

1 **Opinion**

2 **Towards an integrated understanding of animal weapons**

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## **Towards an integrated understanding of animal weapons**

### **Highlights**

Animal weapons include such traits as sharp claws, toxic chemical sprays, and immobilizing electric shocks, showcasing highly diverse solutions to conflict. Yet much is unknown about why such diversity has evolved.

Recent research has highlighted that animal weapons do not operate alone; they are often integrated into phenotypes with a wealth of supportive and compensatory traits.

Weapons often serve multiple functions; their evolution reflects the outcome of multivariate selection, rather than optimization for only a single function.

We illustrate how studies of phenotypic integration, multifunctionality, costs, and constraints will both benefit our understanding of weapon evolution and will provide insights valuable to the broader field of evolutionary biology.

## 41 Abstract

42 Animals resolve conflict using an astonishing array of weapons – from electric fields  
43 and sonic shockwaves to deadly venom and high-impact strikes. Yet most weapon  
44 research has been narrowly focused, for example, only considering mechanical  
45 weapons under sexual selection. Further, few studies have examined how weapons  
46 are integrated into animal phenotypes. For these reasons it is not surprising that  
47 major questions remain about why weapons have evolved such extraordinary  
48 diversity in form and function. By synthesizing insights across weapon modalities  
49 and research traditions, we identify key themes for future research on animal  
50 weapons and discuss several ways in which research into animal weapons can  
51 provide broad insights into evolutionary processes.

## 52 Animal weapons provide diverse solutions to conflict

53 Conflict in nature is not anomalous but rather a central driver of adaptation [1].  
54 **Animal weapons** (see Glossary) have evolved repeatedly across taxa to aid in the  
55 process of resolving conflict. Weapons are traits that can be used to cause physical  
56 harm to others in the process of competing for food and mates, subduing prey, and  
57 in self-protection. Weapons are highly diverse and come in multiple modalities [2],  
58 including mechanical, chemical, electrical, acoustic, and even thermal weapons  
59 (Figure 1). Despite decades of research on animal weapons, key questions remain  
60 about how weapon modality, function, and performance interact with ecology, life  
61 history, and developmental constraints to contribute to such extraordinary diversity.  
62 One barrier to progress has been that research on animal weapons has typically  
63 focused narrowly on one modality at a time and on weapons under similar forms of  
64 selection [3-6]. We argue that a more expansive view on animal weapons is needed

Figure 1



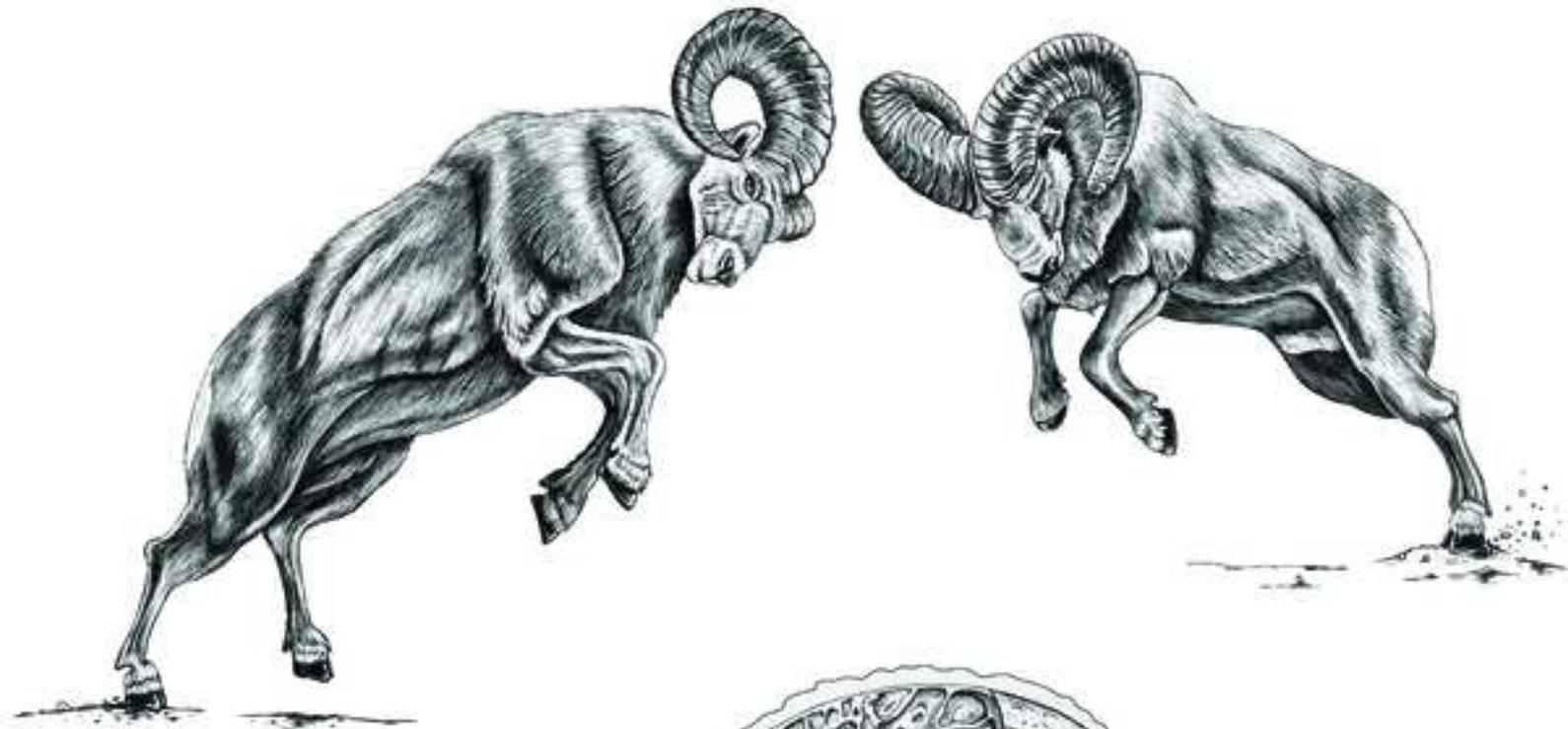
65 to improve understanding of why nature has come up with such diverse solutions to  
66 conflict.

