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1 Introduction

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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 favor the evolution of altruism, has been shown to hold in a number of population structures (see *e.g.* Ohtsuki et al., 2006; Taylor et al., 2007a; Lehmann et al., 2007). The rationale 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). The evolution of social traits hence depends on the balance between the positive effects of interactions with related individuals and the detrimental consequences of kin competition. 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 (1992) 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 lifecycle 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.

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 approximations, and commonly assume rare (*e.g.*, Leturque & Rousset, 2002; Taylor et al., 2007b; Tarnita & Taylor, 2014) or absent mutation (for models assuming infinite population sizes, or models concentrating on fixation probabilities). Often, these simplifying assumptions are a necessary step towards obtaining explicit analytical results. Although artificial, simple population structures (*e.g.*,

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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 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 mutation is relatively weak. A social strategy can however also be culturally transmitted from parent to offspring, in which case "rebellion" (as in Frank's Rebellious 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). Here, we want to explore the consequences of imperfect strategy transmission from parents to their offspring on the evolution of altruistic behavior in subdivided populations. 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.

For each of the three life-cycles that we consider, we compute the expected (*i.e.*, long-term) frequency of altruists maintained in a subdivided population, and investigate how it is affected by mutation and emigration. We find that, contrary to what happens with perfect strategy transmission, higher emigration can increase the expected frequency of altruists in the population.

2 Model and methods

2.1 Assumptions

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We consider a population of size N, subdivided into N_D demes, each hosting exactly n individuals (i.e., containing 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 ($1 \le i \le N$) 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 $\overline{X} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$.

Reproduction is asexual. Parents transmit their strategy to their offspring with probability $1-\mu$; this transmission can be genetic or cultural (vertical cultural transmission), but for simplicity, we refer to the parameter μ as a mutation probability. 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. We call the parameter ν the mutation bias.

Social interactions take place within each deme; each individual interacts with the n-1 other deme members. We assume that social interactions affect individual fecundity, whose baseline is set equal to 1. Each interaction with an altruist increases an individual's fecundity by ω b; altruists pay a fecundity cost ω c (c \leq b). The parameter ω scales the relative effect of social interactions on fecundity, and is assumed to be small ($\omega \ll 1$).

Denoting by e_{ij} the interaction probability between individuals living at sites i and j, we have

$$e_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j; \\ \frac{1}{n-1} & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and both sites are in the same deme;} \\ 0 & \text{if the two sites are in different demes.} \end{cases}$$
 (1) {eq:defE}

Given our assumptions and with this notation, the fecundity of the individual living at site k is given by

$$f_k(\mathbf{X}, \omega) = 1 + \omega \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^N e_{\ell k} \mathsf{b} X_\ell - \mathsf{c} X_k \right). \tag{2} \quad \{\mathsf{eq}: \mathsf{deff}\}$$

Although our assumptions may seem restrictive: we assume that fecundity benefits are unconditional, *i.e.*, the same which ever the type of the recipient, and the fecundity effects are additive, *i.e.*, the effect of interacting with *k* altruists is

k times the effect of interacting with one altruist. And yet, the same fecundities are obtained with a generic fecundity function, after linearization, under the assumption that altruists and defectors are phenotypically close (see Appendix A for details).

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

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

The way the population is updated from one time step to the next depends on the chosen life-cycle (also called updating rule). 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 112 die. 113

Moran Death-Birth: One of the adults is chosen to die (uniformly at random 114 among all adults). It is replaced by one of the juveniles who had landed in 115 its site. All other juveniles die. 116

Wright-Fisher: All the adults die. At each site of the entire population, one of 117 the juveniles that landed there is chosen and establishes at the site. 118

2.2 Methods

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2.2.1 **Analytical part**

To derive the expected (i.e., long-term) proportion of altruists in the population, 121 we use the toolbox presented in Débarre (2017), which is valid for any regular 122 population and any life-cycle. Calculation details are given in Appendix B; they 123 go as follows. First, we write an equation for the expected frequency of altruists 124 in the population at time t+1, conditional on the composition of the population 125 at time t; we then take the expectation of this quantity, for large times t. After 126 this, we use the assumption that selection is weak ($\omega \ll 1$) and write a first order expansion of the expression that we have obtained. By doing so, we let appear quantities that can be identified as neutral probabilities of identity by descent Q_{ij} , *i.e.*, the probability that individuals living at site i and j share a common ancestor and that no mutation occurred on either lineage since that ancestor, in a model with no selection ($\omega = 0$).

These neutral probabilities of identity by descent depend on the chosen life-cycle, and are also computed by taking the long-term expectation of conditional expectations after one time step (see Appendix B.2).

Check results with regular results

2.2.2 Stochastic simulations

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, we estimated the long-term frequency of altruists by sampling the population every 10^3 generations and computing the average frequency of altruists.

add Code availability

3 Results

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3.1 Probabilities of identity by descent

As we will see later, the expected frequencies of altruists in the population depend on probabilities of identity by descent of pairs of sites, Q_{ij} . 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 Q_{ij} :

$$Q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } i = j; \\ Q_{\text{in}} & \text{when } i \neq j \text{ and both sites are in the same deme;} \\ Q_{\text{out}} & \text{when sites } i \text{ and } j \text{ are in different demes.} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

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

Moran updating

Under the Moran life-cycles, probabilities of identity by descent satisfy, for any 154 pair of sites i and $i \neq i$,

$$Q_{ij}^{M} = \frac{1-\mu}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left(d_{kj} Q_{ki}^{M} + d_{ki} Q_{kj}^{M} \right).$$
 (5)

Given the law of total probabilities, we first consider the site that was last up-156 dated (1/2 chance that it was j rather than i); then we consider each potential 157 parent k, weighted by the dispersal probabilities d_{kj} . Then the individuals at 158 sites i and j are identical by descent (IBD) if i and j's parent were IBD (Q_{ki}^{M}) and 159 if no mutation occurred $(1-\mu)$. Replacing the dispersal probabilities d_{ij} by their 160 values (given in eq. (3)), we eventually obtain (see Appendix B.2 for calculation steps): 162

{eq:QM}

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

$$Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}} = \frac{(1-\mu)m}{(1-\mu)m(N_D\mu(n-1)+1)+(N_D-1)\mu(\mu(n-1)+1)}.$$
(6a)

$$Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{M}} = \frac{(1-\mu)m}{(1-\mu)m(N_D\mu(n-1)+1) + (N_D-1)\mu(\mu(n-1)+1)}.$$
 (6b)

The probability that two different deme-mates are identical by descent, Q_{in}^{M} , monotonically decreases with the emigration probability m, while $Q_{out}^{\rm M}$ monotonically increases with m (see figure 1(a)).

