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Oxytocin promotes social grooming in bonobos: testing the biobehavioural feedback loop hypothesis

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19 Abstract:

20 Oxytocin has attracted research attention due to its role in promoting social bonding. One notable
21 recent hypothesis is the biobehavioral feedback loop, which posits that the oxytocin system has
22 evolved to support the formation and maintenance of social bonds through a positive feedback
23 loop, where oxytocin promotes social behaviours which then cause oxytocin release themselves.
24 In the two *Pan* species, humans' closest relatives, oxytocin is known to be released following key
25 behaviours related to social bonding, such as social grooming in chimpanzees and female-female
26 sexual behaviour in bonobos. However, no experimental evidence has demonstrated that oxytocin
27 promotes such socio-positive behaviours. To test this, we administered nebulized oxytocin or
28 saline placebo to a group of female bonobos and subsequently observed the change in their gross
29 behavior during free interaction. We found that bonobos groomed other group members
30 significantly more frequently in the oxytocin compared to placebo condition. Other behavioural
31 measures did not largely differ between conditions, except for a nonsignificant trend for reduction
32 in abnormal regurgitation/reingestion behaviour. Overall, we found that oxytocin promoted socio-
33 positive interaction in bonobos, providing support for the biobehavioural feedback loop
34 hypothesis of oxytocin in bonobo social evolution.

35 Keywords: Oxytocin, bonobos, social bonding, biobehavioural feedback loop, social grooming, *pan*
36 *paniscus*

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38 Introduction:

39 Oxytocin is a hormone neuropeptide conserved through mammalian evolution and plays diverse
40 roles in regulating social behaviors across species. Evidence has accumulated for a biobehavioural
41 feedback loop in mammalian social behaviours such as maternal care [1–3], pair bonding [4], and
42 even the dog-human bond [5,6], where oxytocin both promotes and is released by key behaviours
43 related to social bonding. In the great ape species most closely related to humans, the presence of
44 such a positive feedback loop has also been suggested. Crockford et al. [7] showed that urinary
45 oxytocin levels in wild chimpanzees increase following social grooming, a key socio-positive
46 behavior widely present in nonhuman primates, and proposed that a positive feedback loop may
47 have evolved to support social bonding in this species. Relatedly, Moscovice et al. [8] found that
48 urinary oxytocin levels in wild female bonobos increased following same-sex sexual behaviour,
49 genito-genital (GG) rubbing. Bonobos also increased proximity and coalitionary support among
50 females after GG-rubbing; though it remains unclear if oxytocin played a direct role in these
51 behavioural changes. Currently, experimental evidence is lacking as to whether oxytocin promotes
52 socio-positive interaction in these species, a key piece of evidence that would support the
53 presence of such a positive feedback loop in the *Pan* species.

54 In several primate species, studies have demonstrated exogenous oxytocin can impact a
55 wide range of social behaviours (reviewed in [9]). In macaques, several studies have demonstrated
56 that oxytocin alters social gaze, such as increased attention to eyes [10], reduced attention to
57 negative and fearful facial expressions [11] as well as social threats [12], and more gaze following
58 [13]. In one of the first to test the effect of oxytocin in spontaneous social behaviour among
59 multiple macaques, although still confined to primate chairs in a laboratory setting, Jiang and Platt

60 [14] found evidence that oxytocin flattened the dominance hierarchy and enhanced synchrony of
61 mutual gaze. Marmosets similarly showed an increase in attention to eyes [15] following oxytocin
62 administration and an increase in anxiety and vigilance following administration of an oxytocin
63 antagonist [16]. Another study found that oxytocin promoted huddling in marmosets, while an
64 oxytocin antagonist reduced social proximity and huddling [17]. On the other hand, in capuchin
65 monkeys oxytocin was found to reduce food sharing through increasing interindividual distance
66 [18]; the authors interpreted these results as derived from oxytocin's anxiolytic effect, which
67 increased social distance and thereby decreased opportunities for food sharing [18].

