

1           **The function of chimpanzee greeting calls is modulated by their acoustic**  
2   **variation**

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26 **Abstract**

27

28 Signalling plays an important role in mediating social interactions in many animal  
29 species. For example, during approaches certain species produce “greetings”, which  
30 can take the form of vocal or visual signals, which reduce the probability of  
31 aggressive interactions and/or facilitate affiliation when approaching each other.  
32 However, in species where greetings are comprised of both vocal and visual signals,  
33 little is known about how the vocal component relates to the visual component, or, in  
34 species with fission-fusion dynamics, to the time spent together by the dyad in the  
35 same subgroup prior to the approach. Similarly, in species with several acoustic  
36 variants of greeting calls, it is unclear whether different variants have different  
37 functions. We looked at the production of two acoustically distinct greeting call  
38 variants, low-fundamental frequency pant grunts and high-fundamental frequency  
39 pant barks, during approaches between two individuals in five communities of wild  
40 chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) in Uganda and Ivory Coast. More specifically, we  
41 explored the relationship between greeting call production and i) aggressive and  
42 submissive interactions during the approach ii) preceding and subsequent proximity  
43 levels between the involved individuals. Calls were more likely to be produced during  
44 aggressive interactions and were associated with postures and gestures linked to  
45 submission; these patterns were stronger when the utterance contained a pant bark  
46 rather than a pant grunt alone. The production of greeting calls was more likely soon  
47 after party fusion and was negatively related to subsequent proximity levels between  
48 the caller and receiver. These results expand our knowledge of greeting calls and  
49 imply that these calls might be used to re-establish dominance relationships after a  
50 period of separation, and that the function of these calls can be modulated by their  
51 specific acoustic variants and by visual signals that often accompany them.

52

53 **Key words:** call production, fission-fusion, greetings, multimodal signalling, *Pan*  
54 *troglodytes*

55

## 56 **Introduction**

57 A universal function of animal signalling is facilitating the predictability of the  
58 signaller's subsequent behaviour, which in turn reduces the probability of aggression  
59 or/and facilitates affiliative interactions (Andersson, 1994; Smith, 1977). These  
60 signals are particularly important where individuals approach each other, as close  
61 proximity between individuals increases the risk of physical aggression (Nieburg,  
62 1970). "Greetings" – non-aggressive signals specifically employed when approaching  
63 or being approached by another individual – are an example of signals that function in  
64 this way (Aureli & Schaffner, 2007; Dal Pesco & Fischer, 2020; De Waal & van  
65 Roosmalen, 1979).

66

67 Greetings have been observed in a wide variety of animals including mammalian and  
68 avian species (Brown, 1967; Schenkel, 1967). These typically highly ritualised  
69 behaviours usually involve visual or tactile signals and are linked to several functions.  
70 For example, the 'facing away' posture performed by a female when approaching a  
71 male facilitates courtship in the lesser black-backed gull (*Larus fuscus*) (Brown,  
72 1967). Genital manipulation in spotted hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta*) signals dominance  
73 status (East, Hofer, & Wickler, 1993). Embraces and touches reduce tension during  
74 stressful events in spider monkeys (*Ateles geoffroyi*) and mantled howler monkeys  
75 (*Alouatta palliata*) (Aureli & Schaffner, 2007; Dias, Rodriguez Luna, & Canales  
76 Espinosa, 2008). 'Rally' greetings that include sneezing promote communal hunting

77 in wild dogs (*Lycaon pictus*) (Creel & Creel, 1995; Walker, King, McNutt, & Jordan,  
78 2017). Elaborated greetings involving postural and tactile signals in some baboon  
79 (*Papio sp.*) and macaque (*Macaca sp.*) species assess the strength of social  
80 relationships and facilitate group cohesion and cooperation (Dal Pesco & Fischer,  
81 2020; De Marco, Sanna, Cozzolino, & Thierry, 2014; Smuts & Watanabe, 1990;  
82 Whitham & Maestriperi, 2003).

83

84 If greetings involve vocal signals, these are termed “greeting calls” (Laporte &  
85 Zuberbühler, 2010; Scheumann, Linn, & Zimmermann, 2017). Greeting calls have  
86 been investigated primarily in primates. Primate species are usually highly social and  
87 individuals in several species produce calls when approaching each other at a close  
88 distance. However, the specific function of these calls may differ depending on the  
89 species. Chacma (*Papio ursinus*) and Guinea baboons (*Papio papio*), for example,  
90 produce low-pitched grunts when approaching another individual to initiate grooming  
91 or infant handling (Cheney, Seyfarth, & Silk, 1995; Faraut, Siviter, Dal Pesco, &  
92 Fischer, 2019; Silk, Seyfarth, & Cheney, 2016). Sooty mangabeys (*Cercocebus atys*)  
93 produce grunts and twitters prior to affiliative interactions such as grooming or  
94 hugging (Range & Fischer, 2004). Vervet monkeys also give low-amplitude grunts  
95 when approaching other individuals in affiliative contexts (Cheney & Seyfarth, 1992;  
96 Mercier et al., 2017; Struhsaker, 1967).

