

1      An evolutionary advantage for extravagant honesty

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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-  
19icap 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

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## 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.<sup>1</sup>,

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

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<sup>1</sup>Note 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:

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

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

[Figure 1 about here.]

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

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

A complementary set of models addressing the signalling of quality have assumed that the benefit to signallers of an observer response is independent 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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 3. One Channel: Simulation Results

First, we corroborate that honest signalling equilibria exist only for scenarios 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,  $\epsilon$ , was employed  
 268 as a proxy for honesty, and signal range,  $\rho$ , as a proxy for extravagance.<sup>2</sup>

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

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<sup>2</sup>Note 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.

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

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

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

[Figure 3 about here.]

First consider stereotypical examples of the evolution of an honest signalling equilibrium and a non-signalling equilibrium, depicted in figure 3. Solid curves represent the case in which conditions for stable honesty are satisfied ( $B > C$ ), whereas dashed curves represent the case where these conditions are not satisfied ( $B < C$ ). In the latter case, both highest quality and lowest quality signallers evolve to produce advertisements with zero magnitude, and receivers evolve to guess signaller quality, achieving a prediction error of  $\bar{\epsilon} = 0.5$ , which is the best that can be achieved in the absence of any information from signallers. Conversely, where  $B > C$ , highest quality signallers evolve to make advertisements of magnitude approx. 10, while lowest quality signallers again evolve to produce advertisements of approx. zero 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  $B > C$ ,  $S_\alpha$  and  $R_\alpha$  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  $R_\alpha$  value as, in the absence of advertisements, the magnitude of their response  
 308 is dominated by  $R_\beta$ , 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.]

327 [Figure 7 about here.]

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

#### 334 4. Signalling Over Two Channels

335 Next, we consider what kind of equilibrium signalling behaviour we might  
336 expect to evolve where more than one signalling channel exists. When *two*  
337 signalling channels (which may differ in the signalling costs that they impose)  
338 are made available to signallers, and receivers must choose which to attend  
339 to<sup>3</sup>, can we predict whether one channel will be favoured by evolution, and  
340 if so, which?

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

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

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

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<sup>3</sup>Since 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

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

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

[Figure 8 about here.]

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

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

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

[Figure 9 about here.]

[Figure 10 about here.]

#### 5.1. Competition Between Established Signalling Systems

[Figure 11 about here.]

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

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

We then create a new mixed population of  $N = 1000$  signallers by selecting a random proportion  $p$  of individuals from the signaller population of the invading system and combining them with a random proportion  $1 - p$  of individuals 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 criteria,  
443 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 functions.  
458 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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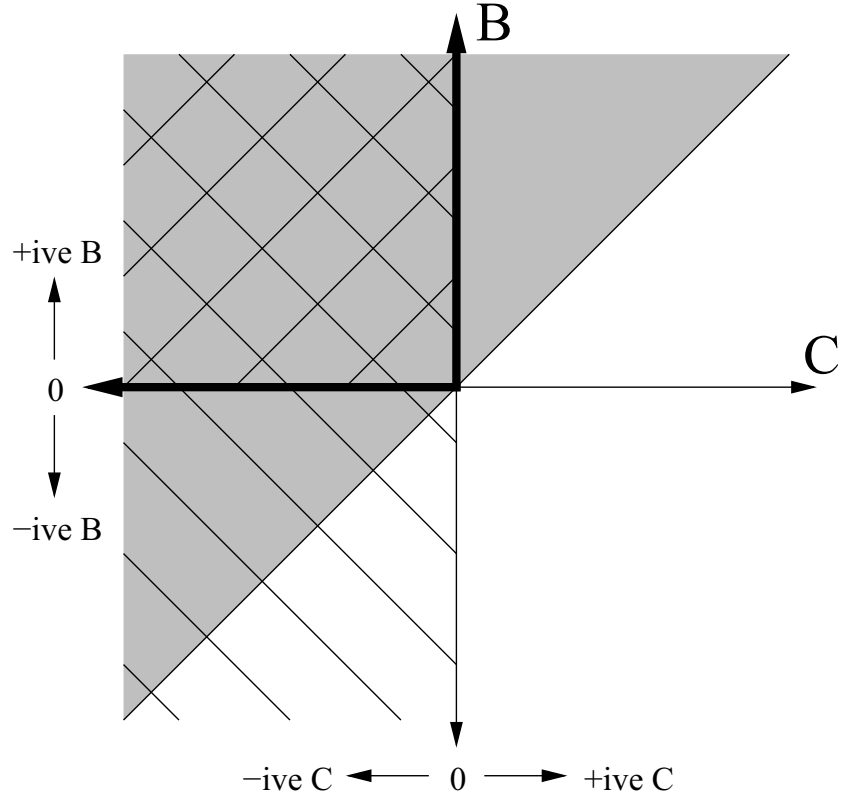


