

1 Indirect genetic effects should make group size highly evolvable

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6

7 Abstract

8 Group size is an important trait in many ecological and evolutionary processes. However, it is not a
9 trait possessed by individuals but by social groups, and as many genomes contribute to group size
10 understanding its genetic underpinnings and so predicting its evolution is a conceptual challenge.
11 Here I present a suggestion for how group size can be modelled as a joint phenotype of multiple
12 individuals, and so how models for evolution accounting for indirect genetic effects are essential for
13 understanding the genetic variance of group size. This approach makes it clear that 1) group size
14 should have a large genetic variance as indirect effects always contribute exactly as much as direct
15 genetic effects and 2) the response to selection of group size should be rapid as the correlation
16 between direct and indirect effects is always at the maximum positive limit of 1. Group size should
17 therefore show rapid evolved increases and decrease, the consequences of which and evidence for I
18 discuss.

19 **Key words:** evolvability, group size, indirect genetic effects, joint phenotypes

20

21 Introduction

22 Understanding the evolution of traits that are jointly contributed to by multiple different organisms
23 and genomes is difficult (Queller, 2014). For example, group size is an important trait as it impacts
24 various ecological and evolutionary processes that are density dependent (e.g., sexual selection;
25 Kokko and Rankin, 2006; McDonald, 2023). However, group size is not the property of one
26 individual, and so its evolution cannot be modelled in the way we might model the trait of an
27 individual such as body mass e.g., by quantifying the narrow-sense heritability and measuring
28 selection on it. Multiple, potentially 1000s, of individuals contribute to group size, with each
29 individual contributing a small and equal amount to the overall size of the group. Further, individuals
30 impact both their own group size and the group size of others when they join and leave groups. For
31 instance, consider two groups of four. If one individual leaves one group and joins another, it

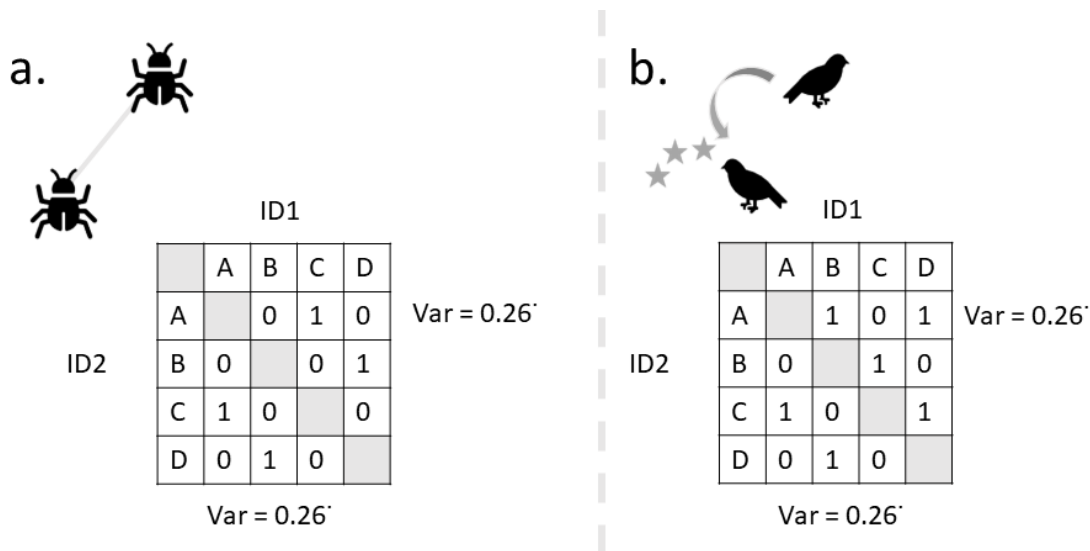
32 changes its own group size from four to five, increases the group size of its four new groupmates
33 from four to five, and decreases the group size of its old groupmates from four to three. An
34 individual's underlying sociability therefore impacts both the group sizes it experiences and those of
35 others in the population. Understanding the genetic variation underpinning the trait at the
36 population level, and so being able to predict the evolutionary change of the sizes of animal groups,
37 therefore represents an important but difficult task (see also: Radersma, 2020 for a similar problem
38 for social network phenotypes).