97

98 In some species greetings comprise both visual and acoustic signalling, and variation  
99 in these signal combinations might modulate their function. Indeed, in capuchin  
100 monkeys, embrace greetings that are accompanied by screams reflect stronger  
101 affiliative relationships than silent embraces (Lynch Alfaro, 2008). The addition of

102 'landing calls' to greeting postures by females of the lesser black-backed gull depends  
103 on courtship status (Brown, 1967). Whether or not vocalisations are involved in  
104 baboon greetings seems to depend on their function and the species (Dal Pesco &  
105 Fischer, 2018; Dal Pesco & Fischer, 2020). Nonetheless, the relationship between the  
106 vocal and gestural component of greetings and its relevance to their function remains  
107 largely unexplored for most species. Furthermore, in species that produce several  
108 acoustic variants of greeting calls, little is known about how particular variants relate  
109 to visual signalling. It is also unclear whether and how the time spent apart by the  
110 signaller and the receiver prior to the approach modulates the production of greetings.  
111 A considerable number of animal species are characterised by at least some degree of  
112 fission-fusion dynamics (Aureli et al., 2008). In such species, and particularly in those  
113 at a higher level on the fission-fusion spectrum such as chimpanzees, greetings might  
114 have an important function of re-establishing relationships between individuals upon  
115 reunion and therefore might be especially elaborated. This hypothesis, however, has  
116 not been tested yet.

117

118 Chimpanzees commonly produce specific calls associated with greeting interactions  
119 and these calls are given predominantly towards higher-ranking individuals (Goodall,  
120 1986; Laporte & Zuberbühler, 2010; Luef & Pika, 2017). Therefore, it has been  
121 proposed that these calls function to signal submission in order to avoid aggression  
122 (Bygott, 1979; Fedurek et al., 2019; Wittig & Boesch, 2003). To our knowledge,  
123 however, there have been no systematic studies investigating in detail the relationship  
124 between greeting call production and aggressive or submissive interactions, or  
125 separation time prior to approach, between two individuals. Chimpanzee greeting  
126 calls are acoustically very distinct and context-specific, i.e. used when approaching or

127 being approached by another individual (Fedurek et al., 2019). At the same time,  
128 however, greeting calls in chimpanzees have distinct acoustic variants, such as low-  
129 fundamental frequency grunts, which are frequently emitted in sequences joined by  
130 voiced inhalations, or pants (hereafter pant grunts (Fig. 1a)) and high-fundamental  
131 frequency barks, which are also frequently emitted in sequences joined by voiced  
132 inhalations, or pants (hereafter pant barks (Goodall, 1986) (Fig. 1b)). These acoustic  
133 variants may provide flexibility in moderating social interactions; however, how these  
134 variants relate to interactions between the caller and receiver remains unknown.

135

136 Since chimpanzee greeting calls are usually given within sight of the receiver, they  
137 are likely to be associated with visual signalling. Using several modalities of  
138 communication concurrently, such as acoustic and visual signalling, is an effective  
139 way of communicating under certain conditions (Partan & Marler, 2005). We should  
140 expect that increased signalling effort, including multi-modal signalling, is  
141 particularly common during potentially risky situations involving close proximity  
142 between individuals, such as when approaching a dominant individual, to prevent  
143 receiving aggression. These risks may particularly apply to chimpanzees, where  
144 dominant individuals often direct unprovoked aggression towards lower-ranking  
145 individuals (Muller, 2002). Indeed, in this species, individuals often use specific  
146 postures and gestures when signalling submission towards higher-ranking individuals  
147 (e.g. crouching, extended hand), and such signals are commonly employed when  
148 individuals approach each other (Hobaiter & Byrne, 2011; Luef & Pika, 2017).  
149 However, the association between greeting calls, or their particular acoustic variants,  
150 and visual signals has not yet been explored in detail in chimpanzees, or other animal

151 species, and is required to establish the specific function of these different signal  
152 forms.

153

154 The aim of this study was to explore the relationship between chimpanzee greeting  
155 calls and both aggressive and submissive behaviours between two individuals during  
156 approaches (i.e. situations where one individual approaches another at a close  
157 distance), as well as previous and subsequent spatial proximity levels between them,  
158 in five communities from two populations and subspecies of wild chimpanzees in  
159 Uganda (*P. t. schweinfurthii*) and Ivory Coast (*P. t. verus*).

160

161 First, we investigated whether the production of pant grunts – the low pitched and  
162 more commonly produced variant of greeting calls, was related to the presence of  
163 aggressive behaviour (i.e. when one of the individuals behaved aggressively at the  
164 time of the approach), and visual signals such as postures or gestures linked to  
165 submission, during an approach. We predicted that pant grunts would be positively  
166 associated with both aggression and postural or gestural signalling. Second, we  
167 directly compared pant grunt only greeting variants with greeting variants that  
168 contained pant barks to evaluate the relative importance of aggression and visual  
169 signalling in the production of these two call variants. Since pant barks are higher-  
170 pitched and higher-amplitude calls than pant grunts, they probably reflect a higher  
171 motivation to signal submission than pant grunts (Owings & Morton, 1998).

172 Accordingly, we predicted that pant barks would be more strongly associated with  
173 submissive gestures and postures, as well as with aggressive contexts, when compared  
174 to pant grunts.

175

176 Third, we also explored whether the production of these calls was associated with  
177 subsequent tolerance by examining the proximity level between two individuals after  
178 the approach. Post-greeting proximity is an aspect of particular interest as it has been  
179 shown in some primate species, such as baboons, that calls produced during  
180 approaches function to facilitate proximity and affiliative interactions (Silk et al.,  
181 2016; Silk, Seyfarth, Stadele, & Strum, 2018). If chimpanzee greeting calls are  
182 affiliative signals that facilitate proximity, we would expect that after producing these  
183 calls, the producer and receiver are more likely to be in close proximity than after  
184 silent approaches. This hypothesis, however, has not yet been tested in chimpanzees,  
185 and so we did not form specific predictions about the impact of greetings on  
186 proximity.

