1	Comparing measures of social complexity: larger mountain gorilla groups do not have a greater
2	diversity of relationships
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11	Social complexity reflects the intricate patterns of social interactions in societies. Understanding social
12	complexity is fundamental for studying the evolution of diverse social systems and the cognitive
13	innovations used to cope with the demands of social life. Social complexity has been predominantly
14	quantified by social unit size, but newer measures of social complexity reflect the diversity of
15	relationships. However, the association between these two sets of measures remains unclear. We used
16	12 years of data on 13 gorilla groups to investigate how measures of social complexity relate to each
17	other. We found that group size was a poor proxy for relationship diversity and that the social
18	complexity individuals experienced within the same group varied greatly. Our findings demonstrate two
19	fundamental takeaways: firstly, that the number of relationships and the diversity of those relationships
20	represent separate components of social complexity, both of which should be accounted for; and
21	secondly, that social complexity measured at the group-level may not represent the social complexity
22	experienced by individuals in those groups. These findings suggest that comprehensive studies of social
23	complexity, particularly those relating to the social demands faced by individuals, may require fine-scale

24 social data to allow accurate comparisons across populations and species.

25 Background

26 Complex social systems have been hypothesized as a key driver in the evolution of brains (1-3), 27 communication (4), multilevel social structure (5) and cooperation (6–8). Animals that live in more 28 complex societies are proposed, for example, to require larger brains and more sophisticated cognitive 29 abilities (1,3,9). Social complexity has even been suggested to enable greater ecological success, thus 30 explaining the prevalence of taxa, such as humans, hymenoptera and termites across a wide variety of 31 environments (10). Correctly quantifying the complexity of social systems is therefore of upmost 32 importance to our ability to test these predictions and to advance our understanding of social evolution. 33 Whilst the complexity of social systems has often been assessed intuitively, comparisons across 34 populations and species require quantifiable measures (11). Yet how best to quantify social complexity 35 remains unclear.

36 Social complexity is most often measured in one of two ways: i) the number of relationships in a social 37 unit, and ii) the diversity of social relationships within that social unit (9,10,12,13). The idea that groups 38 with a greater number of relationships are more socially complex assumes that each additional 39 relationship comes with its own social demands. Quantifying realized relationships, as can be done using 40 the social network measures degree or density (14), requires extensive social data, limiting its feasibility 41 as a measure in large cross-species comparisons. As a result group size has been used extensively as a 42 proxy of relationship number in studies of social complexity due to the wide availability of these data 43 across study sites and species (15). Alternatively, social complexity has been proposed to be greater in 44 groups with a larger number of differentiated relationships of different type (9). Each additional 45 relationship that is of a different type to all other relationships results in a more complex social environment. Measures of relationship diversity therefore do not focus on the total number of 46 47 relationships or potential relationships, but on the number of different types of relationship (usually 48 distinguished by association strength), and the distribution of relationships across those types. The 49 greater the number of different types of social relationship and the more evenly spread relationships 50 are across those types, the more complex a social system (12,13).

Group size and the diversity of types of social relationship within groups are expected to be tightly
linked at small group sizes because small groups have a small maximum number of potential
relationship types. However, beyond this, group size and relationship diversity may represent
fundamentally different components of social complexity (10). For example, a large colony of eusocial
insects without individual recognition may have a fairly low diversity of social relationships if

relationships are based on a small number of different castes (16). In contrast, large groups of primates

57 could have a high diversity of social relationships if relationships are individual-specific and based on

58 factors, such as past interactions, dominance and kinship (17). If each individual has a clearly

