

1 **Eco-evolutionary dynamics of mutualisms**

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4 **Abstract**

5 Mutualistic relationships pose a conundrum for evolutionary theory. Species
6 that exploit other species would do better than sustaining a long drawn out
7 mutually costly relationship. However we do see mutualistic relationships
8 amongst even the most unlikely partners Eco-evolutionary dynamics . . .

9 Keywords: mutualism,evolutionary game theory,multiple players

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19		ToC: Just for us while we write to keep the big picture in mind	

1 Introduction

As with many concepts, we can trace back the study of mutualism to Aristotle (Gotthelf), 1991). Formally the Belgian zoologist Pierre van Beneden coined the term mutualism in 1873 (Bronstein, 2003). Mutualistic relationships, interspecific interactions that benefit both species, have been empirically studied for many years (Boucher, 1985; Bronstein, 1994; Bshary and Bronstein, 2004; Hinton, 1951; Kiers et al., 2003; Pierce et al., 2002; Wilson, 1983) and a considerable body of theory has been put forth explaining the evolution and maintenance of such relationships (Akçay and Roughgarden, 2007; Bergstrom and Lachmann, 2003; Bshary et al., 2008; Doebeli and Knowlton, 1998; Hoeksema and Kummel, 2003; Johnstone and Bshary, 2002; Noë, 2001; Poulin and Vickery, 1995). Most examples of mutualisms lend themselves to the idea of direct reciprocity (Trivers, 1971) and have thus been extensively studied using evolutionary game theory. The interactions in these models are usually dyadic: the fundamental interaction is between two individuals, one from each species, and the sum of many such interactions determines the evolutionary dynamics. However, in many cases interactions between species cannot be reduced to such dyadic encounters (Stadler and Dixon, 2008).

For example, in the interaction between ants and aphids or butterfly larvae (Hölldobler and Wilson, 1990; Pierce et al., 1987) many ants tend to each of the soft bodied creatures, providing them with shelter and protection from predation and parasites, in exchange for honeydew, a rich source of food for the ants (Hill and Pierce, 1989; Stadler and Dixon, 2008). This is a one-to-many interaction from the perspective of the larva. Another well studied example of a one-to-many interaction is that of the plant-microbe mutualism wherein leguminous hosts prefer rhizobial symbionts that fix more nitrogen (Kiers et al., 2003), or where plants provide more carbon resources to the fungal strains that are providing better access to nutrients (Kiers et al., 2011). Moving from a plant host to an animal host, a well studied example is that of the mutualistic relationship between the bioluminescent bacteria *Vibrio fischeri* and *Euprymna scolopes*, the bobtail squid (McFall-Ngai, 2014). Numerous bacteria are hosted in the crypts of the squids

51 light organ. It is costly for the bacteria to produce light but they do so while being
52 hosted in the squid. The bacteria mature and develop within the squid however
53 the ones which are defective in producing bioluminescence are inevitably evicted.
54 Thus while the variation in the phenotypes of the interacting partners has been ac-
55 knowledged, the usual analysis focuses on the interaction between the two species
56 without addressing this additional complexity.

57 Identifying and quantifying the intraspecific variation can be a daunting task
58 (Behm and Kiers, 2014). Intraspecific interactions are usually studied in isolation
59 and separate from the interspecies relationships. While the cohorts of cleaner fish
60 together have been taken to determine the quality of a cleaning station (Bshary and
61 Schaffer, 2002; Bshary and No , 2003), this can also drive variation of quality of
62 cleaning within a cleaning station as per the interactions of individual cleaner fish
63 amongst themselves. In this manuscript we look at the broader picture of how
64 the evolutionary dynamics are shaped when both the inter as well as intra species
65 dynamics are taken together. We find that including the full range of interactions
66 provides us with a set of rich and intricate dynamics which are not possible when
67 one of the dimensions is ignored.

68 By definition mutualistic relationships are between species. Hence it is natural
69 to imagine that the observed relationship may be seasonal and the interactions as
70 not a continuous feature of the evolutionary dynamics of a single species. Hence
71 timing is crucial for maintaining mutualistic interactions. In a changing ecology
72 edits in global climate change might affect the timing of when flowers mature
73 and when their dispersers do, quite easily disrupting the delicately balanced mu-
74 tualistic interactions. Unless both the interacting species can respond in a similar
75 fashion the mutualism would easily break down (Warren and Bradford, 2014).
76 We tackle this seasonality by changing the duration of the impact of intraspecies
77 and interspecies dynamics. Furthermore to complete the ecological picture we
78 study not just the evolutionary but the population dynamics of the mutualists.
79 Allowing for extinctions informs us at what population densities we might ex-
80 pect to find mutualistic interactions in nature. We demonstrate the crucial nature
81 of the feedback between population and evolutionary dynamics which can main-

tain mutualisms preventing either or both species from going extinct. We make use of evolutionary game theory to analyze how benefits are shared between the two mutualistic species (Hofbauer, 1996; Hofbauer and Sigmund, 1998; Weibull, 1995). Beginning with the previously studied interspecies dynamics as the foundational framework (Gokhale and Traulsen, 2012) we increase the complexity of the system by including intraspecies dynamics, seasonality and finally population dynamics. The rich dynamics observed provides us with novel insights about the immense asymmetries in mutualisms and the fragility of such delicately balanced interactions.

