result in a significantly polarized but stable distribution of success in the context of the box-office performance of movies and show that it is an emergent feature of a system of noninteracting agents who respond to sequentially arriving signals. The aggregate response exhibits extreme variability amplifying much smaller differences in individual cost of adoption. Due to self-organization of the competitive landscape, most events elicit only a muted response but a few stimulate widespread adoption, emerging as “hits”.

DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevE.94.042302](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevE.94.042302)**I. INTRODUCTION**

Complex systems often exhibit nontrivial patterns in the collective (macro) behavior arising from the individual (micro) actions of many agents [1,2]. Despite the high degree of variability in the characteristics of the individuals comprising a group, it is sometimes possible to observe robust empirical regularities in the system properties [3–5]. The existence of inequality in individual success, often measured by wealth or popularity, is one such universal feature [6]. While agents differ in terms of individual attributes, these can only partly explain the degree of this inequality [7]. The outcomes often have a heavy-tailed distribution with a much higher range of variability than that observed in the intrinsic qualities. Apart from the well-known Pareto law for income (or wealth) [8,9], other examples include distributions of popularity for books [10], electoral candidates [11], online content [12], and scientific paradigms [13].

Another form of inequality may be observed in distribution of outcomes having a strongly *bimodal* character. Here events are clearly segregated into two distinct classes, e.g., corresponding to successes and failures, respectively. While such distributions have been reported in many different contexts, e.g., gene expression [14], species abundance [15,16], wealth of nations [17], electoral outcomes [18,19], etc., one of the most robust demonstrations of bimodality is seen in the distribution of movie box-office success [20]. Here success is measured in terms of either the gross income  $G_O$  at the opening weekend or the total gross  $G_T$  calculated over the lifetime (i.e., the entire duration that a movie is shown) at theaters. Figures 1(a) and 1(b) show that both of these distributions constructed from publicly available data for movies released in USA during the period 1997–2012 are described well by a mixture of two log-normal distributions. Although the movie industry has changed considerably during this time, the characteristic properties of the distributions appear to remain invariant over the successive intervals comprising the period. The log-normal character can be explained by the probability of movie success being a product of many independent

chance factors [21], and is indeed observed in the unimodal distribution of opening income per theater  $g_O$  [Fig. 1(c)]. However, the clear distinction of movies into two classes in terms of their box-office performance (as indicated by the occurrence of two modes in the  $G_O$  and  $G_T$  distributions) does not appear to be simply related to their intrinsic attributes [22]. The fact that bimodality is manifested at the very beginning of a movie’s life also suggests that the extreme divergence of outcomes cannot be fully attributed to social learning occurring over time as a result of diffusion of information about movie quality [23] (e.g., by word-of-mouth [24]). We also emphasize that the bimodal behavior is extremely robust and existed even before the advent of social media, which plays a major role in word-of-mouth dynamics [25]. Thus, while there have been theoretical attempts to explain the emergence of bimodality by assuming specific forms of interactions between agents [26], it is of interest to see if bimodal popularity distributions can arise without explicit agent-agent interactions.

In this paper, we present a model for understanding the collective response of a system of agents to successive external shocks, where the behavior of each agent is the result of a decision process independent of other agents. Even in the absence of explicit interaction among agents, the system can exhibit remarkable coordination, characterized by the appearance of a strong bimodality in its response. For the specific example of box-office success, the bimodal nature of the gross income distributions appears to be connected to the fact that movies usually open in either many or very few theaters. Therefore, we focus on explaining the appearance of a bimodal distribution for the number of theaters  $N_O$  in which movies open [Fig. 1(d)]. Similar to how the observed invariant properties of financial markets can be reproduced by agents interacting indirectly through their response to a common signal (price) [27], our model comprises agents (theaters) that do not explicitly interact with each other but whose actions achieve coherence by the regular arrival of a global stimulus, viz., new movies being introduced in the market. By contrast, decoherence is induced by the uncertainty under which each agent independently makes a decision on whether to switch

