



**HAL**  
open science

# Which cues are sexy? The evolution of mate preference in sympatric species reveals the contrasted effect of adaptation and reproductive interference

Ludovic Maisonneuve, Charline Smadi, Violaine Llaurens

## ► To cite this version:

Ludovic Maisonneuve, Charline Smadi, Violaine Llaurens. Which cues are sexy? The evolution of mate preference in sympatric species reveals the contrasted effect of adaptation and reproductive interference. *Evolution Letters*, 2024, pp.1-37. 10.1093/evlett/qrad058 . hal-04289183

**HAL Id: hal-04289183**

**<https://hal.science/hal-04289183v1>**

Submitted on 22 Nov 2023

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# Which cues are sexy? The evolution of mate preference in sympatric species reveals the contrasted effect of adaptation and reproductive interference.

Ludovic Maisonneuve<sup>1,\*</sup>, Charline Smadi<sup>2</sup>, Violaine Llaurens<sup>1</sup>

1. Institut de Systématique, Evolution, Biodiversité (ISYEB), Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, CNRS, Sorbonne Université, EPHE, Université des Antilles CP 50, 57 rue Cuvier, 75005 Paris, France;

2. Univ. Grenoble Alpes, INRAE, LESSEM, F-38402 St-Martin-d'Hères, France and Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, Institut Fourier, 38610 Gières, France;

\* Corresponding author; e-mail: ludovic.maisonneuve.2015@polytechnique.org.

*Keywords:* Mate preference, Preference for multiple traits, Good gene, Species recognition, Speciation, Theory, Population genetics.

## Abstract

2 Mate preferences may target traits (1) enhancing offspring adaptation and (2) reducing heterospecific matings. Because similar selective pressures are acting on traits shared by different sympatric  
4 species, preference enhancing offspring adaptation may increase heterospecific mating, in sharp contrast with the classical case of so-called 'magic traits'. Using a mathematical model, we study  
6 which and how many traits will be used during mate choice, when preferences for locally adapted traits increase heterospecific mating. In particular, we study the evolution of preference towards  
8 an adaptive *vs.* a neutral trait in sympatric species. We take into account sensory trade-offs which may limit the emergence of preference for several traits. Our model highlights that the evolution  
10 of preference towards adaptive *vs.* neutral traits depends on the selective regimes acting on traits but also on heterospecific interactions. When the costs of heterospecific interactions are high, mate  
12 preference is likely to target neutral traits that become a reliable cue limiting heterospecific matings. We show that the evolution of preference towards a neutral trait benefits from a positive feedback  
14 loop: the more preference targets the neutral trait, the more it becomes a reliable cue for species recognition. We then reveal the key role of sensory trade-offs and the cost of choosiness favouring  
16 the evolution of preferences targeting adaptive traits, rather than traits reducing heterospecific mating. When sensory trade-offs and the cost of choosiness are low, we also show that preferences  
18 targeting multiple traits evolve, improving offspring fitness by both transmitting adapted alleles and reducing heterospecific mating. Altogether, our model aims at reconciling 'good gene' and  
20 reinforcement models to provide general predictions on the evolution of mate preferences within natural communities.

## 22 Impact Summary

Mate preferences are widespread throughout the animal kingdom and generate powerful selective  
24 forces impacting the diversification of traits and species. The evolution of such preferences has been the focus of multiple theoretical and empirical studies and intense scientific debates. The evolution  
26 of mate preference (1) enhancing offspring fitness and (2) reducing heterospecific mating have been mostly studied separately, except in the specific case of preference for so-called 'magic traits' that  
28 increase both offspring survival and species divergence. However, in many cases, the evolution of traits in sympatric species generates conflicting evolutionary forces acting on preferences. On one  
30 hand, enhanced offspring survival promotes preference towards locally adaptive traits and may thus lead to convergent evolution of traits among sympatric species. On the other hand, the evolution of  
32 similar traits in sympatric species may generate costly heterospecific sexual interactions promoting preference towards traits that diverge between species. Here, we thus build a general mathematical  
34 model to investigate the evolutionary factors determining which and how many traits are targeted by mate choice. We especially determine whether preferences will likely target adaptive *vs.* neutral  
36 traits. Our model highlights that the evolution of preferences for adaptive *vs.* neutral traits in sympatric species depends on within-species mating opportunities but also on the niche overlap  
38 between species, tuning heterospecific interactions. By jointly considering (1) the selection regimes acting on the targeted traits within species, as well as (2) interactions with other species living in  
40 sympatry, our theoretical study provides a general framework reconciling these research fields.

## Introduction

42 The evolution of mate preference plays a major role in diversifying traits (Chouteau et al., 2017)  
43 and species (Stre et al., 1997). Nevertheless, we still know little about the evolutionary factors  
44 determining the traits preferentially targeted by preferences. Preferences target traits displayed by  
45 the parents, but their evolution may depend on the indirect fitness benefit brought to the offspring  
46 carrying locally adapted traits (Neff and Pitcher, 2005). The evolution of mate preference depends  
47 not only on intraspecific competition but also on the ecological interactions with sympatric species.  
48 When species occur in sympatry, sexual interactions with heterospecifics (Gröning and Hochkirch,  
49 2008) can lead to fitness reduction because of limited survival in the resulting hybrids (Merrill et al.,  
50 2012), but also because of costly heterospecific courtship and rivalry. These fitness costs generated  
51 by heterospecific interactions can promote mate preferences targeting traits that differ between  
52 species (McPeck and Gavrilets, 2006; Yamaguchi and Iwasa, 2013). The evolution of preferences  
53 may thus depend on both (1) the selection regimes acting on the targeted traits within species and  
54 (2) the distribution of these traits in other species living in sympatry. Such multifactorial selection  
55 acting on the different traits displayed by males may then favour the evolution of female preferences  
56 targeting several traits. Preference for multiple cues may improve some components of fitness in  
57 the offspring and/or limit heterospecific matings (Candolin, 2003).

58 However, by contrast with classical 'magic' traits under disruptive selection (Servedio et al.,  
59 2011), natural selection frequently promotes similar traits in different sympatric species (*e.g.* in  
60 mimetic species, (Sherratt, 2008)). Indirect fitness benefits enjoyed by the offspring may promote  
61 preference increasing the risk of heterospecific matings (*e.g.* (Gumm and Gabor, 2005; Higgie  
62 and Blows, 2007)). Preferences targeting multiple traits may then improve offspring fitness by  
63 both transmitting adapted alleles and reducing heterospecific mating (Candolin, 2003). However,  
64 several constraints might limit the number of traits targeted by preference (Schluter and Price,  
65 1993; Pomiankowski and Iwasa, 1993; Iwasa and Pomiankowski, 1994). The number of available  
66 partners displaying the preferred combination of traits may also impact the evolution of preference  
67 for multiple traits. The cost of choosiness associated with rejecting unpreferred males by choosy  
68 females may increase when the number of targeted traits grows. The complex cognitive processes  
69 involved may also limit the evolution of preference for multiple traits (Crapon de Caprona and  
70 Ryan, 1990).

71 Here, we propose a general mathematical framework to predict the trait targeted by mate choice,  
72 when preferences for locally adapted traits increase heterospecific mating. We use mathematical  
73 modelling to investigate the evolution of preference based on multiple traits, assuming sensory  
74 trade-offs impacting the relative perception of different mating cues. We study the evolution of  
75 preference towards two evolving traits ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ) shared by a pair sympatric species ( $A$  and  $B$ ).  
76 We assume that selection regimes acting on traits increase species similarity. We aim at identifying  
77 how selection regimes acting on the targeted traits, as well as reproductive interference between  
78 species, favour (1) preference for locally adapted trait *vs.* trait reducing heterospecific mating and  
(2) preference for single *vs.* multiple traits.

## 80 Method

### Model overview

82 We consider two sympatric species ( $A$  and  $B$ ) and assume that individuals from both species display two traits that female preferences could target. We assume that both traits are controlled  
84 by independent haploid loci (called  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively), with two possible alleles 0 or 1 at each locus. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that alleles 0 or 1 code for trait values 0 or 1,  
86 respectively. We fix the genotypic distribution in species  $B$  by assuming that all individuals carry the allele 1 at both trait loci. We assume that a parameter  $\rho$  modulates the strength of female  
88 preferences. The loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  then determine the value of traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively, preferred by females. Female preference can target either or both traits ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ) displayed by the males:  
90 a preference locus  $M$  controls the relative level of attention paid by the female toward trait  $T_1$  *vs.* trait  $T_2$  expressed by males. We thus introduced  $\gamma$  as the *relative preference weighting*, modulating  
92 the level of attention on either trait (Figure 1). We assume that a resident and a mutant alleles can occur at locus  $M$  with different values of  $\gamma$  ( $\gamma_r$  and  $\gamma_m$ ). We then study the evolution of the *relative*  
94 *preference weighting* in focal species  $A$ . Assuming non-overlapping generations and relying on an adaptive dynamics framework, we investigate the fixation of new mutant alleles and estimate the  
96 equilibrium *relative preference weighting* ( $\gamma^*$ ). The ancestral *relative preference weighting* is given by  $\gamma_{t_0}$ .

98 The evolution of the *relative preference weighting* depends on the survival of the produced offspring. We thus assume that the traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  displayed by the individuals can modify their  
100 survival.  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  gives the selective advantages of allele 1 at locus  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively. We assume that  $s_1 \geq 0$  and  $s_2 \geq 0$  so that natural selection acts within species  $A$  promotes similarity  
102 with species  $B$  (recall that allele 1 is fixed for both traits in species  $B$ ). We also assume that females can encounter and have sexual interactions with heterospecifics. Such sexual interactions lead to  
104 fitness costs but do not produce any viable offspring.

To model a sensory trade-off acting on preferences, we also assume that the level of attention  
106 on one trait diminishes the attention on the alternative one. We investigate several shapes of this trade-off tuned by the parameter  $a$  (Figure 1). Finally, we assume that after refusing a mating  
108 opportunity females may not encounter another male with a probability  $c$ , leading to a cost of choosiness. We investigate how the cognitive trade-off and the costs of choosiness impact the  
110 evolution of the direction of preference, which might lead to a preference for either a single or multiple traits.

### 112 Selection regime acting on the displayed traits

We assume that individuals display two different traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , each controlled by a single  
114 biallelic locus. We assume that the traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  displayed by the individuals can modify their survival. Let  $\mathcal{G} = \{0, 1\}^5$ , be the set of all genotypes at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  and  $M$ . We define  $f_i$   
116 and  $f'_i$  as the frequencies of genotype  $i \in \mathcal{G}$  in the focal species before and after a step of natural selection acting on survival, respectively. The resulting frequency after selection,  $f'_i$  is then given  
118 by

$$f'_i = \frac{w_i}{\bar{w}} f_i, \quad (1)$$

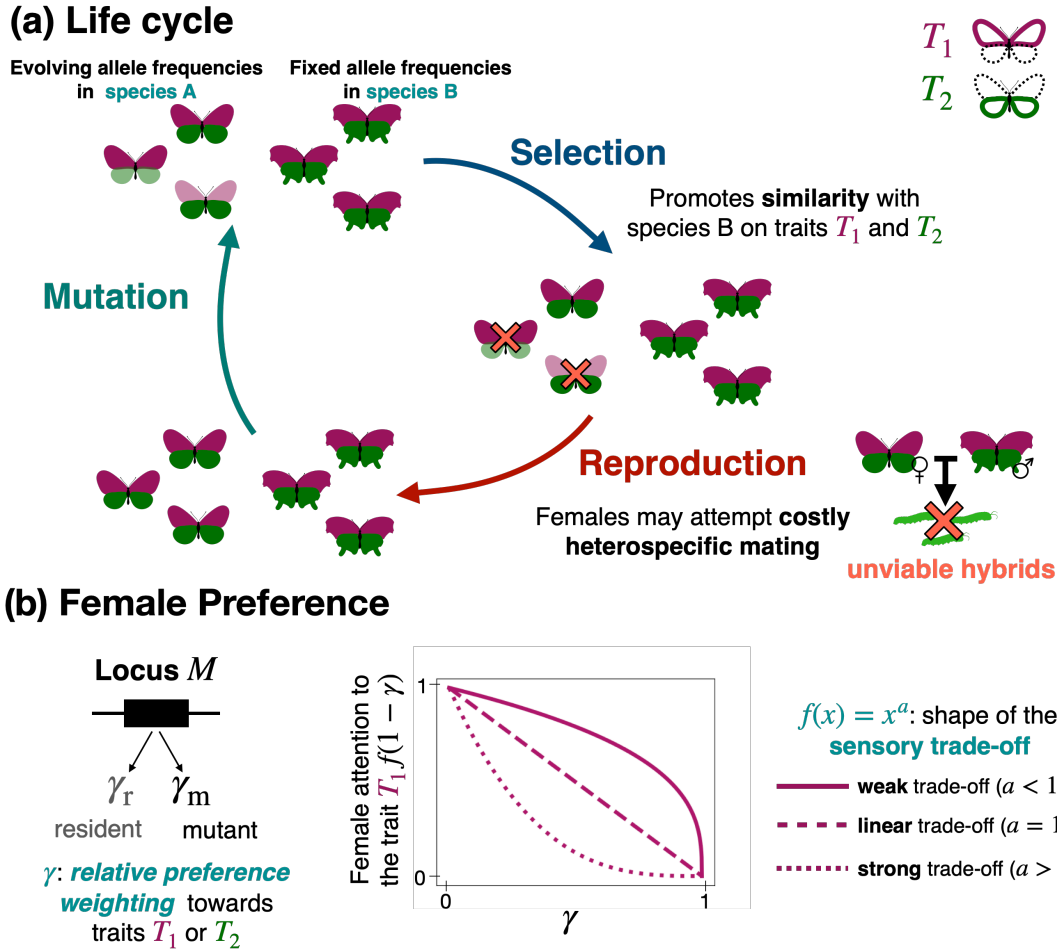


Figure 1: Schematic description of the model. (a) Life cycle. The evolution of the preference may depend on the interactions between species and natural selection acting on the preferred traits. Here, we assume two sympatric species,  $A$  and  $B$ , depicted in this scheme as butterfly species with different wing shapes. The individuals can display two traits,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , represented by the forewing and hindwing colours as an example. We study the coevolution of the trait values (0 or 1, shown as intense *vs.* light colour of the wings) and the preference in species  $A$ . We assume that all individuals in species  $B$  displayed the trait value 1 (intense colour) at both traits. We assume a selection step, promoting trait value 1 at both traits in species  $A$ , increasing similarity with species  $B$ , where value 1 is fixed for both traits. We then assume a reproduction step, where the mating success of the different individuals in species  $A$  depends on the traits and preferences carried by males and females. In particular, females of species  $A$  may attempt costly and unfertile sexual interactions with males of species  $B$  depending on their preferences. (b) Genetic basis of preference. Depending on the genotype at locus  $M$ , females modulate their level of attention towards either trait displayed by males (*relative preference weighting*  $\gamma$ ). We also assume that the level of attention on one trait diminishes the attention on the alternative one. We investigate several shapes of this trade-off tuned by the parameter  $a$ .