### 67 **Mechanical weapons are but one type of weapon**

68 Elegant drawings in the Chauvet-Pont d'Arc Cave in France, dated over 30,000  
69 years before present, depict the horns of woolly rhinoceros (*Coelodonta antiquitatis*),  
70 steppe bison (*Bison priscus*), auroch (*Bos primigenius*), and ibex (*Capra ibex*). Many  
71 of us picture such mammalian horns, as well as tusks, spurs, and talons, as  
72 quintessential examples of animal weapons. We have typically referred to such  
73 weapons as morphological weapons because they are expansions or reinforcements  
74 of an animal's morphology. Yet the term "mechanical weapon" may be more  
75 appropriate for two reasons. First, when used as weapons, they deliver force via  
76 direct contact with an opponent. Second, all animal weapons are associated to some  
77 degree with morphology. For example, **chemical weapons**, such as venoms, are  
78 typically produced by glands. When Japanese honeybees, *Apis cerana japonica*,  
79 "cook" their predators, they use vibrating muscle (Figure 1). Thus, for clarity, we will  
80 hereafter refer to weapons as mechanical weapons if they are used directly to deliver  
81 force.

82 Our human visual bias makes it simple to identify mechanical weapons and  
83 appreciate their immense diversity, especially when they are extensions from the  
84 body [e.g., 3]. Unsurprisingly, such weapons have received much attention in  
85 theoretical and empirical research. However, mechanical weapons are but one  
86 modality of animal weapon (Figure 1).

87 Considering multiple weapon modalities simultaneously is important. Moreover, the  
88 field of evolutionary biology as a whole stands to benefit from research into the wide



89 diversity of animal weapons, a topic we discuss later in this article. Too often in  
90 science, traits and phenomena are studied with a narrow focus. In doing so, we lose  
91 the opportunity for a broad, coherent and structured understanding of the  
92 complexities of living systems. New generalizations and predictive frameworks can  
93 emerge when commonalities are recognized and when fields of study are inspired by  
94 each other [7].

### 95 Mechanical weapon composition, structure, and the ability to weather battle

96 Weapon modalities have been typically studied in isolation, but there is much to gain  
97 from a unified perspective. We provide, as an example, how approaches from the  
98 study of chemical weapons might benefit those studying mechanical weapons.

