Imperfect strategy transmission can reverse the role of population viscosity on the evolution of altruism

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Abstract

Population viscosity, *i.e.*, low emigration out of the natal deme, leads to high within-deme relatedness, which is beneficial to the evolution of altruistic behavior when social interactions take place among deme-mates. However, a detrimental side-effect of low emigration is the increase in competition among related individuals. The evolution of altruism depends on the balance between these opposite effects. This balance is already known to be affected by details of the life-cycle; we show here that it further depends on the fidelity of strategy transmission from parents to their offspring. We consider different life-cycles and identify thresholds of parent-offspring strategy transmission inaccuracy, above which higher emigration can increase the frequency of altruists maintained in the population. EXPLAIN RESULT Predictions were first obtained analytically assuming weak selection and equal deme sizes, then confirmed with stochastic simulations relaxing these assumptions. This result challenges the notion that the evolution of altruism REMOVE REQUIRE requires limited dispersal.

6 Introduction

In his pioneering work on the evolution of social behavior, Hamilton suggested that altruistic behavior would be associated to limited dispersal (Hamilton, 1964, p. 10). This notion, that tighter links between individuals are beneficial to the evolution of altruism, has been shown to hold in a number of population structures (see *e.g.* Allen et al., 2017; Lehmann et al., 2007; Ohtsuki et al., 2006; Taylor et al., 2007a). The rationale is that altruism is favored when altruists interact more with altruists than defectors do (Hamilton, 1975, p. 141; Fletcher & Doebeli, 2009), a condition that is met in viscous populations, *i.e.*, populations with limited dispersal.

Yet, living next to your kin also implies competing against them (West et al., 2002), which is detrimental to the evolution of altruism. The evolution of social traits hence depends on the balance between the positive effects of inter-

actions with related individuals and the detrimental consequences of kin com-29 petition. Under specific conditions, the two effects can even compensate each other, thereby annihilating the impact of population viscosity on the evolution of altruism. First identified with computer simulations (Wilson et al., 1992), this cancellation result was analyzed by Taylor (1992a) in a model with synchronous generations (i.e., Wright-Fisher model) and a subdivided population of constant, infinite size. The cancellation result was later extended to heterogeneous populations (Rodrigues & Gardner, 2012, with synchronous generations and infinite population size), and other life-cycles, with generic regular population structures (Taylor et al., 2011, with synchronous generations but also with continuous generations and Birth-Death updating). However, small changes in the model's assumptions, such as overlapping generations (Taylor & Irwin, 2000) or the presence of empty sites (Alizon & Taylor, 2008) can tip the balance back in the favor of altruism. This high dependence on life-cycle specificities highlights the difficulty of making general statements about the role of spatial structure on the

evolution of altruism. In this study, we will consider three different life-cycles:
Wright-Fisher, where the whole population is renewed at each time step, and
two Moran life-cycles (Birth-Death and Death-Birth), where a single individual
dies and is replaced at each time step. These life-cycles are classically used in
studies on altruism in structured populations. Even though they differ by seemingly minor details, they are known to have very different outcomes in models
with perfect parent-offspring transmission (*e.g.*, Lehmann et al., 2007; Ohtsuki
et al., 2006; Rousset, 2004; Taylor, 1992a, 2010).

A large number of studies on the evolution of social behavior consider simple
population structures (typically, homogeneous populations *sensu* Taylor et al.
(2007a)) and often also infinite population sizes (but see Allen et al., 2017, for
results on any structure). These studies also make use of weak selection approx-

imations, and commonly assume rare (e.g., Leturque & Rousset, 2002; Tarnita & Taylor, 2014; Taylor et al., 2007b) or absent mutation (for models assuming infinite population sizes, or models concentrating on fixation probabilities; see Lehmann & Rousset, 2014; Van Cleve, 2015, for recent reviews). Often, these simplifying assumptions are a necessary step towards obtaining explicit analytical results. Although artificial, simple population structures (e.g., regular graphs, or subdivided populations with demes of equal sizes) help reduce the dimensionality of the system under study, in particular when the structure of the population displays symmetries such that all sites behave the same way in expectation. Weak selection approximations are crucial for disentangling spatial moments (Lion, 2016), that is, changes in global vs. local frequencies (though they can in some cases be relaxed, as in Mullon & Lehmann, 2014). Mutation, however, is 67 usually ignored by classical models of inclusive fitness because these models assume infinite population sizes, so that there is no need to add mechanisms that restore genetic diversity (Tarnita & Taylor, 2014). In populations of finite size, this diversifying effect can be obtained thanks to mutation.

When strategy transmission is purely genetic, it makes sense to assume that 72 mutation is relatively infrequent. A social strategy can however also be culturally transmitted from parent to offspring, in which case "rebellion" (as in Frank's Re-74 bellious Child Model (Frank, 1997)) does not have to be rare. Imperfect strategy transmission can alter evolutionary dynamics, in particular in spatially structured populations (see e.g., Allen et al., 2012; Débarre, 2017, for graph-structured populations). 78 Here, we want to explore the consequences of imperfect strategy transmis-79 sion from parents to their offspring on the evolution of altruistic behavior in subdivided populations¹. The question was tackled by Frank (1997), but with a "non 81 fully" dynamic model. His method, done "in the spirit of comparative statics" (Frank, 1997, p.1721)², precluded the exploration of the effects of population viscosity on the evolution altruism. reformuler 84 For each of the three life-cycles that we consider, we compute the expected 85 (i.e., long-term) frequency of altruists maintained in a subdivided population, and investigate how this frequency is affected by mutation and emigration. We find that, contrary to what happens with perfect strategy transmission, higher

90 Model and methods

91 Assumptions

We consider a population of size N, subdivided into N_D demes connected by dispersal, each deme hosting exactly n individuals (*i.e.*, each deme contains n sites, each of which is occupied by exactly one individual; we have $nN_D = N$). Each site has a unique label i, $1 \le i \le N$. There are two types of individuals in the population, altruists and defectors. The type of the individual living at site i

emigration can increase the expected frequency of altruists in the population.

¹Note that for the sake of concision, we use the word "mutation" throughout the paper, keeping in mind that strategy transmission does not have to be genetic.

²Terms with quotes are citations from Frank's article.

 $(1 \le i \le N)$ is given by an indicator variable X_i , equal to 1 if the individual is an altruist, and to 0 if it is a defector. The state of the entire population is given by a N-long vector \mathbf{X} . For a given population state \mathbf{X} , the proportion of altruists is $\overline{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$. All symbols are summarized in table A1.

Reproduction is asexual. The offspring of altruists are altruists themselves with probability $1-\mu_{1\rightarrow0}$, and are defectors otherwise $(0 < \mu_{1\rightarrow0} \le 1/2)$. Similarly, the offspring of defectors are defectors with probability $1-\mu_{0\rightarrow1}$, and are altruists otherwise $(0 < \mu_{0\rightarrow1} \le 1/2)$. Our calculations will be simpler if we introduce the following change of parameters:

$$v = \frac{\mu_{0 \to 1}}{\mu_{1 \to 0} + \mu_{0 \to 1}}$$
 (0 < v < 1), and (1a)

$$\mu = \mu_{1 \to 0} + \mu_{0 \to 1} \quad (0 < \mu \le 1).$$
 (1b)

see Appendix A for details). We call ν the "mutation bias" parameter. Parameter 108 μ is the sum of the two mutation probabilities. In the absence of selection, at the 109 mutation-drift equilibrium, the correlation between the types of offspring and 110 the type of their parents is $1 - \mu$ (see Appendix A for details for the calculation). 111 We call μ the mutation parameter. An individual of type X_k expresses a social phenotype $\phi_k = \delta X_k$, where δ is 113 assumed to be small ($\delta \ll 1$). Social interactions take place within each deme, 114 benefits are shared with the n-1 other deme-mates. We assume that social in-115 teractions affect individual fecundity; f_k denotes the fecundity of the individual 116 at site k. We denote by b the sum of the marginal effects of deme-mates' phe-117 notypes on the fecundity of a focal individual, and by -c the marginal effect of a focal individual's phenotype on its own fecundity ($c \le b$; see system (A22) for 119 formal definitions).

The composite parameter v corresponds to the expected frequency of altruists

in the population at the mutation-drift balance (*i.e.*, in the absence of selection;

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Offspring remain in the parental deme with probability 1 - m; when they do, they land on any site of the deme with equal probability (including the very site of their parent). With probability m, offspring emigrate to a different deme, chosen uniformly at random among the other demes. Denoting by d_{ij} the probability of moving from site i to site j, we have

$$d_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_{\text{in}} = \frac{1-m}{n} & \text{if both sites are in the same deme;} \\ d_{\text{out}} = \frac{m}{(N_D - 1)n} & \text{if the two sites are in different demes,} \end{cases}$$
 (2) {eq:defD}

with $0 < m < 1 - \frac{1}{N_D}$. (This upper bound is here to ensure that within-deme relatedness R, which will be defined later in the article, remains positive.)

We denote by $B_i = B_i(\mathbf{X}, \delta)$ the expected number of successful offspring of the individual living at site i (successful means alive at the next time step), and by $D_i = D_i(\mathbf{X}, \delta)$ the probability that the individual living at site i dies. Both depend on the state of the population \mathbf{X} , but also on the way the population is updated from one time step to the next, i.e., on the chosen life-cycle (also called updating rule). We also define

$$W_i := (1 - \mu)B_i + 1 - D_i, \tag{3} \{eq: defW\}$$

a particular definition of fitness, where the number of offspring produced (B_i) is scaled by the parent-offspring type correlation $(1 - \mu)$.

