

1 **Males with a mother living in their group have higher paternity success in bonobos but not**
2 **chimpanzees**

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26 **eTOC blurb**

27 Surbeck et al. shows direct maternal effects for adult sons in a species with male
28 philopatry/female dispersal and co-dominance between the sexes. Males have higher paternity
29 success when their mother is living in the group in bonobos but not in the closely related
30 chimpanzees, where females are subordinate and intervene less in male conflict.

31 In many group-living mammals, mothers may increase the reproductive success of their
32 daughters even after they are nutritionally independent and fully grown [1]. However, whether
33 such maternal effects exist for adult sons is largely unknown. Here we show that males have
34 higher paternity success when their mother is living in the group at the time of the offspring's
35 conception in bonobos (N = 39 paternities from 4 groups) but not in chimpanzees (N = 263
36 paternities from 7 groups). These results are consistent with previous research showing a
37 stronger role of mothers (and females more generally) in bonobo than chimpanzee societies.

38 The effects of maternal health, nutritional and social status, and experience on offspring
39 development and fitness are strongest during the energetically demanding stages of gestation and
40 lactation [1]. However, maternal effects can also be present for older, more independent
41 offspring. For example, in group-living animals, mothers can support their adult offspring during
42 competitive interactions with conspecifics and thereby influence their social rank or access to
43 resources [2]. As most social mammals are female philopatric, maternal support and fitness
44 benefits of co-residence with mothers have often been described for independent daughters [2].
45 Mothers may also behave in ways to enhance the fitness of their adult sons when they co-reside
46 in the same group. For example, orca mothers lead their sons to attractive foraging grounds, a
47 potential mechanism explaining the increased survivorship of males living with their mothers
48 [3]. To our knowledge, however, no study (outside of humans [4]) has investigated the effect of
49 mothers' presence on male fertility (i.e., paternities per unit time/opportunities), which is
50 typically a large component of variance in lifetime reproductive success in male mammals [5].
51 Another limitation of previous research is genetic confounding: offspring with living mothers
52 might have higher fitness not because of their mother's behavior, but because genes that increase
53 the mother's survival (e.g., through increased body size or health) also increase the fitness of her

54 offspring. While large, multi-generational pedigrees can disentangle the genetic and
55 environmental components of maternal effects, these are not often available for wild populations,
56 especially in the long-lived, group-living species where we might expect social relationships to
57 most strongly affect fitness. However, if mothers' presence and offspring fitness are associated
58 in a species where mothers routinely behave in ways that plausibly increase offspring fitness, but
59 not in a closely related species where mothers do not often behave this way, this would increase
60 our confidence that the observed maternal effect is at least partly environmental rather than
61 solely genetic.

62 Here we examine the relationship between mother presence and paternity success in
63 bonobos and chimpanzees, two closely related male-philopatric/female dispersal species and
64 humans' closest living relatives. Although in both species mothers live alongside their sons for
65 their entire adult lives and help them in male-male competition, a large body of evidence
66 suggests that bonobo mothers more frequently behave in ways that potentially increase the
67 paternity success of their sons. For example, bonobo mothers frequently bring their sons into
68 close spatial proximity with estrous females [6], protect their sons' mating attempts from
69 interference by other males [6], interfere in the mating attempts of males other than their sons
70 [6], and form coalitions with their sons to help them acquire and maintain high dominance rank
71 [7]. Such maternal behavior is also likely to be more effective in bonobos, where the sexes are
72 co-dominant and the highest ranks are consistently occupied by females, than in chimpanzees,
73 where all adult males are dominant over all females [8]. We found that bonobo males with a
74 mother living in the group at the time of the conception were about 3 times (odd ratio: 3.14)
75 more likely to sire offspring than males that did not (Figure 1). In contrast, mothers' presence
76 had no strong relationship with siring probability in chimpanzees (males with mother present

77 were 1.26 times less likely to sire offspring; Figure 1; Figure S1). This species difference in the
78 relationship between mothers' presence and paternity success was statistically significant (two-
79 way interaction between species and mother presence, GLMM estimate \pm SE = -1.54 ± 0.50 ,
80 $P < 0.01$; for a summary of the statistical model see SI Statistical analyses), and was observed
81 while controlling for species differences in the number of males that had a mother present
82 (bonobos = 55%, chimpanzees = 41%), the number of competing males (averages of group
83 averages: $\bar{X}_{\text{bonobos}} = 6.9$; $\bar{X}_{\text{chimpanzees}} = 15.5$), and male age (average sire age: bonobos = 21.8y;
84 chimpanzees = 23.3y) at the time of conception. Overall, the sire's mother was present for more
85 than twice as many conceptions in bonobos ($31/39 = 79.5\%$) than in chimpanzees ($92/263 =$
86 34.9%); Table S1.

87 Findings in humans and orcas linking mothers' presence and behavior to the fitness of lineal
88 descendants (i.e., offspring and grandoffspring) have been interpreted as contributing to the
89 evolution of the unusual pattern of extended longevity and a substantial female post-reproductive
90 lifespan observed in these taxa [3,4]. While long-term survivorship data are not yet available for
91 wild bonobos, data from captivity suggesting that female longevity may be higher in bonobos
92 than chimpanzees are consistent with this hypothesis [9]. In addition, theory predicts that a
93 female post-reproductive lifespan is more likely to evolve under mating and dispersal systems
94 (including male philopatry/female dispersal) where the expected number of close relatives in the
95 group, and thus the expected benefits of ceasing reproduction to assist them, increase with a
96 female's age [10]. However, while bonobo females live in male-philopatric/female dispersal
97 societies, and can increase the number of grandoffspring they have through their sons, they
98 apparently do not have a substantial post-reproductive lifespan. More research on interspecific
99 variation in the costs and benefits of breeding and helping will be necessary to explain why a

100 substantial female post-reproductive lifespan only occurs in some of the species where the
101 dispersal system and resulting age structure of relatedness would appear to favor its evolution
102 [10].

103 **Authors' contribution**

104 MS analysed the data and together with LV and KL drafted the manuscript. MS, KL, GH, LV,
105 CB, BF, RW, KZ, TF, MM, TS, NT, SI, AP, EW, KW,CC, MET and ZM were involved with
106 study design, interpretation of results or acquisition of data. All authors gave final approval for
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149 **Declaration of Interests**

150 The authors declare no competing interests.

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152 **Figure captions**

153 Figure 1 shows the observed average likelihood of a male to sire offspring in the presence and
154 absence of their mothers in the group. Bonobos are represented in black and chimpanzees in
155 grey. Circle sizes represent the number of offspring. The generally higher likelihood of a male to
156 sire a given offspring in bonobos is due to the smaller number of males in the group compared to
157 chimpanzees.