187

188 As chimpanzees live in complex societies with a high degree of fission-fusion  
189 dynamics, where individuals form temporary subgroups or parties, and reunions  
190 between parties are often associated with aggression (Aureli et al., 2008; Muller,  
191 2002; Nishida, Kano, Goodall, McGrew, & Nakamura, 1999), producing these  
192 apparently aggression-alleviating calls, particularly shortly after party fusion, should  
193 be adaptive. Accordingly, we predicted that the probability of calling would be  
194 negatively related to the time between party reunion and approach. If this were the  
195 case, it would suggest that greeting calls function to reassess or re-establish  
196 dominance relationships between the producer and recipient of the signal after a  
197 period of separation – a hypothesis that, to our knowledge, has not yet been tested on  
198 animal greetings.

199

200 **Methods**



201 Study sites and study subjects

202 To examine the universality of the investigated patterns of greeting signals in  
203 chimpanzees, we included data from several communities of chimpanzees from the  
204 two geographically most separated subspecies of chimpanzees: *P.t. verus* in Taï  
205 National Park, Ivory Coast, and *P.t. schweinfurthii* in Budongo Forest, Uganda. In  
206 Budongo, data were collected on the Waibira (January 2017 - January 2018) and  
207 Sonso (January 2018 - November 2018) communities of Eastern chimpanzees (*Pan*  
208 *troglydytes schweinfurthii*). The Sonso group is fully habituated to human presence  
209 (Reynolds, 2005) and at the time of the study community contained 75 individuals.  
210 Habituation of the Waibira community started in 2011 and, during the study,  
211 comprised 95 named individuals with all the community members identifiable at the  
212 time of the study and the with majority of individuals habituated to human presence  
213 (Samuni, Mundry, Terkel, Zuberbühler, & Hobaiter, 2014).

214 In Taï, data were collected on the East, North and South communities of Western  
215 chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes verus*) between December 2016 and June 2018. During  
216 the study period, the East, North and South communities consisted of 32-34, 19-20,  
217 and 41-42 individuals respectively. All communities in Taï are fully habituated to  
218 human presence, regular observations of the North community commenced in 1982,  
219 South community in 1993 and East in 2000 (Boesch & Boesch-Achermann, 2000;  
220 Wittig, 2018).

221 Study subjects were adult and late adolescent males ( $N=50:\geq 13$  years; (Goodall,  
222 1986)) and females ( $N=65:\geq 11$  years) (see Table A1 for the number of subject  
223 individuals per age-sex category and community).

224 Ethical note

225 The study was approved by the Uganda Wildlife Authority and the Uganda National  
226 Council for Science and Technology in Uganda, and the Ministère de l'Enseignement  
227 supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique, the Ministère des Eaux et Forêts, and the  
228 Office Ivoirien des Parcs et Réserves in Côte d'Ivoire.

229 Data collection

230 A randomly chosen individual was followed for half a day (up to five hours). In total,  
231 3086 hours of observation were used in the study (see Table A1 for more details on  
232 observation time per community and per focal animal). Rotating focal samples evenly  
233 is challenging with wild chimpanzees as not all individuals are equally available at the  
234 same time. However, to the best of our capacities, we aimed not to sample the same  
235 individual twice during the same day, and to have samples from individuals collected  
236 during both morning and afternoon periods. *Approaches* were defined as events  
237 where the focal individual approached, or was approached by, another individual  
238 (hereafter: *partner*) to within a distance of 10m – a distance within which these calls  
239 are typically produced perhaps because being within this distance of another  
240 individual makes them vulnerable to receiving aggression (e.g. Fedurek et al., 2019;  
241 Laporte & Zuberbühler, 2010).

242

243 During an approach, we noted whether or not the focal animal or the partner produced  
244 greeting calls. We distinguished two acoustic variants of greeting calls: pant grunts  
245 and pant barks. These variants of greeting calls grade from one to another (Marler &  
246 Tenaza, 1977). However, these two calls have distinguishable acoustic characteristics  
247 (Goodall, 1986). Pant grunts are sequences of low-pitched grunts that systematically

248 alternate with voiced, inhaled elements usually of similar pitch (Goodall, 1986;  
249 Marler & Tenaza, 1977). Pant barks are sequences of high-pitched barks that  
250 systematically alternate with voiced, inhaled elements usually of lower pitch. The  
251 bark elements are more tonal, louder, and have higher amplitude than pant grunts, and  
252 on spectrograms, bark elements have dome-shaped fundamental frequency compared  
253 with grunt element, which have a relatively flat fundamental frequency and a noisy  
254 spectral quality (Crockford & Boesch, 2005; Goodall, 1986) (Fig. 1a, b; see  
255 supplementary material Audio S1 and Audio S2 for examples of recordings). Where  
256 combinations of different call variants were emitted in the same greeting, that is, pant  
257 grunts and pant barks (Fig. 1c; see Audio S3 and Audio S4 for examples of  
258 recordings), the call was coded as the loudest call variant, i.e. pant bark (e.g. Fedurek  
259 & Slocombe, 2013).

260

261 We noted whether or not an approach occurred in an aggressive context, i.e. whether  
262 either of the two individuals involved in an approach behaved aggressively towards  
263 each other during the approach ( $N=208$  of 2267 approaches). We defined aggressive  
264 behaviour as a physical assault (e.g. hitting, pulling, biting) or non-contact aggression  
265 (such as chasing, charging, directed charging displays, or threats (Fedurek, Slocombe,  
266 & Zuberbühler, 2015)).

267

268 We also noted whether during an approach any of the partners produced visual signals  
269 linked to submission ( $N=564$  of 2267), including postures or gestures, during an  
270 approach: crouching, bowing, arm-reaching, reach-touching, presenting, kissing,  
271 genital touching. These behaviours or visual signals are often associated with  
272 submission (Goodall, 1986; Hobaiter & Byrne, 2011).

273

274 Every 10 min, we noted the identities of individuals that were within 5m of the focal  
275 individual.

276

277 We noted the time of the focal animal joining another party, as well as the time of any  
278 individual joining the party of the focal animal. "Party" was defined as all individuals  
279 present within a visual range of the focal individual, typically 35m (Newton-Fisher,  
280 1999).

