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Identifying key socioecological factors influencing the expression of egalitarianism and inequality among foragers

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Summary

0 Understanding how resource characteristics influence variability in social and material inequality among 1 foraging populations is a prominent area of research. However, obtaining cross-comparative data from which 2 to evaluate theoretically informed resource characteristic factors has proven difficult, particularly for 3 investigating interactions of characteristics. Therefore, we develop an agent-based model to evaluate how five 4 key characteristics of primary resources (predictability, heterogeneity, abundance, economy of scale, and 5 monopolizability) structure payoffs and explore how they interact to favor both egalitarianism and inequality. 6 Using iterated simulations from 243 unique combinations of resource characteristics analyzed with an ensemble 7 machine-learning approach, we find the predictability and heterogeneity of key resources have the greatest 8 influence on selection for egalitarian and nonegalitarian outcomes. These results help explain the prevalence of 9 egalitarianism among foraging populations, as many groups likely relied on resources that were both relatively 10 less predictable and more homogeneously distributed. The results also help explain rare forager inequality, as 11 comparison with ethnographic and archaeological examples suggests the instances of inequality track strongly 12 with reliance on resources that were predictable and heterogeneously distributed. Future work quantifying 13 comparable measures of these two variables, in particular, may be able to identify additional instances of forager 14 inequality.

16 Introduction

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17 Understanding unequal resource access and patterns of behavior among foraging populations is a 18 longstanding topic of interest (1-4), with scholars centering debate on whether the evolutionary pathway of 19 human inequality is one of unique emergence (5-9) or suppression (10-14). Given the significant variation in 20 inequality present among human and non-human populations (11, 15-19), it seems likely that, regardless of the 21 evolutionary pathway, plasticity allows inequality-related behavior to respond to local environments and 22 resource characteristics, as has indeed been extensively documented (e.g., 5, 16, 20, 21, 22). Accordingly, 23 exploring how local conditions and resource characteristics impact the functional adaptiveness of each strategy 24 (sensu stricto 23) will help explain under what conditions egalitarian or nonegalitarian behaviors should be 25 favored (i.e., 5, 16, 24). While advances have been made in attempts to quantify material inequality of the past 26 ~10,000 years, (see 25), there remains significant hurdles in making these cross-culturally comparable, applying 27 them to more mobile foragers, and for measuring early occurrences of incipient inequality (e.g., 26). Related to 28 this final point, studying the subtle emergence of inequality suffers from the "absence of evidence is not 29 necessarily evidence of absence" problem.

30 Therefore, to better understand the individual and interactive effects of local conditions on 31 egalitarianism and incipient inequality, here we develop an agent-based model (ABM) to explore the conditions 32 that favor either. Building from research emphasizing the influential nature of characteristics of key subsistence 33 resources (see below) and employing simple decisions for choosing where to settle/forage (27, 28), we use this 34 ABM to test a) which resource characteristics have the greatest impact on favoring egalitarian vs unequal 35 outcomes among foragers and b) how those resource characteristics interact to structure the types of ecological 36 conditions favoring each outcome. We then link these simulation-based outcomes with ethnographic and 37 archaeological cases and provide suggestions for future research.

38

39 Background

40 Here we review how key resource characteristics are hypothesized to impact the emergence of intra-41 group inequality through altering payoffs for human decisions, including territoriality. Territoriality and 42 inequality are related phenomena as some form of territorial exclusion or set of property rights are a necessary 43 but not sufficient prerequisite for inequality (i.e., 29), and many environmental and social variables proposed to 44 influence territoriality (e.g., 1) may also influence inequality (e.g., 16). Here we follow recent work suggesting 45 territoriality and inequality may be correlated within human populations (30) and explore key resource 46 characteristics that scholars have hypothesized (individually or through interaction) should promote 47 territoriality and/or inequality through payoffs for controlling access to resources. Specifically, we investigate 48 resource predictability (1, 16), abundance (1, 31), heterogeneity (5, 15, 32, 33), the economy of scale or Allee effect of resources (32, 34-36), and the monopolizability (or ability to control access) of resources patches (5, 35, 37-39)
which we summarize below.

The importance of predictability of resources for territoriality and inequality strongly derives from the economic defensibility model (1). If resources are predictable, individuals know where and when they can be defended which may: a) reduce mobility, enabling greater time for defense over movement (a mobility-defense tradeoff) and, b) enable individuals to have confidence in payoffs for investing in exclusionary and controlling behaviors. Increased predictability, in a patron-client framework (more detail in Supplement 1), also allows would-be patrons to consistently predict the availability of resources at their disposal to offer in exchange for client subordination (1, 5, 16).

58 Abundance, the second key characteristic from Dyson-Hudson and Smith (1), may vary the payoffs to 59 controlling access. When treated as the total amount of the primary resource within the overall landscape, 60 increasing abundance beyond the minimum required for survival could reduce the amount of space individuals 61 need to claim, and defend (1, 37), potentially favouring an unequal distribution of resources. However, if key 62 resources are highly abundant and/or present in super-abundances it may make resource defence and control 63 less profitable than other options, particularly if they are homogeneously distributed on the landscape (see 64 below). This then suggests that intermediate abundances, those above the minimum needed for survival but 65 below high or super abundances, may promote inequality. Within this gradient, lower intermediate levels of 66 abundance may produce greater likelihood for inequality than higher abundances. Given these divergent 67 impacts, several studies question the uniform application of the economic defensibility model (40, 41), and 68 suggest additional environmental and resource characteristics are necessary for understanding territoriality and 69 inequality.