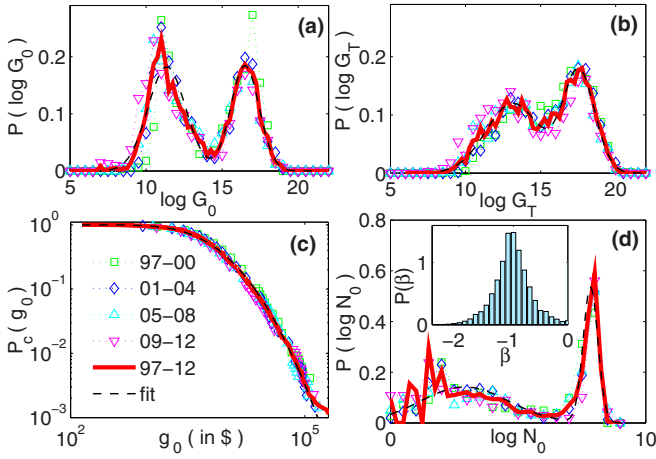


FIG. 1. Empirical demonstration of bimodality in movie popularity measured in terms of (a) opening income  $G_O$  and (b) total lifetime income  $G_T$  of movies in theaters over successive intervals from 1997–2012 (indicated by different symbols). The data are fit by superposition of two log-normal distributions (broken curve). The cumulative distribution of the opening income per theater  $g_O = G_O/N_O$  over the same period is shown in (c). A fit with log-normal distribution is also indicated (broken curve). (d) The bimodal character of (a) and (b) can be connected to the bimodality observed in the distribution of the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  (i.e., the total number of theaters in which a new movie is released). The inset shows the distribution of exponents  $\beta$  characterizing the power-law decay of the weekly income per theater ( $g_t \sim g_O t^\beta$ ) for all movies. Note that all logarithms are to base  $e$ .

to exhibiting the new movie or not. We show that these competing effects can result in the appearance of bimodality in the distributions of  $N_O$ , and consequently,  $G_O$  and  $G_T$ , where the success of a particular movie cannot be simply connected to its perceived quality prior to release nor to its actual performance on opening. Under a suitable approximation, we have analytically solved the model and obtained closed form expressions for the peaks of the resulting multimodal distribution that match our numerical results. An important implication of our study is that the box-office performance of a movie is crucially dependent on whether it is released close in time to a highly successful one, which supports the popular wisdom that correctly timing the opening of a movie determines its fate at box office.

The paper is structured as follows. In the next section, we discuss the empirical data on movie income and its analysis in detail, while the model is introduced in Sec. III. Section IV describes the results, where we also show the robustness of the bimodality obtained by looking at several variants of the basic model. In addition, we provide an analytical explanation for the emergence of bimodality in the model. We conclude with a discussion of the implications of our findings in Sec. V.

## II. DATA ANALYZED

### A. Data description

Income distributions are computed from publicly available data (obtained from *The Movie Times* website [28]) on box-office performance of movies released in the United States

TABLE I. Values of log-normal distribution parameters for different aggregate variables in the empirical data estimated by maximum likelihood procedure.

Variable	Distribution type	$\alpha$	$\mu_1$	$\mu_2$	$\sigma_1$	$\sigma_2$
$N_O$	Bimodal	0.61	2.91	7.84	1.72	0.29
$G_O$	Bimodal	0.57	11.36	16.49	1.24	0.94
$G_T$	Bimodal	0.54	13.16	17.55	1.80	1.05
$g_O$	Unimodal		8.72		1.02	
$N_{\max}$	Bimodal	0.61	4.01	7.83	1.71	0.27

of America over a span of 16 years (1997–2012). Gross income over all theaters within the USA are considered and the data are inflation-adjusted with respect to 2010 as base year. To determine the time invariance of the nature of income distribution, the total time period has been divided into four intervals, viz., 1997–2000, 2001–2004, 2005–2008, and 2009–2012. The total number of movies for which opening weekend gross income  $G_O$  data is available in each of these intervals is 673, 1240, 1444, and 1226, respectively, while total income  $G_T$  (i.e., box-office receipts over the entire period that a movie was shown in theaters) is available for 1160, 1240, 1444, and 1226 movies in each of these intervals, respectively. Note that a movie is associated with the calendar year in which it was released in theaters within the USA. Time series of box-office income has been obtained from *The Movie Times* site [28] for a total of 4568 movies over the period July 1998 to July 2012. To obtain opening weekend income per theater  $g_O$ , the gross opening income  $G_O$  is divided by the number of movie theaters  $N_O$  in which the movie is released in its opening week.

### B. Fitting procedures and statistical tests

The aggregate variables  $N_O$ ,  $G_O$ , and  $G_T$  are fit with bimodal log-normal distributions, i.e., a mixture of two log-normal distributions with parameters  $\mu_1, \sigma_1$  and  $\mu_2, \sigma_2$ , that are weighted by factors  $\alpha$  and  $1 - \alpha$ , respectively. The unimodal distribution of opening income per theater,  $g_O$ , has been fit with a log-normal distribution having parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . The maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) of the parameters for the empirical distributions of  $N_O$ ,  $G_O$ ,  $G_T$ , and  $g_O$  are shown in Table I. Hartigan’s dip test [29] for multimodality has been performed on the data for  $N_O$ ,  $G_O$ , and  $G_T$  and unimodality is rejected at 5% significance level. By contrast, unimodality for the distribution of  $g_O$  is not rejected by the test. The time series of movie income,  $g_t$ , has been fit to the general form  $g_t \sim g_O t^\beta$  by a regression procedure carried out over all movies that were shown in theaters for at least 5 weeks.

### C. Robustness of empirical features

To see whether the qualitative features of the results of empirical analysis are robust, we have also looked at variables other than  $N_O$ ,  $G_O$ ,  $G_T$ , and  $g_O$ . For example, if we consider instead of the opening number of theaters  $N_O$ , the largest number of theaters  $N_{\max}$  that a movie is shown simultaneously at any time following its release, its distribution also shows a bimodal nature and can be fit by a superposition of two

log-normal distributions Also, instead of considering only the opening income per theater  $g_O$ , we have looked at the distribution of income per theater of a movie at any given week following its release, which is seen to be qualitatively similar to  $g_O$  and can be fit by a unimodal log-normal distribution.

