2 Mate-switching is not associated with offspring fitness in a socially monogamous bird

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12 STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

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19 DATA ACCESSIBILITY STATEMENT

20 Data and code is available on Dataverse: https://doi.org/10.34894/TCZGUT.

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45 ABSTRACT

46 In many species, individuals form socially monogamous pair-bonds lasting multiple breeding seasons, 47 or even whole lifetimes. Studies often suggest social monogamy to be adaptive, but this is usually 48 quantified through the survival and annual reproductive success of the partners. However, beyond the 49 number of offspring produced, parental partnerships may also affect their offspring's phenotype, 50 health, and ultimately fitness. Using multigenerational data on the Seychelles warbler (Acrocephalus 51 sechellensis), we investigated the impact of parental pair-bond tenure (pair-bond duration) and pair-52 bond ending (pair-bond ended across breeding seasons) on offspring fitness components. First, we 53 addressed juvenile-stage fitness components using indicators reflecting physiological state 54 (haematocrit, telomere length, and body condition). Second, we assessed long-term fitness 55 components using offspring lifespan and lifetime reproductive success (LRS). We found no consistent 56 evidence of pair-bond tenure or pair-bond ending effects on short-term (telomere length, haematocrit, 57 body condition) or long-term (lifespan, LRS) fitness components. To our knowledge, this is the first 58 study quantifying long-term parental effects of pair-bond tenure and pair-bond ending on offspring 59 fitness components in wild populations. This work provides insights into the lack of intergenerational 60 implications of long-term socially monogamous partnerships.

61 KEYWORDS

62 reproductive success, lifespan, telomere length, haematocrit, body condition, divorce, parental

63 effects, pair bond

In many species individuals form socially monogamous pair-bonds that are often maintained over 66 67 multiple breeding seasons or even entire lifetimes (i.e. pair-bond fidelity). Especially in birds, social 68 monogamy is common (~80% of species) [1]. Sticking with the same partner over multiple breeding 69 attempts can reduce sexual conflict, especially in long-lived species with biparental care where 70 individuals have to cooperate to raise offspring [2,3]. Here, over-exertion of one partner in the current 71 reproductive attempt will be detrimental for both partners if this reduces future reproductive 72 investment. This means the evolutionary interests (i.e. in future reproductive success) of both 73 individuals are more aligned within long-term than short-term partnerships. Additionally, pair-bond 74 fidelity can reduce mate searching costs [4,5]. Finally, staying together for longer (i.e. increased pair-75 bond tenure) can improve coordination and familiarity between the pair [6,7]. This, in turn, can 76 increase reproductive success, competitiveness and survival of pair-bonded individuals [7]. Many 77 studies have found evidence of social monogamy being an adaptive strategy, but this is usually 78 quantified by addressing the effects of social monogamy on the survival of the partners [8,9] and their 79 annual reproductive success [10]. Additionally, studies on the long-term of social monogamy are 80 lacking in cooperative breeders (but see [11], although they do not address offspring fitness effects). 81 Especially in species with biparental care, partnership quality may ultimately affect the offspring's 82 phenotype and health. If newer partners are not yet well-aligned or coordinated, offspring sired early 83 in partnerships may suffer fitness costs (both in the short- and long-term) as a result of less than 84 optimal parental care [2] and increased parental stress [12]. Partnership termination may also have 85 detrimental effects on offspring condition and survival; especially when the partnership is terminated 86 while offspring are still dependent or closely associated with their parents.

Partnership termination effects on offspring fitness can be defined as parental effects, whereby the
parent's phenotype causally influences their offspring's phenotype beyond the genes they inherit [13].
These are often shaped by natural selection [14] and can both accelerate and decelerate evolutionary

90 responses to selection since traits respond to both current (on the offspring) and previous (on the 91 parents) selective forces [15]. In birds, direct parental effects arise through, for example, investment 92 in the egg composition and production, provisioning and other forms of parental care [14]. Indirect 93 parental effects can also occur if a parent themselves gains care from their mate (e.g. nuptial feeding) 94 and also through the benefits of mate choice [14,16]. Parental effects can have a pronounced influence 95 on offspring in early life when they are still dependent on their parents [17], and a growing number of 96 studies have identified parental effects on offspring throughout their life, e.g. influencing offspring 97 survival and lifetime reproductive success [18–21]. However, no studies to date have investigated how 98 pair-bond ending and pair-bond tenure of the parents in early life affect offspring, with the exception 99 of psychological and sociological studies on humans [22,23].

