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3 **Title:** The evolution of altruism through war is highly sensitive to population structure and to civilian and  
4 fighter mortality

5

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12 **Abstract**

13 The importance of warfare in the evolution of human social behavior remains highly debated. One hypothesis is  
14 that intense warfare between groups favored altruism within groups, a hypothesis given some support by  
15 computational modelling and, in particular, the work of Choi and Bowles [Choi J-K, Bowles S. (2007) *Science*  
16 318:636–40]. The results of computational models are, however, sensitive to chosen parameter values and a  
17 deeper assessment of the plausibility of the parochial altruism hypothesis requires exploring this model in more  
18 detail. Here, I use a recently developed method to reexamine Choi and Bowles’ model under a much broader  
19 range of conditions to those used in the original paper. Although the evolution of altruism is robust to  
20 perturbations in most of the default parameters, it is highly sensitive to group size and migration and to the  
21 lethality of war. The results show that the degree of genetic differentiation between groups ( $F_{ST}$ ) produced by  
22 Choi and Bowles’ original model is much greater than empirical estimates of  $F_{ST}$  between hunter-gatherer  
23 groups. When  $F_{ST}$  in the model is close to empirically observed values, altruism does not evolve. These results  
24 cast doubt on the importance of war in the evolution of human sociality.

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26 **Keywords:** altruism, war, population structure, parochial altruism hypothesis, fitting to idealized outcomes,  
27 agent-based modelling

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29 **Significance statement**

30 Many evolutionary theorists have suggested that the human capacity for altruism was forged in war, with  
31 cohesive and altruistic groups outcompeting their selfish neighbors. Assessing this ‘parochial altruism’  
32 hypothesis relies largely on computational modelling. Here, I reexamine a well-known model that explores the  
33 co-evolution of altruism and war. As well as clarifying the importance of factors such as the lethality of war to  
34 fighters and civilians, the results show that the evolution of altruism in this model relies on a degree of genetic  
35 differentiation between groups that exceeds that seen among hunter-gatherers. Furthermore, when the model  
36 produces a more realistic population structure, altruism does not evolve, casting doubt on the plausibility of the  
37 parochial altruism hypothesis.

38

39 **Main Text**

40 While humans are capable of cooperation, tolerance, and generosity toward others, we are also capable of  
41 prejudice, violence and war. Although superficially at odds, these two sides of human behavior are sometimes  
42 closely related, with warfare promoting within-group solidarity and acts of individual sacrifice. The association  
43 between intergroup conflict and intragroup altruism has led evolutionary theorists including Darwin [1] to  
44 hypothesize that the two may have co-evolved [2–5]. The ‘parochial altruism’ hypothesis as typically conceived  
45 [6] holds that if groups containing more altruistic individuals were able to out-compete groups containing fewer  
46 altruistic individuals, this could have provided positive selection for both within-group altruism and out-group  
47 hostility (‘parochialism’) [3,6–8].

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49 The plausibility of the parochial altruism hypothesis depends partly on the likelihood that warfare was  
50 commonplace during human evolutionary history, a claim lent some support by archaeological evidence of mass  
51 killings [9,10] and ethnographic data from contemporary or historic small-scale societies [11–16] but which  
52 remains highly debated [17–20]. However, even if warfare was commonplace in human evolutionary history,  
53 this would not necessarily mean that it was an important force in selecting for within-group altruism. Since  
54 direct evidence of past selection pressures on altruism and war are unavailable to us, we rely on exploring the  
55 co-evolutionary dynamics of parochial and altruistic behaviors using mathematical or computational modelling.  
56 Several models exploring parochial altruism have been advanced [2–4,13,21], as part of a wider literature on the  
57 possible impact of warfare on the evolution of human sociality [22–25]. Of these models of parochial altruism,  
58 arguably the most influential is a model by Choi and Bowles [3]. Choi and Bowles’ model suggests that warfare  
59 between groups could, in theory, select for both parochialism (out-group hostility) and within-group altruism  
60 when individuals form small and genetically differentiated groups that occasionally go to war with one another  
61 and where success in these wars is determined by the proportion of parochial altruists in each group.