### III. THE MODEL

We consider a system comprising  $N$  agents (theaters or theater chains) subjected to external stimuli (entry of new movies into the market) that have to choose a response, i.e., whether or not to adopt a new movie, displacing the one being shown. At any time instant  $t$ , this decision depends on a comparison between the perceived performance of the new movie and the actual performance of the movie being shown at the theater [Fig. 2(a)]. For simplicity, we assume that a single new movie is up for release at each time instant  $t$ , thus allowing each movie to be identified by the corresponding value of  $t$ . Allowing multiple movies to be released together does not qualitatively change the results. The state of a theater at any time is indicated by the identity of the movie it screens at that time [Fig. 2(b)]. The performance of a movie  $t'$  at time  $t$  can be quantified by the estimated income per theater,  $g^t$ , which is related to its opening value  $g'_O$  by a scaling relation  $g^t = g'_O(t - t')^{\beta_s}$ . This relation is partly inspired by the empirical observation [Fig. 1(d), inset] that the weekly income per theater for a movie decays as a power-law function of the number of weeks after its release, characterized by exponent  $\beta$  [20]. One can also interpret  $\beta_s$  as a subjective

discount factor employed by the agents to estimate the future income of a movie based on its present income. For simplicity, most results presented here are for  $\beta_s = 0$ . We also show that other choices of  $\beta_s$  yield qualitatively similar results. Note that the model does not assume any competition for audience between theaters showing the same movie (i.e., the demand is perfectly inelastic in terms of theaters) as the empirical data suggests that the income per theater of a movie is relatively independent of the number of theaters in which it opens.

#### A. Information available to agents

As agents are exposed to similar information about a movie that is up for release, they can have a common perception about its performance, measured as its predicted opening income per theater,  $\theta_t$ . This is chosen at each time step from a distribution that is identical to that of  $g'_O$ . In fact, if the agents had perfect foresight, this prediction would be identical to the actual opening income of the movie  $g'_O$ , which would have resulted in either a movie releasing in all theaters or not being released in any theater. In general, however, predictions are rarely accurate [30] and the results shown here are obtained for the case when the predicted income  $\theta_t$  is independent of the realized income  $g'_O$ . We later show that the qualitative behavior of the model is unchanged even when  $\theta_t$  is correlated with  $g'_O$ .

#### B. Dynamics of the adoption process

At any time  $t$ , an agent  $i$  switches to the new movie if it decides that this move will result in a sufficiently high net gain  $z_t(i) = \theta_t - g^t(i)$ , measured as the difference between the predicted income of the new movie up for release and the income of the currently running movie. As  $\theta_t$  is log-normally distributed with the  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  of  $g_O$  estimated from empirical data (see Table I), we normalize  $z_t(i)$  by the mean of the distribution, viz.  $\exp(\mu + \sigma^2/2)$ . The action of switching (or not) is implemented by representing the probability of adopting the new movie as a hyperbolic response function [31] for positive net gain  $z_t(i)$ :

$$p_{i,t}[z_t(i)] = \begin{cases} \frac{z_t(i)}{C+z_t(i)} & \text{for } z_t(i) \geq 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where parameter  $C$  is the cost of adoption, incurred due to switching to a new movie. Such a functional form allows us to model probabilistic decision making under uncertainty by the agents. At the limit of extremely low adoption cost, i.e.,  $C \rightarrow 0$ , we recover a more deterministic switching behavior from Eq. (1), with the probability of adoption behaving as a step function as it changes from 0 to 1 around  $z = 0$ . Equation (1) allows us to calculate the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  for every new movie [Fig. 2(b)]. To obtain the opening income  $G_O$  of the movie over all theaters that release it,  $N_O$  is multiplied with the opening income per theater that is chosen from the log-normal distribution of  $g_O$  referred to earlier [Fig. 1(c)]. The subsequent decay of income per theater follows the empirical scaling relation with exponent  $\beta$  [20]. The total lifetime income of a movie  $G_T$  is obtained by aggregating this income for all theaters it is shown in, over the entire lifespan (i.e., from the time it is released until it is displaced from all theaters). The first few hundred time steps