120 where  $w_i$  is the fitness of an individual of genotype  $i$  during natural selection, and the mean fitness  $\bar{w}$  is a normalisation term to ensure that genotype frequencies sum to 1 after selection.

122 
$$\bar{w} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{G}} w_i f_i. \quad (2)$$

We recall that  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are the selective advantages of allele 1 at locus  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , respectively. The fitness component due to the natural selection of an individual of genotype  $i$  is thus given by:

$$w_i = (1 + (T_1)_i s_1) (1 + (T_2)_i s_2), \quad (3)$$

where  $(T_1)_i$  and  $(T_2)_i$  refer to the allele (0 or 1) an individual of genotype  $i$  carries at loci  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  respectively (following Kirkpatrick et al. (2002)). For example,  $(T_1)_i = 1$  and  $(T_2)_i = 0$  for an individual carrying allele 1 at locus  $T_1$  and allele 0 at locus  $T_2$ .

## Reproductive success depending on female preference on traits displayed by males

### Preference based on multiple traits

Females generally use both traits in mate choice but may vary in their relative attention given to trait  $T_1$  vs. trait  $T_2$ . This relative attention depends on the *relative preference weighting* parameter  $\gamma$ . Alleles at locus  $M$  determine the *relative preference weighting*: allele 0 (resp. 1) is associated with the value  $\gamma_r$  (resp.  $\gamma_m$ ). Translating into an equation, the *relative preference weighting* of a female of genotype  $j$  is thus given by:

$$\gamma_j = (1 - (M)_j) \gamma_r + (M)_j \gamma_m, \quad (4)$$

where  $(M)_j$  is the allele (0 or 1) at locus  $M$  in genotype  $j$ . We assume that a cognitive trade-off, described by the function  $f$ , also impacts the relative attention to the two traits.  $f(1 - \gamma)$  and  $f(\gamma)$  determine the attention on trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  where  $a \in [0, +\infty)$  and

$$f(x) = x^a, \forall x \in [0, 1]. \quad (5)$$

The function  $f$  is non-decreasing, so attention on one trait diminishes attention on the alternative trait. Moreover,  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 1$ , so the female choice relies on a single trait in the two extreme cases. The parameter  $a$  tunes the shape of the trade-off function  $f$  (Figure 1):

- when  $a = 1$ ,  $f$  is linear, leading to a **linear trade-off**, where the female attention on traits 1 (resp. 2) is proportional to  $1 - \gamma$  (resp.  $\gamma$ ).
- when  $a < 1$ ,  $f$  is concave, leading to a **weak trade-off** between attention towards the two male traits. Females can thus use both traits for mate choice.
- when  $a > 1$ ,  $f$  is convex, leading to a **strong trade-off** in female attention between the two traits. Females focusing on one trait largely ignore the alternative trait, and intermediate values of  $\gamma$  lead on poor attention to both traits.

Therefore, when a female of genotype  $j$  encounters a male of genotype  $k$ , she accepts the male with probability

$$\phi(j, k) = \left(1 - \mathbb{1}_{(P_1)_j \neq (T_1)_k} \rho f(1 - \gamma_j)\right) \left(1 - \mathbb{1}_{(P_2)_j \neq (T_2)_k} \rho f(\gamma_j)\right), \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathbb{1}_{\{\cdot\}}$  is the indicator function that returns 1 if the condition in the subscript is realised and 0 otherwise. The mating probability for a pair composed of a female with genotype  $j$  and a male with genotype  $k$  depends on the match between the female's preferred traits (given by  $(P_1)_j$  and  $(P_2)_j$ ) and the male's traits values (given by  $(T_1)_k$  and  $(T_2)_k$ ). When the female does not prefer the male traits (either  $(P_1)_j \neq (T_1)_k$  or  $(P_2)_j \neq (T_2)_k$ ), the female tends to reject the male. The parameter  $\rho$  quantifies the strength of female preference.

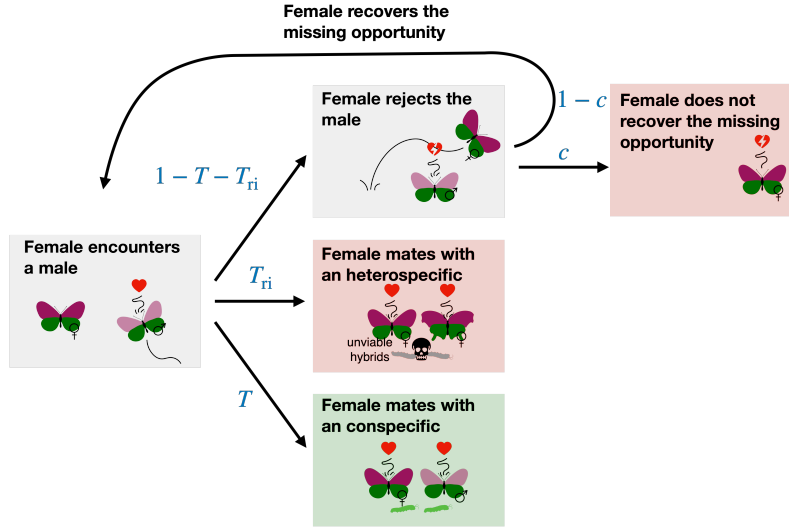


Figure 2: **Illustration of the mating process.** We assume that females can mate at most once. We assume that each female meets sequentially random males, which can be either conspecifics or heterospecifics. At each encounter, the female accepts or rejects the male with a probability depending on the female’s preference and the male’s traits. After an encounter, a female accepts a conspecific (resp. heterospecific) male with probability  $T$  (resp.  $T_{ri}$ ). If a female engages in heterospecific mating, she produces totally unviable offspring. Because females mate at most once, a female engaged in a heterospecific mating cannot recover the associated fitness loss. Moreover, we assume that females refusing a mating opportunity can encounter another male with a probability of  $1 - c$ . We interpret  $c$  as the cost of choosiness.

### Mating process

162 We assume that females can mate at most once. We assume that each female sequentially meets  
 163 males in a random order. These males can be either conspecifics or heterospecifics (see Figure 2  
 164 for an illustration of the mating process). At each encountering event, the female may accept the  
 165 male with a probability depending on her preference and on the traits displayed by the encountered  
 166 male.

167 Given that a female of genotype  $j$  encounters a male uniformly at random,  $T(j)$  gives the realized  
 168 probability that a female of genotype  $j$  accepts a conspecific (Otto et al., 2008):

$$T(j) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{G}} \underbrace{\frac{N}{N + \tilde{N}} f'_k}_{\text{probability of encountering a conspecific male of genotype } k} \times \underbrace{\phi(j, k)}_{\text{probability of accepting a conspecific male of genotype } k}, \quad (7)$$

170 where  $N$  and  $\tilde{N}$  are species  $A$  and  $B$  densities, respectively.  $T(j)$  depends on (1) the probability  
 171 of encountering a conspecific *vs.* a heterospecific male, (2) on the distribution of traits within  
 172 conspecific males and (3) on female preference.



A female of genotype  $j$  may also accept a heterospecific male with a probability

$$T_{\text{ri}}(j) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{G}} \overbrace{\frac{\tilde{N}}{N + \tilde{N}} \tilde{f}_k}^{\text{probability of encountering an heterospecific male of genotype } k} \times \overbrace{c_{\text{ri}} \phi(j, k)}^{\text{probability of accepting an heterospecific male of genotype } k}, \quad (8)$$

where  $c_{\text{ri}} \in [0, 1]$  modulates the probability for the female to accept heterospecific males. This parameter may capture the effect of other unmodelled traits the females can assess, and tunes the strength of reproductive interference. We assume a same genetic architecture of traits in species  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $\tilde{f}_k$  is the frequency of genotype  $k$  in species  $B$ . We assume that the allele 1 is fixed at both trait loci ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ) in species  $B$ . We assume that heterospecific crosses produce totally unviable offspring. Because females mate at most once, a female engaged in a heterospecific mating cannot recover the associated fitness loss.

However, we assume that females refusing a mating opportunity encounter another male with a probability of  $1 - c$ . We interpret  $c$  as the cost of choosiness. The probability that a female of genotype  $j$  mates with a conspecific male is thus given by

$$\mathcal{P}(j) = \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} ((1 - T(j) - T_{\text{ri}}(j)) (1 - c))^n T(j) = \frac{T(j)}{c + (1 - c)(T(j) + T_{\text{ri}}(j))} \quad (9)$$

where  $((1 - T(j) - T_{\text{ri}}(j)) (1 - c))^n$  is the probability that a female of genotype  $j$  rejects the  $n$  males she first encounters and then encounters an  $(n + 1)$ -th male.

### Mating success of a pair

We now compute the mating success of a pair. Knowing that a female of genotype  $j$  has mated with a conspecific male, the probability that this male is of genotype  $k$  is given by

$$\Phi(j, k) = \frac{\phi(j, k) f'_k}{\sum_{l \in \mathcal{G}} \phi(j, l) f'_l}. \quad (10)$$

The contribution to the next generation of a mating between a female of genotype  $j$  and a male of genotype  $k$   $m_{j,k}$  is thus given by the product of (1) the probability that a female of genotype  $j$  mates with a conspecific male  $\mathcal{P}(j)$  with (2) the probability the female mates with a male of genotype  $k$  knowing that the female has mated with a conspecific male  $\Phi(j, k)$

$$m_{j,k} = \frac{T(j)}{c + (1 - c)(T(j) + T_{\text{ri}}(j))} \frac{\phi(j, k)}{\sum_l f'_l \phi(j, l)}. \quad (11)$$

Genotypic frequencies after reproduction in the focal species then depend on the contribution to the next generation of the different crosses between females and males of genotype  $j$  and  $k$ , respectively, described by  $m_{j,k}$ , for all  $j$  and  $k$  in  $\mathcal{G}$ . We note  $\bar{m}$  the mean value of this contribution across all mating pairs

$$\bar{m} = \sum_{j,k \in \mathcal{G}} f'_j f'_k m_{j,k}. \quad (12)$$

202 The frequency after reproduction of genotype  $i$  in species A is then given by

$$f_i'' = \sum_{j,k \in \mathcal{G}} f_j' f_k' \frac{m_{j,k}}{\bar{m}} \beta(i, j, k), \quad (13)$$

204 where  $\beta(i, j, k)$  the probability that a mating between a female of genotype  $j$  and a male of genotype  
 206  $k$  produces an offspring of genotype  $i$ .  $\beta(i, j, k)$  describes the segregation of alleles during reproduction. We assume recombination between female and male haplotypes. The offspring inherits any of the two recombined haplotypes with a probability one half.

## 208 Mutation

We assume that mutations occur at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  within offspring with probability  $u_{T_1}$ ,  
 210  $u_{T_2}$ ,  $u_{P_1}$  and  $u_{P_2}$  respectively.

212 We summarise all the model's variables and parameters in Table A1.

## Model exploration

### 214 Invasion analyses

In an adaptive dynamics framework, we study the invasion of a rare mutant at locus  $M$  associated  
 216 with the value of *relative preference weighting*  $\gamma_m$  in a resident population where the resident allele  
 codes for the value  $\gamma_r$ . We assume that the mutation has a small effect, so that  $\gamma_r - \gamma_m$  is small.  
 218 Before the mutant introduction, we assume that genotypic frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$   
 evolve toward equilibrium allelic frequency values named  $P_{T_1}^*$ ,  $P_{T_2}^*$ ,  $P_{P_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_2}^*$ . Initially, we  
 220 assume no genetic association. For the parameters space explored in this study, the initial allele  
 frequencies have no impact on the evolutionary dynamics (see Appendix A2). Studying mutant  
 222 invasion for all possible resident populations, we estimate the different types of singular *relative  
 preference weightings* numerically (Rousset, 2004; Geritz et al., 1998):

- 224 • *Continuously stable relative preference weighting*: The model predicts a convergent evolution  
 toward this gamma value, and once this value is reached, any mutant associated with other  
 226 gamma value will then fail to invade.
- *Evolutionary repeller*: The model predicts that the evolution of gamma will always strongly  
 228 depart from this value.
- *Branching point*: The model predicts a convergent evolution toward this gamma value, but  
 230 once this value is reached, mutants associated with other gamma value will invade, leading to  
 polymorphism (never observed in this study).

232 We determine the equilibrium *relative preference weighting* ( $\gamma^*$ ) *i.e.* the continuously stable *relative  
 preference weighting* reached by the dynamics that may depend on ancestral preference ( $\gamma_{t_0}$ ). By  
 234 default, we assume that ancestral preference equally targets both traits ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 1/2$ ).

