

1 **Unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies in a population of**  
2 **wild group-living mammals**

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20 **Running header:** Unreciprocated allogrooming in European badgers

21

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34 **Data Availability Statement:** *Data are provided in the Supplementary Materials.*

35

36 **Lay summary:**

37 Allogrooming (individuals grooming each other) in animal societies can relate to  
38 social status, and has been investigated by comparing allogrooming with dominance  
39 rank, calculated from aggressive interactions. This, however, ignores the identity of  
40 allogrooming partners. We apply dominance hierarchy analyses to allogrooming in  
41 groups of wild European badgers, demonstrating the use of a novel method for  
42 understanding allogrooming social structures. We detected marginal unreciprocated  
43 allogrooming hierarchies, consistent with a social system with seemingly rudimentary  
44 structures.

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46 wild group-living mammals

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49

50 **Abstract**

51 Allogrooming can relate to social status in mammalian societies, and thus, be used to  
52 infer social structure. This relationship has previously been investigated by  
53 examining an individual's dominance rank and their total amount of allogrooming.  
54 This, however, does not account for the identity of allogrooming partners. We applied  
55 a novel approach, calculating the linearity and steepness of unreciprocated  
56 allogrooming hierarchies using actor–receiver matrices in European badgers (*Meles  
57 meles*) groups. Badgers have relatively unstructured social groups compared to most  
58 group-living carnivores and allogrooming in badgers is currently hypothesized to  
59 have a hygiene function. We examine whether allogrooming is linked to social status  
60 by investigating: 1) the presence, linearity, and steepness of unreciprocated  
61 allogrooming hierarchies; 2) the trading of unreciprocated allogrooming for the  
62 potential benefit of receiving reduced aggression from dominant individuals; and, 3)  
63 whether unreciprocated allogrooming is associated with relatedness. We found weak  
64 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies, with marginal linearity, steepness overall,  
65 and variation between social-group-years. Unreciprocated allogrooming was  
66 positively correlated with directed aggression, potentially providing evidence for the  
67 trading of allogrooming for reduced aggression. Allogrooming was not correlated with  
68 relatedness, possibly due to high relatedness within social groups. Our findings  
69 reaffirm that European badgers have a relatively unstructured social system; likely  
70 reflecting a relatively simple state of sociality in Carnivores, with little need for  
71 hierarchical order. Using actor–receiver unreciprocated allogrooming matrices to test

72 for linearity and steepness of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies in other social  
73 species will improve knowledge of group social structure.

74

75 **Key words**

76 Unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies; linearity of hierarchies; steepness of

77 hierarchies; Biological Trade Model; direct aggression; relatedness

78 **Introduction**

79 Group living is hypothesized to evolve when it provides benefits that enhance an  
80 individual's fitness beyond that achievable from living solitarily (Alexander 1974).  
81 Social behaviors may then evolve to increase or maintain this group-living benefit;  
82 for example, by reducing the cost of increased parasite and disease transmission  
83 (Albery et al. 2020) or by generating a social hierarchy within a group to reduce  
84 costly competition between group members (Alexander 1974).

85

86 Allogrooming is a common behavior in animal societies whereby group members  
87 groom one another. In addition to the 'hygienic function' hypothesis (Freeland  
88 1976; Hutchins and Barash 1976), there is also the 'social function' hypothesis  
89 (Sparks 1967). There are several possible social functions of allogrooming and  
90 these will likely differ between species, as the structure and quantity of  
91 allogrooming is likely species specific. Allogrooming may be performed to retain or  
92 enhance social bonds between affiliative conspecifics (Stammach and Kummer  
93 1982; Kimura 1998; Carter and Leffer 2015; Miyazawa et al. 2020) and  
94 reduce/appease within-group aggression by more dominant animals (Birkhead  
95 1978; Schino et al. 1990; O'Brien 1993; Baker and Aureli 2000; Schweinfurth et al.  
96 2017). It may also be used by individuals to conciliate relationships after  
97 aggressive interactions (de Waal 1984). Meta-analyses, however, are required to  
98 understand how widespread or context dependent these social functions of  
99 allogrooming are.

100

101 As allogrooming can be related to social status in mammalian societies its  
102 distribution between individuals can be highly structured (Forand and Marchinton  
103 1989; Singh et al. 2006; Miyazawa et al. 2020). The identification of allogrooming  
104 hierarchies and their relationship with dominance hierarchies-defined from dyadic  
105 aggression, in which there is a clear loser and winner-can therefore enhance our

106 understanding of group social-organization (Macdonald et al. 2000). Studies have  
107 assessed the relationship between social dominance and allogrooming by  
108 correlating the total amount of allogrooming an individual gave to, and received  
109 from, all group members against the individual's dominance rank, determined from  
110 agonistic interactions (Singh et al. 2006; Tiddi et al. 2012). To fully ascertain the  
111 relationship between dominance rank and allogrooming, however, other factors  
112 such as the identity of allogrooming partners and allogrooming reciprocation need  
113 to be accounted for (Bitetti 1997). As a step towards this, matrices of allogrooming  
114 have been analyzed to test for reciprocity in allogrooming (Lazaro-Perea et al.  
115 2004); unreciprocated allogrooming matrices have been correlated with direct  
116 aggression matrices (Hewitt et al. 2009); and a social-network approach has been  
117 used to evaluate whether grooming is directed towards higher or lower ranking  
118 individuals in an agonistic dominance hierarchy (Šárová et al. 2016). Quantifying  
119 the linearity (directional consistency of dyadic unreciprocated allogrooming  
120 interactions; de Vries 1998) and steepness (slope of normalized David's scores  
121 against rank; de Vries 1998) of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies would  
122 indicate whether unreciprocated allogrooming is related to an individual's social  
123 status, but has—to our knowledge—not yet been undertaken.

124

125 Another useful way to describe and understand allogrooming hierarchies in  
126 relation to dominance is the Biological Trade Model (BTM; Noë and Hammerstein  
127 1994; Noë and Hammerstein 1995). The BTM describes a market-based system  
128 in which allogrooming is a commodity traded by subordinate individuals for rank-  
129 related commodities from more dominant individuals. The BTM predicts that  
130 allogrooming is distributed between all group members with the reciprocation of  
131 allogrooming dependent on dominance rank, determined from agonistic  
132 interactions (Barrett and Henzi 2006). Evidence supporting the BTM has been  
133 found in a number of different taxa, including: Norway rats, *Rattus norvegicus*

134 (Schweinfurth et al. 2017); meerkats, *Suricata suricatta* (Kutsukake and Clutton-  
135 Brock 2010) and, most notably, primates, e.g. female chacma baboons, *Papio*  
136 *cynocephalus ursinus* (Barrett et al. 1999), female tufted capuchin, *Cebus apella*  
137 *nigritus* (Tiddi et al. 2012), and male chimpanzees, *Pan troglodytes* (Kaburu and  
138 Newton-Fisher 2015). Alternatively, Seyfarth's (1977) model predicts that  
139 allogrooming is clustered between individuals of similar rank, and some studies  
140 have documented grooming down the hierarchy (e.g. brown capuchin monkeys,  
141 *Cebus apella*, Parr et al. 1997). Such inconsistencies within the literature may  
142 result from differences in both social and ecological contexts, influenced by  
143 resource availability, distribution, and the value of allogrooming as a commodity  
144 within different animal groups.