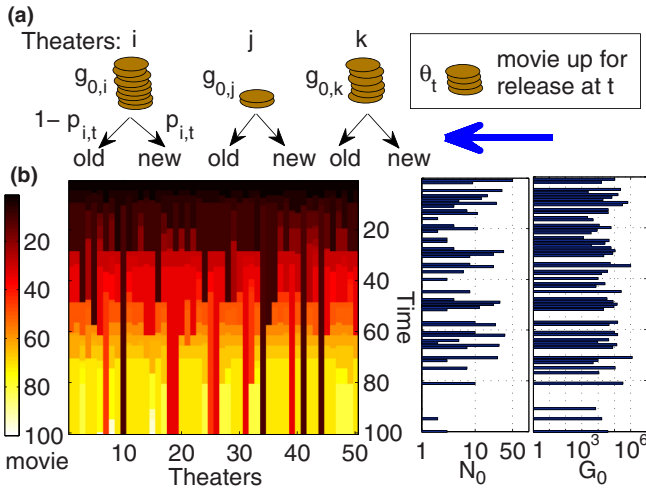


FIG. 2. (a) Schematic diagram of the stochastic decision process of agents (theaters  $i$ ,  $j$ , and  $k$ ) who can either continue with “old” (movie being shown) or switch to “new” (movie up for release) at any time instant  $t$ . The probability that an agent  $i$  will adopt the new movie,  $p_{i,t}$ , depends on a comparison of the perceived performance of that movie,  $\theta_t$ , to the actual performance of the movie being shown (which is related to its opening income  $g_{0,i}$ ). (b) Time evolution of a system comprising  $N = 50$  agents (theaters), the state of each agent at any time being the movie (colored according to the time of release) that it is showing. At every time instant, a new movie is available for release. The variable performance of these movies are indicated in terms of the number of theaters where they open ( $N_O$ ) and their opening income ( $G_O$ ).



of each simulation realization were considered to be transients and removed to avoid initial state dependent effects.

#### IV. RESULTS

##### A. Reproducing the bimodal distribution of movie income

As seen from Fig. 3, the system of  $N$  independent agents self-organize in the limit of low  $C$  to generate a bimodal distribution in their collective response. A new movie is either adopted by a majority [corresponding to the upper mode of the  $N_O$  distribution shown in Fig. 3(a)] or a small fraction [lower mode] of the total number of theaters. This translates into bimodal distributions in the opening income  $G_O$  and total lifetime income  $G_T$  [Figs. 3(b) and 3(c)], which qualitatively resemble the corresponding empirically obtained distributions (Fig. 1). To emphasize that bimodality in total income  $G_T$  is a consequence of the bimodal nature of the opening income, we show  $G_T$  as a function of the lifetime  $T$  in Fig. 3(d). We observe a bifurcation in  $G_T$  at higher values of  $T$ , indicating that movies having the same lifetime can have very different total income, a feature that is seen in empirical data (Figs. 4(a) and 4(b), see also Ref. [32]). Thus, our results suggest that the nature of box-office income distributions for movies can be understood as an outcome of the bimodal character of the distribution for the number of theaters that release a movie coupled with the unimodal log-normal distribution for the income per theater.

A verification of our model results with empirical data is provided by a comparison of the corresponding distributions of the lifetime of movies, i.e., the duration of their run in theaters. Figures 4(c) and 4(d) show that the two distributions

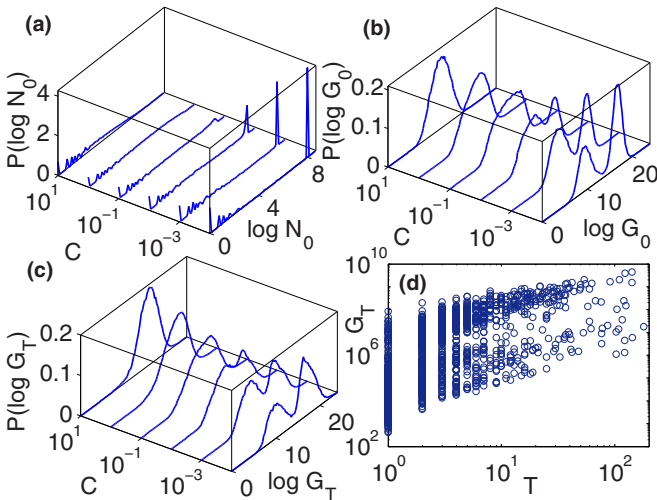


FIG. 3. A bimodal distribution emerges from independent decisions of  $N$  agents (theaters). Transition between bimodality and unimodality with parametric variation of the cost of adoption  $C$  is shown for the distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$ , (b) opening income  $G_O$ , and (c) total lifetime income  $G_T$  of movies. The results are obtained by averaging over 60 realizations with  $N = 3000$  agents. (d) The total income  $G_T$  earned by a movie as a function of its lifetime  $T$ , i.e., the duration of its run at theaters, shows that for higher values of  $T$ , the movies separate into two classes ( $C = 10^{-4}$ ).