70 Spatial distribution of the primary resource within an environment is one of the characteristics that has 71 received increasing attention (e.g. 5, 15, 32, 33, 35). Highly heterogeneous environments, those where resources 72 occur in some restricted locations but not in others, may have cascading consequences for both territoriality and 73 inequality. Such environments may favour denying access through either preventing too much diminution of 74 returns (32) or enabling holders to make use of resources to obtain concessions from others through exploitation 75 or leadership (15, 31, 42). Further, increasing heterogeneity, much like predictability and abundance, can 76 decrease mobility, potentially making more time available for exclusionary and/or controlling practices. Finally, 77 heterogeneity may circumscribe resource acquisition opportunities by severely limiting alternate options and 78 thereby favouring nonegalitarian outcomes (i.e., environmental circumscription 15, 43).

79 Scholars have also nominated the economy of scale, or Allee effect (34, 35, 44), as a resource 80 characteristic impacting exclusionary behaviors. Foundational work (45) demonstrated that fitness benefits can 81 emerge through increasing the number of cohabitants in an area, although this benefit is not linear and reaches 82 tipping points where adding more cohabitants reduces the benefit to each individual. Through these dynamics, 83 Allee effects can have significant consequences on behavior (46, 47) including promoting cooperation. Resources 84 with larger economies of scale could decrease the cost of defense for each individual if defense costs are partly 85 shared or coordinated. In such cases, individuals may be incentivized to cooperate for defense, presenting 86 opportunities for leader or patron based intragroup inequality whilst favoring territoriality (31, 48-50).

87 Finally, a resource's monopolizability, or the relative ease with which an individual or faction may 88 control use of a resource patch (16, 35, 37), should influence emergence of egalitarian or unequal behaviors. 89 Monopolizability may be conceptualized as a composite characteristic driven by the interaction of factors such 90 as a) the need for costly extraction and/or production technology (35, 51), b) how readily stored the resource is 91 (39, 52, 53), c) the amount of space required to be defended within a patch (37), d) the opportunity cost imposed 92 by defending / excluding others from the resource (1), and e) the value of a unit of the resource to a person who 93 has it and someone who does not (38), all of which may also contribute to the degree to which the resource may 94 be considered a private versus a public good (9, 42). These characteristics are hypothesized to then interact with 95 a resource's predictability, abundance, heterogeneity, and economy of scale to further influence if individuals 96 will pay the cost to exclude/control or not. Monopolizability may be thought of as a *within-patch characteristic*, 97 while the predictability, abundance, and heterogeneity of a resource are *landscape-level characteristics* of resource 98 distributions. For example, reliance on small seeds (i.e., 53) represents the use of a primary subsistence resource 99 requiring relatively immobile processing tools (e.g., metates) and that is easily stored (37). This may result in a 100 lower relative cost (and higher incentive) for monopolizing compared to, for instance, large game mammals, 101 even if the seeds and game had equal predictability, abundance, heterogeneity, and economy of scale.

102 Resource characteristic influences on inequality are also impacted by changes in human population

density as changing density may alter landscape carrying capacity, increase or decrease competition for resources (42, 54), and/or alter circumscription. All of these may structure viable alternate options for acquiring resources (5, 15, 55) such that egalitarian/unequal or territorial/non-territorial strategies may pay off better.
However, research suggests that population size and/or density change alone is not a sufficient explanatory cause and must be paired with other factors (5, 56), such as the characteristics of resources above.

108 In summation, each of these key resource characteristics are predicted to influence egalitarian versus 109 nonegalitarian outcomes among humans. Further, these characteristics are expected to have interactive effects, 110 as demonstrated by Smith and Codding (16) and Boone (42), among others.

112 Predictions

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Based on the above literature, we make two general predictions:

- P1: Egalitarian outcomes will be favored in environments where resources are a) not predictable, b)
 highly abundant, c) homogeneously distributed, d) have a small economy of scale, and e) when resource
 patches are not easily monopolizable.
- P2: Unequal outcomes will be favored in environments where resources are a) predictable, b) less abundant, c) heterogeneously distributed, d) have large economies of scale, and e) when resource patches are more easily monopolizable.

120 121 Methods

122 Agent Based Model

123 To evaluate these predictions, and our broader questions, we implement an agent-based (individual-124 based) modeling (ABM) approach here. ABMs are explicitly designed to enable the evaluation of systems that 125 may be hard to observe in the "real-world" and to explore behavioral interactions across multiple scales, 126 allowing for complex pattern emergence from simple behavioral decisions (57-60). The purpose of our model is 127 to evaluate the relative influence of key subsistence resource characteristics on the emergence of a dominant 128 behavioral outcome: egalitarian or nonegalitarian. Specifically, we address the following two questions: when 129 individuals pursue the best options for themselves, a) which resource characteristic most strongly predicts 130 egalitarian and nonegalitarian outcomes, and b) which combinations of characteristics most favor each outcome. 131 A detailed model description, including full agent behaviors and the theory underlying them, following the 132 ODD (Overview, Design concepts, Details) protocol (61), is provided as Supplement 1 with the complete model 133 code, written in NetLogo (62), available as Supplement 2. Below we provide an adapted version of the ODD. 134 The model here shares some similarities with several prior models (8, 30) to explicitly advance understanding 135 of the influence of subsistence resource characteristics on incipient inequality.