We will specifically explore three different life-cycles. At the beginning of
each step of each life-cycle, all individuals produce offspring, that can be mutated; then these juveniles move, within the parental deme or outside of it, and
land on a site. The next events occurring during the time step depend on the
life-cycle:

Moran Birth-Death: One of the newly created juveniles is chosen at random; it
kills the adult who was living at the site, and replaces it; all other juveniles
die.

Moran Death-Birth: One of the adults is chosen to die (uniformly at random among all adults). It is replaced by one of the juveniles who had landed in its site. All other juveniles die.

Wright-Fisher: All the adults die. At each site of the entire population, one of
the juveniles that landed there is chosen and establishes at the site.

The calculation steps to obtain the expected (i.e., long-term) proportion of al-

149 Methods

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150 Analytical part

truists are given in Appendix B. They go as follows: first, we write an equation for 152 the expected frequency of altruists in the population at time t+1, conditional 153 on the composition of the population at time t; we then take the expectation of 154 this quantity and consider large times t. After this, we write a first order expan-155 sion for phenotypic differences δ close to 0 (this corresponds to weak selection 156 approximation). 157 The formula involves quantities that can be identified as neutral probabili-158 ties of identity by descent Q_{ij} , *i.e.*, the probability that individuals living at site 159 i and j share a common ancestor and that no mutation occurred on either lin-160 eage since that ancestor, in a model with no selection ($\delta = 0$; this is the "muta-161 tion definition" of identity by descent (Rousset & Billiard, 2000).) In a subdivided 162

population like ours, there are three possible values of Q_{ij} :

$$Q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } i = j, \\ Q_{\text{in}} & \text{when } i \neq j \text{ and both sites are in the same deme,} \\ Q_{\text{out}} & \text{when both sites are in different demes.} \end{cases} \tag{4} \quad \{\text{eq:Q3}\}$$

These neutral probabilities of identity by descent depend on the chosen lifecycle, and are also computed by taking the long-term expectation of conditional

expectations after one time step (see Appendix C.1 and C.2 and supplementary

167 Mathematica file (Wolfram Research, Inc., 2017).)

68 Stochastic simulations

 169 We also ran stochastic simulations (coded in C). The simulations were run for 10^8

generations (one generation is one time step for the Wright-Fisher life-cycle, and

N time steps for the Moran life-cycles). For each set of parameters and life-cycle,

using R (R Core Team, 2015), we estimated the long-term frequency of altruists

by sampling the population every 10^3 generations and computing the average

174 frequency of altruists. All scripts are available at

https://flodebarre.github.io/SocEvolSubdivPop/

176 Results

Expected frequencies of altruists for each life-cycle

For each of the life-cycles that we consider, the expected frequency of altruists in

the population, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$, can be approximated as

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx v + \frac{\delta}{\mu B^*} v(1-v)(1-Q_{\text{out}}) \times \left[\underbrace{\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\bullet}}(-c) + \frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\text{in}}}b}_{-\mathcal{C}} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\bullet}}b + (n-1)\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\text{in}}}(-c) + (n-2)\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\text{in}}}b\right)}_{\mathcal{B}}\underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}} - Q_{\text{out}}}{1 - Q_{\text{out}}}}_{R}\right], \quad (5) \quad \{\text{eq:EXapprox}\}$$

with W as defined in eq. (3). (Calculations leading to eq. (5) are presented in Ap-

pendix B; notations are recapitulated in table A1)

The mutation bias v corresponds to the expected proportion of altruists in the

population in the absence of selection (i.e., when $\delta = 0$); δ is the parameter that

scales the strength of selection ($\delta \ll 1$). The $-\mathcal{C}$ term groups the effects corre-

sponding to the effects of a change of a focal individual's phenotype on its own

fitness (with the fitness definition given in eq. (3).) The \mathcal{B} term corresponds to

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the sum of the effects on an individual's fitness of the change of deme-mates' phenotypes. It is multiplied by R, which is relatedness. Also note the overall $(1-Q_{\rm out})$ factor. All of these terms depend on the chosen life-cycle, and on parameters such as the mutation probability μ and the emigration probability m.

comment on decoupling nu and mu

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We now present the values of these different terms for the three life-cycles 192 under study. The equations are obtained by replacing the derivatives of W by 193 their specific formulas for each life-cycle, which are presented in Appendix B.2. 194 The formulas of probabilities of identity by descent are more complicated, so not 195 substituted, but they can be found in eq. (A40) and eq. (A44). The additional su-196 perscripts correspond to the life-cycles (WF: Wright-Fisher, M: Moran (either), 197 DB: Moran Death-Birth, BD: Moran Birth-Death.) Finally, for each life-cycle, we further decompose the $-\mathcal{C}$ and \mathcal{B} terms into primary (subscript P) and sec-199 ondary (subscript S) effects (West & Gardner, 2010). Primary effects correspond 200 to unmediated consequences of interactions (they are included in $\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\bullet}}$), while 201 secondary effects correspond to consequences of interactions mediated by other 202 individuals, including competition. Primary and secondary effects correspond 203 to what was called "direct" and "indirect" effects, respectively, in Débarre (2017); 204 Débarre et al. (2014), but the terminology was updated for more consistency with 205 other authors. All equations are of the form

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx \nu + \frac{\delta}{\mu} \nu (1 - \nu) (1 - Q_{\text{out}}) \left[\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -C_{\text{P}} \\ -C_{\text{S}} \end{pmatrix}}_{-C} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \mathcal{B}_{\text{P}} \\ +\mathcal{B}_{\text{S}} \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathcal{B}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}} - Q_{\text{out}}}{1 - Q_{\text{out}}}}_{R} \right]. \tag{6} \quad \{\text{eq:Exgeneric}\}$$

virer les EXBD etc, se focaliser sur primary et secondary pour etre plus compact. Commencer par R pour decrire l'effet de la mutation

208 **Moran Birth-Death** With the Birth-Death life-cycle, eq. (5) becomes

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx \nu + \frac{\delta}{\mu} \nu (1 - \nu)(1 - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}) \times \left[\underbrace{\left(\frac{(1 - \mu)(-c)}{+(b - c)} \left(\frac{\mu}{N} - \frac{1 - m}{n} \right) \right)}_{\text{CBD}} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{(1 - \mu)b}{+(b - c)(n - 1)} \left(\frac{\mu}{N} - \frac{1 - m}{n} \right) \right)}_{\text{RBD}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}}^{\text{M}} - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}}{1 - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}} \right]}_{\text{R}^{\text{M}}}, \quad (7) \quad \{\text{eq:EXBD}\}$$

The secondary effects (second line in the parentheses) include competitive effects on the probability of reproducing, and consequences of social interactions on the probability that a given individual dies. Note that the secondary effects remain negative for the realistic range of emigration values that we consider (*i.e.*, $m < 1 - 1/N_D$).

214 **Moran Death-Birth** With the Death-Birth life-cycle, eq. (5) becomes

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx v + \frac{\delta}{\mu}v(1-v)(1-Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}) \times \\ \left[\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} (1-\mu)(-c) \\ -(b-c)(1-\mu)\left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n}\right) \end{pmatrix}}_{-\mathcal{C}^{\text{DB}}} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} (1-\mu)b \\ -(b-c)(n-1)(1-\mu)\left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n}\right) \right)}_{\mathcal{B}^{\text{DB}}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}}^{\text{M}} - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}}{1-Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}}}}_{R^{\text{M}}}\right],$$

$$(8) \quad \{\text{eq:EXDB}\}$$

With this life-cycle, Death occurs first, and the probability of dying is independent from the state of the population (since we assume that social interactions affect fecundity. We can therefore factor $(1 - \mu)$ in all terms. The primary effects (first lines in the parentheses) remain the same as with the Birth-Death life-cycle. However, the Death-Birth life-cycle leads to different secondary effects compared to the Birth-Death life-cycle: competition occurs at a different scale (Grafen & Archetti, 2008). Finally, with this life-cycle as we defined it, the probabilities of identity by descent are the same as with the Birth-Death model.

Wright-Fisher

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx \nu + \frac{\delta}{\mu} \nu (1 - \nu) (1 - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}}) \times \left[\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} (1 - \mu)(-c) \\ -(b - c)(1 - \mu) \left(\frac{(1 - m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N - n} \right) \end{pmatrix}}_{-\mathcal{C}^{\text{WF}}} + \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} (1 - \mu)b \\ -(b - c)(n - 1)(1 - \mu) \left(\frac{(1 - m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N - n} \right) \end{pmatrix}}_{\mathcal{B}^{\text{WF}}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}}^{\text{WF}} - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}}}{1 - Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}}}}_{R^{\text{WF}}} \right], \tag{9} \quad \{\text{eq:EXWF}}$$

The only – but important – different between eq. (9) and eq. (8) is the value of the probabilities of identity by descent, because the number of individuals that are updated at each time step differs.

226 Primary effects

Let us first focus on primary effects, shown on the first lines in the parentheses in eq. (7)-eq. (9). They are the same for the three life-cycles that we consider, 228 and they do not depend on the emigration probability m. At the same time, as 229 shown on figure 1, the relatedness terms $R^{\rm M}$ and $R^{\rm WF}$ decrease with m (keeping 230 $m < 1 - \frac{1}{N_D};$ see figure 1) Consequently, if we ignored secondary effects, we would 231 conclude that even with imperfect strategy transmission ($\mu > 0$), increasing the 232 emigration probability m decreases the expected frequency of altruists in the 233 population (as our intuition may suggest already.) However, secondary effects 234 play a role as well. 235

\mathbf{c} Changes with the emigration probability m

For the three life-cycles, the secondary effects are negative (with $0 < m < 1 - \frac{1}{N_D}$) and they increase with the emigration probability m. In other words, these detrimental secondary effects weaken when the emigration probability increases. This effect goes against the reduction of relatedness R as m increases. Hence, we need to consider the entire equations to know the overall effect of the emigra-

tion probability m on the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ and on how it is affected by the (in)fideliy of parent-offspring transmission μ (see Figure 2).