This paragraph - is it about 1-1 vs 1-many, or dyadic vs ...? Seems like it's setting up to be a "Dyadic isn't enough" para. In that case fine but the next para should be making the (main) point that intra-specific interactions are perhaps an important, and hitherto ignored, determinant of evolutionary outcomes for mutualisms. This was a haphazard collection of ideas. Now I have ordered them.

- First - general mutualism
- Second - why we need more than dyadic
- Third- Why we need intra species interactions to be included and what we show in this manuscript

Third paragraph is way too long and I think can be shortened...have a look

2 Model and Results

2.1 Interaction dynamics

2.1.1 Interspecies

Since we focus on mutualism the interspecies dynamics is given by the multi-player version of the snowdrift game (Bergstrom and Lachmann, 2003; Gokhale and Traulsen, 2012; Souza et al., 2009). Hence both species need to contribute towards the common benefit which is generated. However the individuals in each

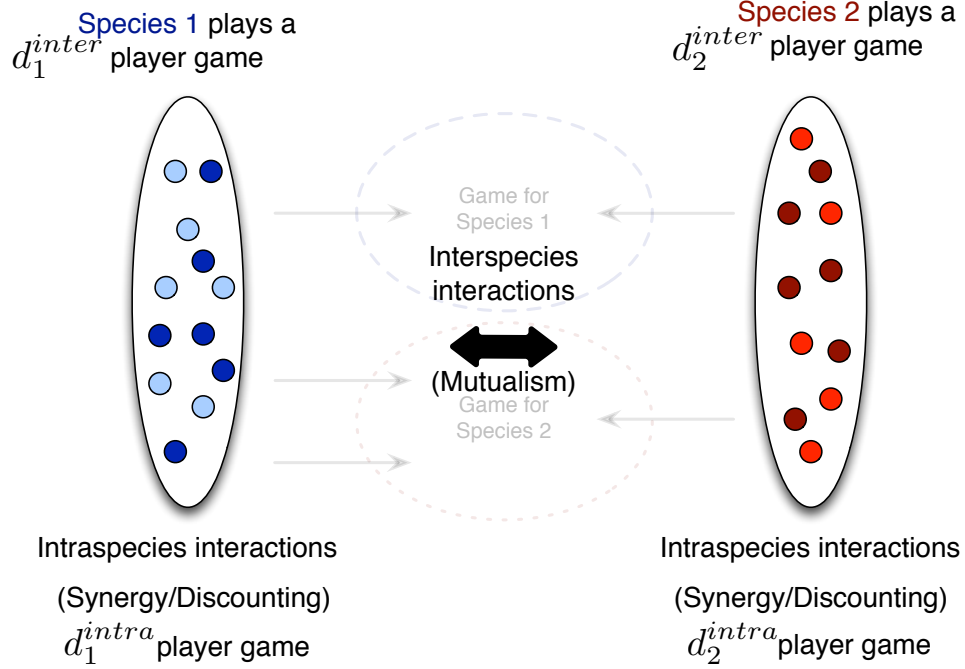


Figure 1: **Evolutionary dynamics with combined inter-intra species dynamics.** We assume the interactions between species to be mutualistic described by the snowdrift game (Bergstrom and Lachmann, 2003; Gokhale and Traulsen, 2012; Souza et al., 2009). Species 1 plays a d_1^{inter} player game with Species 2 while Species 2 plays a d_2^{inter} player game. Each species has two types of players “Generous” and “Selfish” who besides interacting with the members of other species, also take part in intra species dynamics. We assume a general framework of synergy and discounting for the intraspecies interactions (Eshel and Motro, 1988; Hauert et al., 2006b)

108 species could get away with contributing a bit less than other individuals. Hence
 109 for example if producing brighter light comes at a premium for the *Vibrio* in the
 110 squid then the dimmer *Vibrio* would be better off (Note that not producing any
 111 light is not an option as it results in eviction). Thus we assume that each species
 112 consists of two types of individuals “Generous” G and “Selfish” S . Thus if every-
 113 one is “Generous” and contributing in the generation of mutual benefits then one
 114 can get away with being a bit selfish. However both species cannot be completely
 115 “selfish” by definition of mutualism. This interaction framework corresponds to
 116 that of a multi player version of a snowdrift game and is discussed in detail in
 117 the Supplementary Material (SI). Hence the pressure is on a species in making the
 118 partner “Generous” while getting away itself by being “Selfish”. The fitness of
 119 each of the types within a species thus depends on the composition of the other
 120 species. For example if the frequency of the “Generous” types in Species 1 (G_1) is
 121 x and that in Species 2 (G_2) is y then fitness of G_1 is given by $f_{G_1}^{inter}(y)$ and that
 122 of G_2 as $f_{G_2}^{inter}(x)$

123 **2.1.2 Intraspecies**

124 For intraspecies dynamics we do not restrict ourselves to any particular inter-
 125 action structure and thus can make use of the general multiplayer evolutionary
 126 games framework (Gokhale and Traulsen, 2010, 2014). Moving from the inter-
 127 species dynamics, the two types already described are “Generous” and “Selfish”.
 128 Thus we already have each species containing two different types of individu-
 129 als. It is possible that a different categorisation exists within a species however
 130 for the sake of simplicity we study the dynamics between “Generous” and “Self-
 131 ish” types within a species. However the individuals which are “Generous” for
 132 the interspecies interaction may/may not be more giving or in a sense “Coopera-
 133 tors” for intraspecies dynamics. Thus we need a flexible cost-benefit framework
 134 to model the intraspecies dynamics which can be easily tuned to the particular sit-
 135 uation. The cost benefit framework described in (Eshel and Motro, 1988; Hauert
 136 et al., 2006b) allows us to transition between four classic scenarios of evolution-
 137 ary dynamics (Nowak and Sigmund, 2004). For example in our case we can have

