Multi-model inference of non-random mating from an information theoretic approach

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Abstract

Non-random mating has a significant impact on the evolution of organisms. Here, I

developed a modelling framework for discrete traits (with any number of phenotypes) to

explore different models connecting the non-random mating causes (mate competition

and/or mate choice) and their consequences (sexual selection and/or assortative mating).

I derived the formulas for the maximum likelihood estimates of each model and used

information criteria to perform multimodel inference. Simulation results showed a good

performance of both model selection and parameter estimation. The methodology was

applied to ecotypes data of the marine gastropod *Littorina saxatilis* from Galicia (Spain), to

show that the mating pattern is better described by models with two parameters that involve

both mate choice and competition, generating positive assortative mating plus female

sexual selection.

As far as I know, this is the first standardized methodology for model selection and

multimodel inference of mating parameters for discrete traits. The advantages of this

framework include the ability of setting up models from which the parameters connect

causes, as mate competition and mate choice, with their outcome in the form of data

patterns of sexual selection and assortative mating. For some models, the parameters may

have a double effect i.e. they produce sexual selection and assortative mating, while for

others there are separated parameters for one kind of pattern or another.

From an empirical point of view, it is much easier to study patterns than processes and, for

this reason, the causal mechanisms of sexual selection are not so well known as the patterns

they produce. The goal of the present work is to propose a new tool that helps to distinguish

among different alternative processes behind the observed mating pattern.

The full methodology was implemented in a software called InfoMating (available at

http://acraaj.webs6.uvigo.es/InfoMating/Infomating.htm).

1. Introduction

The concept of sexual selection is a key piece of modern evolutionary theory as it explains

a great range of evolutionary patterns and diversity. Darwin (1871, 1974) originally defined

sexual selection as competition between individuals of one sex to achieve matings with the

other sex. Yet Darwin distinguished two general biological mechanisms of sexual selection:

mate competition and mate choice (see Ng et al. 2019 and references therein). However, the

concept of sexual selection has been controversial since its very beginning (reviewed in

Andersson 1994; Prum 2012; Parker 2014; Parker and Pizzari 2015) and there is still

disagreement on the actual definition of sexual selection (Fitze and Galliard 2011), and

even, its role as a key component of modern evolutionary biology has being confronted

(Roughgarden et al. 2006; but see Shuker 2010; Parker and Pizzari 2015).

It seems that some of the disagreements and misunderstandings about sexual selection and

related concepts, come from the distinct emphases that scientific fields (e.g. population

genetics, speciation theory, behavioral ecology and sociology) put on the various aspects of

the sexual selection theory. To make things worse, sexual selection is described sometimes

as a process and sometimes as a pattern. Thus, the meaning and usage of the term sexual

selection may vary depending on the biological question we are asking, e.g. behavior or

evolutionary agent, but it also depends on if we are viewing sexual selection as a process or

as a pattern.

The distinction between patterns and processes is of key importance in science in general

and in evolutionary biology in particular (Mahler et al. 2017). In the end, science is about

understanding of processes that underlie the observed patterns (Swihart et al. 2002). The

concept of pattern refers to the detection of regularity in nature, while the concept of

process refers to the mechanisms creating and maintaining this order (Chapleau et al.

1988). Thus, recognition of patterns is the basis for developing and testing hypotheses

about processes.

Sometimes, the distinction between pattern and process may be obscured because of the

same biological concept can be meaningfully defined as both a process and a pattern

(Armstrong 1977; Mahler et al. 2017). Consider for example, the classical definition of

sexual selection, as arising from variation in reproductive success due to competition for

access to mates (Andersson 1994; Shuker 2010). From such definition, sexual selection can

be considered as the evolutionary agent (a process) that drives the evolution of some

mating-related traits. However, from the same definition, if we put the emphasis on the

pattern of evolutionary change that arises from the differences in the reproductive success,

then we are viewing sexual selection as a pattern caused by some other biological process

(competition).

In this work, I adhere to the definition used in population genetics, where sexual selection

is caused by processes of mate competition that may produce intrasexual selection, and/or

processes of mate choice that may produce intersexual selection (Lewontin et al. 1968;

Endler 1986; Casares et al. 1998; Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero 2000; Ng et al. 2019).

From a population genetics perspective, the causes and consequences of mating systems

have often been analyzed separately. This approach facilitated the experimental handling

and the study of the evolutionary causes (e.g. mate choice and mate competition, see

Futuyma and Kirkpatrick 2017 and references therein) and consequences (e.g. assortative

mating and sexual selection, see Arnold and Wade 1984; Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero

2000; Rolan-Alvarez et al. 2015b and references therein). Accordingly, sexual selection is

considered an evolutionary pattern regardless of the process that gave rise to it, mate

competition or mate choice.

More specifically, the process of mate competition refers in the broad sense to access to

matings by courtship, intrasexual aggression and/or competition for limited breeding

resources (Andersson 1994; Kokko et al. 2012; Wacker and Amundsen 2014). These

processes may generate a pattern of sexual selection (a change in the frequency of the trait

under study) in the same sex that competes (intrasexual selection Ng et al. 2019).

The process of mate choice occurs whenever the effects of traits expressed in one sex leads

to non-random allocation of reproductive investment with members of the opposite sex

(Edward 2015). Choice may be mediated by phenotypic (sensorial or behavioural)

properties that affect the propensity of individuals to mate with certain phenotypes

(Jennions and Petrie 1997). The observed pattern driven by mate choice can be a change in

trait frequency in the other sex (intersexual selection) and/or a pattern of trait correlation

between mates (assortative mating).

Still, the relationships among these concepts are complex and can be approached from

different perspectives (the reader may consult Arnold and Wade 1984; Rolán-Alvarez and

Caballero 2000; Edward 2015; Rolan-Alvarez et al. 2015b; Futuyma and Kirkpatrick 2017;

Rosenthal 2017 for extended details and alternative definitions; Estévez et al. 2018; Ng et

al. 2019).

Summarizing, the evolutionary consequences of mate competition and mate choice are

sexual selection and assortative mating. When the traits under study are discrete, the

patterns of sexual selection and assortative mating are defined in terms of change in the

phenotype frequencies so that, sexual selection corresponds to the observed change in gene

or phenotype frequencies in mated individuals with respect to population frequencies (Hartl

and Clark 1997; Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero 2000). Similarly, assortative mating

corresponds to the observed deviation from random mating when measured within matings

(Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero 2000 and references therein).

In a given population, mating is random when an individual of one sex has an equal chance

of mating with any other individual of the opposite sex. Thus, random mating implies that

the overall frequency of mating between female and male types is equal to the product of

frequencies of these types in the population (Gavrilets 2004). As mentioned, deviation from

random mating can be observed in the form of sexual selection and/or assortative mating

patterns and may occur as a consequence of mate competition and/or mate choice.

In a previous work (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b), the processes of mate competition and

mate choice were modelled for discrete traits by means of the parameters m_{ij}, that represent

the mutual mating propensity between a female of type i and a male j. Therefore, if A-type

females prefer A-type males, this mate choice is modelled as a higher mutual mating

propensity between these types as compared with the mutual mating propensity of the A

females with other male types ($m_{AA} > m_{AB}$). On the other hand, if B-type males mate more

often than other males whatever the female, this mate competition is modelled by a higher

marginal mating propensity of such males (see below).

By modelling the mating process as a differential mutual mating propensity among

different types of mating pairs, it is possible to express the mean change in mating

phenotypes as the information gained due to non-random mating (Carvajal-Rodríguez

2018b). Expressing the patterns obtained from mate choice and competition in terms of the

information captured in the mutual mating propensity models, permitted to identify the

necessary and sufficient conditions for describing random mating as the zero information

model.

Thus, the mating information-based framework provides a formal approach for developing

a set of hypotheses about the causes (mate competition and mate choice) and the patterns

they may provoke (sexual selection and assortative mating). In addition, data-based

evidence can be used for ranking each hypothesis and perform multi-model-based inference

(Link and Barker 2006; Burnham et al. 2011; Aho et al. 2014).

In the following sections I proceed as follows:

1.- Given the population frequencies for some discrete trait I define the multinomial

saturated mating model in terms of the mutual mating propensity parameters. The

maximum-likelihood estimates of these parameters are the pair total indices (PTI) as

defined in (Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero 2000). Once the saturated model is defined I

obtain the three necessary and sufficient conditions for random mating. Afterwards, by

relaxing these conditions it is possible to generate models for which differential marginal

mating propensity may produce female or male sexual selection without assortative mating,

or on the contrary, models for which some mutual mating propensities represent mate

choice that may produce assortative mating and frequency dependent sexual selection. I

obtain the maximum likelihood estimates for the parameters of these models.

2.- Relying on the previous section, it is possible to generate several mutual mating

propensity models and apply information criteria for selecting the best candidate ones and

estimating the mating parameter values based on the most supported models. I developed a

software called InfoMating to do so.

3.- Finally, I demonstrate the methodology by analysing simulated and real data.

2. Mutual mating propensity models

Consider a female trait with k_1 different phenotypes and a male trait with k_2 phenotypes, the

total number of possible mating phenotypes is $K = k_1 \times k_2$. Let a sample have n' matings

from which n'_{ij} correspond to i-type females that mated with j-type males. If the probability

of the mating $i \times j$ is q'_{ij}, then the logarithm of the multinomial likelihood function of the

sample is

$$lnL = C + \sum_{ij}^{K} n'_{ij} \ln(q'_{ij})$$

where C is the multinomial coefficient which is constant given the sample. As it is well-

known, the maximum likelihood estimator of the multinomial probability of the mating $i{\times}j$

is n'_{ij} / n'.

2.1 Saturated non-random mating model M_{sat}

Let the population under study have n_{1i} females of type i from a total of n_1 females and n_{2j}

males of type j from a total of n_2 males. Therefore, the population frequency of females of

type i is $p_{1i} = n_{1i} / n_1$ and the population frequency of males of type j is $p_{2j} = n_{2j} / n_2$.

The mating probability between types i and j can be expressed as $q'_{ij} = m_{ij}q_{ij}$ (Carvajal-

Rodríguez 2018b) where q_{ij} is the product of the female and male population frequencies of

each type ($q_{ij} = p_{1i}{\times}p_{2j}$) and $m_{ij} = m'_{ij} /M$, where m'_{ij} is the mutual mating propensity, i.e.

the expected number of matings given an encounter between females of type i and males of

type j, and M is the mean mutual mating propensity $M = \sum_{i,j} q_{ij}m'_{ij}$, so that $\Sigma q'_{ij} = 1$.