The rather lengthy formulas that we obtain are relegated to the Appendix and supplementary Mathematica file, and we concentrate here on the results.

46 Moran Birth-Death

For the Moran Birth-Death life-cycle, we find that the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ is a monotonic function of the emigration probability m; the direction of the change depends on the value of the mutation probability μ compared to a threshold value μ_c^{BD} . When $\mu < \mu_c^{\mathrm{BD}}$, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ decreases with m, while when $\mu > \mu_c^{\mathrm{BD}}$, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ increases with m. The critical value μ_c^{BD} is given by

$$\mu_c^{\rm BD} = 1 - \frac{\mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c} + \sqrt{(\mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c}) \left(4\mathsf{b} N^2 + \mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c} \right)}}{2\mathsf{b} N} \tag{10} \quad \{\mathsf{eq:mucBD}\}$$

(recall that N is the total size of the population, $N=nN_D$.) This result is illustrated in figure 2(b); with the parameters of the figure, $\mu_c^{\rm BD} \approx 0.026$. The threshold value increases with both deme size n and number of demes N_D , up to a maximum value $1-\sqrt{1-c/b}$ (equal to 0.034 with our parameters.)

With this life-cycle however, the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ remains lower than v, its value in the absence of selection (i.e., when $\delta=0$).

258 Moran Death-Birth

The relationship between $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ and m is a bit more complicated for the Moran Death-Birth life-cycle. For simplicity, we concentrate on what happens starting from low emigration probabilities (*i.e.*, on the sign of the slope of $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ as a function of m when $m \to 0$). If the benefits b provided by altruists are relatively low (b < c(n+1)), $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ initially increases with m provided the mutation probability μ is greater than a threshold value μ_c^{DB} given in eq. (11) below; otherwise, when the benefits are high enough, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ initially increases with m for any value of μ .

266 Combining these results, we write

$$\mu_c^{\text{DB}} = \begin{cases} \frac{(n+1)c - b}{(2n-1)b - (n-1)c} & \text{if } b < c(n+1), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(11) {eq:mucDB}

When b < c(n + 1), the mutation threshold does not depend on the number of demes N_D , but increases when the size of the demes n increases. In figure 2(a), 268 the parameters are such that $\mu_c^{\rm DB} = 0$. 269 When $\mu > \mu_c^{\mathrm{DB}}$, the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}\big[\overline{X}\big]$ reaches a maximum 270 at an emigration probability m_c^{DB} (whose complicated equation is given in the 271 supplementary Mathematica file), as can be seen in figure 2(a). When the muta-272 tion probability gets close to 0 ($\mu \rightarrow 0$), $m_c^{\rm DB}$ also gets close to 0. With the Death-Birth life-cycle, the expected frequency of altruists is higher 274 than its neutral value ν for intermediate values of the emigration probability m275 (unless $\mu \rightarrow 0$, in which case the lower bound tends to 0). 276

Wright-Fisher

Under a Wright-Fisher updating, the expected frequency of altruists in the population reaches an extremum at the highest admissible emigration value $m=1-\frac{1}{N_D}$. This extremum is a maximum when the mutation probability is higher than a threshold value $\mu_c^{\rm WF}$ given by

$$\mu_c^{\text{WF}} = 1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{c}{b}},$$
 (12)

and it is a minimum otherwise. With the parameters of figure 2(c), $\mu_c^{\rm WF}$ = 0.034.

With the Wright-Fisher life-cycle however, the expected frequency of altruists remains below its value in the absence of selection, v.

Interpreting the effect of m on $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$

The result, that higher emigration probabilities can actually favor altruistic behavior, may seem surprising, even though it is confirmed by simulations. The result may appear counterintuitive because explanations for the effect of population viscosity on the evolution of altruism often focus on primary effects. The role played by secondary effects is harder to grasp. To better understand the role played by the mutation probability μ , we now focus on a qualitative condition for the evolution of altruism and on the Death-Birth life-cycle:

$$\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] > \nu \Leftrightarrow R^{M} > \frac{\mathcal{C}^{DB}}{\mathcal{B}^{DB}}.$$
 (13) {eq:BCcond}

(having made sure that $\mathcal{B}^{DB} > 0$, as shown in the supplementary Mathematical file). With this life-cycle, the $\mathcal{C}^{DB}/\mathcal{B}^{DB}$ ratio does not change with the muta-294 tion probability μ , but it decreases with the emigration probability m (0 < m < 295 $1-1/N_D$). This decrease of the $\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{DB}}/\mathcal{B}^{\mathrm{DB}}$ ratio is due to secondary effects (com-296 petition) diminishing as emigration increases. Relatedness, on the other hand, 297 decreases with both μ and m (see figure 3(a)). 298 When the emigration probability m is vanishingly small, $\lim_{m\to 0} R^{\mathrm{M}} \leq \lim_{m\to 0} \frac{\mathcal{C}^{\mathrm{DB}}}{R^{\mathrm{DB}}}$, 299 the two only being equal when $\mu = 0$. Hence, it is only when strategy transmis-300 sion is perfect that condition (13) is satisfied for vanishingly low m. Then, as mincreases, the $\frac{C^{DB}}{R^{DB}}$ ratio and relatedness R do not decrease with the same slope. 302 Provided the mutation probability μ is not too high, *i.e.*, that R initially is not too 303 low already, there can be a range of emigration values m such that condition (13) 304 is satisfied (*i.e.*, the *R* curve is higher than the \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B} curve in figure 3(a)).

Relaxing key assumptions

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To derive our analytical results, we had to make a number of simplifying assumptions, such as the fact that selection is weak ($\delta \ll 1$), and the fact that the struc-

ture of the population is regular (all demes have the same size n). We explored 309 with numerical simulations the effect of relaxing these key assumptions. 310

When selection is strong, the patterns that we identified not only still hold but are even more marked, as shown on figure A1. 312

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To relax the assumption of equal deme sizes, we randomly drew deme sizes 313 at the beginning of simulations, with sizes ranging from 2 to 6 individuals and 314 on average $\overline{n} = 4$ individuals per deme as previously. As shown in figure A2, the 315 patterns initially obtained with a homogeneous population structure are robust 316 when the structure is heterogeneous. 317

For the Moran model, it may seem odd that an offspring can replace its own 318 parent (which can occur since $d_{ii} \neq 0$). Figure A3, plotted with dispersal prob-319 abilities preventing immediate replacement of one's own parent (for all sites i, 320 $d_{ii} = d_{self} = 0$; $d_{in} = (1 - m)/(n - 1)$ for two different sites in the same deme, d_{out} 321 remaining unchanged), confirms that this does affect our conclusions. 322

The results are obtained in a population of finite size (the figures are done with $N_D = 15$ demes), but still hold when the size of the population is larger (see e.g., figure 3(b), showing the range of emigration and mutation values such that altruism is favored, plotted also for $N_D \to \infty$).

Compared to graphs classically used in evolutionary graph theory (e.g., regular random graphs, grids), the island model is particular because the interaction 328 graph and the dispersal graph are different: interactions take place only within 329 demes ($e_{\text{out}} = 0$), while offspring can disperse out of their natal deme ($d_{\text{out}} > 0$). 330 One may wonder whether our result depends on this difference between the two 331 graphs. Figure A4 shows that the result still holds when the dispersal and inter-332 action graphs are the same. In this figure indeed, we let a proportion m (equal to the dispersal probability) of interactions occur outside of the deme where the 334 individuals live, and set d_{self} , the probability of self replacement, equal to 0, so 335 that the dispersal and interactions graphs are the same. Our conclusions remain 336

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38 Discussion

The expected frequency of altruists in a subdivided population can increase with the probability of emigration

Assuming that the transmission of a social strategy (being an altruist or a defec-341 tor) from a parent to its offspring could be imperfect, we found that the expected 342 frequency of altruists maintained in a population could increase with the prob-343 ability m of emigration out of the parental deme, a parameter tuning population 344 viscosity. This result can seem surprising, because it contradicts the conclusions 345 obtained under the assumption of nearly perfect strategy transmission (i.e., in 346 the case of genetic transmission, when mutation is very weak or absent). Under 347 nearly perfect strategy transmission indeed, increased population viscosity (i.e., 348 decreased emigration probability) is either neutral (Taylor, 1992a, and dashed 349 lines in figures 2(b)-(c)) or favorable (Taylor et al., 2007a, and dashed lines in 350 figure 2(a)) to the evolution of altruistic behavior. 351

352 Quantitative vs. qualitative measures

Often, evolutionary success is measured qualitatively, by comparing a quantity 353 (an expected frequency, or, in models with no mutation, a probability of fixation) 354 to the value it would have in the absence of selection. In our model, this amounts 355 to saying that altruism is favored whenever $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] > v$ (v is plotted as a horizon-356 tal dashed line in figure 2). Some of our conclusions change if we switch to this 357 qualitative measure of evolutionary success: Under the Moran Birth-Death and 358 Wright-Fisher life-cycles, population viscosity does not promote the evolution of 359 altruism – actually, these two life-cycles cannot ever promote altruistic behavior for any regular population structure (Taylor et al., 2011), whichever the probabil-

ity of mutation (Débarre, 2017). However, under a Moran Death-Birth life-cycle (figure 2(a)), altruism can be favored only at intermediate emigration probabilities. Starting for initially low values of m, increasing the emigration probability can still favor the evolution of altruism under this qualitative criterion (see figure 3(b).)