100 Here, we investigate the short- and long-term consequences of parental pair-bond tenure and pair-101 bond ending on offspring fitness using a 25-year dataset of a closed population of Seychelles warblers. 102 First, we addressed juvenile-stage fitness using three indicators that reflect physiological state: 103 offspring (i) telomere length, (ii) haematocrit, and (iii) body condition. Second, we tested whether pair-104 bond ending was associated with offspring (iv) lifespan and (v) LRS (lifetime reproductive success). We hypothesize that parents in longer partnerships rear offspring in better physiological state which go on 105 106 to have higher fitness. In addition, we expect that pair-bond disruption while the offspring are still 107 dependent on parental care will negatively affect offspring physiological state and fitness. Offspring 108 produced in the breeding season prior to pair-bond termination will likely experience physiological 109 stress, as they are still dependent on parental care, and may be affected by potential stress expressed 110 by the parent(s), as well as the disruption of group stability and potential subsequent social conflict in 111 the breeding territory.

Seychelles warblers are long-lived (up to 21 years), are facultative cooperative breeders, and form socially monogamous partnerships in breeding territories that they defend year-round [24]. Partnerships can last from one breeding season up to at least 15 years, and can end through the death

115 of a partner (widowhood), or less commonly divorce and human-induced translocation of one partner 116 as part of a conservation programmes [25,26]. Both parents provide parental care through provisioning 117 and nest guarding during a long period (~3 months) of offspring dependence for an altricial bird species 118 [27,28]. Parents can be accompanied by 1-5 sexually mature subordinates that may provide help 119 through alloparental care when both parents are present [27,29], which increases provisioning rates 120 at the nest [30]. The study system provides an excellent model system since it is an isolated population 121 with virtually no migration [31] that has been extensively monitored over many generations. Therefore 122 we can accurately identify and track individuals of known age throughout their lives, generating 123 extremely accurate survival estimates that are not confounded by dispersal [32,33]. Additionally, we 124 have detailed information on territory residency and social status, thus we can accurately identify 125 partnerships. Individuals are captured and blood sampled throughout their lifetime; so we have access 126 to individual measurements of physiological state. Finally, we have a genetically verified population 127 pedigree [34] which allows us to accurately estimate lifetime reproductive success (LRS).

128 The juvenile-stage fitness proxies used in this study (telomere length, haematocrit, and body condition) 129 have already been shown to reflect the health and condition of Seychelles warblers. Telomeres -130 repetitive DNA sequences at the end of linear chromosomes - protect against DNA damage and can 131 shorten due to oxidative stress [35]. In the Seychelles warbler, telomere length generally declines with 132 age, especially in early life -although telomere lengthening also occurs [36]- predicts future mortality 133 [37] and has been linked to genetic, parental, and environmental conditions [34,36]. Importantly, in 134 this species telomere shortening indicates costs associated with inbreeding [38], social conflict [39], 135 reduced parental care [29], food availability [40,41] and malaria [40]. Haematocrit, the proportion of 136 blood comprised of erythrocytes, reflects aerobic capacity in vertebrates, which affects individual health and performance [42]. In the Seychelles warbler, high haematocrit indicates poor condition for 137 138 juveniles [43]. Finally, body condition is often used as an indicator of physiological state in animals, as 139 it is determined by body fat content (i.e. energy reserves) and structural size, and can affect survival 140 [44,45]. Juvenile body condition in Seychelles warblers predicts adult condition and performance [46].

- 141 Juvenile and adult mass decrease in more competitive environments [39,47], and adult mass is
- 142 positively correlated with food abundance [48].

144 MATERIAL AND METHODS

145 (a) Study population

146 Seychelles warblers are insectivorous passerines [49] endemic to the Seychelles archipelago. The 147 population of ~320 birds in ~115 territories [34,50] on Cousin Island (29 ha, 04°20'S, 55°40'E) has been 148 intensively monitored since 1997 [24,51], with virtually all breeding attempts followed each year 149 during the major breeding season (Jun-Sept) and during most minor breeding seasons (Jan-Mar). 150 Seychelles warblers are territorial and form socially monogamous pairs that defend the same territory 151 year-round [24,52] but can be accompanied by one or more adult subordinates of either sex [52,53]. 152 The dominant breeding pair is identified every season using clear courtship behaviour unique to 153 dominant breeders including contact calls and mate guarding [51,30]. Subordinates are assigned as 154 helpers or non-helpers based on whether they incubate and/or provision offspring in the breeding 155 territory [24,51]. Individuals can be reliably assumed dead when they are not observed for two 156 consecutive seasons, as inter-island dispersal is virtually absent (<0.1% of individuals in their lifetime 157 [31]) and resighting rates are very high (98%+/-1% SE for adults [32,33]).

