

1 An evolutionary advantage for extravagant honesty

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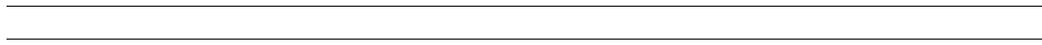
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15 **Abstract**

16 A game-theoretic model of handicap signalling over a pair of signalling
17 channels is introduced in order to determine when one channel has an evolu-
18 tionary advantage over the other. The stability conditions for honest hand-
19 icap signalling are presented for a single channel and are shown to conform
20 with the results of prior handicap signalling models. Evolutionary simula-
21 tions are then used to show that, for a two-channel system in which honest
22 signalling is possible on both channels, the channel featuring larger adver-
23 tisements at equilibrium is favoured by evolution.

24 This result helps to address a significant tension in the handicap principle
25 literature. While the original theory was motivated by the prevalence of
26 extravagant natural signalling, contemporary models have demonstrated that
27 it is the cost associated with deception that stabilises honesty, and that the
28 honest signals exhibited at equilibrium need not be extravagant at all.

29 The current model suggests that while extravagant and wasteful signals
30 are not required to ensure a signalling system's evolutionary *stability*, extrav-
31 agant signalling systems may enjoy an advantage in terms of evolutionary

32 *attainability.*

33 *Keywords:*

34 Handicap principle, honest signalling, extravagance, evolutionary
35 attainability

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Zahavi's handicap principle was proposed as a way of accounting for the
38 evolution of honest signalling by linking the stability of a signalling system to
39 the costs involved in signal production (Zahavi, 1975, 1977). The handicap
40 principle asserts that a signalling system honestly advertising some property
41 (say the quality of a prospective mate, or the hunger of an offspring, or
42 the escape ability of a prey item) will be resistant to invasion by cheats if
43 signalling imposes fitness costs on signallers, and these costs allow signallers
44 with more of the advertised quality to distinguish themselves from those with
45 less by making larger signals (Grafen, 1990a).

46 This principle was originally inspired by the observation that many natu-
47 ral signals appear needlessly extravagant (Zahavi, 1975, 1977). Peacocks, for
48 example, construct and maintain a tail that is a significant and, to the disin-
49 terested observer, irrational drain on resources. Might the same information
50 not be conveyed through a stable signalling system employing much cheaper
51 signals? Similarly, would it not make more sense for stags, stoneflies, man-
52 akins, and fireflies to employ discrete and efficient signals in preference to
53 the protracted, exhausting, and potentially dangerous bellowing, drumming,
54 dueting, and flashing that they actually engage in?

55 A series of game theoretic treatments have shown that signal cost can
56 confer evolutionary stability on handicap signalling systems (e.g., Enquist,

57 1985; Grafen, 1990a; Godfray, 1991; Maynard Smith, 1991). However, a
58 subsequent set of treatments have argued that the equilibrium signalling in
59 such models is not “wasteful” and need not handicap signallers (e.g., Bullock,
60 1997; Getty, 1998, 2006).

61 In fact, in an early model, Hurd (1995) identifies a scenario within a
62 handicap signalling model in which behaviours that *advantage*, rather than
63 handicap, signallers can be honest indicators of quality. We can describe his
64 result using the following contrived example. Consider an imaginary arboreal
65 primate. The females of this species are biased in their selection of which
66 males to mate with on the basis of a signal or indicator: whether a prospective
67 mate forages in the highest reaches of the canopy (attractive) or chooses to
68 forage amongst the lower branches (less attractive). Males that reach the
69 highest branches have access to the best of the fruits that they like to eat.
70 Consequently high-quality males, who are light and nimble, would prefer to
71 forage like this even in the absence of any benefit derived from the “signalling
72 component” (Lotem et al., 1999) of their behaviour. However, poor-quality
73 males attempting the same foraging behaviour have a significant chance of
74 falling. As a result, they prefer to forage lower down where there is less
75 risk of falling, even after factoring in the mating opportunities that they are
76 foregoing. At equilibrium, then, foraging behaviour (low or high) is an honest
77 indicator of mate quality (low or high). This signalling system is stabilised
78 by the cost of deceptive signalling (low quality males cannot afford the risks
79 associated with deception), but the (honest) signals that are observed at
80 equilibrium are not costly handicaps, but instead are *preferred* behaviours
81 that deliver a direct benefit to signallers.

82 More generally, it is now understood that whether or not honesty will
83 persist over evolutionary time is determined by the net cost or net bene-
84 fit associated with a move from honesty to dishonesty (the “marginal net
85 benefit” of honesty), rather than the raw cost of signals made at equilib-
86 rium. Consequently, for handicap signalling systems stabilised by the cost
87 of signalling, signallers may produce honest signals of *arbitrary* raw cost at
88 equilibrium. That is, the space of different handicap signalling systems in-
89 cludes those in which equilibrium signalling behaviour involves signals that
90 impose high gross fitness costs on signallers, but also includes those that
91 impose low costs, zero cost, or even benefits on signallers. Consequently,
92 handicap signalling need not be extravagant in the sense that observed sig-
93 nals are expected to be of (excessively) large magnitude (e.g., Bullock, 1997;
94 Hasson, 1997; Getty, 1998; Bergstrom et al., 2002). For a summary of this
95 modelling literature and a forceful statement of the arguments for reassess-
96 ing the handicap metaphor, see Hurd & Enquist (2005) and Getty (2006),
97 respectively.

98 Here, an alternative account for the evolution of extravagance is consid-
99 ered. Whereas previous game-theoretic models have tended to address the
100 evolutionary stability of honest communication on a single signalling chan-
101 nel, here a model is developed in which the evolution of signalling systems
102 that are able to competitively exclude one another can be explored. The hy-
103 pothesis to be examined is whether, when considering two signalling systems
104 that both have the potential to be stable and honest, the more extravagant
105 one (i.e, the signalling system employing advertisements of larger magnitude)
106 might enjoy a selective advantage.

107 2. Signalling Over One Channel

108 The model follows Grafen (1990a) in taking the form of a simple two-
109 player action-response game with continuous traits in which signallers seek
110 to elicit a positive response by advertising some private information that is of
111 interest to receivers. Here, the property being advertised is dubbed “quality”,
112 but could be any characteristic of interest to a receiver, including signaller
113 hunger, aggression, escape ability, etc. As such the model is intended to
114 be neutral with respect to many details of the signalling context, including
115 the genetics. If the model were to be refocussed on a specific context, e.g.,
116 courtship signalling or offspring begging, it might pay to include factors spe-
117 cific to such a context. As it is, this paper follows Grafen’s (1990a) approach
118 in minimising the inclusion of such details in order to achieve generality and
119 simplicity.