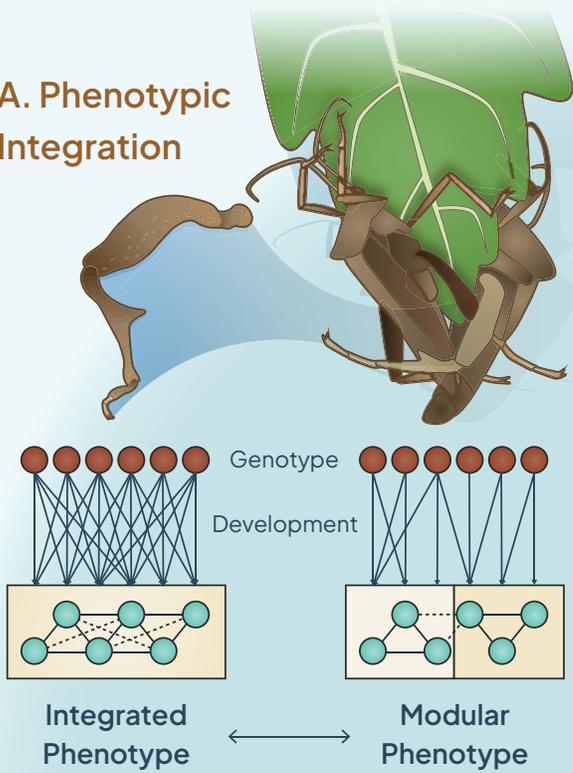
99 The composition of chemical weapons is clearly paramount for their effectiveness. A  
100 well-known chemical weapon is **venom**. Cone snails (Genus: *Conus*) provide an  
101 example of an animal that uses venom to hunt fish, and their venom contains a mix  
102 of multiple paralytic components. Yet these compounds are insufficient to rapidly  
103 immobilize prey; excitotoxins and other compounds must be involved, too. In fact,  
104 many species have an entire suite of toxins that act differently in the envenomated  
105 fish to increase the likelihood of a successful hunt; at least ~50,000 different  
106 conotoxins exist in the *Conus* genus [8,9].

107 The composition of chemical weapons is often characterized in exquisite detail, with  
108 inquiry into the role that each existing compound plays in the weapon's efficacy [10].

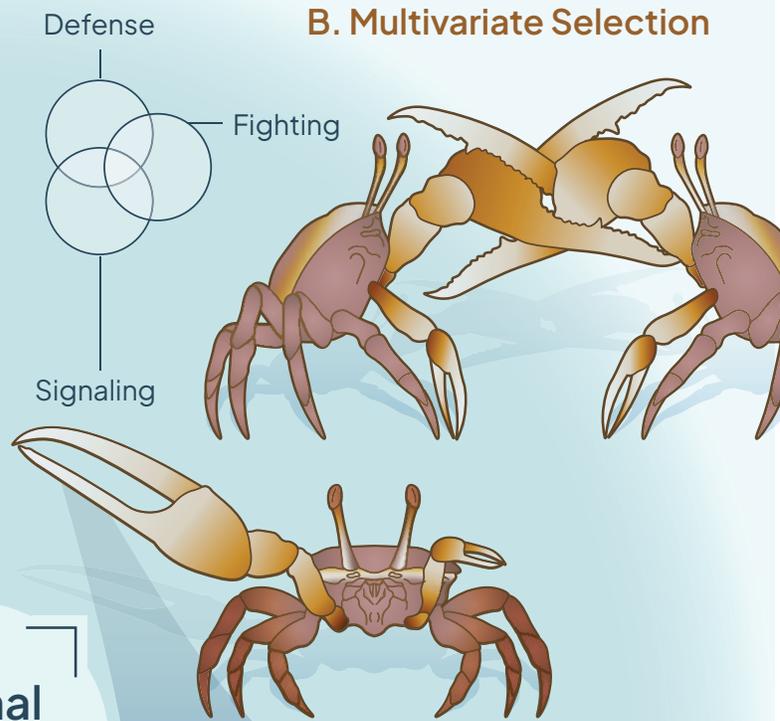
109 In contrast to chemical weapons, mechanical weapons are typically characterized  
110 simply by size, general descriptors of shape, and location on the body – rather than  
111 directly what makes them successful in physical conflict. Yet selection on these  
112 weapons should be no less intricate and no less potent in improving efficacy. Over