## QLE analysis

236 Assessing mutant invasion would first require to estimate the  $2^4 - 1 = 15$  equilibrium genotypic  
 238 frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in the resident population (with the resident allele fixed at  
 240 locus  $M$ ). Then, the  $2^5 - 1 = 31$  genotypic frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  and  $M$  would need to  
 242 be tracked down throughout the generations following mutant introduction, to determine whether  
 244 the mutant allele invades. To simplify the model analyses, we perform a Quasi-Linkage Equilibrium  
 (QLE) analysis. The QLE approach allows to analytically estimate the change in allele frequencies  
 and in genetic associations (Kirkpatrick et al., 2002). Under the QLE hypotheses, the genetic  
 associations quickly reach their equilibrium value (Nagylaki, 1993), so they can be approximated  
 by their equilibrium value (Kirkpatrick et al., 2002). Using the estimated change of allele frequencies  
 at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  under QLE approximation, we compute the equilibrium allele frequencies  
 at these loci before mutant introduction. We then use the sign of the change of mutant allele  
 frequency in the resident population under QLE approximation to assess mutant invasion.

248 We compute the selection gradient  $S$  by rewriting the approximated change of mutant frequency  
 under QLE (given in Equation (A10))

$$250 \quad \Delta P_M = P_M(1 - P_M)\delta\gamma S, \quad (14)$$

where  $\delta\gamma = \gamma_m - \gamma_r$  is the effect of the mutant allele on the *relative preference weighting*. When the  
 252 selection gradient is positive (resp. negative), selection promotes the evolution of preference towards  
 the trait  $T_2$  (resp.  $T_1$ ). Using the selection gradient  $S$ , we can disentangle the relative effects of  
 254 the different selection pressures acting on the evolution of the *relative preference weighting*. We  
 decompose the selection gradient in four terms

$$256 \quad S = S_{os} + S_{or} + S_{ri} + S_c, \quad (15)$$

where  $S_{os}$ ,  $S_{or}$ ,  $S_{ri}$  and  $S_c$  (those expression are given in Equations (A21), (A22), (A16) and (A18)),  
 258 captures the effect of offspring survival, offspring reproductive success, reproductive interference and  
 cost of choosiness on mutant fitness respectively. More precisely,  $S_{os}$  and  $S_{or}$  capture the indirect  
 260 fitness benefit of producing offspring carrying locally adapted and sexy traits, respectively.  $S_{ri}$  and  
 $S_c$  capture the direct fitness benefit for a female of reducing heterospecific mating and the cost of  
 262 choosiness.

The QLE analysis assumes that selection is weak and recombination is strong compared to  
 264 selection. In line with this hypothesis, we assume that  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$ ,  $\rho$ ,  $c_{ri}$ ,  $c$  are of order  $\varepsilon$  with  $\varepsilon$  being  
 small and recombination rates of order 1. We also assume that mutation rates are of order  $\varepsilon$ . We  
 266 perform the QLE analysis using Wolfram Mathematica 12.0, and provide detailed results of these  
 analyses in Appendix A1.

268 To check the robustness of specific results, we also run numerical analyses, relaxing the QLE  
 assumptions (*e.g.* Figure A5).

## 270 Default parameters

If not specified we use the following parameter values:  $\gamma_{t_0} = 1/2$ ,  $\tilde{P}_{T_1} = \tilde{P}_{T_2} = 1$ ,  $s_1 = s_2 = 0$ ,  
 272  $\rho = 0.01$ ,  $c = 0$ ,  $c_{ri} = 0$ ,  $a = e^{-1}$ ,  $N = \tilde{N} = 10$ ,  $u_{T_1} = u_{T_2} = 0.002$ ,  $u_{P_1} = u_{P_2} = 0.00002$ .

## Results

### 274 'Good genes' *vs.* reinforcement

276 To explore the evolution of preference enhancing offspring fitness *vs.* reducing heterospecific mating,  
 278 we computed the equilibrium value of the *relative preference weighting*  $\gamma^*$  when assuming that  
 natural selection acts on trait  $T_1$ , increasing similarity with species  $B$  ( $s_1 > 0$ ), while the trait  $T_2$   
 is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ). We investigate different strengths of natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  ( $s_1$ )  
 and reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ) (Figure 3).

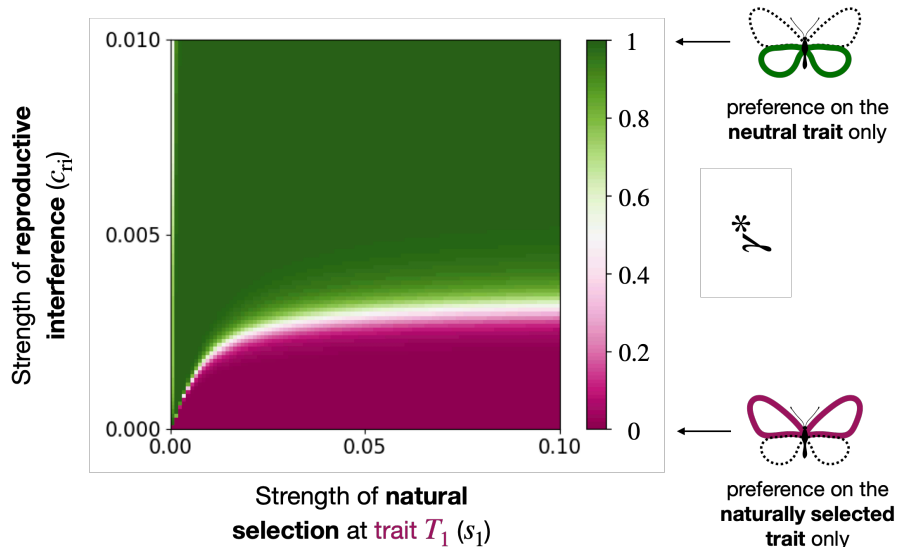


Figure 3: Evolution of *relative preference weighting* towards a trait under selection  $T_1$  or a neutral trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ), depending on the strength of natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  ( $s_1$ ) and the strength of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ) when  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).

### 280 The neutral trait becomes a reliable cue for species recognition

282 Assuming that the two species do not sexually interact ( $c_{ri} = 0$ ), the model predicts that female  
 preference will target the trait under selection  $T_1$  (Figure 3). In contrast, assuming reproductive  
 284 interference between the two sympatric species promotes the evolution of preference targeting the  
 neutral trait  $T_2$ . A female of species  $A$  prefers trait value 0 (Figure A2), reducing sexual interaction  
 286 with males from species  $B$  always displaying the trait value 1 (see Equation (A6)). Sexual selection  
 thus increases the phenotypic divergence with heterospecific (see Equation (A1)), making the neutral  
 trait  $T_2$  a more reliable cue for species recognition in species  $A$ .

288 Figure 4(c) confirms that the selective advantage owing to reproductive interference rises when  
 the resident preference tends to target the neutral trait. When preference towards the neutral trait  
 290  $T_2$  increases, the stronger sexual selection enhances the phenotypic divergence with heterospecific  
 (Figure A3), making  $T_2$  a more reliable cue for species recognition. Then in an adaptive dynamic

**Decomposition of the fitness gradient into terms associated with:**

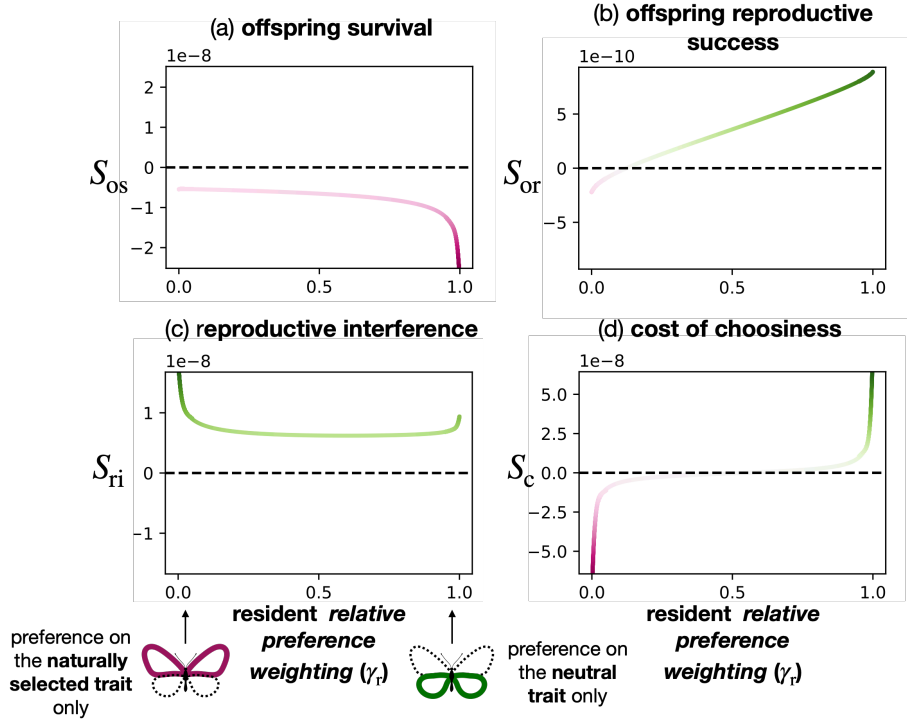


Figure 4: **Decomposition of the fitness gradient into terms associated with (a) offspring survival ( $S_{os}$ ), (b) offspring reproductive success ( $S_{or}$ ), (c) reproductive interference ( $S_{ri}$ ) and (d) cost of choosiness ( $S_c$ ), depending on the resident *relative preference weighting* value ( $\gamma_r$ ). We fixed the level of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri} = 0.0025$ ) and assume that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) while trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ). We assume cost of choosiness ( $c = 0.001$ ). When the line is green (resp. purple), the corresponding evolutionary force (offspring survival, offspring reproductive success, reproductive interference and cost of choosiness) promotes the evolution of preference towards the neutral selection  $T_2$  (resp. the trait under selection  $T_1$ ). The more intense the colour, the more intense the selection.**

292 framework, during the recurrent fixation of mutant alleles, a positive feedback loop promotes preference towards the neutral trait  $T_2$ .

294 **Species interaction limits preference enhancing offspring fitness**

Figure 3 also indicates that natural selection promotes preference towards the trait under selection  $T_1$ . As long as natural selection is strong relative to reproductive interference, females from species  $A$  prefer males with the allele 1 at the trait under selection (Figure A2), also displayed by the males of the sympatric species  $B$ . However, when reproductive interference is strong relative to natural selection, females preference target the neutral trait  $T_2$  reducing heterospecific mating than

300 enhancing offspring fitness.

302 Figure 4(a) reveals that the selective benefit of producing adapted offspring decreases when  
303 resident preference targets the trait under selection. When preference towards the trait under  
304 selection  $T_1$  increases, the stronger sexual selection reduces the genetic diversity (Figure A3). As  
305 most males displayed the well-adapted trait value 1 (Figure A3), the advantage of preference towards  
306 the trait under selection decreases. By contrast with the evolution of the preference towards the  
neutral trait, a negative feedback loop limits the evolution of preference towards the trait under  
selection.

308 Moreover, the selective benefit of producing sexy sons promotes preference towards the neutral  
trait (Figures 4(b) and A4). Because natural selection strongly reduces the phenotypic diversity at  
310 trait  $T_1$ , almost all males display the sexy trait value at  $T_1$  (Figure A3). By contrast, males ex-  
311 hibiting the trait value 0 at the neutral trait  $T_2$  benefit from a sexual selection advantage compared  
312 to other males. Female preference towards males exhibiting this trait values at trait  $T_2$  is then  
further advantaged through an indirect benefit gained by their sexier sons (see Equation (A19)).  
314 The 'sexy son' advantage promotes the neutral trait  $T_2$  if the strength of reproductive interference  
is sufficiently high and promotes preference for the trait value 0 at the neutral trait  $T_2$  (Figure  
316 A4). This enhanced 'sexy son' advantage associated with female preferences toward neutral com-  
pared to adaptive traits can explain why preference toward cues reducing heterospecific mating can  
318 preferentially evolve.

Figure 3 suggests that reproductive interference should be weak for preference targeting the  
320 trait under selection  $T_1$  to evolve. However, our analyses rely on the hypothesis that all evolution-  
ary forces are weak. Supplementary analyses, relaxing the weak selection hypothesis, show that  
322 preference targeting the trait under selection  $T_1$  can still evolve for larger values of reproductive  
interference, pending strong natural selection relative to reproductive interference (Figure A5).

## 324 **Evolution of preference for multiple traits enhancing offspring fitness and reducing heterospecific mating**

326 Nevertheless, the contrasted selective pressures may promote the evolution of preference towards  
both traits, therefore jointly enhancing offspring fitness and reducing heterospecific mating. We  
328 thus test which values of cost of choosiness ( $c$ ) and shapes of the trade-off function  $f$  (through the  
parameter  $a$ ) allow the evolution of preference for multiple traits.

### 330 **Without species interactions, the cost of choosiness promotes ancestral preference**

Assuming no interaction between species ( $c_{ri} = 0$ ), the model predicts that preference will almost  
332 always target the trait under selection  $T_1$  (Figure A6). Nevertheless, when the ancestral preference  
targets the neutral trait  $T_2$  and assuming a low sensory trade-off, the cost of choosiness can maintain  
334 preference toward the neutral trait  $T_2$  (Figure A6(b)).

### 336 **Ancestral single trait preference can limit the evolution of preference for multiple traits**

We then investigate the effect of ancestral preferences on the evolution of *relative preference*  
338 *weighting* expressed in females. We compare ancestral preferences targeting: equally both traits  
( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ), mainly the trait under selection or the neutral trait ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.01$  or  $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.99$ ).