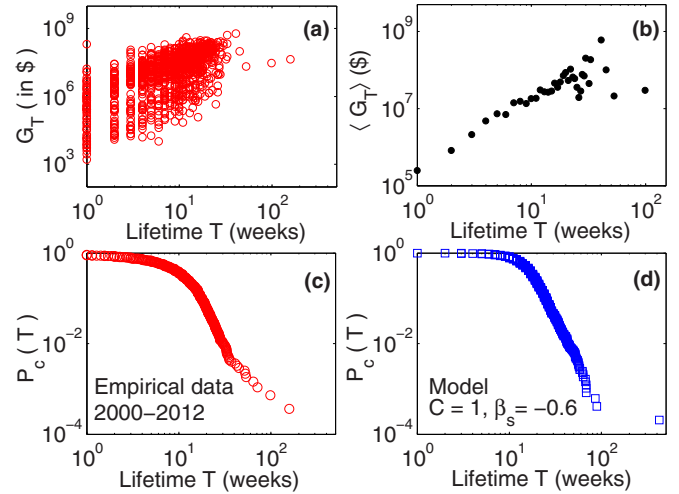


FIG. 4. (a) Total lifetime income  $G_T$  of movies released during 2000–2008 shown as a function of the number of weeks  $T$  that they were shown in theaters. (b) The average total gross  $\langle G_T \rangle$  corresponding to each value of  $T$ . At large values of  $T$ , we observe a divergence corresponding to a separation of the movies into two classes. (c) Complementary cumulative distribution of the lifetime  $T$  of movies, i.e., the duration of their run in theaters, for movies released during 2000–2012. (d) The corresponding distribution generated by the model system for  $N = 3000$  agents (theaters), cost of adoption  $C = 1$ , and subjective discount factor  $\beta_s = -0.6$ . Note that the shape of the distribution obtained from the model can be varied to an extent by changing the parameters  $C$  (that shifts the distribution along the horizontal axis) and  $\beta_s$  (which alters the slope).

are qualitatively similar. The shape of the lifetime distribution for the model can be varied to an extent by changing the cost of adoption  $C$  and the subjective discount factor  $\beta_s$ .

##### B. Transition to unimodality with increasing adoption cost

As the cost of adoption  $C$  is increased, the two modes approach each other until, at a large enough value of  $C$ , a transition to unimodal distribution for the quantities is observed [Figs. 3(a)–3(c)]. With increasing  $C$ , theaters are less likely to switch to a new movie, so that the time interval between two consecutive movie releases at a theater becomes extremely long. This weakens temporal correlations between the performance of movies being shown and that expected from new movies up for release. Thus, the decision to release each new movie eventually becomes an independent stochastic event described by a unimodal distribution.

##### C. Robustness of bimodality

For most simulations, we have chosen  $N = 3000$ , which accords with the maximum number of theaters in the empirical data. However, to verify that our results are not sensitively system-size dependent, we have checked that qualitatively similar behavior is observed for  $N$  up to  $10^6$  (Fig. 5).

While for most results reported here the subjective discount factor  $\beta_s = 0$ , we have verified that the results are qualitatively unchanged if  $\beta_s$  has a value different from 0. Figure 6 shows that even if  $\beta_s = -1$ , a transition from unimodality

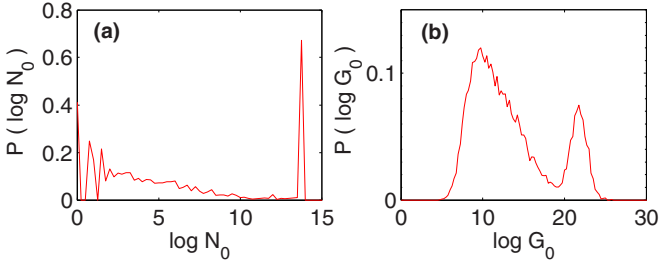


FIG. 5. Robustness of the model results with respect to variation in system size  $N$ , viz., increasing the number of agents to  $N = 10^6$ . The results are obtained by simulating the system with cost of adoption  $C = 10^{-4}$  for 500 iterations and averaging over 60 realizations. The bimodal nature of the distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  and (b) opening income  $G_O$  of movies is evident.

to bimodality occurs as seen earlier for  $\beta_s = 0$ , when the cost of adoption  $C$  is decreased.

The empirical data shows that the income per theater of all movies decay with time having an approximately power-law form  $g_t \sim g_0 t^\beta$  (Fig. 7). The value of the exponent  $\beta \approx -1$  on average (corresponding to the broken line in Fig. 7), which governs how the income per theater changes over time. This motivated our choice of  $\beta = -1$  in the basic model. Instead of all movies having exactly identical form of decay in the time evolution of their income per theater as in the basic model, we can consider that different movies are characterized by different values of the exponent  $\beta$ . In particular, we choose the values of  $\beta$  from a distribution that approximates the empirical distribution of  $\beta$  shown in Fig. 1(d, inset). Figure 8 shows that the results of the simulations of this variant model are qualitatively similar to that of the basic model, including the transition from unimodality to bimodality.