145

146 As philopatry between parents and offspring is usually a key component driving  
147 group formation, differences in allogrooming behavior may also be influenced by  
148 genetic relatedness. This is because allogrooming can play an important role in  
149 enhancing social bonds between relatives (Mooring and Hart 1993; Curtis et al.  
150 2003). Within social-groups of rhesus macaques, *Macaca mulatta*, allogrooming  
151 subgroups form based on genetic relationships (Sade 1965). Similarly, during the  
152 non-mating season Japanese macaques, *Macaca fuscata*, directed greater levels  
153 of grooming towards closely related family members (Mehlman and Chapais  
154 1988). Therefore, genetic relatedness is potentially an important factor to consider  
155 when analyzing allogrooming hierarchies. Currently most of the allogrooming  
156 literature has been derived from observations in primate societies (Kutsukake and  
157 Clutton-Brock 2006; Radford and Plessis 2006) and more studies on other taxa  
158 are required to discern how generalizable the results from these studies are.

159

160 The European badger (hereafter 'badgers'), *Meles meles*, can form large social-  
161 groups (mean group size = 11.3, range = 2–29; da Silva et al. 1994) in high-

162 density populations in the UK, Ireland and Sweden, often via the retention of  
163 offspring in their natal territory (Macdonald et al. 2008). Badgers display a simple  
164 degree of sociality (Woodroffe and Macdonald 1993), exhibiting social tolerance  
165 but incomplete territoriality (Ellwood et al. 2017). Social groups of badgers do  
166 display context dependent, steep, linear dominance hierarchies based on directed  
167 aggression (Hewitt et al. 2009). Badgers could therefore display some form of  
168 social structure relating to social rank. Allogrooming is one of the few potentially  
169 cooperative behaviors performed by badgers (Stewart and Macdonald 2003;  
170 Johnson et al. 2004), along with, allomarking and a low level of alloparental care  
171 (Dugdale et al. 2010). Thus, allogrooming provides a promising behavior for  
172 understanding aspects of the social structure of badgers. Furthermore, the  
173 facultative sociality of the badger makes it an important species when aiming to  
174 understand the evolution of simple animal social structures and cooperative  
175 behaviors.

176

177 During bouts of allogrooming a badger bites deep into the pelage of another  
178 individual, likely to remove fleas from body areas that the individual, itself, cannot  
179 reach (Stewart and Macdonald 2003). The combination of allogrooming with self-  
180 grooming allows coverage of an individual's whole body (Macdonald et al. 2000).  
181 Badgers display reciprocal allogrooming, where both individuals in a dyadic pair  
182 perform allogrooming in a tit-for-tat like strategy (Macdonald et al. 2000) and  
183 unreciprocated allogrooming, whereby only the initiator performs the behavior and  
184 the receiver does not. Thus, allogrooming in badgers has the potential to be  
185 related to social status as unreciprocated allogrooming events may be related to  
186 an individual's rank within the group. Currently, only the potential hygienic function  
187 of allogrooming in badgers has been discussed in the literature (Macdonald et al.  
188 2000; Stewart and Macdonald 2003). Although allogrooming can be correlated  
189 with directed aggression in badgers (Hewitt et al. 2009), no published studies



190 have analyzed unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies and their relationship with  
191 social status.

192

193 We redress the above gap in our knowledge on allogrooming in badgers by  
194 focusing directly on unreciprocated allogrooming actor-receiver matrices where  
195 the identity of both animals was known. Firstly, we test whether unreciprocated  
196 allogrooming is linked to social status by utilizing a novel method of investigating  
197 the presence, linearity and steepness of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies.  
198 Secondly, we investigate the potential trading of unreciprocated allogrooming for  
199 rank-related benefits (as predicated by the BTM model; Noë and Hammerstein  
200 1994; Noë and Hammerstein 1995), such as greater tolerance from dominant  
201 individuals. If allogrooming is traded for greater tolerance, we predict a positive  
202 correlation between unreciprocated allogrooming and directed aggression. This is  
203 because individuals may perform higher levels of unreciprocated allogrooming  
204 towards individuals from whom they received the highest levels of aggression to  
205 gain increased tolerance (Henazi and Barrett 1999). Finally, we test whether  
206 allogrooming may be involved in enhancing social bonds among relatives  
207 (Mooring and Hart 1993). If this is the case, we predict that relatedness will be  
208 negatively correlated with unreciprocated allogrooming and positively correlated  
209 with reciprocated allogrooming.

210

## 211 **Methods and Materials**

### 212 *Study location*

213 The study was conducted in Wytham Woods, Oxford, U.K. (51°46'26N, 1°  
214 19'19W) – a largely deciduous woodland in which the European badger  
215 population has been intensively studied since 1987 (Macdonald and Newman  
216 2002). Group borders were mapped once every two years through bait marking  
217 (Macdonald and Newman 2002). We analyzed data collected from the following

218 social-group-years: Sunday's Hill (SH: 1995), Pasticks (P: 1995, 2004 & 2005)  
219 and Pasticks Outlier (PO: 2004 & 2005). Pasticks Outlier was initially part of the  
220 Pasticks group, however, in 2003 they were identified as two distinct social-groups  
221 (Hewitt et al. 2009). For social-group-year compositions by sex, see Table 1.

222

### 223 *Collection of individual data*

224 Badgers were cage-trapped and sedated four times each year in January, June,  
225 August and November (Macdonald and Newman 2002). Capture and handling  
226 protocols were licensed under the 1992 Badger Act (Natural England: 20104655),  
227 and the 1986 UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act (Home Office: PPL30/2835).  
228 Captured individuals were sedated with an intramuscular injection of,  
229 approximately, 0.2ml ketamine hydrochloride per kg body weight (McLaren et al.  
230 2005). Upon first capture each individual was sexed and given an individual tattoo  
231 number to allow for future identification. To enable identification, on CCTV  
232 footage, individuals were given a unique fur clip mark (Stewart and Macdonald  
233 1997). Blood or guard hair samples were collected for genetic analyses (Dugdale  
234 et al. 2007).

235

### 236 *Genetic analyses of hair and blood samples*

237 DNA was extracted from hair samples using a Chelex protocol (Walsh et al. 1991)  
238 and from blood samples via a GFX genomic blood DNA purification kit (Amersham  
239 Biosciences, Little Chalfont, UK). Individuals were genotyped at up to 22  
240 microsatellite loci to assign parentage (Dugdale et al. 2007). An estimation of the  
241 Queller and Goodnight's (1989) index of relatedness ( $R$ ) was calculated for each  
242 badger pair (Dugdale et al. 2008), using Relatedness 5.0.8.

243

244 *Observational analysis of social behavior*

245 Infrared CCTV cameras (Stewart et al. 1997) were set to film all behavioral actions  
246 occurring around focal sett entrances during the night. Each year the cameras  
247 were set up at two of the three social-groups: SH and P in 1995; P and PO in  
248 2004, and P and PO in 2005. At P, the largest sett, three cameras were positioned  
249 to obtain adequate coverage, whereas at SH and PO one camera each was  
250 operated in each study year. A total of 11,230 hours of footage over 319 calendar  
251 nights (1<sup>st</sup> of February to the 31<sup>st</sup> of March each year) were analyzed.