281

282 Dominance distance

283 Data on dominance relationships were based on the production of greeting calls - a  
284 behaviour that accurately reflects dominance relationships (Bygott, 1979). To ensure  
285 that these data were independent from the data on greeting calls collected during  
286 approaches used in this study, for dominance calculations, we used a separate dataset  
287 on greeting calls collected during the same time period per site, between 2014 and  
288 2018 by field assistants of the Budongo Conservation Field Station and the Tai  
289 Chimpanzee Project, and researchers associated with these field sites. Dominance  
290 status was calculated using the Elo rating procedure (Albers & Vries, 2001; Neumann  
291 et al., 2011; see Fedurek et al., 2015 for details). Rank difference between two  
292 partners was calculated by deducting the Elo rating of the focal animal from the Elo  
293 rating of the approach partner.

294

295 Inter-observer reliability data

296 Inter-observer reliability tests were conducted between individuals involved in data  
297 collection to ensure that the data were collected in systematic and consistent ways. In

298 Budongo, data were collected by one of the authors and one field assistant. In Tai,  
299 data were collected by one of the authors and three research assistants. Inter-observer  
300 reliability tests using intra-class coefficient tests (ICC; (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979)) were  
301 initially conducted between the two authors at Budongo and Tai, with the frequency  
302 and duration of variables recorded by each significantly correlated (ICC > 0.80).  
303 Research assistants started collecting behavioural data only once they had recorded  
304 two consecutive tests with variables significantly correlated with those recorded by  
305 the authors (ICC > 0.80).

306

307 Statistical analysis

308 Generalized linear mixed-effect models (GLMM) were used in statistical analyses  
309 (Bolker et al., 2009). In all our analyses, one data point represented a dyadic  
310 interaction comprising the focal animal and the approach partner. The first model,  
311 hereafter the “pant grunt - behaviour model”, examined the relationship between pant  
312 grunting and behaviour between two individuals during an approach ( $N=1959$ ). Using  
313 a binomial error structure, we put as the dependent variable whether or not (0/1) a  
314 pant grunt utterance (with no pant barks) was produced during an approach. Our  
315 predictor variables were: whether or not any of the two individuals behaved  
316 aggressively (0/1) or produced visual signals such as postures or gestures linked to  
317 submission (0/1) during the approach; latency (minutes) between party fusion  
318 between two individuals and the approach; and whether or not (0/1) the focal animal  
319 and the approach partner were within 5m of each other during the next 10 min scan.  
320 In addition, we included the several control variables. We included the sex category  
321 of the approach partners, coded at three levels (male-male ( $N=448$ ), male-female  
322 ( $N=1546$ ), and female-female ( $N=65$ )), and Elo rating dominance difference between

323 two partners, since these factors may be associated with greeting call production  
324 (Fedurek et al., 2019). The five study communities differ considerably in terms of, for  
325 example, sex ratios and the number of individuals comprising them - demographic  
326 features that might affect the probability of greeting call production. Therefore, we  
327 included the identity of the community as another control variable.

328

329 To directly compare between approaches with pant grunts and approaches which  
330 included pant barks in terms of the above factors, we created another GLMM with a  
331 binomial error structure ( $N=1067$ ) with the independent variables used in the previous  
332 model and with the variant of greeting call (0-pant grunt only utterance, 1-utterance  
333 containing pant barks) as the dependent variable, hereafter called the “call variant -  
334 behaviour model”. In contrast to the previous model, however, we differentiated  
335 between whether the caller or the recipient exhibited aggressive behaviour and visual  
336 (gesturing and posturing) signalling, resulting in four (rather than two) variables  
337 related to these two behaviours. This procedure, which was not possible for the pant  
338 grunt-behaviour model due to the inclusion in this model of data from approaches  
339 with no calls, allowed us to establish whether it was the caller or the recipient that  
340 behaved aggressively or submissively. Also in contrast to the “pant grunt-behaviour”  
341 model, the variable “Elo rating dominance difference” included the directionality of  
342 this difference (rather than only the difference) between the caller and the recipient  
343 (which, again, was not possible for the pant grunt-behaviour model due to the model  
344 also containing data from silent approaches).

345

346 Since, as with greeting calls (Fedurek et al., 2019), the production of both visual  
347 signalling (linked to submissive behaviour) and aggressive interactions between two

348 individuals can be related to dominance distance between them (i.e. the larger the  
349 dominance distance between two individuals, the higher the probability of producing  
350 these behaviours), in the pant grunt-behaviour model we also included interactions  
351 between dominance distance and both visual signalling and aggressive behaviour. In  
352 addition, since subsequent proximity levels between two individuals after an approach  
353 could depend on whether or not there was an aggressive interaction between them  
354 during the approach, we included an interaction between aggression and proximity  
355 during the next ten-minute scan in the pant grunt-behaviour model, and an interaction  
356 between aggression by the recipient of call and proximity during the next ten-minute  
357 scan in the call variant-behaviour model.

358

359 There was no collinearity between the examined independent variables (variance  
360 inflation factors of the independent variables were below the value of 1.5). The values  
361 of all quantitative variables were z transformed into a mean of 0 and standard  
362 deviation of 1. We used a likelihood ratio test (LRT) to test the full model against a  
363 null model (comprising the intercept, random effects, and control independent  
364 variables (sex type, community, and Elo rating difference). To test the significance of  
365 individual independent variables, we used the drop1 function from the 'lme4' R  
366 package (Barr, Levy, Scheepers, & Tily, 2013; Forstmeier & Schielzeth, 2011).