158 (b) Partnerships

159 Parental pair-bonds can last between one breeding season and a lifetime, with the longest recorded 160 partnership being 15 years [26]. Partnerships can end (between or within breeding seasons) in 161 different ways; most commonly through the death of one partner (widowhood) or both. Partnerships 162 can end in divorce, whereby both partners are still alive but at least one partner lost the dominant 163 breeding position in the focal territory. Partnerships were assessed throughout each breeding season 164 and the partnership statuses assigned at the end of each breeding season. A partnership can have six different transitions from the end of one breeding season (major or minor) to the end of the next: (1) 165 166 pair-bond fidelity (stay together), (2) widowhood by female's death, (3) widowhood by male's death, 167 (4) death of both partners, (5) divorce, and (6) translocation. Divorces caused by one breeder 'stepping 168 down' to a subordinate position for a single breeding season whilst still present in the territory were

removed from our dataset (*N*=22 out of 1362 pair bond observations). Pair-tenure was defined as the duration from the start date of the first season the pair were pair-bonded to each other, until the end of the last breeding season when the focal offspring was reared.

172 (c) Reproduction

173 During the major breeding season, 91% of pairs attempts to breed [54]. A maximum of one clutch is 174 produced per breeding season and most clutches have a single egg, with only 8% of clutches having 2-175 3 eggs [26]. When nests contain multiple eggs, this usually indicates co-breeding subordinate females 176 within the territory [51,55], which account for 11% of all maternities in the population [56]. Extra-pair 177 fertilizations are common in the Seychelles warbler, with ~44% of all offspring being sired by a 178 dominant male other than the socially pair-bonded male [55–57], although this is rarely a within-group 179 extra-pair male (0.01% of fathers are within-group males [34]). Offspring remain dependent on 180 parental care for ~3 months, long after fledging after ~18 days, and survival during this period is 181 dependent on the amount of provisioning that is received [27].

182 (d) Individual sampling

183 Each breeding season, as many birds as possible are caught using mist nets or captured as nestlings in 184 the nest, after which they are ringed with a unique BTO ring and 3 colour rings, and blood sampled (ca. 185 50 µl) from the brachial vein. Individuals caught for the first time are aged based on lay, hatch, or fledge 186 date and/or eye colour [49]. Their body mass is measured using an electronic scale (±0.1g) and their 187 structural size is assessed (tarsus length) using sliding callipers (±0.1mm), resulting in 598 mass and 188 size measures in 497 offspring. Haematocrit was assessed for 456 individuals (579 samples) by 189 measuring the proportion of erythrocytes relative to the whole-blood volume using sliding callipers 190 (±0.01mm), on a microcapillary tube centrifuged within 3-hr of collection for 8 min at 6,000g [43]. A 191 small subset of the blood sample (ca. 10 µl) is stored in absolute ethanol, and used for molecular sexing, 192 parentage assignment, and telomere length measurement. Genetic parents were assigned ($p \ge 0.8$) 193 using MasterBayes 2.5.2 [34,57]. Our data included all 1109 individuals that hatched between 1997

194 and 2018 and were assigned a pair-bonded mother. We used available telomere data for offspring that 195 were sampled between 1997 and 2014. Samples that did not show signs of degradation were used for 196 relative telomere length (RTL) assessment using quantitative polymerase chain reaction [34,36], and 197 samples that did not meet quality criteria were removed [34,38]. RTL in the Seychelles warbler 198 decreases extremely rapidly between 0 and 40 days old, after which it stabilises [36]. Hence, we 199 excluded offspring younger than 40 days, resulting in 661 RTL samples for 546 offspring. Within-plate 200 repeatability was 0.74 (95%CI=0.74–0.75) for GAPDH and 0.73 (95%CI=0.71-0.74) for telomere Cq 201 values, and between-plate repeatability was 0.68 (95%CI=0.65-0.70) using 422 samples measured at 202 least twice at different time points [36].