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137 Entities

138 The model includes the following *entities*: agents representing individual foragers who seek to 139 maximize their rates of gain and square grid cells representing foraging patches with extractable resources. At 140 initialization, 876 agents are created and tracked through the model run. The full set of state variables 141 characterizing these entities are available in Supplement 1. Rate of gain is characterized by suitability, following 142 Greene and Stamps (28) eq. 1. A single model step represents the amount of time required to extract resources 143 from a patch. This is deliberately abstract so that different model setups may represent different resource types. 144 Time occurs both within and between a single model time step, with two individual turns occurring per time 145 step (see *Behaviors* below for more detail). Model simulations are run on a gridded landscape of 10 x 10 cells, 146 each representing a patch of land with resources capable of supporting multiple individual agents. 147

148 Processes

The most important *processes* for agents within the model, repeated every turn (twice per tick), are the identification of the optimal patch, movement, evaluation of defense, and recording of returns. At the end of every tick, agents also undertake evaluation of whether to change strategy or not. On the first turn of each tick, each agent's first action is to evaluate the landscape for the patch that will provide them the highest rate of gain. Agents' patch choice is restricted to patches that either are already occupied by agents employing the same strategy as the agent or patches without an established strategy for the turn. This emulates per turn positive assortment (see 63, 64, 65). The second action each agent takes is to attempt to move to the best available patch. 156 Agents employing an egalitarian/nonterritorial strategy or moving to patches not yet claimed on the turn are 157 always able to join this best patch. When an agent attempts to join a patch currently occupied by unequal agents, 158 these current occupants evaluate if they will defend the patch or not. This evaluation is the third action an agent 159 may take on each turn. If current occupants defend a patch it is removed from the options for all subsequent 160 agents as well as the agent currently attempting to move. This moving agent, unable to join their preferred 161 patch, undertakes the fourth potential action of their turn, identifying and attempting to move to the second-162 best patch. The evaluation of defense of a patch and finding the next best patch repeats until the agent has a 163 location to occupy. Once all agents have moved for the turn, they record the suitability of the patch they are 164 occupying (i.e., their returns) minus any costs they paid for defense and/or supporting a leader or plus any 165 benefit they gained as a leader. After this, if resources are not completely predictable, at least some will move 166 about the landscape (see Supplements 1 & 2).

167 Then begins the second turn of the tick. Agents with territorial/unequal strategies defend the same 168 location, not moving, and therefore skip all actions apart from recording returns gained (see Behaviors for more 169 information). Egalitarian agents, however, repeat actions one, two, and five. Once all agents have performed 170 both turns on the tick, they compare their resource gains for the overall tick with a random agent on the 171 landscape, the fifth action. If the comparison agent obtained greater returns than the ego agent, the ego agent 172 changes their strategy to that of the comparison, otherwise the ego agent keeps their current strategy for the 173 next tick. Use of a random agent comparison emulates adaptative shifts of strategy through observation and is 174 implemented to avoid deterministic forcing of agents to a single strategy. As individuals optimizing are likely 175 to target the best return they can find, not the mean that improves the return for everyone, we allow agents to 176 alter their strategy to emulate emergence of a preferred strategy resulting in egalitarian or nonegalitarian 177 outcomes that reacts to resource characteristics and the decisions of other agents. For a step-by-step breakdown 178 of the model progression, please see Supplement 1.

180 *Resource Characteristic Parameters*

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To evaluate the influence of various environments, the model landscape is parameterizable with many unique combinations of resource characteristics. Each of the five resource characteristics may be set to one of three levels, representing low, middle, and high values for the parameter. To maintain focus on the influence of resource characteristics, human population size is held constant. The assigned levels (low, middle, and high) for each resource characteristic variable are based on ethnographic observations (see below) and enable us to parameterize the model within a reasonable model space, allowing for different model setups to represent reliance on different types of key subsistence resources.

188 To establish low, middle, and high values for abundance, heterogeneity, and economy of scale (Allee 189 effect), we employ the 25th, 50th, and 75th quantile values from ethnographic proxies (Table 1; Supplements 1 and 190 3). Proxies are derived using all foraging and fishing societies in the Binford Hunter-Gatherer data set (66) via 191 the Binford package (67) in the R statistical environment (68) and from a recent addition of environmental data 192 to the Standard Cross-Cultural Sample (SCCS) (15). Proxy values for abundance and heterogeneity are taken 193 from the mean and standard deviation (50km) in net primary productivity (NPP) from the MODIS satellite 194 imagery (69, 70) following Wilson and Codding (15) for each unique society. The proxies for economy of scale 195 and population size (Table 1) come from Binford variable Group 1, the size of the smallest group that regularly 196 cooperates for subsistence, and from the population of ethnic group estimates in the Binford dataset (B006 from 197 71). Human population size is held constant at the 50th quantile value for all model runs. We use Binford Group 198 1 estimates for a rough economy of scale proxy as there is a lack of broad cross-cultural estimates of economy 199 of scale, and to strike a balance between the economy of scale and the smallest group sizes at which material 200 differences may emerge. However, this measure likely over-estimates economy of scale as it will include 201 individuals who may not be involved in primary production, and it may not capture the ideal scales at which 202 we should expect to see material differences emerge. Given these limitations, we conduct a sensitivity analysis 203 on the economy of scale, varying optimal group sizes from 1 to 100 while holding all other resource 204 characteristics constant at their least, middle, and most theoretically likely to promote inequality values (see 205 Supplement 3 for more detail).