138 a dominance of the “Generous” type or the “Selfish” type or both the types can
 139 invade from rare resulting in a co-existence or bistability if both pure strategies
 140 are mutually non-invasive. For the intra species interactions the fitness of a G_1 is
 141 then given by $f_{G_1}^{intra}(x)$ and that of G_2 is given by $f_{G_2}^{intra}(y)$ and similarly for the
 142 “Selfish” types.

143 2.2 Combined dynamics

144 Putting together intra and interspecific dynamics provides a complete picture of
 145 the possible interactions occurring. While we are interested in mutualism at the
 146 level of the interspecies interactions there are four possible interactions within
 147 each species (Hauert et al., 2006b; Nowak and Sigmund, 2004). Since the within
 148 species interactions for the two different species do not need to be the same, there
 149 are in all sixteen different possible combinations. Assuming additivity in the fit-
 150 nesses of inter and intraspecies fitnesses, the combined fitness of each of the two
 151 types in the two species are given by,

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{G_1}(x, y) &= p f_{G_1}^{inter}(y) + (1 - p) f_{G_1}^{intra}(x) \\
 f_{S_1}(x, y) &= p f_{S_1}^{inter}(y) + (1 - p) f_{S_1}^{intra}(x) \\
 f_{G_2}(x, y) &= p f_{G_2}^{inter}(x) + (1 - p) f_{G_2}^{intra}(y) \\
 f_{S_2}(x, y) &= p f_{S_2}^{inter}(x) + (1 - p) f_{S_2}^{intra}(y)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

152 The parameter p tunes the impact of each of the interactions on the actual fit-
 153 ness that eventually drives the evolutionary dynamics. For $p = 1$ we recover the
 154 well studied case of the Red King dynamics (Gokhale and Traulsen, 2012) while
 155 for $p = 0$ the dynamics of the two species are essentially decoupled and can
 156 be individually studied by the synergy/discounting framework of nonlinear social
 157 dilemmas (Hauert et al., 2006b). Of interest in the continuum and the intermediate
 158 values of p . However that would mean we need to track the qualitative dynamics
 159 of sixteen possible intraspecies dynamics as p changes gradually from close to 0
 160 to close to 1 (SI). The time evolution of the “Generous” types in both species is
 161 then given by,

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= r_x x (f_{G_1}(x, y) - \bar{f}_1(x, y)) \\ \dot{y} &= r_y y (f_{G_2}(x, y) - \bar{f}_2(x, y)) .\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

162 This approach provides us with a powerful method to incorporate a multi-
 163 tude of realistic concepts in the analysis. For example the number of players
 164 involved in a game, which has been shown to be a crucial factor in determining
 165 the evolutionary dynamics could be different for each interactions, inter and in-
 166 tra species interactions for Species 1 (d_1^{inter} , d_1^{intra}) and similarly for Species 2
 167 (d_2^{inter} , d_2^{intra}). The interspecies interactions are proxied by the multiplayer Snow-
 168 drift game which can incorporate threshold effects. For example a certain number
 169 of “Generous” cleaner fish may be required to clean the host or a certain number
 170 of “Generous” ants required to protect larva from predators. We can have M_1
 171 and M_2 as the thresholds in the two species. Since the interaction matrices for
 172 the inter and intra species dynamics are completely different there doesn’t need to
 173 be any relationship between the costs and benefits of the four games (Two snow-
 174 drift games from the perspective of each species and the intragames within each
 175 species).

176 We can have a diverse and rich set of dynamics possible which brings into
 177 question the study of coevolution based on only interspecies interactions. Even
 178 if we make a large number of assumptions and even if the intraspecies dynamics
 179 accounts for only 33% ($1 - p$) of the cumulative fitness, we can see drastically
 180 different qualitative dynamics which is capable of explaining the persistence of
 181 exploiters.

182 **2.3 Population dynamics**

183 Until now we have considered that each species consists of two types of individ-
 184 uals and they make up the population of that species. However populations sizes
 185 change over time. Assuming that ecological changes are fast enough that they can
 186 be averaged out, we can usually ignore their effect on the evolutionary dynamics.