The result, that frequency of altruists can increase with the emigration proba-

67 The result is due to secondary effects

368

bility m, may seem counterintuitive. It is the case because verbal explanations 369 for the evolution of altruism often rely on primary effects only. Relatedness R 370 decreases with m, so it may be tempting to conclude that increases in the em-37 igration probability m are necessarily detrimental to the evolution of altruism. 372 However, secondary effects play an opposite role, as competition decreases with 373 m. To further explain the relative weight of the detrimental and beneficial conse-374 quences of increases in the emigration probability m, let us focus on the Death-375 Birth life-cycle and consider the qualitative criterion for evolutionary success 376 $(\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] > v, i.e. R > \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B}$; figure 3.) 377 When parent-offspring strategy transmission is nearly perfect ($\mu \rightarrow 0$), for 378 vanishingly small emigration probabilities $(m \to 0)$, both R and the \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B} ratio 379 tend to 1. An increase in the mutation probability μ reduces R while leaving 380 \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B} unchanged. In other words, for vanishingly small emigration probabilities, 381 altruism is favored by selection only when transmission fidelity is nearly perfect. 382 Let us now consider that benefits b of social interactions are high enough for 383 altruism to be favored at low m when $\mu \to 0$ (as in figure 3(a)). Starting from 384 low values of m, small increases in m have a stronger effect on the \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B} ratio 385 than on relatedness R: local competition is initially so strong that the beneficial 386 reduction in competition caused by an increase in m initially predominates over 387 the detrimental reduction in relatedness R. The opposite holds for much higher

values of m: competition is already small enough that reducing it further does not outweigh the reduction in relatedness R.

Secondary effects are less straightforward to understand than primary ef-391 fects, and yet they play a crucial role for social evolution in spatially structured 392 populations. Competition among relatives is for instance the reason for Taylor 393 (1992b)'s cancellation result. Similarly, the qualitative differences between the 394 Moran Birth-Death and Moran Death-Birth life-cycles is explained by the differ-395 ent scales of competition that the two life-cycle produce (Débarre et al., 2014; 396 Grafen & Archetti, 2008). Secondary effects are also behind the evolution of so-397 cial behaviors such as spite (West & Gardner, 2010). 398

399 How small is small and how large is large?

Our results were derived under the assumption of weak selection, assuming that 400 the phenotypic difference between altruists and defectors is small ($\delta \ll 1$). We 401 considered any fidelity of transmission (any μ between 0 and 1) and population 402 size. However, most models considering subdivided populations assume nearly 403 perfect strategy transmission ($\mu \rightarrow 0$) and infinite population sizes (number of 404 demes $N_D \to \infty$). The point is technical, but it is important to know that the or-405 der in which these limits are taken matters, i.e., one needs to specify how small 406 μ and δ are compared to the inverse size of the population. This remark complements findings by Sample & Allen (2017), who highlighted the quantitative 408 differences between different orders of weak selection and large population lim-409 its. 410

Imperfect transmission and Rebellious Children

Our model bears resemblance to the Rebellious Child Model by Frank (1997), who studied the evolution of a vertically transmitted cultural trait in an asexually reproducing population. In Frank's model, however, relatedness r is treated as

a fixed parameter (as acknowledged in the legend of Figure 7 in Frank (1997)).

Our model is mechanistic; relatedness r necessarily depends on the mutation

probability μ , because probabilities of identity by descent do.

Mutation was also previously included in models investigating the maintenance of cooperative microorganisms in the presence of cheaters (Brockhurst et al., 2007; Frank, 2010). In both of these models however, only loss-of-function mutation was considered, which corresponds to setting the mutation bias at v = 0 in our model. This means that the all-cheaters state is absorbing; no matter how favored cooperators may otherwise be, in the long run, a finite population will only consist of cheaters.

425 Cultural transmission

441

Strategy transmission does not have to be genetic: it can be cultural. In our model, strategy transmission occurs upon reproduction, so this is a case of vertical cultural transmission.

The model could nevertheless be interpreted as a representation of horizon-429 tal transmission, if we described reproduction as an instance of an individual 430 convincing another one to update its strategy. The Moran Death-Birth model 431 can be interpreted as a modified imitation scheme (Boyd & Richerson, 2002; Oht-432 suki et al., 2006) - with a specific function specifying who is imitated -, with mu-433 tation (Kandori et al., 1993). First, we choose uniformly at random an individual 434 who may change its strategy; with probability μ the individual chooses a random 435 strategy (altruistic with probability ν), and with probability $1 - \mu$ it imitates an-436 other individual. Who is imitated depends on the distance to the focal individual 437 (with probability m it is a random individual in another deme) and on the "fe-438 cundities" of those individuals (as shown in table A2). With this interpretation of 439 the updating rule however, there is not reproduction nor death anymore. 440

It remains to be investigated how imperfect strategy transmission would af-

- fect the effect of population viscosity on the evolution of altruism in a model im-
- plementing both reproduction and horizontal cultural transmission (as in Lehmann
- et al., 2008). Such a model could then contrast the effects of impecfect genetic
- transmission and imperfect horizontal cultural transmission.

446 Coevolution of dispersal and social behavior

- This work also raises the question of what would happen if dispersal (e.g., the
- emigration probability m) could evolve as well. Recent work on the topic has
- shown that under some conditions disruptive selection could take place, lead-
- 450 ing to a polymorphism between sessile altruists and mobile defectors (Mullon
- et al., 2017; Parvinen, 2013). The assumptions of these studies however differ
- 452 from ours in important ways, in that they consider continuous traits and use
- an adaptive dynamics framework, where, notably, mutations are assumed to be
- very rare. It remains to be investigated how non-rare and potentially large mu-
- tations would affect their result.

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Figures Figures

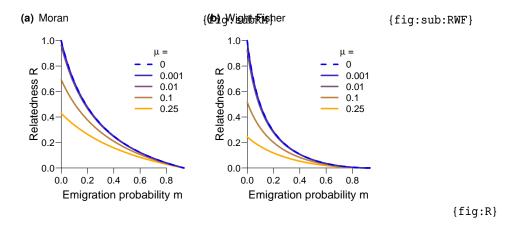


Figure 1: Within-deme relatedness of pairs of individuals, as a function of the emigration probability m, for different values of the mutation probability μ (from 0 [blue] to 0.25 [orange]), and for the two types of life-cycles ((a): Moran, (b): Wright-Fisher). Other parameters: n=4 individuals per deme, $N_D=15$ demes.

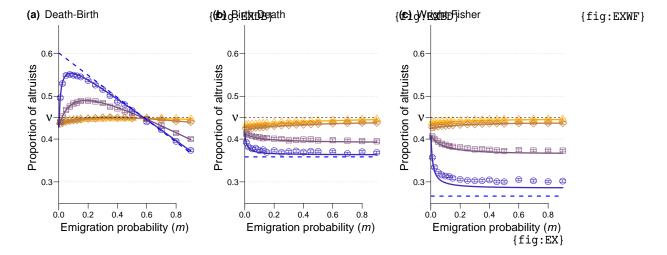


Figure 2: Expected proportion of altruists under weak selection, as a function of the emigration probability m, for different mutation values ($\mu=0.001$ (blue, dots), 0.01 (purple, squares), 0.1 (brown, diamonds), 0.25 (orange, triangles); the dashed blue lines correspond to $\mu=0$) and different life-cycles ((a) Moran Death-Birth, (b) Moran Birth Death, (c) Wright-Fisher). The curves are the analytical results, the points are the output of numerical simulations. Parameters: $\delta=0.005$, $\nu=0.45$, b=15, c=1, n=4 individuals per deme, $N_D=15$ demes.

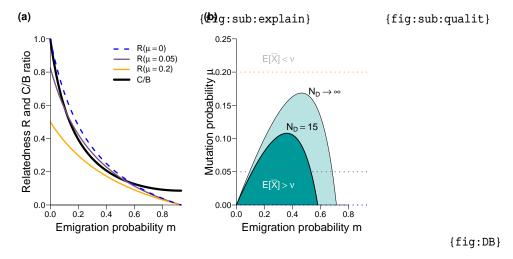


Figure 3: Understanding the effect of emigration m on whether altruism is favored in the Death-Birth life-cycle. (a) Comparison of the \mathcal{C}/\mathcal{B} ratio (thick black curve) and relatedness R (thin curves) for different values of the mutation probability μ (same color code as previously). (b) (m, μ) combinations for which $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] > v$. The dotted horizontal lines correspond to the mutation values used in panel (a). Unless specified, all other parameters are the same as in figure 2.

564 Supplementary figures

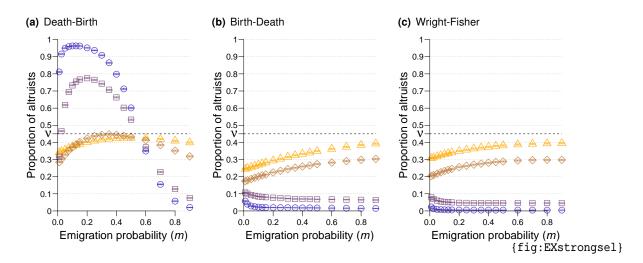


Figure A1: Equivalent of figure 2 (simulations only) but with strong selection (δ = 0.1); please note the change of scale on the vertical axis. All other parameters and legends are identical to those of figure 2 (increasing mutation probabilities from blue dots to orange triangles).