203 (e) Statistical analyses

204 We performed all statistical analyses in R 4.3.0 [58]. Models were fitted with Ime4 1.1.13 [59] or 205 gImmTMB 1.1.17 [60]. For all models, we first z-transformed (mean centred and divided by 1SD) all 206 continuous predictors and checked for collinearity between fixed effects using variance inflation factor 207 (all <3) using *performance* 0.10.8 [61], checked for under- or overdispersion, and residual spatial or 208 temporal autocorrelation using DHARMa 0.4.6 [62], finding none in the final models. While all first-209 order factors were kept in the model irrespective of their significance, all non-significant interactions 210 were removed from the models sequentially, least significant first, to facilitate interpretation of the 211 first-order effects. As we were interested in the effects of both pair-bond tenure and ending, we 212 included both parental pair-bond tenure (in days) and ending categories (stay together: yes/no). In 213 separate models, we separated pair-bond ending into more specific categories: 1; pair-bond fidelity 214 (i.e. stay together), 2; widowhood by female's death, 3; widowhood by male's death, 4; death of both partners, 5; divorce, and 6; translocation. When there were less than 6 observations of a pair-bond 215 216 ending category for an analysis it was removed from the corresponding model.

We first assessed the effect of parental pair-bond ending on condition measures of fledged offspring
using linear mixed models (LMMs) with Gaussian error distribution.

219 (i) Telomere length (RTL) models

220 RTL was square-root transformed and z-transformed as a response variable to be consistent with 221 previous protocols in this study population [34,36]. We fitted all offspring RTL measures and included 222 log-transformed offspring sampling age since RTL changes loglinearly with age [36], offspring sex, 223 parental pair-bond tenure, pair-bond ending category, paternal and maternal age since RTL increases 224 with maternal age and decreases with paternal age [34], helper presence in the natal territory 225 (present/absent) since alloparental care can alleviate reductions in RTL [63], whether the offspring was 226 sired by an extra-pair father (yes/no) or offspring of a cobreeder (yes/no) to control for possible effects 227 of extra-pair parentage, and technician identity (two levels, A/B) [21]. We tested for interactions 228 between offspring age and sex and both parental pair-bond tenure and ending category, since the 229 effects of parental pair-bonds on RTL may be age- and sex-dependent [34,36]. As random effects, we 230 added offspring, mother and father identity, hatch season identity (i.e. season in which the offspring 231 hatched), and qPCR plate [21].

232 (ii) Haematocrit models

233 In the models with haematocrit as a response variable, we included fixed effects: offspring sampling 234 age (as linear and squared variables) since haematocrit changes quadratically with age in juveniles [64], parental pair-bond tenure, pair-bond ending category, offspring sex since juvenile haematocrit levels 235 236 are sex-dependent [64], helper presence in the natal territory (present/absent) to control for 237 alloparental effects, whether the offspring was sired by an extra-pair father (yes/no) or offspring of a 238 cobreeder (yes/no) to control for possible effects of extra-pair parentage, and time of day of sampling 239 as this influences haematocrit [43]. We also tested interactions between age (linear and quadratic) and 240 pair-bond tenure and pair-bond ending, respectively, as we expect an age-dependent effect of pair-241 bond tenure and pair-bond ending on haematocrit. As random effects, we included offspring, mother, and father identity, and hatch season. 242

243 (iii) Body condition models

244 As fixed effects in the models with body mass as a response variable, we included offspring structural 245 size (tarsus length) as we are specifically interested in body condition, offspring sampling age since 246 many juveniles were still receiving parental provisioning [27,28], offspring sex since male Seychelles 247 warblers are ca. 10% heavier than females [46], parental pair-bond tenure, pair-bond ending category, 248 helper presence in the natal territory (present/absent) to control for alloparental effects, and whether 249 the offspring was sired by an extra-pair father (yes/no) or offspring of a cobreeder (yes/no) to control 250 for extra-parentage effects. As random effects, we included offspring, mother, and father identity, and 251 hatch season.