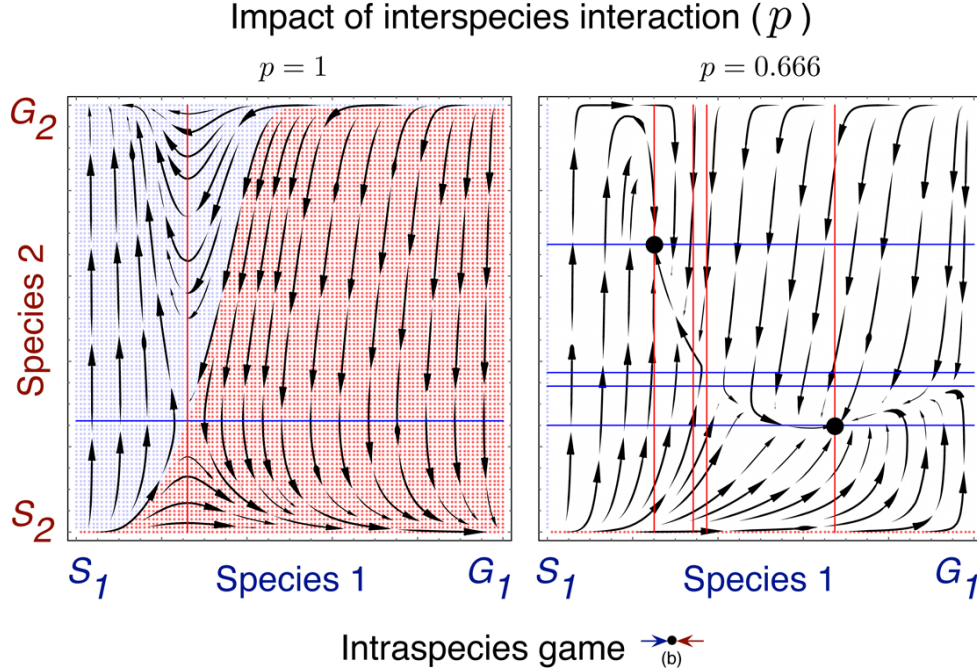


Figure 2: Change in evolutionary dynamics due to inclusion of intraspecies dynamics. When the fitness of the “Generous” and “Selfish” types in both the species is solely determined by the interactions which occur between species (in this case mutualism, $p = 1$) then we recover the dynamics as studied previously in (Gokhale and Traulsen, 2012). The colours represent the initial states which result in an outcome favourable for Species 1 (blue leading to (S_1, G_2)) and Species 2 (red, leading to (G_1, S_2)). This can result in the red King effect and other possible complexities as discussed recently in (Gao et al., 2015). However when we start including intraspecies dynamics the picture can be very different. Even when the impact of intraspecies dynamics is only a $1/3$ on the total fitness of the “Generous” and “Selfish” types we see a very qualitatively different picture. Two fixed points are observed where both the “Generous” and “Selfish” types can co-exist in both the species. All initial states in the interior lead to either one of these fixed points (hence the lack of colours). However it is still possible to characterize the “successful” species as one of the equilibrium is favoured by one species than the other. The horizontal isoclines are for Species 1 while the vertical ones are for Species 2. The analysis was done for a 5 player game $d_1^{inter} = d_2^{inter} = d_1^{intra} = d_2^{intra} = 5$, $b = 2$, $c = 1$ and $r_x = r_y/8$ for the interspecies mutualism game while additionally $\tilde{b}_1 = \tilde{b}_2 = 10$ and $\tilde{c}_1 = \tilde{c}_2 = 1$ and $\omega_1 = \omega_2 = 3/4$ for the two intraspecies games within each species. Note that even with symmetric games within each species we can a qualitatively drastic difference when compared to the dynamics excluding intraspecies interactions. For different intraspecies interactions within each species and for varying p see SI.

187 It is now possible to show that evolution can happen at fast timescales, compara-
 188 ble to those of the ecological dynamics [add citations with examples](#). Hence we
 189 need to tackle not just evolutionary but eco-evolutionary dynamics together.

To include population dynamics in the previously considered scenario, we reinterpret x_1 now as the fraction of “Generous” types and x_2 as the fraction of “Selfish” types in Species 1. Also now we have $z_1 = 1 - x_1 - x_2$ as the empty spaces in the niche occupied by Species 1. Similarly we have y_1, y_2 and z_2 (Fig. 3). This approach has previously been explored in terms of social dilemmas in (Hauert et al., 2006a). We adapt and modify it for the two species and hence now the dynamics of this complete system is determined by the following set of differential equations,

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= r_x x_1 (z_1 f_{G_1} - e_1) \\ \dot{x}_2 &= r_x x_2 (z_1 f_{S_1} - e_1) \\ \dot{z}_1 &= -\dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2\end{aligned}\tag{3}$$

and for species 2

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{y}_1 &= r_y y_1 (z_2 f_{G_2} - e_2) \\ \dot{y}_2 &= r_y y_2 (z_2 f_{S_2} - e_2) \\ \dot{z}_2 &= -\dot{y}_1 - \dot{y}_2\end{aligned}\tag{4}$$

where we have introduced e_1 and e_2 as the death rates of the two species. Setting $e_1 = \frac{z_1(x_1 f_{x_1} + x_2 f_{x_2})}{x_1 + x_2}$ and $e_2 = \frac{z_2(y_1 f_{G_2} + y_2 f_{S_2})}{y_1 + y_2}$ we recover the two species replicator dynamics as in Eqs. 19 (For the sake of brevity we avoid showing the fitnesses in their the functional forms). In this setup however the fitnesses need to be re-evaluated as not we need to account for the presence of empty spaces (See SI). The dynamics is simplified by focusing on the proportion of “Generous” types in both the species thus $g_1 = x_1/(1 - z_1)$ and $g_2 = y_1/(1 - z_2)$ whose time evolution is given by,