Predictability and monopolizability lack comparable cross-cultural ethnographic estimates from which to establish parameter spaces in the same manner, and, therefore, low, middle, and high values are established a priori (Table 1). For predictability, we build landscapes where a) resources redistribute on the landscape every turn (not predictable), b) 50% of patches have resources redistribute every turn (somewhat predictable), or c) 210 resources are never redistributed (completely predictable). To deal with the reality that monopolizability is a 211 composite outcome of multiple features, we implement a cost value, modeled as the suitability lost (e.g., 212 opportunity cost, time/risk expenditure, or defensive investment) if a single agent alone defended the average 213 patch (See Supplement 1 for full details). This value may be thought of as the foraging time, energy, and/or other 214 resources lost resulting from the composite investment an agent puts into non-foraging activities that enable 215 monopolization to occur. Higher or lower values of this defense cost then represent situations where 216 monopolization may be easier or more difficult (i.e., more or less time, energy, and resources spent in non-217 foraging activities to enable monopolization), based upon the components of monopolizability such as 218 storability, within patch space needed to be defended, reliance upon expensive technology, etc. Unfortunately, 219 cross-cultural ethnographic estimates of the cost expended to claim exclusive access to resources are rare or non-220 existent. Thus, to better try and understand its influence and identify reasonable cost values we use a broad 221 sensitivity analysis (72) and pattern-oriented modeling approaches (73) (see Supplements 1: Lines 149-190 and 222 3: Lines 147-180 for more details). 223

224 Behaviors

225 The key *design* concepts in this model relate most directly to implementing resource access strategies. 226 Behavioral strategies in the model follow the theoretical descriptions in Supplement 1. All agents are rate 227 maximizers with perfect landscape knowledge following underlying assumptions from simple settlement 228 decision strategies (27, 28). Egalitarian agents never exclude others, meaning they move to the best patch 229 available to them and each agent receives the patch suitability at the end of the tick as their returns. As each 230 time step in the model is split into two potential movement periods (turns), we follow economic defensibility 231 theory (1) and allow agents who practice the free access strategy to favor mobility in a mobility-defense tradeoff. 232 Therefore, free access agents may move during each turn of a tick, a unique aspect of this strategy.

233 Unequal resource access agents make the opposite tradeoff, favoring the ability to exclude over the 234 ability to move; in other words, experiencing a mobility-defense opportunity cost. Following first-mover 235 principles, the first such agent to claim an available patch becomes the leader/patron for that turn. Any 236 subsequent agents joining that patch pay a cost (i.e., 28 equation 2) which is removed from their returns and 237 given to the leader/patron. Joining agents know the cost and evaluate payoffs versus returns from joining a 238 different patch. This emulates the functional outcome of either managerial mutualism (8, 31, 48, 49, 74) or 239 patron-client (15, 36, 42, 43) forms of inequality whereby individuals give up resources or autonomy to an 240 individual who enhances their performance (i.e., a leader) or to a patron in return for access. As both managerial 241 mutualism and patron-client strategies may produce similar outcomes, occur at the same time, or lead to one 242 another, as recent work suggests (75), we do not evaluate the two pathways separately, focusing instead on 243 egalitarian vs nonegalitarian outcomes overall. However, future iterations could allow this to emerge or to be 244 negotiated to explore additional questions. We do run a broad sensitivity analysis on joining cost by varying 245 the cost up and down, while holding all other resource characteristic values at their least, mid, and most likely 246 to promote inequality levels, to evaluate how altering the parameter influences outcomes (Supplement 3).

247 Per the mobility-defense tradeoff, agents engaging in an unequal access strategy only move on the first 248 of the intraturn movement periods. These agents exclude others from the patch they settle only once the 249 leader/patron deems such exclusion to be in their best interest (see Supplement 1 for equations and calculations). 250 These agents will then defend the location for the second of the intraturn movement periods. The cost of 251 excluding others is split equally among all agents on the patch, representing the loss suffered by each agent 252 resulting from exclusionary actions either due to direct participation in defense or to the decrease in returns 253 experienced as a result of some individuals spending time on defense that otherwise would have enhanced the 254 Allee effect.

256 Model Simulation

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To evaluate the influence of individual, and combinations of, characteristics, we use 243 unique combinations of the five key resource characteristics. Models are run until 200 ticks (400 turns) have elapsed. We use 200 ticks as a cutoff to balance identification of characteristics that strongly favor each strategy and computational intensity. As stochasticity is built into the model setup, order of agent movement, agent comparison of resources, and redistribution of resources when landscapes are not completely predictable, we run 100 iterations of each parameter combination, producing 24,300 distinct model runs. Key model outputs from each run are the levels of each resource characteristic (i.e., low, middle, or high) and the proportion of agents employing each strategy across the model run. To calculate this, within each run, on each tick (*n* = 200),
we record the proportion of agents employing the egalitarian and nonegalitarian strategies. At the end of the
run, we export the mean of the 200 observations, providing the proportion of agents employing each strategy
across that run for each of the 24,300 runs. This average proportion allows us to assess whether the model favors
egalitarian, nonegalitarian, or mixed outcomes.