120 Player S , a signaller, makes an advertisement with positive perceived
121 magnitude $a \geq 0$ on the basis of a randomly allocated degree of quality, q .
122 Player R , a receiver or responder, completes the bout of signalling by making
123 a response, r , on the basis of a but in ignorance of q .

124 Fitness scores are allocated such that R is rewarded for minimising the
125 difference between the magnitude of its response and the magnitude of sig-
126 naller quality.¹,

$$w_R = \frac{1}{1 + |r - q|}. \quad (1)$$

¹Note that, following Grafen (1990a), receivers are rewarded only for the accuracy of their ability to estimate a signaller’s quality, and that over-estimation is treated as equivalent to under-estimation. In reality, there may be situations where the impact of receiver accuracy on fitness varies with signaller quality, and where the fitness consequences of over-estimation differ from those of under-estimation.

127 Player S gains the benefit (rq^B) of receiving a response, r , from Player R ,
128 but pays the cost ($-aq^C$) of producing an advert, a . In each case the fitness
129 contribution may be mediated by the signaller's own quality, q , depending
130 on the values taken by the parameters B and C .

$$w_S = rq^B - aq^C \quad (2)$$

131 Where B is positive the impact of receiver response, r , on signaller fitness
132 is greater for signallers with higher q . Where B is negative, this impact is
133 greater for signallers with lower q . Where $B = 0$ this impact is independent
134 of signaller quality. Analogously, the value taken by parameter C determines
135 whether the negative fitness impact of advertising is greater for higher quality
136 signallers ($C > 0$) or lower quality signaller ($C < 0$) or is independent of
137 signaller quality ($C = 0$). For example, where $B = 0$ and $C = -1$, signallers
138 gain the same benefit from a given receiver response irrespective of their
139 quality, while the cost to a signaller of producing a particular advertisement
140 decreases in direct proportion to signaller quality.

141 An honest signalling system for this game is a separating equilibrium
142 where signallers produce a unique advertisement, a , for each unique value
143 of quality, q , being advertised, and receiver response r will equal signaller
144 quality q . At the game's non-signalling equilibrium signallers will produce
145 advertisements of zero magnitude for every value of quality being advertised,
146 and receivers will respond with a best guess at signaller quality.

147 In order to be stable, an honest signalling system must ensure that "better
148 signallers do better by advertising more" (Grafen, 1990a). This condition was
149 formulated by Grafen thus:

$$\frac{\partial w_S / \partial a}{\partial w_S / \partial r} \text{ is strictly increasing in } q \quad (3)$$

150 For the current model, this yields an inequality, $(B - C)q^{C-B-1} > 0$,
 151 which is satisfied exclusively by conditions where $B > C$. In such scenarios,
 152 any signaller with quality q enjoys an advantage over any competitor with
 153 lower quality in terms of the marginal net cost of advertising.

154 [Figure 1 about here.]

155 Figure 1 locates this finding within a wider set of models of handicap
 156 signalling. For example, the area of figure 1 satisfying the inequality $C < 0$
 157 represents Zahavi's (1975; 1977) claim that honest signalling will be stable
 158 where signalling costs are lower for those signallers with more of the prop-
 159 erty being advertised. The current model suggests that Zahavi's handicap
 160 criterion is neither necessary nor sufficient for the stability of honest sig-
 161 nalling. However, the current model is consistent with the results of several
 162 subsequent models.

163 Models addressing the signalling of need have sometimes assumed that
 164 the cost of signal production is independent of signaller need, i.e., $C = 0$ (e.g.,
 165 Godfray, 1991; Maynard Smith, 1991). These models have concluded that,
 166 in order for such signalling to be honest, the benefits to signallers of observer
 167 behaviour must increase with need, i.e., $B > 0$ (cf. the heavy vertical arrow
 168 in figure 1).

169 A complementary set of models addressing the signalling of quality have
 170 assumed that the benefit to signallers of an observer response is indepen-
 171 dent of signaller quality, i.e., $B = 0$ (e.g., Hurd, 1995). These models have

172 concluded that, in order for such signalling to be honest, the cost of signal
173 production must decrease with signaller quality, i.e., $C < 0$ (cf. the heavy
174 horizontal arrow in figure 1).

175 Finally, Grafen's (1990a) result can be represented by the cross-hatched
176 region in figure 1: assuming signaller benefits either increase with quality
177 ($B > 0$) or are independent of it ($B = 0$), Zahavi's constraints on signalling
178 costs ($C < 0$) must hold in order that signalling may be honest. While the
179 current model is consistent with this tightening of Zahavi's claims, the space
180 of stable, honest signalling scenarios defined by Grafen is not coincident with
181 the predictions of the current model. Rather, since the area defined by $B \geq 0$
182 and $C < 0$ is a proper sub-set of the region defined by $B > C$, Grafen's result
183 represents a special case of the current model's findings.

184 In order to understand how the current model departs from the reasoning
185 of Zahavi, consider the class of scenarios specified by $B > C > 0$ (represented
186 by the unhatched shaded region in figure 1). Any signalling channel for which
187 $C > 0$ fails to satisfy Zahavi's handicap condition for honest signalling. But
188 where $B > C > 0$ the current model predicts that honest signalling will be
189 evolutionarily stable. This class of scenario corresponds to a case in which,
190 say, nestlings are advertising their need by begging. Hungrier nestlings find it
191 more costly to beg than their well-fed competitors ($C > 0$), but this is more
192 than compensated for by the fact that hungrier nestlings stand to benefit
193 more from parental response ($B > C$). As a consequence, it makes sense for
194 a hungrier chick to beg more than a less needy nestmate even though it costs
195 the hungrier chick *more* to do so.

196 By contrast, consider the class of scenarios specified by $B < C < 0$

197 (represented by the unshaded hatched region in figure 1). Any signalling
198 channel for which $C < 0$ satisfies Zahavi's handicap condition for honest
199 signalling. But where $B < C < 0$, the current model predicts that honest
200 signalling will not be evolutionarily stable. Glossed in the same terms as the
201 example above, this class of scenario corresponds to a case in which (for some
202 reason) needier chicks find it less costly to beg than their well-fed nestmates
203 ($C < 0$), but this advantage is extinguished by the fact that they are less
204 able to extract the fitness benefit from parental response ($B < C$). Perhaps
205 they are not able to metabolise food as efficiently as well-fed chicks (Grafen,
206 1990a). As a consequence it does not make sense for a hungrier chick to beg
207 more than a less needy nestmate even though it costs the hungrier chick *less*
208 to do so.