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{g}_1 &= r_x z_1 g_1 (1 - g_1) (f_{G_1} - f_{S_1}) \\ \dot{z}_1 &= e_1 (1 - z_1) - r_x z_1 (1 - z_1) (g_1 f_{G_1} - (1 - g_1) f_{S_1})\end{aligned}\tag{5}$$

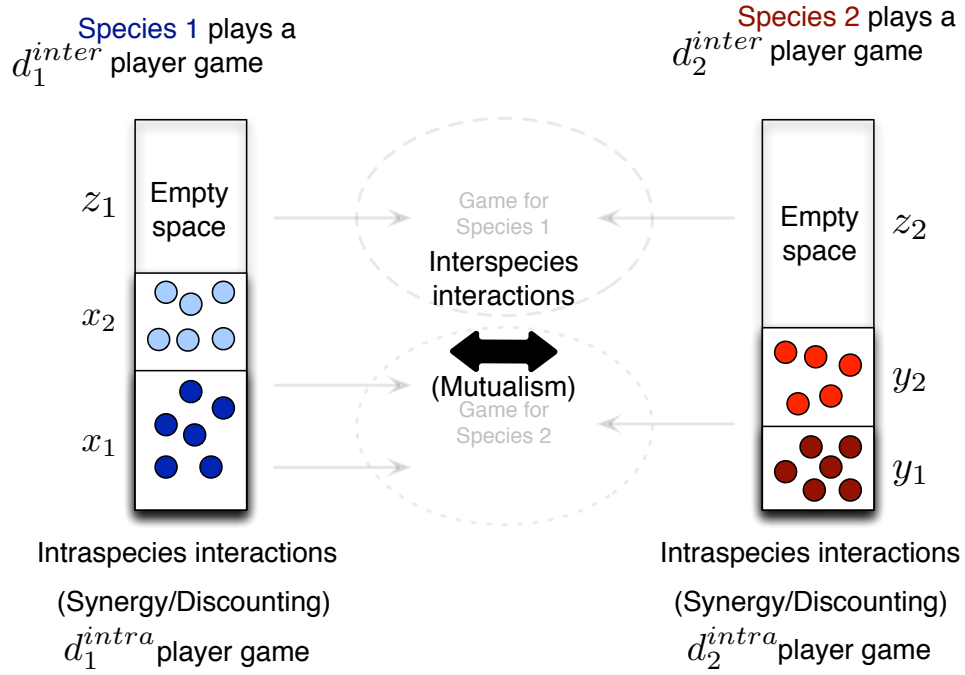


Figure 3: **Population and evolutionary dynamics with combined inter-intra species dynamics.** As with the interactions described in 1 the two species consist of two types of individuals “Generous” and “Selfish”. Since the two species can in principle occupy different environmental niches, they can have non-overlapping population carrying capacities. The normalised carrying capacity in both species is 1 and we have $x_1 + x_2 + z_1 = 1$ (for Species 1) where x_1 and x_2 are the densities of the “Generous” and “Selfish” types respectively. The parameter z_1 represents the remaining space into which the population can still expand into. For $z_1 = 0$ the population is at its carrying capacity while for $z_1 = 0$ Species 1 is extinct.

and

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{g}_2 &= r_y z_2 g_2 (1 - g_2) (f_{G_2} - f_{S_2}) \\ \dot{z}_2 &= e_2 (1 - z_2) - r_y z_2 (1 - z_2) (g_2 f_{G_2} - (1 - g_2) f_{S_2}) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

190 where everywhere we have $x_1 = g_1(1 - z_1)$ (with $x_2 = (1 - g_1)(1 - z_1)$) and
191 $y_1 = g_2(1 - z_2)$ (with $y_2 = (1 - g_2)(1 - z_2)$) in the fitnesses as well.

192 Such a two species multi-type interaction system is as complicated as well as
193 a realistic depiction of most of the mutualisms observed in nature. However even
194 with this complexity, the reduction of variables from six to four allows us to study
195 the eco-evolutionary dynamics of the mutualism by looking at the two species si-
196 multaneously. As shown in Figure ?? we plot the evolutionary information (frac-
197 tion of “Generous” in each species) against the ecological parameter, the popula-
198 tion density (or rather in this case the empty space which is $1 - z_{1/2}$ population
199 density).

200 3 Discussion

201 Random placement of Text

202 Usually when interspecies relationships such as mutualism (or antagonist re-
203 lationships as in predator-prey) are considered, the within species interactions are
204 ignored for the sake of convenience. Including intraspecies interactions can how-
205 ever result in qualitatively different and rich dynamics. In fact the coevolutionary
206 dynamics between the two species is determined together by the inter as well as
207 the intraspecific interactions.

208 **Acknowledgements.** Thanks for all the fish.