# Evolutionary Insights from Animal Weapons

## A. Phenotypic Integration

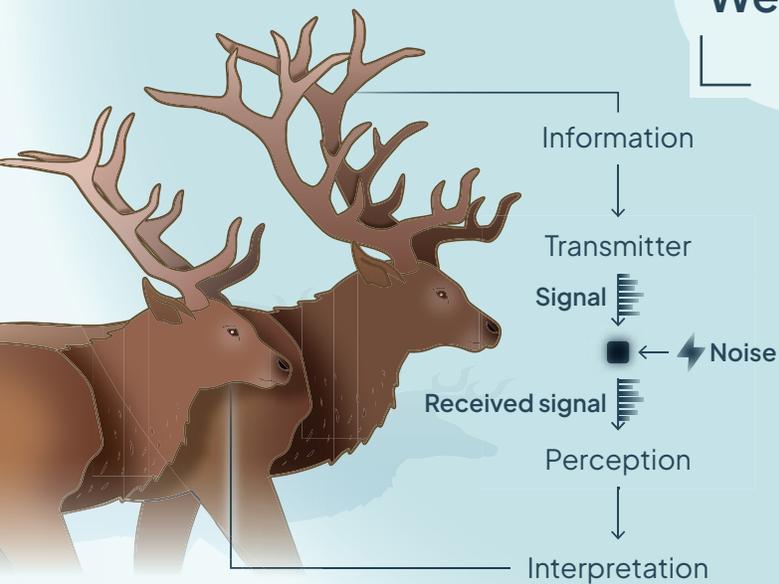


## B. Multivariate Selection

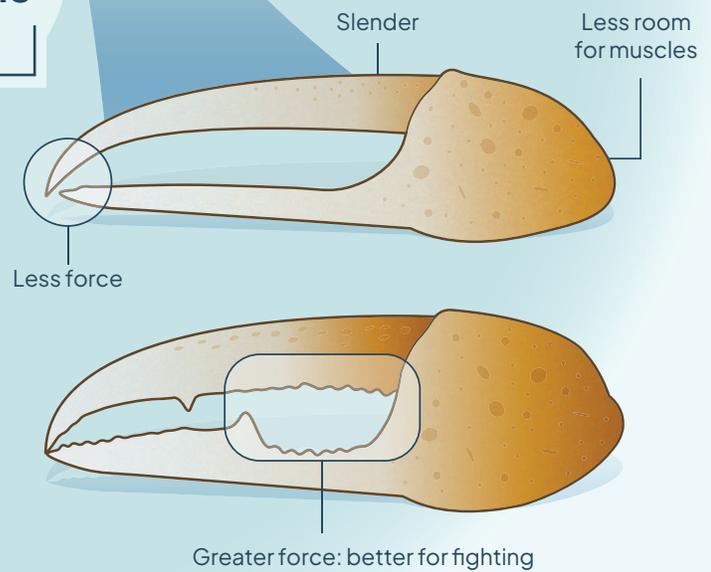


## Animal Weapons

## D. Signaling Systems



## C. Biomechanics and Function



113 evolutionary time mechanical weapons are at least occasionally, often frequently,  
114 tested in battle [5]. As such, their ability to transfer and withstand forces is a crucial  
115 part of their functioning and diversity, and many show the evolutionary hallmarks of  
116 generations upon generations of selection via physical combat. For example, antlers  
117 of elk (*Cervus canadensis*) are one of the toughest biological composites known [10].  
118 Studies examining force, internal architecture, and material composition of  
119 mechanical weapons are beginning to gain traction, with focus primarily on mammals  
120 [e.g., 11,12,13] (Figure 2) and crustaceans [e.g., 14,15,16] (Figure 3). These  
121 properties are valuable to understand broadly because they set upper limits on  
122 mechanical weapon size and can reveal trade-offs between durability, weight, and  
123 energetic costs. Just like the composition of chemical weapons, the composition of  
124 mechanical weapons can be a less visible aspect of their biodiversity, but  
125 undoubtedly it is one of the most important to fitness.

#### 126 Weapons function as systems integrated within the phenotype

127 A venom may have a complex chemical composition, but it would be of little use  
128 without a venom-delivery mechanism such as a bite or a sting [17]. Weapons of all  
129 modalities rely upon weapon supportive traits to be effective [18]. Bombardier  
130 beetles (Genus: *Brachinus*) squirt a nearly 100°C irritating mixture of benzoquinones  
131 from their abdomen, serving as both a thermal and a chemical weapon. This potent  
132 weapon relies on glands that produce and store hydrogen peroxide and  
133 hydroquinones separately. When the beetle is disturbed, it mixes the contents of the  
134 two glands in a heat-resistant chamber in the presence of catalysts. The reaction  
135 generates heat and gas, driving an emission that can be fatal to attacking insects  
136 [19]. In this example, the morphological glands, the chemical catalysts, and the  
137 behavior of directing the emission all serve as weapon-supportive traits.

138 Weapon supportive traits are also on clear display in bighorn sheep (*Ovis*  
139 *canadensis*). During the mating season, the crashing of male horn against horn can  
140 be heard echoing throughout canyons in North America. Males rear up and deliver  
141 blows with an impact force more than five times the load required to crack a human  
142 skull. The horns of bighorn sheep would be of little use without combat behaviors, as  
143 well as a suite of anatomical and physiological modifications throughout the body  
144 that together serve as weapon-supportive traits [11] (Figure 2).

145 Weapons and their supportive traits together comprise **weapon systems**. Weapon  
146 systems should be under strong selection for phenotypic integration, because the  
147 coordinated deployment of these systems can be tightly linked to fitness [20].  
148 Phenotypically integrated systems are not rare in the natural world, and studies into  
149 weapon integration can both inform and gain from our understanding of other  
150 systems. For example, petal size, shape, color, nectar production, and stamen/pistil  
151 length can be tightly correlated in flowering plants. These traits are genetically and  
152 functionally linked because they collectively affect how well specific pollinators can  
153 access and transfer pollen. Researchers have found that selection acts on the whole  
154 trait complex, not each trait independently [21]. Promising future directions in the  
155 study of phenotypic integration in weapon systems include how complex suites of  
156 traits are coordinated and how this coordination influences an organism's ability to  
157 adapt to new challenges (Figure 2,3).