62

63 As set out in other work by Bowles [2,13], differences in the frequency of altruists between groups is critical to  
64 the co-evolution of altruism and war - if individuals frequently migrate between groups or if groups are large,  
65 altruistic individuals are unlikely to become sufficiently concentrated. This raises the question of how much  
66 population structuring is necessary for altruism to evolve in Choi and Bowles’ model and how this compares to  
67 empirical estimates of population structuring in contemporary small-scale societies. Although previous work on  
68 parochial altruism estimated that  $F_{ST}$  (a measure of genetic variation explained by differences between groups)

69 was  $\sim 0.08$  between contemporary hunter-gatherer populations [2], these estimates were based on a wide variety  
70 of genetic markers including some which are poor indicators of whole-genome genetic differentiation [26].  
71 Subsequent estimates based on differences in autosomal data suggest that differences between groups who could  
72 plausibly compete suggest that it is much lower than this [27–29] and similar to that seen in chimpanzees [26].  
73 This raises two questions for the Choi and Bowles model. First, is the degree of population structure produced  
74 by the model similar to empirical estimates? Second, does altruism in the model evolve when population  
75 structure is similar to the empirical estimates? As set out by Rusch [6], answering these questions is critical to  
76 our assessment of the plausibility of the parochial altruism hypothesis for the evolution of human altruism.

77

78 Another reason to explore the Choi and Bowles model in more detail is that while computational modelling can  
79 be highly informative, the results of all models will be sensitive to the choice of initial conditions and default  
80 parameters. While some parameters can be grounded in ethnographic data, others will be too abstract to ground  
81 empirically and in all cases it is important to explore the impact that each parameter has on model outcomes (in  
82 this case the evolution of altruism). Most computational models do this by using a fix-all-but-one approach in  
83 which one parameter is varied while all others are kept at their default values. Choi and Bowles use this fix-all-  
84 but-one sensitivity analysis for five of their model parameters. However, the fix-all-but-one method reduces the  
85 exploration of the model outcomes to a small part of parameter space and limits our understanding of the  
86 relationship between each parameter and the model outcome and of interactions between parameters [30].

87 Although the fix-all-but-one approach employed by Choi and Bowles was the standard approach used at the  
88 time, methods have subsequently been developed to explore model parameter space more fully [30–32]. Here, I  
89 use a Fitting to Idealized Outcomes method developed by Gallagher, Shennan, and Thomas [30] to reexamine  
90 the results of Choi and Bowles’ model of parochial altruism in order to (i) explore the results of the model in  
91 more detail and under a broader range of conditions, and (ii) calculate the degree of population structure  
92 produced by the model and compare this to empirical estimates. I find that while warfare in the model can lead  
93 to the evolution of altruism, it only does so when groups are far more genetically differentiated than groups of  
94 contemporary hunter-gatherers are estimated to be.

95

## 96 **Choi and Bowles model**

97 In their model [3], Choi and Bowles consider a population living in 20 groups of  $n$  agents. Agents have a  
98 behavioral phenotype determined by two ‘genes’. The first determines whether they are ‘altruistic’ (A) or ‘non-

99 altruistic' (N) and the second determines whether they are 'tolerant' (T) or 'parochial' (P). Thus, an agent can be  
100 a parochial altruist (PA), parochial non-altruist (PN), tolerant altruist (TA), or tolerant non-altruist (TN). In each  
101 generation of the model, there is a within-group interaction and a between-group interaction. The within-group  
102 interaction consists of a 'public goods' game in which altruists pay a cost ( $c$ ) to contribute a benefit ( $b$ ) to a  
103 communal pot that is then divided equally between all group members. All else being equal, the dominant  
104 strategy in this game is to be a non-altruist 'free-rider' who receives benefits from altruistic group mates without  
105 paying a cost themselves. However, the model also contains a between-group phase in which groups are  
106 randomly paired with another group and have an interaction that can be either hostile or tolerant. The probability  
107 of the interaction being tolerant is determined by the proportion of tolerant agents in the two groups. If a tolerant  
108 interaction occurs, tolerant agents receive a positive fitness payoff equal to the number of tolerant agents in the  
109 rival group multiplied by the parameter  $g$ . If a hostile interaction occurs, the groups will go to war with a  
110 probability determined by the difference in the proportion of parochial agents in each group. Thus, while all  
111 parochial agents (PAs and PNs) can be thought of as agitating for hostility, only parochial altruists (PAs)  
112 actually 'go to war' as fighters. War can result in either a draw or with the group with more parochial altruists  
113 winning. When a draw occurs, fighters die with a probability determined by the parameter  $\delta_f$  and are replaced by  
114 the offspring of surviving members of their own group. When the group with more parochial altruists wins,  
115 fighters on both sides die with the probability  $\delta_f$  and civilians (i.e. non-PAs) of the losing group die with a  
116 probability determined in part by the parameter  $\delta_c$  and all dead agents are replaced by the offspring of surviving  
117 members of the winning group. When reproduction occurs, new agents mutate to a random phenotype with  
118 probability  $\mu$ . Each generation, a proportion of agents from each group determined by parameter  $m$  migrate to a  
119 random group (although note that since agents may replace dead members of other groups during war, this  
120 migration is not the only way for genes to move between groups). In addition to the original model, I added a  
121 third 'gene' with six alleles that is inherited and mutates with the same probability as the 'altruism' and  
122 'parochialism' genes but which has no effect on fitness. This 'neutral' gene allows the measurement of  
123 population structure from locus that is not under selection [33].