252

253 Each reciprocated and unreciprocated allogrooming event was recorded and the  
254 initiator and receiver identities were noted from their unique clip marks (Hewitt et  
255 al. 2009). All instances in which a badger initiated allogrooming and the receiver  
256 did not reciprocate, by performing the behavior, were classed as unreciprocated  
257 allogrooming. Reciprocated allogrooming was classified as two individuals  
258 grooming one another, with the initial receiver reciprocating grooming before the  
259 badgers walked away from each other. Allogrooming events were classed as  
260 terminated when both individuals (in the case of reciprocated allogrooming) or the  
261 groomer (in the case of unreciprocated allogrooming) stopped grooming and at  
262 least one of the badgers moved their leg(s) away from the other. If either badger  
263 paused to look around without physically moving their legs and began grooming  
264 again this was classed as the same bout. Over the six social-group-years, we  
265 observed a total of 1,768 reciprocated and 841 unreciprocated allogrooming  
266 events between 234 dyads. A mean of 31% (28–35%, 95% confidence interval) of  
267 all allogrooming events per social-group-year were unreciprocated.

268

269 Directed aggression was defined as an actor initiating aggression (bite, nip or  
270 charge) at a receiver who did not reciprocate the aggression. Directed aggression

271 ended when the dyad moved at least two body lengths apart for at least 20 s  
272 (Hewitt et al. 2009).

273

#### 274 *Behavioral matrices*

275 We weighted actor-receiver matrices of allogrooming by the total number of bouts  
276 in which both members of each dyad were seen on camera together. A bout was a  
277 period of badger activity on camera, terminating when the last badger left the  
278 screen and there was no further activity for one minute (Hewitt et al. 2009). This  
279 accounted for differences in the amount of time that each dyadic pair was seen on  
280 camera, and thus had the opportunity to be observed interacting. The whole  
281 matrix was then multiplied by 100 and rounded to whole numbers (Figure S1). We  
282 removed from the matrices dyadic interactions with badgers that were not present  
283 or not identifiable for the whole filming period (Hewitt et al. 2009), and all dyadic  
284 interactions with cubs, as cubs may be too young to reciprocate allogrooming  
285 (Macdonald et al. 2000).

286

#### 287 *Hierarchical analyses of unreciprocated allogrooming*

288 Hierarchies can be measured in terms of linearity, an ordinal measurement  
289 offering information on the directional consistency of a dyadic interaction (de Vries  
290 1998). A linear hierarchy within a group is derived from dyadic dominance  
291 relationships of group members and is dependent on the degree to which  
292 dominance within dyads is consistent across triads within the group (de Vries  
293 1995). Linearity implies that the highest-ranking individual is the winner of all  
294 dyadic interactions in the group, and that the second highest ranking individual is  
295 the winner of dyadic interactions with all other individuals bar the highest ranking,  
296 and so on. To investigate the relationship between allogrooming and social status,  
297 we tested for a linear hierarchy in each social-group-year unreciprocated  
298 allogrooming matrix. Higher ranking individuals were classed as those that

299 received the most, and initiated the least, unreciprocated allogrooming. We used  
300 DomiCalc version 14/05/2013 (Schmid and de Vries 2013), which measures the  
301 linearity degree of a hierarchy via an unbiased estimate of Landau's (1951)  
302 linearity index  $h$ . This index is deduced from unreciprocated allogrooming  
303 receiver/initiator counts, where any null dyads (unknown relationships) were  
304 replaced with ties to avoid biasing  $h$  (Schmid and de Vries 2013).  $h$  ranges from 1  
305 to 0, with 1 indicating a completely linear hierarchy and 0 indicating a completely  
306 non-linear hierarchy. We performed the test for linearity, by randomly generating a  
307 linearity index ( $h_r$ ) 10,000 times. Hierarchies were considered linear if  $P_{\text{left}} < 0.05$   
308 (where  $P_{\text{left}} =$  number of times that  $h_r \geq h$ , divided by 10,000), and significantly non-  
309 linear if  $P_{\text{right}} < 0.05$  (where  $P_{\text{right}} =$  the number of times that  $h_r \leq h$ , divided by  
310 10,000). We then tested for an overall significant effect via Fisher's method of  
311 combining p-values (Sokal and Rohlf 1994; Hewitt et al. 2009).

312

313 We reordered any social-group-year matrix for which linearity was found, using the  
314 improved I&SI method (Schmid and de Vries 2013). The I&SI method correlates  
315 each order, with minimal I&SI values, with the Combi1 index, via a Spearman's  
316 rank correlation analysis. This produces a matrix with the most optimal order of  
317 individuals with respect to the hierarchy. Combi1 is a hierarchical combination of  
318 the initiator–receiver unreciprocated allogroomer index (subtraction of the number  
319 of individuals to which the central individual initiated unreciprocated allogrooming,  
320 from the count of individuals who initiated unreciprocated allogrooming with the  
321 central individual), and the proportion of receivers relative to the number of  
322 determined dyadic receiver relationships (Schmid and de Vries 2013). The highest  
323 Spearman's rank correlational coefficient indicates the most optimal order.

324

325 Another measure of social hierarchies is hierarchy steepness. Unlike linearity,  
326 which is based on binary dyadic dominance relationships and is calculated from

327 the power of symmetry, steepness considers the power of asymmetry via the  
328 analysis of cardinal rank measures (de Vries et al. 2006). While linearity of  
329 hierarchies measures directional consistency of dyadic interactions, 'steepness'  
330 calculates the absolute amount by which individuals (of adjacent rank) differ from  
331 each other in their total success in winning encounters (de Vries et al. 2006)), i.e.  
332 receiving unreciprocated allogrooming. When the absolute differences between  
333 adjacently ranked individuals are large the hierarchy is referred to as steep and  
334 when these differences are small it is referred to as shallow. Steepness was  
335 calculated using matrices of dyadic indices corrected for chance in R 3.4.0 (R  
336 Core Team 2017) using steepness 0.2-2 (de Vries et al. 2006). We assessed the  
337 significance of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchy steepness using 10,000  
338 randomizations. We also tested for an overall significant effect via Fisher's method  
339 of combining *P*-values.

340

341 When we identified linear or steep unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies, we  
342 tested for a sex effect against both the I&SI rank and David's scores rank in R  
343 3.4.0 (R Core Team 2017). We first ran a Shapiro-Wilk test and F-test to confirm  
344 normality and homogeneity of variance, respectively, and then tested the sex  
345 effect in a two-sample t-test. P 2005 only contained two males and was not  
346 normally distributed using a Pearson chi-square test in the R package *nortest* 1.0-  
347 4, so we tested for a sex effect using a Wilcoxon rank sum test.

348

#### 349 *Directed aggression and unreciprocated allogrooming*

350 We created weighted, social-group-year matrices for directed aggression between  
351 dyadic pairs (Figure S2). We correlated matrices of unreciprocated allogrooming  
352 and directed aggression, for each social-group-year, via Kendall's row-wise  
353 correlational analysis (*Kr* statistic) in MatMan 1.1 (de Vries et al. 1993)

354 To test the significance of the *Kr* statistic, we performed 10,000 permutations. If  
355 badgers are more likely to initiate unreciprocated allogrooming with individuals  
356 from whom they receive more directed aggression there will be a significant,  
357 positive correlation between the two behavioral matrices. Thus, a positive  
358 correlation between unreciprocated allogrooming and directed aggression may  
359 indicate that badgers may be trading allogrooming for decreased aggression. We  
360 also tested for an overall significant effect via Fisher's method of combining *P*-  
361 values.