- 59 differentiated relationship with each other individual in the group, group size could provide just as much
- 60 information about social complexity as relationship diversity (1,9). Yet, the extent to which group size
- 61 correlates with relationship diversity remains unknown for any taxa or species.
- 62 Because social complexity is believed to drive the cognitive demands experienced by individuals (9), it is
- also important to verify whether group-level measures of social complexity adequately reflect the
- 64 experience of individuals or whether they mask important individual-level variation (18) (Figure 1). A
- 65 mismatch between group-level and individual-level measures may be one reason for the often
- 66 conflicting evidence for a relationship between social complexity (measured as group size) and brain size
- 67 (15,19–24). Attributes such as sex may also be important determinants of the complexity an individual
- 68 experiences in its social environment. This complexity could also change throughout an individual's life,
- 69 for example, as an individual ages. To investigate the processes of social evolution we therefore also
- 70 require a greater understanding of whether group-level metrics reflect the social complexity
- 71 experienced by individuals.





75 Figure 1. Groups with the same diversity of relationships at the group-level (group-level S) can have drastically 76 different levels of social complexity at the individual-level (mean individual-level S). Grey circles represent 77 individuals in the group, arrows represent their relationships. Group-level S is based on the total number of 78 relationship types in a group. For panel A and B this is 1.07: 5 weak relationships (light), 3 intermediate 79 relationships (medium) and 5 strong relationships (dark). Individual-level diversity of relationships (reported within 80 grey circles) is based on the relationships that each individual has, e.g. 0 when all their relationships are of the 81 same type or 1.1 when they have 3 relationships, each of a different type. The mean individual-level diversity for a 82 group is therefore the mean of all individuals' values: 0.21 for group A and 0.81 for group B.

83

84 One way to investigate links between measures of social complexity is to use cross-species data. 85 However, for many species this level of fine-scale data is not available and where it is, considerable 86 differences in the habitats, sampling methods and species-specific social behaviours have the potential 87 to obscure or drive these links (14). Another method is to use intra-specific data in study systems with lots of variation in group size. Mountain gorillas (Gorilla beringei beringei) provide an ideal study 88 89 organism in which to do this. Their groups vary considerably in size (2 to 65 individuals) and numerous 90 such groups have been the subject of long-term consistent monitoring in the wild (25). We use social 91 behaviour and demographic data from 13 wild mountain gorilla groups collected by the Dian Fossey 92 Gorilla Fund over 12 years. We quantify social relationships using proximity data due to the documented 93 importance of proximity within the gorilla social system (26–28) and the potential for proximity-based

94 measures to be compared across primates (29–32) and other social species (13). We test whether group 95 size predicts the diversity of social relationships within groups. We also investigate social complexity at 96 the individual-level, testing whether individual-level measures reflect group-level metrics, and can be 97 predicted by sex and age. Finally, we test whether the diversity of social relationships is influenced by 98 variation in socio-sexual factors (adult sex ratio and mating strategy).

99 Unlike western gorillas, which primarily live in groups with a single dominant adult male, mountain 100 gorillas form both single-male and multi-male groups (33), resulting in groups that vary in size, as well as 101 levels of reproductive competition and mating strategy. Variation in socio-sexual parameters 102 additionally enables tests of the hypotheses that increased male sexual competition or changes in 103 mating system can lead to higher levels of social complexity (22,34) - hypotheses of purported 104 importance in human social evolution. Numerous transitions in social structure and mating system are 105 thought to have occurred during human evolution, and the ancestral social structure of humans remains 106 hotly debated (5,35,36). However, little is known about what such transitions may have meant for the 107 social complexity of early human populations. Modern human populations also show wide variation in 108 mating patterns, despite the universality of marriage in human societies, with promiscuity, monogamy, 109 polyandry, and polygyny all observed (37). Similarities in the variation expressed in the mountain gorilla 110 social system (38) may be valuable to understanding our own highly flexible social system, providing key 111 information on how elements of the social system can influence social complexity and the potentially 112 very different pressures of group living experienced when these elements change.