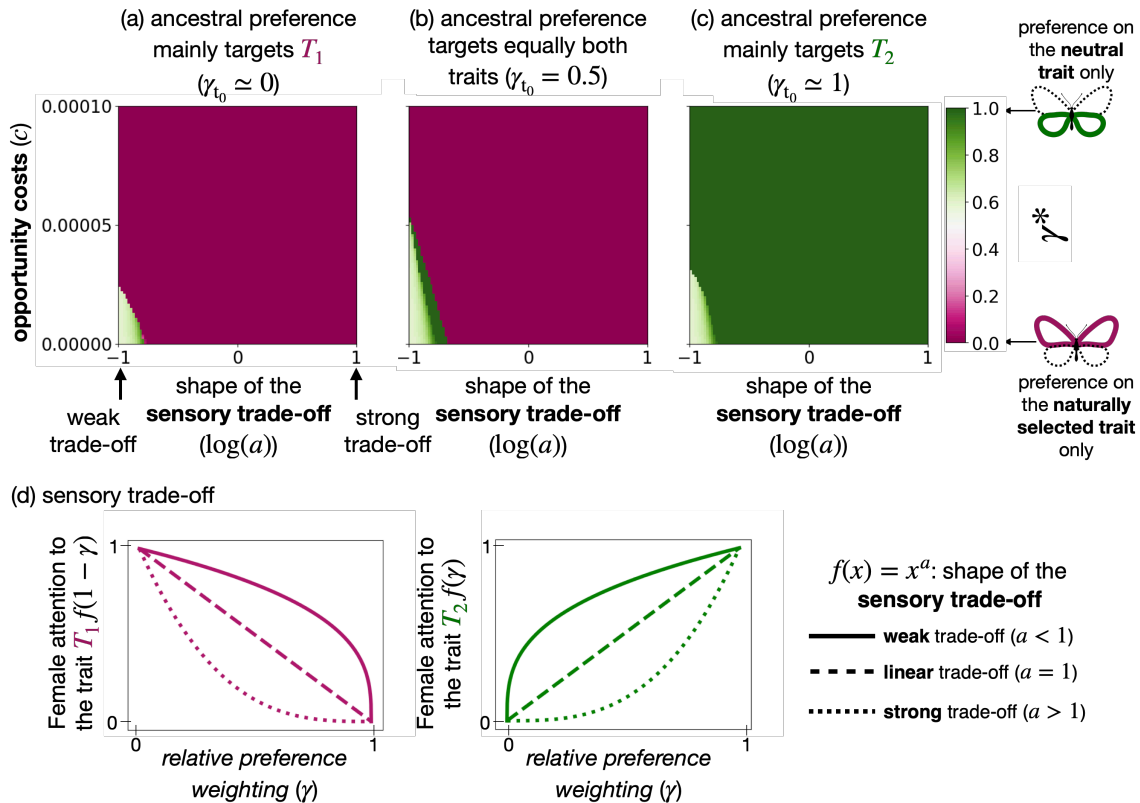


Figure 5: **Evolution of *relative preference weighting* towards a trait under selection  $T_1$  or a neutral trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ) depending on the shape of the cognitive trade-off function (through the parameter  $a$ ) and the cost of choosiness  $c$  for different ancestral preferences.** We assume ancestral preference targeting: (a) mainly trait  $T_1$  ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.01$ ), (b) equally both traits ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ), (c) mainly trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.99$ ). We assume reproductive interference ( $c_{i_1} = 0.0025$ ), that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).

340 Figures 5(a), 5(b) and 5(c) show that preferences are biased towards ancestral preference. Inter-  
 342 estingly, ancestral preference influences the evolution of mate preference when substantial trade-offs  
 344 and cost of choosiness are assumed. Under a strong trade-off, preference based on both traits effec-  
 346 tively leads to poor attention towards both traits. This lack of attention towards both cues,  
 therefore, creates a fitness valley preventing the switch of female attention from one trait to the  
 alternative one. When female choice is mainly based on one trait ancestrally, positive selection  
 promoting choice for the alternative trait may not be powerful enough to cross this fitness valley.

348 Figure 4(d) indicates that the cost of choosiness also favours the evolution of preference towards  
 350 the ancestrally most preferred trait because this trait is then likely to be highly prevalent in the  
 males suitable for reproduction. Mate choices mainly target the already preferred trait and then  
 benefit from a reduced cost of choosiness (see Equation (A17)).

Moreover, when the ancestral preference mostly targets one trait, Figure 4(b) indicates that sexual selection promotes preference for this trait. When a trait is already sexy, females carrying a mutant allele increasing their attention on this trait are likely to produce more sexy sons.

These mechanisms explain why the evolution of preference strongly depends on the ancestral traits, as observed in Figure 5. Interestingly, Figure 5(b) also shows that when the ancestral preference equally targets both traits, preference targeting the trait under selection is favoured. However, this may depend on the strength of the sensory trade-off and the cost of choosiness.

### Low cost of choosiness and weak sensory trade-off allow the evolution of preference for multiple traits

Figure 5(a) shows that a weak cognitive trade-off ( $\log(a) < 0$ ) and low cost of choosiness ( $c$ ) allow the evolution of preference for multiple traits. This preference enhances offspring fitness and reduces heterospecific mating by using the trait under selection and the neutral trait, respectively. More substantial cognitive trade-offs or cost of choosiness prevent the evolution of such preference for multiple traits. Interestingly, a linear trade-off ( $\log(a) = 0$ ) leads to preference based on a single trait. A concave trade-off ( $a < 1$ ) is thus necessary for the evolution of preference for multiple traits.

### The cost of choosiness and the sensory trade-off promote single trait preference targeting the adaptive trait

When ancestral preference equally targets both traits, a strong sensory trade-off promotes preference towards adaptive traits (Figure 5). When assuming a large sensory trade-off ( $a > 1$ ), the ancestral preference leads to poor attention towards both traits. This poor attention toward male traits limits the previously described 'sexy sons' effect that promotes preference towards the neutral trait (Figure A7).

A large cost of choosiness also promotes single-trait preference targeting the trait under natural selection  $T_1$ , assuming that ancestral preference equally targets both traits. Indeed natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  reduces phenotypic diversity in species  $A$  and, therefore, reduces the cost of choosiness associated with preference based on the trait  $T_1$  in this species (see Equation (A17) and Figure A8).

In contrast, an intermediate cost of choosiness allows the evolution of a preference for multiple traits with biased attention towards the neutral trait  $T_2$  (Figure 5). When the cost of choosiness is not too high, the 'sexy son' advantage obtained through slightly biased attention toward the neutral trait balances it. However, the preference for the adaptive trait becomes more advantageous when the cost of choosiness further increases: such preference alleviates the cost of choosiness, thus favouring the single trait preference targeting the trait  $T_1$  when the cost of choosiness becomes too large.

### Connecting 'good genes' with reinforcement

To explore the impact of natural selection acting on mating cues shared with other sympatric species on the evolution of female preferences, we computed the equilibrium value of the *relative preference weighting*  $\gamma^*$  for different strengths of (1) natural selection at trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  ( $s_1$  and  $s_2$ ) and of (2) levels of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ).



**Without species interactions, the trait under stronger selection is sexy**

392 As expected, Figure 6(a) shows that without species interactions ( $c_{ri} = 0$ ), female preference mainly  
 393 targets the trait under stronger selection. Furthermore, Figure 6(a) also highlights that in the  
 394 absence of reproductive interference, preference for multiple traits is likely to emerge when both  
 395 traits are under strong selection. The impact of variation in mutation rates at the different loci is  
 396 described in supplementary Figure A9.

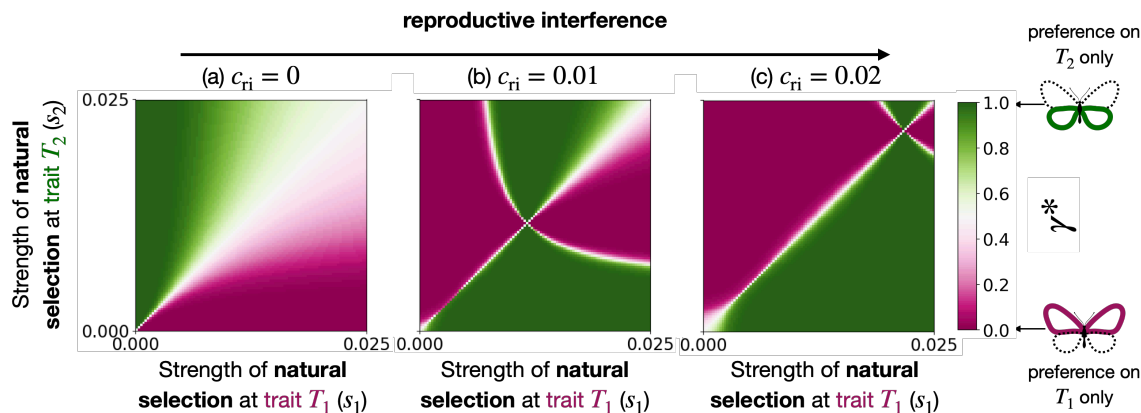


Figure 6: **Evolution of relative preference weighting towards traits  $T_1$  or  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ), depending on the strength of natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  ( $s_1$  and  $s_2$ ), for different strengths of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ).** We assume (a)  $c_{ri} = 0$ , (b)  $c_{ri} = 0.01$  and (c)  $c_{ri} = 0.02$ .

**Assuming reproductive interference, the trait under lower selection becomes sexy**

398 By contrast, assuming reproductive interference with species  $B$  ( $c_{ri} > 0$ ), females from species  $A$   
 399 mainly target a single trait. When natural selection on the trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  is low, the effect of  
 400 reproductive interference prevents the evolution of preference toward the traits under the strongest  
 401 selection (Figure 6(b)), because such preference increases the risk of heterospecific mating. Pref-  
 402 erence toward this trait indeed increases the frequency of the allele 0 at this locus, enhancing the  
 403 reliability of this trait as cue preventing heterospecific matings, since allele 1 is fixed at both traits  
 404 in species  $B$ . When reproductive interference further increases (Figure 6(c)), the parameter space  
 405 under which a trait can become a reliable cue limiting heterospecific mating increases. Finally, Fig-  
 406 ure 6(b) and 6(c) also show that when natural selection acting on the traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  is very high,  
 407 preference targets again the trait under the strongest selection, highlighting how natural selection  
 408 may override the effect of reproductive interference.

410 Altogether our results show the relevance of jointly considering the effect of natural selection act-  
 411 ing on mating cues within species, but also on the cues displayed in sympatric species to understand  
 412 the evolution of mate choice.

## Discussion

414 Evolutionary biologists have extensively studied the evolution of mate preferences in the light of the  
415 'good genes' hypothesis (Puurtilinen et al., 2009) or the context of reinforcement (Servedio and Noor,  
416 2003). By jointly considering (1) the selection regimes acting on the targeted traits within species,  
as well as (2) interactions with other species living in sympatry, our theoretical study provides a  
418 general framework reconciling these research fields.

We focused on natural selection regimes shared between sympatric species promoting species  
420 similarity and increasing risks of reproductive interference. For example, in the spadefoot toad, a  
preference for mating call increases the number of eggs fertilized in choosy females. However, it leads  
422 to reproductive interference because of the similarity of calls between sympatric species (Pfennig,  
2000). Our approach drastically differs from classical studies on reinforcement, focusing on 'magic  
424 traits' that are under disruptive selection between species (Servedio et al., 2011). Because 'magic  
traits' are honest signals of both local adaptation and species identity, antagonistic selection regimes  
426 are not involved in the evolution of mate preferences in such a framework. Here, we investigate  
conflicting selections acting on the evolution of mate preferences.

428 We show that depending on the relative strength of natural selection and reproductive interfer-  
ence, females may prefer traits under natural selection, improving offspring fitness, or neutral traits,  
430 reducing heterospecific mating. Selection promotes preferences for traits under natural selection  
only when natural selection is strong relative to reproductive interference. Our results also show  
432 that conflicting selection may promote the evolution of preference for multiple traits. Preferences  
targeting multiple traits may improve offspring fitness by both transmitting adapted alleles and  
434 reducing heterospecific mating. For example, in field crickets of the genus *Teleogryllus*, females  
target both (1) cuticular hydrocarbons, providing fitness benefits to their offspring (Berson and  
436 Simmons, 2019), and (2) male calling song (Hill et al., 1972) that differentiates sympatric species  
(Moran et al., 2020).

438 Nevertheless, the cost of choosiness limits the evolution of such preference and can change the  
trait mainly targeted by female choice. The cost of choosiness promotes preference based on nat-  
440 urally selected traits rather than traits allowing species recognition. As natural selection erodes  
phenotypic diversity, preference based on traits allowing species recognition leads to stronger oppor-  
442 tunity cost, promoting preference targeting the naturally selected traits. However, when the cost  
of choosiness is more limited, our model highlights that female preference may then preferentially  
444 target traits that differ from other species. For example, in *Heliconius* butterflies, where females are  
usually mated rapidly after emergence because of a high density of suitable males, female preference  
446 has been shown to target chemical cues differentiating sympatric species (González-Rojas et al.,  
2020).

448 Our model assumes that traits allowing limiting heterospecific mating are neutral. However,  
selective constraints may also act on traits used as species recognition cues. For instance, variation  
450 in such cues may influence their detection probability by predators: the conspicuousness of a trait  
may enhance the identification by sexual partners but may, in turn, also increase parasitism and  
452 predation risks (observed on visual, acoustic and olfactory cues in numerous organisms reviewed in  
Zuk and Kolluru (1998)). Increasing costs of sexual trait conspicuousness may theoretically pro-  
454 mote the display of combinations of cryptic traits allowing recognition (Johnstone, 1995), therefore  
promoting preference towards multiple cues.

456 Our results also highlight how indirect fitness benefits and/or reproductive interference can  
promote female preference for multiple traits. The evolution to such a preference occurs only

458 when the cognitive trade-off is weak. Multiple traits-based mate choice may thus preferentially  
460 evolve in species where multiple sensory systems allow such cognitive integration. Nevertheless,  
462 due to evolutionary trade-offs, the development of sensory systems is frequently associated with the  
464 regression of others (Barton et al., 1995; Nummela et al., 2013). Moreover, physical constraints may  
466 generate sensory trade-offs. For example, a visual system model of the surfperch reveals a trade-off  
468 in the performance between luminance and chromatic detection because of the limited numbers of  
the different types of cones in the eyes (Cummings, 2004). Neural integration of multiple information  
may also be limited, generating trade-offs in using multiple traits in decisions. In the swordtail fish  
*Xiphophorus pygmaeus*, females prefer a visual or an olfactory trait when experimenters expose  
them to the variation of only one out of the two traits in the potential mates. However, when both  
traits vary in potential mates, females do not express preference (Crapon de Caprona and Ryan,  
1990), suggesting that sensory trade-off limits the use of multiple traits in preference.