Under this multinomial model, the log-likelihood of the sample is

$$lnL_{sat} = C + \sum_{ij}^{K} n'_{ij} \ln(m_{ij}q_{ij}) \qquad (1)$$

This model is saturated (M_{sat}) because it has as many parameters as independent mating-

class frequencies, $P_{sat} = K -1$. The female and male population frequencies, p_1 and p_2, are

either known or they need to be estimated in all the models. Therefore, for model

comparison, the population frequencies can be ignored when counting the number of

parameters involved in each model.

The maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of m_{ij} is $(n'_{ij} / n')/q_{ij} = \text{PTI}_{i,j}$ where $\text{PTI}_{i,j}$ is the

pair total index i.e. the frequency of the observed mating classes divided by their expected

frequency under random mating (Rolán-Alvarez and Caballero 2000).

In this work I am interested in the estimation of the mutual mating propensity parameters

(from hereafter mutual-propensity parameters) for various competition and mate choice

models. From that point of view, it is convenient to express the maximum likelihood

estimator in a different way which I call λ-notation.

2.2 λ-notation

Consider the non-normalized parameters m'_{ij} and recall that $m_{ij} = m'_{ij} /M$. The MLE of m'_{ij}

under M_{sat} is simply $M \times \text{PTI}_{i,j}$ i.e. $M \times (n'_{ij} / n') /q_{ij}$ that can be conveniently rearranged as

$(n'_{ij} /q_{ij}) / (n' / M)$. Because the mating parameters are normalized, it is possible, without

loss of generality, to set just one of the m'_{ij} to an arbitrary value of 1. Thus, let set $m'_{k1k2} = 1$

and note (details in Appendix A) that in such case $n' / M = n'_{k1k2} / q_{k1k2}$. Therefore, the MLE

of the parameters of the saturated model can be expressed as

$$\widehat{m}'_{ij} = \frac{\lambda\left(m'_{ij}\right)}{\lambda(1)}$$

where

$$\lambda(\theta) = \frac{\Sigma_{ij}^{A} n'_{ij}}{\Sigma_{ij}^{A} q_{ij}} \qquad (2)$$

i.e., the function λ of a mating parameter θ is the sum of the counts of all the mating classes

in the set $A = \{(i_1, j_1), ...\}$ having mutual-propensity θ divided by the sum of their expected

frequencies under random mating.

Thus, $\lambda(m'_{ij})$ expresses the sum of the observed matings with mutual-propensity m'_{ij} divided

by the product of the population frequencies from each partner type. Similarly, $\lambda(1)$

corresponds to the sum of the observed matings having unity mating parameter divided by

the corresponding products of population frequencies.

As already mentioned, the most parameterized model is the saturated model that has K-1

parameters so, when divided by the mean mutual-propensity M, the estimates $\lambda(m'_{ij})$ /

$(M\lambda(1))$ are the corresponding pair total indices (PTI_{ij}).

The model M_{sat} is the most complex model that can be fitted to the available data. The

principle of parsimony suggests to consider reduced special cases of this saturated model.

Next, I computed the ML estimates of different classes of reduced models that require less

parameters, beginning by the most reduced one which is the random mating model.

2.3 Random mating model M_0

The random model M_0 corresponds to the simplest, most reduced model, which is nested

within all others (it is a particular case of any other model) while it is not possible to derive

any simplified version from it. When random mating occurs, the mating probability

between types i and j is $q'_{ij} = q_{ij} = p_{1i} \times p_{2j}$. Under this model, the information indices would

be zero (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b). This zero-information model is a particular case of the

saturated one when the mutual-propensities are equal for every mating phenotype. The

number of independent mating parameters is $P_0 = 0$.

The log-likelihood of the sample of mating is

$$lnL_0 = C + \sum_{ij}^{K} n'_{ij} \ln(q_{ij}) \qquad (3)$$

Now, let's define the marginal propensity m_{Fem_i} for a female of type i as

$$m_{Fem\_i} = \sum_{j}^{males} p_{2j} \frac{m'_{ij}}{M} = \sum_{j}^{males} p_{2j} m_{ij} \qquad (4)$$

Similarly for a male of type j

$$m_{Male\_j} = \sum_{i}^{females} p_{1i} \frac{m'_{ij}}{M} = \sum_{i}^{females} p_{1i} m_{ij}$$

Then, the M_0 model corresponds to M_{sat} subjected to the following restrictions:

i)   Equal female marginals: $m_{Fem\_i} = m_{Fem\_j} \forall i, j$ \qquad (5)

ii)   Equal male marginals: $m_{Male\_i} = m_{Male\_j} \forall i, j$

iii)   Multiplicativity: $m_{ij} = m_{Fem\_i} \times m_{Male\_j} \forall i, j$

It is useful to express M_0 in terms of these three restrictions because by relaxing some of

them it is possible to define different classes of models. For example, a model with equal

female marginal propensities and multiplicative mutual-propensities (conditions i and iii

hold) but different male marginal propensities (relaxing ii), corresponds to a case with

competition among males that may provoke a (intra)sexual selection pattern (see below).

Therefore, by relaxing some of the conditions in (5), it is possible to control the kind of

causes that produce the different non-random mating patterns. In fact, there are three

general classes of models that can be combined. The two first classes correspond to

relaxing the first or second condition and involve mate competition in females or males,

provoking female or male (intra)sexual selection respectively. Provided that the third

condition is maintained, these models cannot produce an assortative mating pattern (see

below). The third class corresponds to relaxing the third condition and involves mate

choice, which may provoke just assortative mating, or both assortative mating and sexual

selection, the latter depending on the population phenotype frequencies (Fig. 1).

Fig 1. Mating models defined by mate competition or mate choice, and their effect after relaxing
some of the conditions imposed to the random mating model M_0.

2.4 Mate competition models

These class of models correspond to relaxing the first and/or second conditions in M_0 while

maintaining the condition of multiplicativity (5-iii). The maintenance of the third condition

implies that the mutual-propensity of a mating pair (i,j) is the product of the marginal

female (m_{Fem}) and male (m_{Male}) propensities. Under this condition there should be no

deviation from random mating when comparing the observed and expected frequencies

within matings and the assortative mating pattern should not be observed (Carvajal-

Rodríguez 2018b). I distinguished models that generate a sexual selection pattern in just

one sex or in both.

2.4.1 Intra-female competition

Relaxing condition (5-*i*) implies that at least one female marginal propensity, say female of

type A, is different from the rest of female types i.e. $m_{Fem\_A} \neq m_{Fem\_B}$ with $A \neq B$. On the

other side, the marginal propensity of males should be the same which means that there is

no intra-male competition, all male types mate at an equal rate.

Therefore, a model with intra-female competition is obtained by defining every mutual-

propensity involving a female of type i, by an absolute (unnormalized) mating parameter a_i

as follows

260             $m'_{11} = m'_{12} = \ldots = m'_{1k2} = a_1$

261             $m'_{21} = m'_{22} = \ldots = m'_{2k2} = a_2$
262   .
263   .
264   .
265             $m'_{(k1-1)1} = m'_{k12} = \ldots = m'_{k1k2} = a_{k1-1}$

$m'_{k11} = m'_{k12} = ... = m'_{k1k2} = 1$ (6)

with $a_i > 0 \; \forall i$.

Note that the relationships among the parameters will not be altered when dividing them by

a_{k1} so that $a_{k1} = 1$. Under this model, there can be as much as k_1-1 free mating parameters.

When computing the female and male marginal propensities (4) it is seen that

$m_{Fem\_1} = a_1/M; \; m_{Fem\_2} = a_2/M \; ...; \; m_{Fem\_k1} = 1/M$

$m_{Male\_1} = m_{Male\_2} = m_{Male\_3} = ... = m_{Male\_k2} = M/M = 1$

where M is the mean mutual-propensity as defined above.

The model (6) has equal male marginal propensity and it is multiplicative. The MLE of the

parameters is

$\hat{a}_i = \dfrac{\lambda(a_i)}{\lambda(1)}$ (7)

where $\lambda(\theta)$ is defined as in (2). Thus, $\lambda(a_i)$ expresses the sum of the observed matings

having mutual-propensity a_i, divided by the sum of the product of the population

frequencies from each partner type. Similarly, $\lambda(1)$ corresponds to the sum of the observed

matings having unity mating parameter divided by the sum of the corresponding products

of population frequencies (details in Appendix A).

2.4.2 Intra-male competition

Relaxing condition (5-*ii*) implies that at least one male marginal propensity, say male of

type A, is different from the rest of male types i.e. $m_{Male\_A} \neq m_{Male\_B}$ with $A \neq B$. On the

other side, the marginal propensity of females should be the same which means that there is

no intra-female competition, all female types mate at an equal rate. The corresponding

model can be obtained just by interchanging rows with columns in (6). Noting the

parameters as b_j instead of a_i, the maximum likelihood estimate is

$$\hat{b}_j = \frac{\lambda(b_j)}{\lambda(1)} \qquad (8).$$

2.4.3 Intra-female and male competition

By relaxing conditions (5-*i*) and (5-*ii*) the marginal propensies will be different within

females and males. The corresponding model combines models (6) and (8) and has as much

as $(k_1-1)\times(k_2-1)$ parameters in the most parameterized case, and a minimum of two (female

and male) for the less parameterized one, in order to maintain the multiplicativity condition

(5-*iii*). This type of model may produce a pattern of sexual selection in both sexes without

assortative mating. By notational convenience, I fix the category k_1 in females and k_2 in

males as having unitary parameters. Therefore

$m'_{ij} = a_i b_j$, $i<k_1$, $j<k_2$; $m'_{ik2} = a_i$, $i<k_1$; $m'_{k1j} = b_j$; $j<k_2$, $m'_{k1k2} = 1$; with $a_i > 0$, $b_j > 0$

$\forall i, j.$

This model is multiplicative (see Appendix A) and the parameters MLE are

$$\hat{a}_i = \left(\frac{p_{1k1}}{p_{1i}}\right) \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{k2} n'_{ij}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k2} n'_{k1j}} = \frac{\lambda(a_i + \sum_j a_i b_j)}{\lambda_{fem}(1)} \qquad (9)$$

$$\hat{b}_j = (\frac{p_{2k2}}{p_{2j}})\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k1} n'_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k1} n'_{ik2}} = \frac{\lambda(b_j + \sum_i a_i b_j)}{\lambda_{male}(1)}$$

where the lambda function $\lambda(a_i + a_i b_1 + ... a_i b_j + ...)$ is applied to the mutual-propensities

that depend on the parameter a_i. Thus, $\lambda(a_i + \sum_j a_i b_j)$ is the quotient between the sum of the

number of observed mating phenotypes that depend on the parameter a_i (i.e. $\sum_j n'_{ij}$) and the

sum of their expected random mating frequencies (which is simply p_{1i}). Correspondingly,

$\lambda_{sex}(1)$ is the quotient between the sum of cases that contribute with 1 to the mutual-

propensity by the given sex (i.e. $\sum_j n'_{k1j}$ for females) and the sum of the expected

frequencies (which is p_{1k1} for females). Formulae (9) is similar to (7) and (8). Note that the

model in (9) becomes (7) by fixing every b_j as 1 while it becomes (8) by fixing every a_i as

1. The percentage of sexual selection information corresponding to each sex (JS1 and JS2

in Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b), would depend on the population frequencies and on the

mating parameter values.