### 158 **Weapons are multifunctional**

159 Weapon systems typically act in an integrated fashion, but often the integration must  
160 be flexible enough to allow some degree of multifunctionality. Indeed,  
161 multifunctionality in animal weapons is more the rule than the exception. Consider

162 the following examples: cnidarian sea anemones (Order: Actiniaria) have evolved a  
163 versatile venom system that is used to hunt, to engage in conspecific territorial  
164 disputes, and for defense [22]; the canine teeth of wolves, *Canis lupus*, are used as  
165 an informative signal to conspecifics, in same-sex physical combat, to subdue prey,  
166 to shear meat off bones during feeding, and in carcass defense against  
167 heterospecifics [23,24]; many leaf footed bugs (Family: Coreidae) use their hind  
168 limbs both for fighting and for locomotion [25], and the enlarged mandibles of the  
169 male Auckland tree wētā, *Hemideima thoracica*, are used in fights over females and  
170 in foraging [26]. The widespread multifunctionality of weapons means that their  
171 evolution reflects the cumulative outcome of often competing selective pressures,  
172 rather than optimization for any single function [27]. Resulting dynamics could  
173 contribute to both the extraordinary diversity of animal weapons and their striking  
174 evolutionary lability, including repeated reduction and loss.

#### 175 Behavior may take the lead in weapon elaboration and diversification

176 Interestingly, integrated weapon systems do not always include obvious weapons  
177 [28]. For example, fighting in the common bottlenose dolphin, *Tursiops truncatus*,  
178 uses ramming, scraping with non-exaggerated teeth, body slaps, and endurance  
179 [29]. Ring doves, *Streptopelia risori*, engage in wing slapping and chest bumping  
180 [30]. *Drosophila melanogaster* fruit flies tap or push each other using their forelegs  
181 [31]. In these cases, animal bodies show no obvious signs of anatomical  
182 modification. Such examples highlight that behavior can take the lead in the initial  
183 elaboration of animal weapons by shaping the selective environments that  
184 individuals experience [see 32,33].

185 Once a weapon begins to take form, behavior likely contributes to elaboration and  
186 diversification. For example, African antelope (Family: Bovidae) exhibit spectacular  
187 horn diversity across species. This evolutionary diversification is likely at least  
188 partially due to differences in fighting style and signaling that resulted from habitat  
189 changes after the last ice age. Open habitats may have resulted in greater long-  
190 distance visibility, with this visibility leading to selection for large, lateral weapons that  
191 are conspicuous to rivals over long distances. In contrast, closed habitats likely led to  
192 smaller, forward-facing weapons where evaluation of a rival would occur over short  
193 distances, and where wide horns would get tangled in vegetation [34,35].

194 Changes in habitat and the fighting environment may stimulate large changes in how  
195 animals engage with each other. However, individuals within a species and in a  
196 single context also often exhibit differences in combat styles [36]. Some individuals  
197 will direct and wield weapons more effectively (i.e., more skillfully) in a certain  
198 context than others, yet the role of skill in contest success is largely unknown [37].  
199 We also do not know how skills are acquired. Do skillful parents produce skillful  
200 offspring? Are skills refined, for example, through battle experience or juvenile play  
201 behavior? Foraging skill can be socially learned, allowing innovations to rapidly  
202 spread through populations [38], but whether the same applies to fighting skill  
203 remains unclear. Future studies should examine if individuals can improve their  
204 fighting skill from watching others fight and if first-hand experience leads to more  
205 skillful maneuvers.

### 206 **Weapons as signals and the resulting consequences for diversification**

207 One of the functions of many weapons is their use as signals of vigor, fighting ability,  
208 or agonistic intention. Signaling can help minimize the costs and risks of contests by

209 allowing an evaluation of probable outcomes, which can halt physical conflict before  
210 further escalation [39,40]. When a weapon is used as a signal, this process can  
211 contribute to weapon evolution and, eventually, diversification. This can occur in  
212 three different ways.