470 Nevertheless, several alternative decision mechanisms may reduce cognitive trade-offs. For ex-  
472 ample, sequential/hierarchical mate preference, whereby targeted traits are processed in a hierar-  
474 chical order, efficiently produces a decision, even considering many traits (Gigerenzer et al., 1999).  
Sequential mate preference is common (*e.g.* (Shine and Mason, 2001; Eddy et al., 2012; Gray,  
2022)) and may allow the evolution of preference for multiple traits. Sequential mate choice may  
476 emerge because some traits are visible at long distances (such as colour or calls). In contrast, others  
are perceived only at short distances (such as oviposition site guarded by males or male-emitted  
pheromones) (*e.g.* (Candolin and Reynolds, 2001; López and Martín, 2001; Mérot et al., 2015)).

478 The distance at which choosers perceive different traits may play a key role in reproductive  
isolation (Moran et al., 2020). Females using a cue for species recognition detectable at a short  
480 distance may have already spent time and energy or need to deploy substantial efforts to avoid  
heterospecific mating. Therefore, females may still suffer from increased costs associated with  
482 reproductive interference, even if they eventually manage to avoid mating with heterospecific males  
(Gröning and Hochkirch, 2008). Hence reproductive interference may promote preference targeting  
484 traits detected from far distances that efficiently reduce heterospecific interactions.

Reproductive isolation between species also depends on the niche of individuals of both species.  
486 Mating may preferentially occur between individuals sharing the same niche leading to niche-based  
assortative mating. Niche segregation may play a key role in the evolution of reproductive isola-  
488 tion. In two treefrog species, differing by their mating call (Park et al., 2013), different spatial and  
temporal segregations in calling and resting places during the breeding period increase reproduc-  
490 tive isolation (Borzée et al., 2016). As well as sequential mate preference, niche segregation may  
efficiently participate in reproductive isolation without generating a trade-off with a preference for  
492 other traits.

Our study shows how natural and sexual selection may have a conflicting influence on the  
494 evolution of mate choice, specifically on the emergence of for multiple traits in sympatric species.  
Our study highlights the importance of (1) identifying the trade-off limiting attention towards  
496 different traits and (2) estimating the strength of the cost of choosiness to understand what traits  
are likely to be targeted by preference.

## 498 Data Availability

There is no data associated with this study. Codes to generate the figures are available online at  
500 [github.com/Ludovic-Maisonneuve/evolution\\_of\\_multiple\\_traits\\_preference](https://github.com/Ludovic-Maisonneuve/evolution_of_multiple_traits_preference).

## Acknowledgments

502 The authors would like to thank the ANR SUPERGENE (ANR-18-CE02-0019) for funding the  
PhD of LM, and the Emergence program from the Paris city council for supporting the team of  
504 VL. This work was also supported by the Chair “Modélisation Mathématique et Biodiversité” of  
VEOLIA-Ecole Polytechnique-MNHN-F.X. LM would like to thank Thomas Aubier for helpfull  
506 discussions. The authors would like to thank Judith Mank, Andy Gardner and the two anonymous  
reviewers for the relevant comments on previous versions of the article.

## 508 Author Contribution

LM, CS, and VL conceived and designed the study. LM built and analyzed the model. LM wrote  
510 the manuscript with contributions from all authors. LM wrote the Python and Mathematica scripts.

## Conflict of interest

512 The authors of this preprint declare that they have no conflict of interest with the content of this  
article.

## 514 References

- Barton, R. A., Purvis, A., and Harvey, P. H. (1995). Evolutionary radiation of visual and olfactory  
516 brain systems in primates, bats and insectivores. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society  
of London. Series B: Biological Sciences, 348(1326):381–392.
- 518 Berson, J. D. and Simmons, L. W. (2019). Female cuticular hydrocarbons can signal indirect  
fecundity benefits in an insect. Evolution, 73(5):982–989.
- 520 Borzée, A., Kim, J. Y., Da Cunha, M. A. M., Lee, D., Sin, E., Oh, S., Yi, Y., and Jang, Y. (2016).  
Temporal and spatial differentiation in microhabitat use: Implications for reproductive isolation  
522 and ecological niche specification. Integrative Zoology, 11(5):375–387.
- Candolin, U. (2003). The use of multiple cues in mate choice. Biological Reviews, 78(4):575–595.
- 524 Candolin, U. and Reynolds, J. D. (2001). Sexual signaling in the European bitterling: females learn  
the truth by direct inspection of the resource. Behavioral Ecology, 12(4):407–411.
- 526 Chouteau, M., Llaurens, V., Piron-Prunier, F., and Joron, M. (2017). Polymorphism at a mimicry  
supergene maintained by opposing frequency-dependent selection pressures. Proceedings of the  
528 National Academy of Sciences, 114(31):8325–8329.
- Crapon de Caprona, M.-D. and Ryan, M. J. (1990). Conspecific mate recognition in sword-  
530 tails, *xiphophorus nigrensis* and *x. pygmaeus* (poeciliidae): olfactory and visual cues. Animal  
Behaviour, 39(2):290–296.
- 532 Cummings, M. E. (2004). Modelling divergence in luminance and chromatic detection performance  
across measured divergence in surfperch (embiotocidae) habitats. Vision Research, 44(11):1127–  
534 1145.

- 536 Eddy, S. L., Kiemiec-Tyburczy, K. M., Uyeda, J. C., and Houck, L. D. (2012). The influence of sequential male courtship behaviors on courtship success and duration in a terrestrial salamander, *plethodon shermani*. Ethology, 118(12):1240–1250.
- 538 Geritz, S. A. H., Kisdi, E., Mesze´NA, G., and Metz, J. A. J. (1998). Evolutionarily singular strategies and the adaptive growth and branching of the evolutionary tree. Evolutionary Ecology, 12(1):35–57.
- 540 Gigerenzer, G., Todd, P., and Group, A. R. (1999). Simple Heuristics that Make Us Smart. Evolution and cognition. Oxford University Press.
- 542 González-Rojas, M. F., Darragh, K., Robles, J., Linares, M., Schulz, S., McMillan, W. O., Jiggins, C. D., Pardo-Diaz, C., and Salazar, C. (2020). Chemical signals act as the main reproductive barrier between sister and mimetic *Heliconius* butterflies. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 287(1926):20200587.
- 544 Gray, D. A. (2022). Sexual selection and ‘species recognition’; revisited: serial processing and order-of-operations in mate choice. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 289(1971):20212687.
- 546 Gröning, J. and Hochkirch, A. (2008). Reproductive interference between animal species. The Quarterly Review of Biology, 83(3):257–282. PMID: 18792662.
- 550 Gumm, J. M. and Gabor, C. R. (2005). Asexuals looking for sex: conflict between species and mate-quality recognition in sailfin mollies (*poecilia latipinna*). Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology, 58(6):558–565.
- 552 Higgie, M. and Blows, M. (2007). Are traits that experience reinforcement also under sexual selection? The American Naturalist, 170(3):409–420. PMID: 17879191.
- 556 Hill, K. G., Loftus-Hills, J. J., and Gartside, D. F. (1972). Pre-mating isolation between the australian field crickets *teleogryllus commodus* and *t. oceanicus* (orthoptera : Gryllidae). Australian Journal of Zoology, 20(2):153–163.
- 558 Iwasa, Y. and Pomiankowski, A. (1994). The evolution of mate preferences for multiple sexual ornaments. Evolution, 48(3):853–867.
- 560 Johnstone, R. A. (1995). Honest advertisement of multiple qualities using multiple signals. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 177(1):87–94.
- 562 Kirkpatrick, M., Johnson, T., and Barton, N. (2002). General Models of Multilocus Evolution. Genetics, 161(4):1727–1750.
- 564 López, P. and Martín, J. (2001). Pheromonal recognition of females takes precedence over the chromatic cue in male iberian wall lizards *podarcis hispanica*. Ethology, 107(10):901–912.
- 566 McPeck, M. A. and Gavrillets, S. (2006). The evolution of female mating preferences: Differentiation from species with promiscuous males can promotes speciation. Evolution, 60(10):1967 – 1980.
- 568 Merrill, R. M., Wallbank, R. W. R., Bull, V., Salazar, P. C. A., Mallet, J., Stevens, M., and Jiggins, C. D. (2012). Disruptive ecological selection on a mating cue. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 279(1749):4907–4913.
- 570  
572

- 574 Moran, P. A., Hunt, J., Mitchell, C., Ritchie, M. G., and Bailey, N. W. (2020). Sexual selection and population divergence iii: Interspecific and intraspecific variation in mating signals. Journal of Evolutionary Biology, 33(7):990–1005.
- 576 Mérot, C., Frérot, B., Leppik, E., and Joron, M. (2015). Beyond magic traits: Multimodal mating cues in heliconius butterflies. Evolution, 69(11):2891–2904.
- 578 Nagylaki, T. (1993). The evolution of multilocus systems under weak selection. Genetics, 134(2):627–647.
- 580 Neff, B. D. and Pitcher, T. E. (2005). Genetic quality and sexual selection: an integrated framework for good genes and compatible genes. Molecular Ecology, 14(1):19–38.
- 582 Nummela, S., Pihlström, H., Puolamäki, K., Fortelius, M., Hemilä, S., and Reuter, T. (2013). Exploring the mammalian sensory space: co-operations and trade-offs among senses. Journal of Comparative Physiology A, 199(12):1077–1092.
- 584 Otto, S. P., Servedio, M. R., and Nuismer, S. L. (2008). Frequency-dependent selection and the evolution of assortative mating. Genetics, 179(4):2091–2112.
- 588 Park, S., Jeong, G., and Jang, Y. (2013). No reproductive character displacement in male advertisement signals of *Hyla japonica* in relation to the sympatric *H. suweonensis*. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology, 67(8):1345–1355. Communicated by M. Gibbons.
- 590 Pfennig, K. S. (2000). Female spadefoot toads compromise on mate quality to ensure conspecific matings. Behavioral Ecology, 11(2):220–227.
- 592 Pomiankowski, A. and Iwasa, Y. (1993). Evolution of multiple sexual preferences by fisher’s runaway process of sexual selection. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences, 253(1337):173–181.
- 594 Puurtinen, M., Ketola, T., and Kotiaho, J. (2009). The good-genes and compatible-genes benefits of mate choice. The American Naturalist, 174(5):741–752. PMID: 19772439.
- 598 Rousset, F. (2004). Genetic Structure and Selection in Subdivided Populations (MPB-40). Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- 600 Schluter, D. and Price, T. (1993). Honesty, perception and population divergence in sexually selected traits. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences, 253(1336):117–122.
- 602 Servedio, M. R., Doorn, G. S. V., Kopp, M., Frame, A. M., and Nasil, P. (2011). Magic traits in speciation: ‘magic’ but not rare? Trends in Ecology & Evolution, 26(8):389–397.
- 604 Servedio, M. R. and Noor, M. A. (2003). The role of reinforcement in speciation: Theory and data. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 34(1):339–364.
- 606 Sherratt, T. N. (2008). The evolution of müllerian mimicry. Naturwissenschaften, 95(8):681–695.
- 608 Shine, R. and Mason, R. T. (2001). Courting male garter snakes (*Thamnophis sirtalis parietalis*) use multiple cues to identify potential mates. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology, 49(6):465–473.

- 610 Stre, G.-P., Moum, T., Bureš, S., Král, M., Adamjan, M., and Moreno, J. (1997). A sexually selected  
character displacement in flycatchers reinforces premating isolation. Nature, 387(6633):589–592.
- 612 Yamaguchi, R. and Iwasa, Y. (2013). Reproductive character displacement by the evolution of  
female mate choice. Evolutionary Ecology Research, 15(1):25–41.
- 614 Zuk, M. and Kolluru, G. R. (1998). Exploitation of sexual signals by predators and parasitoids.  
The Quarterly Review of Biology, 73(4):415–438.

## Appendix

### 616 A1 QLE analysis

#### Evolution of mating traits under natural and sexual selection

618 First, we explored the relative effects of natural and sexual selections on the evolution of traits in  
 species A. Following the QLE approach, the change of allele 1 frequency at  $T_i$ , for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , after  
 620 one generation in this species is given by:

$$\Delta P_{T_i} = G_{T_i} \overbrace{\left( s_i + \bar{\rho}_i \left( P_{P_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right)}^{\text{natural and sexual selections}} \overbrace{-2u_{T_i} \left( P_{T_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right)}^{\text{action of mutations}} + O(\varepsilon^2), \quad (\text{A1})$$

622 where  $G_I$  is the genetic diversity at locus  $I \in \{T_1, T_2, P_1, P_2, M\}$  given by

$$G_I = P_I(1 - P_I), \quad (\text{A2})$$

624 and  $\bar{\rho}_1$  and  $\bar{\rho}_2$  are the average strengths of preference on traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  respectively in the  
 population

$$626 \quad \bar{\rho}_1 = \rho((1 - P_M)f(1 - \gamma_r) + P_M f(1 - \gamma_m)), \quad (\text{A3})$$

$$\bar{\rho}_2 = \rho((1 - P_M)f(\gamma_r) + P_M f(\gamma_m)). \quad (\text{A4})$$

628 While the action of natural selection simply depends on the advantage of trait value 1 due to  
 natural selection  $s_i$ , the effect of sexual selection is modulated by the average strength of preference  
 630 on trait  $T_i$  in the population ( $\bar{\rho}_i$ ). Sexual selection promotes the allele 1 when most females prefer  
 the associated trait value 1 *i.e.* when  $P_{P_i} > 1/2$ .