2.5 Mate choice models

Mate choice models correspond to the class of non-multiplicative models, i.e. they can be

obtained by relaxing the condition (5-iii) and may produce assortative mating patterns

(positive or negative). If the female marginal propensities are equal and the same is true for

the males (conditions 5-i and 5-ii hold) there would not be sexual selection neither in

females nor males, and the model may produce only assortative mating patterns. However,

this cannot be guaranteed in general because the occurrence of the sexual selection pattern

is frequency dependent under non-multiplicative models (see below).

Consider a model where the unnormalized mutual-propensities are

$m'_{ii} = a_i > 0 \ \forall i \in min\{k_1, k_2\}$ and $m'_{ij} = 1$ for $i \neq j$.

Thus, the homotype ($i \times i$) mutual-propensities are parameterized while the heterotype are

not. This model is non-multiplicative in general, because the contribution of the type i to

the mutual-propensity is distinct in m_{ii} that in m_{ij} or in m_{ji} (although with an even number of

types a multiplicative model can be obtained by setting $m'_{ii} = 1 / m'_{jj}$).

By recalling the definition of marginal propensities in (4), the condition for equal female

marginal $m_{Fem\_i} = m_{Fem\_j}$ is

$p_{2i}(a_i - 1) = p_{2j}(a_j - 1)$ (10)

and in males

$p_{1i}(a_i - 1) = p_{1j}(a_j - 1)$

In general, depending on the conditions in (10), the mate choice models have double effect

i.e. they produce assortative pattern jointly with sexual selection in at least one sex.

The maximum likelihood estimate for the model parameters is

$\hat{a}_i = \dfrac{\lambda(a_i)}{\lambda(1)}$ (11)

Note that the homotype mating parameter may imply higher mutual-propensity than the

heterotype ($a_i > 1$, positive assortative mating) or viceversa, the homotype has lower

mutual-propensity ($a_i < 1$, negative assortative). The number of different parameters ranges

from 1 ($a_1 = a_2 = ... = a_i$) to H; where $H = min\{k_1, k_2\}$ corresponds to the maximum

possible number of different homotype matings.

It is also possible to define mate choice models with the heterotype mutual-propensities

parameterized instead of the homotype ones (see Appendix A for details).

2.6 Models with mate competition and mate choice parameters

I have shown that mate choice models may generate both kind of patterns, assortative

mating and sexual selection, depending on the within sex population frequencies. While it

is not possible to assure that the mate choice model produces no sexual selection, it is

possible to combine the previous models to ensure that there are parameters directly linked

to mate competition and parameters directly linked to mate choice. These combined models

have the property that when the mate choice parameter is set to 1, there is only a known

sexual selection effect as caused by the competition parameter (female, male, or both).

When the mate choice parameter is added, the assortative mating pattern appears and also,

an extra effect of frequency-dependent sexual selection may be added to that of the original

competition parameter.

2.6.1 Models with male competition and mate choice: independent parameters

Consider the model $m'_{i1} = \alpha$; $m'_{ii} = c$ for $i \neq 1$ and $m'_{ij} = 1$ otherwise; with $i \leq k_1, j \leq k_2$. An

example of this kind of model can be seen in Fig. 2.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & c & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & c & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & 1 & c & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & 1 & 1 & c \end{pmatrix}$$

Fig 2. An example of male competition and mate choice independent parameters model with 5×5 mating phenotypes. α is the male competition parameter and c is the choice parameter. Rows are females, columns are males.

For the particular case of $\alpha \neq 1$, $c = 1$; the model has within male competition that corresponds to the marginal propensity α of the type-1 male compared with the other males, so, a male sexual selection pattern may be generated. On the contrary, the female marginal propensities are equal so there is no female competition. Considering mate choice and the assortative mating pattern, when $c = 1$ the model is multiplicative so assortative mating should not be produced, in fact, the pair sexual isolation statistics (PSI) are equal (see Appendix A for details) and the assortative mating is 0, i.e., as measured by the overall index of sexual isolation I_{PSI} ($I_{PSI} = (4\Sigma PSI_{ii} - \Sigma PSI_{ij})/(4\Sigma PSI_{ii} + \Sigma PSI_{ij})$) see also (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b).

However, by taking $c \neq 1$ a new component is added to the sexual selection pattern. The parameter c corresponds to mate choice and produces positive ($c > 1$) or negative ($c < 1$) assortative mating. The value of I_{PSI} is a function of the parameter c and the population

frequencies. Female sexual selection may also emerge depending on the value of c and the

population frequencies.

The MLEs of both parameters are

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\lambda(\alpha)}{\lambda(1)}$$

$$\hat{c} = \frac{\lambda(c)}{\lambda(1)}$$

A variant of the above model can be generated by changing the c parameter from the main

diagonal to the anti-diagonal. Similarly female sexual competition linked to the α-

parameter is obtained by transposing the matrix of the model.

2.6.2 Models with male competition and mate choice: compound parameters

Consider the model $m'_{11} = c\alpha$; $m'_{i1} = \alpha$ and $m'_{ii} = c$ for $i > 1$ and $m'_{ij} = 1$ otherwise; with $i \leq$

$k_1, j \leq k_2$. An example of this model can be seen in Fig. 3.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha c & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & c & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & c & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & 1 & c & 1 \\ \alpha & 1 & 1 & 1 & c \end{pmatrix}$$

Fig 3. An example of male competition and mate choice compound parameters model with 5×5 mating phenotypes. α is the male competition parameter and c is the choice parameter. Rows are females, columns are males.

When $c = 1$ the model is the same as the previous one. When $c \neq 1$, the mate choice parameter provokes an extra effect of sexual selection in males and females, plus assortative mating. The MLE of α and c are

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k1} n'_{i1} / (cq_{11} + \sum_{i>1} q_{i1})}{\lambda(1)} = \frac{\lambda_{c.11-}(\alpha)}{\lambda(1)}$$

where $\lambda_{c.11-}(\alpha)$ indicates that for matings with parameter α, the expected frequency indexed as 11 (i.e. q_{11}) is weighted by c. Similarly,

$$\hat{c} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} n'_{ii} / (\alpha q_{11} + \sum_{i>1} q_{ii})}{\lambda(1)} = \frac{\lambda_{\alpha.11-}(c)}{\lambda(1)}$$

where $k = \min\{k_1, k_2\}$ and $\lambda_{\alpha.11-}(c)$ indicates that for matings with mating parameter c, the expected frequency indexed as 11 is weighted by α.

The above estimates are dependent one on each other, so, for obtaining the estimates of this

compound parameter model I have used a numerical bounded Nelder-Mead simplex

algorithm, with restriction $\alpha > 0$, $c > 0$ (Press 2002; Singer and Singer 2004; Gao and Han

2012).

2.6.3 General model with male competition and mate choice parameters

The general model with male competition and mate choice parameters is $m'_{11} = c_1\alpha$; $m'_{i1} =$

α and $m'_{ii} = c_k$ for $i > 1$ and $m'_{ij} = 1$ otherwise; with $i \leq k_1$, $j \leq k_2$. A particular case of this

model can be seen in Fig. 4.

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
\alpha c_1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\alpha & c_1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\alpha & 1 & c_3 & 1 & 1 \\
\alpha & 1 & 1 & c_4 & 1 \\
\alpha & 1 & 1 & 1 & c_5
\end{pmatrix}
$$

Fig 4. Male sexual selection and mate choice compound model with 5×5 mating phenotypes. α is

the male sexual selection parameter and c_k's are the choice parameters with $c_2 = c_1$. Rows are

females, columns are males.

Note that to distinguish the competition and mate choice parameters, it is necessary that at

least one c_k parameter is equal to c_1 (as in Figs. 3 and 4) or that $c_1 = 1$ as in Fig. 2,

otherwise the parameter for m_{11} does not distinguish competition and choice. Therefore, the

model in Fig. 4 has H parameters with $H = \min\{k_1, k_2\}$ from which, $H - 1$ are choice

parameters (c) plus one male competition parameter α. The MLE are

424
$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k1} n'_{i1} / (c_1 q_{11} + \sum_{i>1} q_{i1})}{\lambda(1)} = \frac{\lambda_{c1.11-}(\alpha)}{\lambda(1)}$$

425
$$\hat{c}_1 = \frac{n'_{11}/(\alpha q_{11})}{\lambda(1)} = \frac{\lambda_{\alpha.11-}(c_1)}{\lambda(1)}$$

426
$$\hat{c}_{k>1} = \frac{n'_{kk}/(q_{kk})}{\lambda(1)} = \frac{\lambda(c_k)}{\lambda(1)}$$

The model parameters $c_{k>1}$ can be estimated directly from the sample; on the contrary, the α

and c_1 estimates are dependent on each other, so, for obtaining these estimates, I used a

numerical bounded Nelder-Mead simplex algorithm with restriction $\alpha > 0$, $c_1 > 0$ (Press

2002; Singer and Singer 2004; Gao and Han 2012).