124

## 125 **Results**

126 I replicated Choi and Bowles' original model and carried out 60,000 simulations. In each simulation parameters  
127 were set randomly within the ranges listed in Table 1 and model outcomes were recorded. Across these  
128 simulations, the mean proportion of altruists in the population ( $f^A$ ) was strongly correlated with group size and

129 migration rate, moderately associated with the lethality of war to both fighters and civilians and with the costs of  
130 altruism in the public goods game, and weakly associated with the payoffs of tolerance toward neighboring  
131 groups (Table 2). Of the 60,000 simulations, 29,158 (48.6%) resulted in a mean proportion of altruists in the  
132 population across all generations ( $f^A$ ) of  $> 0.5$ . Histograms of the parameters that produced these 29,158  
133 simulations are shown in Figure 1.

134

#### 135 *Altruism and the lethality of war*

136 Two parameters determine the lethality of warfare in the model:  $\delta_f$  and  $\delta_c$ . For the proportion of fighters dying in  
137 war ( $\delta_f$ ), there is a moderate negative relationship with the proportion of altruists ( $\rho = -0.17$ ) such that altruism is  
138 more likely to evolve ( $f^A > 0.5$ ) when fewer fighters die in war (Fig 1a). Conversely, for the parameter that  
139 determines the probability of civilians dying ( $\delta_c$ ), there is a strong positive relationship with the proportion of  
140 altruists ( $\rho = 0.32$ ) such that altruism is unlikely to evolve unless civilians (who are all non-PAs) die in war.  
141 These parameter-expanded results demonstrate two intuitive but important points – that parochial altruism will  
142 not evolve unless a large proportion of fighters (and their PA phenotypes) survive, and a moderate or large  
143 proportion of civilians (and their non-PA phenotypes) die when the fighters from their group lose in war. These  
144 results lend support to a central feature of the Choi and Bowles model - that altruism in the model is selected as  
145 a result of the dynamics of warfare between groups. Fix-all-but-two simulations varying  $\delta_f$  and  $\delta_c$  show that  
146 increases in  $\delta_c$  and decreases in  $\delta_f$  from the default values make it unlikely that  $f^A > 0.5$  (Fig 2a).

147

#### 148 *Intragroup altruism and intergroup tolerance*

149 During the within-group phase of the model altruists pay a fitness cost ( $c$ ) which was negatively correlated with  
150  $f_A$  across simulations ( $\rho = -0.33$ ) such that altruism was less likely to evolve when being an altruist had a higher  
151 fitness cost (Fig 1c). Fix-all-but-two simulations show that the benefit that altruists provide to group mates has  
152 virtually no effect on the evolution of altruism (Fig 2b). Similarly, the payoffs of tolerant interactions with other  
153 groups (parameter  $g$ ) are only weakly associated with  $f_A$  across the parameter range explored here ( $\rho = -0.05$ , Fig  
154 1d).

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156

#### 157 *Population structure*

158 The two parameters that were most strongly correlated with  $f_A$  were group size ( $n$ ) and migration between

159 groups ( $m$ ). There were strong negative correlations between these parameters and  $f_A$  such that altruism was less  
160 likely to evolve when groups were larger and migration between groups was more frequent (Table 2, Fig 1e-f).  
161 The sensitivity of the model results to  $n$  and  $m$  can be clearly seen in the fix-all-but-two simulations shown Fig  
162 2c – modest increases in these parameters from the default values of  $n = 26$  and  $m = 0.25$  would mean that  $f_A$  is  
163 unlikely to exceed 0.5. These parameters are so influential because they determine the degree of genetic  
164 differentiation between groups in the model, as shown by the strong negative correlations between  $F_{ST}$  and  $n$  ( $\rho$   
165 = -0.95) and  $m$  ( $\rho = -0.16$ ) and between  $F_{ST}$  and  $f_A$  ( $\rho = 0.65$ , Table 2).