When the mutation probability μ is vanishingly small ($\mu \rightarrow 0$), both $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}$ and $Q_{\mathrm{out}}^{\mathrm{M}}$ 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, $\lim_{d\to\infty} Q_{\rm out}^M = 0.$

3.1.2 Wright-Fisher updating

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Under a Wright-Fisher life-cycle, generations are synchronous: all individuals are replaced at each time step. Probabilities of identity by descent satisfy, for any pair of sites i and $i \neq i$

$$Q_{ij}^{\text{WF}} = (1 - \mu)^2 \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} d_{ki} d_{\ell j} Q_{kl}^{\text{WF}}.$$
 (7)

The sum is over all possible parents k and ℓ of i and j, weighted by the dispersal probabilities to sites i and j; the individuals at sites i and j are identical by descent if their parents were $(Q_{k\ell})$ and if neither mutated $((1-\mu)^2)$.

Replacing the dispersal probabilities d_{ij} by their values (given in eq. (3)) and skipping calculation steps (but see Appendix B.2 for details), we obtain:

{eq:QWF}

$$Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF} = \frac{-N_D + M_1 + M_2}{(n-1)N_D + M_1 + M_2},\tag{8a}$$

$$Q_{\text{out}}^{\text{WF}} = \frac{-\frac{1}{N_D - 1} M_1 + M_2}{(n - 1)N_D + M_1 + M_2},\tag{8b}$$

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

Here, $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF}$ decreases until $m=m_c^{\rm WF}=\frac{d-1}{d}$, then increases again, while $Q_{\rm out}^{WF}$ follows the opposite pattern. The threshold value $m_c^{\rm WF}$ corresponds to an emigration probability so high that an individual's offspring is as likely to land in its parent's deme as in any other deme (*i.e.*, $d_{\rm in}=d_{\rm out}$).

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 1(a) and 1(b)).

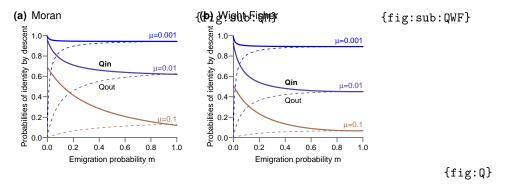


Figure 1: Probabilities of identity by descent, for two different individuals within the same deme ($Q_{\rm in}$, full curves) and two individuals in different demes ($Q_{\rm out}$, dashed curves), as a function of the emigration probability m, for different values of the mutation probability μ (0.001, 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.

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

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] \approx \nu + \omega \frac{\nu(1-\nu)}{\mu} \left[b \left(\beta_{\mathrm{D}} - \beta_{\mathrm{I}}\right) - c \left(\gamma_{\mathrm{D}} - \gamma_{\mathrm{I}}\right) \right]. \tag{9} \quad \{\mathrm{eq}: \mathtt{EXapprox}\}$$

(Calculations leading to eq. (9) are presented in the Appendix B). The mutation bias v corresponds to the expected proportion of altruists in the population in the absence of selection (*i.e.*, when $\omega = 0$); ω is the parameter that scales the effects of interactions between individuals and is assumed to be small; the subscript D refers to "direct" effects, and the subscript I to "indirect" effects. These indirect effects correspond to (kin) competition: by providing a benefit to a deme-mate and thereby increasing its fecundity, a focal altruist indirectly harms others by reducing their relative fecundity ($\beta_{\rm I}$ term in eq. (9)); by having a reduced fecundity due to the cost of altruism, a focal altruist indirectly favors others by increasing their relative fecundity ($\gamma_{\rm I}$ term).

We now present the values of these different terms for the three life-cycles under study.

3.2.1 **Direct effects**

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Direct effects are similar for the three life-cycles; the only difference is the value of probabilities of identity by descent Q (as seen in the previous section, they differ between Moran and Wright-Fisher life-cycles):

{eq:directeffects}

$$\beta_{\mathrm{D}}^{\mathrm{BD}} = \beta_{\mathrm{D}}^{\mathrm{DB}} = \left(1 - \mu\right) Q_{\mathrm{in}}^{\mathrm{M}},$$
 (10a) {eq:bBDD}

$$\beta_{\mathrm{D}}^{\mathrm{WF}} = \left(1 - \mu\right) Q_{\mathrm{in}}^{\mathrm{WF}};$$
 (10b) {eq:bWFD}

$$\beta_{\rm D}^{\rm BD} = \beta_{\rm D}^{\rm DB} = (1 - \mu) \, Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}, \qquad (10a) \quad \{\rm eq:bBDD\}$$

$$\beta_{\rm D}^{\rm WF} = (1 - \mu) \, Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF}; \qquad (10b) \quad \{\rm eq:bWFD\}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm BD} = \gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm BD} = \gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm WF} = 1 - \mu. \qquad (10c) \quad \{\rm eq:cBDD\}$$

For both benefits and costs, direct effects only count when there is no mutation $(1 - \mu)$. Direct effects of benefits b (eq. (10a) and eq. (10b)) only count if the interaction takes place with an individual who is identical by descent. With the population structure that we consider, social interactions only occur within demes, so only $Q_{\rm in}$ is present in eq. (10a) and eq. (10b). On the other hand, the direct effect of the fecundity cost c (eq. (10c)) does not depend on the type of interactant.