213 First, an honest signal of aggression can generate selection on itself by altering the  
214 social environment. This process can cause strong selection and runaway evolution  
215 [41]. Second, selection via signaling can lead to the evolution of different weapon  
216 features than selection via physical conflict alone (Figure 3) [27]. Third, for a weapon  
217 to serve as a signal, it must be perceived. Yet perception is rarely perfect. We know  
218 very little about the sensory and cognitive underpinnings involved in the assessment  
219 of weapons by rivals [42]. In some cases, there will be a disconnect between the  
220 information perceptually gleaned from the signal and the weapon's true effectiveness  
221 in battle (Figure 3D) [43,44]. For example, ambient environmental conditions, such  
222 as the amount or quality of light filtering through a canopy of vegetation, may affect  
223 visual perception of individuals [42,45]. Further, accurate interpretation for weapons  
224 that are absolutely larger may require greater relative differences in the weapons  
225 being assessed [Weber's Law; 46]. We know that in a number of domains, such as  
226 foraging, mate choice, mimicry, and predator avoidance (reviewed in [46]) such  
227 assessments are based on proportional rather than linear differences; Weber's law  
228 predicts that as the absolute size of items being compared increases the proportional  
229 differences must be greater to allow discrimination (Just Noticeable Differences).  
230 Thus, in agonistic encounters the outcome of physical interactions might be  
231 predicted by differences in size on a linear scale while assessment might be based  
232 on a proportional scale. It is possible then that perceptual processes might bias  
233 individuals in making incorrect decisions about potential outcomes of fights.

234 Altogether, assessment bias is expected to be a factor influencing weapon evolution  
235 and diversification.

### 236 **Costs and constraints have consequences for weapon diversification**

237 The benefit of possessing weapons is often apparent in this conflict-filled world.  
238 Thus, it can seem surprising when animals lose or reduce weapons over  
239 evolutionary time [47]. Phylogenetic comparative analyses have shown that weapons  
240 are highly labile; they can increase in size and complexity, yet equally-so, they  
241 readily disappear [25,47,48]. To fully understand weapon diversification, it is  
242 essential to consider why weapons, with all their advantages, may become reduced,  
243 less robust, or even lost over evolutionary time.

244 Venom, for example, is a dynamically evolving weapon and the loss of genetic  
245 capacity to produce certain component toxins is surprisingly common [e.g., 10,49].  
246 The composition of venom actively coevolves with the physiology of prey and  
247 competitors in a coevolutionary arms race. As recipients become resistant, there  
248 may be strong selection for novel components with greater efficacy. Components  
249 that are less effective, in turn, are expected to be lost if there is a cost to their  
250 production, maintenance, and/or storage [50].

251 Weapons, especially **sexually selected weapons**, can be associated with steep  
252 metabolic and survival costs [51,52] and sexually antagonistic effects [53]. The  
253 weapon cost-benefit relationship may be altered by biotic and abiotic environmental  
254 change, such as resource defensibility, habitat structure, temperature stress, or  
255 parasite load – and all of these can vary readily across space and time. In some  
256 such contexts, costs of weapons can exceed benefits. When they do, selection will  
257 reverse weapon elaboration and lead to weapon loss.

258 Weapon reduction or loss is not necessarily the only outcome when weapons are  
259 costly. Instead, selection may lead to the evolution of **weapon compensatory traits**  
260 [54-56]. Weapon compensatory traits can be distinguished from supportive traits in  
261 that they alleviate costs that are not directly linked to effective weapon deployment,  
262 such as the energetic costs of walking or flying with large horns or mandibles.  
263 Compensation may manifest as novel or modified structures, physiology, behavior, or  
264 performance [54]. For example, electric eels, Genus *Electrophorus*, can generate  
265 large electrical discharges – up to 600 volts – without injuring themselves [57]. The  
266 ability to avoid self-electrocution is hypothesized to be due to compensatory traits  
267 including the ability to control and channel electricity. These traits include the  
268 separation and insulation of electric organs and the ability to reduce current flow  
269 within the body. Similarly, snapping shrimp (Family: Alpheidae) have evolved helmets  
270 that protect their brains by dampening acoustic shock waves produced by  
271 themselves and others [58].

272 Weapon diversification is not only shaped by costs; it can also be shaped by  
273 constraints such as those arising from phylogeny, architecture, and development  
274 [59]. Such constraints may at least partially explain why some taxa have evolved  
275 chemical instead of acoustic weapons, and why weapons are found only on some  
276 locations on the body. Biomechanical constraints may help explain why the evolution  
277 of weapons in highly flight-dependent species is limited. For example, specialized  
278 weapons are rare in bird species that rely upon efficient flight as their main form of  
279 locomotion [60]. Further, even though male damselflies (Suborder: Zygoptera) and  
280 butterflies (Superfamily: Papilionoidea) compete for territories, they do so while  
281 lacking obvious weapons [61,62]. Instead, such animals, as well as the dolphin,

282 dove, and fruit fly mentioned earlier, engage in conflict with wings, beaks, teeth, and  
283 tails that may show little indication of being modified for fighting.

284 **Animal weapons provide a framework for understanding the evolution of complex,**  
285 **integrated phenotypes**

286 Animal weapons are commonly extreme in their phenotypic elaboration and their  
287 physiological demands on the body. Such extremes often result in clear impacts on  
288 fitness [3]. Weapons are well positioned for testing general theory across  
289 evolutionary biology not only for these reasons, but also because they are directly  
290 involved in social interactions, tightly integrated with physiology and behavior, easily  
291 measurable, and highly variable within and across populations. In Figure 3 we  
292 highlight four areas discussed in this manuscript where weapons may be particularly  
293 informative to the field of evolutionary biology as a whole.