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### 168 *Ethnographic comparison*

169 Given the importance of group size ( $n$ ) and migration ( $m$ ) to the evolution of altruism in the model, it is  
170 important to select these values carefully; establishing parameters that reflect a plausible scenario in human  
171 evolutionary history is critical to our interpretation of the model and the plausibility of the parochial altruism  
172 hypothesis for humans. To do this it is necessary to establish the degree of population structure produced in the  
173 model and compare this with ethnographic estimates of  $F_{ST}$ .

174

175 Mean  $F_{ST}$  under Choi and Bowles' default parameters is 0.083 (SD = 0.008, averaging over 100 simulations of  
176 50,000 generations). This is ~3 times greater than the estimates of mean pairwise  $F_{ST}$  of 0.012 (SD = 0.016)  
177 between hunter-gatherer groups (Fig 3a, Table S1) and those reported for chimpanzees of 0.014 (SD = 0.009)  
178 [26]. None of the simulations explored above produced  $F_{ST} < 0.02$ , so an additional set of simulations were run  
179 across even more expanded parameter ranges for  $n$  and  $m$  ( $0 \leq m \leq 1$  and  $6 \leq n \leq 200$ ) to identify parameter sets  
180 that would produce  $F_{ST}$  close to the empirical estimates. Values close to the mean empirical  $F_{ST}$  estimate (0.012  
181 +/- 0.005) are produced when groups are much larger (mean  $n = 96.6$ ) and migration is much more frequent  
182 (mean  $m = 0.51$ ) than the default values of  $n = 26$  and  $m = 0.25$ . In simulations that produced  $F_{ST}$  close to this  
183 ethnographic estimate, the proportion of altruists and parochial altruists evolving in the model was much less  
184 than that observed in the default values from the original model (Fig 3b-c). In short, the degree of genetic  
185 differentiation between groups produced by Choi and Bowles' original model is far greater than that seen  
186 between hunter-gatherer populations (Fig 3a) and when  $F_{ST}$  in the model is close to these ethnographically  
187 observed values, altruism does not evolve (Fig 3b-c).

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**Discussion**

Here, I have reexamined Choi and Bowles' model of parochial altruism, using a Fitting to Idealized Outcomes (FIO) method to explore parameter space more fully and estimating the degree of population structure produced. The results of this reanalysis support the general claim that intense competition between groups could, in theory, favor within-group altruism but suggest that this is only likely to occur when groups are far more genetically differentiated from each other than contemporary hunter-gatherer groups are estimated to be [26]. Under parameter regimes that produce a population structure similar to those that have been empirically observed, parochial altruism does not evolve in the model.

The importance of population structure to the outcome of the model is consistent with work by Bowles on population structure and social evolution [2,13] and with the importance of population structure for explanations for social evolution more generally [34–37]. Indeed, at a certain degree of abstraction all explanations for the evolution of altruism rely on population structuring of some kind [34,37–39]. For humans, the low degree of genetic differentiation seen between hunter-gatherer groups [26] is likely to be a consequence both of specific features of hunter-gatherer social organization such as bilocal residence [40] and high mobility [41] and also of more general features of human social organization such as tolerant relationships with neighbors facilitated by the recognition of affinal kinship (i.e. relationships with in-laws) [42,43], and the formation of multi-level societies [44,45]. Although these features of social organization were not necessarily present throughout the entirety of human evolutionary history, there are also general features of ape life-history that are likely to reduce genetic differentiation between groups by reducing intragroup relatedness. These include the production of single offspring rather than litters, multiple juvenile cohorts, and low female reproductive skew [46,47] and may explain why estimates of  $F_{ST}$  are similar in chimpanzees and humans despite differences in social organization [26,48,49]. Taken together, human life-history and social organization are unlikely to produce degrees of genetic differentiation between groups that are sufficient for intergroup conflict to favor intragroup altruism in the Choi and Bowles model.