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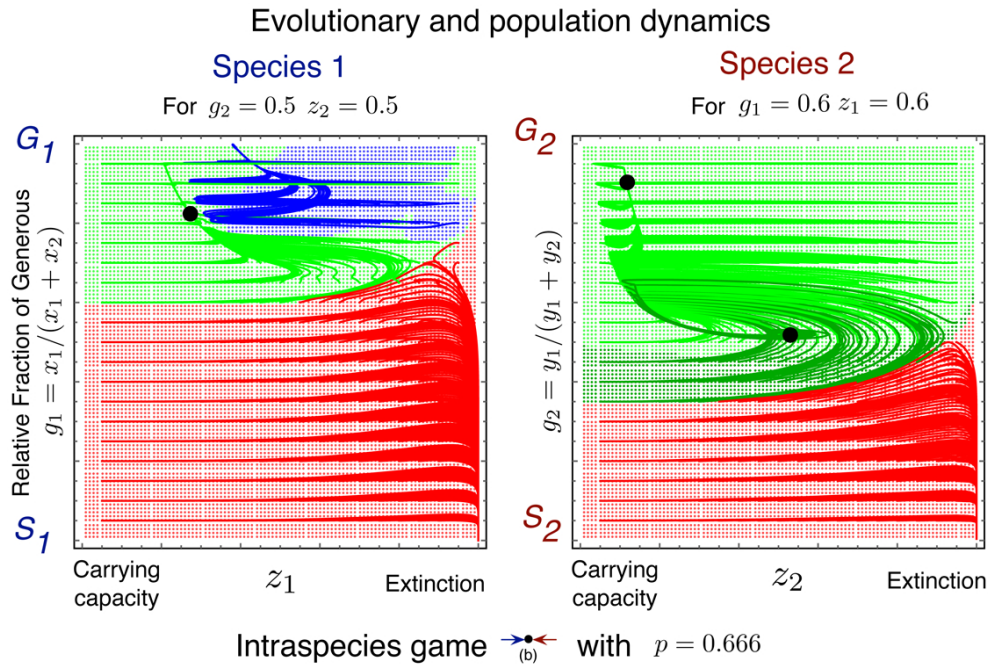


Figure 4: **Dynamics of evolutionary strategies and population density for an intraspecies coexistence game with interspecies mutualism.** With exactly the same parameters as that of Figure 2 with symmetric death rates $e_1 = e_2 = 0.05$.

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315 Appendix

316 Interspecies Evolutionary Dynamics

317 Traditional coevolutionary models consider interspecific dependence only (Rough-
 318 garden, 1976; Roughgarden et al., 1983). Depicting the interaction between the
 319 two species as a multiplayer game (Gokhale and Traulsen, 2010). Assume Species
 320 1 is playing a d_1^{inter} player game. Hence we need to pick $d_1^{inter} - 1$ individuals
 321 from Species 2 for the interactions. Similarly for Species 2 playing a d_2^{inter} player
 322 game means we pick $d_2^{inter} - 1$ players from Species 1. Since in our case each the
 323 interactions between the Species are mutualistic and each Species consists of two
 324 types of individuals “Generous” and “Selfish”, the following Snowdrift game is
 325 an appropriate representation of the interactions.

326 The snowdrift game

327 Two player setting

328 Two drivers are stuck in a snowdrift. They must shovel away the snow (paying
 329 the cost c) to reach home (benefit b) but there are three possible outcomes to this
 330 scenario. One of the driver shovels while the other stays warm in the care ($b - c$
 331 and b), both the drivers share the workload and shovel away the snow ($b - c/2$ and
 332 $b - c/2$) or none of them gets out of the care and they both remain stuck (0 and 0).

Putting this game in perspective of the two species (i.e. the two drivers repre-
 sent the two different species) we get the matrix,

		Species 2				Species 1	
		G_2	S_2			G_1	S_1
Species 1	G_1	$b - c/2$	$b - c$	Species 2	G_2	$b - c/2$	$b - c$
	S_1	b	0		S_2	b	0

333 where strategy G stands for being “Generous” and shoveling the snow while S

stands for being “*Selfish*” and just sitting in the car. For $b = 2$ and $c = 1$ we recover the matrix used in (Bergstrom and Lachmann, 2003).

For the snowdrift game in a single population there exists a single, stable internal equilibrium. Hence the population will evolve to a polymorphism which is a combination of “*Generous*” and “*Selfish*” individuals. But in a two species system, this stable equilibrium turns into a saddle point, a small deviation from this fixed point can lead the system to one of the stable fixed point where one of the species is completely “*Generous*” and the other one is completely “*Selfish*”.

Multiplayer setting

Following Souza et al. (Souza et al., 2009), a multiplayer snowdrift game can be described by the payoff entries

$$\Pi_{G_1}(k) = \begin{cases} b - \frac{c}{k} & \text{if } k \geq M \\ -\frac{c}{M} & \text{if } k < M \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

$$\Pi_{S_1}(k) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } k \geq M \\ 0 & \text{if } k < M. \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

The selfish players get the benefit b if the number of generous individuals in both species combined, k , is greater than or equal to the threshold M . For the generous individuals, their effort is subtracted from the payoffs. The effort is shared if the quorum size is met ($\frac{c}{M}$), but is in vain for $k < M$. For two player games we had $k = 1$ but multiplayer games provide the possibility of exploring this threshold aspect of collective action games. From these payoff entries we need to calculate the average fitnesses. For simplicity we just illustrate the fitnesses of the strategies in Species 1. For a d_1^{inter} player game for Species 1 we need to pick $d_1^{inter} - 1$ other individuals from Species 2. Assuming random sampling the composition of the formed groups is given by a binomial distribution. Summing over all possible compositions of groups we arrive at the average fitnesses of the two strategies in

species 1,

$$f_{G_1}^{inter}(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{d_1^{inter}-1} \binom{d_1^{inter}-1}{k} y^k (1-y)^{d_1^{inter}-1-k} \Pi_{G_1}(k+1) \quad (9)$$

$$f_{S_1}^{inter}(y) = \sum_{k=0}^{d_1^{inter}-1} \binom{d_1^{inter}-1}{k} y^k (1-y)^{d_1^{inter}-1-k} \Pi_{S_1}(k). \quad (10)$$