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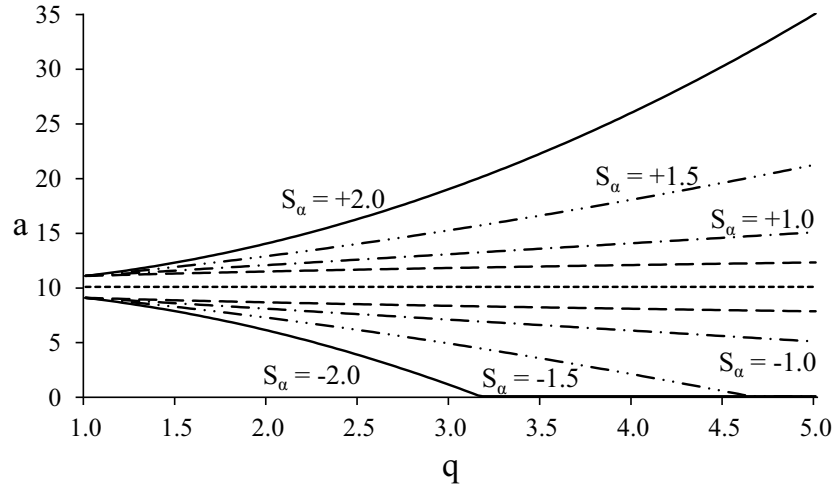


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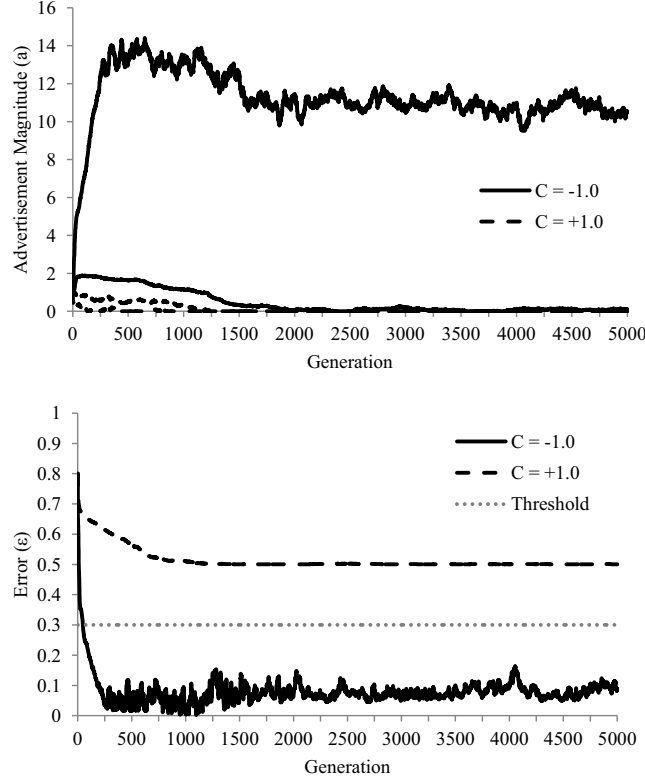