It is important to emphasize that the results of this analysis make no comment on the frequency of war in human evolutionary history and do not dispute that the co-evolution of altruism and intergroup conflict is a theoretical



219 possibility more broadly. In fact, this reanalysis clarifies the factors that may promote the evolution of altruism  
220 through intergroup conflict. Specifically, the evolution of altruism in the model is promoted by low fighter  
221 mortality (low  $\delta_f$ ) and high civilian mortality during war (high  $\delta_c$ ), a small cost to altruism in within-group  
222 interactions (low  $c$ ), small payoffs to tolerant interactions with neighbors (low  $g$ ), and by small groups with low  
223 rates of migration between them (small  $n$  and  $m$ ). Even if these conditions were not met in humans, they may be  
224 met in other group-living mammals living in small but genetically differentiated groups among which  
225 intergroup aggression is frequent such as meerkats [36,50], wolves [52], and banded mongooses [51]. For  
226 banded mongooses, the observed degree of genetic differentiation between groups ( $F_{ST} = 0.129$ ) [51] would be  
227 sufficient for altruism to evolve in the Choi and Bowles model. It is worth noting that the Choi and Bowles  
228 model assumes that all parochial altruists will go to war whereas in actual human societies active participation  
229 in war is usually restricted to young men [12,22]. Negative fitness consequences of parochial altruism in non-  
230 combatants would mean that altruism is less likely to evolve and may lead to intrafamilial and intergenerational  
231 conflicts of interest, especially if the spoils of war are unequally distributed [22,23].

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233 The findings from this analysis provide further demonstration of the utility of the Fitting to Idealized Outcomes  
234 method [30] for fully exploring the results of computational models. They highlight the conditions necessary for  
235 the evolution of altruism through war and suggest that altruism will only evolve in Choi and Bowles' model of  
236 parochial altruism when competing groups are far more genetically differentiated than they are likely to have  
237 been in human evolutionary history.

238

## 239 **Methods**

240 I translated the Choi and Bowles model [3] into R using a combination of the published description of the model  
241 and their original MATLAB code and successfully replicated the main results of their paper and the original  
242 sensitivity analysis (Figs S1-2). To fully explore the results of the model across parameter space, I used the  
243 'Fitting to Idealized Outcomes' method set out by Gallagher et al. [30] (also see [31,46]). I ran the model 60,000  
244 times and in each simulation randomly set parameters within defined limits within which the default parameter  
245 from Choi and Bowles was the mean (Table 1). In each case, I recorded frequencies of the four phenotypes  
246 across 10,000 generations. This was sufficient to provide stable estimates of relationships between parameters  
247 and model outcomes (Fig S3). Two parameters from the initial model were treated as constants: mutation rate  
248 ( $\mu$ ) was kept at the default value of 0.005 in all simulations as there was little theoretical justification for varying

249 it and the number of groups in the population was kept at 20 as initial simulations suggested it had no effect on  
250 model outcomes. In the main simulations the cost of contributing to the within-group public good ( $c$ ) was varied  
251 but the benefit ( $b$ ) was not; initial simulations suggested that  $b$  had little effect on the model outcome (as  
252 demonstrated in Fig 2b). In addition to the 50,000 simulations, I explored three pairs of parameters ( $n$  and  $m$ ,  $\delta_c$   
253 and  $\delta_b$ ,  $c$  and  $b$ ) under even broader parameter ranges, randomly setting the two parameters of interest 2,500  
254 times but fixing all other parameters to the default values from the original simulation (a ‘fix-all-but-two’  
255 approach). I also ran 2,000 additional simulations with larger upper bounds for group size and migration ( $0 \leq m$   
256  $\leq 1$  and  $6 \leq n \leq 200$ ) to find  $F_{ST}$  values close to empirical estimates (0.012 +/- 0.005). In these simulations all  
257 other parameters were set to default values.

258

### 259 **Comparing empirical and simulated genetic differentiation**

260 In order to compare the degree of genetic differentiation produced in Choi and Bowles’ model with empirical  
261 estimates I calculated  $F_{ST}$  for a neutral six-allele ‘gene’ which is inherited and mutated in the same way as the  
262 altruism or parochialism genes but which is unlinked to them and which does not influence fitness and is  
263 therefore considered a ‘neutral’ locus. Six alleles approximates the mean 6.4 alleles for the microsatellite data  
264 included in Verdu et al. discussed below [27]. As defined by Nei [53],  $F_{ST}$  (sometimes known as  $G_{ST}$  for  
265 polyallelic loci) is calculated as  $(H_T - H_S)/H_T$  where  $H_S$  is the average Hardy-Weinberg heterozygosity across  
266 groups and  $H_T$  is the total population heterozygosity. Although (as pointed out by Hedrick [54])  $F_{ST}$  estimates  
267 will potentially vary with allele number,  $F_{ST}$  for the neutral locus in this model is robust across allele number  
268 (Fig S4). As an additional check, I also compared empirical and simulated genetic differentiation according to  
269 the standardized measure  $G'_{ST}$  as defined by Hedrick [54]. Doing so produced very similar results (Fig S5).