367

368 We first ran the two models with the interactions described above and then reran them  
369 without interactions if these interactions were not significant. In both models, we put  
370 the identity of the focal individual, the identity of the partner, and the identity of the  
371 dyad as random effects. Since many interactions occurred during the same day, we  
372 also included date as an additional random effect. In addition, to reduce type I error

373 rate and to account for potential non-uniform variation of our predictor variables  
374 within the random effects (Barr et al., 2013), we included a maximal random slope  
375 structure, incorporating random slopes for the variable ‘latency between party fusion  
376 and the approach’, sex type, and Elo rating dominance difference within focal identity  
377 and partner identity, and ‘latency between party fusion and the approach’ and Elo  
378 rating dominance difference within date (Barr et al., 2013; Forstmeier & Schielzeth,  
379 2011).

380

381 All statistical analyses were conducted using R, version 3.3.0 and the lme4 package,  
382 version 1.1-17 (Bates, Maechler, & Bolker, 2012; R Core Team, 2014).

383

## 384 **Results**

385 In total, we collected data on 2267 approaches (See Table A1 for the number of  
386 approaches per community). Greeting calls were produced during 1067 approaches  
387 (47.07%). Utterances with pant grunts only were produced during 759 approaches  
388 while utterances containing pant barks during 308 approaches (Fig. 2a).

389

390 For both models, the full model was significantly different from the null model (pant  
391 grunt - behaviour model: LRT:  $\chi^2=280.53_{(31)}$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; call variant - behaviour  
392 model: LRT:  $\chi^2=175.11_{(36)}$ ,  $P<0.001$ ).

393

394 Pant grunts were produced in all three types of sex-class dyads, but were more likely  
395 in mixed-sex dyads than during male-male and particularly female-female approaches  
396 (Fig. 2b, Table 1). The production of utterances with pant barks relative to that of pant  
397 grunts only was not related to the sex-class of dyads (Table 2). During mixed-sex



398 approaches in which greeting calls were produced, females emitted calls to males in  
399 99.13% (799 of 806) of cases.

400

401 *Greeting calls, aggressive behaviour, and submission-related visual signals*

402 Greeting calls, and particularly those including pant barks, were associated with both  
403 aggressive contexts (Fig. 2c, 2d, 2a, 3a) and visual signalling (Fig. 2e, 2f, 3b, 4b,  
404 Table 1, 2). Aggressive behaviour was predominantly exhibited by the recipient of the  
405 call, and gestures and postures by the caller (Table 2). The larger the dominance  
406 distance between two individuals was, the higher was the probability of producing a  
407 greeting call, and a pant bark in particular (Table 1, 2).

408

409 The interactions between dominance distance and visual signalling or aggressive  
410 behaviour did not predict the production of pant grunts ( $P=0.329$  and  $0.311$ ,  
411 respectively), suggesting that the production of greeting calls related to aggression  
412 and visual signalling independently from dominance distance.

413

414 *Greeting calls and proximity levels*

415 The production of greeting calls, and particularly those containing pant barks, was  
416 negatively related to the time between party reunion and approach: the sooner the  
417 approach after party reunion between two individuals, the more likely the production  
418 of greeting calls containing pant barks (Fig. 3c, 4d, Table 1, 2). There was no  
419 relationship between the production of pant grunts (Table 1) and the probability with  
420 which the two involved individuals were recorded within 5m of each other within the  
421 next ten-minute scan. However, when compared directly by the call variant-behaviour  
422 model, two individuals were less likely to be within 5m during the next ten-minute

423 scan after producing utterances with pant barks than after producing pant grunts only  
424 (Fig. 4c, Table 2). The interaction between aggression and subsequent proximity  
425 between two individuals was not significant (pant grunt-behaviour model:  $P=0.176$ ,  
426 call variant-behaviour model:  $P=0.593$ ), suggesting that calls related to subsequent  
427 proximity independently from their relationship to aggression.

428

## 429 **Discussion**

430 The results of our study show that the production of greeting calls whilst approaching  
431 or being approached by a dominant individual was positively associated with visual  
432 signals linked to submission and was more likely in aggressive contexts. Individuals  
433 were more likely to produce a greeting call shortly after a reunion between two  
434 parties. The production of greeting calls was related positively to the dominance  
435 distance between two individuals. These patterns were stronger when the utterance  
436 contained a pant bark rather than only a pant grunt. In addition, utterances containing  
437 pant barks were negatively related to the probability of being spatially close to each  
438 other shortly after the approach.

439

440 As predicted, the production of greeting calls was negatively associated with the time  
441 between party reunion and approach, with greeting calls being more often produced  
442 shortly after party reunions between two individuals. A likely reason for this is that  
443 reunions between parties in chimpanzees often involve threats or aggression (Muller,  
444 2002; Nishida et al., 1999). Therefore, submissive signals, such as greeting calls,  
445 might ultimately reduce the probability of receiving aggression, or the severity of  
446 aggression, during these potentially risky events. This vocal approach to mitigating  
447 risk may particularly apply to pant barks, since these calls were more likely to be

448 produced than pant grunts shortly after party fusion. Periods of separation between  
449 individuals in chimpanzee communities can range from hours to months, therefore,  
450 greeting calls produced upon party reunions might also function to re-establish  
451 dominance relationships after a period of separation.