39 One approach is to consider group memberships at each time point that a population is surveyed.
40 For each possible pair of individuals in the population, the individuals are either in the same group as
41 each other or not (hereafter "paired or not", named distinctly to distinguish from the general
42 concept of being in groups of any size). Being paired or not at a given point in time is therefore a
43 binary trait under control of two individuals (even when overall groups are larger than two, paired or
44 not always refers to two individuals). Note that we are not considering individual's preferences for
45 particular others here, just their general tendency to be with other individuals in the most general
46 sense. We expect that an individual's tendency to be paired or not will be influenced by its
47 underlying sociability or gregariousness (Gartland et al., 2022), a latent trait we cannot directly
48 observe but through how often an individual is paired with others. Additionally, what is key is that,
49 unlike traits that are completely under the control of the focal individual (such as eye colour), the
50 phenotypic and genetic variance of traits influenced by two (or more) individuals, such as being
51 paired or not, has both direct sources, stemming from the focal individual, but also indirect sources,
52 stemming from the partner. In the case of being paired or not, an individual's trait will be influenced
53 by both its own sociability (and genetic variance for that) and the sociability of its partner (and the
54 genetic variance for that; note that the designation of focal and partner is arbitrary). In fact, in this
55 formulation both individuals contribute exactly equally to the trait of being paired or not, and
56 therefore the variance attributable to focal and partner individuals is identical.

57 For a population of size k at a given point in time, it is instructive to represent the paired status as a
58 binary and symmetrical matrix of $k \times k$ dimensions, where cells i, j and j, i are coded as "1" if
59 individuals i and j are paired in the same group and coded as "0" if they are not (the diagonal itself
60 left blank; Fig. 1a). Names of the columns indicate the (arbitrarily defined) focal, while names of the
61 rows indicate the (arbitrarily defined) partner. Note how the matrix in Fig. 1a is symmetrical; there is
62 exactly the same pattern of 0s and 1s on either side of the diagonal. Therefore, the variances of
63 direct and indirect effects for the trait of paired or not are identical. This can be extended to cases
64 where we have data on the number of times two individuals are paired, giving a symmetrical matrix
65 where valued terms replace the 1s. Further, because an individual that is paired as a focal will also

66 be paired as a partner, the correlation between a focal individual's scores and those of its partners
 67 must be exactly 1. The fact that we have exactly identical direct and indirect variances and a perfect,
 68 positive correlation between them has interesting consequences when we consider the evolutionary
 69 potential of the trait of paired or not, and therefore of group size.

70



71

72 **Figure 1.** a. When modelling group size using an indirect genetic effects model, individuals
 73 contribute both to their own values for being paired, and to the values of others. Their contributions
 74 as the focal (ID1) and partner (ID2) are identical, and so the variances are the same and their
 75 correlation is exactly 1. B. When modelling the outcome of dyadic contests for dominance in the
 76 same way, we see that individuals contribute to the outcome both as a focal and as a partner, but in
 77 this case their contributions are exactly opposite, and so, while the variances are equal, the
 78 correlation is exactly -1.

79

80 The evolutionary potential of a trait is defined by its additive genetic variance. Typically, we only
 81 consider the *direct* additive genetic variance, i.e., how the genes in a focal organism influence its
 82 own trait. However, when other individuals influence the trait value, then we must also account for
 83 *indirect* additive genetic variance i.e., how the genes in others influence the trait value (Griffing,
 84 1967; Moore et al., 1997; Scott and Fuller, 1965). Indirect genetic effects can contribute substantial
 85 additional genetic variance to morphological, life history, physiological, and behavioural traits (Ellen
 86 et al., 2014), and as I have argued above must contribute exactly as much to the total genetic
 87 variance of the trait of paired or not as direct genetic effects do. In essence, individuals with genetic
 88 variants that increase their sociability will join groups more often, and therefore will increase the

89 group sizes of other individuals in the population. This greatly increases the evolutionary potential of
 90 the trait, as a small increase (decrease) in sociability across generations will increase (decrease) the
 91 frequency at which individuals join groups, altering the group size of large portions of the
 92 population.