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114 Methods

115 <u>Behavioural and demographic data collection</u>

Habituated mountain gorilla (*Gorilla beringei beringei*) groups were monitored for up to 4 hours daily by
The Dian Fossey Gorilla Fund's Karisoke Research Center in the Volcanoes National Park (VNP), Rwanda.
We used data collected over 12 years between 2004 and 2015. During this time, the number of groups
monitored varied between 3 and 11 (annual mean = 7.78 groups). All gorillas were individually identified
by physical characteristics. Behavioural data were collected on each group member via 50-minute focal
sampling, with scan sampling completed every 10 minutes to record all gorillas within 2 metres of the
focal individual. Group composition was monitored daily. Groups that remained stable across a given

year (did not form, merge, fission or disintegrate) and contained at least 3 individuals that were presentfor the entirety of a year were used in analyses.

125 <u>Quantifying social complexity – Group Size</u>

For each group in each year that was analysed (n=72), the size, adult sex ratio and mating strategy of the group for that year were recorded. Group size was the total number of individuals present in the group for at least 11 months of the year and over the age of 1 at the start of the year. All individuals over the age of 8 by the midpoint of the year were classified as adults. Adult sex ratio was the proportion of adults in the group that were male. Mating strategy was classed as multi-male if a group contained more than one sexually mature silverback male over the age of 16 - the median age of male dispersal (28) and the estimated age at onset of adulthood for males (39) (see Supp. Mat.).

133 <u>Quantifying social complexity – Relationship diversity at the group-level</u>

134 Despite living in cohesive social groups, rates of social interaction are extremely low in adult mountain 135 gorillas. For example, Stoinski et al (28) found that most subordinate silverbacks had no affiliative or 136 aggressive interactions with the dominant silverback over a year, but subordinate silverbacks that later 137 dispersed tended to spend less time in close proximity to the dominant silverback. They suggest that, 138 similarly to western gorillas (27), proximity may be a better indicator of relationship quality in this 139 species. We therefore used proximity data to assess the social relationships present within mountain 140 gorilla groups. Proximity data (within 2 m) from focal sampling was extracted for all individuals that 141 were present in the group at least 11 months of the year and were >1 year old at the start of the year. 142 Weighted social networks were constructed from proximity data for each group in each year. Edge 143 values of the networks were calculated using the Simple Ratio Index (SRI) of association (40). These 144 values represented the proportion of time two individuals were within 2 m of each other, such that a 145 value of 1 would indicate that the two individuals were within 2 m of each other every time they were 146 observed, whilst 0 would indicate that they were never observed within 2 m of each other. 147 We used mixture models to cluster the SRI values from each network into categories following Weiss et

al. (13). Mixture models to cluster the SRI values from each network into categories following weiss et
 al. (13). Mixture models were run with varying numbers of categories to identify the number of
 categories of relationship type that best fit the distribution of SRI values (Figure 2, Supp. Fig. 1,) using ICL
 (Integrated Completed Likelihood). This data-driven approach enabled each dyadic relationship to be
 categorised into a given relationship type. The diversity of social relationships within each network was
 then extracted from the best fitting model using the Shannon's Index (13), taking into account both the

153 number of different types of relationship and the distribution of dyadic relationships across these

- 154 categories. We repeated this analysis using only data on adults.
- 155 Quantifying social complexity at the individual-level

156 We estimated the diversity of social relationships for individuals each year by running mixture models 157 on a single data set combining all SRI values from all 72 networks across years and groups. This assigned 158 all SRI edge values into categories of relationship type. The best fitting model (number of relationship 159 types that best fit the data) included five types of relationship across the population (Figure 2). As this 160 value was lower than the number detected in some groups in certain years, simulations were run to 161 demonstrate that rare relationship types, only present in a small number of the total groups, were 162 unlikely to be detected when analyzing the population as a whole. Whilst this suggests that individual 163 relationship diversity may be slightly underestimated in a small number of cases, this approach enables 164 the direct comparison of individuals across the population and across multiple years (Supp. Mat.). 165 Following this population-wide classification of relationship types, all the relationships that an individual 166 was involved in within a given year were extracted, and the diversity of these relationships calculated 167 using Shannon's diversity (12,13). This resulted in a single social diversity score for each individual in

168 each year (n=1007, 166 individuals sampled across a mean of 6.67 years). This value represented only

169 the diversity of relationships that a specific individual was involved in. The mean of this for a group was

therefore different to the diversity of relationships across that group (Figure 1).