As seen in the previous section, $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}$ and $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF}$ decrease with the emigration probability m (actually only until $m=\frac{d-1}{d}$ for the latter). Consequently, the magnitude of the direct (beneficial) effects of benefits b provided by altruists

 $(\beta_{\rm D})$ decreases when the emigration probability m increases, while the direct (detrimental) effects ($\gamma_{\rm D}$) due to the direct cost of altruism c are constant. As a result, if we only consider direct effects, more emigration m is detrimental to the evolution of altruistic behaviour. But there are also indirect effects at play.

226 3.2.2 Indirect effects

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Indirect effects are collateral effects on other individuals; they depend on the type of life-cycle, but always involve individuals who are identical by descent.

Moran Birth-Death Changing the fecundity of a focal individual has two kinds of indirect effects on others: *i*) it changes their probability of being the one chosen to reproduce – this affects all individuals in the population who are identical by descent to the focal, and *ii*) it changes their probability of dying because the number of offspring landing in their site changes – this affects individuals in the population who can send offspring at the same locations as the focal and are identical-by-descent to it. For this life-cycle, the indirect effects are:

$$\begin{split} \beta_{\rm I}^{\rm BD} &= (1-m) \left(\frac{n-1}{n} Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M} + \frac{1}{n} \right) + m \, Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M} - \mu \frac{1 + (n-1) Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M} + n (d-1) Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M}}{n d} \\ &= \gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm BD}. \end{split} \tag{11a} \label{eq:bbdispersion}$$

(Calculation details are presented in Appendix B.)

The formulas are the same for the indirect effects associated to b and to c; in other words, the balance between the two indirect effects remains the same when the emigration probability changes. The term $(\frac{n-1}{n}Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}+\frac{1}{n})$, which will appear again later, corresponds to the probability that two individuals sampled with replacement from the same deme are identical by descent. Indirect effects are indeed also felt by the focal individual itself (*e.g.*, increasing the fecundity of another individual implies decreasing one's own relative fecundity).

Replacing $Q_{\rm in}$ and $Q_{\rm out}$ by their formula for the Moran life-cycle (eq. (6)), we conclude that $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm BD}=\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm BD}$ are decreasing functions of the emigration probability m.

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3.2.3 Moran Death-Birth

With this life-cycle, death comes first and every individual in the population has the same survival probability (1/N). The indirect consequences of changing a focal individual's fecundity affect all individuals who can send their offspring to the same locations as the focal, and who are identical by descent to it. We obtain

$$\begin{split} \beta_{\rm I}^{\rm DB} &= (1-\mu) \left[\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{(n-1)Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}}{n} \right) \left((1-m)^2 + \frac{m^2}{(d-1)} \right) \right. \\ &+ Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M} \left(2m(1-m) + (d-2)\frac{m^2}{(d-1)} \right) \right] \\ &= \gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm DB} \end{split} \tag{11b} \label{eq:bdbI}$$

The brackets in eq. (11b) contain a sum of two terms. The first term corresponds two individuals from the same deme (with replacement) whose offspring either do not emigrate, or emigrate together to the same deme. The second term corresponds to individuals initially from different demes who end up in the same deme (either one of their home demes, or a third deme).

Here again, $\beta_{\rm I} = \gamma_{\rm I}$, so the balance between indirect benefits and indirect costs does not change when the emigration probability m increases.

Replacing $Q_{\rm in}$ and $Q_{\rm out}$ by their formulas given in eq. (6), we can conclude that $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm DB} = \gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm DB}$ first decreases with the emigration probability m, and increases again after a threshold value m_c' (given in the appendix; $m_c' < (d-1)/d$).

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3.2.4 Wright-Fisher

With this life-cycle, generations are synchronous and all individuals again all have the same survival probability (now equal to 0 at all sites). As a result, the formulas for $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm WF}$ and $\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm WF}$ are the same as $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm DB}$ and $\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm WF}$, except that instead of $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm M}$ and $Q_{\rm out}^{\rm M}$, we need to use $Q_{\rm in}^{\rm WF}$ and $Q_{\rm out}^{\rm WF}$ (given in eq. (8)). Once this is done, we see that $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm WF} = \gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm WF}$ first decreases with the emigration probability m, and increases again after the threshold value $m_c^{\rm WF} = (d-1)/d$ (which was identified previously as the emigration probability such that offspring have an equal chance of landing in their natal deme or in any other deme, *i.e.*, $d_{\rm in} = d_{\rm out}$).

3.3 Identifying threshold values of the mutation probability μ

In the previous section, we investigated the impact of changes in the emigration probability m on each of the terms that make up the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$. Now we need to combine these different terms to focus on the quantity we are eventually interested in, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$. The rather lengthy formulas that we obtain are relegated to the appendix, and we concentrate here on the results.

3.3.1 **Moran Birth-Death**

For this life-cycle, we find that the expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ is a mono-279 tonic 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

$$\mu_c^{\rm BD} = 1 - \frac{\mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c} + \sqrt{(\mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c}) \left(4\mathsf{b} (nd)^2 + \mathsf{b} - \mathsf{c} \right)}}{2\mathsf{b} nd} \tag{12}$$

This result is illustrated in figure 2(b); with the parameters of the figure, $\mu_c^{\rm BD} \approx$ 0.026. 285

3.3.2 **Moran Death-Birth**

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The relationship between $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ and m is a bit more complicated for this life-287 cycle. For simplicity, we concentrate on what happens starting from low emi-288 gration probabilities (i.e., the sign of the slope of $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ as a function of m when 289 $m \to 0$). If the benefits b provided by altruists are relatively low (b < c(n + 1)), 290 $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ initially increases with m provided the mutation probability μ is greater 291 than a threshold value μ_c^{DB} given in eq. (13) below; otherwise, when the benefits 292 are high enough, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ initially increases with m for any value of μ . Combining these results, we write

$$\mu_c^{\rm DB} = \begin{cases} \frac{(n+1){\rm c} - {\rm b}}{(2n-1){\rm b} - (n-1){\rm c}} & \text{if } {\rm b} < {\rm c}(n+1), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{13} \quad \{ {\rm eq:mucDB} \}$$