270

271 Empirical estimates of pairwise genetic differentiation between populations of contemporary hunter-gatherers  
272 are listed in Table S1 and were based on microsatellite data from Australian [29], South American [28], and  
273 Central African [27] populations compiled by Langergraber et al. [26] with some exclusions. The data  
274 exclusions are of the pairwise differences between the Australian populations not listed as being from the more  
275 remote Arnhem, Gulf, or North regions listed in Walsh et al. [29]. The excluded populations are those in which  
276 it is likely that there have been higher rates of recent migration and admixture. Since the mean  $F_{ST}$  in the remote  
277 groups was higher than that among the Australian groups in general, excluding the non-remote data increases  
278 the empirical estimates of genetic differentiation. The remaining data set consists of 30 pairwise comparisons

279 between contemporary hunter-gatherer populations, with a mean geographic distance between pairs of 270km  
280 (Table S1). To reduce computing time,  $F_{ST}$  was calculated in a subset of 10,000 of the 60,000 simulations.

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282

283 **Data Availability.** Model code is available in the supporting information.

284

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405 **Figure 1: Conditions favoring the evolution of altruism.** Histograms showing the parameter values from the  
406 29,158 simulations in which mean  $f^A$  across generations exceeded 0.5. Dotted lines indicate the default  
407 parameter values from the Choi and Bowles model.

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409 **Figure 2: Parameter interactions in ‘fix-all-but-two’ simulations.** Evolution of altruism when varying pairs  
410 of parameters relating to (a) warfare, (b) the payoffs of within-group cooperation, and (c) population structure.  
411 In each panel, dots represent simulations in which  $f_A > 0.5$ . The red triangle represents the parameter values from  
412 the original model.  
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417 **Figure 3: The effect of population structure on model outcomes.** (a) logistic regression predicting the  
418 probability of altruism evolving in a simulation (mean  $f_A$  across generations  $> 0.5$ ) and  $F_{ST}$  across 2,000  
419 simulations in which  $n$  and  $m$  were varied ( $0 \leq m \leq 1$  and  $20 \leq n \leq 200$ ) and all other parameters were kept at  
420 default values, (b) mean proportion of altruists in the model ( $f_A$ ) under parameter sets that produce  $F_{ST}$  values  
421 close to (within  $\pm 0.005$ ) those empirically observed and under the Choi and Bowles default values, (c) mean  
422 proportion of parochial altruists ( $f_{PA}$ ) in the model under parameter sets that produce  $F_{ST}$  values close to (within  
423  $\pm 0.005$ ) those empirically observed and under the Choi and Bowles default values