294

## 295 **Concluding Remarks**

296 Conflict is rife in nature, and animal weapons showcase highly diverse solutions to  
297 conflict. Yet research has traditionally focused on a narrow subset of highly visible  
298 mechanical traits, often studied in isolation and under similar selective contexts. By  
299 adopting a broader perspective that integrates multiple weapon modalities, we argue  
300 that animal weapons are best understood as distinct evolutionary solutions to conflict  
301 that nonetheless share common underlying principles (see **Outstanding**  
302 **Questions**). Across modalities, weapons are shaped by selection on performance,  
303 embedded within integrated phenotypic systems, and constrained by costs, trade-  
304 offs, and limits imposed by development, biomechanics, and perception. As such,

305 they hold much potential for providing insects to the field of evolutionary biology as a  
306 whole.

307 A key insight emerging from this synthesis is that weapons do not evolve alone.  
308 Their efficacy and elaboration depend on suites of weapon-supportive and  
309 compensatory traits, including behavior and skill, which may facilitate or constrain  
310 morphological elaboration. Moreover, the widespread multifunctionality of weapons  
311 means that their evolution reflects the cumulative outcome of often competing  
312 selective pressures, rather than optimization for any single function. These dynamics  
313 contribute to both the extraordinary diversity of animal weapons and their striking  
314 evolutionary lability, including repeated reduction and loss. Ultimately, the diversity  
315 we see in animal weapons is not due to any single factor.

316 Future progress in our understanding of animal weapons, and our ability to gain  
317 broad evolutionary insights from these weapons will be enhanced by using  
318 experimental and comparative approaches that bridge research traditions.  
319 Integrating biomechanics, physiology, behavior, and phylogenetics and considering  
320 multiple weapon modalities will allow researchers to move beyond descriptive  
321 classifications toward broadly predictive frameworks for weapon evolution. Such  
322 approaches promise not only to clarify why particular weapon types evolve in some  
323 lineages and not others, but also to illuminate general principles of phenotypic  
324 integration, adaptation, and diversification. In this way, animal weapons provide a  
325 powerful lens through which to understand the evolution of complex biological  
326 systems.

327 **Boxes**

328 **Glossary**

329 Animal weapon: A trait that can be used to cause physical harm to others in the  
330 context of competitive or agonistic interactions

331 Chemical weapon: Biologically produced chemical substances that can harm other  
332 organisms, generally used to facilitate feeding or deter predators or competitors.

333 Venom: A multi-component chemical weapon often comprised of proteins and  
334 peptides that is actively injected to interfere with the homeostatic processes of others  
335 Venoms are typically more complex in composition than other chemical weapons.

336 Sexually selected weapon: A weapon can be described as sexually selected if  
337 variation in its expression has led to fitness differences associated with non-random  
338 success in the competition for access to gametes for fertilization (based on [63])

339 Weapon compensatory trait: Mitigate the costs associated with the development,  
340 use, or maintenance of weapons

341 Weapon-supportive trait: Enable weapon function and improve their effectiveness.

342 Weapon system: Weapon systems include one or more animal weapons alongside  
343 their array of weapon-supportive traits

344

## **Towards an integrated understanding of animal weapons**

### **Outstanding Questions**

#### **To what degree are evolutionary principles shared across different weapon modalities?**

Explicit comparisons across mechanical, chemical, electrical, acoustic, and thermal weapons is needed to determine to what degree common rules govern performance, costs, and diversification.

#### **Does phenotypic integration constrain or facilitate responses to environmental change?**

Weapons are often ineffective without phenotypic integration among components and supportive traits. When selection acts on one component, does this result in poorly functioning intermediates, slowing the evolutionary response? Or does selection result in coordinated changes in the entire suite of traits?

#### **What are the evolutionary consequences of weapon multifunctionality?**

Because many weapons serve multiple roles, future research should examine how competing selective pressures shape trade-offs, constrain optimization, and reduce phenotypic integration within weapon systems.

#### **How are weapon mechanics shaped by ecological contexts and phenotypic plasticity?**

Evolutionary biomechanics has often taken a macroevolutionary view. However, the ecological contexts where weapons are grown and used should affect weapon performance and modify evolutionary trajectories.

#### **How do mechanical strength and skill intersect?**

Combat outcomes are often understood as the result of mechanical constraints: more muscle, greater force, and therefore a higher likelihood of victory. But skill, learning, and experience may compensate for material disadvantage—a skilled fighter may yet defeat an opponent that is better-armed, but less skilled. The role of skill thus creates an unresolved tension: to what extent can it temper the supposed dominance of mechanical constraints?

