

Early growth, dominance acquisition and lifetime reproductive success in male and female cooperative meerkats

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Abstract:	<p>In polygynous species, variance in reproductive success is higher in males than females. There is consequently stronger selection for competitive traits in males and early growth can have a greater influence on later fitness in males than in females. As yet, little is known about sex differences in the effect of early growth on subsequent breeding success in species where variance in reproductive success is higher in females than males, and competitive traits are under stronger selection in females. Greater variance in reproductive success has been documented in several singular cooperative breeders. Here, we investigated consequences of early growth for later reproductive success in wild meerkats. We found that, despite the absence of dimorphism, females who exhibited faster growth until nutritional independence were more likely to become dominant, whereas early growth did not affect dominance acquisition in males. Among those individuals who attained dominance, there was no further influence of early growth on dominance tenure or lifetime reproductive success in males or females. These findings suggest that early growth effects on competitive abilities and fitness may reflect the intensity of intrasexual competition even in sexually monomorphic species.</p>

1 **Early growth, dominance acquisition and lifetime reproductive success in**

2 **male and female cooperative ~~mammals~~meerkats**

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21

22 Running head: Fitness consequences of early growth

23

24 **Summary**

25 In polygynous species, variance in reproductive success is higher in males than females.
26 There is consequently stronger selection for competitive traits in males and early growth can
27 have a ~~stronger~~greater influence on later fitness in males than in females. As yet, little is
28 known about sex differences in the effect of early growth on subsequent ~~development,~~
29 breeding success ~~and survival~~ in species where variance in reproductive success is higher in
30 females than males, and competitive traits are under stronger selection in females. Greater
31 variance in reproductive success has been documented in several singular cooperative
32 breeders. Here, we investigated consequences of early growth for later reproductive success in
33 wild meerkats. We found that, despite the absence of dimorphism, females who exhibited
34 faster growth until nutritional independence were more likely to become dominant, whereas
35 early growth did not affect dominance acquisition in males. Among those individuals who
36 attained dominance, there was no further influence of early growth on dominance tenure or
37 lifetime reproductive success in males or females. These findings suggest that early growth
38 effects on competitive abilities and fitness may reflect the intensity of intrasexual competition
39 even in sexually monomorphic species.

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41 **Keywords:** cooperative breeders, female competition, early development, reproductive
42 success

43 Introduction

44 In polygynous species, reproductive competition is more intense among males than females
45 (Clutton-Brock, 1988), and as such males may experience stronger selection for competitive
46 traits (Emlen & Oring, 1977). Early development has lasting effects on adult phenotype and
47 associated fitness across a range of taxa (Lindström, 1999; Lummaa & Clutton-Brock, 2002;
48 Monaghan, 2008). In species with stronger selection for competitive traits in males compared
49 to females, early growth conditions can have sex-specific fitness effects (e.g. red deer, Kruuk
50 *et al.*, 1999; bighorn sheep, Festa-Bianchet, 2000; LeBlanc *et al.*, 2001). Such variation is
51 often associated with striking sexual size dimorphism (Badyaev, 2002), although this is not
52 always the case (e.g. humans, Kuzawa *et al.*, 2010).

53 Cooperative breeding vertebrates, where several adults forgo independent reproduction
54 to assist raising the young of others, offer an interesting contrast to the picture above.
55 Competition among females over access to resources necessary for reproduction is often high
56 in these species, which can lead to stronger selection for competitive traits in females (Hauber
57 & Lacey, 2005; Clutton-Brock, 2009). In meerkats, for example, variance in reproductive
58 success is higher among females than among males (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2006), and size-
59 associated traits at adulthood have greater fitness consequences for females (Clutton-Brock
60 *et al.*, 2006). Unlike polygynous species, however, extreme sexual size dimorphism does not
61 result, potentially as a consequence of limits to fecundity in females (Clutton-Brock, 2009;
62 Stockley & Bro-Jorgensen, 2011). It is yet to be known whether early growth has differential
63 effects on later fitness in males and females, in spite of the lack of sexual size dimorphism.