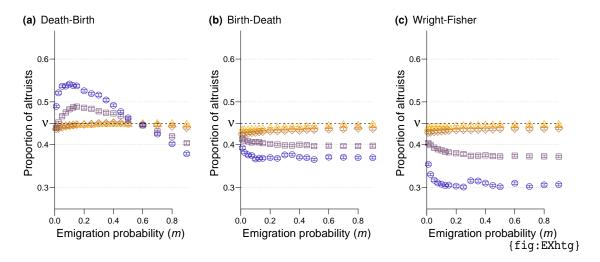


Figure A2: Equivalent of figure 2 (simulations only) but with a heterogeneous population structure: deme sizes range from 1 to 5 individuals per deme, the average deme size is 4 as in figure 2; all other parameters and legend are identical to those of figure 2.

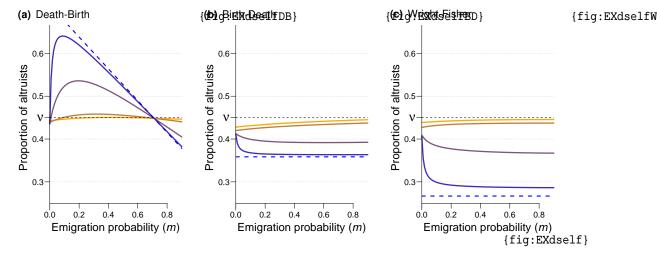


Figure A3: Equivalent of figure 2 (analysis only), with no self-replacement ($d_{ii} = d_{self} = 0$ for all sites).

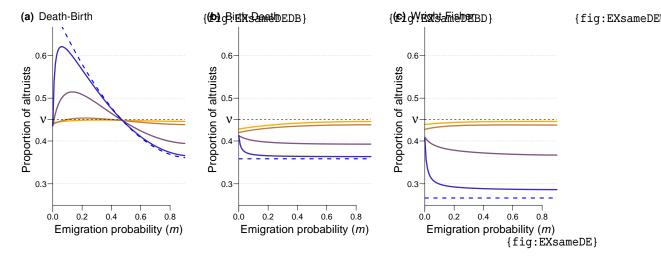


Figure A4: Equivalent of figure 2 (analysis only), with equal dispersal and interaction graphs (*i.e.*, no self-replacement [$d_{ii} = d_{\text{self}} = 0$ for all sites], and a proportion m of the interactions occurring outside of the home deme).

565 Supplementary Table

- b Sum of the marginal effects of deme-mates' phenotypes on focal individual's fecundity (benefit)
- \mathcal{B} Sum of the marginal effects of deme-mates' phenotypes on the fitness W of a focal individual
- B_i Expected number of successful offspring of the individual living at site i (r.v.)
- B^* Value of B_i for all sites, in the absence of selection ($\delta = 0$)
- c Marginal effect of a focal individual's phenotype on its own fecundity (cost)
- C Marginal effect of an individual's phenotype on its own fitness W
- d_{ij} Dispersal probability from site i to site j
- D_i Probability that the individual currently living at site i is dead at the end of the time step (r.v.)
- e_{ij} Interaction probability from site i to site j
- f_i Fecundity of the individual currently living at site i (r.v.)
- *n* Deme size
- N_D Number of demes
- *N* Total population size $(N = N_D n)$
- *m* Emigration probability
- P_{ij} (Long-term) Expected state of the pair of sites (i, j)
- Q_{ij} (Long-term) Probability of identity by descent of individuals at sites i and j
- R Pairwise within-deme relatedness (see eq. (5))
- W_i Measure of fitness, counting offspring only when unmutated (see eq. (3))
- X_i Indicator variable, equal to 1 if site i is occupied by an altruist, to 0 otherwise (r.v.)
- \overline{X} Frequency of altruists in the population (r.v.)
- δ Phenotypic distance between altruists and defectors; strength of selection
- ϕ_i Phenotype of the individual living at site i; $\phi_i = \delta X_i$ (r.v.)
- μ Mutation probability
- v Mutation bias: probability that mutant is altruist
- P Subscript corresponding to primary effects
- S Subscript corresponding to secondary effects
- Subscript used to denote a focal individual
- in Subscript used when $i \neq j$ and the two sites are in the same deme
- out Subscript used when the two sites i and j are in different demes
- self Subscript used when i = j
- 0 Sub- or superscript meaning that a quantity is evaluated at $\delta = 0$
- BD Superscript corresponding to the Moran Birth-Death model
- DB Superscript corresponding to the Moran Death-Birth model
- M Superscript corresponding to a Moran model
- WF Superscript corresponding to the Wright-Fisher model

{tab:symbols}

Table A1: List of symbols. "r.v." means random variable.

Appendix

566

A Mutation parameters

{sec:app:mutation}

In the main text, we first introduce effective mutation parameters: $\mu_{1\to 0}$, the probability that an altruist has defector offspring, and $\mu_{0\to 1}$, the probability that a defector has altruist offspring.

A.1 Expected frequency of altruists at the mutation drift balance

Let Y be the type of a randomly chosen individual in the population, and let Y' be the type of a randomly chosen individual at the next time step. Given a frequency v of altruists in the population, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \nu, \tag{A1a}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[Y'] = \nu(1 - \mu_{1 \to 0}) + (1 - \nu)\mu_{0 \to 1}. \tag{A1b}$$

The expected frequency of altruists is found by solving $\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[Y']$, and we obtain

$$v = \frac{\mu_{0 \to 1}}{\mu_{1 \to 0} + \mu_{0 \to 1}}.$$
 (A2) {eq:app:nuformula}

A.2 Parent-offspring correlation at the mutation drift balance

We can then compute the parent-offspring type correlation at the mutation-drift balance. First, let us compute the parent-offspring covariance:

$$Cov[YY'] = \mathbb{E}[YY'] - \mathbb{E}[Y']\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$= \nu(1 - \mu_{1 \to 0}) - (\nu(1 - \mu_{1 \to 0}) + (1 - \nu)\mu_{0 \to 1})\nu$$

$$= \nu(1 - \nu)(1 - \mu_{1 \to 0} - \mu_{0 \to 1}).$$
(A3) {eq:app:Cov}

Then, the standard deviations are given by

$$\sigma_{Y} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[Y^{2}] - \mathbb{E}[Y]^{2}} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[Y] - \mathbb{E}[Y]^{2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\nu(1-\nu)},$$
(A4) {eq:app:SD1}

581 and

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{Y'} &= \sqrt{\mathbb{E}\big[Y'^2\big] - \mathbb{E}\big[Y'\big]^2} = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}\big[Y'\big] - \mathbb{E}\big[Y'\big]^2} \\ &= \sqrt{\nu(1-\nu)(1-\mu_{1\to 0}-\mu_{0\to 1}) - (\nu(1-\nu)(1-\mu_{1\to 0}-\mu_{0\to 1}))^2}. \end{split} \tag{A5)} \quad \{\text{eq:app:SD2}\}$$

The parent-offspring correlation is given by

$$\operatorname{Corr}[YY'] = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}[YY']}{\sigma_Y \sigma_{Y'}};$$

using the formulas eq. (A3)–(A5), and replacing ν by its value (mutation-drift equilibrium, eq. (A2)), we obtain

Corr
$$[YY'] = 1 - (\mu_{1\to 0} + \mu_{0\to 1}) = 1 - \mu.$$
 (A6)

A.3 Redefining the mutation scheme

{sec:app:mutnew}

If we denote by X_i the type of a given parent, then the expected type of one of its offspring is

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i'|X_i] = X_i(1 - \mu_{1 \to 0}) + (1 - X_i)\mu_{0 \to 1}. \tag{A7a} \quad \{eq:app:expoff\}$$

Replacing $\mu_{1\rightarrow 0}$ and $\mu_{0\rightarrow 1}$ by equivalent combinations of μ and ν , *i.e.*,

$$\mu_{1\to 0} = \mu(1-\nu) \text{ and } \mu_{0\to 1} = \mu\nu,$$
 (A7b)

then eq. (A7a) becomes

$$\mathbb{E}[X_i'|X_i] = X_i(1-\mu) + \mu\nu. \tag{A7c} \quad \{eq:app:expoff2\}$$

We can redefine the mutation scheme and interpret eq. (A7c) as follows. Parents transmit their strategy to their offspring with probability $1 - \mu$; with probability μ , offspring do not inherit their strategy from their parent but instead get one randomly: with probability ν , they become altruists, with probability $1 - \nu$ they become defectors. With this alternative description, we can call "mutants" individuals who have the same type as their parent.

B Expected frequency of altruists

{sec:app:EX}

B.1 For a generic life-cycle

{sec:app:generic}

We want to compute the expected proportion of altruists in the population. We 598 represent the state of the population at a given time t using indicator variables 599 $X_i(t), 1 \le i \le N$, equal to 1 if the individual living at site i at time t is an altru-600 ist, and equal to 0 if it is a defector; these indicator variables are gathered in a 601 *N*-long vector $\mathbf{X}(t)$. The set of all possible population states is $\Omega = \{0,1\}^N$. The 602 proportion of altruists in the population is written $\overline{X}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i(t)$. We denote 603 by $B_{ii}(X(t),\delta)$, written B_{ii} for simplicity, the probability that the individual at 604 site j at time t+1 is the newly established offspring of the individual living at site i at time t. The expected number of successful offspring produced by the indi-606 vidual living at site *i* at time *t* is given by $B_i = \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_{ji}$. We denote by $D_i(X(t), \delta)$ 607 (D_i for simplicity) the probability that the individual living at site i at time t has 608 been replaced (i.e., died) at time t + 1. These quantities depend on the chosen 609 life-cycle and on the state of the population; they are given in table A2 for each 610 of the life-cycles that we consider.