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Figure 2. Density histogram (blue bars) and distribution (black lines) of relationship types (T1-5) as
 distinguished by mixture modelling based on the strength of association from the simple ratio index for
 proximity (proportion of time pairs of individuals were within 2 m). Plot excludes SRI values of 0 for
 visualization purposes. See Supp. Fig. 2 for frequency histogram of full data set.

176

177 <u>Testing the association between group-level measures of social complexity</u>

178 We used generalized additive mixed models (GAMMs) to determine if the diversity of social 179 relationships in a group was predicted by group size following linear or polynomial relationships. This 180 analysis was repeated with only adult relationships, using the number of adults instead of group size. 181 Group identity was included as a random factor to account for sampling the same group over different 182 years. The mean sampling effort for all relationships in a group in a given year was included as a 183 smoothing term in the model to account for differences in sampling. This was particularly important as 184 relationships in smaller groups tended to be better sampled due to a smaller number of individuals on 185 which to collect data. We additionally tested adult sex ratio and mating strategy as predictors of

relationship diversity using GAMMs to assess how well socio-sexual structure predicted relationshipdiversity.

188 <u>Testing the association between group-level and individual-level measures of social complexity</u>

189 GAMMs were run to investigate whether individual-level social complexity was predicted by group-level 190 estimates of social complexity (the diversity of social relationships in a group and group size). As plots 191 demonstrated a potential polynomial relationship, both linear and polynomial predictors were 192 investigated. Models included the year of data collection nested within group, and individual as random 193 factors, with sampling effort as a smoothing term. All continuous variables were z-transformed to aid 194 comparison. To investigate variation in social complexity within and between individuals, the mean, 195 minimum and maximum variance of an individual's relationship diversity across multiple years was 196 calculated for all individuals present across more than one year (n= 153). This was compared with the 197 mean, minimum and maximum variance between individuals within a group in a given year (n=72) and 198 the total variance observed across the entire sample.

199 As there was high variance within groups and individuals, we also explored whether the age and sex of 200 individuals predicted the diversity of social relationships at the individual-level. Due to the polynomial 201 appearance of the relationship between age and an individual's relationship diversity, we ran GAMMs 202 with increasingly higher degree polynomials for age (e.g. age, then age+age², then age + age² + age³...) 203 until the addition of a further polynomial did not improve the adjusted r-squared. This resulted in a model that included age polynomials up to the 5^{th} degree (age+age²+age³+age⁴+age⁵), sex, and their 204 205 respective interactions predicting how male and female gorillas' relationship diversity changed as they 206 aged. Models included year nested within group, and individual as random factors. As each individual 207 was monitored over an average of 6.19 years, by including individual as a random factor we could 208 investigate how relationship diversity changed within an individual as they aged. The sampling effort for 209 the group was again included as a smoothing term and all continuous variables z-transformed.

All GAMMs were run using the "GAMM4" package (41) in R version 3.6.1 (42). Model diagnostic plots
were generated to verify that model assumptions were not violated (43).

212

214 Results

215 Larger groups do not have a greater diversity of social relationships

216 Up to 7 types of social relationship were detected within gorilla groups (mean = 4.51, min = 2, max = 7, 217 see Supp. Fig. 1 for examples), with the diversity of social relationships ranging from 0.43 to 1.87 (mean 218 = 1.29). Although there was not a linear relationship between group size and the diversity of social 219 relationships within a group, there was a significant polynomial relationship between these variables 220 (Table 1). Very small or very large groups had lower levels of relationship diversity, while mid-size groups showed the highest diversity (Figure 3). These results were the same when all group members were 221 222 included, and when analyses were restricted to adults. These results also remained when the one 223 unusually large group, PAB, was removed, but only when all group members were included (Supp. Table 224 1).