#### **How does perception and interpretation influence the evolution of weapons as signals?**

Sensory and cognitive limitations may decouple weapon appearance from contest performance, potentially shaping diversification through imperfect assessment.

345 **Declaration of interests**

346 The authors declare no competing interests.

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352

353 **Figure Legends**

354 **Figure 1. Five weapon modalities** (from left to right). *Mechanical weapons* are  
355 used to transfer potentially damaging forces via direct physical contact and include  
356 structures such as the canines of the olive baboon, *Papio anubis* [63]. Snails in the  
357 genus *Conus* use a *chemical weapon* delivered via a small harpoon to subdue prey  
358 [9]. *Electrical weapons* include the electrical discharge of electric eels, genus  
359 *Electrophorus*. This weapon first stimulates prey to move and so reveal itself, and  
360 then to freeze, aiding its capture [57]. *Acoustic weapons* include the acoustic  
361 shockwaves produced by pistol shrimp and other snapping shrimp in the Family  
362 Alpheidae. To employ this weapon, a specialized claw is rapidly shut. The collapse of  
363 a cavitation bubble generates an acoustic shockwave with extremely high sound  
364 pressure levels, reaching up to 218 decibels [58]. The shockwave can kill and injure  
365 both prey and conspecific competitors. *Thermal weapons* include the process by  
366 which Japanese honeybees, *Apis cerana japonica*, “cook” their enemy. When a  
367 predatory Asian hornet is captured, numerous bees rapidly engulf the hornet in a  
368 ball. They vibrate their wing muscles to produce heat, reaching 47 °C, which proves  
369 lethal to the hornet but not to the bees [64,65]. While five weapon modalities are  
370 featured here, we do not claim this list of modalities is complete. Illustrations by A.  
371 Whitney Fletcher.

372

373 **Figure 2. The weapon system of bighorn sheep (*Ovis canadensis*).** In the cool  
374 autumn air in North America, the breath of bighorn sheep is visible as males assess,  
375 push, and kick each other. As contests escalate, males rear up on their hindlegs and  
376 crash their head into that of their opponent (above) at a speed that can reach 9 m/s.  
377 Mechanical weapons, the horns and the skull, provide the primary points of contact,  
378 supporting an impact force up to 3400 N [66] (below). The tapered spiral geometry of  
379 the horn and the spongy trabecular bone material within the horn and skull serve to  
380 absorb impact [13,67]. Weapon-supportive traits may include physiological  
381 modifications, such as modulation of hormones and metabolic rate, and adaptations  
382 of the sensory system which allow males to evaluate opponents and decide which  
383 males to attack. Illustrations by David Tuss.

384

385 **Figure 3. Insights gained from the study of animal weapons can be broadly**  
386 **informative to the field of evolutionary biology.** Animal weapons are often under  
387 strong selection to drive fitness gains via, for example, competition over access to  
388 potential mates, prey capture, and predator defense. (A) Tight phenotypic integration  
389 across multiple weapon components and supportive traits is thus expected. For  
390 example, weapon components evolve in a correlated manner in the leaf-footed bugs,  
391 suggesting certain trait combinations improve function [25]. In some cases, the  
392 degree of phenotypic integration may be compromised by (B) multivariate selection  
393 due to multifunctionality, a problem not unique to weapons. However, animal  
394 weapons can provide examples of innovative evolutionary solutions to competing  
395 functions. For example, fiddler crabs (Family: Ocypodidae) use their claws for

396 signaling, fighting, and defense. (C) Long claws are more visible and better for  
397 signaling, but these claws deliver weaker squeezing force at the tips. Some species  
398 have evolved both long claw length and a means to deliver greater squeezing force –  
399 a catching arch and tubercles mid-way along the length – a design that is successful  
400 in both signaling and fighting [27]. Animal weapons that also serve as signals not  
401 only are constrained or modified by selection to maintain the ability to cause physical  
402 harm, but they are also under intricate selection to convey information. Our  
403 diagrammatic adaptation of Shannon’s Information Theory (D) [68], illustrates that  
404 many steps are involved in signaling systems. Information, such as resource holding  
405 potential, is conveyed to a receiver through a transmitter, in this case the antlers of  
406 cervids such as elk or red deer. The signal is affected by noise, which may add  
407 further distortion. Sensory perception is then subject to interpretation, which may be  
408 affected by neurological biases. Consistent differences along this pathway may lead  
409 to evolutionary modifications and diversification in the transmitter and associated  
410 behaviors. In these examples, we feature large sexually selected mechanical  
411 weapons for visual clarity, but these principles apply to weapons across sizes,  
412 modalities, and mechanisms of selection. Figure created by Miranta Kouvari, Melisa  
413 Morales and Emily Green from Science Graphic Design.

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