93 To quantify this change in evolutionary potential we can consider the total heritable variance in a
 94 trait with and without indirect genetic effects. Total heritable variance ($\hat{\sigma}_H^2$) in the absence and
 95 presence of indirect genetic effects are shown in *eqs. 1 & 2* respectively (Bijma, 2011). In *eq. 1* it is
 96 simply equal to the direct additive genetic variance ($\sigma_{A_D}^2$).

$$97 \quad \hat{\sigma}_H^2 = \sigma_{A_D}^2 \quad \text{eq. 1}$$

98 In *eq. 2* (including indirect genetic effects) $\hat{\sigma}_H^2$ includes $\sigma_{A_D}^2$, the indirect additive genetic variance
 99 ($\sigma_{A_I}^2$), and twice the covariance between direct and indirect effects ($\sigma_{A_{DS}}$).

$$100 \quad \hat{\sigma}_H^2 = \sigma_{A_D}^2 + 2 \sigma_{A_{DS}} + \sigma_{A_I}^2 \quad \text{eq. 2}$$

101 Note that this is the same calculation as for the more familiar maternal genetic effects model
 102 (Mousseau and Fox, 1998). Note also that in models where more than two individuals interact the
 103 number of interacting individuals (or the group size, n) minus one is included in the calculation
 104 (Bijma and Wade, 2008), but since we are modelling our phenotype as a product of only and always
 105 exactly two individuals interacting, $n-1$ always equals 1 and so does not affect the sum. What is clear
 106 in the case of being paired or not is that, as $\sigma_{A_{DS}}$ is guaranteed to be positive, *eq. 2* will always be
 107 larger, and potentially much larger, than *eq. 1*. Therefore, being paired or not, and so group size, will
 108 have a larger total heritable variance than initially expected based on $\sigma_{A_D}^2$ alone and therefore should
 109 have substantial potential for evolution.

110 Further, when predicting the response to selection, the covariance between direct and indirect
 111 genetic effects can radically alter our estimates. The response to selection (change in mean
 112 phenotype across a single generation; ΔP) in the absence of indirect genetic effects is given in *eq. 3*;
 113 it is simply the product of the selection gradient (β) and the direct additive genetic variance (Bijma
 114 and Wade, 2008; Muir, 2005):

$$115 \quad \Delta P = \beta \sigma_{A_D}^2 \quad \text{eq. 3}$$

116 Meanwhile, the response to selection in the presence of indirect genetic effects includes the direct
 117 indirect genetic covariance:

$$118 \quad \Delta P = \beta [\sigma_{A_D}^2 + \sigma_{A_{DS}}] \quad \text{eq. 4}$$

119 Positive values of σ_{ADS} greatly enhance the response to selection, speeding evolution, while negative
120 values can reduce, remove, or even reverse the response to selection (Bijma et al., 2007; Bijma and
121 Wade, 2008), potentially causing evolutionary change to move in the opposite direction to selection
122 (Fisher and Pruitt, 2019). In the case of being paired or not, as I have argued above, we must have a
123 strong (the strongest possible) positive covariance between direct and indirect genetic effects.
124 Individuals with genes that predispose them to join others and so make groups larger also cause
125 other individuals to be with others and so be in larger groups (or be in a group at all). Therefore,
126 group size has a large evolutionary potential, as both direct and indirect genetic effects must
127 contribute to its total genetic variation, and evolutionary responses will be especially rapid as these
128 direct and indirect effects are also perfectly positively correlated.

129 Interestingly, this is the exact inverse situation to that of another trait expressed jointly: outcomes in
130 dyadic contests for dominance. In the case of dyadic contests, each contest must have one winner
131 and one loser. These outcomes are therefore perfectly *negatively* correlated, as if the focal
132 individual wins its partner always loses, and vice versa. As Wilson *et al.* (2011) have highlighted, the
133 indirect genetic variance for outcomes in dyadic contests must equal the direct genetic variance (as
134 designation of focal and partner is again arbitrary and so both contribute equally to the outcome).
135 Further, the direct-indirect genetic correlation must be -1, as individuals with genes that predispose
136 them to win contests cause other individuals to lose contests. Another way of thinking about this is
137 to consider the matrix in Fig 1b, which shows the outcomes of dyadic contests in a population. This
138 matrix is asymmetrical, where if there is a “1” in a cell in the top right half, there is a “0” in the
139 corresponding cell on the opposite side of the diagonal in the bottom left half, and vice versa. The
140 consequences for the predicted evolution of average dyadic contest outcome are stark: evolutionary
141 change in the trait mean becomes *impossible* as predicted increases through direct effects are
142 always exactly cancelled out by changes in the opposite direct in indirect effects (this appeals to our
143 common sense, half of all in the individuals participating in dyadic contests must lose [trait value of
144 0], while half win [trait value 1], and so the mean trait value can never differ from 0.5, and so should
145 never be able to evolve; Wilson *et al.*, 2011).