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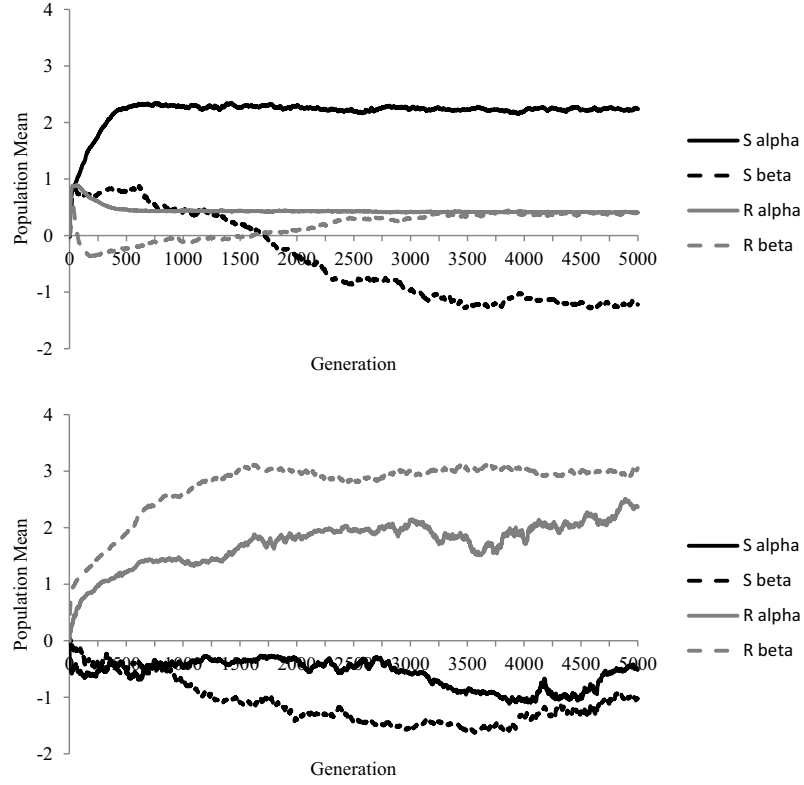


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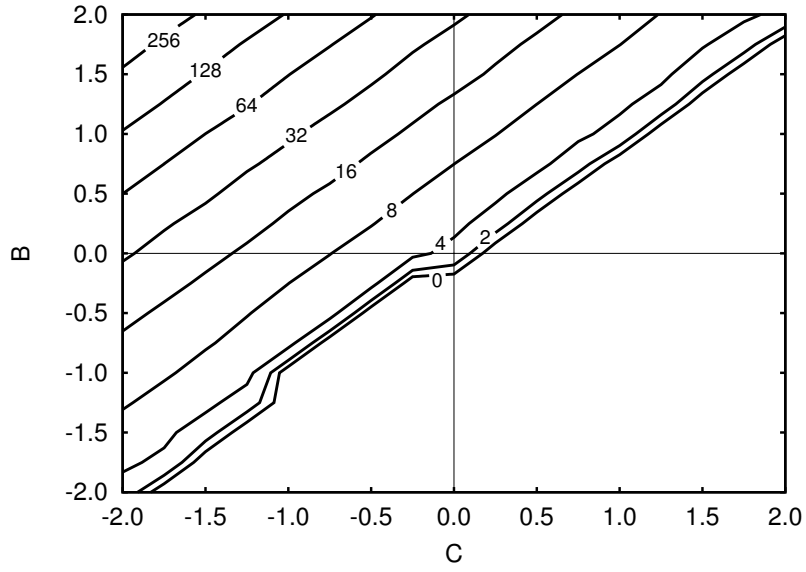