252 (iv) Lifespan and LRS models

253 In our models of long-term offspring fitness proxies, we included offspring that survived to 254 independence (N=610), i.e. being at least 3 months of age. We did this since most birds only get ringed 255 after this age because nests and fledglings located high in the canopy are hard to reach [65]. The 256 response variables were either lifespan or LRS. Since Seychelles warblers have sex-specific variation in 257 lifespan and LRS and parental effects on offspring lifespan and LRS can be offspring sex-specific [21], 258 we expect the effect of parental pair-bonds on LRS and lifespan to differ between the sexes. Therefore, 259 we used sex-specific Generalised Linear Mixed Models (GLMMs) with a negative binomial error 260 (lifespan) and zero-inflated negative binomial (LRS) error distributions. We included two proxies of the 261 natal social environment: helper presence since this is associated with LRS [21] and group size (number 262 of adults within the territory; range: 2-7) to differentiate between the effects of additional individuals 263 (subordinates) and alloparental care. Since only some subordinates help (20% of males and 42% of 264 females), these variables are not highly correlated [29]. We added sibling presence to account for 265 differences in lifespan and reproductive potential between siblings and singletons [47], and whether 266 the offspring was sired by an extra-pair father (yes/no) or offspring of a cobreeder (yes/no) to account 267 for extra-pair effects. We also included maternal age at conception as this is associated with lifespan 268 and LRS [21]. As random effects, we added offspring, mother and father identity. Finally, we included 269 hatch season as both a random effect to account for variation caused by hatch season identity and a 270 fixed effect since offspring hatched more recently in our data lived relatively shorter lives as offspring 271 still alive at the last year of sampling were excluded from these analyses [66]. To calculate the hazards 272 ratio for parental pair-bond tenure and ending on lifespan, we ran Cox mixed effects proportional 273 hazards model using coxme 2.2.18.1 [67]. We used the same random and fixed effects as above but 274 excluded hatch season, since individuals still alive at the latest sampling date (N=114) or translocated 275 to another island (N=34) were right censored. Year of death was defined as the first year in which the 276 individual was no longer seen. We confirmed that assumptions of proportional hazards were met using 277 Schoenfeld's residuals [68].

278 RESULTS

Of the 1109 offspring hatched between 1997 and 2021, 872 (75%) had parents that remained pairbonded to the end of the next season (after offspring became independent). In the remaining cases, the parental pair-bonds ended before the end of the next season as a result of maternal death 87 (8%), paternal death 81 (7%), both parents' death 37 (3%), divorce 18 (2%), and translocation of one parent to another island 15 (1%) times.

284 (a) Parental pair-bonds and juvenile-stage fitness proxies

285 Early-life relative telomere length (RTL; N=661), a biomarker of physiological condition, was 286 significantly lower for offspring whose mothers died (Table 1), although this was based on a small 287 sample size (N=33). We found no evidence that RTL was associated with parental pair-bond tenure 288 (Table 1, Table S1), nor pair-bond ending (yes/no; Figure 1A, Table S1). We found no significant 289 association between early-life offspring haematocrit (N=579, Table S2, Table S3), nor body condition 290 (N=598, Table S4, Table S5) with parental pair-bond tenure or parental pair-bond ending category 291 (Figure 1B-C). Although all three measures (RTL, haematocrit, body condition) were significantly 292 associated with age, there was no interaction effect with age and parental pair-bond tenure or ending. 293 Juvenile males had lower haematocrit (Table S2, Table S3) and better body condition than juvenile 294 females (Table S4, Table S5).

295 (b) Parental pair-bonds and long-term offspring fitness proxies

Neither parental pair-bond tenure nor ending were associated with male (*N*=288) and female (*N*=322) offspring lifespan (Cox mixed effects proportional hazards model: Table 2, Table S6), even when excluding offspring that were still alive (*N_{male}*=232, *N_{female}*=251, GLMM: Table S7). LRS was also not predicted by parental pair-bond tenure and ending (*N_{male}*=171, *N_{female}*=250, Table 3, Table S8). Only hatch season predicted offspring lifespan and LRS (Table 3, Table S7, Table S8), but this effect was likely driven by offspring that were still alive (and thus hatched in a more recent season) being removed

- 302 from the dataset leading to only offspring from these recent seasons with shorter lifespans being
- included in the dataset.

304 DISCUSSION

This study adds to the growing body of literature on short- and long-term parental effects on offspring fitness [17,69], and to our knowledge is the first to test for long-term effects of parental pair-bonds in species other than humans [22,23]. We found no convincing evidence of parental pair-bonds being associated with short-and long-term fitness components in the Seychelles warbler. Telomere length in the first year of life was lower for offspring whose mother died, although this analysis had low statistical power. Besides this finding, telomere length, haematocrit, and body condition in the first year of life were not associated with parental pair-bond tenure or ending, nor were lifespan and LRS.

312 The effect of widowhood by death of the female on offspring telomere length could be driven by 313 increased stress experienced by the offspring early in life, meaning they face a reduction in telomere 314 length. Maternal effects on offspring telomere length have been found before in Seychelles warblers, 315 with females surviving to older ages producing offspring with longer telomeres [34]. However, our 316 finding is based on a small sample size of female death (N=33), meaning we have limited power to 317 support this finding. Additionally, this effect did not exist in any of the other measures of offspring 318 condition early in life (haematocrit and body condition) nor did it result in detrimental effects later in 319 life for the offspring (lifespan, LRS). Thus, we do not claim that mother death results in changes in 320 offspring fitness.