68 Among non-human great apes, the majority of studies have been conducted through
69 measurement of urinary oxytocin following key social behaviours. These studies have revealed
70 that in chimpanzees oxytocin is released following a number of important social bonding
71 behaviours, including social grooming [7], food sharing [19], and reconciliation [20], and in
72 bonobos following female GG-rubbing [8]. Other studies have additionally demonstrated that
73 urinary oxytocin rises in advance of border patrols as well as group hunting in chimpanzees
74 [21,22], further suggesting its importance to social bonds and coordination.

75 Three studies have measured behaviour following oxytocin administration in non-human
76 great apes. Proctor et al. [23] administered oxytocin to eight chimpanzees individually for one trial
77 each in both saline and oxytocin conditions then observed them in their regular social groups.
78 Although they did not find significant effects for any behaviours measured, the authors note that it
79 may be due to methodological issues, such as failures to find effective dose of oxytocin for
80 chimpanzees and effective time window to test the oxytocin effect, or due to influence from
81 groupmates who did not receive oxytocin before social interaction. Hall et al. [24] similarly found

82 no effect of oxytocin when chimpanzee dyads were administered oxytocin or saline placebo and
83 subsequently tested in a token exchange task. Each participant chose one of two tokens to
84 exchange and received rewards based on the choice of both participants in distributions based on
85 games such as the prisoner's dilemma and hawk-dove. However, although this study administered
86 oxytocin to a dyad, the authors reported the same methodological concerns for the oxytocin
87 administration procedure as well as a confound between experimental condition and order. No
88 clear patterns emerged in either the placebo or oxytocin conditions, limiting interpretation of
89 oxytocin's possible effect. On the contrary to these studies reporting null results, Brooks et al. [25]
90 found that oxytocin enhanced species-typical social gaze, increasing eye contact in bonobos but
91 not chimpanzees, indicating that oxytocin can modulate gaze behaviour. While the species
92 difference in the latter study cannot be attributed to differences in oxytocin administration
93 procedure, it remains unclear whether the lack of effect in the prior studies is due to methodology
94 or choice of study species.

95 Critically, although it is central to the biobehavioural feedback loop hypothesis that both
96 socio-positive interactions cause oxytocin release and that oxytocin can lead to socio-positive
97 interactions, there is no direct evidence showing that oxytocin promotes any socio-positive
98 interaction in *Pan*. Given recent progresses in this line of research, it is worthwhile to test whether
99 oxytocin promotes key social behaviours related to social bonding in *Pan*, particularly in bonobos
100 using the updated methods of oxytocin administration. Therefore, this study administered
101 nebulized oxytocin or saline placebo to a whole group of female bonobos following the methods
102 employed in Brooks et al. [25] and subsequently observed the change in their gross interactive

103 behavior, including grooming and GG-rubbing, as well as other noninteractive behaviours during

104 their free interaction.

105

106 Methods:

107 Ethics statement:

108 All ape participants received regular feedings, daily enrichment, and had ad libitum access to
109 water. No change was made to their daily care routine for the purpose of this study. Apes were
110 never restrained at any point. Ethical approval number was WRC-2020-KS014A.

111 We carefully considered the safety of the OT administration as in previous studies. Again, we
112 based this decision on the fact that 1) OT is often administered to human children and adults, 2)
113 OT is active for only a short period of time following administration with no known side effects in
114 humans (MacDonald et al., 2011), 3) OT is naturally produced in bonobos and chimpanzees
115 following relevant behaviors (Crockford et al., 2013; Moscovice et al., 2019), and 4) no previous
116 studies administering OT intranasally to chimpanzees or bonobos reported any agonistic
117 interaction (Brooks et al., 2021; Hall et al., 2019; Proctor et al., 2016).