452

453 Producing greeting signals shortly after reunions is also common in other species that  
454 form societies with high fission-fusion dynamics (Aureli et al., 2008). In spider  
455 monkeys (*Ateles geoffroyi*), for example, embraces during reunions are common and  
456 apparently reduce tension and inhibit aggression during these events (Aureli &  
457 Schaffner, 2007). A similar function has been attributed to human greeting rituals  
458 such as verbal greetings or handshakes (Firth, 1972). Vocal greetings also facilitate  
459 reunions after separation between mother and infant in grey mouse lemurs, a species  
460 where mothers park their infants in tree holes or dense vegetation while foraging  
461 (Scheumann et al., 2017). In species with unstable grouping patterns, therefore,  
462 greeting signals probably alleviate aggression upon reunion or/and are involved in  
463 testing or re-establishing dominance or affiliative relationships after separation. This  
464 use of greetings to manage risk may particularly apply to species at the upper end of  
465 the fission-fusion spectrum, including humans (Aureli et al., 2008), where there may  
466 be a higher selection pressure to communicate additional information during reunions,  
467 and therefore a need for greater sophistication or nuance in greeting signals, than in  
468 species with more stable societies – a hypothesis that needs to be tested by future  
469 studies.

470

471 Greeting calls were not associated with close proximity between two individuals  
472 following an approach, suggesting that greeting calls in chimpanzees are unlikely to

473 promote tolerance and subsequent friendly interactions. Furthermore, after producing  
474 utterances with pant barks individuals were less likely to subsequently maintain close  
475 proximity than after pant grunting, and this pattern was independent of any aggression  
476 that occurred during the approach. Since pant barking is associated with an increased  
477 subsequent spatial distance between the signaller and recipient, it might also reduce  
478 the probability of future aggression – a possibility that should be explored in the  
479 future. Alternatively, pant barks might be employed within dyads with insecure  
480 relationships, and therefore less predictable interactions, in a similar way as grunts in  
481 baboons (Silk et al., 2016). The subsequent greater distance between the producer and  
482 recipient of pant barks might then be a strategy by the former to minimize the  
483 probability of receiving aggression from the latter. Since these calls are not associated  
484 with subsequent close proximity between two partners, our findings are consistent  
485 with a recent study suggesting that these calls do not reflect affiliation between  
486 individuals (Fedurek et al., 2019). Considering, however, that chimpanzees produce  
487 shorter pant grunt sequences when approaching bonded individuals than when  
488 approaching less closely affiliated ones (Luef & Pika, 2019), more studies are needed  
489 to investigate the relationship between greeting calls and social bonds in  
490 chimpanzees.

491

492 During an approach between two individuals, greeting calls were associated with  
493 visual signals, specifically postures and gestures typically linked to submission (such  
494 as extended hand or bowing (Hobaiter & Byrne, 2011)). This is an example of  
495 multimodal communication where more than one modality is used when signalling –  
496 a common occurrence in animals (Hebets & Papaj, 2005; Rowe, 1999) including  
497 chimpanzees and other primates (Hobaiter, Byrne, & Zuberbühler, 2017; Liebal,

498 Waller, Slocombe, & Burrows, 2013; Luef & Pika, 2017; Wilke et al., 2017). Using  
499 several modes of communication concurrently is an effective communicative strategy  
500 – with the ‘back up’ hypothesis proposing that by signalling specific information  
501 using two or more modalities, the signal is less likely to be missed or misinterpreted  
502 (Partan & Marler, 2005; Uetz, Roberts, & Taylor, 2009). Our results show that the  
503 high-frequency and high-amplitude pant barks were more likely to be associated with  
504 visual signalling than the lower-frequency pant grunts. Utterances with pant barks  
505 were also more likely than utterances with pant grunts only to be produced in  
506 aggressive contexts. Pant barks arguably require more energy to produce than pant  
507 grunts because they involve calling at higher frequencies and amplitude (e.g. Fedurek  
508 et al., 2016; Fedurek, Zuberbühler, & Semple, 2017), and therefore, should be  
509 produced in more urgent situations than pant grunts. It appears that, at least for some  
510 call types, the stronger the motivation or effort to produce a signal from a given  
511 modality of communication (e.g. a submissive call), the higher the probability that it  
512 will be accompanied by a signal involving another modality (e.g. a gesture). This  
513 interpretation is consistent with a study on capuchins monkeys showing that the  
514 scream component of greeting embraces produced by males, which apparently signals  
515 the strength of affiliative bonds between them, is more often produced during  
516 greetings with close social partners rather than with less affiliated individuals (Lynch  
517 Alfaro, 2008). A similar interpretation could be applied to the observation that  
518 females of the lesser black-backed gull gradually add the call component to their  
519 greeting displays as courtship progresses (Brown, 1967). While one previous study  
520 showed that in chimpanzees particular call variants are associated with specific visual  
521 signals (Luef & Pika, 2017), future studies should explore this relationship in more  
522 detail, for example by looking at how the production of such specific signals (e.g.

523 extended hand or crouching) during calling relate to dominance relationships between  
524 two individuals. Future studies should also explore the relationship between greeting  
525 calls, or their variants, and aggression over longer timescales. For example, it would  
526 be interesting to examine whether the production of greeting calls reduces the  
527 likelihood of receiving aggression later on that day, or whether receiving aggression  
528 increases the probability of producing these calls during a subsequent encounter with  
529 the aggressor.

530

531 Our results show that the larger the dominance distance between two individuals, the  
532 higher the probability of producing utterances with pant barks as opposed to pant  
533 grunts only. In chimpanzees, the likelihood of aggression is positively linked to  
534 dominance distance (Muller & Mitani, 2005). It appears that pant barks reflect a  
535 higher motivation to signal submission than pant grunts, a view also supported by the  
536 finding that utterances with pant barks were more likely than pant grunts only to be  
537 produced in aggressive contexts and with submissive visual signals. The function of  
538 greeting calls in chimpanzees seems to be mediated by their acoustic structure, with  
539 pant barks being more likely to be produced as risk of aggression increases, and being  
540 a stronger predictor of dominance relationships between two individuals, than pant  
541 grunts. In this respect, our results are consistent with a recent study on chimpanzee  
542 greeting calls showing that these calls, and particularly sequences comprising pant  
543 barks, correlate positively with dominance distance between two individuals (Luef &  
544 Pika, 2019). Sequences including pant barks (which typically graded from pant  
545 grunts) likely reflect a stronger physical effort (compared to sequences comprising  
546 only pant grunts) by the signaller to produce the signal (Titze, 1989; Titze & Riede,  
547 2010). On a proximate level, that effort could be mediated by an elevated arousal

548 level, which may explain why the production of pant barks is mediated by dominance  
549 distance between two individuals (Luef & Pika, 2019) and is associated more strongly  
550 with aggression. A promising research avenue would be investigating whether in  
551 other species that also produce several kinds of greeting calls, such as the grunts and  
552 twitters in sooty mangabeys (Fedurek et al., 2019), different calls have different  
553 functions.