209 *2.1. Simulation*

210 In order to explore the attainability of the honest signalling equilibria
211 described in the previous section, the model is translated into a simple sim-
212 ulation. Player S , is allocated a degree of quality, q , drawn at random from
213 a uniform distribution over the range $[q_{min}, q_{max}]$ and inherits a signalling
214 strategy $\langle S_\alpha, S_\beta \rangle$ that defines a mapping, $q \mapsto a$. Similarly, player R inherits
215 a response strategy $\langle R_\alpha, R_\beta \rangle$ that defines a mapping, $a \mapsto r$.

216 During each bout of signalling, S makes an advertisement with positive
217 magnitude a on the basis of q ,

$$a = \max(0, \text{sgn}(S_\alpha)q^{|S_\alpha|} + S_\beta). \quad (4)$$

218 R completes the bout of signalling by making a response, r , on the basis

219 of a ,

$$r = \text{sgn}(R_\alpha)a^{|R_\alpha|} + R_\beta. \quad (5)$$

220 [Figure 2 about here.]

221 This ensures that, while low-dimensional and smooth, the strategy spaces
222 of S and R comprise a range of mappings from q to a and from a to r that
223 are variously increasing, decreasing, accelerating, decelerating, or flat (see
224 figure 2). Note that as a consequence of the requirement that $a \geq 0$, even
225 where a signalling mapping is not flat, it may be truncated such that either
226 some low- or high-quality signallers make advertisements of zero magnitude.
227 At the conclusion of a bout, scores are allocated to R and S on the basis of
228 equations (1) and (2).

229 During each simulated generation, each member of a population of N
230 signallers is uniquely paired with a member of a population of N receivers
231 ($N = 1000$ for all results reported here). Each pair engage in a single bout of
232 signalling, after which scores are allocated. Once all pairs have been scored, a
233 new generation of receivers is bred by selecting (with replacement) N parents
234 from the receiver population with probability proportional to their score.
235 Offspring inherit the response strategy of their parent, subject to unbiased
236 mutation in which a perturbation on each strategy component is drawn from
237 the normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation 0.01.

238 A new generation of signallers is bred in a similar fashion. However,
239 since signaller scores may be negative, the probability with which parents
240 are selected from the signaller population is inversely proportional to the
241 rank of their score within the population, rather than proportional to the

242 raw score itself. Inherited signaller strategies are mutated in the manner
243 described for response strategies, above.

244 The new generation of signallers and receivers are then paired, engage in
245 a bout of signalling and bred as before. The simulation is terminated after
246 G generations of this process ($G = 5000$ for all results reported here).

247 Note that, following Grafen (1990b), we model the co-evolution of sig-
248 naller and receiver strategies without genetic linkage. This allows the model
249 to represent many handicap signalling contexts, but does not realistically
250 capture the genetics when signaller and receiver are related (e.g., parental in-
251 vestment) or signalling is between the sexes of a single species (e.g., courtship
252 signalling).

253 Before reporting the simulation's behaviour, we will explicitly define what
254 we mean by the term extravagance. A signalling system, \mathcal{S} , comprises an
255 equilibrium signalling strategy, S^* , and the associated equilibrium receiver
256 strategy, R^* . One signalling system, \mathcal{S}_1 , will be said to be strictly more
257 extravagant than another, \mathcal{S}_2 , if the advertisements made under \mathcal{S}_1 are of
258 greater magnitude.

$$\int_{q_{min}}^{q_{max}} S_1^*(q) dq > \int_{q_{min}}^{q_{max}} S_2^*(q) dq. \quad (6)$$

259 Here, $S_i^*(q)$ is the magnitude of the advertisement generated by a signaller
260 of quality q using the equilibrium signaller strategy from signalling system i .

261 3. One Channel: Simulation Results

262 First, we corroborate that honest signalling equilibria exist only for sce-
263 narios in which $B > C$. For each simulation run, signaller and receiver

264 populations were initialised with random strategies, where each element of
 265 every player’s strategy was drawn from a uniform distribution $[-1, 1]$. After a
 266 period of simulated coevolution, the resultant signalling behaviour was char-
 267 acterised by two measurements. Receiver prediction error, ϵ , was employed
 268 as a proxy for honesty, and signal range, ρ , as a proxy for extravagance.²

269 For a particular signalling strategy, the signal range was determined by
 270 the signed difference between the magnitude of a when $q = q_{max}$ and the
 271 magnitude of a when $q = q_{min}$. For each simulated scenario, $\bar{\rho}$ was calculated
 272 as

$$\bar{\rho} = \bar{S}(q_{max}) - \bar{S}(q_{min}) \quad (7)$$

273 Here, $\bar{S}(q)$ is the magnitude of the advertisement generated by a signaller
 274 of quality, q , employing the mean signaller strategy, $\langle \bar{S}_\alpha, \bar{S}_\beta \rangle$. For all results
 275 reported here $q_{min} = 1$ and $q_{max} = 5$.

276 For a particular pair of signaller and response strategies, receiver error
 277 was calculated as the mean difference between signaller quality and receiver
 278 response across bouts of signalling spanning the range of quality values. For
 279 each simulated scenario, $\bar{\epsilon}$ was calculated as

²Note that (i) the space of signalling strategies used here guarantees that a will always be a monotonic function of q , and (ii) we expect that for any honest signalling system $a \approx 0$ for signaller with quality $q = q_{min}$. This allows us to use the difference between the magnitude of the advertisement given by the lowest and highest quality signallers as a proxy for extravagance. We could also have used the average advertisement magnitude, or calculated the extravagance using equation (6) without qualitatively changing the results reported here. However, the signal range metric employed here has an advantage in that its sign differentiates signallers whose advertisements increase with q from those whose advertisements decrease with q , or do not vary with q and are therefore uninformative.

$$\bar{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{j=1}^Q |\bar{R}(\bar{S}(q_j)) - q_j| \quad (8)$$

280 Here, q_j is drawn from a set of Q values evenly distributed between q_{min}
 281 and q_{max} , and $\bar{R}(a)$ is the magnitude of the response to an advertisement of
 282 magnitude a generated by the mean response strategy, $\langle \bar{R}_\alpha, \bar{R}_\beta \rangle$.

283 Note that the stochasticity introduced by mutation ensures that an evol-
 284 ving population will never reach a true equilibrium. We classify a simula-
 285 tion run as having achieved an honest signalling equilibrium where the fi-
 286 nal receiver population's mean receiver error is below some threshold level,
 287 $\bar{\epsilon} < \epsilon_{thresh}$. (For this to be the case it must also be true that $\bar{\rho} \neq 0$). For all
 288 results reported here $\epsilon_{thresh} = 0.3$.

289 [Figure 3 about here.]