321 We found no evidence of a relationship between parental pair-bond ending on the other short-term 322 and long-term offspring fitness condition measures. This suggests that the ending of a parental pair-323 bond is not a major component of the socio-environmental stressors experienced by offspring. 324 Seychelles warblers that divorce or are widowed usually re-pair by the next breeding season [26]. As 325 the population is highly saturated and there is strong competition for breeding vacancies [50,70], the 326 breeding position may be filled up very quickly, sometimes within hours [24,70]. These new 327 replacement breeders may alleviate potential stress experienced by the original breeder providing care 328 to the dependent offspring. Additionally, the presence of helpers is positively associated with the

329 lifespan of dominant female breeders [29] and alleviates the costs of parental care for ageing female 330 Seychelles warblers [27,71], suggesting that helpers may alleviate the costs of loss of parental care 331 from the ending of the parental partnership (although they do not take over the breeding position 332 themselves [72]). However, we did not find any effect of helper presence on offspring fitness 333 components. To what extent helpers may adjust their levels of parental care as a response to one of 334 the dominant breeders disappearing (through divorce or death) remains to be investigated. An 335 alternative explanation for this lack of a consistent detectable effect on telomere length, body 336 condition, and haematocrit is that these measures are not sensitive enough to capture the stress 337 juveniles experience due to having parents with little pair-breeding experience or following parental 338 pair-disruption. However, telomere length, body condition [46] and haematocrit [43] all correlate with 339 other early-life environmental factors, and, subsequently with survival, in the Seychelles warbler.

340 Parental pair-bond duration was not associated with any offspring fitness components in the 341 Seychelles warbler, suggesting that parental pair-breeding experience does not strongly affect 342 offspring on the short- and long-term. When controlling for age, partners who have been together for 343 a long time either do not yield higher-quality offspring, compared to those with newer partners, or 344 effects on offspring in very early-life condition do not translate into any long-term effect on fitness 345 components in the present study. However, early-life sociological and environmental conditions have 346 been linked to short- and long-term fitness components in the Seychelles warbler using the same 347 metrics in the present study [21,36,46,71]. This suggests that although fitness components used in this 348 study are affected by the early-life environment, they are not affected by parental pair-bond tenure 349 specifically. Additionally, disruption of the pair-bond when offspring are still dependent on their 350 parents and/or the parental territory did not negatively affect long-term performance of these 351 offspring in this study. Parental pair-bond tenure may yield other benefits rather than increasing 352 offspring quality, such as higher annual survival of the parents [9,73]. In the Seychelles warbler, pair-353 bond tenure and pair-bond disruption through widowhood and divorce are not associated with 354 individual reproductive success, but females that are divorced and lose their breeding position have

355 lowered survival compared to females that stayed in their partnership [26]. Altogether, these results 356 suggest pair-bonded Seychelles warblers do not yield significant synergistic reproductive benefits by 357 staying and breeding together in terms of offspring quantity or quality. In other systems where 358 individuals form long-term socially monogamous partnerships, the parental pair-bond may have larger 359 effects on offspring fitness. For instance, if there is very little or no extra-pair parentage meaning both 360 parents are always benefitting from raising offspring and may invest more in the offspring as a result, 361 exclusive parental care by the partners (i.e. no cooperative breeding), and a long period of offspring 362 dependence meaning offspring are highly dependent on extended care of both parents, there may be 363 a stronger effect of the parental pair bond on offspring fitness. This provides an interesting avenue to 364 study the effects of socially monogamous partnerships on offspring fitness in species that fit these 365 criteria.

366 Finally, it is possible that parental pair-bond tenure and pair-bond ending do affect offspring 367 phenotype and fitness in Seychelles warblers, but only in very early-life during the egg and hatchling 368 stage. In this case, the effect will not be detected by our study since we are often unable to assess eggs 369 or nestlings at very early stages in this system due to the inaccessibility of many nests. It could be that adversity of pair-bond disruption and/or short pair-bond tenure means that parents experiencing 370 371 these are more likely to lose their offspring very early on (as eggs or hatchlings), or do not attempt to 372 breed in that season. Thus, these parents will not be captured in our study (i.e. selective 373 disappearance). Investment in egg composition is commonly influenced by maternal effects [74,75], 374 often mediated by maternal deposition of hormones in the egg [76] and maybe one route by which 375 pair-bonds may impact egg or nestling quality. Furthermore, chicks are entirely dependent on parental 376 care during the nest stage in altricial birds, which may also be negatively affected by pair-bond factors leading to selective disappearance. Post-natal parental care is argued to be the most important 377 378 maternal effect during this period [77], so much so that it can mask other maternal effects such as 379 investment in the egg [78]. However, divorcing and widowhood in the Seychelles warbler are not associated with reproductive output at the egg-laying or fledgling stage [26], thus any strong parental
 effect on offspring survival prior to the point at which they are included in this study, appears unlikely.