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In figure 2(a), the parameters are such that $\mu_c^{\mathrm{DB}}=0$. The expected frequency of altruists $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ reaches a maximum at an emigration probability $m_c^{\rm DB}$ (whose complicated equation is in the appendix), as can be seen in figure 2(a). When the mutation probability gets close to 0 ($\mu \rightarrow 0$), m_c^{DB} also gets close to 0,

3.3.3 Wright-Fisher

The expected frequency of altruists in the population reaches an extremum when $m = m_c^{\text{WF}} = \frac{d-1}{d}$. This extremum is a maximum when the mutation probability is higher than a threshold value μ_c^{WF} given by

what about when initially decreases with m?

 $\mu_c^{\text{WF}} = 1 - \sqrt{1 - \frac{\mathsf{c}}{\mathsf{b}}},$ (14)

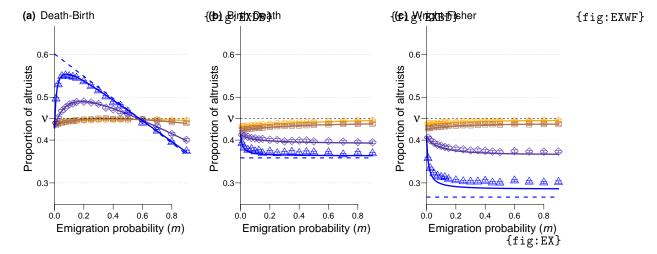


Figure 2: Expected proportion of altruists under weak selection, as a function of the emigration probability m, for different mutation values ($\mu=0.001$ (blue, dots), 0.01 (purple, squares), 0.1 (brown, diamonds), 0.25 (orange, triangles); the dashed blue lines correspond to $\mu=0$) and different 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: $\omega=0.005$, v=0.45, b=15, c=1, n=4 individuals per deme, $N_D=15$ demes.

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

3.4 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 ($\omega \ll 1$), and the fact that the structure of the population is regular (all demes have the same size n). We explored with numerical simulations the effect of relaxing these key assumptions. When selection is strong, the patterns that we identified not only still hold but are even more marked, as shown on figure S1.

To relax the assumption of equal deme sizes, we randomly drew deme sizes at the beginning of simulations, with sizes ranging from 2 to 6 individuals and on average $\overline{n} = 4$ individuals per deme as previously. As shown in figure S2, the patterns initially obtained with a homogeneous population structure are robust

when the structure is heterogeneous.

For the Moran model, it may seem odd that an offspring can replace its own parent (which can occur since $d_{ii} \neq 0$). Figure S3, plotted with dispersal probabilities preventing immediate replacement of one's own parent (for all sites i, $d_{ii} = d_{\text{self}} = 0$; $d_{\text{in}} = (1 - m)/(n - 1)$ for two different sites in the same deme, d_{out} remaining unchanged), confirms that this does affect our conclusions.

4 Discussion

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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-325 tor) from a parent to its offspring could be imperfect, we found that the expected 326 frequency of altruists maintained in a population could increase with the prob-327 ability m of emigration out of the parental deme, a parameter tuning population 328 viscosity. This result can seem surprising, because it contradicts the conclusions 329 obtained under the assumption of nearly perfect strategy transmission (i.e., in 330 the case of genetic transmission, when mutation is very weak or absent). Under 331 nearly perfect strategy transmission indeed, increased population viscosity (i.e., 332 decreased emigration probability) is either neutral (Taylor, 1992, and dashed 333 lines in figures 2(b)-(c)) or favorable (Taylor et al., 2007a, and dashed lines in 334 figure 2(a)) to the evolution of altruistic behavior. 335

Quantitative vs. qualitative measures

We used a quantitative measure, the expected frequency of altruists in the population ($\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$), to explore how non-zero mutation probabilities altered the impact of population viscosity. Often however, evolutionary success is measured qualitatively, by comparing a quantity (an expected frequency, or, in models with no mutation, a probability of fixation) to the value it would have in the absence of selection. In our model, this amounts to saying that altruism is favored whenever $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}] > v$ (v is plotted as a horizontal dashed line in figure 2). Some of our conclusions change if we switch to this qualitative measure of evolutionary success: Under the Moran Birth-Death and Wright-Fisher life-cycles, population viscosity does not promote the evolution of altruism – actually, these two life-cycles cannot ever promote altruistic behavior for any regular population structure (Taylor et al., 2011), whichever the probability of mutation (Débarre, 2017). However, under a Moran Death-Birth life-cycle, altruism can be favored only

at intermediate emigration probabilities (figure 2(a)): increased emigration can still favor the evolution of altruism under this qualitative criterion. 351

The result is due to indirect, competitive, effects

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To explain how the frequency of altruists can increase with the emigration probability m, let us go back to the decomposition of the expected frequency of altruists in the population $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]$ into different terms (eq. (9)). For all the life-cycles 355 that we consider, the direct effect of helping others (β_D) decreases with emigration m, while the direct effect of the cost of helping (γ_D) does not change with m. If we (erroneously) considered only direct effects, we would conclude that 358 the expected proportion of altruists decreases with the emigration probability 359 m, because an increase in m reduces the probability that two interactants (two 360 deme-mates in this model) are identical by descent. But this explanation ignores indirect, competitive, effects. In the three life-cycles that we considered, $\beta_I = \gamma_I$, so the overall indirect effects are given by $(-(b-c)\beta_I)$. Hence, any increase of 363 $\mathbb{E}[X]$ with m is driven by $\beta_{\rm I}$. Indirect effects correspond to competition: helping 364 another individual indirectly harms others - even the individual who is providing help is indirectly harmed. This competition can be diluted by increasing the 366 emigration probability m. The overall effect of m on the expected frequency of altruists depends on the balance between direct and indirect effects. This bal-368 ance depends on the fidelity of parent-offspring transmission (μ) , in particular because probabilities of identity by descent depend on μ . 370

Primary and secondary recipients West and Gardner 2010.