225

Table 1. GAMMs demonstrate a polynomial relationship between group size and both the diversity of social
 relationships in a group and the diversity of adult relationships in a group.

		Full Group		Adults Only	
Model	Variable	t-Value	Р	t-Value	Р
Linear	Group size	1.662	0.211	1.568	0.121
R-sq.(adj)= 0.136 (full) and 0.125 (adults)					
Polynomial	Group size	2.091	0.040	1.698	0.094
R-sq.(adj)= 0.303 (full) and 0.286 (adults)	Group size ²	-4.503	<0.001	-4.818	<0.001

228

229



Figure 3: Relationships between group-level measures of social complexity. A) The diversity of social relationships within groups against group size and B) the diversity of social relationships among adults within groups against the number of adults, for all study groups across all years. Group indicated by colour. Significant relationships

235 indicated by black curve with shaded area indicating standard error bounds.

236

237 <u>Traits influencing the diversity of relationships in a group</u>

238 Adult sex ratio followed a polynomial relationship with the diversity of social relationships within a 239 group (Figure 4). There was a lower diversity of relationships when adult group members were either 240 mostly male or mostly female, and highest diversity when around 40% of adult group members were 241 male. However, no such relationship was found when analyses were restricted to the diversity of adult 242 social relationships (Table 2, Supp. Fig. 3). The mating strategy of the group did not influence the 243 diversity of social relationships (Supp. Table 2). That is, groups in which multiple mature males had the opportunity to mate with females did not have a greater diversity of relationships than groups where 244 only one mature male did (t=1.228, p=0.224). 245

246



248

249 Figure 4: The relationship between adult sex ratio and the diversity of social relationships within the group, for all

250 study groups across all years. Mating strategy (MM: multi-male or SM: single male) indicated by circles and

triangles respectively. Group indicated by colour. Significant relationship indicated by black curve with shaded area

252 indicating standard error bounds.

253

254 **Table 2.** GAMMs to predict the diversity of social relationships in a group from the adult sex ratio (ASR)

demonstrate a polynomial relationship only when both adults and immature individuals are included.

	Full Group		oup	Adults Only	
	Variable	t-Value	Р	t-Value	Р
Linear	ASR	-1.262	0.249	0.251	0.802
R-sq.(adj)= 0.040 (full) and 0.022 (adults)					
Polynomial	ASR	-0.917	0.362	-0.035	0.972
R-sq.(adj)= 0.177 (full) and -0.022 (adults)	ASR ²	-2.444	0.017	-1.038	0.303

256

257

258 Individuals in larger groups do not have a greater diversity of relationships

259 We identified a high diversity of relationships (S=1.493) across the population as a whole, detecting 5

types of intra-group social relationship. The strongest relationships (relationship types 4 and 5) were

261 primarily mother-offspring and maternal kin relationships, but relationship types were not determined

262 purely by the kinship or age-sex classes of the individuals involved (Supp. Fig. 4, Supp. Table 3). We

263 found a positive linear relationship between the diversity of an individual's relationships and the total 264 relationship diversity in their group (GAMM (n=1107): R-sq (adj) = 0.094, t=3.574, p<0.001, Figure 5A). 265 The diversity of an individual's relationships declined with group size (Table 3). However, this pattern 266 was driven by the unusually large PAB group and disappeared when they were excluded from the 267 analysis. A polynomial model better explained the relationship between individual-level diversity and 268 group size (Table 3, Figure 5B). The diversity of an individual's relationships increased with group size up 269 to 25, before decreasing steeply with group size beyond this. The significant polynomial relationship 270 between individual-level diversity and group size remained after the removal of the PAB group 271 demonstrating that this relationship was not driven by the unusually high group size values of PAB alone 272 (although it peaked at a lower group size) (Table 3).