290 First consider stereotypical examples of the evolution of an honest sig-
 291 nalling equilibrium and a non-signalling equilibrium, depicted in figure 3.
 292 Solid curves represent the case in which conditions for stable honesty are
 293 satisfied ($B > C$), whereas dashed curves represent the case where these
 294 conditions are not satisfied ($B < C$). In the latter case, both highest qual-
 295 ity and lowest quality signallers evolve to produce advertisements with zero
 296 magnitude, and receivers evolve to guess signaller quality, achieving a predic-
 297 tion error of $\bar{\epsilon} = 0.5$, which is the best that can be achieved in the absence of
 298 any information from signallers. Conversely, where $B > C$, highest quality
 299 signallers evolve to make advertisements of magnitude approx. 10, while low-
 300 est quality signallers again evolve to produce advertisements of approx. zero
 301 magnitude, and receivers are able to achieve low response error, $\bar{\epsilon} < \epsilon_{thresh}$.

302 The evolution of the associated strategy parameters is depicted in figure 4.
303 For $B > C$, S_α and R_α stabilise rapidly with the remaining two parameters
304 compensating for one another from around generation 2000. For $B < C$,
305 signallers rapidly evolve negative strategy parameters that guarantee zero
306 magnitude advertisements. Receivers have little selection pressure on their
307 R_α value as, in the absence of advertisements, the magnitude of their response
308 is dominated by R_β , which stabilises at a value of around $(q_{min} + q_{max})/2$,
309 which is a best guess of signaller quality in the absence of any information
310 from signaller behaviour.

311 [Figure 4 about here.]

312 Figure 5 depicts how these measures vary with model parameters B and
313 C . Where $B < C$, non-signalling equilibria are achieved: all signallers, ir-
314 respective of quality, make uninformative advertisements of zero magnitude
315 ($\bar{\rho} \approx 0$), and receivers make responses of magnitude $r \approx (q_{max} - q_{min})/2$.
316 Conversely, where $B > C$, honest signalling equilibria are always achieved:
317 signallers make honest advertisements such that higher quality signallers em-
318 ploy larger advertisements ($\bar{\rho} > 0$), and receivers are able to recover signaller
319 quality from these advertisements with low error ($\bar{\epsilon} < \epsilon_{thresh}$). Where $B = C$
320 signalling behaviour repeatedly evolves but is not stable. In summary, simu-
321 lated populations had no trouble reaching honest signalling equilibria when
322 these equilibria were predicted to exist, and at these equilibria honest sig-
323 nalling behaviour was tightly determined by model parameters such that $\bar{\rho}$
324 increased exponentially with $B - C$ (see figure 6).

325 [Figure 5 about here.]

326

[Figure 6 about here.]

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[Figure 7 about here.]

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Note that the absolute values of B and C do not influence the signalling behaviour which is determined by the difference between B and C . This means that the model's behaviour does not distinguish between the regions of parameter space depicted in figure 1. For instance, figure 7 shows that scenarios within the region identified by Grafen are equivalent to those in the $B > C > 0$ region so long as they share a value for $B - C$.

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4. Signalling Over Two Channels

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Next, we consider what kind of equilibrium signalling behaviour we might expect to evolve where more than one signalling channel exists. When *two* signalling channels (which may differ in the signalling costs that they impose) are made available to signallers, and receivers must choose which to attend to³, can we predict whether one channel will be favoured by evolution, and if so, which?

341

342

We extend the current model by including in the expression for signaller fitness a second cost term associated with the additional signalling channel.

$$w_S = rq^B - a_1q^{C_1} - a_2q^{C_2} \quad (9)$$

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344

Here, C_1 and C_2 are new model parameters that determine the manner in which signaller quality mediates the cost of signalling on channels one and

³Since only one channel may be attended to, this is not a model in which we can explore the evolution of multiple simultaneous signals, either for reasons of increased redundancy or for conveying multiple messages (Johnstone, 1995a, 1996).

345 two, respectively. Receiver fitness is calculated as before. Following straight-
 346 forwardly from the single channel case, the evolutionary stability conditions
 347 for honesty on each signalling channel are, $B > C_1$ and $B > C_2$, respec-
 348 tively. Where only one of the channels (or neither) supports stable honest
 349 signalling, the question of equilibrium selection is moot. However, if both
 350 channels admit stable honest communication (e.g., $B > C_1, C_2$), there exists
 351 the possibility that one channel might enjoy an advantage over the other.

352 Without loss of generality, assume that $C_1 > C_2$. At the outset of any
 353 unbiased evolutionary competition between the two evolving signalling sys-
 354 tems, the net cost of signalling on channel two must, *ceteris paribus*, be low-
 355 est. Consider that, in such a scenario, on average receivers can be expected
 356 initially to treat each channel identically. Hence,

$$w_{s_1} = rq^B - aq^{C_1} < w_{s_2} = rq^B - aq^{C_2} \quad (10)$$

357 In general, where both signalling channels are able to support stable hon-
 358 est signalling (i.e., $B > C_1$ and $B > C_2$), Eq (10) shows that the sign of
 359 $C_1 - C_2$ will determine which signalling channel enjoys an initial selective
 360 advantage, and the magnitude of $C_1 - C_2$ will determine the extent of this
 361 advantage.

362 5. Two Channels: Simulation Results

363 Here, the original simulation has been augmented such that signallers now
 364 inherit a strategy specifying two mappings, $q \mapsto a_1$ and $q \mapsto a_2$. Likewise,
 365 receivers now inherit a mapping for each signalling channel, $a_1 \mapsto r$ and
 366 $a_2 \mapsto r$, and, in addition, a switch, $\gamma \in \{1, 2\}$, that specifies to which channel

367 the receiver will exclusively attend. Since this switch element may take only
368 two values, mutation via Gaussian perturbation is inappropriate. Rather,
369 during reproduction, a parental γ value is swapped for the alternative allele
370 with mutation probability, m ($m = 0.05$ for all results reported here).

371 Signallers are thus free to employ one, both or neither of the two signalling
372 channels, while receivers are free to develop a different response strategy for
373 each channel, but are constrained to employ one or the other.

374 [Figure 8 about here.]

375 Figure 8 depicts the evolutionary change in signaller and receiver be-
376 haviour for a scenario where two channels satisfy handicap signalling condi-
377 tions. On channel 1 ($C = -2$), signalling behaviour stabilises after around
378 2000 generations with $a \approx 35$ for highest quality signallers and $a \approx 0$ for low-
379 est quality signallers. Receivers evolve to pay attention to channel 1 within
380 the first few generations and achieve low response error after 500 generations.
381 By contrast, on channel 2 ($C = -1.5$) advertising is rapidly extinguished, and
382 the (unused) receiver strategy (which is under very weak selection pressure)
383 is unable to produce a good estimate of signaller quality.