362

### 363 *Reciprocated and unreciprocated allogrooming*

364 We correlated the unreciprocated and reciprocated allogrooming matrices, for each social-  
365 group-year, and ran 10,000 permutations to assess the significance of *Kr* statistic in  
366 MatMan 1.1.

367

### 368 *Relatedness and allogrooming*

369 We correlated matrices containing R values (Figure S3) for each dyadic pair  
370 against both unreciprocated (Figure S1) and reciprocated (Figure S4)  
371 allogrooming matrices, via the *Kr* statistic, for each social-group-year. We ran  
372 10,000 permutations to assess the significance of *Kr* statistic in MatMan 1.1. A  
373 female badger in P 1995, for which we had no genetic data, was removed from  
374 the analyses.

375

## 376 **Results**

### 377 *Unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies*

378 In all but one social-group-year (P 2005), unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies  
379 were not significantly linear (Table 2). However, when testing for an overall  
380 linearity effect, we found that when excluding the 2004 data (due to non-  
381 independence with 2005) there was an overall linearity effect, but not when

382 excluding 2005 data (Fisher's method of combining p-values:  $X^2_8 = 18.5$ ,  $P <$   
383  $0.025$  and  $X^2_8 = 12.8$ ,  $P > 0.05$ , respectively). No group had a significantly non-  
384 linear hierarchy ( $P_{left}$ , Table 2), and we found no evidence overall for non-linear  
385 hierarchies (Fisher's method of combining p-values:  $X^2_8 = 2.1$  [excluding 2004] or  
386  $2.5$  [excluding 2005];  $P > 0.05$ ).

387

388 We reordered the P 2005 matrix (which had a linear unreciprocated allogrooming  
389 hierarchy) via the I&SI improved method (Schmid and de Vries 2013) to find the  
390 most optimal order of dominance of these linearly ranked individuals. Four  
391 different orders with minimal  $I&SI$  values ( $I = 1$  and  $SI = 3$ ) were identified, and  
392 100% of attempts yielded orders with minimal  $I&SI$ . This indicates that the  
393 algorithm is highly likely to have found the true  $I&SI$  minimum. The order with the  
394 highest Spearman's rank correlational coefficient of 0.98 was considered most  
395 optimal. Sex did not have a significant effect on an individual's  $I&SI$  rank in the  
396 linear P 2005 hierarchy (Wilcoxon rank sum test:  $W = 10$ ,  $P = 0.50$ ).

397

398 We then tested the steepness of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies  
399 (calculated from the absolute differences between adjacently ranked individuals in  
400 their overall success of winning unreciprocated allogrooming encounters). In four  
401 of the six social-group-years we found steep unreciprocated allogrooming  
402 hierarchies (Table 2), with an overall steepness effect (Fisher's method of  
403 combining p-values:  $X^2_8 = 48.7$  [excluding 2004] or  $40.8$  [excluding 2005],  $P <$   
404  $0.001$ ). P 2005, which had a linear hierarchy, also had the steepest hierarchy  
405 (Table 2; Figure S5). We found no significant effect of sex on David's scores rank  
406 (SH 1995,  $t_{12} = 0.27$ ,  $P = 0.79$ ; P 1995,  $t_9 = -0.94$ ,  $P = 0.37$ ; PO 2004,  $t_5 = -0.36$ ,  $P$   
407  $= 0.73$ ; P 2005,  $W = 5$ ,  $P = 0.67$ ).

408



409 *Directed aggression and unreciprocated allogrooming*

410 Only one social-group-year (PO 2004) had a significantly positive  $K_r$  value for  
411 unreciprocated allogrooming and directed aggression matrices and another social-  
412 group-year (P 2005) had a borderline significant ( $P$ -value  $< 0.051$ ) positive  $K_r$   
413 value (Table 3). However, there was an overall significant effect (Fisher's method  
414 of combining p-values:  $X^2_8 = 16.9$  [excluding 2004] or  $16.6$  [excluding 2005],  $P <$   
415  $0.005$ ).

416

417 *Reciprocated and unreciprocated allogrooming*

418 Unreciprocated and reciprocated allogrooming were positively correlated in all six social-  
419 group years (Table 3). Badgers were therefore more likely to perform unreciprocated  
420 allogrooming with badgers that also reciprocated allogrooming with them more.

421

422 *Relatedness and allogrooming*

423 We found no significant negative  $K_r$  values for unreciprocated allogrooming and  
424 relatedness and no significant positive  $K_r$  values for reciprocated allogrooming and  
425 relatedness (Table 3). We also found no overall significant effect of relatedness on  
426 unreciprocated allogrooming (Table 3; Fisher's method of combining p-values:  $X^2_8 =$   
427  $5.1$  [excluding 2004] or  $2.5$  [excluding 2005],  $P > 0.05$ ) and no overall significant  
428 effect of relatedness on reciprocated allogrooming (Table 3; Fisher's method of  
429 combining p-values:  $X^2_8 = 6.5$  [excluding 2004] or  $7.8$  [excluding 2005],  $P > 0.05$ ).

430

431 **Discussion**

432 *Unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies*

433 We found minimal asymmetries in the direction of dyadic unreciprocated  
434 allogrooming, resulting in weak linearity effects. Although there was overall  
435 support for linearity and no support for non-linearity in unreciprocated  
436 allogrooming, only one of six social-group-years had a significant linear hierarchy,

437 suggesting context dependence. Additionally, there were only small differences in  
438 the number of occasions that individuals performed unreciprocated allogrooming  
439 along hierarchies (with higher ranked individuals initiating unreciprocated  
440 allogrooming less and being the recipients of unreciprocated allogrooming more),  
441 resulting in shallow unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies in four out of six  
442 social-group-years. Overall our findings reflect a weak hierarchical structure in  
443 unreciprocated allogrooming in badger social groups. Asymmetry in  
444 unreciprocated allogrooming is likely context dependent and could result from  
445 individuals having different motivations to solicit allogrooming. For example, the  
446 stimulus-driven grooming hypothesis (Riek 1962; Willadsen 1980) predicts that  
447 individuals with a higher cutaneous irritation will initiate allogrooming more than  
448 individuals with a lower 'itch burden'.

449

450 Although hierarchies of unreciprocated allogrooming have not been directly  
451 calculated previously, allogrooming has been correlated with dominance rank in  
452 other species, primarily primates, e.g. vervet monkeys, *Chlorocebus pygerythrus*  
453 (Seyfarth and Cheney 1984), tufted capuchin monkeys (Bitetti 1997) and lion-  
454 tailed macaques (Singh et al. 2006), and also domestic cattle, *Bos taurus* (Šárová  
455 et al. 2016). In these species, allogrooming is strongly correlated with dominance  
456 rank, implying a strong allogrooming hierarchy, which contrasts with the shallow  
457 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies that we detected in badgers. This  
458 contrast could be related to the amount of time that individuals dedicate to  
459 allogrooming. Over 44 primate species, primates spend a mean of 5.2% (StDev =  
460 5.0%; range = 0–18.9%) of their daily activity time grooming (Dunbar 1991).  
461 Badgers, in comparison, can spend up to 5.6% of their nocturnal activity time  
462 grooming (Stewart and Macdonald 2003). The presence and structure of  
463 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies is likely to be related to differences in  
464 social and ecological context. Importantly, data in our study were only collected

465 during the cub-rearing season, and allogrooming may vary across seasons  
466 (Macdonald et al. 2000).