273 Despite the overall relationships between group-level and individual-level measures, there was 274 nonetheless notable variation in the diversity of social relationships for individuals from the same group 275 (Figure 5). The mean variance of relationship diversity for the same individual over multiple years was 276 0.049 (min = 0, max = 0.360), whilst the mean variance between individuals within a group in a given 277 year was 0.065 (min = 0, max = 0.285). This was only marginally less than the variance observed across 278 the entire sample (total variance = 0.082). This suggests that whilst group-level relationship diversity 279 explains a significant amount of variance in individual-level diversity between groups, there is a large 280 amount of unexplained variation in the relationship diversity of individuals within the same group. 281 Between individual variation was only slightly greater than within individual variation, demonstrating 282 that the social complexity an individual experiences can change considerably year to year.



Figure 5: Social complexity (diversity of relationships) at an individual-level plotted against A) the group-level
 measure of diversity of social relationships and B) group size. Group means for a given year are represented by
 filled points, individual values represented by unfilled points. Group membership indicated by colour. The shapes
 of significant relationships are indicated by solid lines. Shaded area indicates standard error bounds.

290

Table 3. GAMMs to examine the association between an individual's diversity of social relationships and group size
 demonstrate a significant negative linear relationship and a polynomial relationship. Only the polynomial
 relationship holds when excluding the unusually large PAB group.

		All groups		Without PAB	
Model	Variable	t-Value	Р	t-Value	Р
Linear	Group size	-2.315	0.021	1.875	0.0612
R-sq.(adj)= 0.094 (all groups) and -0.033 (without PAB)					
Polynomial	Group size	-2.137	0.033	-0.338	0.736
R-sq.(adj)= 0.168 (all groups) and 0.117 (without PAB)	Group size ²	-5.087	<0.001	-3.665	<0.001

294

295 Age and sex predict individual-level social complexity

296 The diversity of relationships at an individual-level was significantly predicted by sex and age and

changed differently between the sexes as gorillas aged (Figure 6, Supp. Table 4). Overall, individual-level

social complexity declined with age and was lower in males. For males, relationship diversity declined

until roughly 14 years of age when it began to increase again. In females it declined more gradually with
age before plateauing between the ages of roughly 12-25, before a slight decline after the age of 25.

301



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Figure 6: Individual-level social complexity changes differently with age in male and female gorillas. Significant
 polynomial relationship indicated by solid curves (y=poly(x,5)). Shaded area indicates standard error bounds.

305

306 Discussion

307 We found that group size was not a straightforward proxy for metrics of social complexity based on the 308 diversity of social relationships. Neither the diversity of relationships within a group or an individual's 309 relationship diversity followed a positive linear relationship with group size. This provides quantitative 310 support for the hypothesis that group size and the diversity of social relationships represent 311 fundamentally different elements of social complexity (10), bringing into question the use of any single 312 metric as an estimate for social complexity. Both the diversity of social relationships within a group and 313 individual relationship diversity followed an n-shaped polynomial relationship with group size. Such a 314 pattern may be expected where the number of potential relationship types increases with group size in 315 smaller groups, but no longer influences the diversity of social relationships once a group includes most, 316 or all, of the potential relationship types. However, the decrease in the diversity of social relationships in 317 larger groups was unexpected and may reflect strategies to reduce the cognitive demands of larger than318 average group sizes.