Competitive effects are less straightforward to explain than direct

How small is small and how large is large?

Our results were derived under the assumption of weak selection, assuming that 374 the phenotypic difference between altruists and defectors is small ($\delta \ll 0$). We 375 considered any fidelity of transmission (any μ between 0 and 1) and population 376 size. However, most models considering subdivided populations assume nearly 377 perfect strategy transmission ($\mu \rightarrow 0$) and infinite population sizes (number of 378 demes $N_D \to \infty$). The order in which these limits are taken matters, *i.e.*, one 379 needs to specify how small μ , but also ω , are compared to the inverse size of 380 the population. This remark complements findings by Sample & Allen (2017), 381 who highlighted the quantitative differences between different orders of weak selection and large population limits.

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.

Voter
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Supplementary figures

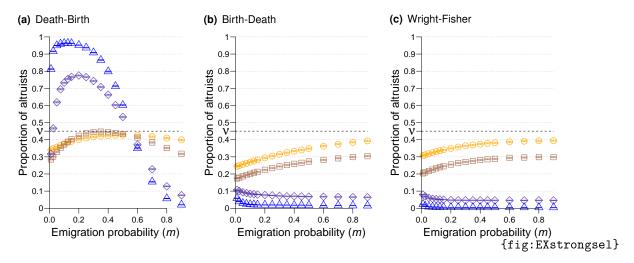


Figure S1: Equivalent of figure 2 (simulations only) but with strong selection ($\omega = 0.1$); please note the change of scale on the vertical axis. All other parameters and legends are identical to those of figure 2 (increasing mutation probabilities from blue dots to orange triangles).

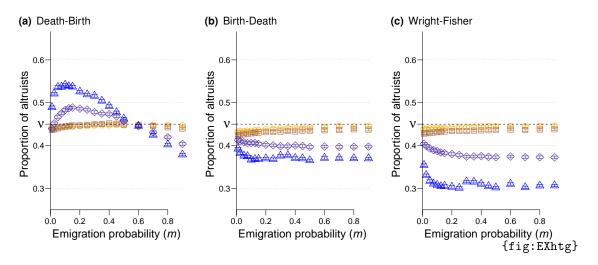


Figure S2: Equivalent of figure 2 (simulations only) but with a heterogeneous population structure: deme sizes range form 1 to 5 individuals per deme, the average deme size is 4 as in figure 2; all other parameters and legend are identical to those of figure 2.

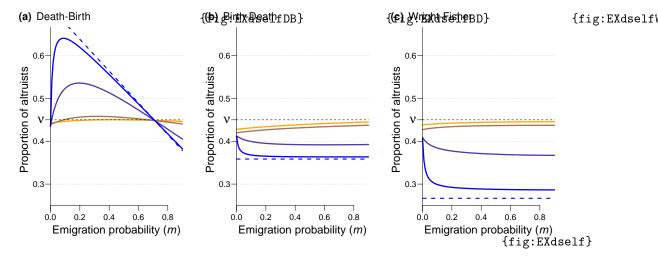


Figure S3: Equivalent of figure 2 (analysis only), with no self-replacement ($d_{ii} = d_{self} = 0$ for all sites).

Appendix

Fecundity and weak selection approximation

{sec:app:F}

Here we show that the fecundity function presented in eq. (2) can be obtained from a generic fecundity function, under the assumption of small phenotypic 468 differences between altruists and defectors. 469

Let us denote by ϕ_i the phenotype of the individual living at site i, and assume that the phenotypic value of altruists and defectors differs by $\omega \ll 1$, so

$$\phi_i = \phi^{(0)} + \omega X_i, \tag{A.1} \quad \{eq:app:phidef}$$

where $\phi^{(0)}$ is the phenotype of defectors (and $\phi_0 + \omega$ the phenotype of altruists).

We consider a generic fecundity function, that depends on the focal indi-474 vidual's phenotype, and on the phenotype of all the individuals that it interacts with, weighted by the probability of interaction (e_{ki} for an individual at site k, 476 $1 \le k \le N$). For instance, the fecundity of an individual at site i is given by a 477 function with N+1 arguments

$$F_i = \mathcal{F}(e_{1,i}\phi_1, \dots, e_{N,i}\phi_N; \phi_i),$$

which, using eq. (A.1), becomes

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$$F_i = \mathcal{F}\left(e_{1,i}(\phi^{(0)} + \omega X_1), \dots, e_{N,i}(\phi^{(0)} + \omega X_N); \phi^{(0)} + \omega X_i\right). \tag{A.2} \quad \{\text{eq:app:Fi}\}$$

We then write a first-order expansion of eq. (A.2) for $\omega \ll 1$:

$$F_{i} = \mathcal{F}\left(e_{1,i}\phi^{(0)}, \dots, e_{N,i}\phi^{(0)}; \phi^{(0)}\right) + \omega \left[\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left(e_{ki}X_{k}\partial_{(k)}\mathcal{F}|_{\omega=0}\right) + X_{i}\partial_{(N+1)}\mathcal{F}|_{\omega=0}\right] + O\left(\omega^{2}\right), \quad (A.3) \quad \{eq: app: DLF\}$$

where $\partial_{(k)}\mathcal{F}|_{\omega=0}$ is the derivative of \mathcal{F} with respect to its k^{th} argument, evaluated at $\omega = 0$. The first term in eq. (A.3) is the fecundity of individual i when there is not a single altruist in the population.