Previous models were simplified versions of the general model. For example, the model in

Fig. 2 is the general model with restrictions $c_1 = 1$; $c_2 = c_3 = ... = c_k = c$. Also, the model in

Fig. 3 corresponds to $c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = ... = c_k = c$. Another particular case that could be defined

is $c_1 = c$; $c_2 = c_3 = ... = c_k = 1$. In the latter, the MLE of the parameters can again be expressed

as a quotient of lambdas similar to the compound parameter case

436
$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\lambda_{c1.11-}(\alpha)}{\lambda(1)}$$

437
$$\hat{c} = \frac{\lambda_{\alpha.11-}(c)}{\lambda(1)}$$

It is also possible to define other general model with the mate choice parameters in the anti-

diagonal. Using the λ notation, the estimates follow the same formulae as defined for the

general model with the choice parameters in the main diagonal. Concerning models with

female competition and mate choice, they are obtained just by transposing the matrices of

the mating parameters.

2.7 General double effect models

The mating parameters $m_{ij} = \theta_{ij}$ with the restriction that at least some are equal to one,

permit to generate any particular model. In general, these models produce patterns of sexual

selection and assortative mating with each parameter possibly linked to the occurrence of

both (see Appendix A). The MLE is

$$\hat{\theta}_{ij} = \frac{\lambda(\theta_{ij})}{\lambda(1)} \qquad (12)$$

The most parameterized model of this kind is the saturated, with K-1 parameters. In such

case, as already mentioned, the estimates in (12) are the corresponding pair total indices

(PTI).

All the above derived MLE formulae have been verified by numerical approximation using

the bounded Nelder-Mead simplex algorithm (Press 2002; Singer and Singer 2004; Gao and

Han 2012).The set of described models jointly with their expected effects are summarized

in Table 1.

Table 1. Mutual mating propensity models as defined by different parameters in a case
with two different phenotypic classes at each sex ($k_1 = k_2 = 2$). The unnormalized m'_{ij} values
not explicitly given are assumed to be 1.

Name (abbreviation)	Model	MLE	Effect
Random (M_0)	$m'_{ij} = 1 \forall i,j$		Random mating
Competition Multiplicative Models			
Female competition (S_{Fem}-1P)	$m'_{11} = m'_{12} = a$	$\hat{a} = \lambda(a)/\lambda(1)$	Fem sexual selection
Male competition (S_{Male}-1P)	$m'_{11} = m'_{21} = b$	$\hat{b} = \lambda(b)/\lambda(1)$	Male sexual selection
Female and male competition ($S2$-2P)	$m'_{11} = ab$		2-sex sexual selection
	$m'_{12} = a$	$\hat{a} = \lambda_{fem}(a)/\lambda_{fem}(1)$	
	$m'_{21} = b$	$\hat{b} = \lambda_{male}(b)/\lambda_{male}(1)$	
Mate Choice Models			
One-parameter (C-1P)	$m'_{11} = m'_{22} = a$	$\hat{a} = \lambda(a)/\lambda(1)$	Assortative mating + sex sel (freqdep)
General mate choice (C-HP)	$m'_{11} = a_1, m'_{22} = a_2$	$\hat{a}_i = \lambda(a_i)/\lambda(1)$	Assortative mating + sex sel (freqdep)
Competition and Mate Choice			
2 independent parameters ($S_{Fem}C$-2P)	$m'_{1j} = \alpha;$ $m'_{jj} = c; j > 1$	$\hat{\alpha} = \lambda(\alpha)/\lambda(1)$ $\hat{c} = \lambda(c)/\lambda(1)$	α-sexual selection in one sex + mate choice effect c-assortative mating
2 parameters (1 compound: $S_{Fem}C$-2Pc)	$m'_{11} = c\alpha; j > 1:$ $m'_{1j} = \alpha; m'_{jj} = c;$	$\hat{\alpha} = \lambda_{c.11\text{-}}(\alpha)/\lambda(1)$ $\hat{c} = \lambda_{\alpha.11\text{-}}(c)/\lambda(1)$	α-sexual selection in one sex + mate choice effect c-assortative mating
H parameters (1 compound: $S_{Fem}C$-HPc)	$m'_{11} = c_1\alpha; j > 1:$ $m'_{1j} = \alpha; m'_{jj} = c_k;$	$\hat{\alpha} = \lambda_{c1.11\text{-}}(\alpha)/\lambda(1)$ $\hat{c}_1 = \lambda_{\alpha.11\text{-}}(c_1)/\lambda(1)$ $\hat{c}_{k \neq 1} = \lambda(c_k)/\lambda(1)$	α-sexual selection in one sex + mate choice effect c_k-assortative mating
General Double Models (D-xP)			Assortative mating + sex sel (freq dep)
Saturated (M_{sat})	$m'_{ij} = a_{ij}; m'_{k1k2} = 1$	$\hat{a}_i = \lambda(a_i)/\lambda(1)$	

k_1: number of female categories; k_2: number of male categories; $H = min\{k_1, k_2\}$; sexsel (freqdep): frequency dependent sexual selection.

3. Model Selection and multimodel inference

Relying on the previous section, it would be possible to generate mate competition and

mate choice models and, given a mating table, to apply some information criteria for

selecting the best-fit candidates and estimating the mating parameter values based on the

most supported models. Next, I briefly review the information criteria and model selection

concepts and show how to apply them to perform model selection and multimodel

inference among mate competition and mate choice models.

Information-based model selection and multi-model inference can be applied to describe

uncertainty in a set of models to perform inference on the parameters of interest (Burnham

et al. 2011; Grueber et al. 2011; Barker and Link 2015; Claeskens 2016). There are several

information criteria at hand, although trusting on a single form of information criterion is

unlikely to be universally successful (Liu and Yang 2011; Vrieze 2012; Brewer et al. 2016;

Aho et al. 2017; Dziak et al. 2019). In the present work, two Kullback- Leibler divergence-

based measures plus the so-called Bayesian information criterion are considered.

3.1. Information criteria

The Akaike information criterion (AIC) provides the link between the Kullback-Leibler

divergence and the maximized log-likelihood of a given model (Akaike 1973). Here I use

the sample-corrected version AICc, because it is asymptotically equivalent and may work

better for small sample size

$AIC_c = -2ln(L) + 2P_m + (2P_m(P_m+1)) / (n' - P_m - 1)$

where L is the maximum likelihood of the model, P_m the total number of estimated mating

parameters and n' is the number of matings.

There is also a version for the symmetric K-L (Jeffrey's) divergence, called the KICc

criterion (Cavanaugh 2004; Keerativibool 2014). It seems adequate to consider the KICc

criterion because the mating pattern obtained from the mutual-propensity models can be

described by the informational flow from the mating frequencies, in the form of the

Jeffrey's divergence (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b) so,

$$\text{KIC}_c = -2ln(L) + n'\ln(n' / (n' - P_m)) + P_2$$

with $P_2 = n'[(n' - P_m)(2P_m + 3)-2] / [(n' - P_m -2)(n' - P_m)]$

Finally, the Bayesian information criterion (BIC Schwarz 1978) permits an approximation

to the Bayes factor applied for model comparison (Wagenmakers 2007)

$$\text{BIC} = -2\ln(L) + P_m\ln(n')$$

3.2 Overdispersion

In the context of model selection, data overdispersion, i.e. greater observed variance than

expected, could generate the selection of overly complex models. The simplest approach to

estimate overdispersion is by computing a single variance inflation factor (v). This inflation

factor is the observed variation divided by the expected under the model with the highest

likelihood (M_c), other than the saturated, among the proposed ones (Richards 2008;

Symonds and Moussalli 2011). It can be asymptotically approximated by the deviance i.e.

twice the difference between the log-likelihood of the saturated (M_{sat}) and the M_c model,

divided by the difference in the number of parameters ($P_{Msat} - P_{Mc}$) between both models

$$v = 2[\ln(L_{\text{Msat}}) - \ln(L_{\text{Mc}})] / df$$

where $df = P_{\text{Msat}} - P_{\text{Mc}}$.

If $1 \leq v \leq 4$ this indicates overdispersion, while if higher than 4-6 this may indicate poor

model structure and the construction of the set of models should be reconsidered (Burnham

and Anderson 2002). For v values around 1 to 4, quasi-likelihood theory provides a way to

analyse over dispersed data (Anderson et al. 1994; Richards 2008). The quasi-likelihood is

the likelihood divided by an estimate of v. The quasi-likelihood version of the various

information criteria, namely QAICc, $QKIC_c$ (Kim et al. 2014) and QBIC, is obtained

simply by replacing the likelihood with the quasi-likelihood in the corresponding formula.

In such cases, the number of parameters is increased by one and the model variance is

multiplied by v (see below). When the quasi-likelihood version is used, it must be done for

all models and criteria.

3.3. Model weights

Let IC be any information criterion. For a particular criterion and for any set of R models

there is a minimum criterion value e.g. AIC_{cmin}, BIC_{min}, etc. Thus, the models can be ranked

regarding the difference with that minimum

$$\Delta_i = IC_i - IC_{\text{min}} \text{ , for } i = 1, 2, \ldots, R$$

where IC_i refers to any specific information criterion for the model i.

Models can also be ranked by their weights from higher to lower. The weight w_i refers to

the strength of evidence for that model (Burnham et al. 2011; Claeskens 2016)

$w_i = l_i / \Sigma l_j$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, R$

where $l_i = \exp(-0.5\Delta_i)$ is the relative likelihood of each model given the data.

3.4 Multi-model inference

Multi-model-based inference estimate the parameters of interest based on a group of the

most credible models instead of on a best-fit single model (Burnham and Anderson 2002;

Burnham et al. 2011; Symonds and Moussalli 2011). The multi-model inference is

performed as a model averaged prediction for the parameters that are variables in the best

model.

In our modelling framework and before performing the average of the estimated parameter

values, the different models should be translated to the same scale of mutual-propensity.

For example, a model like $m'_{11} = 2$, $m'_{12} = m'_{21} = m'_{22} = 1$, is not in the same scale that $m'_{11} =$

2, $m'_{12} = m'_{21} = m'_{22} = 0.5$. Without loss of generality, the latter can be transformed into an

equivalent model $m'_{11} = 4$, $m'_{12} = m'_{21} = m'_{22} = 1$, which is now in the same scale that the

first model.