467

468 The one social-group-year (P 2005) that displayed a linear unreciprocated  
469 allogrooming hierarchy also had the steepest hierarchy. As the steepness of the  
470 hierarchy increases, the outcome of dyadic encounters becomes more predictable  
471 as the probability of the higher-ranking individual receiving more unreciprocated  
472 allogrooming increases, leading to increased linearity (Sanchez-Tojar et al. 2017).  
473 As the other social-group-years had shallower hierarchies, linearity was therefore  
474 more difficult to infer and was not detected using the I&SI method. However, this  
475 finding of a significant linear unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchy was an  
476 exception to the overall rule in the six social-group-years studied and badger  
477 societies still appear to have only a weak social structure.

478

479 For both the I&SI and David's scores method, sex did not significantly affect an  
480 individual's rank, indicating that sex was not a factor affecting unreciprocated  
481 allogrooming interactions in P 2005. The rank order of group members in P 2005,  
482 produced by the I&SI method and the normalized David's scores, differed. This is  
483 potentially due to the shallowness of the hierarchy, as the reliability of ranking  
484 methods changes with the steepness of the hierarchy – when hierarchies are  
485 shallow, the David's scores method is the most reliable, producing rank orders  
486 that have the strongest correlation with known hierarchies (Sanchez-Tojar et al.  
487 2017). Thus, the inferred David's scores rank order is more reliable than the  
488 inferred I&SI rank order for P 2005. This difference in rank order, related to the  
489 shallowness of the unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchy, perhaps indicates that  
490 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies are of limited importance in badger social  
491 groups.

492

493 *Directed aggression and unreciprocated allogrooming*

494 We found weak evidence that unreciprocated allogrooming may be a tradable  
495 commodity in badgers (as predicted by the BTM). There was a significant  
496 correlation of unreciprocated allogrooming with directed aggression in one social-  
497 group-year, borderline significance in a second social-group-year, and overall  
498 significance. Badgers may, therefore, be more likely to initiate unreciprocated  
499 allogrooming with individuals that directed higher levels of aggression towards  
500 them. Unreciprocated allogrooming could thus, serve a placatory function, used by  
501 subordinates to avert aggressive encounters with more dominant individuals  
502 (Baker and Aureli 2000). The trading of allogrooming for the rank-related benefit of  
503 increased tolerance, however, is not nearly as evident or pervasive in badger  
504 societies as in other species; for example: semi-free-ranging Barbary macaques,  
505 *Macaca Sylvanus* (Carne et al. 2011), meerkats (Kutsukake and Clutton-Brock  
506 2006), female primates (Henazi and Barrett 1999) and Bonnet macaques (Silk  
507 1982). Our results may also relate to the stimulus-driven grooming hypothesis  
508 (Riek 1962; Willadsen 1980). Badgers with a higher flea burden and cutaneous  
509 irritation may make more unsolicited allogrooming attempts. Unsolicited  
510 allogrooming could potentially result in directed aggression to the initiator.

511 Alternatively, directed aggression may elicit conciliatory allogrooming (de Waal  
512 1984). Overall, badger societies appear protosocial, with some indicators of social  
513 structure within allogrooming interactions, but overall it is likely context dependent.

514

515 Despotic social style is predicted to be positively related with dominance hierarchy  
516 steepness (Balasubramaniam et al. 2012), such that unreciprocated allogrooming  
517 should be directed up steeper dominance hierarchies more. Hewitt et al. (2009)  
518 studied the steepness of badger dominance hierarchies, based on directed  
519 aggression interactions, in the same social-group-years in which we analyzed  
520 allogrooming. Surprisingly the two social-group-years in which directed aggression

521 was correlated with unreciprocated allogrooming either did not display a  
522 significantly steep direct aggression hierarchy (P 1995), or had the fourth  
523 shallowest hierarchy (PO 2004) out of the five social-group-years with a  
524 significantly steep hierarchy. This does not support the predicted relationship  
525 between greater dominance hierarchy steepness and a greater despotic society  
526 (Balasubramaniam et al. 2012)

527

### 528 *Genetic relatedness and allogrooming*

529 We found no overall significant correlation between either reciprocated or  
530 unreciprocated allogrooming and genetic relatedness; thus, allogrooming is not  
531 influenced by genetic relatedness. This result might be due to high natal philopatry in  
532 badger groups, resulting in a high degree of relatedness and limited variation in  
533 relatedness between group members. For example, females and males are related to  
534 non-cub group-members by 0.20 [95% confidence interval = 0.16–0.24] and 0.16  
535 [0.13–0.19], respectively (Dugdale et al. 2008).

536

537 Evidence for a limited impact of kinship on affiliative relationships has also been  
538 found in other species. In both male and female chimpanzees, the majority of  
539 affiliative and cooperative dyads were formed between unrelated or distantly related  
540 individuals (Langergraber et al. 2007; Langergraber et al. 2009). Among female  
541 bonobos, genetic relatedness was not related to the formation of affiliative  
542 relationships, defined by grooming and proximity frequencies (Hashimoto et al.  
543 1996). In female Japanese macaques, there was no relationship between  
544 relatedness and grooming (Schino et al. 2007). However, dominant captive female  
545 bonnet macaques received high rates of unreciprocated allogrooming from kin (Silk  
546 1982). The results from these studies, however, may not be transferable to badgers,  
547 as primates live in groups that are a lot more socially structured and intricate than  
548 those of the badger. Nevertheless, there are fewer studies on the relationship

549 between genetic relatedness and allogrooming in non-primate species for  
550 comparison, and results are mixed, e.g. allogrooming and kinship are positively  
551 correlated in cattle (Sato et al. 1993), but not correlated in captive Icelandic horses,  
552 *Equus ferus caballus* (de Vries et al. 1994).

553

## 554 **Conclusion**

555 We applied hierarchy analyses in a novel manner to unreciprocated allogrooming  
556 behavior, which may provide a useful tool for understanding allogrooming structures  
557 in other group-living animals. Our identification of weakly linear and shallow  
558 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies, and a weak relationship between  
559 unreciprocated allogrooming and directed aggression, further supports the weak  
560 social structure in badger societies. Indeed, unreciprocated allogrooming may be  
561 context dependent, changing with regards to ecological and social contexts  
562 throughout the year. It may also relate to an individual's motives to allogroom, such  
563 as their 'itch' burden. Overall, we provide a new technique for analyzing allogrooming  
564 structures and demonstrate rudimentary indicators of a social structure in  
565 allogrooming badgers, reaffirming the protosocial nature of high-density group-living  
566 badgers.

567

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775 **Table 1:** Social-group-year compositions by sex, excluding cubs, which were not  
 776 included in any analyses.

	1995		2004		2005	
	SH	P	P	PO	P	PO
Females	4	7	4	4	7	4*
Males	10	4	3	3	2	2
Total number of individuals	14	11	7	7	9	6
Sex ratio (proportion of females)	0.29	0.64	0.57	0.57	0.78	0.67

777

778 \* One badger was excluded from all analyses as it led to structural zeros (i.e. they  
 779 were not observed with at least one other individual and so there was at least one  
 780 dyad where allogrooming could not be measured)

781 **Table 2:** Linearity and steepness of unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies for all six social-group-years, with significant results in  
 782 bold. The  $h$  value represents the unbiased estimate of Landau's (1951) linearity index (de Vries 1995). Improved linearity test (de Vries  
 783 1995) right-tailed  $P$  values  $< 0.05$  indicate a significantly linear hierarchy, whereas, left-tailed  $P < 0.05$  indicate a significantly non-linear  
 784 hierarchy.