Given the chosen structure of the population, all individuals have the same number of social interactions, so they end up having the same fecundity when the population is fixed for the defector type. Without loss of generality, we set this baseline fecundity equal to 1. If we now consider that it does not matter where the benefits of social interactions come from, only that they are received by the focal individual, then $\partial_{(k)}\mathcal{F}$ is the same for all k, $1 \le k \le N$; let us denote

it by b. If we denote by -c the marginal effect of the focal individual's phenotype on its own fecundity (*i.e.*, $-c = \partial_{N+1} \mathcal{F}|_{\omega=0}$), then we obtain

$$F_i = 1 + \omega \left(\mathsf{b} \sum_{k=1}^{N} e_{ki} X_i - \mathsf{c} X_i \right) + O(\omega^2), \tag{A.4}$$

which is equal to f_i as defined in eq. (2), neglecting terms in ω^2 and higher.

B Expected frequency of altruists

{sec:app:EX}

Note: The calculation steps are the same as the ones presented in Débarre (2017); they are presented here so that the article is self-contained, but there are no new results in Appendix B.

In this section, we work with a generic regular population structure (with symmetries such that all individuals behave the same way in expectation), of which the island model is a particular case.

B.1 For a generic life-cycle

{sec:app:generic}

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

{tab:BD}

Table S1: Formulas of B_{ij} and D_i for each of the life-cycles that we consider; f_i (shorthand notation for $f_i(X,\omega)$) is the fecundity of the individual living at site i, as defined in eq. (2).

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

$$D_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N} B_{ij}$$
 (B.5a) {eq:DBequiv}

holds for all sites i. The structure of the population is also such that in the absence of selection ($\omega=0$, 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

$$D_i^0 = \sum_{j=1}^N B_{ji}^0 = B^*,$$
 (B.5b) {eq:DBRV}

where the 0 subscript means that the quantities are evaluated for $\omega=0$. 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. (B.5b) and eq. (B.5a) 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

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}(t+1)|\mathbf{X}(t)\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N}B_{ij}\left(X_{j}(1-\mu) + \mu v\right) + (1-D_{i})X_{i}\right]. \tag{B.6a}$$
 {eq:conditionalchange}

The first term within the brackets corresponds to births: the type of the individual living at i at time t+1 depends on the type of its parent (living at site j), and on whether mutation occurred. The second term in the brackets of eq. (B.6a) corresponds to the survival of the individual living at site i.

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 $\xi(\mathbf{X}, \omega, \mu)$ the probability that the population is in state \mathbf{X} , given the strength of selection ω and the mutation probability μ . Taking the expectation of eq. (B.6a) $(\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] = \sum_{X \in \Omega} \overline{X} \xi(\mathbf{X}, \omega, \mu)$), we obtain, after reorganizing:

$$0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{X \in \Omega} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} B_{ij} \left(X_j (1-\mu) + \mu \nu \right) - D_i X_i \right] \xi(\mathbf{X}, \omega, \mu). \tag{B.7}$$

Now, we use the assumption of weak selection ($\omega \ll 1$) and consider the first-order expansion of eq. (B.7) for ω close to 0. First, we note that in the absence

of selection ($\omega=0$), the population is at a mutation-drift balance; the expected state of every site i is then $\mathbb{E}_0\big[X_i\big]=\sum_{X\in\Omega}X_i\xi(X,0,\mu)=v$ (recall that v is the mutation bias parameter). Secondly, we further expand derivatives of B_{ji} and D_i thanks to the chain rule, using the variables f_k ($1\le k\le N$), corresponding to individual fecundities (also, recall that $f_k=1$ when $\omega=0$). Thirdly, we note that for all the life-cycles that we consider, the total number of deaths in the population during one time step does not depend on population composition (it is exactly 1 death for the Moran life-cycles, and exactly N for the Wright-Fisher life-cycle), so that $\sum_{i,j=1}^N B_{ij}$ does not depend on ω . After simplification and reorganization, the first order expansion of eq. (B.7) yields

$$0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,k=1}^{N} \left[\left. \frac{\partial \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N} (1-\mu) B_{ji} - D_{i} \right)}{\partial f_{k}} \right|_{f_{k}=1} \right.$$

$$\times \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{N} e_{\ell k} \mathbf{b} \sum_{X \in \Omega} X_{\ell} X_{i} \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu) - \mathbf{c} \sum_{X \in \Omega} X_{k} X_{i} \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu) \right) \right] \qquad (B.8) \quad \{\text{eq:weaksel1}\}$$

$$\left. - B^{*} \mu \left. \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]}{\partial \omega} \right|_{\omega=0} + O\left(\omega^{2}\right).$$

The terms $\sum_{X \in \Omega} X_i X_j \xi(\mathbf{X}, 0, \mu)$, that we will denote by P_{ij} , correspond to the expected state of the pair of sites (i, j), evaluated in the absence of selection $(\omega = 0)$. We can also replace these terms by

$$P_{ij} = v^2 + v(1 - v)Q_{ij}$$
. (B.9) {eq:QP}

In Appendix B.2, we will see that recursions on P_{ij} reveal 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 has occurred on either lineage since the ancestor.