The averaged parameter estimates were computed as a weighted mean where the weights

are the strength of evidence for each model as obtained under a given information criterion.

The parameters were averaged only over the models for which they appear as a variable.

Because the weights need to sum up to 1, it was necessary renormalize them by dividing by

the accumulated weight in the confidence subset.

Therefore, for each parameter m included in the confidence subset R_s, the average was

computed as

$$\hat{m} = \frac{\sum_i^{Rs} w_i \hat{m}_i}{\sum_i^{Rs} w_i}$$

This way of performing the model averaged prediction is called natural averaging

(Symonds and Moussalli 2011).

Finally, the reliability of each parameter estimate was measured as the unconditional

standard error

$$Se(\widehat{m}) = \sum_i^{Rs} w_i \sqrt{vV(\hat{m}_i) + (\hat{m}_i - \hat{m})^2}$$

where $V(\hat{m}_i) = V(m_i | \text{model } i) = V(q') = q'(1-q') / n'$ is the model standard error squared and

v is the variance inflation factor.

The use of the sum of weights to estimate variable importance in regression models has

been criticized because of multicollinearity among the predictor variables and the

imprecision of the weight measures (Galipaud et al. 2014; Cade 2015; Galipaud et al.

2017). However, the mutual-propensity parameters do not belong to a regression model and

their average is performed in the same scale and with comparable units. Therefore, under

the mutual mating propensity setting, the multimodel inference would work well as it was

confirmed by Monte Carlo simulation (next section).

4. Simulations

4.1. Polygamous species (sampling with replacement)

To test how well the above methodology is able to distinguish among the different classes

of models and estimate the mating parameters, I used the sampling with replacement

algorithm in the program MateSim (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018a) for generating mating

tables by Monte Carlo simulation (see Appendix B for detailed explanation).

The simulated cases correspond to one-sex competition and mate choice models. The

resulting mating tables were consequence of the mating system and the sampling process,

and consisted in two types of information (Fig. B1 in Appendix B). First, the population

frequencies (premating individuals) which were generated randomly for each simulation

run. Second, the sample of 500 mating pairs ($n' = 500$) for a hypothetical trait with two

classes at each sex. Because the simulated species had large population size ($n = 10\,000$)

the mating process was represented as a sampling with replacement, and the population

frequencies were constant over the mating season. The minimum phenotype frequency

(MPF) allowed was 0.1.

Five different model cases were simulated, namely random mating with mutual-

propensities $m'_{11}=m'_{22}=m'_{12}=m'_{21}=1$ (M_0 in Table 2), female competition ($\alpha = 2$) and mate

choice ($c = 3$) with independent parameters $m'_{11}= m'_{12} = 2, m'_{22} = 3, m'_{21} = 1$ (SfC Table 2),

and with compound parameters $m'_{11}= 6,\ m'_{12} = 2, m'_{22} = 3, m'_{21} = 1$ (SfCc Table 2), and

male competition ($\alpha = 2$) and mate choice ($c = 3$) with independent parameters $m'_{11}= m'_{21} =$

$2, m'_{22} = 3, m'_{12} = 1$ (SmC Table 2), and with compound parameters $m'_{11}= 6,\ m'_{21} = 2, m'_{22}$

$= 3, m'_{12} = 1$ (SmCc Table 2). Each case was simulated 1 000 times.

For each simulation run, and given the normalized mutual-propensities m_{ij}, the number of

occurrences for each mating class $i \times j$ was obtained as

$$Q(i,j) = n' \times p_{1i} \times p_{2j} \times m_{ij}$$

where n' is the sample size, p_{1i} is the female population frequency for the phenotype i, p_{2j} is

the male population frequency for the phenotype j.

Once the mating tables were obtained I proceeded with the multimodel inference analysis

using InfoMating. Note that there were 1 000 different tables for each simulated case so, in

the simulation study, it is better to consider the mean multimodel estimates instead of the

full list of analysed models (which would imply 1 000 lists for each simulated case). Also,

it is worth noting that with real data, the exactly true model is not necessarily included in

the set of assayed models and so, it is important to evaluate the accuracy of the multimodel

parameter estimates because, if the parameter estimates are correct, the model that would

arise from that estimates and the set of most supported candidate models must be a good

guess of the true one.

The sequence of analyses was as follows. For each mating table, InfoMating generates a set

of 17 models, from the simplest random model M_0 to the saturated M_{sat}, including mate

competition and choice models with one or two parameters (see all the types in Table 1).

Then, the program computes the information criteria for each model and performs the

multimodel inference as explained in the previous section. Thus, for each of the 5 simulated

cases, 1 000 parameter estimates were obtained, and their average and standard error

computed (Table 2).

Table 2. Average (standard error) parameter estimates under sample size 500 for a

polygamous species with large population size ($N = 10\ 000$).

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
M_0	Expected	1	1	1	1
	AICc	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000
	KICc	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000
	BIC	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000
SfC	Expected	2	2	1	3
	AICc	1.94 ± 0.0017	1.99 ± 0.0009	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.95 ± 0.0025
	KICc	1.94 ± 0.0024	1.99 ± 0.0020	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.95 ± 0.0029
	BIC	1.90 ± 0.0060	1.94 ± 0.006	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.90 ± 0.0074
SfCc	Expected	6	2	1	3
	AICc	5.93 ± 0.0044	2.0 ± 0.0001	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.97 ± 0.0027
	KICc	5.92 ± 0.0051	2.0 ± 0.0001	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.97 ± 0.0028
	BIC	5.87 ± 0.0086	2.0 ± 0.0017	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.96 ± 0.0044
SmC	Expected	2	1	2	3
	AICc	1.94 ± 0.0020	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.99 ± 0.0013	2.94 ± 0.0030
	KICc	1.93 ± 0.0032	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.98 ± 0.0029	2.93 ± 0.0037
	BIC	1.90 ± 0.0062	1.00 ± 0.0000	1.93 ± 0.0065	2.88 ± 0.0080
SmCc	Expected	6	1	2	3

AICc	5.93 ± 0.0046	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.0 ± 0.0001	2.97 ± 0.0029
KICc	5.92 ± 0.0052	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.0 ± 0.0001	2.97 ± 0.0029
BIC	5.87 ± 0.0085	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.0 ± 0.0010	2.97 ± 0.0037

M_0: Random mating model. SfC: female competition and mate choice with independent parameters. SfCc:

female competition and mate choice with compound parameters. SmC: male competition and mate choice

with independent parameters. SmCc: male competition and mate choice with compound parameters.

It can be appreciated that the random mating was perfectly estimated by the three IC

methods. The competition plus mate choice parameter estimates were fairly good under the

three criteria. The estimates were slightly better under AICc and slightly less accurate under

BIC.

The whole simulation process was repeated using a small sample size ($n' = 50$ matings) and

the results were qualitatively similar. However, the parameter estimates tended to be low-

biased possibly because the power to detect deviations from random mating was low (see

supplementary Table C1 in Appendix C).

4.2. Monogamous species (sampling without replacement)

For monogamous species, the mating process is without replacement (from the point of

view of the available phenotypes) and can be represented via mass-encounters (Gimelfarb

1988; Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018a). The pattern obtained under the mass-encounter

monogamous scenario (when the population size is large) was qualitatively similar to the

polygamous species. However, there were less power to detect deviation from random

mating and so the estimates were low-biased, especially in the case of the compound

parameter. Regarding sample size, it seems that the estimation was not very much affected

(see supplementary Tables C2 and C3 in Appendix C).

Not surprisingly, the case of monogamous species with small population size ($N = 200$) was

the worst scenario for multimodel estimation under the assumption of constant population

phenotype frequencies (see Table C4 in Appendix C). Under this case and when most of the

adults were involved in the mating process (mating sample size = 100), the change in the

population phenotype frequencies during the breeding season significantly affected the

observed non-random mating patterns. Only when the deviation from random mating is as

large as with the compound effect of choice and competition, the estimated mutual-

propensities provided some information (SfCc in Table C4).

5. Example of application

Littorina saxatilis is a marine gastropod mollusc adapted to different shore habitats in

Galician rocky shores. There are two different ecotypes, an exposed-to-wave (smooth un-

banded, SU), and a non-exposed (rough banded, RB) ecotype. Several experimental studies

have shown that these ecotypes have evolved local adaptation at small spatial scale. For

example, stronger waves on the lower shore may provoke that the SU ecotype becomes

sexually mature at smaller size than the upper-shore (RB) ecotype. In addition, in some

areas of the mid-shore habitat, the two ecotypes occasionally mate, producing apparently

fertile intermediate morphological forms that are called hybrids (HY) (Rolan-Alvarez et al.

2015a).

Sexual isolation (positive assortative mating) between RB and SU morphs was observed in

wild mating pairs in the mid-shore zone, likewise within-morph size-assortative mating in

all shore levels (Cruz et al. 2001). It is assumed that the size is the key trait causing the

increase of sexual isolation in this model system, being the males the choosy sex in this

species (Rolan-Alvarez 2007).

Here, I reanalysed a *L. saxatilis* data set (Cruz et al. 2001) for estimating the mutual-

propensity parameters between the RB, SU and HY morphs in the mid-shore habitat. In the

original study, the authors analysed a hybrid zone encompassing 30 km of coast in Galicia

(NW Spain) with two sampling locations (Centinela and Senin) and seasons (autumn and

summer). Copulating pairs were collected jointly with the 15 nearest non-mating

individuals (see details in Cruz et al. 2001). In the present reanalysis, I considered the

pooled data of the two sampling locations and seasons (Table 3).

Table 3. The population frequencies by sex and the sample of matings from Cruz et al.

(2001) data.

	Total	RB	HY	SU
Female freqs	1254	0.22	0.11	0.67
Male freqs	1080	0.26	0.12	0.62
Matings			**Males**	
Females		**RB**	**HY**	**SU**
	RB	19	9	13
	HY	6	4	10
	SU	6	7	80

First, I computed the information partition (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b) that indicated

significant assortative mating from the Chi-square test (J_{PSI} p-value < 0.0000001) while no

significant sexual selection was detected. However, the randomization test was not

significant in any case, possibly due to the low sample size within the mating classes.