	1995		2004		2005	
	SH	P	P	PO	P	PO
Number of individuals	14	11	7	7	9	5
Number of pairs	91	55	21	21	36	10
Unreciprocated allogrooming events (weighted by number of bouts)	360	189	259	230	852	167
Linearity index ( $h_0$ )	0.248	0.275	0.571	0.784	0.700	0.950
$P_{right}$	0.303	0.428	0.194	0.067	<b>0.006</b>	0.121
$P_{left}$	0.697	0.572	0.806	0.961	0.994	0.879
Steepness of hierarchy	0.209	0.143	0.302	0.379	0.488	0.529
$P_{right}$	<b>0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.284	<b>0.034</b>	<b>0.002</b>	0.105

785

786 **Table 3** Kendall's row-wise correlation results, testing whether individuals show: 1) Higher levels of unreciprocated grooming towards  
787 individuals that direct more aggression at them; 2) Lower levels of unreciprocated grooming towards more related individuals; 3) Higher  
788 levels of reciprocated grooming towards more related individuals; and, 4) Higher levels of unreciprocated grooming towards individuals  
789 that reciprocate allogrooming more. N = number of badgers. *P*-values in bold are significant at  $P < 0.05$ .

	Year	1995		2004		2005	
	Social-group	SH	P	P	PO	P	PO
Unreciprocated allogrooming and directed aggression	Kr	65 <sup>^</sup>	28 <sup>^</sup>	-22	27	0	12
	N	14	11	7	7	9	5
	P-right	0.109	0.051	0.926	<b>0.045</b>	0.514	0.075
Unreciprocated allogrooming and relatedness	Kr	17	11	21	8	-20	9
	N	14	10 <sup>*</sup>	7	7	9	5
	P-left	0.613	0.686	0.906	0.745	0.215	0.867
Reciprocated allogrooming and relatedness	Kr	25	-1	13	0	17	3
	N	14	10 <sup>*</sup>	7	7	9	5
	P-right	0.367	0.517	0.202	0.521	0.246	0.400

Unreciprocated	Kr	124	54	56	38	106	20
allogrooming and							
reciprocated	N	14	11	7	7	9	5
allogrooming	P-right	<b>0.020</b>	<b>0.008</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.003</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.008</b>

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790 \* One badger was not genotyped

791 ^ Results differ from Hewitt *et al.* (2009), as they excluded two badgers from P 1995 due to structural zeros in their hierarchy analysis,  
792 which we have included in our row-wise correlation, and re-analysis of SH 1995 led to the inclusion of three more unreciprocated  
793 allogrooming events

1 **Supplementary materials for “Unreciprocated allogrooming**  
 2 **hierarchies in a population of wild group-living mammals”**

3

4 **Figure S1:** Matrices of the number of observed dyadic unreciprocated allogrooming events  
 5 for each social-group-year, and the sex of each badger. Rows represent individuals who  
 6 received unreciprocated allogrooming (winners) and columns represent individuals who  
 7 initiated unreciprocated allogrooming events (losers). The number of unreciprocated  
 8 allogrooming events were weighted by the number of bouts when dyads were recorded on  
 9 camera, then multiplied by 100 and rounded to whole numbers.

**SH 1995**

	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0	0	7	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0
<b>M</b>	0	*	0	3	4	0	3	2	0	0	0	2	0	0
<b>M</b>	0	0	*	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3
<b>M</b>	0	5	0	*	2	0	0	1	0	0	2	6	7	0
<b>M</b>	134	0	2	*	3	3	3	0	0	0	3	6	8	
<b>F</b>	0	4	0	3	3	*	0	6	5	0	0	3	6	0
<b>M</b>	0	3	0	4	3	0	*	14	4	0	0	10	6	6
<b>M</b>	0	5	0	4	6	6	0	*	0	0	0	2	0	2
<b>M</b>	0	0	0	22	8	0	0	5	*	0	0	0	0	5
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	2	0	3	5	2	0	0	*	3	0	0
<b>M</b>	0	3	0	10	0	3	2	2	0	0	3	*	3	3
<b>F</b>	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	*	0
<b>M</b>	0	6	3	7	3	0	0	0	5	0	0	3	9	*

**P 1995**

<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
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F	*	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
F	0	*	0	0	0	0	17	0	7	0	0
M	110	*	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
F	0	0	0	*	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
F	0	0	14	20	*	25	0	10	0	0	0
M	3	0	1	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0
M	0	0	0	4	0	0	*	0	0	8	3
F	300	0	0	10	0	0	*	4	0	0	0
F	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	*	100	0
F	8	0	0	6	0	14	0	0	0	*	0
M	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	*

**P 2004**

	F	M	M	F	F	F	M
F	*	10	2	20	24	3	6
M	1	*	4	4	9	3	0
M	3	16	*	29	9	5	0
F	2	4	6	*	3	2	0
F	13	6	5	8	*	7	0
F	4	3	3	4	11	*	7
M	3	0	0	0	0	20	*

**PO 2004**

	M	F	F	M	F	F	M
M	*	0	0	5	11	0	15
F	2	*	11	9	9	0	12
F	3	3	*	7	10	25	23
M	3	4	0	*	5	0	15
F	1	2	2	10	*	0	8
F	0	0	0	0	0	*	0
M	4	0	15	10	6	0	*

**P 2005**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	*	173		16	22	17	8	10	55
<b>M</b>	1	*	6	7	22	5	4	3	22
<b>F</b>	0	0	*	2	3	0	5	0	10
<b>F</b>	4	8	12	*	5	9	6	5	42
<b>M</b>	5	4	0	5	*	6	2	11	23
<b>F</b>	7	124		1	8	*	2	8	0
<b>F</b>	3	4	14	6	2	7	*	17	0
<b>F</b>	4	50	120	7	20	32	22	*	59
<b>F</b>	0	11	10	0	23	0	8	6	*

**PO 2005**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0	6	11	6
<b>F</b>	11	*	3	20	35
<b>F</b>	9	3	*	16	11
<b>M</b>	3	7	4	*	8
<b>F</b>	2	0	9	3	*

11 **Figure S2:** Matrices of the number of dyadic acts of directed aggression for each social-  
 12 group-year. Rows represent individuals that initiated directed aggression (winners) and  
 13 columns show individuals who received directed aggression (losers). The number of directed  
 14 aggression events were weighted by the number of bouts for which dyads were recorded on  
 15 camera, then multiplied by 100 and rounded to whole numbers.