554

555 Given that greetings often occur over short distances between the signaller and  
556 recipient, the visual component of chimpanzee greetings alone might be sufficient on  
557 these occasions to communicate submission. Nonetheless, vocal signals are also given  
558 during approaches, with the signaller often ceasing the production of greeting calls  
559 once physical contact with the aggressor has been established (Pers. observation).

560 Thus, it is possible that the vocal component carries an additional function, to inform  
561 nearby individuals of the dominance relationship (e.g. Slocombe & Zuberbuhler,  
562 2007). This extension of the audience might apply particularly to the high amplitude –  
563 louder – pant barks. For example, greeting calls might recruit support from bystanders  
564 (e.g. Fedurek et al., 2015), or reduce the probability of receiving aggression from  
565 them. Greeting calls might also advertise the dominance relationship between the  
566 producer and recipient of the signal to nearby individuals. The potential role of  
567 greeting calls in informing third-party individuals should be examined by future  
568 studies.

569

570 One potential limitation of our study is that in our analysis, sequences with pant barks  
571 also included sequences with pant grunts grading into pant barks. As the function of  
572 pant grunts and pant barks is not identical, we encourage future studies to differentiate

573 in their data collection and analyses those sequences comprising pant grunts,  
574 sequences comprising both pant grunts and pant barks, and sequences comprising  
575 only pant barks (e.g. Luef & Pika, 2019). It is possible, for example, that sequences  
576 comprising both call variants have a function that is intermediate between those  
577 comprising only pant grunts and those that include only pant barks. Such analysis  
578 would provide further insight into how the acoustic structure of greeting calls  
579 modulates their function.

580

581 The structural complexity of chimpanzee greetings, with the acoustic variation within  
582 the greeting call and several types of gestures and postures that accompany it, might  
583 reflect the complex nature of societies that these animals form. Chimpanzee societies,  
584 for example, are characterised by a dynamic fission-fusion structure as well as by  
585 networks of complex kin and non-kin social relationships between individuals (Aureli  
586 et al., 2008; Gilby & Wrangham, 2008; Muller & Mitani, 2005). It is thus possible  
587 that the elaborate communication system involved in chimpanzee greetings has  
588 evolved in response to the challenges associated with such complex societies (e.g.  
589 Crockford, Wittig, & Zuberbühler, 2017). Considering the evolutionary closeness of  
590 chimpanzees to humans and that there are considerable similarities between the  
591 societies of these two species (Muller, 2017), looking into chimpanzee  
592 communication has the potential to shed light on the evolution of human  
593 communication.

594

595 To conclude, our results suggest that greeting calls can function to re-assert existing  
596 dominance relationships after a period of separation and may ultimately reduce  
597 aggression between the signaller and recipient. Our study also shows that the above



598 processes can be moderated by the acoustic variants of calls. These results thus  
599 support the view that animal greetings can form a sophisticated signalling system,  
600 with the function of greeting calls modulated by their acoustic structure and involving  
601 signals from several different modalities.

602

### 603 **Supplementary Material**

604 Supplementary material associated with this article is available.

605

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| Independent variable                       | Estimate ± SE     | Z value      | P value          | 95% confidence intervals |
|--|-------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| Intercept                                  | 0.74±0.55         | 1.35         |                  | -0.48 to 1.42            |
| Male-female dyads                          | 1.03±0.37         | 2.81         | 0.005            | 0.49 to 1.73             |
| Male-male dyads                            | 0.40±0.36         | 1.11         | 0.267            | -0.35 to 1.12            |
| <b>Aggression (0/1)</b>                    | <b>2.05±0.34</b>  | <b>6.09</b>  | <b>&lt;0.001</b> | <b>1.10 to 2.68</b>      |
| <b>Visual signalling (0/1)</b>             | <b>2.94±0.24</b>  | <b>12.42</b> | <b>&lt;0.001</b> | <b>2.41 to 3.44</b>      |
| <b>Latency between fusion and approach</b> | <b>-0.18±0.09</b> | <b>-2.12</b> | <b>0.034</b>     | <b>-0.34 to 0.01</b>     |
| <b>Subsequent proximity</b>                | <b>0.30±0.22</b>  | <b>1.36</b>  | <b>0.173</b>     | <b>-0.07 to 0.79</b>     |
| Elo rating difference                      | 1.00±0.14         | 6.87         | <0.001           | 0.69 to 1.29             |
| Community North                            | -0.23±0.44        | -0.52        | 0.604            | -1.01 to 0.61            |
| Community Sonso                            | -0.19±0.46        | -0.42        | 0.677            | -1.23 to 0.70            |
| Community South                            | -0.59±0.36        | -1.62        | 0.106            | -1.14 to 0.32            |
| Community Waibira                          | -0.28±0.37        | -0.74        | 0.459            | -1.04 to 0.66            |

792

793 **Tables**

794

795 Table 1. The relationship between pant grunt production during approaches and test  
 796 predictors (pant grunt-behaviour model).