64 There is great heterogeneity among studies investigating the fitness consequences of
65 early growth, with some considering mass at specific ages (e.g. Kruuk *et al.*, 1999; Rödel and
66 von Holst 2009) while others consider growth between two time periods (e.g. Lee *et al.*
67 2012). Considering both measures of growth and mass may be important as they can reflect

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68 different underlying processes. Growth provides a relatively instantaneous measure of the
69 change in mass from one time point to the next, and may therefore be more reflective of the
70 processes influencing development in that specific window. There is emerging evidence that
71 early growth rates, independent of final body size attained, may influence later reproductive
72 performance in some systems (e.g. Lee *et al.*, 2012). Mass, on the other hand, is a more
73 lagged measure and can be regarded as a memory statistic that encompasses factors
74 contributing to growth in previous time periods.

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75 This study investigates sex differences in the link between early growth and later
76 fitness in cooperative meerkats, using measures of growth and mass in early life. Meerkats
77 live in groups of 3–50 individuals (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2008) in which a dominant pair
78 monopolises reproduction and helpers of both sexes assist in the rearing of dependent young.
79 As reproductive skew is high in both sexes (Griffin *et al.*, 2003), a primary driver of fitness is
80 whether an individual becomes dominant or not in addition to its breeding success once
81 dominant (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2006; Hodge *et al.*, 2008; Spong *et al.*, 2008). Previous work
82 has shown that current body mass, relative to immediate competitors, is an important
83 predictor of dominance acquisition in females but not males (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2006;
84 Hodge *et al.*, 2008; Spong *et al.*, 2008). Two studies have investigated the influence of early
85 growth on later fitness, showing that individuals who are heavier in early life are more likely
86 to become dominant. The extent to which this varies between the sexes is not clear, however,
87 as one study considered females only (Hodge *et al.*, 2008) and the other considered a specific
88 measure of early body mass (the amount of variance explained by helpers) on dominance
89 acquisition in both sexes combined (Russell *et al.*, 2007). Moreover, it is not yet known
90 whether early growth influences fitness beyond the acquisition of dominance status.

91 Here, we measured a suite of mass and growth traits during early development and
92 several components of later fitness to investigate: (1) whether there are sex differences in

93 development until sexual maturity; (2) the extent to which early growth influences the
94 probability of attaining dominance, subsequent tenure and lifetime reproductive success; and
95 (3) whether males and females differ in the relationship between early growth and measures
96 of fitness.

97

98 **Materials and methods**

99 **(a) Study site and species**

100 This study was based on analysis of long-term data from a wild population of meerkats at the
101 Kuruman River Reserve, South Africa (26° 58' S, 21° 49' E), collected between January 1998
102 and July 2011. Details on the study site and habitat are provided elsewhere (Russell *et al.*,
103 2002). Individuals in the population were individually identifiable based on unique dye marks
104 on their fur, habituated to close observation and weighed on a regular basis using laboratory
105 scales (accuracy ± 1 g). Observers visited groups about three times per week, noting life
106 history events such as birth, deaths and emigrations. As such, the birth date of most
107 individuals was known with an accuracy of three days.

108

109 **(b) Variation in growth**

110 We measured three parameters describing growth between birth and sexual maturity: mass at
111 one month of age, growth between one month and three months and mass at one year of age.
112 Our justification for selecting these three measures is as follows: (1) *Mass at one month*:
113 Meerkat pups emerge from the burrow around 2–3 weeks of age and few measures of body
114 mass are attained prior to this age. Until the age of about one month, pups rely almost
115 exclusively on their mothers and allolactators for milk, and growth until this age therefore
116 reflects maternal (and to some extent helper) investment (Russell *et al.*, 2002, 2003). (2)
117 *Growth between one and three months*: From about one month of age, pups leave the natal

118 burrow to follow the foraging group, but until about three months of age, they are highly
119 dependent on adult carers for food (Russell *et al.*, 2002). Growth until independence at three
120 months follows a different pattern to that after independence (English *et al.*, 2012) and may
121 reflect a sensitive period of early development. We measured growth until 3 months rather
122 than mass at 3 months because we were specifically interested in the processes operating
123 during this sensitive window and there is a longer delay for such processes to be reflected in
124 mass rather than growth (see Introduction). (3) *Mass at one year*: We considered sexual
125 maturity to be around one year of age, as few individuals successfully reproduced (9 out of
126 337 individuals) or attained dominance (3 out of 236 individuals) prior to this age. As there
127 are seasonal and rain effects on growth at a daily scale (English *et al.*, 2012), we used mass at
128 the end of this pre-maturity growth period as an indication of the overall growth throughout
129 the period. We estimated growth and mass measures for 882 individuals in total (448 males,
130 434 females) from individuals born into 308 litters produced by 99 mothers.