Second, I proceeded with the model estimation and initially assayed only the subset of

models with male and/or female mate competition plus the saturated (M_{sat}) and random

mating (M_0) models. The estimate of overdispersion was high (7.20) indicating poor

structure of the set of models regarding the data. The three information criteria gave similar

output with the M_0 as the best fit model. The multimodel estimates of the mutual-

propensities were just one in every case as expected from random mating. Because in the

simulation study, the AICc criterion gave the best estimates I will rely on this criterion from

now on.

The next step was to study only models with choice parameter plus the saturated (M_{sat}) and

random mating (M_0) models. The overdispersion was 4.65 that still indicates somewhat

poor model structure. The best fit model was a choice model with one parameter. The

multimodel inference gave a clear pattern of positive assortative mating, that was higher for

the RB $\times$ RB mating ($m'_{RBRB} = 3$), intermediate for HY $\times$ HY ($m'_{HYHY} = 2.3$) and slightly

lower for SU $\times$ SU ($m'_{SUSU} = 2$).

Then, I considered jointly the previous competition and choice models and added new ones

having separated competition and choice parameters. The overdispersion was 3.4 that is an

acceptable value for multinomial models and can be corrected by using quasi-likelihoods

(see the overdispersion section above). Now, the best fit was a compound parameter model

with female competition and choice. The estimates from this model were a RB female

competition of $\alpha = 1.7$ and choice $c = 2.4$. The multi-model estimates gave positive

asssortative mating, $m'_{RBRB} = 3$, $m'_{HYHY} = 3$, $m'_{SUSU} = 2$ and sexual selection favouring RB

females.

Finally, I considered all the previous models plus models having parameters with double

effect (i.e. one parameter may generate both sexual selection and assortative mating

patterns). This implies a total of 35 models including M_0 and M_{sat}. The overdispersion was

2.5. The best model was the same for the three criteria and it was a double effect model

with 2 parameters, $a = 0.2$ and $b = 2$, distributed as indicated in Fig. 5. Approximately, the

same model was obtained using the multi-model estimates.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0.2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Fig 5. Model D-2P-Rep3: Double two parameter model with three repetitions of the b parameter (a

$= 0.2$, $b = 2$) producing female and male sexual selection plus positive assortative mating.

It is also possible to focus only on the models with separated parameters for competition

and choice. The best fit model from this subgroup involves female competition. Recall that

in *Littorina saxatilis* the choosy sex are the males, so I considered that the competitive

advantage from the side of the females is explained by the males preferring a given kind of

females. The best fit model is $S_{Fem}C$-2Pc (see Table 1) with RB female competitive

advantage of 1.7 more times matings than the other females and a choice parameter of 2.4.

The qualitative pattern obtained from these models is similar to that in Fig.5; the RB

females (first row) are preferred and there is a choice for within ecotype mating. The

combination of competition and choice provokes that the mating RB×RB is the preferred

by RB males; the matings RB×HY and HY×HY are preferred by HY males, and finally, it

seems that the SU males do not discriminate between female ecotypes.

6. Discussion

6.1 Simulations

I have simulated mating tables corresponding to random mating, mate competition and

mate choice models. The random mating pattern was perfectly assessed. For the other

models, the competition and choice parameters were estimated quite accurately when the

mating system resembles a sampling with replacement. Not surprisingly, BIC was slightly

more conservative, while AICc presented slightly more accurate estimates in most cases.

The KICc criterion performed similar to the best AICc and BIC cases. In general, the

estimation was accurate and even in the cases with extreme phenotypic frequencies, the

mean estimates were closer to the real value than to random mating.

The proposed approach does not require a particular experimental set-up other than the

mating tables. However, to correctly identify the processes that produce the patterns of

sexual selection and assortative mating, it is assumed that the encounters occur at random,

i.e. the encounter between two phenotypes depends on the population phenotypic

distribution, and that the mating pattern is the product of the phenotypic distribution of the

population and the individual preferences (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018a). As a consequence,

the availability of phenotypes should not be affected by the matings that have already

occurred, as expected for polygamous species, or even for monogamous species, when the

number of available individuals is higher than the mating pairs.

However, the above assumption is likely to be violated in the case of monogamous species

with low population size, or even in large population sizes with local competition for mates

(if the number of individuals in the patches is low) and/or space-temporal constraints. In

such cases, the population phenotype frequencies may be altered during the reproductive

season and the sexual selection and assortative mating patterns would be more difficult to

detect (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2019). In fact, the simulations (see Appendix C) showed that

the performance of the multimodel inference is affected by the sampling and the mating

system (polygamous or monogamous) but it is still quite robust for detecting non-random

mating deviation in the parameter values except in the worst scenario of monogamous

species with small population size.

6.2 General

The advantages of model selection and multimodel inference in evolutionary ecology has

been widely discussed, jointly with the pros and cons of applying any information criteria

(Link and Barker 2006; Burnham et al. 2011; Aho et al. 2014; Barker and Link 2015; Aho

et al. 2017; Dziak et al. 2019) or the reliability of the obtained estimates (Galipaud et al.

2014; Cade 2015; Giam and Olden 2016; Galipaud et al. 2017).

Multimodel inference has been however, rarely utilized to study the mating patterns that

may emerge from mate choice and mate competition. Here, by developing general models

that incorporate competition and mate choice, and providing their maximum likelihood

estimates, I am proposing a standardized methodology for model selection and multimodel

inference of the mating parameters producing the sexual selection and assortative mating

patterns.

The set of *a priori* models permits to perform an *a posteriori* quantification of the data-

based evidence and provide confidence sets on plausible non-trivial models while letting

multi-model inference of the parameter values. The approach was implemented by allowing

three different information criteria. Under the scenarios assayed, they performed similarly

for simulated and real data.

Regarding the methodology, it is worth noting that although the mating tables require at

least two phenotypes by sex (2×2 dimensions or higher) for fitting mate competition and

mate choice models, the proposed approach can still be applied if some sex, say females,

have only one phenotypic class. In this case, we just need to duplicate the row (see Fig. D1

in the Appendix D). Obviously, there cannot be any assortative pattern and sexual selection

can only be measured in the sex with more than one phenotypic class.

The statistical tools developed in this work have been also applied to empirical data.

Previous studies in the Galician *L. saxatilis* hybrid zone showed that mate choice favours

within-morph pairs (reviewed in Rolan-Alvarez 2007). The estimates obtained by

multimodel inference support the positive assortative mating for the ecotype. In addition,

another result emerged from the analysis: The RB females are preferred in general i.e. RB

male with SU female has less mutual-propensity than SU male with RB female ($m_{SURB} <$

m_{RBSU}). This pattern may be favoured by the physical difficulty for the mating involving

bigger RB males with the smaller SU females, and could be related with the somehow more

frequent occurrence of mating pairs having females bigger than males (a typical trend in

gastropods, E. Rolán-Alvarez personal communication). Besides the mating pattern

depicted by the multi-model approach, the estimates of the mutual-propensities were also

obtained. Testing the reliability of these estimates is, however, out of the scope of the

present manuscript, and it was left for future work.

To conclude, I present a methodology to distinguish among several models of mate

competition and choice behind the observed pattern of mating and the phenotypic

frequencies in the population. From an empirical point of view it is much easier to study

patterns than processes and this is why the causal mechanisms of natural and sexual

selection are not so well known as the patterns they provoke. The goal of the present work

is to propose a new tool that will help to distinguish among different alternative processes

behind the observed mating pattern.

The developed methodology has been fully implemented in a program called InfoMating

available at http://acraaj.webs6.uvigo.es/InfoMating/Infomating.htm or upon request to the

author.

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Appendix A) Mutual Mating Propensity Models

Saturated non-random mating model: λ notation.

Consider the total number of possible mating phenotypes $K = k_1 \times k_2$ and the saturated

multinomial model for the K-1 free mating parameters m'_{ij}.

The log-likelihood function is

$$lnL_{sat} = C + \sum_{ij}^{K-1} n'_{ij} \ln\left(m'_{ij} q_{ij}\right) + n'_{k1k2} \ln\left(a\left(1 - \sum_{ij}^{K-1} q_{ij}\right)\right) - n' \ln(M)$$

804 where n' is the number of matings in the sample and n'_{ij} is the number of matings between i-

805 type females and j-type males. I have fixed the parameter m'_{k1k2} to a.

806 Compute the first derivative of the likelihood with respect to a

$$\frac{dlnL_{sat}}{da} = \frac{n'_{k1k2}}{a} - \frac{n}{M} q_{k1k2}$$

then by taking $a = 1$ and equating to 0 we get

$\quad n/M = n'_{k1k2} / q_{k1k2} \equiv \lambda(1)$

that corresponds to the number of observed matings having unity mating parameter divided

by the corresponding product of population frequencies. Under the saturated model there is

only one (for convenience m'_{k1k2}) mating parameter having unitary value and so the number

of observed matings is n'_{k1k2} and the product of the corresponding population frequencies is

$p_{1k1} \times p_{2k2} = q_{k1k2}$.

Now, let find the m'_{ij} parameter value that maximizes the likelihood

816
$$\frac{dlnL_{sat}}{dm'_{ij}} = \frac{n'_{ij}}{m'_{ij}} - \frac{n}{M} q_{ij} = 0$$

817
$$\widehat{m'_{ij}} = \frac{n'_{ij}/q_{ij}}{n/M} \equiv \frac{\lambda(m'_{ij})}{\lambda(1)}$$

818 The λ notation can be generalized for any set A of mating phenotypes having the same

819 value of propensity θ as follows

821
$$\lambda(\theta) = \frac{\sum_{ij}^{A} n'_{ij}}{\sum_{ij}^{A} q_{ij}}$$

where x_{ij} represents the number of mating pairs having absolute (non-normalized) mating

parameter θ and q_{ij} is the product of the population frequencies p_{1i} and p_{2j} i.e. the expected

frequency of the θ mating phenotypes under random mating.

Intrafemale competition models

The model is

$m'_{ij} = a_i$ with $a_i > 0 \ \forall \ i < k_1$ and $m'_{k1j} = a = 1 \ \forall \ j$.