384 More generally, the model's parameters B , C_1 and C_2 now define a three-
385 space over which we can explore signalling system evolution. In order to
386 visualise the results clearly, figure 9 depicts the model's behaviour over the
387 $C_1 \times C_2$ plane with the third parameter value held constant ($B = 0$). (The
388 model's behaviour is qualitatively similar for other values of B , *mutatis mu-*
389 *tandis*.) Since the only difference between channels one and two is captured
390 by the relationship between C_1 and C_2 , we should expect the panels in fig-
391 ure 9 to exhibit symmetry about $C_1 = C_2$. In addition to this symmetry,

392 by comparing the two panels of figure 9 it is apparent that the attainability
393 of honest signalling equilibria increases as either C_1 or C_2 fall below B , and
394 that in any scenario where both channels admit of an honest signalling equi-
395 librium, whichever channel exhibits advertisements of larger magnitude at
396 equilibrium enjoys an advantage in terms of evolutionary attainability (see
397 figure 10).

398 [Figure 9 about here.]

399 [Figure 10 about here.]

400 *5.1. Competition Between Established Signalling Systems*

401 [Figure 11 about here.]

402 Here we simulate abrupt contact between two stable signalling systems
403 that have evolved to equilibrium in isolation. One more extravagant “invad-
404 ing” system for which $C_1 = -2$ encounters a less extravagant “incumbent”
405 system for which $C_2 = -1$ (the labels “invading” and “incumbent” are arbi-
406 trary and could be reversed).

407 Initially we allow each system to evolve in isolation as per the rubric
408 of section 2. We fix $B = 0$, ensuring that, since $B - C_1 > B - C_2 >$
409 0 , the equilibrium signalling behaviour in the invading population will be
410 more extravagant than that in the incumbent population, but both signalling
411 systems will be stable and honest.

412 We then create a new mixed population of $N = 1000$ signallers by select-
413 ing a random proportion p of individuals from the signaller population of the
414 invading system and combining them with a random proportion $1 - p$ of indi-
415 viduals from the signaller population of the incumbent system (the remaining

416 signallers are discarded). We construct a mixed receiver population in the
417 same way, with the same ratio of individuals from the two wild-type receiver
418 populations. From this initial condition we simulate a further $G = 5000$
419 generations of evolution.

420 By varying p we can determine that the more extravagant signalling sys-
421 tem enjoys an advantage under these circumstances, being able to achieve
422 fixation (at the expense of the less extravagant signalling system) under a
423 wider range of initial conditions. For the systems depicted in figure 11, the
424 extravagant invading system achieves fixation in the majority of simulation
425 runs when it accounts for only 45% or more of the initial population. Where
426 the two signalling systems are initially equally represented in the population
427 ($p = 0.5$), the more extravagant system achieves fixation in 90% of cases.

428 Despite its nominal disadvantage the weaker signalling system is evolu-
429 tionarily stable, not only against rare mutants (which is attested to by the
430 results presented in section 3), but also against large numbers of signallers
431 and receivers with strategies that are optimally co-adapted to each other.
432 For both of the systems simulated here, an invading population fully half the
433 size of the incumbent population ($p = \frac{1}{3}$) is extremely unlikely to oust the
434 incumbent signalling system.

435 6. Discussion

436 The model presented here suggests that there are grounds for expect-
437 ing handicap signalling to appear extravagant—signalling systems employ-
438 ing channels that exhibit signals of larger perceived magnitude at equilibrium
439 are favoured by evolution. It might appear to be consistent with Zahavi's

440 (1975; 1977) original arguments that evolution favours the largest and thus
441 most costly signalling system. However, it is more accurate to conclude that,
442 within the space of signalling channels that satisfy handicap signalling crite-
443 ria, it is those that are *cheapest* that are advantaged and that this cheapness
444 also results in escalated levels of advertisement magnitude.

445 Consider two competing signalling channels characterised by $B > C_1 >$
446 C_2 . We have seen that while honest signalling is possible on either channel, in
447 general signals will be cheaper on channel 2. Results presented here support
448 two intuitions: first, signallers that employ the cheaper channel will tend to
449 enjoy a selective advantage; second, in order to impose signalling costs of a
450 magnitude sufficient to stabilise signalling on the cheaper channel, greater
451 evolutionary escalation of advertisement magnitude will be required.

452 How generally should these results be expected to hold? First I will
453 consider issues raised by the implementation of the model as a simulation.
454 Second I will consider constraints on generality due to the form of the model
455 itself.

456 The initial game theoretic treatment presented in section 2 introduces
457 some theoretical assumptions in the form of game structures and fitness func-
458 tions. However, the subsequent evolutionary simulation model additionally
459 involves an explicit fitness landscape (i.e., a genetic encoding that imposes
460 a neighbourhood relationship over strategies) and a specific algorithm that
461 moves an explicit, finite population across this landscape, using particular
462 genetic operators and mechanisms for selecting between potential parents.
463 How confident can we be that the way the model behaves can be attributed
464 to the form of the game and its fitness functions, rather than the algorithmic

465 devices introduced in order to implement it as an individual-based simulation
466 model? The analytic intractability of simulation models typically prevents
467 a conclusive answer to this question, just as the reliance of a mathemat-
468 ical model on its idealising assumptions (e.g., an infinite population, zero
469 sampling error, differentiable fitness functions) can be hard to assess.

470 However, the behaviour of the current model *is* robust to alternative
471 strategy space encodings (e.g., restricting signallers and receivers to linear
472 mappings of the form $a = mq + c$ or $a = q \tan(\theta) + c$), alternative genetic oper-
473 ators (e.g., a range of mutation operators), alternative selection mechanisms
474 (e.g., local competition between neighbouring members of a population dis-
475 tributed over a two-dimensional rectangular lattice), and alternative initial
476 conditions (e.g., converged on non-signalling equilibrium behaviour).

477 The relationship between the findings presented here and the more fun-
478 damental assumptions made in defining the game itself is less clear and de-
479 serves more analysis, particularly as the form of the equations governing
480 key relationships was influenced as much by their simplicity as their real-
481 ism. The game employs continuous traits where a small change in, say, a
482 signaller's quality or the magnitude of an advertisement results in a small
483 change in the cost associated with making that advertisement. This need
484 not be true of models that employ discrete traits where the notion of cheap
485 signals escalating in magnitude until they achieve evolutionary stability may
486 not hold. The model does not explicitly address the genetics of signalling
487 systems where signallers and receivers may reproduce sexually, or may be
488 related. The game does not include noise on signal production or perception,
489 and does not recognise the difference between the receiver's perception of

490 an advertisement’s magnitude and that of the signaller. As a consequence
491 of these simplifications, we can expect signallers with minimum quality to
492 make advertisements of zero magnitude. This expectation is unlikely to sur-
493 vive a more sophisticated treatment of the psychophysics of the signaller and
494 receiver roles, e.g., the inclusion of perceptual error, “just noticeable differ-
495 ences” in magnitude and how these scale with the magnitude of a stimulus.