270 *Future Extensions*

271 The model created and analyzed here is, of necessity, a generalization of the world based upon 272 simplified agent decisions; yet predicting egalitarian versus nonegalitarian outcomes is necessarily complex. 273 Our intent is for this baseline model to be alterable by future scholars for incorporation of additional variables 274 likely to influence egalitarian and nonegalitarian outcomes such as: variation in resource holding potential (24), 275 directly measuring circumscription (42, 43, 55), free-riding and collective action with potential solutions (76, 77), 276 leader/patron and follower/subordinate optimization (36), kin selection, social levelling mechanisms, allowing 277 agents to claim more than one grid cell, separate male-female foraging goals (37), cooperative levelling (4), 278 breakdowns of the defense cost into multiple subcomponents, varying human population sizes, or 279 implementation of the current behaviors in a model world built on real-world local environments with directly 280 observed ethnographic behavior for pattern matching. The model may also be linked to other extant models 281 such as ABM implementations of Sahlin's model exchange of exchange (78) for investigating scarcity influences 282 (e.g., 79) or investigations of polity and formation and territoriality (30, 80). Additional extensions may 283 productively further explore assumptions within the current model setup, such as rate maximization, perfect 284 knowledge, and positive assortment.

286 Statistical Analyses

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287 Given we investigate 243 parameter combinations run 100 times each, we employ random forest (RF) 288 (81, 82) machine learning regression implemented in the R statistical environment (68) to evaluate how variation 289 in each resource characteristic influences egalitarian or nonegalitarian outcomes. RF is an ensemble decision 290 tree approach evaluating how the dependent variable is influenced by each predictor, even if highly correlated 291 (81). Here the predictor variables are the five resource characteristics described above. The dependent variable 292 is the proportion of agents employing the unequal strategy, which can be thought of as probability of inequality 293 The RF model is evaluated using root mean square error (rmse) of prediction and variance explained from 294 tenfold cross-validation using the **spm** package (83) as well as by checking model residuals for normalcy. To 295 identify which resource characteristics have the greatest impact we employ variable importance, which is 296 determined by permuting variables out of the model and measuring the increase in mean square error (mse) as 297 a result (82).

298 To further evaluate predictions, we generate the standardized effect size through partial dependence 299 response of the dependent to each independent variable while the others are held constant (84). To better 300 understand the interactions between the other resource characteristics and monopolizability, we generate 12 301 distinct partial dependence response estimations providing three sets of partial dependence responses per level 302 of monopolizability. For each characteristic's evaluation, the other four predictor variables are held constant at 303 their levels least, middle, and most theoretically likely to promote unequal outcomes. All simulation output 304 data for this analysis is available in Supplement 4 and the sensitivity and analytical code to replicate this work 305 is available in Supplement 3.

307 Results

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308 Depending on the model setup, the proportion of egalitarian to nonegalitarian individuals varies 309 greatly (Supplement 3), though the distribution is strongly bimodal (Figure 1). The RF model performs well in 310 predicting the proportion of nonegalitarian individuals across each model run (cross-validated variance 311 explained = 86.95%, rmse = 0.14), with model residuals normally distributed around zero (Supplement 3).

Variable importance, measured as the increase in mean square error (MSE) and the increase in node purity resulting from permuting the variable about of the model, suggests each predictor variable has an important impact on the proportion of agents ending a run in a nonegalitarian outcome. Monopolizability, though, has by far the largest individual influence (Figure 2).

316 As defense cost parameterizing monopolizability has greater influence than the other predictor 317 variables, we initially evaluate its partial response separately (Figure 3). When unequal access is least 318 theoretically likely based on the other resource characteristics (i.e., high abundance, low heterogeneity, low 319 economy of scale, no predictability), but a resource patch is easily monopolizable, we find greater than 50% of 320 individuals employ an unequal access strategy, or a greater than 50:50 probability of inequality. If a resource 321 patch is more costly to monopolize though, the proportion employing a nonegalitarian strategy falls to near 322 zero. When all other resource characteristics are held at their mid-values the pattern is the same; a low 323 monopolizability cost leads to unequal outcomes whereas increasing costs leads to more egalitarianism. When 324 all other variables are most theoretically likely to promote unequal access (i.e., high heterogeneity, low 325 abundance, high economy of scale, and complete predictability), we find that inequality is likely at any of the 326 simulated levels of monopolizability.

Partial responses for heterogeneity, predictability, abundance, and economy of scale show their interactions with each other and with monopolizability do influence unequal or egalitarian outcomes (Figure 4). When monopolizability is held at its mid-value and all other variables are held respectively at their values least, mid, and most likely to promote unequal access, most variables have a relatively similar impact on the proportion of agents ending with inequality. Increases in heterogeneity, predictability, and economy of scale increase the probability of inequality. Increasing abundance decreases it, though the effect is relatively muted.