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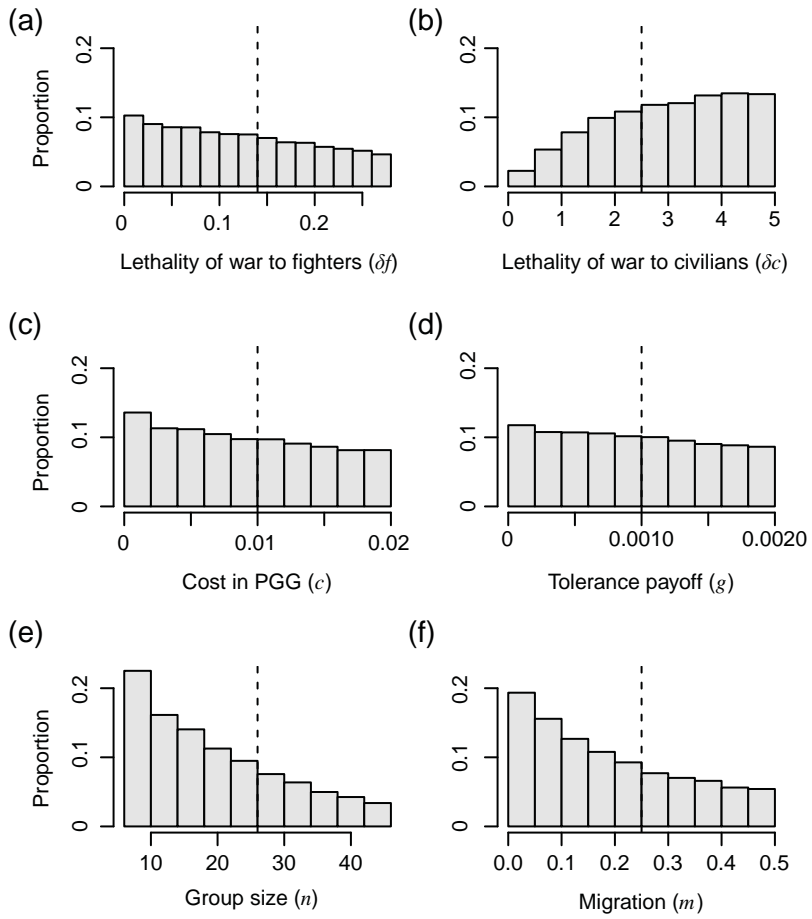
426 **Table 1:** Parameters, constants, and outcomes of the model.

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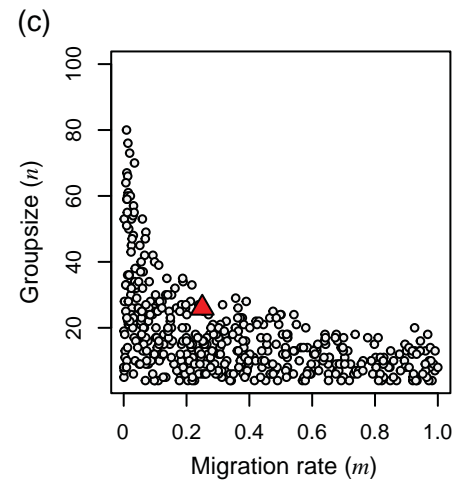
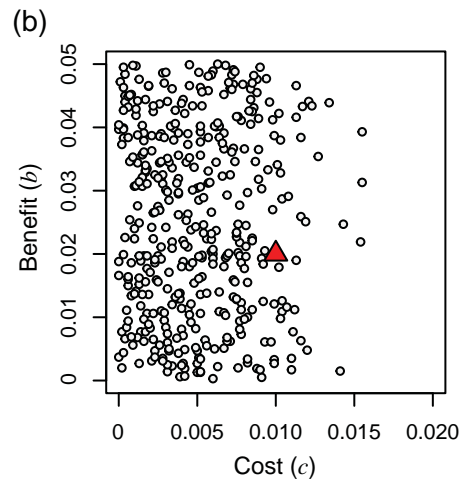
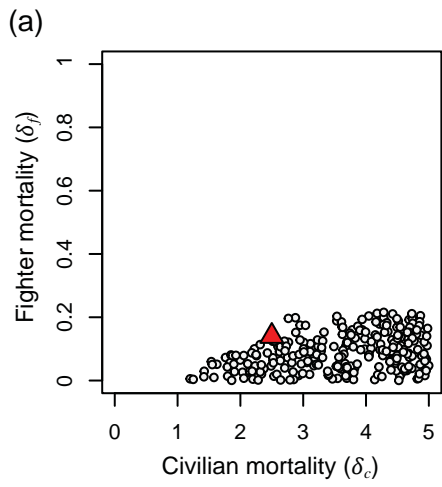
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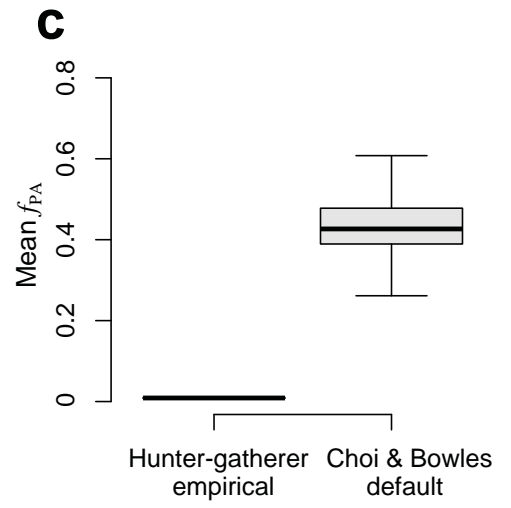
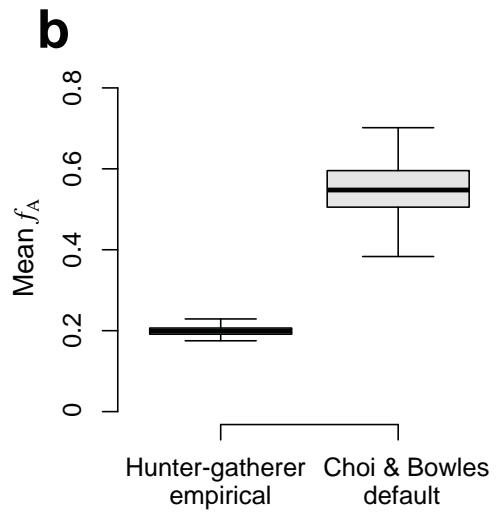
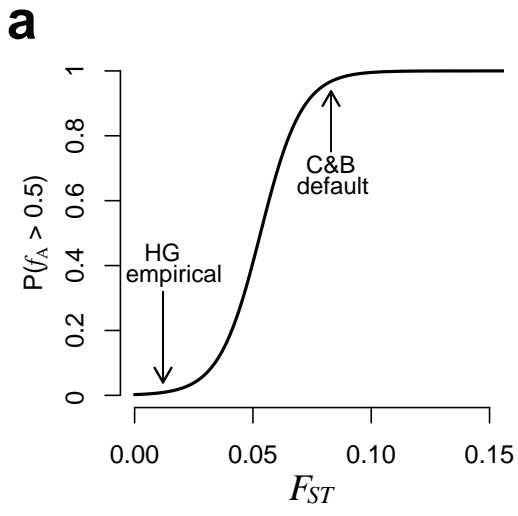
429 **Table 2:** Spearman’s correlation coefficients between each parameter or outcome and the proportion of altruists  
430 ( $f^A$ ), parochials ( $f^P$ ), parochial altruists ( $f^{PA}$ ), and  $F_{ST}$  in the population averaged across 60,000 simulations ( $F_{ST}$   
431 values from 10,000 simulations only).