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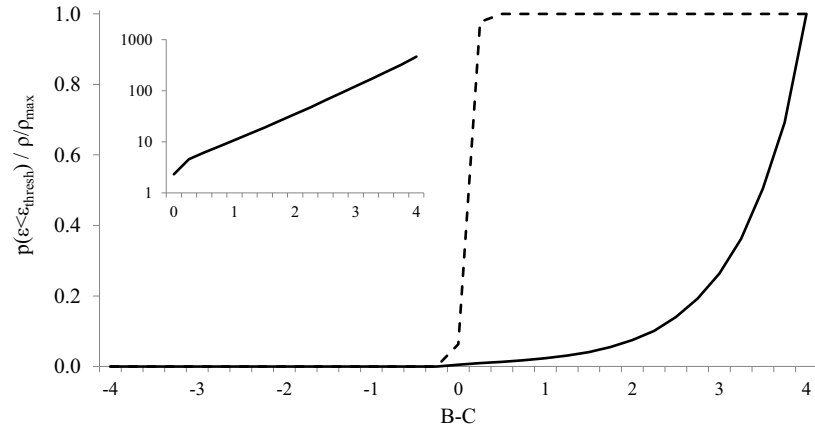


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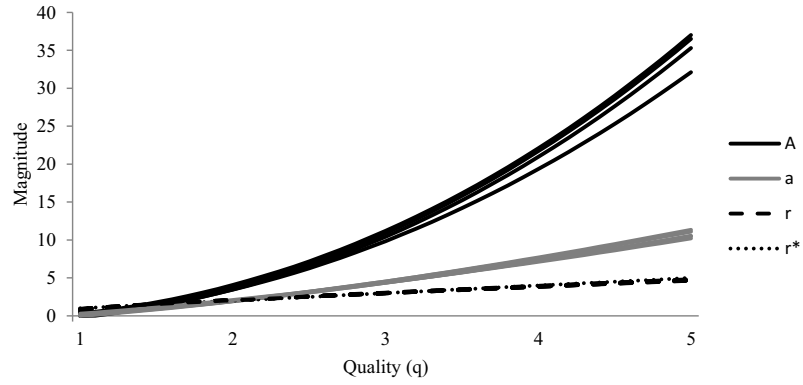


Figure 7: Honest signalling system behaviour for ten distinct scenarios for which  $B > C$ . Ten evolved signaller mappings,  $q \mapsto a$ , separate into two bundles, one for scenarios where  $B - C = 1$  (grey curves,  $a$ ) and one for scenarios where  $B - C = 2$  (solid curves,  $A$ ). In each case, receiver strategies produce responses,  $r$ , that are near optimal (i.e., the dashed response curves lie close to the dotted line,  $q \mapsto r^*$ ). The two sets of  $\{B, C\}$  scenarios depicted are  $\{\{-1, -2\}, \{0, -1\}, \{1, 0\}, \{2, 1\}, \{3, 2\}\}$  (grey) and  $\{\{0, -2\}, \{1, -1\}, \{2, 0\}, \{3, 1\}, \{4, 2\}\}$  (black). Simulation parameters are as per figure 5.