There are k_1-1 independent parameters. Note that the parameters m'_{k1j} have been fixed to a

$= 1$. The log-likelihood function is

831
$$lnL = C + \sum_{i<k1}^{k1-1} \sum_{j=1}^{k2} n'_{ij} \ln(a_i q_{ij}) + \sum_{j=1}^{k2} n'_{k1j} \ln(a q_{k1j}) - n \ln(M)$$

832   Now, assume that the parameter a is not fixed and compute the first derivative of the

833   likelihood with respect to a

834
$$\frac{dlnL}{da} = \frac{\sum_j^{k2} n'_{k1j}}{a} - \frac{n}{M} \sum_j^{k2} q_{k1j} = 0$$

835   then by taking $a = 1$ and equating to 0 we get

836    $n/M = \sum_j n'_{k1j} / \sum_j q_{k1j} \equiv \lambda(1)$

837   Now find the a_i parameter value that maximizes the likelihood

838
$$\frac{dlnL}{da_i} = \frac{\sum_j^{k2} n'_{ij}}{a_i} - \frac{n}{M} \sum_j^{k2} q_{ij} = 0$$

839   Solving for a_i

840
$$\hat{a_\iota} = \frac{\sum_j^{k2} n'_{ij} / \sum_j^{k2} q_{ij}}{\frac{n}{M}} \equiv \frac{\lambda(a_i)}{\lambda(1)}$$

The formula expressed as the quotient of lambdas is valid for any number h of different

parameters, $1 \leq h < k_1$. In the particular case of having only one parameter the sum of

observed matings having propensity a_1, implies $\Sigma\Sigma n'_{ij}$ where the first summation is for all

the female types except females of type k_1, and the second is over all male types. The sum

of the product of frequencies is $1 - p_{1k1}$.

As before, $\lambda(1)$ also corresponds to the sum of the observed matings having expected

propensity 1 divided by the sum of the corresponding products of population frequencies.

The model for male sexual selection is solved in a similar way.

Intrasexual competition in both sexes

The model is

$$m'_{ij} = a_i b_j,\ i < k_1,\ j < k_2;\ m'_{ik2} = a_i,\ i < k_1;\ m'_{k1j} = b_j,\ j < k_2;\ m'_{k1k2} = 1$$

with $a_i > 0,\ b_j > 0\ \forall\ i, j$.

It is easy to see that is multiplicative. Let $A = \sum_i^{k1-1} a_i p_{1i} + a p_{1k1}$ and $B =$

$\sum_j^{k2-1} b_j p_{2j} + b p_{2k2}$.

The mean mutual mating propensity is

$$M = \sum_{i,j} q_{ij} m'_{ij} = \sum_i^{k1} \sum_j^{k2} a_i b_j p_{1i} p_{2j} = AB$$

with $a_{k1} = a$ and $b_{k2} = b$.

The marginal propensity for i-type females is

860
$$m_{Fem\_i} = a_i \sum_j^{males} p_{2j} \frac{b_j}{M} = a_i \frac{B}{M}$$

861 Similarly, the marginal for j-type males

862
$$m_{Male\_j} = b_j \frac{A}{M}$$

863 with $a_{k1} = a$ and $b_{k2} = b$.

864 The condition 5-iii) for a multiplicative model implies that $m_{ij} = M_{Fem\_i} \times M_{Male\_j}$. In

865 addition, $m_{ij} = a_i b_j / M$ that jointly with the multiplicative condition requires $a_i b_j / M = M_{Fem\_i}$

866 $\times M_{Male\_j} = a_i B b_j A / M^2$ solving for M we get $M = AB$ which we have already seen it is true.

867 The log-likelihood function

868
$$lnL = C + \sum_{i=1}^{k1} \sum_{j=1}^{k2} n'_{ij} \ln(a_i b_j q_{ij}) - nln(M)$$

869 with $a_{k1} = a = 1$ and $b_{k2} = b = 1$.

870 Consider the derivatives

871
$$\frac{dA}{da_i} = p_{1i} \; ; \frac{dB}{db_j} = p_{2j}; \frac{dM}{da_i} = p_{1i}B; \frac{dM}{db_j} = p_{2j}A$$

872 Now by taking the derivative of the log-likelihood with respect to a_i or b_j and equating to 0

873 we get the estimates

874
$$\hat{a}_i = \frac{\sum_j^{k2} n'_{ij} / \sum_j^{k2} q_{ij}}{\frac{n}{M} B} = \frac{\lambda(a_i + \sum_j a_i b_j)}{\lambda_{fem}(1)}$$

875
$$\widehat{b_J} = \frac{\sum_i^{k1} n'_{ij} / \sum_i^{ki} q_{ij}}{\frac{n}{M} A} = \frac{\lambda(b_j + \sum_i a_i b_j)}{\lambda_{male}(1)}$$

876   Where

877
$$\frac{n}{M} B = \frac{\sum_j^{k2} n'_{k1j}}{p_{1k1}} \equiv \lambda_{fem}(1)$$

878
$$\frac{n}{M} A = \frac{\sum_i^{k1} n'_{ik2}}{p_{2k2}} \equiv \lambda_{male}(1)$$

880   *Mate choice models with parameterized heterotypes*

881   Consider models in which the homotype mating has absolute propensity of 1 while the

882   different heterotypes have absolute value of a_{ij}. The maximum likelihood estimate is

883
$$\hat{a}_{h1h2} = \frac{\lambda(a_{h1h2})}{\lambda(1)}$$

The number of parameters in this type of model is $K - min\{k_1, k_2\} - \Sigma_S(C_s-1)$ where the

sum is over the set of different heterotype matings and C_s is the cardinality of each set.

Double effect models

The following models generate a double pattern of sexual selection and assortative mating

even when the population frequencies are uniform.

Double effect models producing sexual selection in one sex under uniform frequencies

A simple approach consists in building a new model by setting $m'_{ii} = 1$ and $m'_{jj} = 1 + c$.

Then, if we desire assortative mating jointly with sexual selection only in females we

additionally set $m'_{ij} = 1 - c$; on the contrary, if we desire selection only in males we set m'_{ji}

$= 1 - c$ with $-1 < c < 1$. If the frequencies are not uniform the model generates assortative

mating jointly with sexual selection in both sexes.

In the case of the model with $m'_{ij} = 1 - c$ (female sexual selection if frequencies are

uniform) the maximum likelihood estimate of c is one of the roots of the quadratic

$\qquad (x_{jj} - x_{ij} + n'D) - c[x_{ij} + x_{jj} + D(x_{jj} - x_{ij})] - c^2D[n' - (x_{ij} + x_{jj})] = 0$

where $D = q_{ij} - q_{jj}$ and $n' = \sum x_{ij}$ is the number of matings (sample size).

If the frequencies are uniform and $k_1 = k_2$, i.e. $p_{1i} = p_{1j} = p_{2i} = p_{2j} \ \forall \ i, j$ then

$\qquad \hat{c} = \dfrac{x_{jj} - x_{ij}}{x_{jj} + x_{ij}}$

The case for male sexual selection is obtained simply by interchanging x_{ij} by x_{ji} and q_{ij} by

q_{ji} in the formulas.

The above model has only one parameter c; we can introduce a more complex two

parameter model, $M_{(a,c)}$ by setting $m'_{ii} = a$, $m'_{jj} = 1 + c$ and $m'_{ij} = 1 - c$, for female sexual

selection (or $m'_{ji} = 1 - c$ for male sexual selection). For obtaining the MLE of this two

parameter double model, with restrictions $a > 0$, $c < |1|$, I have used a numerical bounded

Nelder-Mead simplex algorithm (Press 2002; Singer and Singer 2004; Gao and Han 2012).

Double effect models with sexual selection in both sexes under uniform frequencies

To get assortative mating jointly with sexual selection in both sexes under uniform

frequencies, we just need to combine the above uniform one parameter models of each sex,

so that $m'_{ii} = 1$, $m'_{jj} = 1 + c$ and $m'_{ij} = m'_{ji} = 1 - c$.

The maximum likelihood estimate of c involves the solution of the quadratic

916            $[x_{jj} - x_s + n'D_2] - c[x_{jj} + x_s + D_2(x_{jj} - x_s)] + c^2 D_2[x_{jj} + x_s - n'] = 0$

917   where $x_s = x_{ij} + x_{ji}$ and $D_2 = q_{ij} + q_{ji} - q_{jj}$.

919   *General double effect models*

920   We can also define a set of general models where any propensity m'_{ij} has parameter θ_{ij} with

921   at least one propensity having value of 1. The MLE of the parameters of this kind of model

922   is

923            $$\hat{\theta}_{ij} = \frac{\lambda(\theta_{ij})}{\lambda(1)}$$

924   where $\lambda(\theta_{ij})$ is defined as in (A2).

925   The simplest model defined in this way is

926            $m'_{ii} = a$ and $m'_{ij} = m'_{ji} = m'_{jj} = 1$,

which produces assortative mating and sexual selection in both sexes.

Consider as an example of this model, the case with $k_1 = k_2 = 2$ so that $0 < p_{11} < 1$; $0 < p_{21} <$

1; $m'_{11} = a$ and $m'_{12} = m'_{21} = m'_{22} = 1$. The mean mating propensity is $M = q_{11}(a - 1) + 1$. The

absolute marginal propensity for the first female type $m'_{Fem\_1} = a\,p_{21} + 1 - p_{21} = p_{21}(a - 1)$

$+ 1$, and for the second female type $m'_{Fem\_2} = 1$. Similarly the male marginals are $m'_{Male\_1} =$

$p_{11}(a - 1) + 1$ and $m'_{Male\_2} = 1$.

Recall that the condition for the sexual selection pattern within a given sex is that the

marginal mating propensities are different which here is true for both sexes provided that a

$\neq 1$. Regarding the assortative mating pattern it can be proved that the joint isolation index

(I_{PSI}) is 0 only if $a = 1$. However, it is sufficient to prove that the model is not multiplicative

(Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b). Consider that the model is multiplicative, this implies, $m'_{12}\,/M$

$= (m'_{Fem\_1}/M) \times (m'_{Male\_2}/M)$ that given the model values becomes

$\qquad M = (m'_{Fem\_1}) \times (m'_{Male\_2})$

which can be true only when $p_{11} = 1$ and so it is false by definition.

The estimate of a under this model is $\lambda(a) / \lambda(1)$.

The most parameterized model that can be defined in this way has K-1 free parameters and

coincides with the saturated model so that the estimates are the corresponding pair total

indices (PTI_{ij}).