Life-cycle	B_{ji}	D_i
Moran Birth-Death	$d_{ij}\frac{f_i}{\sum_{k=1}^N f_k}$	$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} d_{ji} f_j}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} f_k}$
Moran Death-Birth	$\frac{1}{N} \frac{d_{ij} f_i}{\sum_{k=1}^N d_{kj} f_k}$	$\frac{1}{N}$
Wright-Fisher	$\frac{d_{ij}f_i}{\sum_{k=1}^N d_{kj}f_k}$	1

{tab:BD}

Table A2: Formulas of B_{ji} and D_i for each of the life-cycles that we consider; f_i (shorthand notation for $f_i(X, \delta)$) is the fecundity of the individual living at site i, and d_{ji} is a dispersal probability, given in eq. (2).

Since a dead individual is immediately replaced by one new individual,

$$D_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N} B_{ij}$$
 (A8a) {eq:DBequiv}

holds for all sites i. The structure of the population is also such that in the absence of selection ($\delta = 0$, so that $f_i = 1$ for all sites $1 \le i \le N$), all individuals have the same probability of dying and the same probability of having successful offspring (i.e., of having offspring that become adults at the next time step), so that

$$D_i^0 = \sum_{j=1}^N B_{ji}^0 = B_i^0 =: B^*, \tag{A8b}$$
 {eq:DBRV}

where the 0 subscript means that the quantities are evaluated for $\delta=0$. This also implies that B^0_{ij} and D^0_i do not depend on the state **X** of the population. For the Moran life-cycles, $B^*=1/N$, while for the Wright-Fisher life-cycle, $B^*=1$. (The difference between eq. (A8b) and eq. (A8a) is that we are now considering offspring produced by i landing on j).

Given that the population is in state $\mathbf{X}(t)$ at time t, the expected frequency of altruists at time t+1 is given by

$$\mathbb{E}\big[\overline{X}(t+1)|\mathbf{X}(t)\big] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \big[B_i(1-\mu)X_i + (1-D_i)X_i + B_i\mu\nu\big]. \tag{A9a} \quad \{\text{eq:conditionalchange}\}$$

The first term within the brackets corresponds to births of unmutated offspring from parents who are altruists (X_i) . The second term corresponds to the survival of altruists. The third term corresponds to the births of mutants who became altruists (which occurs with probability v), whichever the type of the parent.

Given that there is no absorbing population state (a lost strategy can always be recreated by mutation), there is a stationary distribution of population states; the expected frequency of altruists does not change anymore for large times t (realized frequencies of course keep changing). We denote by $\xi(\mathbf{X}, \delta, \mu)$ the probability that the population is in state \mathbf{X} , given the strength of selection δ and the mutation probability μ . Taking the expectation of eq. (A9a) ($\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] = \sum_{X \in \Omega} \overline{X} \xi(\mathbf{X}, \delta, \mu)$), we obtain, after reorganizing:

$$0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{X \in \Omega} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(B_i (1 - \mu) X_i - D_i X_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_i \mu \nu \right] \xi(\mathbf{X}, \delta, \mu). \tag{A10} \quad \{ \text{eq:statdist} \}$$

Now, we use the assumption of weak selection ($\delta \ll 1$) and consider the first-order expansion of eq. (A10) for δ close to 0.

$$\begin{split} 0 &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{X \in \Omega} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(B_i^0 (1 - \mu) X_i - D_i^0 X_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_i^0 \mu \nu \right] \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu) \\ &+ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{X \in \Omega} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\partial B_i (1 - \mu) - D_i}{\partial \delta} X_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial B_i}{\partial \delta} \mu \nu \right] \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu) \\ &+ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{X \in \Omega} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(B_i^0 (1 - \mu) X_i - D_i^0 X_i \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_i^0 \mu \nu \right] \frac{\partial \xi(\mathbf{X}, \delta, \mu)}{\partial \delta}, \end{split} \tag{A11} \quad \{ eq:app:TaylorDetail \}$$

where all the derivatives are evaluated for $\delta = 0$. The first line of eq. (A11) is equal to zero, because $B_i^0 = D_i^0 = B^*$ (eq. (A8b)), and because in the absence of selection ($\delta = 0$), the expected state of every site i is $\mathbb{E}_0[X_i] = \sum_{X \in \Omega} X_i \xi(X, 0, \mu) = v$ (recall that v is the mutation bias parameter). The second terms of the second and third lines are both zero, because for all the life-cycles that we consider, the total number of births in the population during one time step $(\sum_{i=1}^N B_i)$ does not depend on population phenotypic composition (it is exactly 1 death for the Moran life-cycles, and exactly N for the Wright-Fisher life-cycle). Eq. (A11) then

645 becomes

$$0 = \frac{\delta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\sum_{X \in \Omega} \left(\frac{\partial B_i}{\partial \delta} (1 - \mu) - \frac{\partial D_i}{\partial \delta} \right) X_i \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu) - \sum_{X \in \Omega} \mu B^* X_i \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \delta} \right] + O\left(\delta^2\right), \quad (A12) \quad \{\text{eq:weaksel0}\}$$

where the derivatives are evaluated at $\delta = 0$. For conciseness, we define

$$W_i = (1 - \mu)B_i + (1 - D_i),$$
 (A13) {eq:app:defW}

a measure of fitness counting offspring only when they are unmutated (in the sense of the alternate mutation scheme described in Appendix A.3). With this, using the expectation notation, and denoting by $\mathbb{E}_0[]$ expectations under $\delta=0$, we can rewrite and reorganize eq. (A12) as

$$\delta \mu B^* \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]}{\partial \delta} = \frac{\delta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_0 \left[\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \delta} X_i \right] + O(\delta^2). \tag{A14} \quad \{eq: weaksel0 reorg\}$$

Now, we use a first time the law of total probabilities, taking individual phenotypes ϕ_k are intermediate variables:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \delta} &= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_k} \frac{\partial \phi_k}{\partial \delta} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_k} X_k, \end{split} \tag{A15} \quad \{eq:totalprobal}$$

by definition of ϕ_k ($\phi_k = \delta X_k$), and where the derivatives are evaluated for all $\phi_i = 0$. Introducing the notation $P_{ij} = \mathbb{E}_0[X_i X_j]$ (expected state of a pair of sites), eq. (A14) becomes

$$\delta \mu B^* \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]}{\partial \delta} = \frac{\delta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_k} P_{ik} + O(\delta^2). \tag{A16}$$

So far, we have not used the specificities of the population structure that we consider. Once we have fixed a focal individual i, in expectation there are only three types of individuals: the focal itself (denoted by " \bullet "), n-1 other individuals in the focal's deme (denoted by "in"), and N-n individuals in other demes (denoted by "out"). We note that given that the size of the population is fixed ($\sum_{i=1}^{N} (B_i - D_i) = 0$), and given that the total number of births does not depend on population composition in the life-cycles that we consider,

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \delta} = 0,$$

which we can rewrite as (Rousset & Billiard, 2000, p.817–818)

$$\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_i} + (n-1)\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_{\rm in}} + (N-n)\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_{\rm out}} = 0. \tag{A17} \quad \{eq: derivsumW\}$$

With this, eq. (A16) becomes

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$$\delta \mu B^* \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \delta} = \frac{\delta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_i} + (n-1) \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_{\text{in}}} \frac{P_{\text{in}} - P_{\text{out}}}{P_{ii} - P_{\text{out}}} \right) (P_{ii} - P_{\text{out}}) + O\left(\delta^2\right). \quad (A18) \quad \{\text{eq:weaksel1CBRP}\}$$

We can also replace the P terms by 665

$$P_{ij} = Q_{ij}v + (1 - Q_{ij})v^2$$

= $v^2 + v(1 - v)Q_{ij}$. (A19) {eq:QP}

In Appendix C.1, using recursions on P_{ij} , we will see that Q_{ij} can be interpreted as a probability of identity by descent, i.e., the probability that the individuals at sites i and j have a common ancestor and that no mutation (using the alterna-668 tive mutation scheme described in Appendix A.3) has occurred on either lineage since the ancestor. Eq. (A18) becomes

$$\delta \mu B^* \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \delta} = \frac{\delta}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\underbrace{\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_i}}_{-\mathcal{C}} + \underbrace{(n-1)\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_{\text{in}}}}_{\mathcal{B}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\text{in}} - Q_{\text{out}}}{1 - Q_{\text{out}}}}_{R} \right) (1 - Q_{\text{out}}) v (1 - v) + O\left(\delta^2\right). \tag{A20} \quad \{\text{eq:weaksel1CBR}}$$

We can further decompose the derivatives, now using the fecundities f_{ℓ} as 671 intermediate variables, *i.e.*,

$$\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial \phi_k} = \sum_{\ell=1}^N \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial f_\ell} \frac{\partial f_\ell}{\partial \phi_k}.$$
 (A21)

With our notation, and given that social interactions take place within demes and affect fecundity, we have {eq:derivf}

$$\left. \frac{\partial f_{\ell}}{\partial \phi_{\ell}} \right|_{\delta=0} = -\mathsf{c},\tag{A22a}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{\ell}}{\partial \phi_{\ell}}\Big|_{\delta=0} = -c, \tag{A22a}$$

$$\frac{\partial f_{\ell}}{\partial \phi_{\text{in}}}\Big|_{\delta=0} = \frac{b}{n-1}, \tag{A22b}$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial f_{\ell}}{\partial \phi_{\text{out}}} \right|_{\delta=0} = 0. \tag{A22c}$$

Eq. (A20) then becomes (using notation • to refer to the focal individual itself, and where $W = W_i$, since the derivatives are the same for all i):

$$\delta\mu B^* \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \delta} = \delta\nu (1-\nu)(1-Q_{\rm out}) \times \\ \left(\underbrace{\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\bullet}}(-\mathsf{c}) + \frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\rm in}}}_{-\mathcal{C}} \mathsf{b} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\bullet}}\mathsf{b} + (n-1)\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\rm in}}(-\mathsf{c}) + (n-2)\frac{\partial W}{\partial f_{\rm in}}\mathsf{b}\right)}_{\mathcal{B}} \underbrace{\frac{Q_{\rm in} - Q_{\rm out}}{1-Q_{\rm out}}}_{R}\right) + O\left(\delta^2\right).$$
(A23) {eq:weaksel2}

(As previously, all derivatives are evaluated at $\delta = 0$.)