The overall pattern in the interactions is the same when the monopolizability cost is held at its high point (hard to monopolize) and all other variables are held respectively at their values least, mid, and most likely to promote unequal access. Increasing heterogeneity, predictability, and economy of scale increases the probability of inequality while increasing abundance decreases it. However, unlike the interactions when the monopolizability is held at its midpoint, the variables' influences are not as evenly distributed. Heterogeneity is much more influential than the others when it is costly to monopolize, followed by predictability (Figure 4). Economy of scale and abundance have less impact.

Inequality is always more likely than random chance (>50%) regardless of variation in resource characteristics when the monopolizability cost is held at its low point (easy to defend/monopolize). Further, when it is not very costly to monopolize, heterogeneity and the economy of scale have small impacts. Decreasing predictability does decrease the proportion of agents employing the unequal strategy, and, when all other characteristics are held at their least likely to promote inequality value, so too does abundance. However, neither characteristic drops the inequality probability below 50%. As the interactions are many and complex, Table 2 provides a qualitative assessment of the interactive impact of resource characteristics on strategy outcomes.

347 Broad sensitivity analyses suggest varying the leader/patron cost, monopolizability, or economy of scale 348 do not qualitatively change results (see Supplement 3, Sensitivity Analyses). When holding all other variables 349 constant at their least likely to promote inequality values, changing the joiner/kickback cost has no impact on 350 the probability of inequality - even very minimal costs for leader/patrons cannot outperform egalitarianism 351 (Supplement 3 Figure 2a), When all other variables are held at their middle values, decreasing the 352 joiner/kickback cost increases the probability that the run will result in unequal outcomes as agents receive the 353 benefit of a leader while paying little cost, whereas increasing the cost (i.e., making leaders/patrons more 354 costly/exploitative) decreases the probability of an unequal outcome (Supplement 3 Figure 2b). When all other 355 variables are likely to promote inequality, even expensive leader/patron costs result in inequality (Supplement 356 3 Figure 2c). Varying the costliness of monopolizing a resource patch, when holding all other variables constant 357 at their least and middle values, produces a sigmoidal distribution where there is a high probability of 358 nonegalitarian outcomes when it is cheap to monopolize and a low probability when the costs increase 359 (Supplement 3 Figure 3a,b). When all other variables are held at their most likely to produce inequality, even 360 high monopolizability costs produce inequality (Supplement 3 Figure 3c). Given the generally sigmoidal 361 relationship, we evaluated the influence of the defense cost at a relatively low, mid, and high value to capture 362 how it interacted with other variables. Varying the optimal group size (economy of scale) beyond the values in 363 the main analyses above does not change outcomes. Small group sizes favor egalitarianism and larger 364 aggregations favor inequality, although the strength of the relationship varies dependent upon the values of the 365 other resource characteristics (Supplement 3 Figure 4).

367 Discussion

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368 Overall, the results support predictions 1 and 2. In general, individuals are more likely to maintain 369 egalitarian strategies most frequently when resources are not predictable, highly abundant, homogeneously 370 distributed, and have a small economy of scale, regardless of defense cost value (P1). Conversely, an unequal 371 access outcome is most likely when resources are completely predictable, less abundant, heterogeneously distributed, and have a large economy of scale (P2). However, the strengths of these relationships vary based
upon the interactions of the characteristics (Figure 4), particularly in how the landscape distribution
characteristics (predictability, abundance, and heterogeneity) interact with the patch characteristic
(monopolizability).

When a resource is easily monopolized, payoffs for excluding and/or controlling are relatively unaffected by any other characteristics (Figure 4:i-l). Relying on key subsistence resources that are greatly benefited by storage, significant technological investment, etc., favors greater than a 50% chance of nonegalitarian outcomes even if the resource is highly abundant, has little heterogeneity in its distribution, has a small economy of scale, and is not very predictable. The probability of nonegalitarian outcomes only increases as these characteristics increase in their theoretical likelihood to promote inequality.

382 Ethnographically, the Pacific Northwest of North America may present a case study of this relationship 383 where reliance on anadromous fish produced steep levels of inequality (16, 85). These fish (fish runs) may be 384 expected to be easier to control (or monopolize), and to provide incentives to do so, based on how readily they 385 are stored, the expensive technology used for exploitation (86), and the decreased space required to be defended 386 (16). Indeed, Smith and Codding (16) show that groups in the area dominantly reliant on anadromous fish 387 experienced significantly higher levels of inequality than groups more reliant on plant resources requiring 388 greater mobility. There is also evidence of interactions with the other resource characteristics as, in more 389 northerly locations where the fish runs were more heterogeneously distributed and predictable, inequality was 390 even more prevalent. Similarly, recent work exploring leadership and inequality among the arctic Iñupiaq of 391 Northwest Alaska argues for a patron-client style relationship among whaling boat captains (*umialik*) and boat 392 crews (87). The Iñupiag subsistence system relies heavily upon storage and implements expensive technology 393 (e.g., whaling boats), which may incentivize monopolization. While the scope of inequality is different between 394 these two cases (considerably lower and more transitory among the Iñupiaq), this may be evidence of the interaction with the other resource characteristics as whales are likely less predictable and heterogeneously 395 396 distributed than the salmon runs. Still, both cases appear to be instances where the monopolizability of a key 397 resource may take a leading role in experienced inequality.