146 The cases of paired or not and the outcomes of dyadic contests are exact mirrors of each other; in
147 both cases the direct genetic variance must equal the indirect genetic variance, and for both we
148 expect perfect correlations between direct and indirect genetic effects. However, for paired or not
149 this is a perfect positive correlation (Fig. 1b), while for outcomes of dyadic contests it is perfectly
150 negative (Fig. 1c). Therefore, while for dyadic contest outcome we never expect evolution, for paired
151 or not (and so group size) we expect rapid evolutionary changes (which could be increases or
152 decreases in mean group size).

153 While the above might seem esoteric, the result is actually quite intuitive. If an individual starts off
154 alone, and then joins a group (of size n), they increase not only their own group size (from 1 to $n + 1$)
155 but also the group size of all those already in the group (from n to $n + 1$). If this initially lone
156 individual and the group they join are the only animals in the population, this means the mean group
157 size in the population goes from $(1 + n*n)/(n+ 1)$ to $n + 1$, a rapid increase at the population level
158 given only one individual changed its behaviour (if n was 30 this is an increase from 29.06 to 31). If
159 we imagine the same process, but instead of plastic change within a generation, evolved change
160 across generations, it is easy to see how rapid changes in group size can occur. Even small increases
161 in sociability can lead to a rapid increase in mean group size as not only are the more sociable
162 individuals in larger groups, but even those with the same underlying tendency to be sociable as the
163 previous generation have a higher mean group size, as they are more often being joined by the more
164 sociable individuals. This is true independently of the conceptual framework used to understand it;
165 my use of indirect genetic effects is merely a tool to make accurate predictions about change across
166 generations. It might seem more straightforward to measure sociability directly, and to estimate its
167 heritability and selection on it, but sociability is a latent trait that can only be inferred from
168 observations of individuals interacting with others, and so directly studying it is often not possible.
169 When we observe individuals forming groups, the phenotypes we are observing are inherently a
170 product of at least two genomes, a phenomenon evolutionary the models incorporating indirect
171 genetic effects I highlight here are specifically designed to account for.

172

173 [Consequences of the high evolvability of group size](#)

174 The primary consequence of the large total heritable variance in group size is that we expect to see
175 rapid increases (decreases) across generations in mean group size when selection favours
176 (disfavours) larger groups. Group size is commonly linked to fitness, as it can provide protection for
177 predators and access to mates and other resources, but also be associated with increased food
178 competition and exposure to disease. Variation in group size may therefore often be linked to
179 variation in fitness, and so individual sociability may be under selection in a range of systems
180 (Gartland et al., 2022; Snyder-Mackler et al., 2020). Given we now expect a high degree of genetic
181 variation in group size, evolved changes should be common, albeit I have no general expectations
182 about a direction (i.e., I do not expect animals to be typically evolving to live in larger or smaller
183 groups). In the presence of consistent directional selection, we expect group sizes to rapidly evolve
184 in line with selection (eq. 4). Even if selection was weak and highly variable in direction, we would
185 still expect relatively rapid changes in group size across generations as there is large amounts of
186 genetic variation, but these will be both increases and decreases, and so mean group sizes should be

187 highly variable around a mean value over evolutionary time. A caveat to this is that the trait of
188 paired or not could have exceptionally low direct genetic variance, if the tendency to be paired is
189 strongly influenced by environmental effects such as current resource availability or predation risk.
190 Therefore, even the addition of indirect effects may not raise the total heritable variance to a
191 particularly high level, keeping the rate of evolutionary change low. Directly estimating the direct
192 and indirect genetic variance in the tendency to be in pairs in wild populations is key for
193 understanding the traits evolutionary potential, and therefore the evolutionary potential of group
194 size.