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1 **Table 1:** Parameters, constants, and outcomes of the model.

2

Type	Symbol	Description	Default value	Range or value used in FIO simulations
Parameter	$n$	Group size	26	[6,46]
Parameter	$g$	Tolerance benefit	0.001	[0,0.002]
Parameter	$\delta_c$	Lethality of war to civilians	2.5	[0,5]
Parameter	$\delta_f$	Lethality of war to fighters	0.14	[0,0.28]
Parameter	$m$	Migration	0.25	[0,0.5]
Parameter	$c$	Public goods game cost	0.01	[0,0.02]
Constant	$\mu$	Mutation rate	0.005	0.005
Constant	-	Number of groups	20	20
Constant	$b$	Public goods game benefit	0.02	0.02
Outcome	$f^A$	Mean proportion of altruists over all generations	-	-
Outcome	$f^P$	Mean proportion of parochialists over all generations	-	-
Outcome	$f^{PA}$	Mean proportion of parochial altruists over all generations	-	-
Outcome	$F_{ST}$	Genetic differentiation between groups	-	-

3

- 1 **Table 2:** Spearman's correlation coefficients between each parameter or outcome and the proportion of altruists
- 2 ( $f^A$ ), parochials ( $f^P$ ), parochial altruists ( $f^{PA}$ ), and  $F_{ST}$  in the population averaged across 60,000 simulations ( $F_{ST}$
- 3 values from 10,000 simulations only).

Symbol	Parameter/outcome	$f^A$	$f^P$	$f^{PA}$	$F_{ST}$
$n$	Group size	-0.54	-0.64	-0.63	-0.95
$m$	Migration	-0.45	-0.42	-0.43	-0.66
$c$	Public goods game cost	-0.33	-0.05	-0.16	0.00
$\delta_c$	Lethality of war to civilians	0.32	0.28	0.30	0.04
$\delta_f$	Lethality of war to fighters	-0.17	-0.15	-0.16	0.04
$g$	Tolerance benefit	-0.05	-0.28	-0.23	-0.01
$F_{ST}$	Genetic differentiation of groups	0.65	0.76	0.74	0.9

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