We have also verified that considering income aggregated over successive periods (instead of only the opening income) do not qualitatively change the results reported here. The model also shows very similar behavior if, instead of Eq. (1), we use other more complicated functional forms for the

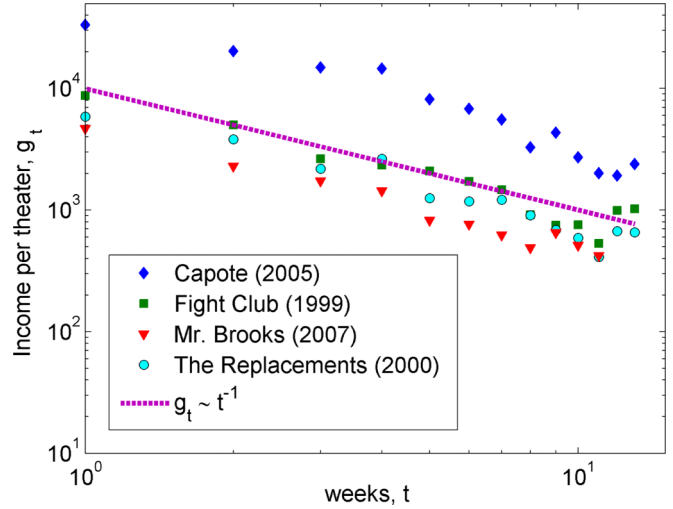


FIG. 7. The time evolution of the income per theater  $g$  of four movies that were released in theaters at various times during the period investigated here. The decay of  $g_t$  with  $t$  approximately fits a power-law form. The broken line corresponding to  $g_t \sim t^{-1}$  is shown for visual reference.

probabilistic choice functions, e.g.,

$$p_{i,t} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{z_t(i)}{2\sqrt{C + z_t(i)^2}}, \quad (2)$$

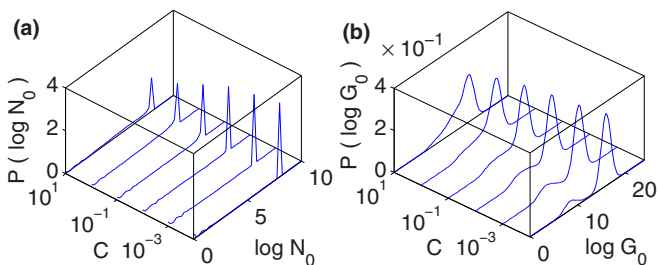


FIG. 6. Robustness of the model results with respect to a different choice of the subjective discount factor, viz.,  $\beta_s = -1$ . While the peaks at the lower value are smaller than the case of  $\beta_s = 0$  for both (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  and (b) opening income  $G_O$ , it can be observed that as the cost of adoption,  $C$ , is decreased, the nature of the distribution changes from unimodal to bimodal. Results are shown for  $N = 3000$  agents for  $10^4$  iterations and averaged over 60 realizations.

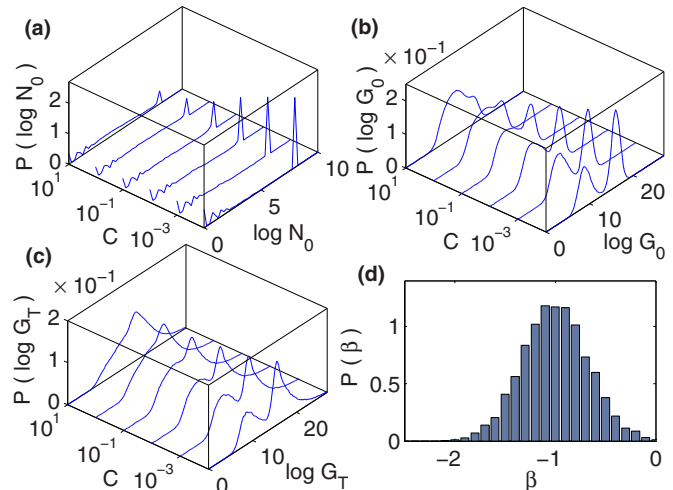


FIG. 8. Robustness of the model results with respect to heterogeneity in the nature of the temporal decay of the income per theater of different movies, viz., their decay exponents  $\beta$  being distributed approximately as the corresponding empirical distribution shown in Fig. 1(d, inset). Transition between bimodality and unimodality with parametric variation of the cost of adoption  $C$  is shown for the distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$ , (b) opening income  $G_O$ , and (c) total lifetime income  $G_T$  of movies. The results are obtained by simulating a system with  $N = 3000$  agents for  $10^4$  iterations and averaging over 60 realizations. The distribution of  $\beta$  for different movies for a particular simulation realization is shown in (d). The values are generated from a normal distribution with the same mean ( $\mu = -1$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma = 0.33$ ) as the empirical distribution of  $\beta$ .