496 Finally, the current model assumes (along with previous models, e.g.,
497 Grafen, 1990a) that receivers are selected for their raw *accuracy* in estimat-
498 ing signaller quality. The impact on receiver fitness of overestimation is
499 deemed equivalent to that of underestimation, and independent of the true
500 value being advertised. These assumptions seem rather crude when con-
501 trasted with the subtle attention paid to *signaller* fitness, and are unlikely
502 to hold for many natural signalling systems where, for instance, mistakenly
503 fleeing contests with weaklings has very different implications to erroneously
504 fighting much stronger opponents, and passing over first-class suitors differs
505 significantly from bearing the offspring of poor quality mates. Future work
506 will adapt the simulation paradigm employed here to use the outcomes of
507 receiver decision making as a more appropriate proxy for fitness than the
508 raw accuracy of their estimations of signaller quality.

509 **7. Conclusion**

510 Zahavi’s (1975) estimation that extravagant and exaggerated handicaps
511 are widespread or even endemic within natural signalling systems has proven
512 difficult to assess empirically (see, e.g., Johnstone, 1995b; Kilner & John-
513 stone, 1997; Godfray & Johnstone, 2000; Kotianho, 2001). While the work

514 presented here reiterates that natural handicaps need not incur high costs
515 (or indeed, any cost) at equilibrium, it does predict that under some cir-
516 cumstances a handicap signalling system will tend to involve signals of large
517 subjective magnitude. This result might account for our impression of the
518 abundance of extravagance in natural signals—especially if there is signifi-
519 cant correlation between our sensory apparatus and that of the receivers for
520 which the signals were evolved.

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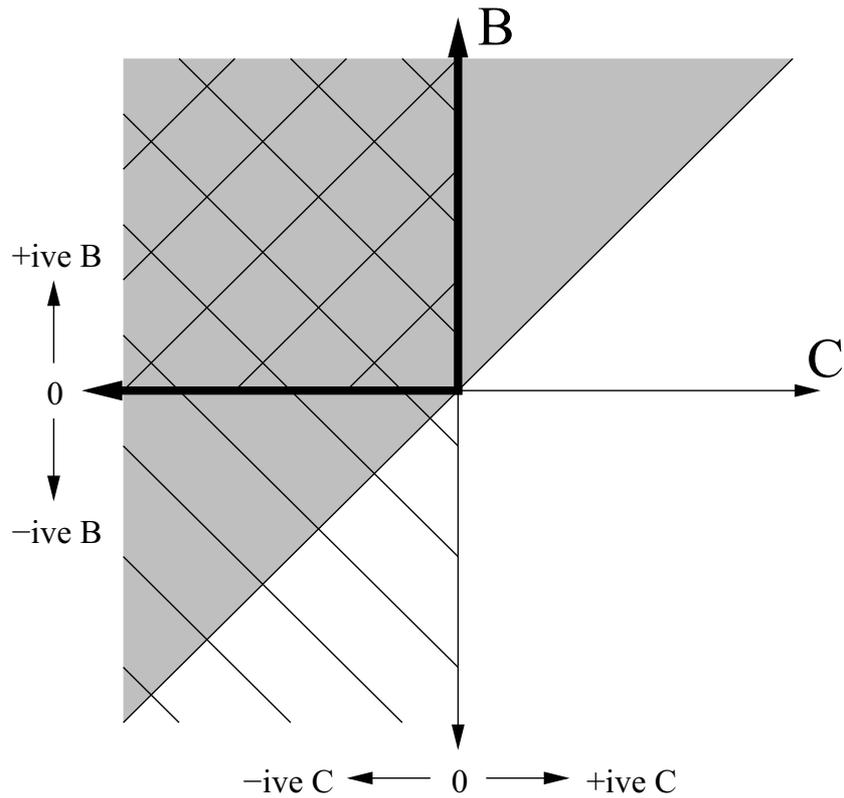


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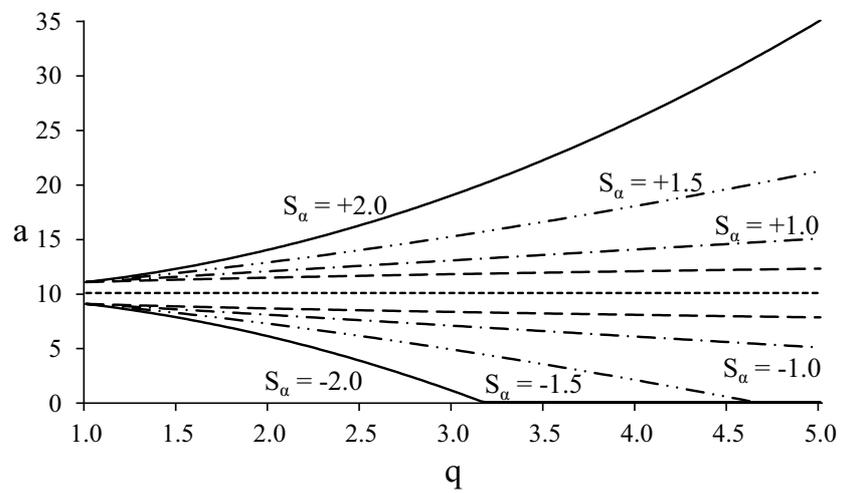


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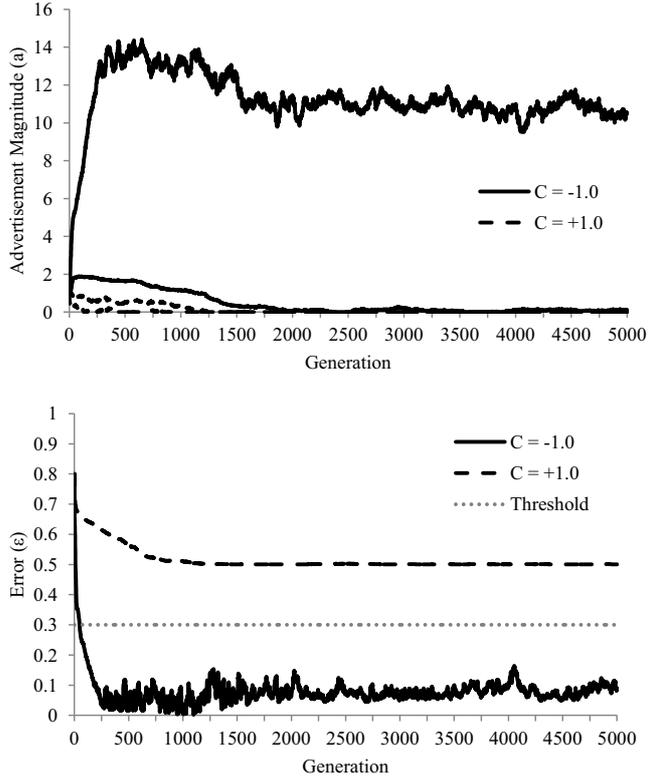