Finally, we obtain a first-order approximation of the expected frequency of 678 altruists in the population with 679

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] = \nu + \delta \left. \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \delta} \right|_{\delta = 0} + O\left(\delta^2\right), \tag{A24} \quad \{eq:app:EXgeneric\}$$

where $v = \mathbb{E}_0[\overline{X}]$ (expected frequency in the absence of selection), and where

 $\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]}{\partial \delta}\Big|_{\delta=0}$ is obtained from eq. (A23). We then need to replace the B_i and D_i terms by their formulas for each life-cycle; they are given in table A2.

B.2 Derivatives for the specific life-cycles 683

{sec:app:dW}

Using the formulas presented in table A2, and the definition of $W = W_i$ given in 684

eq. (A13), we obtain the following equations: 685

{eq:dWBD}

Moran Birth-Death

$$\left. \frac{\partial W^{\rm BD}}{\partial f_{\bullet}} \right|_{\delta = 0} = (1 - \mu) \left(\frac{1}{N} - \frac{1}{N^2} \right) - \left(\frac{1 - m}{nN} - \frac{1}{N^2} \right) = \frac{1 - \mu}{N} + \frac{\mu}{N^2} - \frac{1 - m}{nN}, \quad (A25a)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial W^{\text{BD}}}{\partial f_{\text{in}}} \right|_{\delta = 0} = (1 - \mu) \left(-\frac{1}{N^2} \right) - \left(\frac{1 - m}{nN} - \frac{1}{N^2} \right) = \frac{\mu}{N^2} - \frac{1 - m}{nN}. \tag{A25b}$$

{eq:dWDB}

Moran Death-Birth

$$\left. \frac{\partial W^{\text{DB}}}{\partial f_{\bullet}} \right|_{\delta=0} = \frac{1-\mu}{N} \left[1 - \left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n} \right) \right],\tag{A26a}$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial W^{\text{DB}}}{\partial f_{\text{in}}} \right|_{\delta=0} = -\frac{1-\mu}{N} \left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n} \right). \tag{A26b}$$

In addition, for both Moran life-cycles, we have $B_{\rm M}^* = 1/N$.

{eq:dWWF}

Wright-Fisher

$$\frac{\partial W^{\text{WF}}}{\partial f_{\bullet}} \bigg|_{\delta=0} = (1-\mu) \left[1 - \left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n} \right) \right],$$
 (A27a)
$$\frac{\partial W^{\text{WF}}}{\partial f_{\text{in}}} \bigg|_{\delta=0} = -(1-\mu) \left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n} \right).$$
 (A27b)

$$\left. \frac{\partial W^{\text{WF}}}{\partial f_{\text{in}}} \right|_{\delta=0} = -(1-\mu) \left(\frac{(1-m)^2}{n} + \frac{m^2}{N-n} \right). \tag{A27b}$$

For the Wright-Fisher life-cycle, we have $B_{WF}^* = 1$. 687

Combining these equations with eq. (A24) and eq. (A23) given eqs. (7)-(9) in 688 the main text. 689

> 39 2017-11-10

C Probabilities of identity by descent

C.1 Expected state of pairs of sites and probabilities of identity by descent

{sec:app:IBD}

Here we show the link between the expected state of a pair of sites P_{ij} and probabilities of identity by descent Q_{ij} . In our derivation of $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$, P_{ij} is the quantity that appears, but most studies use Q_{ij} . Both are evaluated in the absence of selection ($\delta = 0$).

C.1.1 Moran model

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In a Moran model, exactly one individual dies and one individual reproduces during one time step. Given a state **X** at time t, at time t+1 both sites i and $j \neq i$ are occupied by altruists, if i) it was the case at time t and neither site was replaced by a non-altruist (first term in eq. (A28)), or ii) if exactly one of the two sites was occupied by a non-altruist at time t, but the site was replaced by an altruist (second and third terms of eq. (A28)):

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E} \big[X_i X_j(t+1) | X(t) &= \mathbf{X} \big] = & X_i X_j \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \left(d_{ki} + d_{kj} \right) \left((1 - X_k) (1 - \mu) + \mu (1 - \nu) \right) \right) \\ &+ X_i (1 - X_j) \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} d_{kj} \left(X_k (1 - \mu) + \mu \nu \right) \\ &+ X_j (1 - X_i) \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} d_{ki} \left(X_k (1 - \mu) + \mu \nu \right). \end{split} \tag{A28}$$

We take the expectation of this quantity, and consider that the stationary distribution is reached $(t \to \infty)$; then $\mathbb{E}[X_i X_j(t+1)] = \mathbb{E}[X_i X_j(t)]$, and we obtain

$$P_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} (1 - \mu) \left(d_{kj} P_{ki} + d_{ki} P_{kj} \right) \right) + \mu v^2 \qquad (i \neq j), \tag{A29} \quad \{eq:app:PijM\}$$

706 while $P_{ii} = v$.

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Now we substitute $P_{ij} = v^2 + v(1 - v)Q_{ij}$ in eq. (A29), we obtain

$$Q_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (1 - \mu) \left(d_{ki} Q_{kj} + d_{kj} Q_{ki} \right), \tag{A30} \quad \{eq:app:QijM\}$$

and we realize that Q_{ij} is the probability that the individuals at sites i and $j \neq i$ are identical by descent. To compute it indeed, we need to pick which site was last updated (equal probabilities), then who was the parent (k); the other individual needs to be identical by descent to the parent, and no mutation should have occurred $(1 - \mu)$.

C.1.2 Wright-Fisher model

In a Wright-Fisher model, all individuals are replaced at each time step, so we directly consider the state of the parents:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\big[X_{i}X_{j}(t+1)|X(t) &= \mathbf{X}\big] &= \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} d_{ki}d_{\ell j} \bigg(X_{k}X_{\ell}(1-\mu+\mu\nu)^{2} \\ &\quad + (X_{k}(1-X_{\ell}) + (1-X_{k})X_{\ell})\,(1-\mu+\mu\nu)(\mu\nu) \\ &\quad + (1-X_{k})(1-X_{\ell})(\mu\nu)^{2}\bigg) \end{split} \tag{A31} \quad \{\text{eq:app:PijWF1}\} \end{split}$$

The first term of eq. (A31) corresponds to both parents being altruists, and hav-

ing altruist offspring; the second line corresponds to exactly one parent being

altruist, and the third line to both parents being non-altruists (in this latter case,

the two offspring have to be both mutants to be altruists).

720 Taking the expectation and simplifying, we obtain

$$P_{ij} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} \left(P_{kl} (1 - \mu)^2 \right) + (2 - \mu) \mu v^2. \tag{A32} \quad \{eq:app:PijWF\}$$

Replacing P_{ij} by $v^2 + v(1-v)Q_{ij}$, eq. (A32) becomes

$$Q_{ij} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} d_{ki} d_{\ell j} Q_{k\ell} (1-\mu)^{2}.$$
 (A33) {eq:app:QijWF}

Again, Q_{ij} corresponds to a probability of identity by descent: the individuals at sites i and j are identical by descent if their parents were and if neither mutated $((1-\mu)^2)$.

C.2 Probabilities of identity by descent in a subdivided population

{sec:app:Qsubdiv}

Two individuals are said to be identical by descent if there has not been any mutation on either lineage since their common ancestor. Because of the structure of the population, there are only three types of pairs of individuals, and hence three different values of the probabilities of identity by descent of pairs of sites Q_{ij} :

$$Q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } i = j; \\ Q_{\text{in}} & \text{when } i \neq j \text{ and both sites are in the same deme;} \\ Q_{\text{out}} & \text{when sites } i \text{ and } j \text{ are in different demes.} \end{cases}$$
 (A34)

The values of Q_{in} and Q_{out} depend on the type of life-cycle that we consider.