131

132 (c) Relationship between growth and later fitness

133 We investigated the relationship between early growth and later fitness by considering the
134 following measures: (1) *Probability of attaining dominance*, a binary value assigned for
135 whether an individual attained dominance at any point in its life or not; (2) *Tenure on*
136 *attaining dominance*, the number of months an individual retained its dominance status (for
137 those individuals who became dominant); (3) *Lifetime reproductive success (LRS)*, the
138 number of pups surviving until independence (three months of age).

139 To avoid having a biased data set, our models analysing dominance acquisition, tenure
140 and fitness only used data for individuals born more than 1210 days before the end of the
141 study period, as at least 75 per cent of all dominant individuals had attained dominance by
142 this age and survival of subordinate individuals drops off sharply beyond this age. As we

143 were not working on a closed population, individuals emigrating from the study population
144 could have become dominant elsewhere. Consequently, we excluded any individuals
145 suspected to have emigrated, owing to temporary disappearance from the group in the month
146 prior to the date they were last seen to avoid any bias due to unknown fates of dispersing
147 individuals, resulting in a final sample size of 390 individuals.

148 Parentage estimates to calculate LRS were based on a combination of field and genetic
149 data for females (field estimates are accurate if only one female is pregnant in the group, ~~field~~
150 ~~estimates are accurate~~) and genetic data only for males. Further details on the parentage
151 analyses are provided in Nielsen et al. (~~Nielsen et al.~~, 2012). LRS was analysed for those
152 individuals whose entire reproductive career was known and who were dominant for at least
153 three months, and, for males only, who were themselves genotyped and had lost dominance
154 status by the end of the period when genetic data were available (n = 34 females, 34 males).

155 We excluded data on males who only attained dominance in their natal group, which
156 occasionally happens if no immigrant males are present to fill a vacant dominant position
157 (Spong et al. 2008). These 'natal dominant' males are typically closely related to the dominant
158 female and are therefore highly unlikely to breed in their natal group (Spong et al. 2008). As
159 such, they represent an atypical case of social dominance in contrast to typical immigrant
160 dominant males. as their reproductive success may be affected by the high likelihood these
161 males are closely related to the dominant female.

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163 (d) Statistical analysis

164 All analyses were conducted in the statistical environment R 2.14.0 (R Development Core
165 Team). We first analysed sex differences in early growth parameters by conducting
166 generalised linear mixed models (GLMM) with Gaussian error structure in lme4 (Bates &
167 Maechler, 2010), with a fixed effect of sex and random effects of birth cohort (year of birth,

168 | from 1 July to 30 June of next year), litter and mother. [We investigated correlations among the](#)
169 | [growth measures using a Pearson's correlation test.](#) To analyse fitness consequences of the
170 | three measures of early growth, we fitted them as fixed effects in separate models for males
171 | and females in light of previous work demonstrating sex differences in variance in
172 | reproductive success and duration of tenure (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2006). Probability of
173 | becoming dominant was modelled using binomial error structure with random effects of birth
174 | cohort, litter and mother. Subsequent analyses did not include any random terms, owing to
175 | little replication within birth cohorts, litters or mothers. Dominance tenure was modelled as a
176 | proportional hazards regression (censored for those individuals still dominant at the end of the
177 | study period). LRS was modelled as a Poisson distribution with an observation-level random
178 | effect to account for overdispersion (Maindonald & Braun, 2010), including tenure as a
179 | covariate. To assess the significance of fixed effect predictors, we used likelihood ratio tests
180 | (LRT) to compare nested models that did or did not include the fixed effect ([Crawley 2007](#)).
181 | The LRT statistic (χ^2) with its associated P -value is provided for each term compared to the
182 | minimal model which includes significant terms only.