**SH 1995**

	M	M	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	F	F	M	F	M
M	*	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	0
M	0	*	4	7	7	0	0	3	5	0	0	3	4	0
M	0	4	*	0	4	0	0	8	0	0	0	6	0	0
M	0	0	3	*	2	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	6
M	0	0	0	2	*	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	3
F	33	0	0	11	17	*	0	10	0	0	0	21	0	10
M	0	0	0	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
M	0	2	0	7	3	0	4	*	0	0	0	8	0	2
M	0	5	0	2	0	0	0	0	*	0	0	3	0	0
F	0	0	8	5	29	0	0	8	25	*	0	0	11	8
F	14	3	9	8	0	3	5	5	0	0	*	0	14	13
M	0	3	0	4	0	0	0	2	9	0	0	*	0	3
F	0	4	0	3	3	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	*	0
M	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	*

**P 1995**

	F	F	M	F	F	M	M	F	F	F	M
F	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
F	0	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17
M	0	0	*	0	0	3	0	0	8	0	0
F	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
F	0	0	14	0	*	0	17	0	0	0	0
M	0	20	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0



<b>M</b>	0	0	0	10	0	0	*	0	13	0	4
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	*	0	0	20
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	0	7	13	0	*	10	0
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	*	18
<b>M</b>	0	0	0	6	0	0	4	0	0	0	*

**P 2004**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>F</b>	*	5	9	2	2	2	6
<b>M</b>	4	*	32	4	3	2	7
<b>M</b>	5	4	*	0	2	0	7
<b>F</b>	12	13	13	*	5	0	14
<b>F</b>	5	3	15	3	*	7	13
<b>F</b>	9	17	14	14	22	*	13
<b>M</b>	0	0	7	0	0	0	*

**PO 2004**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0	7	12	7	0	46
<b>F</b>	14	*	11	11	9	0	32
<b>F</b>	4	0	*	10	3	0	18
<b>M</b>	2	0	0	*	2	0	17
<b>F</b>	4	0	2	3	*	0	2
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	0	*	0
<b>M</b>	8	0	3	8	6	33	*

**P 2005**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	*	7	10	5	41	25	44	0
<b>M</b>	1	*	0	0	6	2	0	0
<b>F</b>	3	0	*	2	8	0	10	0

<b>F</b>	6	8	0	*	7	13	31	4	0
<b>M</b>	0	10	0	0	*	4	5	2	0
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	6	*	3	0	0
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	2	2	*	0	0
<b>F</b>	1	13	0	0	15	4	6	*	0
<b>F</b>	0	0	0	0	3	17	8	0	*

**PO 2005**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0	2	13	6
<b>F</b>	3	*	0	9	20
<b>F</b>	2	0	*	0	11
<b>M</b>	2	0	2	*	3
<b>F</b>	2	0	0	0	*

17 **Figure S3:** Matrices of the Queller and Goodnight relatedness ( $R$ ) between individuals for each social-group-year.  $R$  values of 0 are completely  
 18 unrelated individuals, and  $R$  values of 1 are identical individuals.

**SH 1995**

	M	M	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	F	F	M	F	M
M	*	0.523	0.727	0.302	0.397	0.541	0.639	0.389	0.383	0.324	0.526	0.340	0.558	0.571
M	0.523	*	0.570	0.616	0.547	0.387	0.774	0.638	0.691	0.750	0.598	0.685	0.742	0.648
M	0.727	0.570	*	0.395	0.296	0.624	0.646	0.469	0.393	0.334	0.605	0.317	0.456	0.502
M	0.302	0.616	0.395	*	0.337	0.641	0.530	0.602	0.297	0.469	0.584	0.612	0.488	0.456
M	0.397	0.547	0.296	0.337	*	0.017	0.702	0.632	0.633	0.694	0.164	0.577	0.473	0.258
F	0.541	0.387	0.624	0.641	0.017	*	0.350	0.334	0.181	0.311	0.647	0.419	0.430	0.398
M	0.639	0.774	0.646	0.530	0.702	0.350	*	0.726	0.694	0.641	0.548	0.652	0.626	0.601
M	0.389	0.638	0.469	0.602	0.632	0.334	0.726	*	0.632	0.706	0.632	0.796	0.528	0.501
M	0.383	0.691	0.393	0.297	0.633	0.181	0.694	0.632	*	0.688	0.466	0.508	0.605	0.507
F	0.324	0.750	0.334	0.469	0.694	0.311	0.641	0.706	0.688	*	0.439	0.827	0.700	0.474
F	0.526	0.598	0.605	0.584	0.164	0.647	0.548	0.632	0.466	0.439	*	0.499	0.557	0.712
M	0.340	0.685	0.317	0.612	0.577	0.419	0.652	0.796	0.508	0.827	0.499	*	0.614	0.410
F	0.558	0.742	0.456	0.488	0.473	0.430	0.626	0.528	0.605	0.700	0.557	0.614	*	0.492
M	0.571	0.648	0.502	0.456	0.258	0.398	0.601	0.501	0.507	0.474	0.712	0.410	0.492	*

**P  
1995**

	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	*	0.329	0.146	0.229	0.508	0.276	-0.043	0.251	0.085	0.226
<b>F</b>	0.329	*	0.703	0.579	0.548	0.717	-0.144	0.108	0.231	0.168
<b>M</b>	0.146	0.703	*	0.684	0.451	0.648	-0.109	0.232	0.403	-0.093
<b>F</b>	0.229	0.579	0.684	*	0.559	0.468	-0.230	0.191	0.466	-0.097
<b>F</b>	0.508	0.548	0.451	0.559	*	0.311	-0.399	-0.093	0.004	0.038
<b>M</b>	0.276	0.717	0.648	0.468	0.311	*	-0.280	0.365	0.487	0.043
<b>M</b>	-0.043	-0.144	-0.109	-0.230	-0.399	-0.280	*	0.156	-0.130	0.269
<b>F</b>	0.251	0.108	0.232	0.191	-0.093	0.365	0.156	*	0.665	0.093
<b>F</b>	0.085	0.231	0.403	0.466	0.004	0.487	-0.130	0.665	*	-0.184
<b>F</b>	0.226	0.168	-0.093	-0.097	0.038	0.043	0.269	0.093	-0.184	*

**P  
2004**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>F</b>	*	0.230	0.423	0.312	0.813	0.393	-0.029
<b>M</b>	0.230	*	0.067	0.292	0.465	0.118	0.448
<b>M</b>	0.423	0.067	*	0.408	0.356	0.125	0.105
<b>F</b>	0.312	0.292	0.408	*	0.238	0.326	0.104

<b>F</b>	0.813	0.465	0.356	0.238	*	0.371	0.100
<b>F</b>	0.393	0.118	0.125	0.326	0.371	*	0.297
<b>M</b>	-0.029	0.448	0.105	0.104	0.100	0.297	*

**PO 2004**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0.257	0.215	0.543	0.554	-0.038	0.315
<b>F</b>	0.257*		0.371	0.406	0.280	0.466	0.616
<b>F</b>	0.215	0.371*		0.383	0.239	0.208	0.386
<b>M</b>	0.543	0.406	0.383*		0.275	0.006	0.342
<b>F</b>	0.554	0.280	0.239	0.275*		0.067	0.173
<b>F</b>	-0.038	0.466	0.208	0.006	0.067*		0.558
<b>M</b>	0.315	0.616	0.386	0.342	0.173	0.558*	

**P 2005**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	*	0.523	0.481	0.275	0.173	0.128	0.018	0.360	0.376
<b>M</b>	0.523	*	0.408	0.125	0.063	0.203	0.008	0.423	0.356
<b>F</b>	0.481	0.408	*	0.326	0.213	0.494	0.302	0.312	0.238
<b>F</b>	0.275	0.125	0.326	*	0.607	0.119	0.103	0.393	0.371