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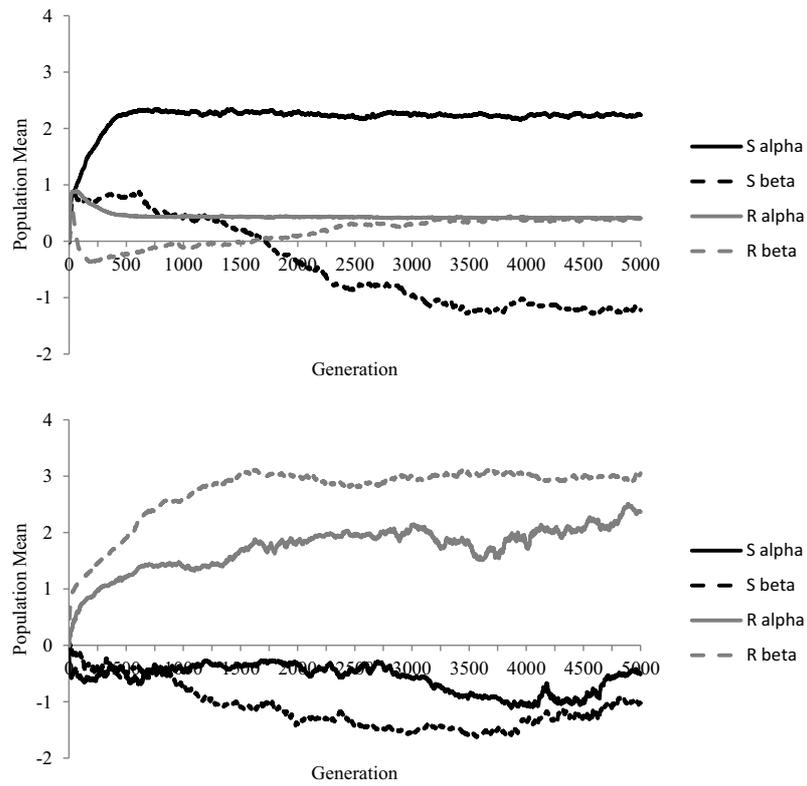


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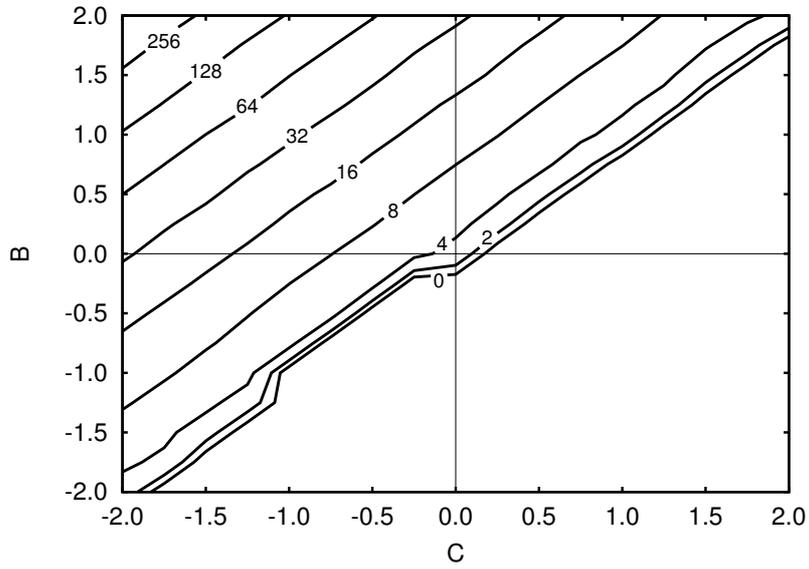


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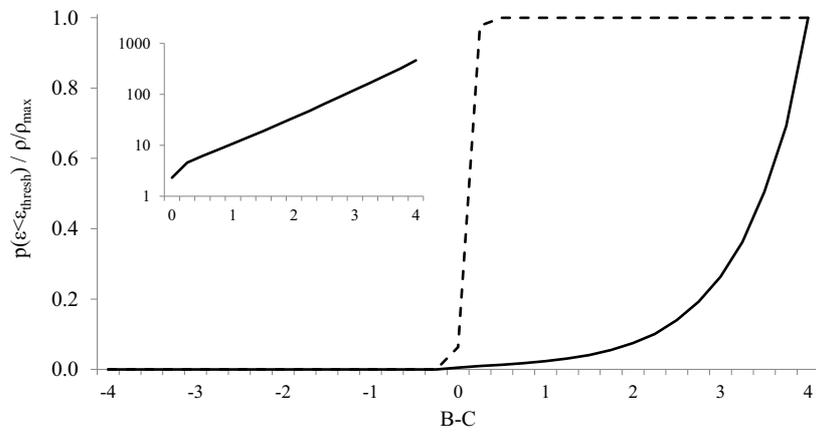


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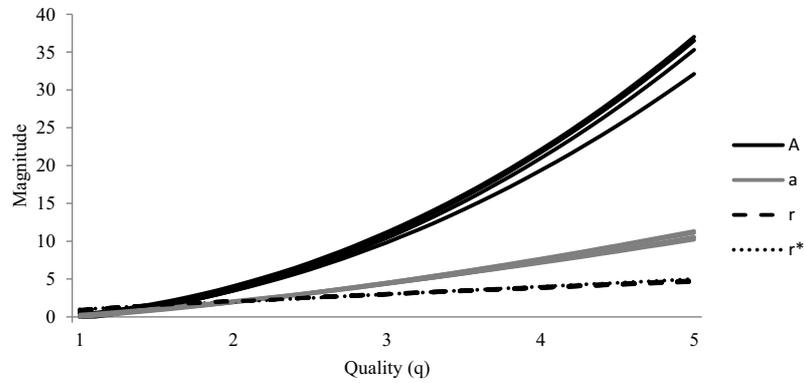