345 Intraspecies Evolutionary Dynamics

346 For elucidating the intraspecies dynamics we will focus on Species 1 as the anal-
 347 ysis is analogous for Species 2. Withing species dynamics can in principle be
 348 completely different from the between species interactions. We can have a multi-
 349 strategy multiplayer game within a Species but to keep things simple we assume
 350 a two strategy multiplayer game. The partitioning of the individuals into two
 351 strategies follows the same partitioning as in the inter species interactions as of
 352 “Generous” and “Selfish”. However we can relabel them as “Cooperators” and
 353 “Defector” for the sake of the interactions structure which we will be making
 354 use of. Note that the “Generous” in the interspecies interactions need not always
 355 be the “Cooperators” for the within species interaction but again for the sake of
 356 simplicity we will assume it to be so.

357 Synergy/Discounting Framework

We model the within species interactions by making use of a general framework of costs and non-linear benefits (Eshel and Motro, 1988; Hauert et al., 2006b) which can potentially encompass all different types of social interaction structures qualitatively. For Species 1 the frequency of cooperators is just x and the defectors is $1 - x$, the same as the “Generous” and “Selfish”. The “Cooperators” and “Defectors” in Species 1 play a d_1^{intra} player game. Thus the fitnesses of cooperators and

defectors are defined as (Hauert et al., 2006b),

$$f_{G_1}^{intra}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{d_1^{intra}-1} \binom{d_1^{intra}-1}{k} x^k (1-x)^{d_1^{intra}-1-k} \Gamma_{G_1}(k+1) \quad (11)$$

$$f_{S_1}^{intra}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{d_1-1} \binom{d_1^{intra}-1}{k} x^k (1-x)^{d_1^{intra}-1-k} \Gamma_{S_1}(k). \quad (12)$$

where the payoffs are given by,

$$\Gamma_{S_1}(k) = \frac{\tilde{b}}{d_1^{intra}} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \omega^i \quad (13)$$

$$\Gamma_{G_1}(k) = \Gamma_{S_1}(k) - \tilde{c}. \quad (14)$$

358 Thus the defectors get a fraction of the benefit which is scaled by the factor ω ,
 359 which determines if the benefits are linearly accumulating ($\omega = 1$) for increasing
 360 number of cooperators, synergistically enhanced ($\omega > 1$) or saturating ($\omega < 1$).
 361 Note that the costs and benefits in the within species game need not be (and natu-
 362 rally so) the same as in between species ($b \neq \tilde{b}$ and $c \neq \tilde{c}$).

363 Combined Evolutionary Dynamics

The average payoffs are then just assumed to be a linear combination of the interspecies and intraspecies interactions where the parameter p determines the strength of each of the interactions such that,

$$f_{G_1}(x, y) = p f_{G_1}^{inter}(y) + (1-p) f_{G_1}^{intra}(x) \quad (15)$$

$$f_{S_1}(x, y) = p f_{S_1}^{inter}(y) + (1-p) f_{S_1}^{intra}(x) \quad (16)$$

Following the same procedure for the two strategies in species 2 leads to the average fitness

$$\bar{f}_1(x, y) = x f_{G_1}(x, y) + (1-x) f_{S_1}(x, y) \quad (17)$$

$$\bar{f}_2(x, y) = y f_{G_2}(x, y) + (1-y) f_{S_2}(x, y). \quad (18)$$

The time evolution of the “Generous” types in both the species will give us the complete dynamics of the system. However since the two interaction species are by definition different organisms, they can have different rates of evolution. Thus if species 1 evolves at the rate r_x while species 2 at rate r_y then we have,

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= r_x x (f_{G_1}(x, y) - \bar{f}_1(x, y)) \\ \dot{y} &= r_y y (f_{G_2}(x, y) - \bar{f}_2(x, y)).\end{aligned}\quad (19)$$