Here, we will use formulas derived in Débarre (2017) for "two-dimensional 732 population structures". The name comes from the fact that we only need two 733 types of transformations to go from any site to any other site in the population: 734 permutations on the deme index, and permutations on the within-deme index. 735 We rewrite site labels $(1 \le i \le N)$ as (ℓ_1, ℓ_2) , where ℓ_1 is the index of the deme $(1 \le i \le N)$ 736 $\ell_1 \leq N_D$) and ℓ_2 the position of the site within the deme $(1 \leq \ell_2 \leq n)$. Then, we 737 introduce notations $ilde{d}_{i_1}$ and $ilde{Q}_{i_1}$, that correspond to the dispersal probability and 738 probability of identity by descent to a site at distances i_1 and i_2 in the amongdemes and within-deme dimensions (*e.g.*, $\tilde{d}_{i_1} = d_{j_1 \ j_1 + i_1}$.)

Also, in this section, we distinguish between $d_{\text{self}} = d_{ii}$ and d_{in} (in the main 740 741 text, $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}}$). 742

743 C.2.1 Moran model

In Débarre (2017), it was shown that

$$\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}}^{r_{1}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{1}=0}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}^{q_{1}}} \exp\left(i\frac{2\pi q_{1}r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(i\frac{2\pi q_{2}r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \tag{A35a} \quad \{\text{eq:app:Q2DM}}$$

745 with

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$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}^{q_{1}} = \sum_{\ell_{1}=0}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{\ell_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} \tilde{d}_{\ell_{1}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{1}\ell_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2}\ell_{2}}{N_{2}}\right), \tag{A35b} \quad \{\text{eq:app:D2D}\}$$

and λ_M' such that $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_0 = 1$. Let us first compute $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_1}^{q_1}$ in the case of a subdivided population, with $N_1 = N_D$ and $N_2 = n$:

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{2}}^{q_{1}} = d_{\text{self}} + \sum_{\ell_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} d_{\text{in}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2}\ell_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) + \sum_{\ell_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{\ell_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} d_{\text{out}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{1}\ell_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2}\ell_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \\
= d_{\text{self}} + \left(\delta_{q_{2}}(N_{2}-1) + (1-\delta_{q_{2}})(-1)\right) d_{\text{in}} + \left(\delta_{q_{1}}(N_{1}-1) + (1-\delta_{q_{1}})(-1)\right) \left(\delta_{q_{2}}N_{2}\right) d_{\text{out}} \\
= d_{\text{self}} + \left(\delta_{q_{2}}N_{2}-1\right) d_{\text{in}} + \left(\delta_{q_{1}}N_{1}-1\right) \delta_{q_{2}}N_{2} d_{\text{out}}. \tag{A36a}$$

 δ_q is equal to 1 when q is equal to 0 modulo the relevant dimension, and to 0

otherwise). So for the three types of distances that we need to consider (distance

0, distance to another deme-mate, distance to individual in another deme), and

with $N_1 = N_D$ and $N_2 = n$, we obtain

{eq:app:Dsystem}

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_0 = 1, \tag{A37a}$$

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_1} = 1 - m - \frac{m}{N_D - 1} \quad (q_1 \neq 0 \pmod{N_1}),$$
 (A37b)

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_1} = d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}} \quad (q_2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N_2}).$$
 (A37c)

So for $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}$, using system (A37) in eq. (A35a),

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}^{\prime}} &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}^{\prime}}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0}^{\prime}} + \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0}} \exp \left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}} \right) \right. \\ &\quad + \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}} \exp \left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}} \right) \\ &\quad + \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}} \exp \left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}} \right) \exp \left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}} \right) \right] \\ &\quad = \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}^{\prime}}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (d_{\mathrm{self}} - d_{\mathrm{in}})} (\delta_{r_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (1 - m - \frac{m}{N_{D} - 1})} (\delta_{r_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (d_{\mathrm{self}} - d_{\mathrm{in}})} (\delta_{r_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \left[\delta_{r_{2}} N_{2} - 1 \right] \right]. \end{split} \tag{A38} \quad \{ \mathrm{eq:app:Q2DMso1} \}$$

753 In particular,

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{0}^{0} &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}^{\prime}}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (n - 1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{N_{D} - 1})} (N_{D} - 1) \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (N_{D} - 1) (n - 1) \right] \\ &= 1. \end{split} \tag{A39a} \quad \{eq: app: Q2D1\}$$

We find λ_M' using eq. (A39a). Let's now go back to eq. (A38): when $r_1 = 0$, the two individuals are in the same deme. They are different when $r_2 \not\equiv 0$, and so:

$$Q_{\text{in}} = \frac{\mu \lambda_M'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{N_D - 1})} (D - 1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (D - 1) (-1) \right]. \tag{A39b}$$

And when $r_1 \not\equiv 0$, the two individuals are in different demes:

$$Q_{\text{out}} = \frac{\mu \lambda_M'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{N_D - 1})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} \right].$$
(A39c)

With $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}} = (1 - m)/n$, we eventually obtain:

{eq:QM}

$$Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M} = \frac{(1-\mu)\left(m+\mu(N_D(1-m)-1)\right)}{(1-\mu)m(N_D\mu(n-1)+1)+(N_D-1)\mu(\mu(n-1)+1)},\tag{A40a}$$

$$Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}} = \frac{(1-\mu)m}{(1-\mu)m(N_D\mu(n-1)+1) + (N_D-1)\mu(\mu(n-1)+1)}.$$
 (A40b)

The probability that two different deme-mates are identical by descent, $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}$, decreases monotonically with the emigration probability m, while $Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M}$ monotonically increases with m (see figure A5(a)).

When the mutation probability μ is vanishingly small ($\mu \to 0$), both $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}$ and $Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M}$ are equal to 1: in the absence of mutation indeed, the population ends up fixed for one of the two types, and all individuals are identical by descent. Note that we obtain a different result if we first assumed that the size of the population is infinite ($N_D \to \infty$), because the order of limits matters; for instance, $\lim_{d\to\infty}Q_{\rm out}^M=0$.

767 C.2.2 Wright-Fisher

For the Wright-Fisher updating, the equation for $ilde{Q}$ is different:

$$\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}}^{r_{1}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{1}=0}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda'_{WF}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right), \quad (A41)$$

with $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}$ given in eq. (A35b). In a subdivided population, with $N_1=N_D$ and $N_2=n$, this becomes

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}}^{r_{1}} &= \frac{1}{N} \bigg[\frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0})^{2}} + \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0})^{2}} \exp \bigg(- i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}} \bigg) \\ &+ \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp \bigg(- i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}} \bigg) \\ &+ \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp \bigg(- i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}} \bigg) \exp \bigg(- i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}} \bigg) \bigg] \\ &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{N} \bigg[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2}} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (1 - m - \frac{m}{N_{D} - 1})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) (\delta_{q_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \bigg] \\ &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}^{\prime}}{N} \bigg[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2}} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (1 - m - \frac{m}{N_{D} - 1})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \bigg]. \end{split} \tag{A42} \quad \{\text{eq:app:Q2DWFsol}\}$$

To find λ'_{WF} , we solve $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_0 = 1$, *i.e.*,

$$1 = \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^2} (N_2 - 1) N_1 + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{N_D - 1})^2} (N_1 - 1) \right]. \tag{A43a}$$

Then from eq. (A42) we deduce

$$Q_{\rm in} = \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (d_{\rm self} - d_{\rm in})^2} N_1 + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{N_D - 1})^2} (N_1 - 1) \right]. \tag{A43b}$$

773 and

$$Q_{\text{out}} = \frac{\mu \lambda'_{WF}}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{d-1})^2} \right].$$
 (A43c)

774 With $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}} = (1 - m)/n$, we obtain:

{eq:QWF}

$$Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF} = \frac{-N_D + M_1 + M_2}{(n-1)N_D + M_1 + M_2},\tag{A44a}$$

$$Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}} = \frac{-\frac{1}{N_D - 1} M_1 + M_2}{(n - 1)N_D + M_1 + M_2},\tag{A44b}$$

775 with

$$M_1 = \frac{N_D - 1}{1 - \frac{(1 - \mu)^2 (N_D (1 - m) - 1)^2}{(N_D - 1)^2}}$$
 and $M_2 = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2}$.

(These formulas are compatible with, *e.g.*, results presented by Cockerham & Weir (1987), adapted for haploid individuals).

In the Wright-Fisher life-cycle, $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF}$ decreases until $m=m_c^{\rm WF}=\frac{N_D-1}{N_D}$, while $Q_{\rm out}^{\rm WF}$ follows the opposite pattern. The threshold value $m_c^{\rm WF}$ corresponds to an emigration probability so high that $d_{\rm in}=d_{\rm out}$.

The two probabilities of identity by descent go to 1 when the mutation probability μ is very small ($\mu \to 0$), except if we first assume that the number of demes is very large ($N_D \to \infty$); for instance, with this life-cycle as well, $\lim_{N_D \to \infty} Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}} = 0$.

Also, because more sites (all of them, actually) are updated at each time step, $Q_{\rm in}$ is lower for the Wright-Fisher updating than for a Moran updating, under which only one site is updated at each time step (compare figure A5(a) and A5(b)).

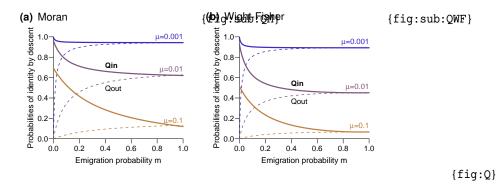


Figure A5: Probabilities of identity by descent, for two different individuals within the same deme $(Q_{\rm in},$ full curves) and two individuals in different demes $(Q_{\rm out},$ dashed curves), as a function of the emigration probability m, for different values of the mutation probability μ (0.001, 0.01, 0.1), and for the two types of life-cycles ((a): Moran, (b): Wright-Fisher). Other parameters: n=4 individuals per deme, $N_D=15$ demes.