118 Participants:

119 Four adult female bonobos at Kumamoto Sanctuary participated in this research. Details about
120 participant ages and rearing histories can be found in supplementary material (Table S1). Animals
121 were not food or water deprived at any time and were given both physical and social
122 environmental enrichment in their daily life. The bonobos live in a dynamic grouping structure
123 where three of the four females are together on any given day, and the fourth is with two male
124 bonobos. These two males were not involved in this study because one male refused to participate
125 in any oxytocin experiments, and our aim was to test whole groups at a time. Three of the females
126 join the male bonobos with varying frequency, while the fourth (Lenore) is always with other

127 female bonobos. Individuals thus had a varying number of trials, with Lenore having the most due
128 to never joining the male group (24 trials), followed by Lolita (20 trials), followed by Louise and
129 Ikela (14 trials each) who are most often with the males.

130 Administration procedure:

131 Oxytocin administration procedures followed Brooks et al. [25]. Briefly, oxytocin was dissolved in
132 saline at a concentration of 40IU/mL. The oxytocin solution or placebo control was nebulized into
133 a box using a portable nebulizer (Omron NE-U100) at a minimum rate of 0.25mL/minute, for a
134 cumulative 4 minutes while apes drank juice (thus a total of 40IU or more was nebulized during
135 the administration period). Timing was stopped while apes' noses were outside the box.

136 Participation was voluntary and apes were never restrained.

137 Observation procedure:

138 Observation began 30 minutes after completion of administration criteria of all individuals (30
139 minutes from the completion of the last individual), in line with previous studies [9], and lasted for
140 one hour. The last individual to complete administration procedures was always within 30 minutes
141 of the first individual to finish, and thus all participants were observed for one hour between 30
142 minutes and 2 hours following completion of administration procedures on any given day.

143 Observation methods combined scan and event sampling. Specifically, every 2 minutes,
144 interindividual proximity was estimated for each dyad into one of four categories (in contact,
145 within arm's reach-one individual could extend their arm to touch the other, < 3 meters, and > 3
146 meters) as well as each individual's behaviour (grooming including direction, resting, self-directed
147 behaviour, moving, eating). All occurrences of play, GG-rubbing, abnormal behaviour, and

148 aggression towards groupmates (including displays) were additionally recorded (see Brooks et al.
149 [26] for more details about these observation methods).

150 Analysis

151 Behavioural scan data was analyzed with binomial GLMMs (Generalized Linear Mixed Models),
152 where each individual at each point in time was characterized as either engaged in (1) or not
153 engaged in (0) a given behaviour. The model included a test fixed effect of condition in addition to
154 control fixed effects of day (counting upwards from first experimental day) and time, with random
155 effects of dyad and grouping structure (a unique value was given for each possible combination of
156 individuals) and random slopes of each fixed effect for each random effect. Numeric effects were
157 scaled to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1. Random slope structure was kept maximal,
158 except that the interaction between random slopes and intercepts was removed due to issues
159 with convergence. For grooming data, we analyzed rates of active grooming (giving or mutual
160 grooming), and receiving grooming was valued as 0 for not actively grooming another individual.

161 Proximity data was analyzed using a CLMM (cumulative link mixed model) on ordinal data.
162 Fixed and random effect structures were the same as those in the behavioural scan data analysis,
163 except for the individual participant variable was replaced by dyad (a unique value for each dyad),
164 and the addition of two random effects to represent the two individuals within a dyad (randomly
165 distributed as individual variable 1 and 2). Random slope structure was kept maximal and the
166 interaction between random slopes and intercepts was retained in this model.