Moreover, note that if no mutual propensity is fixed to 1 then $\lambda(1) = (n - A) / (1 - P) = n$

where A = number of observations having value $1 = 0$ and P = product of population

frequencies of the involved types having mutual propensity $1 = 0$. Therefore the estimate of

θ_{ij} can also expressed as $\lambda(\theta_{ij})\,/n$ which is the observed frequency of mating pairs (i, j)

divided by the expected frequency by random mating which is the definition of the pair

total index PTI_{ij} (K-1 are free and one PTI is dependent on the others).

All the above derived MLE formulae have been checked by a numerical bounded Nelder-

Mead simplex algorithm (Press 2002; Singer and Singer 2004; Gao and Han 2012).

Appendix B) Monte Carlo simulation of mating tables

The mating tables for the simulation experiments were generated by the program MateSim

(Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018a) available at http://acraaj.webs.uvigo.es/MateSim/matesim.htm.

The number of replicates for each case was 1 000. For each run the program first generated

the number of premating males and females from a given population size. For example, if

the population size consisted in n_1 (= 5 000) females and n_2 (= 5 000) males, the program

got $n_{1A} = n_1 \times U$ females of the A type and $n_{1B} = n_1 - n_{1A}$ females of the B type. Where U is

a value sampled from the standard uniform distribution. The premating males were

obtained similarly. Then, the female population frequencies were $p_{1i} = n_{1i} / n_1$, and $p_{2i} = n_{2i}$

$/ n_2$ for the male ones. Finally, a sample of n' (= 500) matings was obtained, where the

number of counts for each mating phenotype $i \times j$ was

$Q(i,j) = n' \times p_{1i} \times p_{2j} \times m'_{ij} / M$

where m'_{ij} are the mutual-propensity parameters as defined for each kind of model, and $M =$

$\sum p_{1i} \times p_{2j} \times m'_{ij}$.

The format of the obtained tables was the same as the JMating (Carvajal-Rodriguez and

Rolan-Alvarez 2006) input files (Fig. B1).

```
# format number
0
# num of types
2
#premating male numbers
1626        3374
#premating female numbers
917     4083
# matings by rows (females)
30        62
133     275
```

971 **Fig. B1.** Example of a table generated by the simulations. The format is the same as for the JMating
972 software.

974 **Appendix C) Polygamous species with low sample size and monogamous species**

976 **Table C1. Average (standard error) parameter estimates under sample size 50 for a**

977 **polygamous species with large population size ($N = 10\ 000$).**

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
M_0	Expected	1	1	1	1
	AICc	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000
	KICc	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000

	BIC	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.0 ± 0.0000
SfC	Expected	2	2	1	3
	AICc	1.38 ± 0.0106	1.45 ± 0.0119	1.0 ± 0.0003	2.03 ± 0.0206
	KICc	1.32 ± 0.0104	1.35±0.0110	1.0 ± 0.0003	1.76 ± 0.0226
	BIC	1.29 ± 0.0106	1.29 ± 0.0105	1.0 ± 0.0003	1.64 ± 0.0225
SfCc	Expected	6	2	1	3
	AICc	4.71 ± 0.0204	1.86 ± 0.0201	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.36 ± 0.0286
	KICc	4.45 ± 0.0236	1.57 ± 0.0216	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.06 ± 0.0316
	BIC	4.28 ± 0.0283	1.42 ± 0.0198	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.99 ± 0.0324

978 M_0: Random mating model. SfC: female competition and mate choice with independent parameters. SfCc:

979 female competition and mate choice with compound parameters.

981 **Table C2. Average (standard error) parameter estimates under sample size 500 for a**

982 **monogamous species (mass-encounter mating process) with large population size ($N =$**

983 **10 000).**

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
M_0	Expected	1	1	1	1
	AICc	1.07 ± 0.0053	1.07 ± 0.0053	1.07 ± 0.0059	1.07 ± 0.0056
	KICc	1.05 ± 0.0044	1.04 ± 0.0043	1.05 ± 0.0052	1.04 ± 0.0050

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
	BIC	1.01 ± 0.0028	1.01 ± 0.0020	1.01 ± 0.0033	1.01 ± 0.0026
SfC	Expected	2	2	1	3
	AICc	1.95 ± 0.0158	1.95 ± 0.0160	1.0 ± 0.0001	2.04 ± 0.0176
	KICc	1.93 ± 0.0162	1.93 ± 0.0166	1.0 ± 0.0001	2.03 ± 0.0180
	BIC	1.82 ± 0.0183	1.82 ± 0.0189	1.0 ± 0.0000	1.93 ± 0.0195
SfCc	Expected	6	2	1	3
	AICc	3.02 ± 0.0341	2.07 ± 0.0210	1.0 ± 0.0001	2.84 ± 0.0298
	KICc	3.0 ± 0.0343	2.04 ± 0.0216	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.82 ± 0.0302
	BIC	2.86 ± 0.0353	1.92 ± 0.0244	1.0 ± 0.0000	2.73 ± 0.0313

M_0: Random mating model. SfC: female competition and mate choice with independent parameters. SfCc: female competition and mate choice with compound parameters.

Table C3. Average (standard error) parameter estimates under sample size 50 for a monogamous species (mass-encounter mating process) with large population size ($N = 10\ 000$).

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
M_0	Expected	1	1	1	1
	AICc	1.0 ± 0.0362	1.04 ± 0.0414	1.0 ± 0.0365	1.02 ± 0.0406
	KICc	1.02 ± 0.0339	1.03 ± 0.0374	1.0 ± 0.0324	1.02 ± 0.0377

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
	BIC	1.03 ± 0.0312	1.03 ± 0.0340	1.0 ± 0.0283	1.03 ± 0.0361
SfC	Expected	2	2	1	3
	AICc	2.0 ± 0.0568	2.05 ± 0.0638	1.08 ± 0.0155	2.23 ± 0.0635
	KICc	1.76 ± 0.0539	1.78±0.0605	1.06 ± 0.0145	1.96 ± 0.0597
	BIC	1.62 ± 0.0515	1.66 ± 0.0578	1.05 ± 0.0143	1.79 ± 0.0555
SfCc	Expected	6	2	1	3
	AICc	3.36 ± 0.1004	2.19 ± 0.0731	1.03 ± 0.0073	3.11 ± 0.0997
	KICc	3.06 ± 0.0951	1.94 ± 0.0715	1.03 ± 0.0066	2.85 ± 0.0964
	BIC	2.89 ± 0.0919	1.79 ± 0.0687	1.02 ± 0.0048	2.68 ± 0.0929

M_0: Random mating model. SfC: female competition and mate choice with independent parameters. SfCc: female competition and mate choice with compound parameters.

Table C4. Average (standard error) parameter estimates under sample size 100 for a monogamous species (mass-encounter mating process) with small population size ($N = 200$).

Model		m'_{11}	m'_{12}	m_{21}	m_{22}
M_0	Expected	1	1	1	1
	AICc	1.07 ± 0.0083	1.10 ± 0.0141	1.09 ± 0.0141	1.07 ± 0.0090
	KICc	1.04 ± 0.0064	1.05 ± 0.0094	1.05 ± 0.010	1.04 ± 0.0070

	BIC	1.02 ± 0.0047	1.02 ± 0.0056	1.02 ± 0.0065	1.02 ± 0.0052
SfC	Expected	2	2	1	3
	AICc	1.15 ± 0.0173	1.11 ± 0.0157	1.07 ± 0.0118	1.11 ± 0.0145
	KICc	1.10 ± 0.0141	1.06±0.0125	1.04 ± 0.0091	1.06 ± 0.0108
	BIC	1.03 ± 0.0072	1.03 ± 0.0079	1.02 ± 0.0059	1.03 ± 0.0060
SfCc	Expected	6	2	1	3
	AICc	1.85 ± 0.0555	1.30 ± 0.0317	1.07 ± 0.0124	2.12 ± 0.0757
	KICc	1.66 ± 0.0515	1.22 ± 0.0289	1.04 ± 0.010	1.94 ± 0.070
	BIC	1.49 ± 0.0476	1.13 ± 0.0248	1.02 ± 0.0039	1.71 ± 0.0637

996   M_0: Random mating model. SfC: female competition and mate choice with independent parameters. SfCc:

997   female competition and mate choice with compound parameters.

1000

Appendix D) Incomplete set-up: toy example

The proposed modelling framework requires at least two phenotypes by sex (mating tables

of 2×2 dimensions or higher) for measuring sexual competition and mate choice effects.

However it still can be applied if some sex, say females, have only one phenotype. In this

case we just need to duplicate the row (see Fig. D1). Obviously, only male sexual selection

can be measured.

1007

A	B
# format number 0 # num of types 2 #premating male numbers 277  133 #premating female numbers 269  269 # matings by rows (females) 70  39 70  39	# format number 0 # num of types 2 #premating male numbers 277  133 #premating female numbers 269  269 # matings by rows (females) 100  9 100  9

1008

1009 **Fig. D1.** Examples of two toy models with only one type of female and two types of males. Note

1010 that the rows of the mating table are duplicated (same female type). A: Random mating B: Male

1011 sexual selection.

1012 The examples in Fig. D1 correspond to a population with only one female but two male

1013 phenotypes (phenotype-1 and phenotype-2). There were sampled 269 females plus 277

1014 males with phenotype-1 and 133 males with phenotype-2. In the first example (Fig. D1-A)

1015 there were 70 matings involving the male phenotype-1 and 39 with male phenotype-2. In

1016 the second example (Fig. D1-B) the matings were 100 with phenotype-1 and 9 with

1017 phenotype-2.

1018 The analysis of the first case indicated that there was no significant deviation from random

1019 mating ($J_{PTI} = 0.005$, $P = 0.78$). The best model was the random mating model M_0. As

1020 expected, the multimodel estimation of the mutual mating parameters was 1 for every

parameter. The results were the same for the three information indices (AICc, KICc and

BIC).

The analysis of the second case detected a deviation from random mating ($J_{PTI} = 0.405$, $P <$

10^{-7}) due to male sexual selection ($J_{PS2} = 0.405$, $P < 10^{-7}$) see (Carvajal-Rodríguez 2018b)

for details of the J indices. The best model was male sexual selection with one parameter

(Smale-1P). The male sexual selection component indicated five times higher mating

propensity of male phenotype-1 with respect to phenotype-2.

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1186