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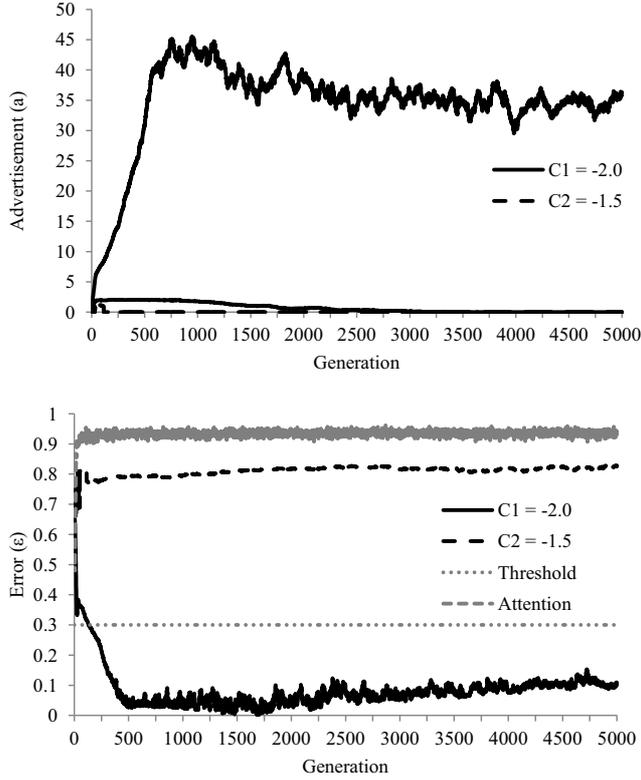


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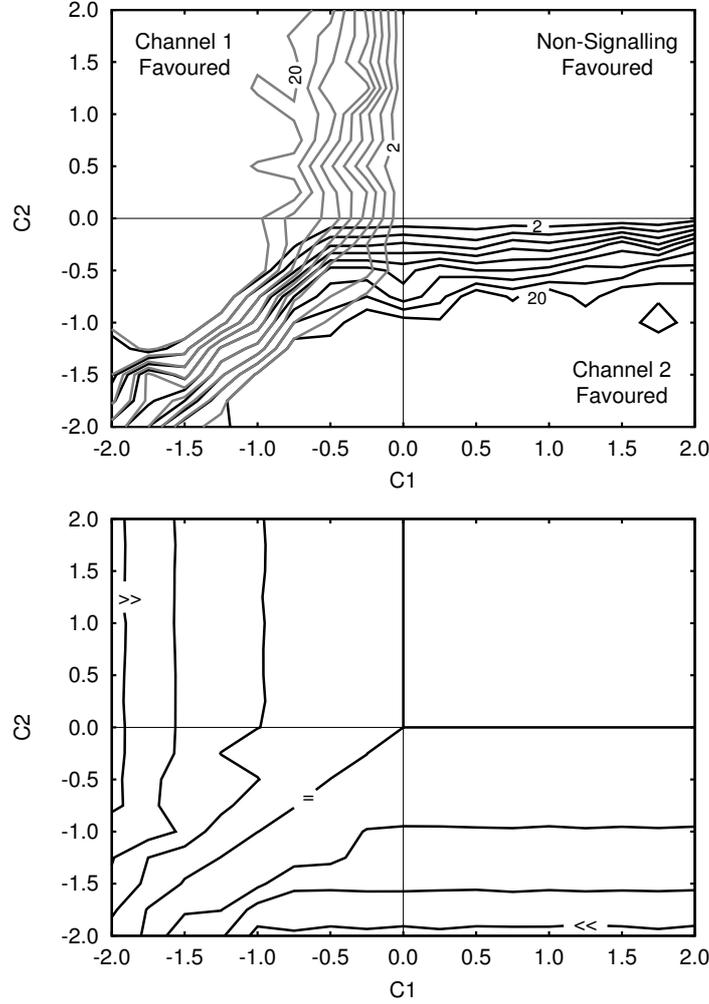


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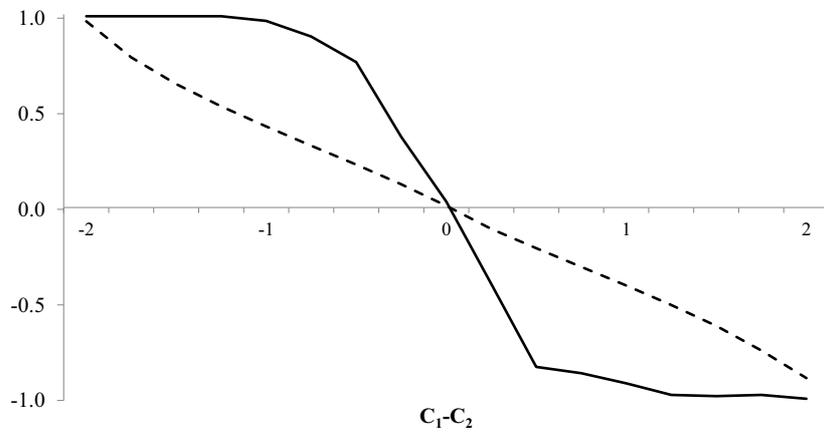


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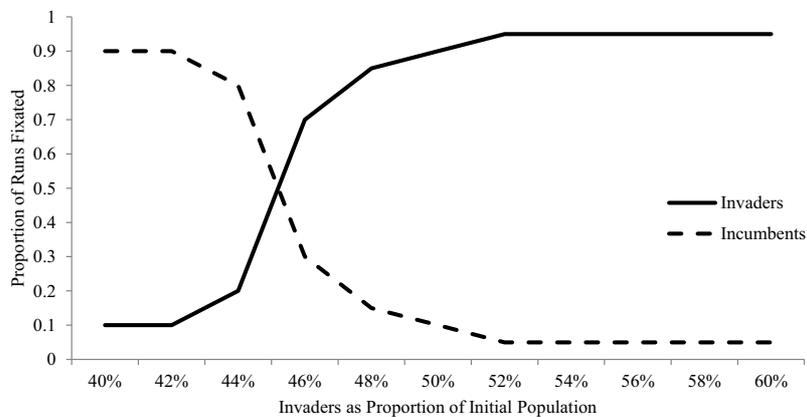


Figure 11: Competition between two established wild-type signalling systems with varying initial frequency in a randomly mixed initial population. The solid curve represents the proportion of $N = 20$ simulation runs that fixate on the extravagant invading signalling system ($C = -2$) after $G = 5000$ post-contact generations of evolution. The dashed curve represents the proportion of runs in which the less extravagant incumbent signalling system ($C = -1$) fixated. $B = 0$ for all runs.