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

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right] = v + \omega \left. \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \omega} \right|_{\omega = 0} + O\left(\omega^{2}\right), \tag{B.10} \quad \{\text{eq:EXgeneric}\}$$

where $\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}\left[\overline{X}\right]}{\partial \omega}\Big|_{\omega=0}$ is obtained from eq. (B.8). We then need to replace the B_{ij} and D_j terms by their formulas for each life-cycle (given in table S1), and the d_{ij} and e_{ij} terms by their formulas (given in eq. (3)) and eq. (1), respectively). For each life-cycle we can group terms as

$$\frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[\overline{X}]}{\partial \omega}\bigg|_{\omega=0} \approx \frac{\nu(1-\nu)}{\mu} \left[b \left(\beta_D - \beta_I \right) - c \left(\gamma_D - \gamma_I \right) \right], \tag{B.11}$$

where D terms come from the numerators of B_{ij} and D_i , and I terms come from the denominator of B_{ij} and D_i ; replacing B_{ij} and D_i by their formulas given in table S1, we obtain the following sets of equations for each life-cycle:

Moran Birth-Death

{eq:EXBDsums}

$$\beta_{\rm D}^{\rm BD} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} \frac{1-\mu}{N} e_{k\ell} \, Q_{\ell k}^{\rm M},\tag{B.12a}$$

$$\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm BD} = \sum_{j,k,\ell=1}^{N} \left(\frac{d_{\ell j}}{N} - \frac{\mu}{N^2} \right) e_{k\ell} Q_{jk}^{\rm M}, \tag{B.12b}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm BD} = 1 - \mu,\tag{B.12c}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm BD} = \sum_{j,k=1}^{N} \left(\frac{d_{kj}}{N} - \frac{\mu}{N^2} \right) Q_{jk}^{\rm M}.$$
(B.12d)

Moran Death-Birth

{eq:EXDBsums}

$$\beta_{\rm D}^{\rm DB} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} \frac{1-\mu}{N} e_{k\ell} \, Q_{\ell k}^{\rm M},\tag{B.13a}$$

$$\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm DB} = (1 - \mu) \sum_{i,j,k,\ell=1}^{N} \frac{d_{ji} d_{\ell i}}{N} e_{k\ell} Q_{jk}^{\rm M}, \tag{B.13b}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm DB} = 1 - \mu, \tag{B.13c}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm DB} = (1 - \mu) \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \frac{d_{ji} d_{ki}}{N} Q_{jk}^{\rm M}.$$
(B.13d)

Wright-Fisher

{eq:EXWFsums}

$$\beta_{\rm D}^{\rm WF} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} \frac{1-\mu}{N} e_{k\ell} \, Q_{\ell k}^{\rm WF}, \tag{B.14a}$$

$$\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm WF} = (1 - \mu) \sum_{i,j,k,\ell=1}^{N} \frac{d_{ji} d_{\ell i}}{N} e_{k\ell} Q_{jk}^{\rm WF}, \tag{B.14b}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm D}^{\rm WF} = 1 - \mu,\tag{B.14c}$$

$$\gamma_{\rm I}^{\rm WF} = (1 - \mu) \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \frac{d_{ji} d_{ki}}{N} Q_{jk}^{\rm WF}.$$
(B.14d)

System (B.14)s the same set of equations as for the Moran Death-Birth model

(system (B.1)), except for the values of probabilities of identity by descent... that

we now need to compute.

B.2 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 ($\omega = 0$).

3 B.2.1 Moran model

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. (B.15)), 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. (B.15)):

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E} \big[X_i X_j(t+1) | X(t) &= \mathbf{X} \big] = & X_i X_j \left(1 - \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} \left(d_{ki} + d_{kj} \right) \left((1 - X_k) (1 - \mu) + \mu (1 - \nu) \right) \right) \\ &+ X_i (1 - X_j) \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} d_{kj} \left(X_k (1 - \mu) + \mu \nu \right) \\ &+ X_j (1 - X_i) \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{N} d_{ki} \left(X_k (1 - \mu) + \mu \nu \right). \end{split} \tag{B.15} \tag{eq:app:PijM1}$$

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

$$P_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} (1 - \mu) \left(d_{kj} P_{ki} + d_{ki} P_{kj} \right) \right) + \mu v^2 \qquad (i \neq j), \tag{B.16} \quad \{eq:app:PijM\}$$

583 while $P_{ii} = v$.

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Now we substitute $P_{ij} = v^2 + v(1-v)Q_{ij}$ in eq. (B.16), we obtain

$$Q_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (1 - \mu) \left(d_{ki} Q_{kj} + d_{kj} Q_{ki} \right), \tag{B.17} \quad \{eq: app: QijM\}$$

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 $(1 - \mu)$.

B.2.2 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:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}\big[X_{i}X_{j}(t+1)|X(t) &= \mathbf{X}\big] &= \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} d_{ki}d_{\ell j} \bigg(X_{k}X_{\ell}(1-\mu+\mu\nu)^{2} \\ &\quad + (X_{k}(1-X_{\ell}) + (1-X_{k})X_{\ell})\,(1-\mu+\mu\nu)(\mu\nu) \\ &\quad + (1-X_{k})(1-X_{\ell})(\mu\nu)^{2}\bigg) \end{split} \tag{B.18} \quad \{\text{eq:app:PijWF1}\} \end{split}$$

The first term of eq. (B.18) 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).

Taking the expectation and simplifying, we obtain

$$P_{ij} = \sum_{k \neq -1}^{N} \left(P_{kl} (1 - \mu)^2 \right) + (2 - \mu) \mu v^2.$$
 (B.19) {eq:app:PijWF}

Replacing P_{ij} by $v^2 + v(1-v)Q_{ij}$, eq. (B.19) becomes

$$Q_{ij} = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^{N} d_{ki} d_{\ell j} Q_{k\ell} (1-\mu)^{2}.$$
 (B.20) {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

601 $((1-\mu)^2)$.