319 Yellow-bellied marmots establish fewer social connections than possible in larger groups, with closeness 320 and betweenness centrality decreasing with group size (44). If this pattern occurs in mountain gorillas, it 321 could result in a less even distribution of relationships across relationship types, with the majority falling 322 into the weakest category when groups are particularly large, reducing the overall diversity (Supp. Fig. 323 1). This also fits with research on human and other hierarchical mammalian societies (45,46), including 324 gorillas (38), where the number of relationships of a given type increases exponentially from the 325 strongest to weakest relationship categories. This scaling pattern, with larger numbers of progressively 326 weaker relationships, is hypothesized to be due to cognitive or time constraints on the number of 327 relationships that can be maintained at a given strength (45). Small groups could therefore have low 328 relationship diversity when not all types of relationship are present. Diversity could then peak in mid-329 sized groups where all types are present with a fairly even distribution across categories. In the largest 330 groups this diversity could then decline again as cognitive or temporal demands prevent the addition of 331 further relationships to the strongest categories, and the distribution of relationships across the 332 categories becomes less and less even.

333 Adult sex ratio predicted the diversity of social relationships present in a gorilla group following an n-334 shaped curve, peaking when roughly 40% of adults were male. However, this relationship was not 335 observed when investigating only adults, suggesting that it is not driven by reproductive competition. 336 Instead, it appears to primarily be driven by relationships involving immature individuals. Since the types 337 of relationships gorillas form were influenced by their age and sex, it's likely that the presence or 338 absence of individuals at certain ages could influence group-level relationship diversity (Supp. Fig. 4). 339 Groups with low adult sex ratio could have formed more recently and include a single dominant male 340 and multiple females but no adult and few immature offspring, reducing the total diversity of 341 relationships. Diversity may peak when a dominant male is midway through their tenure and groups 342 contain offspring at a wide variety of different ages, including males >8 years old, increasing the adult 343 sex ratio. As dominant males reach the end of their tenure, females may begin to leave the group if 344 there is no clear successor (47), increasing the adult sex ratio further and leading to groups with fewer 345 females and fewer young offspring, again reducing the diversity of relationships (48). However, further 346 research is required to investigate sex ratio changes across dominant male tenures and how this may 347 differ between one-male and multi-male groups. It is also clear that the composition of groups is not the

only factor influencing the diversity of relationships within them as there is considerable variation in the
 strength of association and type of relationship within dyadic age-sex classes (Supp. Fig. 4).

350 Mating strategy did not affect the diversity of social relationships present in a group. This suggests that 351 mating system transitions between polygynandry and polygyny may not inherently lead to changes in 352 social complexity. However, in mountain gorilla groups with multiple sexually mature males, mating 353 remains biased towards the dominant male, siring 47-85% of offspring (33,49). A greater proportion 354 than observed for the highest ranking males in many promiscuous mating systems, such as the 30.3% 355 observed in chimpanzees (50). Whilst mating strategy varies considerably within mountain gorillas it still 356 may not cover the complete variation present in a species transitioning between polygynandry or 357 promiscuity to polygyny. We therefore cannot rule out that more extreme changes in mating system 358 could influence social complexity.

359 Group-level and individual-level metrics of social diversity were positively correlated. This suggests that 360 within mountain gorillas, relationship diversity at the group-level may be a valid proxy for relationship 361 diversity at the individual-level. However, our results show mountain gorilla relationships were strongly 362 predicted by the age and sex of the individuals involved, influencing how different types of relationship 363 are distributed within groups. These social rules are likely to apply consistently within this species but 364 unlikely to apply consistently across many different species. When the rules that shape the distribution 365 of relationship types between individuals change, this is likely to break the correlation between group-366 level and individual-level social complexity. This will cause difficulties in cross-species comparisons, 367 where group-level and individual-level approaches may lead to conflicting conclusions (18). Whilst 368 group-level relationship diversity was a valid estimate for the average experience of gorillas within each 369 group, there was extremely high variance around this mean, such that the social environments 370 individuals were experiencing, and the potential cognitive demands of those social environments, could 371 vary greatly. A far greater depth of information is therefore available for investigating the differing 372 demands of group living, e.g. as individuals age, through this individual-level approach. This approach 373 would also enable consistent cross-species comparisons of social complexity and its associated cognitive 374 demands faced by individuals.