#### 632 Evolution of trait value preference

Now we explore the selection acting on preference loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , determining which trait value is  
 634 sexy at traits  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ . Following the QLE approach, the change of allele 1 frequency at  $P_i$ , for  
 $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , after one generation in this species is given by:

$$636 \quad \Delta P_{P_i} = \Delta^{\text{dir-RI}} P_{P_i} + \Delta^{\text{dir-c}} P_{P_i} + \Delta^{\text{ind}} P_{P_i} - 2u_{P_i} \left( P_{P_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad (\text{A5})$$

638 where  $\Delta^{\text{dir-RI}} P_{P_i}$ ,  $\Delta^{\text{dir-c}} P_{P_i}$ ,  $\Delta^{\text{ind}} P_{P_i}$  and  $-2u_{P_i}(P_{P_i} - 1/2)$  describes the effect of direct selection  
 due to reproductive interference and cost of choosiness, indirect selection and mutations.

#### 640 Reproductive interference promotes preference for the trait value more common within conspecific than heterospecific.

The effect of reproductive interference on the change of allele 1 frequency at  $P_i$ , for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$  is  
 642 given by

$$\Delta^{\text{dir-RI}} P_{P_i} = G_{P_i} \bar{\rho}_i c_{ri} \frac{\tilde{N}}{N} (P_{T_i} - \tilde{P}_{T_i}), \quad (\text{A6})$$



644 where  $\tilde{P}_{T_i}$  is the frequency of allele 1 at locus  $T_i$  in species B.

645 Selection acting on locus  $P_i$  depends on how much preference targets the trait  $T_i$ , captured by  
 646  $\bar{\rho}_i c_{T_i}$ . Reproductive interference promotes preference for the trait value 1 when trait value 1 is more  
 common within conspecific than within heterospecific *i.e.*  $P_{T_i} - \tilde{P}_{T_i}$ .

648 As expected, the effect of reproductive interference mainly depends on the density ratio between  
 species B and A,  $\tilde{N}/N$ : the probability that a female in species A encounters an heterospecific male  
 650 increases with  $\tilde{N}/N$ . Selection caused by reproductive interference also increases with the strength  
 of preference  $\rho$ . Strong preference leads to more significant fitness differences between females, with  
 652 different preferences intensifying selection due to reproductive interference.

### Sympatry with other species intensifies the cost of choosiness

654 Preference allows the rejection of heterospecific males but also leads to the rejection of conspecific  
 males. After rejecting a male, a female has a probability  $c$  of not encountering another male  
 656 leading to an opportunity cost. The effect of these costs on the change of allele 1 frequency at  $P_i$ ,  
 for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$  is given by

$$658 \quad \Delta^{\text{dir-c}} P_{P_i} = G_{P_i} \bar{\rho}_i c \frac{N + \tilde{N}}{N} \left( P_{T_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right). \quad (\text{A7})$$

The cost of choosiness disfavours preference for trait value 1 when this trait value is the scarcest in  
 660 the population *i.e.*  $P_{T_i} < 1/2$ . Surprisingly, selection due to cost of choosiness increases with the  
 proportion of heterospecifics. When a female rejects a conspecific male, she must wait for another  
 662 suitable male. However, females will be likely to encounter heterospecific males before encountering  
 a conspecific male, making the rejection of a conspecific more dramatic when conspecific males are  
 664 rare. The effect of the cost of choosiness is thus proportional to the average number of males a  
 female will encounter until she encounters a conspecific  $(N + \tilde{N})/N$ .

### 666 Indirect selection promotes preference producing locally adapted offspring and sexy sons

668 Frequencies at preference loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  not only directly change the fitness because this modifies  
 reproductive interference and the cost of choosiness but also because of associations with different  
 670 alleles at the traits loci  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  in the offspring, leading to contrasted indirect fitness benefits.  
 Within offspring, the preference allele at locus  $P_i$  becomes associated with the preferred alleles at  
 672 trait  $T_i$  for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ . Under the QLE assumptions, the genetic association between alleles 1 at loci  
 $T_i$  and  $P_i$ , for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , is given by

$$674 \quad D_{T_i P_i} = \bar{\rho}_i G_{T_i} G_{P_i}. \quad (\text{A8})$$

Because of mate preference, there is a positive association between the genetic basis of preference  
 676 for one trait value and the genetic basis of this trait value.

The term describing the effect of indirect selection on the change of allele 1 frequency at  $P_i$ , for  
 678  $i \in \{1, 2\}$  is given by

$$\Delta^{\text{ind}} P_{P_i} = D_{T_i P_i} \left( s_i + \bar{\rho}_i \left( P_{P_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right). \quad (\text{A9})$$

680 When the mutant is associated with a trait value, direct selection on this trait indirectly affects the  
 change of mutant frequency. Then indirect selection promotes the evolution of preference towards  
 682 trait value promoted by natural or sexual selection.

## Evolution of a mutant modifying *relative preference weighting*

684 We investigate the evolution of the focus of female preference on either trait. We thus study the  
 685 invasion of a mutant at locus  $M$  associated with the value  $\gamma_m$ , differing from the value  $\gamma_r$  associated  
 686 with the ancestral allele. Under the QLE approximation, the allele frequency variation at the  
 687 preference locus can be divided into three terms, denoted  $\Delta^{\text{dir-RI}}$ ,  $\Delta^{\text{dir-c}}$  and  $\Delta^{\text{ind}}$   $P_M$ , reflecting the  
 688 effect of direct selection due to reproductive interference and the cost of choosiness and indirect  
 selection, on the change of the mutant frequency  $\Delta P_M$  respectively.

$$690 \quad \Delta P_M = \Delta^{\text{dir-RI}} P_M + \Delta^{\text{dir-c}} P_M + \Delta^{\text{ind}} P_M + O(\varepsilon^3). \quad (\text{A10})$$

### 692 Reproductive interference promotes preference targeting the trait leading to strongest 693 heterospecific avoidance.

The effect of reproductive interference on the change of mutant frequency is given by

$$694 \quad \Delta^{\text{dir-RI}} P_M = G_M c_{\text{ri}} \frac{\tilde{N}}{N} \left( \delta\rho_1 \left( P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) (P_{T_1} - \tilde{P}_{T_1}) \right. \\ \left. + \delta\rho_2 \left( P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) (P_{T_2} - \tilde{P}_{T_2}) \right), \quad (\text{A11})$$

696 where  $\delta\rho_1$  and  $\delta\rho_2$  quantify the effect of the mutant allele on the preference for trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ,  
 respectively, compared to the resident allele:

$$698 \quad \delta\rho_1 = \rho (f(1 - \gamma_m) - f(1 - \gamma_r)), \quad (\text{A12})$$

$$\delta\rho_2 = \rho (f(\gamma_m) - f(\gamma_r)). \quad (\text{A13})$$

700 For instance, when  $\delta\rho_2 > 0$ , the mutant allele leads to more attention on trait  $T_2$  than the resident  
 701 allele. Note that  $f$  is an increasing function:  $\delta\rho_1$  and  $\delta\rho_2$  thus have opposite signs, *i.e.* when  
 702 mutant allele increases female attention on one trait, it also decreases female attention on the other  
 trait.

704 Reproductive interference promotes preference for the trait allowing more accurate species recog-  
 705 nition. Selection due to reproductive interference depends on relative phenotypic frequencies in both  
 706 species. Preference for a trait leads to increased intraspecific matings than expected under random  
 mating when the targeted trait is more common within species A than within species B. The higher  
 708 the difference in trait frequencies between species, the more substantial species recognition is.

Because we have

$$710 \quad \delta\rho_1 \approx -\delta\gamma\rho h'(1 - \gamma_r), \quad (\text{A14})$$

$$\delta\rho_2 \approx \delta\gamma\rho h'(\gamma_r), \quad (\text{A15})$$

712 the term  $S_{\text{ri}}$  describing the effect of reproductive interference on mutant fitness is given by

$$714 \quad S_{\text{ri}} = c_{\text{ri}} \frac{\tilde{N}}{N} \rho \left( -h'(1 - \gamma_r) \left( P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) (P_{T_1} - \tilde{P}_{T_1}) \right. \\ \left. + h'(\gamma_r) \left( P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) (P_{T_2} - \tilde{P}_{T_2}) \right). \quad (\text{A16})$$

### The cost of choosiness affects mutant fate

716 The effect of the cost of choosiness on mutant frequency change is given by

$$718 \quad \Delta^{\text{dir-c}} P_M = -G_M \frac{c}{2} \frac{N + \tilde{N}}{N} \left( \delta\rho_1 (P_{P_1}(1 - P_{T_1}) + (1 - P_{P_1})P_{T_1}) \right. \\ \left. + \delta\rho_2 (P_{P_2}(1 - P_{T_2}) + (1 - P_{P_2})P_{T_2}) \right). \quad (\text{A17})$$

The fate of a mutant depends on the match at each trait between the most preferred trait value and the most common trait value.

720 The term  $S_c$  describing the effect of cost of choosiness on mutant fitness is thus given by

$$722 \quad S_c = -\frac{c}{2} \frac{N + \tilde{N}}{N} \rho \left( -h'(1 - \gamma_r) (P_{P_1}(1 - P_{T_1}) + (1 - P_{P_1})P_{T_1}) \right. \\ \left. + h'(\gamma_r) (P_{P_2}(1 - P_{T_2}) + (1 - P_{P_2})P_{T_2}) \right). \quad (\text{A18})$$

### 724 Indirect selection promotes preference on the trait providing the most substantial indirect fitness benefit

726 The term describing the effect of indirect selection on mutant alleles at locus  $M$  is given by

$$728 \quad \Delta^{\text{ind}} P_M = \underbrace{D_{T_1 M}}_{\text{genetic association between } T_1 \text{ and } M} \underbrace{\left( s_1 + \bar{\rho}_1 (P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2}) \right)}_{\text{direct selection on } T_1} \\ + \underbrace{D_{T_2 M}}_{\text{genetic association between } T_2 \text{ and } M} \underbrace{\left( s_2 + \bar{\rho}_2 (P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2}) \right)}_{\text{direct selection on } T_2}, \quad (\text{A19})$$

730 where  $D_{T_1 M}$  (resp.  $D_{T_2 M}$ ) is the genetic association between the mutant allele at locus  $M$  and allele 1 at locus  $T_1$  (resp.  $T_2$ ), see (A20). When the mutant is associated with a trait value, direct selection on this trait indirectly affects the change of mutant frequency.

732 The genetic association between the mutant at locus  $M$  and the trait  $T_i$ , for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , is given by

$$734 \quad D_{T_i M} = G_{T_i} G_M \delta\rho_i \left( P_{P_i} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (\text{A20})$$

736 When the mutant leads to more attention on  $T_i$  ( $\delta\rho_i > 0$ ), the mutant becomes associated with the allele with the most preferred trait value at  $T_i$ . Accordingly, when the mutant leads to less attention on  $T_i$  ( $\delta\rho_i < 0$ ), it is associated with the allele with the least preferred trait value at  $T_i$ .

738 The terms  $S_{\text{os}}$  and  $S_{\text{or}}$  describing the effect of offspring survival and reproductive success on mutant fitness are thus given by

$$740 \quad S_{\text{os}} = \rho \left( -G_{T_1} h'(1 - \gamma_r) \left( P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) s_1 + G_{T_2} h'(\gamma_r) \left( P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) s_2 \right), \quad (\text{A21})$$

and

$$S_{\text{or}} = \rho^2 \left( -G_{T_1} h'(1 - \gamma_r) \left( P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) f(1 - \gamma_r) \left( P_{P_1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + G_{T_2} h'(\gamma_r) \left( P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) f(\gamma_r) \left( P_{P_2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right). \quad (\text{A22})$$

## A2 Equilibrium allele frequencies at traits and preference loci $T_1$ , $T_2$ , $P_1$ and $P_2$

In an adaptive dynamics framework, we study the invasion of a rare mutant at locus  $M$  associated with the value of *relative preference weighting*  $\gamma_m$  in a resident population where the resident allele codes for the value  $\gamma_r$ . Before the mutant introduction, allele frequencies at traits and preference loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  evolve toward equilibrium allelic frequencies values named  $P_{T_1}^*$ ,  $P_{T_2}^*$ ,  $P_{P_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_2}^*$ . At these equilibrium frequencies, we have

$$\Delta P_{T_1} = \Delta P_{T_2} = \Delta P_{P_1} = \Delta P_{P_2} = 0. \quad (\text{A23})$$

Note we may also have (A23) for different frequencies, so the reached allelic frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  ( $P_{T_1}^*$ ,  $P_{T_2}^*$ ,  $P_{P_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_2}^*$ ) may depend on the initial frequencies at these loci.

The changes of allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$  and  $P_1$  (resp. at loci  $T_2$  and  $P_2$ ) do not depend on the allele frequency at loci  $T_2$  and  $P_2$  (resp. at loci  $T_1$  and  $P_1$ ) (see Equations (A1) and (A5)). So that before the mutant introduction, allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$  and  $P_1$  coevolve independently of allele frequencies at loci  $T_2$  and  $P_2$ . We first explain how to get the value of  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  without focusing on loci  $T_2$  and  $P_2$ .  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  depend on the coevolution of trait and preference, only happening when resident females weight preference on trait  $T_1$ . We then discriminate two cases depending on whether or not females are weighting preference on trait  $T_1$ .

### Case 1: resident females weight no preference on trait $T_1$ ( $\gamma_r = 1$ )

We first compute the equilibrium allelic frequencies  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  when resident females weight no preference on trait  $T_1$  ( $\gamma_r = 1$ ). In this particular case, no selection acts at the locus  $P_1$ . Because of the effect of symmetric mutations (see Equation (A5)) we have

$$P_{P_1}^* = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (\text{A24})$$

We now investigate the equilibrium allele frequencies at locus  $T_1$ . Injecting  $P_{P_1}^* = 1/2$  in the equation  $\Delta P_{T_1} = 0$  gives

$$P_{T_1}^* (1 - P_{T_1}^*) s_1 - 2u_{T_1} \left( P_{T_1}^* - \frac{1}{2} \right) = 0, \quad (\text{A25})$$

which admits a unique solution in the interval  $[0, 1]$  given by

$$P_{T_1}^* = \frac{s_1 - 2u_{T_1} + \sqrt{s_1^2 + 4u_{T_1}^2}}{2s_1}. \quad (\text{A26})$$

Importantly the equilibrium allele frequencies  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  never depend on the initial allele frequency at loci  $T_1$  and  $P_1$ .