The relationships and interactions between resource characteristics get more complicated when resources are less easily claimed (Figure 4:a-h), however. Even when egalitarian outcomes may be expected due to a high monopolization cost, landscape level resource characteristics can push the probability of inequality well above 50%. This suggests that, to explore if individuals are/were likely to experience egalitarian or nonegalitarian relations, while it may be important to estimate the relative monopolizability of the key subsistence resources, it is also necessary to understand and measure the landscape distribution characteristics.

404 Consistently, when monopolizability is more costly, we find that increasing heterogeneity in the 405 distribution of resources increases the probability of inequality. This fits theoretical expectations as when 406 resources are concentrated into a few, limited, areas the payoffs for monopolization increase either from more 407 resources able to be held by a single defensive action and/or heterogeneity structuring payoffs such that 408 guaranteeing access to some resources, even if as a subordinate, is better than remaining egalitarian in a much 409 poorer location. The influence of heterogeneity was shown recently in a global cross-cultural study which found 410 that increasing heterogeneity in local environments significantly increased the probability that ethnographically 411 documented societies possess inequality, with the relationship particularly strong in foraging and fishing 412 societies (15: Figure 4), suggesting that individuals within such populations may be especially influenced by the 413 heterogeneity in the distribution of their key subsistence resource(s).

414 In a specific ethnographic context, it has been suggested that there is significantly greater intragroup 415 inequality between individuals within Papua New Guinea groups who are fisher-foragers than those who are 416 hunter-foragers, despite neither set of groups relying much on storage (88, 89). Crucially, the hunter-foragers 417 rely on resources relatively homogeneously distributed, though unpredictable, whereas fisher-foragers rely 418 primarily on resources that are highly concentrated in limited areas (heterogeneous) and highly predictable in 419 their distributions (88). These resource characteristics then structure divergent payoffs for different political 420 actions geared toward obtaining power and inequality (89). Archaeologically, heterogeneity appears to play a 421 role in the early stages of hierarchy and inequality among the forager-hunter-gatherer Calusa of modern-day 422 Florida. While the key marine resources comprising large portions of the diet may or may not have been very 423 predictable over several generations, they were relatively predictable on shorter timescales and, importantly, 424 heterogeneously distributed, a factor that has been associated with the emergence of more complex Calusa 425 patterns and incipient hierarchy in the area (90).

426 Like heterogeneity, predictability produces a consistent pattern when the monopolizability costs are 427 higher, with increasing predictability increasing the probability of inequality. Ethnographically, examples of 428 this influence exist from Indigenous foraging populations in both Papua New Guinea (see above) and 429 populations who lived (and continue living) in modern day California. Among these Californian groups, 430 Bettinger observes that, "The key difference was that the easterners became reliant on pinyon, which was unpredictable, 431 leading to the development of nonterritorial family bands. The westerners, on the other hand, became reliant on the acorn, 432 which was dependable enough to justify landholding and territorial defense from the outset, leading initially to patrilineal 433 bands" (91: 176-177). Increasing predictability may, in part, also relate to incipient inequality or social 434 differentiation among the early Natufian complex foragers, where rising temperatures and precipitation appear 435 to have improved the predictability of key resources, increasing the reliability with which these foragers could 436 locate and exploit them (92-94).

437 Unlike both heterogeneity and predictability, abundance appears to be less important as the cost to 438 monopolize increases, evidenced by the minimal change in the probability of inequality across the majority of 439 interactions for mid and high monopolizability costs (Figure 4). This is perhaps unsurprising. So long as key 440 resources are abundant enough to both enable survival and to provide subsistence support for additional 441 individual(s) beyond the person(s) currently using the resource (ie., surplus, c.f., 5, 7, 95), any relative overall 442 abundance increase or decrease may not alter the options available to individuals drastically unless a resource 443 experiences a spatiotemporally limited "super abundance" (1), something likely unique to limited 444 circumstances.

445 Finally, resource economy of scale is relatively unimportant if the other characteristics are all at their 446 low or high values (Figure 4). However, when the key resource is moderately heterogeneous, predictable, and 447 abundant, the economy of scale may have a large impact through its promotion of human aggregation. Though 448 this may sound like a restricted combination of characteristics, it is likely that many resources are somewhat 449 predictable, somewhat abundant, and moderately heterogeneously distributed, suggesting the economy of scale 450 may have a larger impact than previously identified. From a managerial mutualism perspective, ethnographic 451 evidence of this effect exists in the Great Basin of North America. Here group cooperation favored by large 452 returns to scale from cooperating for antelope and rabbit drives produced situations in which many individuals 453 aggregated together under a temporary leader, deferring to these individuals for the purpose of acquiring these 454 key resources (96: 34-36, 61). While this is a different kind of inequality (transitory) and certainly less severe in 455 scope compared to foragers in the Pacific Northwest and several other areas, these instances of aggregation 456 based on the economy of scale of the resources incentivized and relied upon intragroup differentiation (leader 457 and followers).