183

184 **Results**

185 **(a) Variation in growth**

186 | In line with previous work (Russell *et al.*, 2002; [MacLeod & Clutton-Brock 2013](#)), we did not
187 | find any sex differences in mass at one month ($\chi^2 = 0.904$, $P = 0.342$) or growth until
188 | independence ($\chi^2 = 0.956$, $P = 0.328$), but males were marginally heavier than females by
189 | one year of age (effect \pm SE 15.50 ± 2.89 ; $\chi^2 = 28.2$, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 1). Mass at one month
190 | was negatively correlated with growth until independence (Pearson's $r_{880} = -0.161$), and
191 | positively correlated with mass at one year ($r_{880} = 0.341$); and growth until independence was
192 | positively correlated with mass at one year ($r_{880} = 0.290$). However, variance inflation factors

193 for all measures were less than 1.4 suggesting that collinearity is unlikely to be an issue with
194 their combined inclusion in subsequent models (Zuur *et al.*, 2009).

195

196 **(b) Relationship between growth and later fitness**

197 *(i) Probability of becoming dominant.* Of the 231 females and 159 males which remained in
198 the study population, 60 females and 48 males attained dominance. Females who exhibited
199 higher growth until independence were more likely to attain dominance later in life (effect \pm
200 SE 0.97 ± 0.43 ; $\chi_1^2 = 4.371$, $P = 0.037$, Fig. 2), while there was no effect of either mass at
201 emergence ($\chi_1^2 = 0.38$, $P = 0.561$) or at maturity ($\chi_1^2 = 0.004$, $P = 0.947$). In contrast,
202 dominance acquisition in males was not influenced by mass at emergence ($\chi_1^2 = 0.005$, $P =$
203 0.944), growth until independence ($\chi_1^2 = 0.072$, $P = 0.788$) or mass at maturity ($\chi_1^2 = 0.531$, P
204 $= 0.466$).

205

206 *(ii) Dominance tenure.* The duration of dominance tenure varied between 0 and 96 months
207 among males and females (males, median: 12 months, IQR: 4–23 months; females, median:
208 14 months, IQR: 3–36 months). There were no significant effects of growth traits on the
209 tenure of dominance in male or female meerkats (mass at emergence: males, $\chi_1^2 = 0.014$, $P =$
210 0.906 ; females, $\chi_1^2 = 1.659$, $P = 0.198$; growth until independence: males, $\chi_1^2 = 0.498$, $P =$
211 0.481 , females, $\chi_1^2 = 0.027$, $P = 0.869$; mass at maturity: males, $\chi_1^2 = 0.511$, $P = 0.475$,
212 females, $\chi_1^2 = 1.304$, $P = 0.254$).

213

214 *(iii) Lifetime reproductive success.* Among dominant individuals who maintained their status
215 for at least three months, LRS varied between 0 and 72 independent pups among females
216 ($n=34$), and between 0 and 31 independent pups among males (of those who were

217 successfully genotyped, $n = 31$). The duration of dominance tenure had a significant, positive
218 effect on LRS in males (effect \pm SE 2.00 ± 0.47 , $\chi_1^2 = 15.15$, $P < 0.001$) and females (effect \pm
219 SE 2.14 ± 0.33 , $\chi_1^2 = 27.14$, $P < 0.001$). In contrast, early development did not influence
220 reproductive success among dominant male or female meerkats (mass at emergence: males,
221 $\chi_1^2 = 0.205$, $P = 0.651$; females, $\chi_1^2 = 1.483$, $P = 0.223$; growth until independence: males,
222 $\chi_1^2 = 1.574$, $P = 0.210$, females, $\chi_1^2 = 1.433$, $P = 0.231$; mass at maturity: males, $\chi_1^2 = 0.339$,
223 $P = 0.561$, females, $\chi_1^2 = 1.501$, $P = 0.221$).

224

225 Discussion

226 In this study, we found that early growth influenced dominance acquisition, a key route to
227 fitness, in females but not males, in spite of both sexes exhibiting relatively monomorphic
228 growth and males being slightly heavier at maturity. There were no effects of mass at
229 emergence or maturity on dominance acquisition in either sex and none of the early growth
230 measures had any subsequent influence on dominance tenure or breeding success once
231 dominant. Our findings are in line with a previous study investigating the role of helpers on
232 offspring fitness in meerkats (Russell *et al.*, 2007), which demonstrated that helper-mediated
233 mass at independence was associated with the probability of breeding in males and females,
234 and with the probability of attaining dominance in both sexes combined. By considering
235 several measures of growth and mass and fitness measures beyond attaining dominance, our
236 results present a more direct comparison of the link between early growth and later fitness
237 between males and females. Below, we discuss these findings in light of burgeoning attention
238 on the mechanisms of social competition in females.