772 **Case 2: resident females weight preference on trait  $T_1$  ( $\gamma_r < 1$ )**

774 We now compute the equilibrium allelic frequencies  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  when resident females weight preference on trait  $T_1$  ( $\gamma_r < 1$ ). To find candidate value of  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  we resolve the system of equations  $\Delta P_{T_1} = \Delta P_{P_1} = 0$ . According to the equation  $\Delta P_{T_1} = 0$ ,  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$  verify

$$776 \quad P_{T_1}^* (1 - P_{T_1}^*) \left( s_1 + \rho f(1 - \gamma_r) \left( P_{P_1}^* - \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - 2u_{T_1} \left( P_{T_1}^* - \frac{1}{2} \right) = 0, \quad (\text{A27})$$

which gives

$$778 \quad P_{P_1}^* = \frac{P_{T_1}^* (1 - P_{T_1}^*) (\rho f(1 - \gamma_r) - 2s_1) + 4 \left( P_{T_1}^* - \frac{1}{2} \right) u_{T_1}}{2P_{T_1}^* (1 - P_{T_1}^*) \rho f(1 - \gamma_r)}. \quad (\text{A28})$$

Note  $P_{P_1}^* \neq 0$  and  $P_{P_1}^* \neq 1$  because  $\Delta P_{T_1} = u_{T_1} > 0$  when  $P_{T_1} = 0$  and  $\Delta P_{T_1} = -u_{T_1} < 0$  when  $P_{T_1} = 1$  (see Equation (A1)). This ensures that Equation (A28) is always well defined.

782 Injecting (A28) into (A5) we find that  $P_{T_1}^*$  verifies (see Mathematica file in the GitHub repository)

$$Q(P_{T_1}^*) = 0, \quad (\text{A29})$$

784 where  $Q$  is a polynomial function of degree 5, whose exact expression is provided in the Mathematica file.

786  $P_{T_1}^*$  is one of the roots of the polynomial  $Q$ . In our model exploration, we numerically estimate the roots of  $Q$  within  $[0, 1]$  giving all the candidate values for  $P_{T_1}^*$ . Using Equation (A28) we compute the corresponding candidate values for  $P_{P_1}^*$ . We then study the convergence stability of each pair of candidate values for  $P_{T_1}^*$  and  $P_{P_1}^*$ . Then depending on the initial allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$  and  $P_1$ , we determine the equilibrium allele frequencies reached before the mutant introduction.

We use a similar procedure to compute the values of  $P_{T_2}^*$  and  $P_{P_2}^*$ .

792 **Dependency on initial allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$**

794 The resident population's equilibrium allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$ , and  $P_2$  may depend on the initial allele frequencies at these loci. Here we test this dependency for all parameter values used in our article and for all resident *relative preference weighting* values  $\gamma_r$ . The equilibrium allele frequencies in the resident population are independent of the initial allele frequencies for all resident *relative preference weighting* values  $\gamma_r$  when

- 798 1. For all  $\gamma_r$  in  $[0, 1]$ , there is a unique tuple of candidate values for  $P_{T_1}^*$ ,  $P_{P_1}^*$ ,  $P_{T_2}^*$  and  $P_{P_2}^*$ .
2. This unique tuple of candidate values is convergence stable.

800 It appears that in the parameters space explored in this study, the equilibrium allele frequencies of the resident population are always independent of the initial allele frequencies for all resident *relative preference weighting* value  $\gamma_r$  (see Figure A1).

## A3 Table and Figures

Abbreviation	Description
$\mathcal{L}$	Set of different loci: $\mathcal{L} = \{T_1, P_1, T_2, P_2, M\}$ .
$\mathcal{G}$	Set of different genotypes: $\mathcal{G} = \{0, 1\}^5$
$f_i/\tilde{f}_i$	Frequency of genotype $i$ in species A or B.
$P_I/\tilde{P}_I$	Frequency of allele 1 at locus $I$ , for $I \in \mathcal{L}$ , in species A or B.
$N/\tilde{N}$	Density of species A/B.
$G_I$	Genetic diversity at locus $I$ in species A: $G_I = P_I(1 - P_I)$ for $I \in \mathcal{L}$ .
$(I)_i$	Allele at locus $I$ of the genotype $i$ for $(I, i) \in \mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{G}$ .
$D_{\mathcal{I}}$	Genetic association between alleles at loci in $\mathcal{I}$ : $D_{\mathcal{I}} = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{G}} f_i \prod_{I \in \mathcal{I}} (P_I - (I)_i)$ for $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{L}$ .
$f'_i/f''_i/f'''_i$	Frequency of genotype $i$ in species a after natural selection/reproduction/mutation.
$s_n$	Selective advantage of allele 1 at locus $T_n$ , $n \in \{1, 2\}$ .
$\gamma$	<i>Relative preference weighting.</i>
$\gamma_r/\gamma_m$	<i>Relative preference weighting</i> associated with the resident/mutant allele.
$\gamma_{t_0}$	Ancestral <i>relative preference weighting.</i>
$f$	Trade-off function determining the relative focus of females on either trait displayed by males.
$a$	Trade-off parameter tuning the shape of the function $f$
$\rho$	Strength of female preference.
$c_{ri}$	Strength of reproductive interference.
$c$	Cost of choosiness.
$u_I$	Mutation rate at locus $I \in \mathcal{L}$ .

Table A1: Description of variables and parameters used in the model.

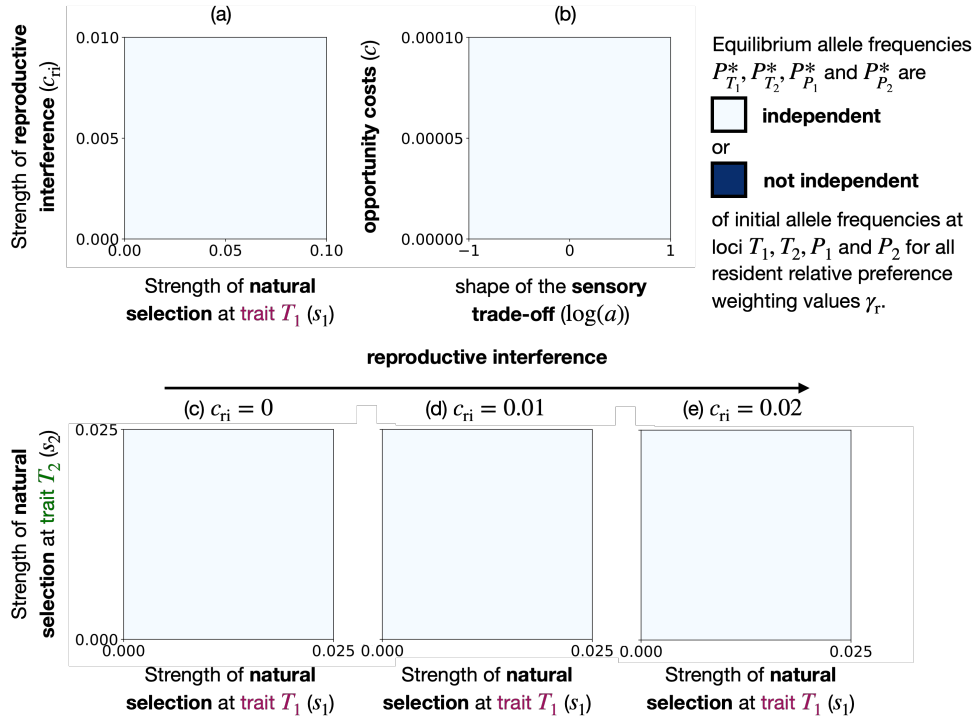


Figure A1: Equilibrium allele frequencies at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in the resident population is always independent of the initial allele frequencies at these loci for all resident *relative preference weighting* values  $\gamma_r$ . Parameters values same as (a) Figure 3, (b) Figure 5, (c) Figure 6(a), (d) Figure 6(b) and (e) Figure 6(c).

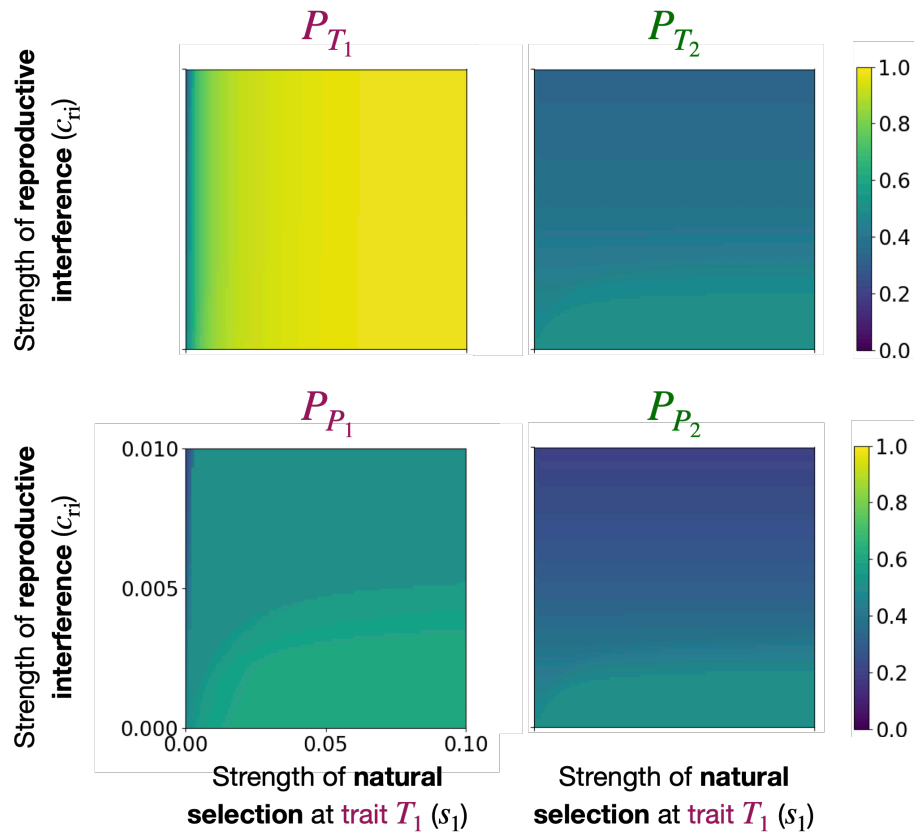


Figure A2: Frequency of allele 1 at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  at equilibrium preference ( $\gamma_r = \gamma^*$ ), depending on the strength of natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  ( $s_1$ ) and the strength of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ), when  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).



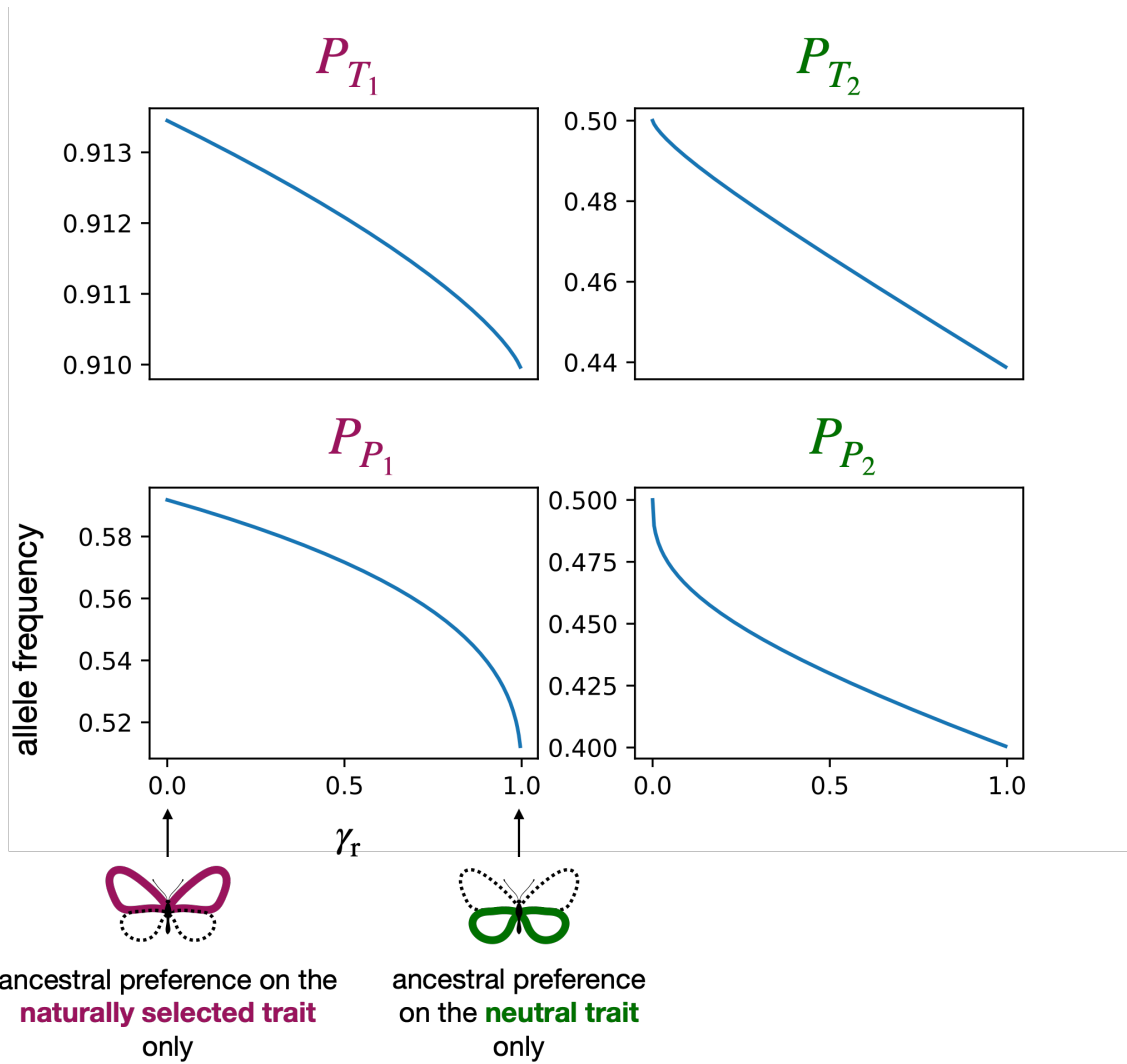


Figure A3: Frequency of allele 1 at loci  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  depending on the resident *relative preference weighting* value ( $\gamma_r$ ). We assume reproductive interference ( $c_{ri} = 0.001$ ), that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.05$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).