<b>M</b>	0.173	0.063	0.213	0.607	*	0.402	0.390	0.224	0.194
<b>F</b>	0.128	0.203	0.494	0.119	0.402	*	0.522	-0.024	-0.019
<b>F</b>	0.018	0.008	0.302	0.103	0.390	0.522	*	0.127	0.050
<b>F</b>	0.360	0.423	0.312	0.393	0.224	-0.024	0.127	*	0.813
<b>F</b>	0.376	0.356	0.238	0.371	0.194	-0.019	0.050	0.813	*

**PO 2005**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>M</b>	*	0.257	0.215	0.315	0.225
<b>F</b>	0.257	*	0.371	0.616	0.728
<b>F</b>	0.215	0.371	*	0.386	0.419
<b>M</b>	0.315	0.616	0.386	*	0.429
<b>F</b>	0.225	0.728	0.419	0.429	*

20 **Figure S4:** Matrices of the number of observed dyadic reciprocated allogrooming events for  
 21 each social-group-year. Rows represent individuals who received reciprocated allogrooming  
 22 and columns represent individuals who initiated reciprocated allogrooming events.

**SH 1995**

	M	M	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	F	F	M	F	M
M	*	33	0	14	50	17	0	20	0	0	0	18	0	20
M	0	*	7	19	4	4	3	13	0	0	10	32	4	0
M	0	4	*	15	7	7	9	18	13	23	14	13	8	19
M	7	22	13	*	4	5	0	12	5	10	4	14	3	7
M	0	11	0	6	*	0	3	14	8	0	11	8	21	0
F	17	11	4	0	7	*	4	3	0	27	8	5	0	13
M	0	3	9	7	3	4	*	39	4	0	5	12	0	16
M	0	15	3	7	3	3	18	*	5	8	2	8	0	17
M	0	0	0	15	12	0	8	5	*	0	4	3	11	14
F	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	8	0	*	0	0	22	8
F	0	8	5	6	5	0	5	18	0	4	*	0	5	0
M	18	28	0	13	3	3	5	8	9	0	0	*	3	11
F	0	11	4	17	3	0	0	4	5	0	5	7	*	6
M	0	0	7	4	3	8	0	6	5	8	3	19	15	*

**P 1995**

	F	F	M	F	F	M	M	F	F	F	M
F	*	0	3	0	0	6	18	0	11	0	18
F	0	*	0	20	20	20	0	11	0	0	0
M	3	0	*	0	0	14	0	0	0	0	0
F	15	0	0	*	0	0	15	0	0	12	0
F	0	20	0	20	*	0	0	10	17	0	0
M	11	0	9	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0
M	0	0	0	7	0	0	*	0	0	15	11
F	0	0	17	0	0	17	0	*	4	0	0

<b>F</b>	11	7	8	0	17	0	10	0	*	10	10
<b>F</b>	0	0	17	0	0	0	8	0	0	*	0
<b>M</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	20	0	8	*

**P 2004**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>F</b>	*	14	9	24	22	14	6
<b>M</b>	8	*	18	35	18	10	0
<b>M</b>	4	18	*	45	20	8	0
<b>F</b>	0	4	13	*	26	8	0
<b>F</b>	17	14	8	31	*	22	0
<b>F</b>	3	5	6	8	24	*	0
<b>M</b>	3	0	0	14	17	33	*

**PO 2004**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>
<b>M</b>	*	7	3	18	14	0	17
<b>F</b>	12	*	19	4	14	0	0
<b>F</b>	18	11	*	10	8	25	15
<b>M</b>	27	4	7	*	13	0	20
<b>F</b>	6	5	15	16	*	0	6
<b>F</b>	0	0	75	0	0	*	0
<b>M</b>	10	0	31	3	14	0	*

**P 2005**

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	*	21	20	20	28	15	17	20
<b>M</b>	8	*	17	15	26	19	0	3
<b>F</b>	5	0	*	12	6	8	19	0
<b>F</b>	10	15	14	*	29	10	11	46
<b>M</b>	6	25	25	13	*	13	0	13



<b>F</b>	3	28	13	7	12	*	2	4	22
<b>F</b>	6	4	67	17	5	10	*	22	15
<b>F</b>	17	45	120	20	22	24	17	*	29
<b>F</b>	18	33	0	12	47	0	31	12	*

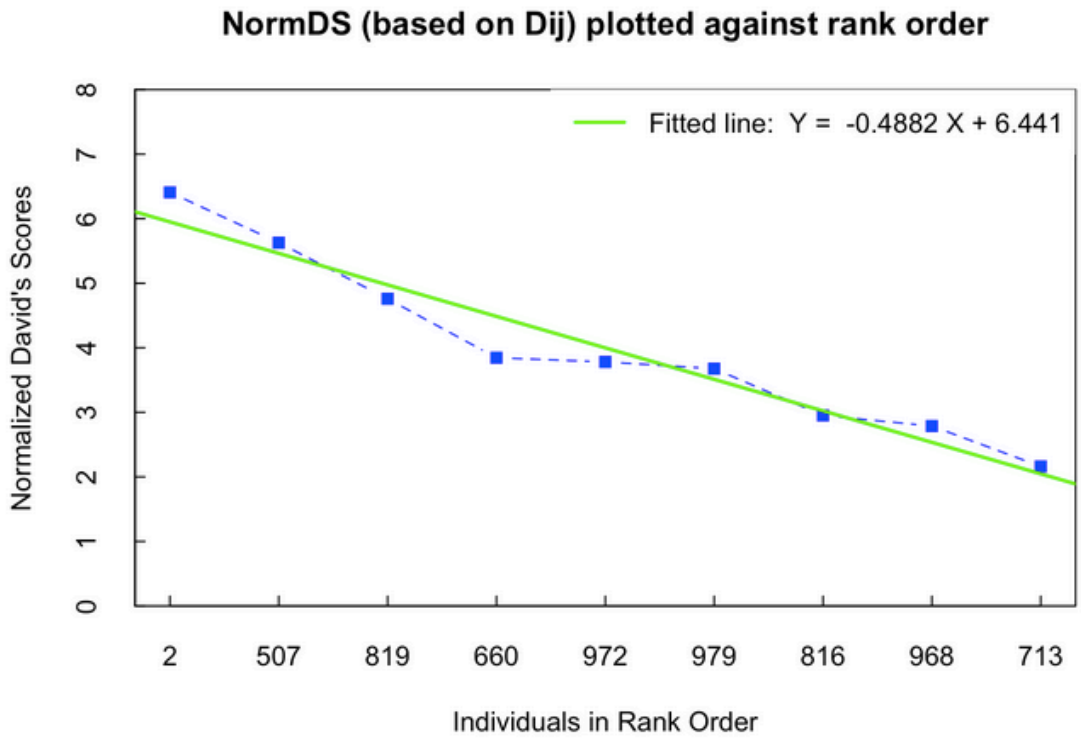
**PO 2005**

	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>M</b>	*	3	13	26	11
<b>F</b>	9	*	3	24	63
<b>F</b>	33	9	*	43	30
<b>M</b>	11	11	27	*	16
<b>F</b>	6	10	16	13	*

23

24

25 **Figure S5:** Normalized David's scores plotted against rank order (calculated from  
26 unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchies) for the individuals of group P 2005 that displayed a  
27 significantly linear, steep unreciprocated allogrooming hierarchy.



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