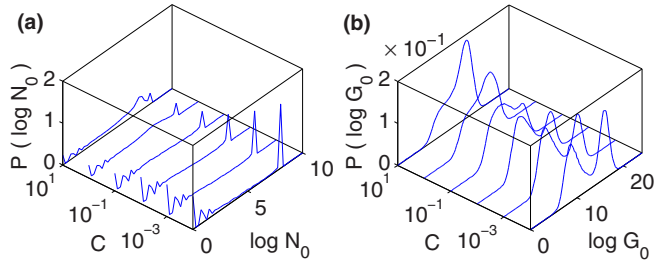


FIG. 9. Robustness of the model results with respect to use of a different functional form for the adoption rule, viz., having a sigmoidal character. Transition between bimodality and unimodality with parametric variation of the cost of adoption  $C$  is shown for the distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  and (b) opening income  $G_O$ , when Eq. (2) is used for the functional form representing the probability of adopting the new movie. The results are obtained by simulating a system with  $N = 3000$  agents for  $10^4$  iterations and averaging over 60 realizations.

which has a sigmoidal profile (Fig. 9). In addition, we have considered a variant model where the agents can make perfect prediction about the performance of a movie up for release so that  $\theta_i = g_O^i$ . Results are qualitatively similar to the basic model and bimodality is seen over a range of values of the cost parameter  $C$  (Fig. 10).

#### D. Analytical explanation of the emergence of bimodality

To understand the appearance of multiple peaks in the distribution of collective response in the limit of low cost of adoption, we observe that the system dynamics is characterized by two competing effects: (a) the stochastic decision process of the individual theaters tend to increasingly decorrelate their states, while (b) the occasional appearance of movies having high  $\theta$ , that are perceived by the agents to be potential box-office successes, induces high level of coordination in response as a majority of agents switches to a common state. This phenomenon of gradual divergence in agent states interrupted by sporadic “reset” events that largely synchronize the system allows us to use the following simplification of

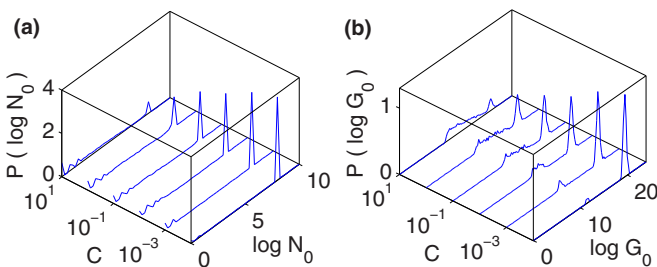


FIG. 10. Robustness of the model results when the agents (theaters) can exactly predict their income from a new movie up for release, i.e.,  $\theta = g_O$ . The distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  and (b) opening income  $G_O$  are unimodal when the cost of adoption  $C$  is low, as in this situation, a movie will either be adopted by all theaters or none at all. With increasing  $C$ , a distinct bimodal nature emerges in the distributions. Results are shown for  $N = 3000$  agents for  $10^4$  iterations and averaged over 60 realizations.

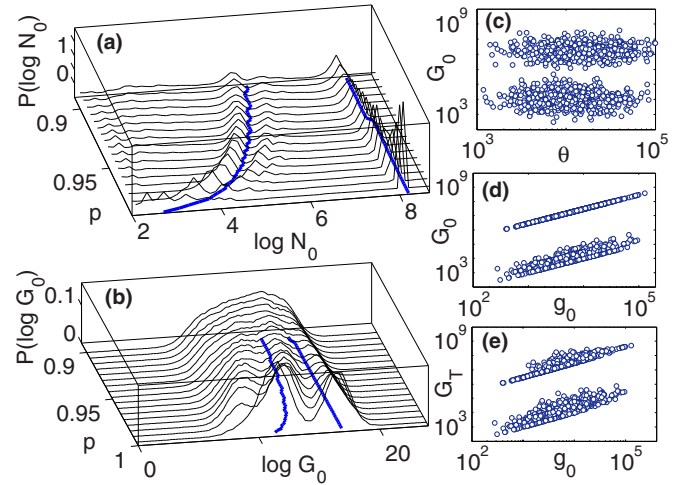


FIG. 11. Explaining the emergence of bimodal distribution in the limit of small cost of adoption ( $C \rightarrow 0$ ). The appearance of bimodality with parametric variation of the probability of adoption  $p$  is shown for the distributions of (a) the number of opening theaters  $N_O$  and (b) opening income  $G_O$ . As  $p \rightarrow 1$ , the approximation to the  $C \rightarrow 0$  limit becomes more accurate. The results are obtained by averaging over 60 realizations with  $N = 3000$  agents. The pair of thick lines in each figure indicate the theoretically predicted modes of the distributions (see text). (c–e) The variations of opening income  $G_O$  and total lifetime income  $G_T$  of a movie as functions of the perceived performance  $\theta$  and the actual performance (i.e., income per theater)  $g_O$  shows that neither  $\theta$  nor  $g_O$  completely determine  $G_O$  or  $G_T$  ( $p = 0.9995$ ).

the model for an analytical explanation. As  $C \rightarrow 0$ , we can approximate Eq. (1) by  $p_{i,t} = p$  for  $z_t(i) \geq 0$ , else  $p_{i,t} = 0$ , which becomes accurate in the limit  $p \rightarrow 1$ . Thus, when a reset event occurs, the decision of each agent is a Bernoulli trial with probability  $p$ , so that the number of theaters that adopt the new movie follows a binomial distribution with mean  $Np$  and variance  $Np(1-p)$ . In the limit  $p \rightarrow 1$  the variance becomes negligibly small and the distribution can be effectively replaced by its mean. This will correspond to a peak at  $N_O^u = Np$ , i.e., the higher mode.