458 Here we have matched ethnographic and archaeological examples of foraging populations with 459 inequality as opposed to the more common circumstances of relative egalitarianism among foragers. We did 460 this to emphasize how local conditions may favor the rarer behavior; however, our model does provide an 461 explanation for the prevalence of enduring relative material egalitarianism among many foraging populations 462 as well. We suspect most foraging populations rely on resources that are/were some combination of relatively 463 unpredictable, homogeneously distributed, more abundant, and with smaller economies of scale. Long-term 464 reliance on such resources should favor egalitarian outcomes by reducing the payoff for exclusionary or 465 controlling behaviors. That said, we welcome research identifying instances where this is not the case and 466 inequality remains absent as these cases will likely provide key insight into other mechanisms limiting 467 inequality. Finally, the patterns in the emergence of material inequality documented here may represent similar 468 decision processes as those suggested to later lead to increasing intergroup hierarchy and polity formation, 469 particularly among agricultural populations (80), presenting an intriguing potential direction for future research 470 as agriculture may often be described as quite heterogeneously distributed and highly predictable. All our 471 results will benefit from further ethnographic and archaeological testing, some of which is seen in the other 472 articles in this special issue.

474 Conclusion

473

475 Overall, our work here employing an ABM connecting several theoretically informed hypotheses 476 provides three key findings: a) The monopolizability of a resource, a factor difficult to empirically quantify, has 477 a significant, but contingent, impact on whether individuals may engage in more egalitarian or nonegalitarian 478 relations based upon other landscape level resource characteristics. b) When it is even somewhat costly to 479 monopolize/control primary resource patches, landscape level resource predictability and heterogeneity in 480 distribution, in particular, will structure the type of behavior that pays off the most. This suggests that

481 estimating these aspects of primary subsistence resources across the spatial and temporal diversity of human

482 groups will be particularly fruitful in understanding incipient inequality. And **c**) as behaviors that suppress or

483 engage in hierarchical interactions are both in the human behavioral toolkit (i.e., 97), it is the local ecological 484 conditions structuring payoffs to individuals that should promote either egalitarian or nonegalitarian

485 behavioral outcomes. While certainly interactions with other factors like private property (9, 98), relatedness

486 with others (c.f., 43), intergenerational wealth transfer (17), and demographic changes altering labor

487 monopolization (95, 99) also played a role and warrant examination in the expression of past inequality, future 488 work measuring and estimating the heterogeneity, predictability, and economy of scale of key subsistence 489 resources, in particular, will prove highly productive in predicting egalitarianism and non-egalitarianism

- 490 emergence in the past.
- 491

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502 Utah.

503 Tables

Variable	Proxy	Low Value	Mid Value	High Value	Source
Abundance	Net primary productivity (NPP) (50km radius)	~1700	~3300	~5700	(15, 66)
Heterogeneity	Standard deviation NPP (50km radius)	~700	~1400	~2600	(15, 66)
Economy of Scale	Smallest cooperating group size	11	16	20	(66)
Population Size	Total population	386	876	2000	(66)
Predictability	% Patches keeping same productivity each turn	0%	50%	100%	
Monopolizability	Amount suitability lost for a single agent to defend the mean patch	3	7	11	

505

Table 1. Global environment state variables. Values for most resource characteristics were obtained from ethnographic proxy observations. Low, mid, and high values for abundance and heterogeneity are derived from the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile NPP values for foraging societies within the Binford and SCCS datasets. The economy of scale and population size values are the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile values from foraging societies within the Binford dataset. Predictability and monopolizability are set a priori from theoretical expectations (see main text and Supplements 1 and 3).

512

Monopolizability Cost Other Characteristic Levels		Inequality Outcome		
		Inequality is likely, but even more probable		
	Least	when there is complete predictability and low		
		abundance		
Low	Mid	Inequality always likely, but least probable		
LOW		when resources are not predictable and highly		
		abundant		
	Most	Inequality always likely, but least probable		
	WOSt	when there is no predictability		
	Least	Inequality is uncommon, but most probable		
		when there is high heterogeneity and		
		resources are predictable		
Mid	Mid	Inequality is likely but least probable with a		
with		small economy of scale		
	Most	Inoquality always likely but loost probable		
		with low beterogeneity and no predictability		
		with low hereiogeneity and no predictability		
	Logst	Inoquality is yory unlikely		
	Least	inequality is very unificely		
	Mid	Inequality rare but most probable when there		
High		is high heterogeneity and a high economy of		
0		scale		
	Most	Inequality is likely when there is high		
		heterogeneity and resources are completely		
		predictable		

Table 2. Inequality outcomes. Key conditions for inequality are reported at each monopolizability cost level,

with other resource characteristics held at their levels least, mid, or most theoretically likely to favor inequality.

Least = little heterogeneity, high abundance, no predictability, and a small economy of scale. Mid = all variables

at their middle level. Most = high heterogeneity, low abundance, complete predictability, and a large economy of scale.



Proportion of Unequal Agents 520 521 Figure 1. Histogram of proportion of agents employing the unequal strategy across all model runs (n = 24,300). 522





523 524 Figure 2. Variable importance from RF regression showing both the percent increase in mean square error (MSE) 525 and the increase in node purity as a result of permuting each variable out of the analysis. MSE increase 526 represents the increase in prediction error incurred by dropping the given variable, whereas node purity is 527 residual sum of squares representing the improvement in prediction of the proportion of agents employing an 528 unequal strategy resulting from splitting the data on the given variable.



Monopolizability Cost

529 530 531 Figure 3. Partial response plot for monopolizability when all other variables are held at their least (teal), mid

(blue), and most (purple) likely to promote unequal access values.



532 533

Figure 4. Partial dependence responses for each resource characteristic at each level of monopolizability when
 all other characteristics are held at their levels least (teal), mid (blue), and most (purple) theoretically likely to
 promote inequality.

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