382

383 CONCLUSION

384 This study highlights the surprising lack of intergenerational effects of social breeding partnerships on 385 fitness in the Seychelles warbler. Although social monogamy is a common mating system, especially in 386 avian taxa [1], the implications of staying with the same partner for extended periods on offspring 387 fitness are understudied. This study sets the groundwork for quantifying long-term parental effects of 388 mate switching and pair-bond tenure in socially monogamous breeders. We hope this study stimulates 389 future research to test if the lack of influence of parental pair-bonds on offspring fitness components 390 that we found is ubiquitous across taxa. A focus on the potential mechanisms through which long-term 391 partnerships in socially monogamous species may have intergenerational effects may provide 392 important insights. Additionally, experimental studies will allow for elucidating the causal link between 393 parental pair-bond and offspring fitness proxies.

394 TABLES

Table 1. Linear mixed model results on the effect of parental pair-bond tenure and pair-bond ending
on early-life relative telomere length in offspring in the Seychelles warbler (*N*=666). Significant fixed
effects are in bold. Reference categories are pair-bond ending = yes (remain together), sex = female,
helper presence = no, offspring sired by extra-pair male (EPP) = no, offspring of cobreeder = no,
technician ID = A.

| Fixed effects | | Estimate | SE | t | р |
|------------------|------|----------|-------|--------|-------|
| Intercept | | 0.918 | 0.316 | 2.903 | 0.004 |
| Pair-bond ending | Yes | -0.124 | 0.104 | -1.186 | 0.236 |
| Offspring age | | -0.410 | 0.144 | -2.846 | 0.006 |
| Maternal age | | 0.004 | 0.047 | 0.086 | 0.931 |
| Paternal age | | 0.003 | 0.047 | 0.057 | 0.955 |
| Sex | Male | -0.021 | 0.104 | -1.186 | 0.236 |
| Helper presence | Yes | 0.022 | 0.106 | 0.206 | 0.837 |
| ЕРР | Yes | 0.006 | 0.079 | 0.078 | 0.938 |
| Cobreeder | Yes | 0.125 | 0.165 | 0.757 | 0.449 |
| Pair-bond tenure | | 0.009 | 0.041 | 0.219 | 0.827 |
| Technician ID | В | 0.076 | 0.128 | 0.598 | 0.550 |
| Random effects | | sd | Ν | | |
| Offspring ID | | 0.212 | 550 | | |
| Mother ID | | 0.179 | 261 | | |
| Father ID | | 0.059 | 263 | | |
| Hatch season | | 0.246 | 30 | | |
| Plate ID | | 0.104 | 57 | | |
| Residual | | 0.917 | | | |

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Table 2. Cox mixed effects proportional hazards model results including the hazards ratio (HR) on the effect of parental pair-bond tenure and ending on offspring lifespan in the Seychelles warbler in (A) females (*N*=322) and (B) males (*N*=288) using a binary variable for pair-bond ending (yes/no). Each pair-bond ending category includes the sample size in brackets. Reference categories are pair-bond ending = no (remain together), helper presence = no, offspring sired by extra-pair male (EPP) = no, offspring of cobreeder = no, sibling presence = no.