A movie that immediately follows a reset event can result in different responses from the agents depending on the value of  $\theta$  associated with it. If this is larger than  $g^i$  of all theaters, it is yet another reset event, the response to which is the same as above. However, if  $\theta$  has a lower value that is nevertheless large enough to cause those theaters [ $\simeq N(1-p)$ ] that had not switched in the previous reset event to adopt the new movie with probability  $p$ , we obtain another peak at  $N_O^l = Np(1-p)$ . This corresponds to the lower mode of the distribution. As seen from Fig. 11(a), the two peaks of  $N_O$  distribution are accurately reproduced by  $N_O^u$  and  $N_O^l$ . In principle, the above argument can be extended to show that a series of peaks at successively smaller values of  $N_O$  can exist at  $Np(1-p)^2$ ,  $Np(1-p)^3$ , etc., but these will not be observed for the system size we consider here. The bimodal log-normal distribution of opening income  $G_O$  results from a convolution of the multip peaked distribution for  $N_O$  with the log-normal distribution for  $g_O$  (having parameters  $\mu, \sigma$ ). The two modes of this distribution are calculated as

$G_O^{u,l} = \exp(\mu + \log N_O^{u,l})$ , which matches remarkably well with the numerical simulations of the model [Fig. 11(b)].

While the individual behavior of agents are obviously dependent on the intrinsic properties (such as  $\theta$ ) associated with specific stimuli, the collective behavior of the system cannot be reduced to a simple threshold-like response to external signals. Figure 11(c) shows that the opening income of different movies, which are segregated into two distinct clusters, are not simply determined by their perceived performance  $\theta$ , as one can find movies belonging to either cluster for any value of this quantity. Given that  $\theta$  is only a prediction of the opening performance of a movie by the agents, and it need not coincide with reality, one may argue that the actual performance, i.e., the opening income per theater  $g_O$ , will be the key factor determining the aggregate income of the movie. However, Figs. 11(d) and 11(e) show that neither the opening income nor the total lifetime income (both of which show clear separation into two clusters) can be explained as a simple function of the actual opening performance of the movie at a theater.

## V. DISCUSSION

Our results explain box-office success as an outcome of competition between movies, where a new movie seeks to open at as many theaters as possible by displacing the older ones. Using an ecological analogy, a movie with high perceived performance invades and occupies a large number of niches until it is displaced later by a strong competitor. Thus, highly successful movies rarely coexist. This also implies that the response to a movie can be very different depending on whether or not it is released close to a reset event, i.e., the appearance of a highly successful movie ("blockbuster"). Therefore, our model provides explicit theoretical support to popular wisdom that timing the release of a movie correctly is a key determinant of its success at the box office [33].

We also note that the knowledge of the time elapsed from the last blockbuster may not by itself lead to a successful strategy for optimally timing the release of a movie. If the entry of a new movie is delayed to increase the time interval from the previous reset event so as to increase its chance of doing well at the box office, a competing movie released before it may become a "hit" and thereby prevent its success. Thus, there is a tradeoff between waiting for as long as possible after the last successful movie but not so long as to get beaten by a competitor. The critical importance of the launch time holds not only for movies

but also for many other short life-cycle products such as music, video games, etc., whose opening revenues very often decide their eventual sales [34]. In fact, empirical data on movies show that for the dominant majority, the highest gross-earning over all theaters they are shown in occurs on the opening weekend, followed by an exponential decay in income [20]. In extremely few cases does a movie become more successful over time with its income exhibiting an increasing trend, eventually reaching a peak before again declining exponentially. To explain such rare " sleeper hits " [e.g., the movie *My Big Fat Greek Wedding* (2002) that achieved its highest gross around 20 weeks after its release], one may need to consider how agents can directly influence each other. This suggests that models for generating bimodal distributions that incorporate explicit interactions between agents such as in Ref. [26] could complement the one presented here where an effective external field guides the actions of the agents who otherwise do not communicate.

To conclude, we have shown that extreme variability in response, characterized by a bimodal distribution, can arise in a system even in the absence of explicit interactions between its components. The observed inequality of outcomes cannot be explained solely on the basis of variations in the intrinsic quality of signals driving the system. For a quantitative validation of the model we have used the explicit example of movie box-office performance whose bimodal distribution has been established empirically. The log-normal nature of the distribution of income per theater suggests that the underlying mechanism involves sequential stochastic processes. Our analysis reveals that stochastic decisions on the basis of comparing effects of the preceding choice and the estimated impact of the upcoming one gives rise to a surprising degree of coordination. The presence of bimodality in the absence of explicit interactions in several social and biological systems suggests other possible applications of the theoretical approach presented here. Apart from bimodality, our model shows that more general multimodal distributions are possible in principle and empirical verification of this in natural and social systems will be an exciting development.

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