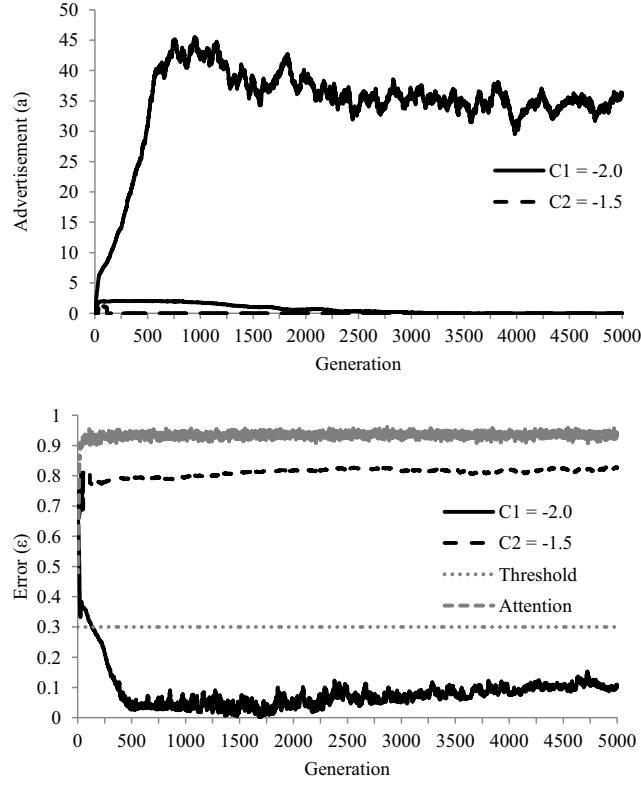


Figure 8: Change in signaller behaviour (upper panel) and receiver behaviour (lower panel) over evolutionary time under conditions that support honest signalling on two competing signalling channels ( $B = 0$ ,  $C_1 = -2$ , solid curves;  $B = 0$ ,  $C_2 = -1.5$ , dashed curves). For signallers, a pair of curves for each channel indicate evolutionary change in the magnitude of advertisements ( $a$ ) given by highest quality and lowest quality signallers employing the mean signaller strategy at each generation during a representative simulation run. For receivers, two curves indicate evolutionary change in the receiver error ( $\bar{\epsilon}$ ) produced by receivers employing the mean receiver strategy for each channel at each generation during the same simulation run. A third curve (grey) indicates the proportion of receivers paying attention to channel 1. The dotted grey line at  $\bar{\epsilon} = \epsilon_{thresh} = 0.3$  indicates the threshold on receiver error that was used to distinguish the attainment of honest signalling from failure to do so. Simulation parameters are as per figure 5 plus  $m = 0.05$ .