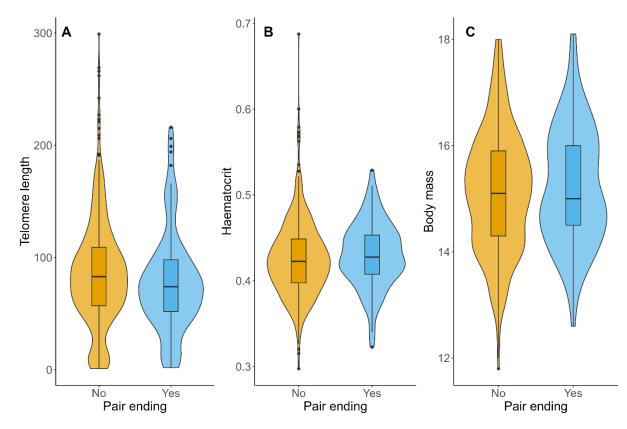
| | | A. Females | | | | B. Males | | | | |
|------------------|-----|------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| Fixed effects | | HR | SE | Z | р | HR | SE | Z | р | |
| Pair-bond ending | Yes | 1.045 | 0.183 | 0.24 | 0.810 | 0.887 | 0.223 | -0.53 | 0.590 | |
| Maternal age | | 0.989 | 0.072 | -0.15 | 0.880 | 1.069 | 0.092 | 0.73 | 0.470 | |
| Helper presence | Yes | 1.329 | 0.160 | 1.77 | 0.076 | 0.880 | 0.226 | -0.57 | 0.570 | |
| EPP | Yes | 1.021 | 0.130 | 0.16 | 0.870 | 1.026 | 0.165 | 0.15 | 0.880 | |
| Cobreeder | Yes | 1.078 | 0.138 | -0.47 | 0.590 | 1.293 | 0.262 | 0.98 | 0.330 | |
| Sibling presence | Yes | 1.078 | 0.138 | 0.54 | 0.590 | 0.772 | 0.198 | -1.31 | 0.190 | |
| Group size | | 0.977 | 0.075 | -0.04 | 0.960 | 1.029 | 0.105 | 0.27 | 0.780 | |
| Pair-bond tenure | | 1.019 | 0.073 | 0.26 | 0.800 | 0.985 | 0.092 | -0.16 | 0.870 | |
| Random effects | | sd | Ν | | | sd | Ν | | | |
| Mother ID | | 0.020 | 202 | | | 0.212 | 155 | | | |
| Father ID | | 0.020 | 203 | | | 0.040 | 163 | | | |
| Hatch season | | 0.240 | 36 | | | 0.284 | 31 | | | |

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Table 3. Zero-inflated generalised linear mixed model results of the effect of parental pair-bond
tenure and ending on offspring lifetime reproductive success in the Seychelles warbler in (A) females
(*N*=250) and (B) males (*N*=171) using a binary variable for pair-bond ending (yes/no) excluding
offspring that are still alive. Significant fixed effects are in bold. Reference categories are pair-bond
ending = no (remain together), helper presence = no, offspring sired by extra-pair male (EPP) = no,
offspring of cobreeder = no, sibling presence = no.

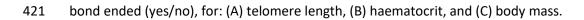
| | | A. Females | | | | B. Males | | | | |
|-------------------------|-----|------------|-------|--------|---------|----------|-------|--------|--------|--|
| Fixed effects | | Estimate | SE | Z | Р | Estimate | SE | Z | р | |
| Intercept | | 1.233 | 0.197 | 6.265 | <0.0001 | 0.548 | 0.288 | 1.903 | 0.057 | |
| Zero-inflated intercept | | 0.050 | 0.190 | 0.263 | 0.793 | -1.515 | 0.916 | -1.653 | 0.098 | |
| Pair-bond ending | Yes | -0.307 | 0.256 | -1.198 | 0.231 | -0.033 | 0.332 | -0.101 | 0.920 | |
| Mum age | | -0.038 | 0.096 | -0.399 | 0.690 | 0.080 | 0.147 | 0.545 | 0.586 | |
| Helper presence | Yes | -0.425 | 0.234 | -1.819 | 0.069 | 0.303 | 0.327 | 0.926 | 0.354 | |
| EPP | Yes | -0.280 | 0.179 | -1.570 | 0.117 | -0.062 | 0.265 | -0.235 | 0.814 | |
| Cobreeder | Yes | 0.157 | 0.264 | 0.595 | 0.552 | 0.587 | 0.355 | 1.658 | 0.098 | |
| Sibling presence | Yes | -0.026 | 0.176 | -0.148 | 0.882 | -0.205 | 0.312 | -0.658 | 0.511 | |
| Group size | | -0.085 | 0.110 | -0.777 | 0.437 | -0.057 | 0.157 | -0.365 | 0.715 | |
| Pair-bond tenure | | 0.160 | 0.092 | 1.730 | 0.084 | 0.101 | 0.138 | 0.737 | 0.461 | |
| Hatch season | | -0.581 | 0.121 | -4.809 | <0.001 | -0.677 | 0.177 | -3.832 | <0.001 | |
| Random effects | | sd | Ν | | | sd | Ν | | | |
| Mother ID | | 0.00004 | 161 | | | 0.00005 | 129 | | | |
| Father ID | | <0.00001 | 165 | | | 0.00007 | 137 | | | |
| Hatch season | | <0.00001 | 31 | | | 0.4428 | 31 | | | |
| Breeding group | | 0.0001 | 236 | | | 0.00004 | 163 | | | |

418 FIGURES





420 Figure 1. Violin plots of the juvenile-stage fitness proxies in relation to whether the parental pair-



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