239 This is one of the first studies, to our knowledge, to demonstrate a link between early
240 growth and fitness-associated traits in a cooperative breeder, with growth having a stronger
241 effect on fitness in the sex in which variance in reproductive success is higher as predicted

242 based on patterns in polygynous species (Kruuk *et al.*, 1999; Festa-Bianchet, 2000; LeBlanc
243 *et al.*, 2001). Specifically, we found that the rate of growth during a key period, when pups are
244 nutritionally dependent on adults, rather than mass at emergence or maturity, was important
245 for later dominance acquisition in females. Rate of growth while pups are competing with one
246 another over access to helpers (Hodge *et al.*, 2007) may be a reliable proxy of relative
247 competitive ability, and dominance hierarches among females may be partially established at
248 this stage. Previous work has shown that, ~~later in life,~~ mass relative to same-aged competitors,
249 at the age when individuals compete for dominance, is an important predictor of dominance
250 acquisition in females (Hodge *et al.*, 2008). Our measure of absolute mass at maturity may not
251 provide the resolution required to indicate relative competitive ability at the point of
252 dominance acquisition (which may be several months or years later), for two reasons. First,
253 particularly if slow growing and potentially less competitive individuals may exhibit catch-up
254 growth after nutritional independence (Hector & Nakagawa, 2012) and, second, absolute mass
255 relative to the population mean may be less sensitive a measure than relative mass differences
256 among competitors within a group (the measure used by Hodge *et al.* 2008). Relative
257 competitive ability from an early age may be less important in males, who are less likely to
258 inherit the dominant position in their natal group and may be under less intense competition
259 with same-sex members of their cohort (Spong *et al.*, 2008; Mares *et al.*, 2012). Instead, other
260 factors such as immediate condition while dispersing may be more important than
261 competition with siblings for fitness prospects in males ~~than competition with siblings~~ (Young
262 *et al.*, 2005; Bonte & De La Peña, 2009).

263 The fact that growth until nutritional independence has fitness implications for female
264 but not male meerkats (although other measures of mass did not have any effect) suggests two
265 intriguing avenues for future research. First, we predict that selection on growth and later
266 adult body size is stronger in females than males, in light of the link between growth and later

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267 ~~reproductive success in females but not males (this study, Hodge *et al.* 2008, Spong *et al.*~~
268 ~~2008). Second, if stronger selection leads to greater canalization of growth in females, we~~
269 ~~expect that sensitivity to environmental factors may be lower in females than males. Kruuk *et*~~
270 ~~*al.* (1999) found a similar effect in red deer, where birth weight (which is linked to lifetime~~
271 ~~reproductive success in male but not female red deer) is sensitive to population density and~~
272 ~~spring temperatures in females but not males. First, traits associated with increased likelihood~~
273 ~~of becoming dominant, a key route to fitness (Hodge *et al.*, 2008), are likely to be under~~
274 ~~strong selection in females than in males, and we might therefore expect there to be sex-~~
275 ~~specific selection on growth in meerkats, as has been demonstrated in other taxa (Kruuk *et al.*,~~
276 ~~2002; Wilson *et al.*, 2005). Second, there may be differences between the sexes in the~~
277 ~~sensitivity of growth to early environmental conditions, as has been shown in studies on non-~~
278 ~~cooperative systems (e.g. great tits, Wilkin & Sheldon, 2009; red deer, Kruuk *et al.*, 1999).~~