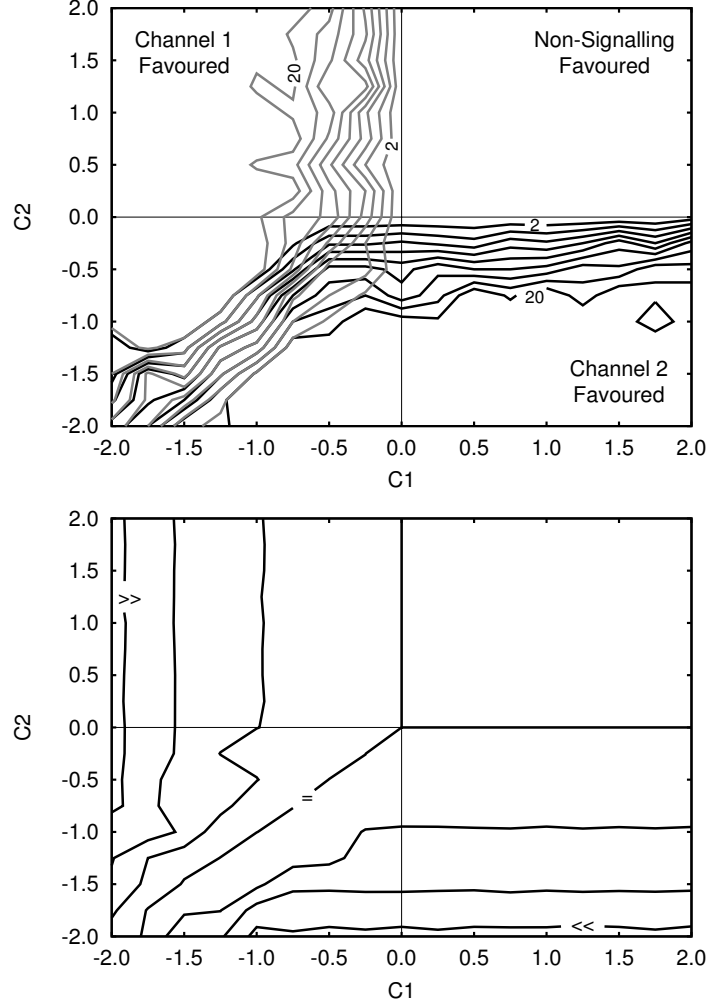


Figure 9: Both panels depict results from the same simulation runs sampling  $17 \times 17$  evenly distributed points in the  $C_1 \times C_2$  parameter space ( $B = 0$  in all cases). Each data point represents an average over 25 simulations runs. *Upper panel*: the frequency with which honest signalling equilibria are discovered on channel 1 (grey isoclines) and channel 2 (heavy isoclines). *Lower panel*: the signed difference between the mean signal range on each channel at honest signalling equilibrium,  $\bar{\rho}_1 - \bar{\rho}_2$ . Isoclines are labeled to indicate scenarios for which  $\bar{\rho}_1 \gg \bar{\rho}_2$ ,  $\bar{\rho}_1 = \bar{\rho}_2$ , and  $\bar{\rho}_1 \ll \bar{\rho}_2$ . (This measure is undefined for the upper right quadrant since no honest signalling equilibria were achieved in this region of parameter space). Parameters as figure 8.

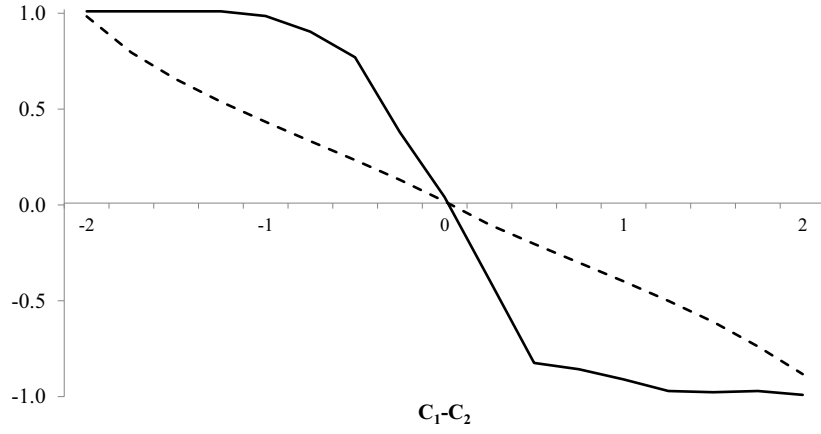


Figure 10: The data from the lower left quadrant of figure 9 (i.e., where both  $B > C_1$  and  $B > C_2$ ) are aggregated and replotted against  $C_1 - C_2$ . The solid curve represents the signed difference between the proportion of simulation runs that achieve honest signalling equilibrium on channel 1 and the proportion that achieved honesty on channel 2. The dashed curve represents  $\bar{\rho}_1 - \bar{\rho}_2$ , being the signed difference between the average equilibrium signal range on channels 1 and 2 (std. devs. were small, varying being between 1% and 3% of the mean).



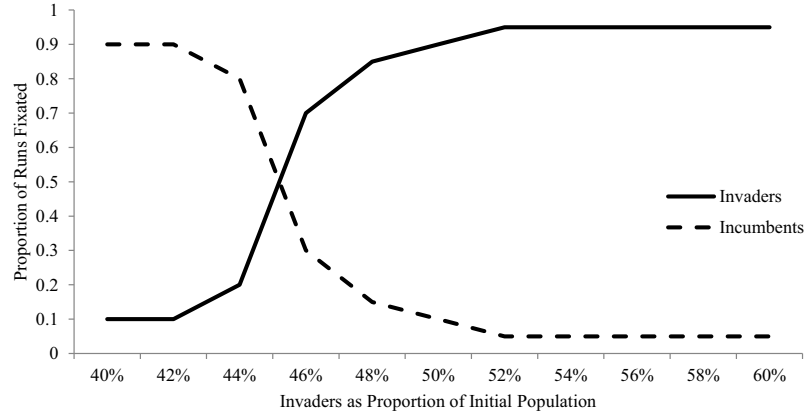


Figure 11: Competition between two established wild-type signalling systems with varying initial frequency in a randomly mixed initial population. The solid curve represents the proportion of  $N = 20$  simulation runs that fixate on the extravagant invading signalling system ( $C = -2$ ) after  $G = 5000$  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.