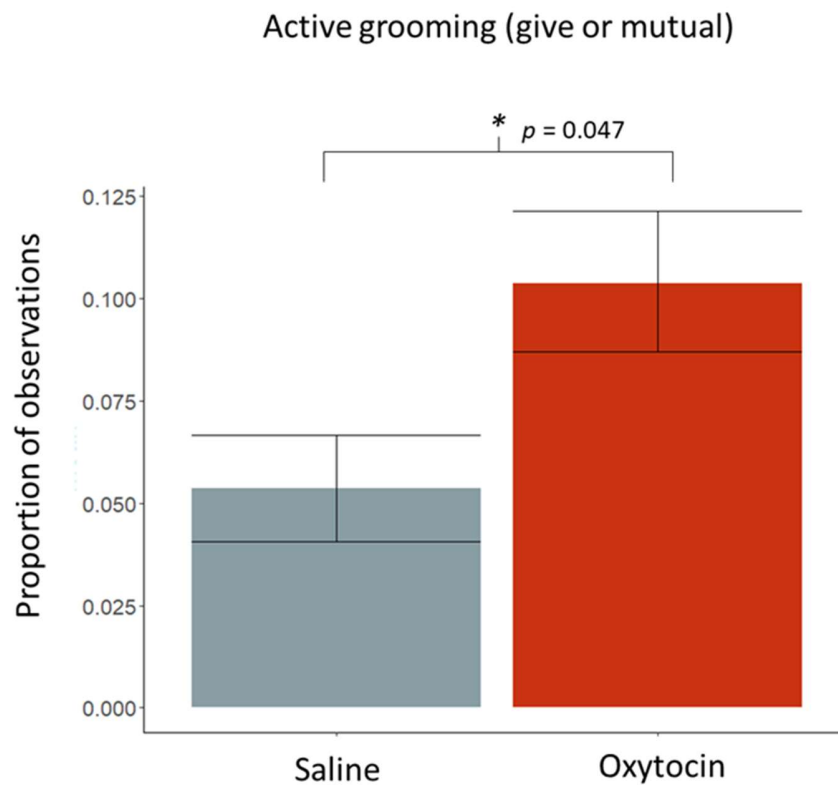
167 All occurrence data was analyzed with a binomial GLMM, where each individual for each
168 day was characterized as having engaged in (1) or not engaged in (0) a given behaviour. The fixed

169 and random effect structure was the same as in the scan behaviour models, except for the time
170 variable removed due to data being summarized across a given observation day. Model syntax for
171 all model types can be found in supplemental material.

172

173 Results

174 Bonobos engaged in active social grooming significantly more in the oxytocin condition than the
175 control condition ($\beta = 0.48$, $SE = 0.16$, $\chi^2 = 3.94$, $p = 0.047$; Figure 1). Plots of this effect by
176 participant, group, and time can be found in supplementary material (figures S1, S2, and S3).



177

178 Figure 1. Mean active grooming rates in the oxytocin compared to saline control condition (giving
179 or mutual grooming). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

180

181 We did not find significant differences in other behaviors between conditions. However, there was
182 a non-significant trend for closer interindividual proximity in the oxytocin compared to control

183 condition ($\beta = -0.22$, $SE = 0.12$, $\chi^2 = 2.85$, $p = 0.091$) and for a reduction in the abnormal behaviour
184 regurgitation and reingestion in the oxytocin compared to control condition ($\beta = -0.73$, $SE = 0.36$,
185 $\chi^2 = 3.08$, $p = 0.079$). There were no significant changes in self-directed behaviour ($\beta = -0.33$, $SE =$
186 0.18 , $\chi^2 = 2.04$, $p = 0.15$) or rest ($\beta = -0.13$, $SE = 0.18$, $\chi^2 = 0.47$, $p = 0.49$). Bonobos engaged in GG-
187 rubbing only once (oxytocin condition) and displayed no aggression toward groupmates or any
188 bouts of play during the observation period. See supplementary material Table S2 for full details of
189 all models.