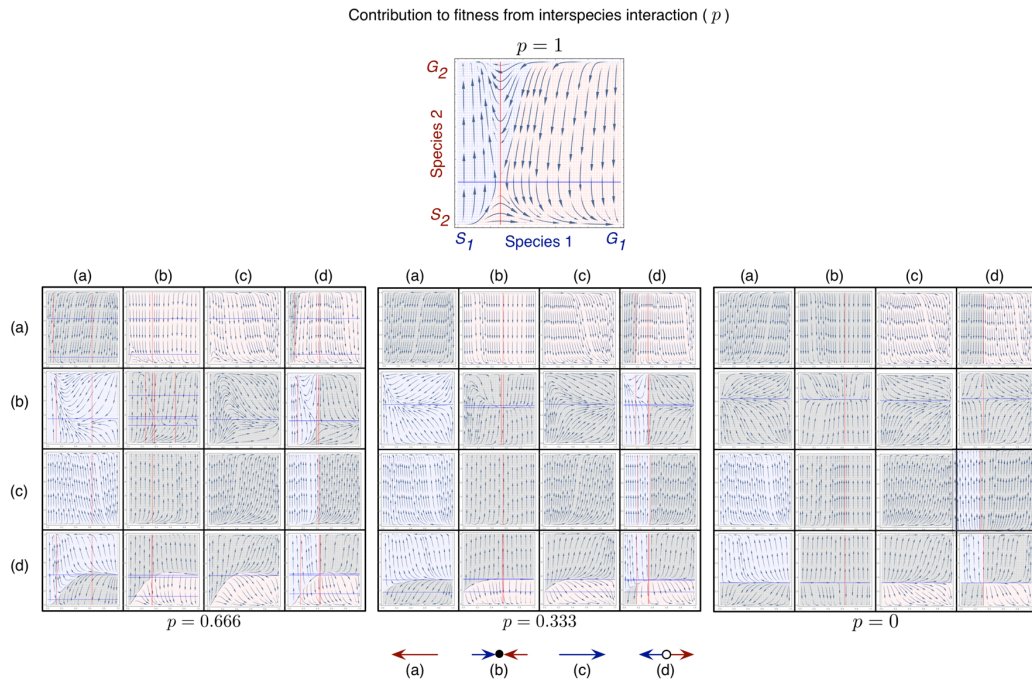


Figure 5: $d_1^{inter} = d_2^{inter} = 5$, $b = 2$, $r_x = r_y/8$, $M_1 = M_2 = 1$ and $c = 1$ for the interspecies game. As for the intraspecies games (a), (b), (c) and (d) the exact same parameter values as in (Hauert et al., 2006b).

This between and within species model is a powerful way of introducing a lot of variability into the dynamics,

$$d_1 \neq d_2 \quad (20)$$

$$d^{inter} \neq d^{intra} \quad (21)$$

$$M_1 \neq M_2 \quad (22)$$

$$b \neq \tilde{b} \quad (23)$$

$$c \neq \tilde{c} \quad (24)$$

$$r_x \neq r_y \quad (25)$$

$$\vdots \quad (26)$$

and various combinations of these. We should justify why we don't do this here and why we do vary the ones that we do.

Population dynamics

For brevity we begin with the description of population dynamics in Species 1. The two types in Species 1, “Generous” and “Selfish” need not sum up to 1 i.e. the population may not always be at its carrying capacity. Hence if the empty space in the niche occupied by Species 1 is z_1 , then we have $x_1 + x_2 + z_1 = 1$ where x_1 and x_2 are the densities of “Generous” and “Selfish” types. The population dynamics then is dictated by,

$$\dot{x}_1 = r_x x_1 (z_1 f_{G_1} - e_1) \quad (27)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = r_x x_2 (z_1 f_{S_1} - e_1) \quad (28)$$

$$\dot{z}_1 = -\dot{x}_1 - \dot{x}_2 \quad (29)$$

and for species 2

$$\dot{y}_1 = r_y y_1 (z_2 f_{G_2} - e_2) \quad (30)$$

$$\dot{y}_2 = r_y y_2 (z_2 f_{S_2} - e_2) \quad (31)$$

$$\dot{z}_2 = -\dot{y}_1 - \dot{y}_2 \quad (32)$$

We have e_1 and e_2 as the death rates for the two species. Setting $e_1 = \frac{z_1(x_1 f_{x_1} + x_2 f_{x_2})}{x_1 + x_2}$ and $e_2 = \frac{z_2(y_1 f_{y_1} + y_2 f_{y_2})}{y_1 + y_2}$ we recover the two species replicator dynamics as in Eqs. 19. The fitnesses however need to be reevaluated in this setup. For example in Species 1 the fitness for type G_1 is,

$$f_{G_1}^{inter} = \sum_{S=2}^{d_1} \binom{d_1-1}{S-1} z_2^{d_1-S} (1-z_2)^{S-1} P_G^{inter}(S, y_1, y_2, z_2) \quad (33)$$

$$f_{G_1}^{intra} = \sum_{S=2}^{d_1} \binom{d_1-1}{S-1} z_1^{d_1-S} (1-z_1)^{S-1} P_G^{intra}(S, x_1, x_2, z_1) \quad (34)$$

$$f_{G_1} = f_{G_1}^{inter} + f_{G_1}^{intra} \quad (35)$$

and similarly for type S_1 where the payoff functions are defined as,

$$P_G^{inter}(S, p, q, r) = \sum_{k=0}^{S-1} V(S, p, q, r) \Pi_{G_1}(k+1) \quad (36)$$

$$P_G^{intra}(S, p, q, r) = \sum_{k=0}^{S-1} V(S, p, q, r) \Gamma_{G_1}(k+1) \quad (37)$$

$$P_S^{inter}(S, p, q, r) = \sum_{k=0}^{S-1} V(S, p, q, r) \Pi_{S_1}(k) \quad (38)$$

$$P_S^{intra}(S, p, q, r) = \sum_{k=0}^{S-1} V(S, p, q, r) \Gamma_{S_1}(k) \quad (39)$$

369 where $V(S, p, q, r) = \binom{S-1}{k} \left(\frac{p}{1-r}\right)^k \left(\frac{q}{1-r}\right)^{S-1-k}$ is the probability of having a k
 370 “Generous”(Cooperator) individuals and $S-1-k$ “Selfish”(Defector) individ-
 371 uals in the inter(intra) species game. and the actual payoffs are calculated as per
 372 Eqs. ?? and 14.