279 ———

280 Once individuals have attained the dominant breeding status, we found no further
281 association between early growth and subsequent measures of reproductive success among
282 dominant breeders in females. Previous studies have found that dominance tenure in females
283 is influenced by the difference in body mass between the dominant female and her closest
284 competitor at the onset of dominance (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 2006; Hodge *et al.*, 2008).
285 ~~W~~However, we did not find any effect of any early growth measures in females on tenure.
286 ~~h~~however. Having acquired the dominant position, females employ low-level aggression to
287 control the development and reproduction of their rivals (Kutsukake & Clutton-Brock, 2005;
288 Young *et al.*, 2006), evicting them from the group before they become a threat. Given that
289 physical fights are rare, absolute mass may not be an important predictor of success at
290 maintaining dominance. Indeed, as most dominant females lose their status as a result of
291 mortality (Hodge *et al.*, 2008), typically caused by predation, there may be a highly

292 unpredictable element to the length of time an individual maintains dominance status.
293 Controlling for variation in tenure length, which is known to influence lifetime reproductive
294 success (Hodge *et al.*, 2008), we found no further effect of early growth measures on
295 reproductive output after attaining dominance. In highly cooperative meerkats, helpers replace
296 the effects of mothers on offspring growth and survival beyond emergence (Russell *et al.*,
297 2002). Mothers adjust their investment in each reproductive attempt in light of such
298 compensatory effects of helpers (Russell *et al.*, 2003; Sharp *et al.*, 2012), as in other species
299 (Russell *et al.*, 2007; Russell *et al.*, 2008). Measures of lifetime reproductive output may
300 therefore be more sensitive to social factors rather than to attributes of maternal competitive
301 ability.

302 As in females, we did not find any effect of early measures of growth or mass at
303 maturity on reproductive success of males once they have acquired dominance status. Our
304 results fit with previous work showing that tenure is not associated with adult body mass in
305 males (Spong *et al.*, 2008). This latter result is somewhat surprising: ~~as~~ males more
306 commonly lose dominance to foreign immigrants (Spong *et al.*, 2008; Mares *et al.*, 2012), yet
307 our results imply that body mass does not accrue a competitive advantage to males. As males
308 are more likely to disperse to become dominant (Spong *et al.*, 2008; Mares *et al.*, 2012), it is
309 possible an inability to track individuals who have left the study population limits our
310 conclusions on reproductive success in males. We attempted to minimise any sex bias in the
311 effect of missing individuals in our analysis, however, by excluding those of both sexes who
312 were thought to have emigrated.

313 We focused our analysis on dominance-associated fitness traits, as reproductive skew
314 is high in meerkats, and the primary route to direct fitness is primarily through attaining the
315 dominant position (Hodge *et al.*, 2008; Spong *et al.*, 2008). Nevertheless, subordinate
316 individuals occasionally breed (Clutton-Brock *et al.*, 1998, 2008; Young & Clutton-Brock,

2006; Young *et al.*, 2007) and it is as yet unknown whether early growth conditions and current body mass play a role in shaping fitness opportunities for subordinates even if they never become dominant, and whether there are sex differences in any effect.

To conclude, we have found sex differences in the fitness consequences of growth in a size-monomorphic species. Our results demonstrate how early divergence in growth rates may have lasting implications on fitness prospects, and that these depend on how the sexes differ in mechanisms and intensity of social competition. Finally, we emphasize the importance of considering several measures of mass and growth at different stages of development, which may provide complementary information on the relative competitive ability of individuals.

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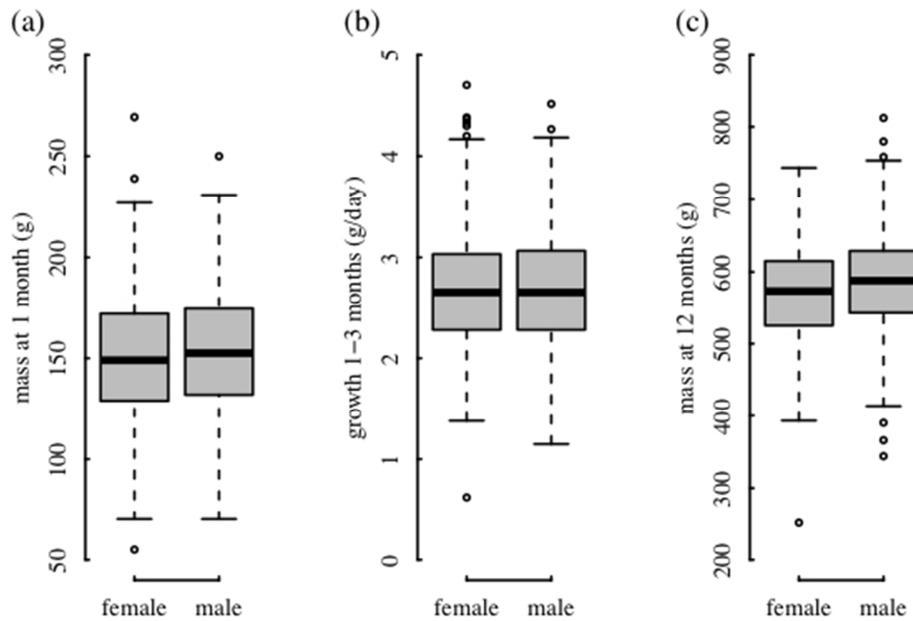
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447 Figure 1. Box-and-whisker plots to demonstrate variability in the three growth parameters
448 measured across 231 females and 159 males. While the sexes did not differ in mass at one
449 month (a), or growth between one and three months (b), males had higher body mass at one