190

191 Discussion:

192 Female bonobos groomed groupmates significantly more in the oxytocin condition than in the
193 saline condition. In combination with the previous studies showing oxytocin is released in bonobos
194 and chimpanzees following socio-positive interaction [7,8], our results provide experimental
195 support for the biobehavioural feedback loop hypothesis in bonobos. Other observed behaviours
196 did not largely differ between the oxytocin and saline conditions (self-directed behavior and rest)
197 or were rarely or never observed during our 1-hour observation window (GG-rubbing, play, and
198 aggression). There were non-significant trends for closer inter-individual proximity and reduced
199 rates of regurgitation and reingestion. Brosnan et al. [18] found that oxytocin increased
200 interindividual distance in capuchin monkeys (though individuals were separated by a mesh
201 partition), possibly through oxytocin's known anxiolytic effect, and this increase in interindividual
202 distance then reduced food-sharing. Our results did not demonstrate this pattern in freely
203 interacting bonobos. Potential reduction of regurgitation and reingestion may be explained by
204 oxytocin's effect on anxiety or digestion [27–29].

205 Although we present the first observation that oxytocin promotes socio-positive
206 interaction in female bonobos, there are several important limitations in this study. First, due to
207 limited possibility of testing, enclosures suitable for detailed observation, and some apes'
208 willingness to join experiments, the sample was limited to just four adult female bonobos. This
209 limits firm conclusions about a biobehavioural feedback loop, as Crockford et al. [7] measured
210 urinary oxytocin after grooming only in chimpanzees, while Moscovice et al. [8] focused on sexual
211 interactions rather than grooming in bonobos. While these previous studies characterized the
212 changes similarly as socio-positive behaviours strengthening bond formation, conclusive proof of a

213 biobehavioural feedback loop in one or both species would require evidence of increased urinary
214 oxytocin following grooming in bonobos, administration of oxytocin promoting GG-rubbing in
215 bonobos, or administration of oxytocin promoting grooming among bond partners in
216 chimpanzees. It remains possible that exogenous oxytocin promotes grooming in bonobos but not
217 chimpanzees, or that oxytocin is released following grooming in chimpanzees but not bonobos.
218 Previous work has also indicated sex-specific effects of oxytocin [30–32], and thus it remains
219 unclear whether our results can be generalized to different sex pairs. However, it should be noted
220 that Crockford et al. [7] did not find significant differences between female-female, female-male,
221 and male-male dyads in urinary oxytocin level following grooming in wild chimpanzees. Second, it
222 has not been demonstrated whether urinary oxytocin shows a similar increase following grooming
223 in wild bonobos, though Moscovice et al. [8] found that urinary oxytocin rose following GG-
224 rubbing which was interpreted as a similar socio-positive behaviour. GG-rubbing was very
225 infrequent in our study, possibly due to low overall social tension, precluding formal analysis.
226 Relatedly, Proctor et al. [23] did not find any behavioural change after administration of oxytocin
227 on captive chimpanzees. While several methodological limitations preclude interpretation of their
228 results (and unlike our study, only one individual, instead of a whole group, was tested and
229 observed at a time), currently it has not been demonstrated whether oxytocin promotes grooming
230 in captive chimpanzees. Finally, the small number of participants did not enable us to test the
231 effect of closeness with and selectivity to a certain groupmate, which may interact with the
232 observed increase in grooming.

233 In conclusion, although there are several limitations, our finding offered experimental
234 evidence that oxytocin promotes socio-positive interaction in bonobos. We thus suggest that the

235 oxytocin system has been coopted through evolution to the formation and maintenance of social
236 bonds through a positive feedback loop. Moreover, we suggest that oxytocin administration can be
237 an effective tool in great ape research involving free interactions among groupmates. Future work
238 should further test potential differences in oxytocin's effect between species, should examine
239 inter-individual variation with respect to social closeness and centrality, and should study how
240 social contexts such as feeding tension interact with this effect. We demonstrate that exogenous
241 oxytocin can affect great ape behaviour in naturalistic, spontaneous social interactions and
242 provide experimental support for the biobehavioural feedback loop hypothesis of oxytocin in the
243 evolution of bonobo social bonding.

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