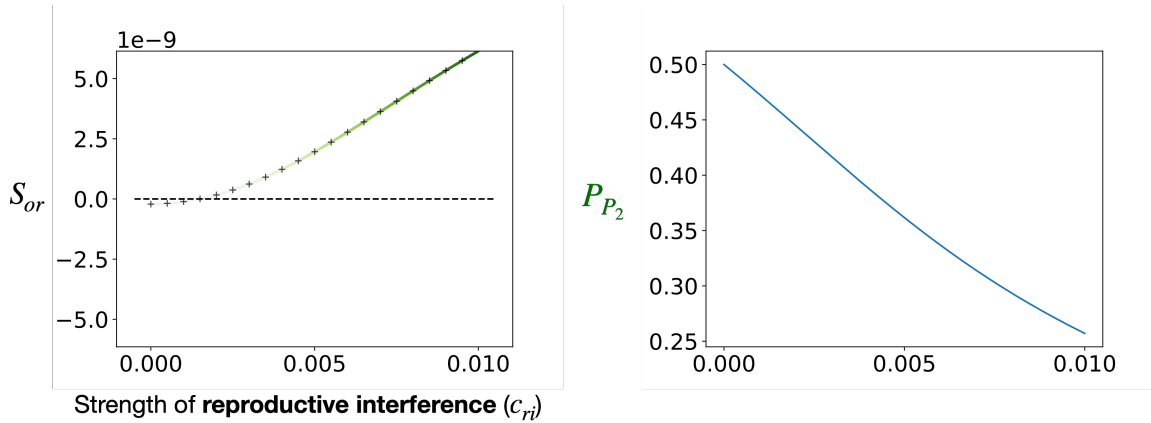


Figure A4: **Ancestral part of the selection gradient associated with offspring reproductive success ( $S_{or}$ ) and frequency of allele 1 at locus  $P_2$  ( $P_{P_2}$ ) depending on the strength of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ).** We assume ancestral preference targeting equally both traits ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ). We assume reproductive interference ( $c_{ri} = 0.0025$ ), that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ). When the line is green, offspring reproductive success promotes the evolution of preference towards the neutral selection  $T_2$ . The more intense the colour, the more intense the selection.

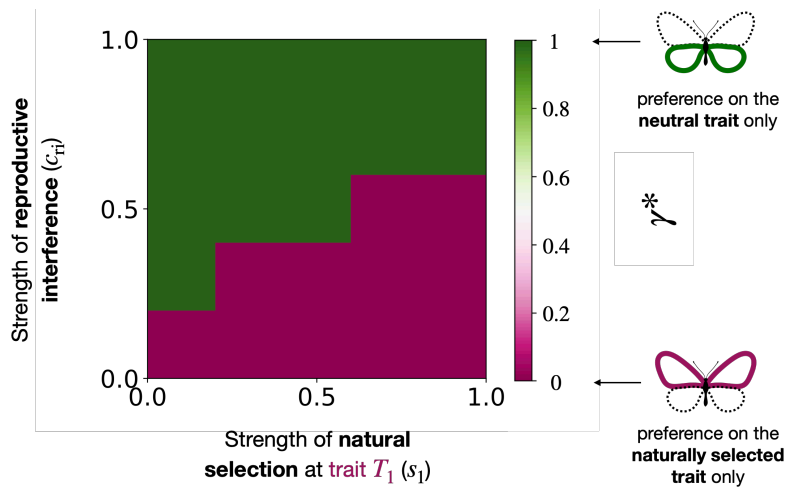


Figure A5: **Evolution of relative preference weighting towards a trait under selection  $T_1$  or a neutral trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ), without the QLE assumptions, depending on the strength of natural selection acting on trait  $T_1$  ( $s_1$ ) and the strength of reproductive interference ( $c_{ri}$ ) when  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).** We assume  $\rho = 1$ ,  $c = 0.5$ ,  $u_{T_1} = u_{T_2} = u_{P_1} = u_{P_2} = 0.2$ .

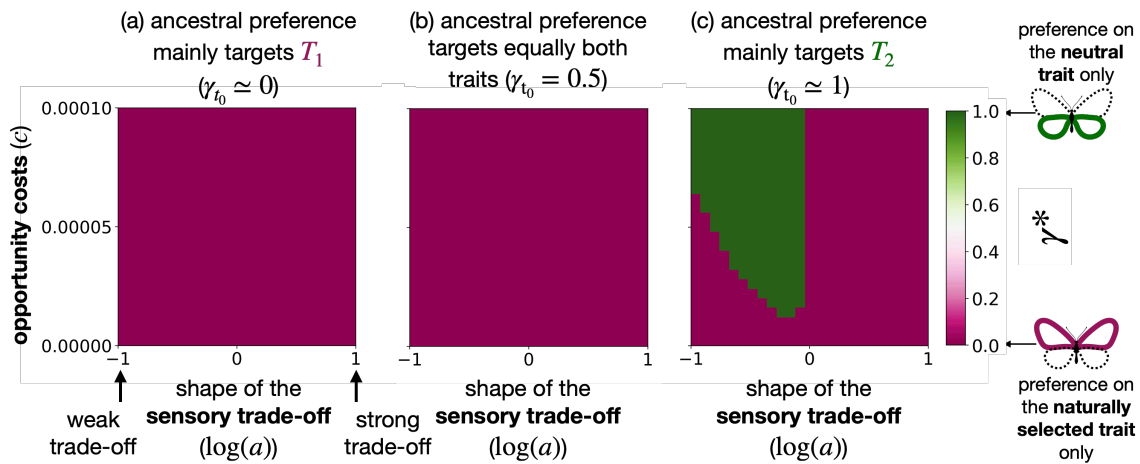


Figure A6: Evolution of *relative preference weighting* towards a trait under selection  $T_1$  or a neutral trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ) depending on the shape of the cognitive trade-off function (through the parameter  $a$ ) and the cost of choosiness  $c$  for different ancestral preferences without species interactions  $c_{ri} = 0$ . We assume ancestral preference targeting: (a) mainly trait  $T_1$  ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.01$ ), (b) equally both traits ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ), (c) mainly trait  $T_2$  ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.99$ ). We assume that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ).

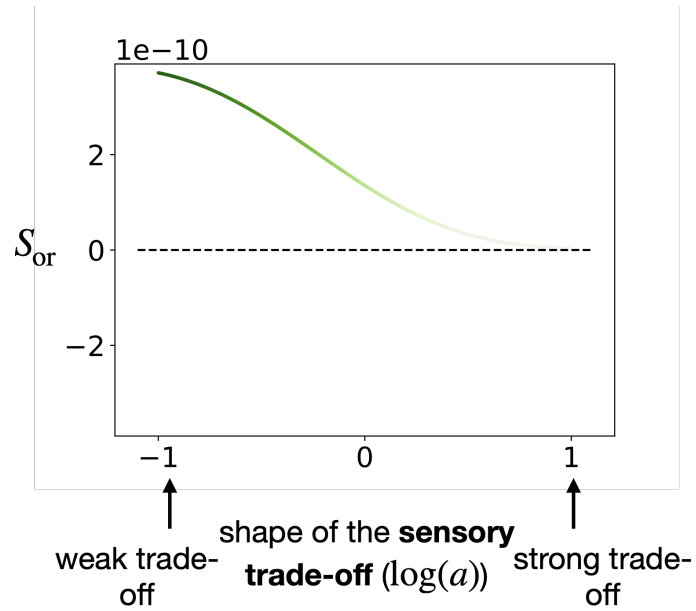


Figure A7: **Ancestral part of the selection gradient associated with offspring reproductive success ( $S_{or}$ ) depending on the shape of the trade-off function (through the parameter  $a$ ).** We assume ancestral preference targeting equally both traits ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ). We assume reproductive interference ( $c_{ri} = 0.025$ ), that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ). When the line is green, offspring reproductive success promotes the evolution of preference towards the neutral selection  $T_2$ . The more intense the colour, the more intense the selection.

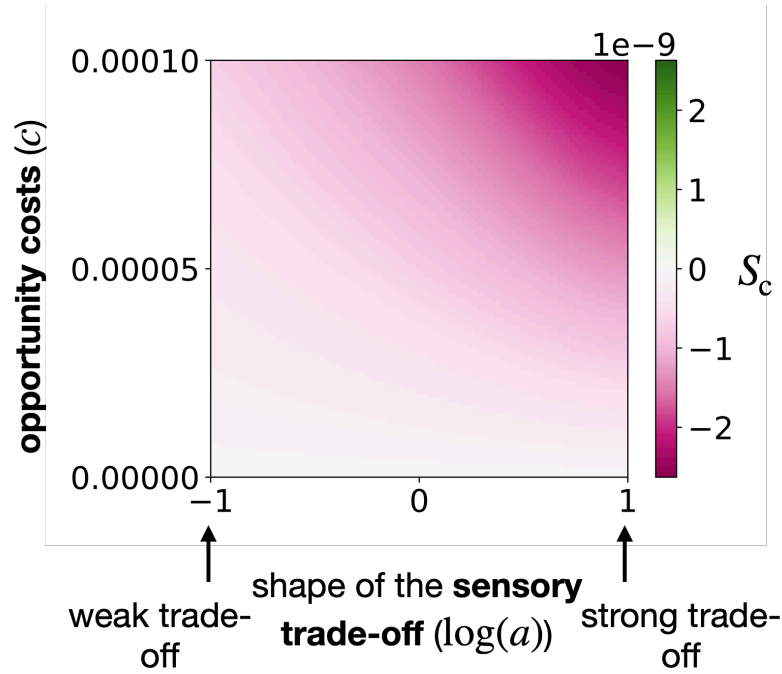


Figure A8: **Ancestral part of the selection gradient associated with cost of choosiness ( $S_c$ )**. We investigate different shapes of the trade-off function (through the parameter  $a$ ) and the cost of choosiness  $c$ . We assume ancestral preference targeting both traits equally ( $\gamma_{t_0} = 0.5$ ). We assume reproductive interference ( $c_{ri} = 0.025$ ), that trait  $T_1$  is under natural selection ( $s_1 = 0.02$ ) and trait  $T_2$  is neutral ( $s_2 = 0$ ). Purple area indicates that the cost of choosiness promotes the evolution of preference towards the trait under selection  $T_1$ .

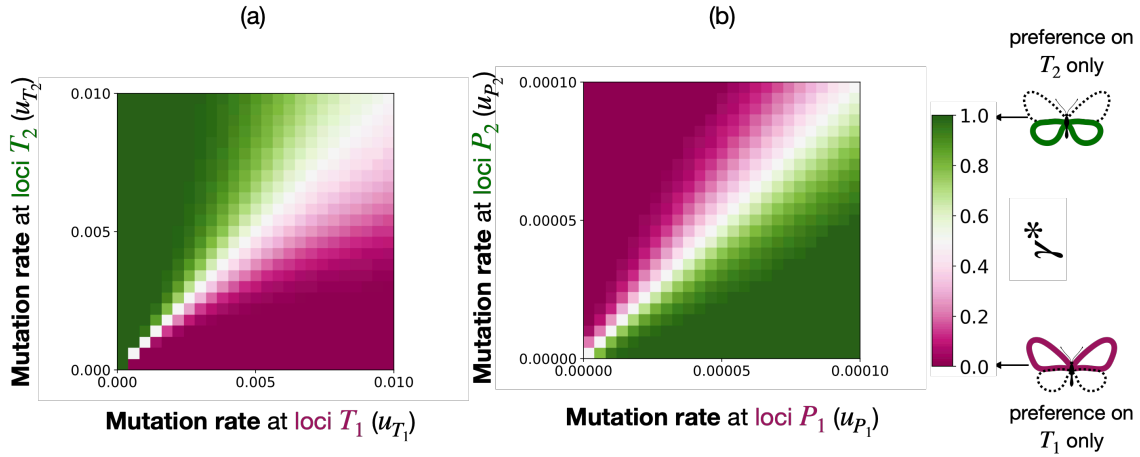


Figure A9: Evolution of *relative preference weighting* towards traits  $T_1$  or  $T_2$  ( $\gamma^*$ ), depending on (a) the mutation rates at loci  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  ( $u_{T_1}$  and  $u_{T_2}$ ) and on (b) the mutation rates at loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  ( $u_{P_1}$  and  $u_{P_2}$ ), without species interaction ( $c_{ri} = 0$ ). We assume that both traits are under natural selection ( $s_1 = s_2 = 0.02$ ). When mutation rates at the two trait loci ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ) differ, the model predicts that female will prefer the traits associated with the highest mutation rate (see Figure A9). Mutations increase the number of males with a maladapted trait value. Such preference reduce mating with males with the maladapted trait value. When assuming that the mutation rate can differ at the loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , determining the preferred allele at trait  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  respectively, the model predicts that female will prefer the trait targeted by the preference locus with the lowest mutation rate (see Figure A9). Mutations at preference loci  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  indeed increase preference for the maladapted trait value, decreasing the likelihood of producing locally adapted offspring.