C In a subdivided population

603 C.1 β and γ

Now, we need to adapt the results presented in Appendix B to our structure of interest, a subdivided population, with dispersal and interaction probabilities given by eq. (3) and eq. (1). For the β and γ terms, we use a brute-force approach, replacing d_{ij} and e_{ij} by their values in a subdivided population, and simplifying the equations (for instance, there are 60 different cases to consider for the four sums that appear in $\beta_{\rm I}^{\rm DB}$). The calculations are detailed in an accompanying

Mathematica file, and the results are presented in the main text.

todo

C.2 Probabilities of identity by descent

For the probabilities of identity by descent, we could also use a brute-force ap-612 proach, but calculations are faster if we use formulas derived in Débarre (2017) for "two-dimensional population structures". The name comes from the fact that we only need two types of transformations to go from any site to any other 615 site in the population: permutations on the deme index, and permutations on 616 the within-deme index. 617 We rewrite site labels $(1 \le i \le N)$ as (ℓ_1, ℓ_2) , where ℓ_1 is the index of the deme $(1 \le \ell_1 \le N_D)$ and ℓ_2 the position of the site within the deme $(1 \le \ell_2 \le n)$. Then, we introduce notations $ilde{d}_{i_1}$ and $ilde{Q}_{i_1}$, that correspond to the dispersal probability and probability of identity by descent to a site at distances i_1 and i_2 in the 621 among-demes and within-deme dimensions (e.g., $\tilde{d}_{i_1}=d_{j_1\ j_1+i_1}$.) Also, in this section, we distinguish between $d_{\rm self}=d_{ii}$ and $d_{\rm in}$ (in the main 622 623 text, $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}}$). 624

625 C.2.1 Moran model

In Débarre (2017), it was shown that

$$\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}}^{r_{1}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{1}=0}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}^{q_{1}}} \exp\left(\imath \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(\imath \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \tag{C.21a} \quad \{\text{eq:app:Q2DM}}$$

627 with

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_1} = \sum_{\ell_1 = 0}^{N_1 - 1} \sum_{\ell_2 = 0}^{N_2 - 1} \tilde{d}_{\ell_1} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_1 \ell_1}{N_1}\right) \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_2 \ell_2}{N_2}\right), \tag{C.21b}$$

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

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}^{q_{1}} &= d_{\text{self}} + \sum_{\ell_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} d_{\text{in}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2}\ell_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) + \sum_{\ell_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{\ell_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} d_{\text{out}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{1}\ell_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2}\ell_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \\ &= d_{\text{self}} + \left(\delta_{q_{2}}(N_{2}-1) + (1-\delta_{q_{2}})(-1)\right) d_{\text{in}} + \left(\delta_{q_{1}}(N_{1}-1) + (1-\delta_{q_{1}})(-1)\right) \left(\delta_{q_{2}}N_{2}\right) d_{\text{out}} \\ &= d_{\text{self}} + \left(\delta_{q_{2}}N_{2}-1\right) d_{\text{in}} + \left(\delta_{q_{1}}N_{1}-1\right) \delta_{q_{2}}N_{2} d_{\text{out}}. \end{split} \tag{C.22a}$$

 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}

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_0 = 1, \tag{C.23a}$$

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}q_1 = 1 - m - \frac{m}{d-1} \quad (q_1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N_1}),$$
 (C.23b)

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_1} = d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}} \quad (q_2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N_2}).$$
 (C.23c)

So for $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}$, using system (C.23) in eq. (C.21a),

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}}^{r_{1}} &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0}} + \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0}} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) + \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \right. \\ &\quad + \left. \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}}} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \right] \\ &\quad = \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (\delta_{r_{2}} N_{2} - 1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})} (\delta_{r_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu) (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (\delta_{r_{1}} N_{1} - 1) (\delta_{r_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \right]. \end{split} \tag{C.24}$$

635 In particular,

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{0} &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{M}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (n - 1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})} (D - 1) \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (D - 1) (n - 1) \right] \\ &= 1. \end{split} \tag{C.25a} \quad \left\{ \text{eq:app:Q2D1} \right\}$$

We find λ'_M using the eq. (C.25a). Going back to eq. (C.24), when r_1 = 0, the two individuals are in the same deme. They are different when $r_2 \not\equiv 0$, and so:

$$Q_{\rm in} = \frac{\mu \lambda_M'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\rm self} - d_{\rm in})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})} (D - 1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\rm self} - d_{\rm in})} (D - 1) (-1) \right].$$
(C.25b)

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

$$Q_{\text{out}} = \frac{\mu \lambda_M'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})} (-1) + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)(d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})} \right].$$
(C.25c)

With $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}} = (1 - m)/n$, we recover the equations given in the main text (system (6)).

641 C.3 Wright-Fisher

For the Wright-Fisher updating, the equation for \tilde{Q} is different:

$$\tilde{Q}_{r_{1}}^{r_{1}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{q_{1}=0}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=0}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda'_{WF}}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right), \quad (C.26)$$

with $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}$ given in eq. (C.21b). In a subdivided population, with $N_1=N_D$ and $N_2=n$, this becomes

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathcal{Q}}_{r_{2}^{-}} &= \frac{1}{N} \left[\frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0})^{2}} + \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{0})^{2}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \right. \\ &+ \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \\ &+ \sum_{q_{1}=1}^{N_{1}-1} \sum_{q_{2}=1}^{N_{2}-1} \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{q_{1}})^{2}} \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{1} r_{1}}{N_{1}}\right) \exp\left(-i\frac{2\pi q_{2} r_{2}}{N_{2}}\right) \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2}} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \right. \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) (\delta_{q_{2}} N_{2} - 1) \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2}} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \right. \\ &+ \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^{2} (1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})^{2}} (\delta_{q_{1}} N_{1} - 1) \right]. \tag{C.27} \quad \{eq:app:Q2DWFso1} \end{split}$$

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

$$1 = \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (d_{\text{self}} - d_{\text{in}})^2} (N_2 - 1) N_1 + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})^2} (N_1 - 1) \right].$$
(C.28a)

Then from eq. (C.27) we deduce

$$Q_{\rm in} = \frac{\mu \lambda_{WF}'}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (d_{\rm self} - d_{\rm in})^2} N_1 + \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})^2} (N_1 - 1) \right]. \tag{C.28b}$$

647 and

$$Q_{\text{out}} = \frac{\mu \lambda'_{WF}}{N} \left[\frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2} - \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \mu)^2 (1 - m - \frac{m}{d - 1})^2} \right].$$
 (C.28c)

With $d_{\text{self}} = d_{\text{in}} = (1 - m)/n$, we recover the equations given in the main text (system (8)).