The diversity of social relationships experienced by individual gorillas was high for both males and females as infants. This declined rapidly in males, reaching the lowest levels at around 14, when males show many characteristics of sexual maturity but are 1-2 years away from full sexual maturity. This is also the period when males are most likely to disperse from their natal group (28). Males may therefore 379 be socially distancing themselves in the lead up to their dispersal. Relationship diversity then rapidly 380 increased for young males that remained with the group, when many gain in dominance status (28,51). 381 In contrast, females' relationship diversity decreased more gradually, plateauing around age 10 when 382 they are likely to first give birth (52). It then declined again gradually from around 25 to 35, when female 383 fertility is thought to decline (52). Both sexes showed a slight increase in relationship diversity at their 384 oldest ages. However, estimation at this end of the age range is limited by lower numbers of surviving 385 individuals and may also be biased by differences in those that survive (and remain with the group) to 386 this late age.

387 Whilst this study investigates social complexity from a variety of perspectives, quantifying and 388 comparing all elements of social complexity within the mountain gorilla social system is beyond the 389 scope of a single study. One important component we have not investigated is relationship stability and 390 how changes in social relationships over time may contribute to their diversity (53). In gorillas, with 391 long-term stable groups, this is likely to be low in comparison to species that exhibit fission-fusion 392 dynamics. However, our analyses have largely removed this element by excluding unstable groups, as 393 well as individuals that died or changed group in a given year. Another element of complexity not 394 addressed are social relationships between neighbouring groups (38,54). Whilst these represent an 395 important part of gorilla social structure, they make up a small proportion of gorilla social interactions. 396 We detected 5 types of social relationship within gorilla groups. Given that inter-group relationships 397 have been shown to be influenced by kinship, group familiarity and threat level (54), it is likely there are 398 also multiple types of inter-group relationship in the gorilla social system. Whilst excluding these 399 elements of gorilla social complexity and relying solely on proximity as an estimate of social 400 relationships have enabled clearer comparison of group-level social complexity, we must acknowledge 401 that we are not quantifying the full extent of social complexity in mountain gorillas.

402 Conclusion

Our findings demonstrate considerable variation in estimates of social complexity at both the grouplevel and the individual-level in mountain gorillas, and that these estimates of social complexity are not good linear proxies of each other. Whilst group size contains information on the number of individuals group members may regularly encounter, it is just one component of social complexity. Studies relying solely on group size as a measure of social complexity may therefore be limited, especially when it comes to understanding the cognitive demands experienced by individuals. Conversely this also implies that the diversity of social relationships alone may not fully describe social complexity. Maintaining 5 types of social relationship with 5 partners may not be equivalent to maintaining 5 types of relationship
with 50 partners. Both the abundance and diversity of social relationships may need to be taken into
account.

413 Whilst the development of a single metric for measuring social complexity would aid cross-species 414 comparisons, the creation of a metric that was valid across species would be extremely difficult. Rather 415 than attempting to quantify social complexity as a single metric it may be more beneficial to view it as 416 consisting of multiple components including the number, diversity and stability of relationships, all of 417 which contribute to the demands of social life within a social system. The increasing availability of fine-418 scale social data across a broad range of taxa, combined with recently developed metrics of relationship 419 (or association) diversity may provide an important opportunity to revisit many fundamental hypotheses 420 on the evolution of social behaviour. Taking into account multiple components of social complexity and 421 tailoring the metrics used (whether group-level or individual-level) to the specific hypothesis being 422 tested will be vital to improving our understanding of social evolution and the innovations driven by the

- 423 demands of social life.
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542 Author Contributions

- 543 REM conceived the project with advice and feedback from TSS, WE, and LJNB. Data collection and
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- 545 REM wrote the manuscript with feedback, advice and final approval from all authors.