450 year of age than females (c).

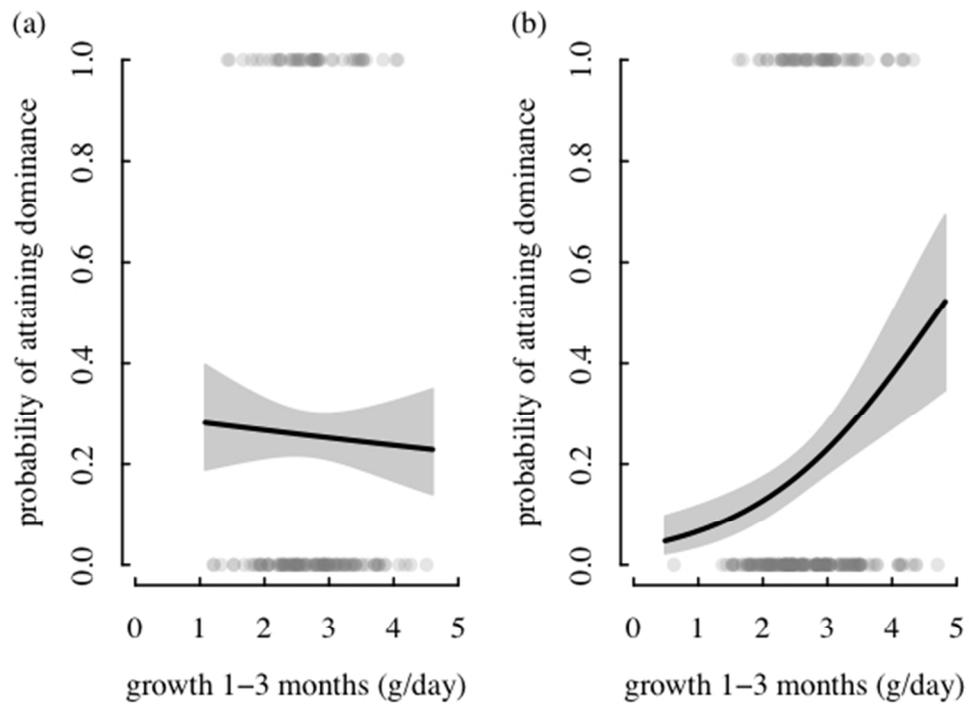
451 Figure 2. Relationship between growth until independence (g/day) and probability of
452 dominance acquisition in (a) males and (b) females. Shown are the raw data (grey points) and
453 the fitted effect (solid line) and standard error (grey shading) of growth until independence on
454 dominance acquisition from a GLMM including this effect only. The effect of growth was
455 significant in the model for females but not males.

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Box-and-whisker plots to demonstrate variability in the three growth parameters measured across 231 females and 159 males. While the sexes did not differ in mass at one month (a), or growth between one and three months (b), males had higher body mass at one year of age than females (c).
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Relationship between growth until independence (g/day) and probability of dominance acquisition in (a) males and (b) females. Shown are the raw data (grey points) and the fitted effect (solid line) and standard error (grey shading) of growth until independence on dominance acquisition from a GLMM including this effect only. The effect of growth was significant in the model for females but not males.

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