195 A high variability of group size over evolutionary timescales would mean that other ecological and
196 evolutionary processes that depend on group size should also be highly variable. For instance, the
197 spread of an infection through a population can depend on the typical group size, if transmission is
198 fast within groups and not between them (Nunn et al., 2015). Fewer, larger groups will then allow a
199 faster spread than many small groups. If group sizes are variable across generations, then the speed
200 of disease spread, or indeed any processes that is influenced by group size, will also be highly
201 variable. This high degree of variability means that making predictions for timescales encompassing
202 multiple generations will be difficult.

203 In the presence of direct selection for larger groups, we would expect to see a rapid increase in
204 group size. For short-lived species such as some insects, multiple generations can occur in a year or
205 even season, and so evolved changes in group size might be observably on those timescales. We
206 already are aware that large aggregations of pest insects can appear seemingly from nowhere, with
207 plastic changes in aggregative behaviour assumed to be behind this (Simpson et al., 1999). However,
208 evolved changes in sociability and therefore group size might also contribute, given that those
209 changes could be very rapid.

210

211 Evidence for the evolvability of group size

212 Above I have outlined that we expect group size to be highly evolvable, given that there should be
213 genetic variance from indirect and well as direct sources in the tendency to be paired with other
214 individuals, and the covariance between these will always be positive. Is there any empirical
215 evidence that allows us to evaluate whether this is the case or not? The one case study I am aware
216 of indicated that sociability does indeed have genetic variance, and responds to selection, but we
217 cannot evaluate whether it is at the pace expected. Scott *et al.* have determined that sociability is
218 heritable in both male ($h^2 = 0.24$) and female ($h^2 = 0.21$) fruit flies *Drosophila melanogaster* (Scott et
219 al., 2018), and that it increases (decrease) in response to artificial selection for higher (lower)

220 sociability (Scott et al., 2022). In their study, sociability was measured by allowing arenas containing
221 16 flies to form groups, and so was analogous to being paired or not and also mean group size (Scott
222 et al., 2022). They have therefore effectively assessed whether mean group size responds to artificial
223 selection. They found it did, with an increase of 40% in females and 54% in males over 25
224 generations. Scott et al. (2022) performed within-group selection, taking the four most (or least for
225 the down-selection lines) sociable flies in each of 12 groups for males and females per generation.
226 This mode of selection does not take advantage of any genetic variation among groups (Muir, 2005;
227 Muir et al., 2013), and so it is not clear whether the observed response is faster or slower than that
228 expected by the narrow sense heritabilities found in their earlier work. Nevertheless, this study does
229 at least show that group size responds to artificial selection, and so must possess some genetic
230 variance. Further work would need to select for the most sociable across all individuals within a
231 population, not just within each group, and measure the increase of group size across generations,
232 in order to test the prediction that the evolution of group size should be especially rapid.

233

234 Indirect effects on sociability itself

235 A final consideration is that the sociability itself of an individual is may be influenced by indirect
236 genetic effects. An individual's decision to join or leave groups may be influenced by the traits of the
237 other individuals already in those groups. If those traits are partly genetically determined, then there
238 will be indirect genetic effects on sociability (Fisher, 2023). Therefore, an individual's *willingness* to
239 join a group will be influenced by the genes of others (Fisher, 2023), but also its *realised* group size
240 will be influenced by the genes others (this article). The overall heritability of group size may
241 therefore be influenced by direct genetic effects for sociability (individuals' have an underlying
242 preference to be with others that is partly genetically determined), indirect genetic effects for
243 sociability (an individual's preference to be with others depends on their traits and therefore also
244 their genes), and indirect genetic effects for group size (the sociability of others, and therefore their
245 genes, influences the realised group size of an individual), plus the covariances among these
246 components. Predicting the outcome of this is complicated, but parallels may be drawn with models
247 for the heritability of social phenotypes in social networks using latent variables representing the
248 tendency to be social and the contribution to social associations (Radersma, 2020).

249

250 Conclusions

251 In summary, I have suggested that the evolution of group size can be understood using an indirect
252 genetic effects model. This model predicts that group size should have a large genetic variance and

253 so should respond very rapidly to selection. This high evolvability will increase the variability in
254 demographic, ecological, and evolutionary processes that depend on group size. Testing whether
255 this prediction is true or not is the next step.

256

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260

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