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798 Test variables are in bold. GLMM; dependent variable: pant grunt only utterance (0/1); random effects: focal  
 799 animal ID, partner ID, dyad ID, date ID). Test variables are in bold.

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808 Table 2. The relationship between greeting call variants (pant grunt only utterances or  
 809 utterances with pant barks) emitted during approaches and test predictors (call  
 810 variant-behaviour model).

| Independent variable                       | Estimate ± SE     | Z value      | P value          | 95% confidence intervals |
|--|-------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| Intercept                                  | -3.31±0.83        | -3.96        |                  | -4.38 to 0.17            |
| Male-female dyads                          | 1.27±0.80         | 1.58         | 0.113            | -1.70 to 2.28            |
| Male-male dyads                            | 0.75± 0.83        | 0.90         | 0.369            | -2.87 to 2.31            |
| <b>Aggressor by caller</b>                 | <b>1.22 ±2.02</b> | <b>0.61</b>  | <b>0.543</b>     | <b>-8.23 to 6.85</b>     |
| <b>Aggressor by recipient</b>              | <b>2.60±0.23</b>  | <b>11.22</b> | <b>&lt;0.001</b> | <b>1.72 to 3.12</b>      |
| <b>Visual signalling by caller</b>         | <b>1.18±0.19</b>  | <b>6.19</b>  | <b>&lt;0.001</b> | <b>0.57 to 1.51</b>      |
| <b>Visual signalling by recipient</b>      | <b>0.53±0.28</b>  | <b>1.92</b>  | <b>0.055</b>     | <b>-0.18 to 1.11</b>     |
| <b>Latency between fusion and approach</b> | <b>-0.30±0.11</b> | <b>-2.75</b> | <b>0.006</b>     | <b>-0.54 to -0.04</b>    |
| <b>Subsequent proximity</b>                | <b>-0.71±0.30</b> | <b>-2.33</b> | <b>0.020</b>     | <b>-1.34 to 0.03</b>     |
| Elo rating difference                      | -0.73±0.16        | -4.63        | <0.001           | -1.03 to -0.35           |
| Community North                            | 0.32±0.44         | 0.73         | 0.467            | -0.83 to 1.46            |
| Community Sonso                            | 0.35±0.44         | 0.78         | 0.437            | -0.98 to 1.56            |
| Community South                            | -0.34±0.32        | -1.05        | 0.292            | -1.04 to 0.26            |
| Community Waibira                          | 0.49±0.43         | 1.04         | 0.299            | -0.72 to 1.70            |

811 Test variables are in bold. GLMM; dependent variable: (0-pant grunt only utterance/1-utterance containing pant

812 barks); random effects: focal animal ID, partner ID, dyad ID, date ID). Test variables are in bold.

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818 Table A1. The number of study subjects per age and sex category, observation  
 819 time, and the number of approaches per each community

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| Community  | Budongo<br>Sonso | Budongo<br>Waibira | Tai East   | Tai North  | Tai South  |
|--|------------------|--------------------|------------|------------|------------|
| Number of<br>adult and<br>late<br>adolescent<br>males    | 14               | 22                 | 5          | 4          | 5          |
| Number of<br>adult and<br>late<br>adolescent<br>females  | 18               | 16                 | 9          | 7          | 15         |
| Observation<br>time (h)                                  | 329.87           | 567.56             | 610.60     | 546.64     | 1031.09    |
| Observation<br>time (h) per<br>focal animal<br>(Mean±SD) | 10.31±5.94       | 14.93±10.74        | 46.97±9.02 | 49.69±1.82 | 51.55±7.24 |
| Number of<br>approaches                                  | 146              | 364                | 290        | 210        | 1257       |

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828 **Figure legends**

829 Figure 1. Spectrographic representation of an utterance comprising (a) pant grunts, (b)  
830 pant barks, (c) both pant grunts and pant barks, given by an adult female.

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832 Figure 2. (a) Percentage of approaches with pant grunt greeting calls, greeting calls  
833 containing pant barks, and no greeting calls. (b) Percentage of greeting calls given by  
834 male-female, male-male and female-female dyads. (c) Percentage of approaches in  
835 agonistic contexts that were associated with pant barks, pant grunts only, and no  
836 greeting calls. (d) Percentage of approaches in non-agonistic contexts that were  
837 associated with pant barks, pant grunts only, and no greeting calls. (e) Percentage of  
838 approaches with visual signalling that were associated with pant barks, pant grunts  
839 only, and no greeting calls. (f) Percentage of approaches with no visual signalling that  
840 were associated with pant barks, pant grunts only, and no greeting calls.

841

842 Figure 3: The likelihood of chimpanzees to emit pant grunts under varying social  
843 conditions, specifically: (a) aggression occurring during an approach, (b) co-  
844 occurrence of submission-related postures and gestures. (c) latency between party  
845 fusion and the approach between two individuals. Circles (figures a and b) and line  
846 (figure c) represent model estimates. Error bars represent standard error (figures a, b),  
847 shaded area represents 95% confidence intervals (figures c).

848

849 Figure 4: The likelihood of chimpanzees to emit greeting call variants depending on  
850 varying social conditions. (a) The relationship between the variant of greeting calls  
851 (0-pant grunt only utterance, 1-utterance containing pant barks) and aggression during  
852 an approach produced by the recipient of the call. Error bars represent standard error.

853 (b) The relationship between the variant of greeting calls and postural or gestural  
854 signalling produced by the caller. (c) The relationship between the variant of greeting  
855 calls and whether or not the two individuals were in close proximity during next scan.  
856 (d) The relationship between the variant of greeting calls and latency between party  
857 fusion and the approach between two individuals. Circles (figures a, b and c) and line  
858 (figure d) represent model estimates. Error bars represent standard error (figures a, b  
859 and c), shaded area represents 95% confidence intervals (figure d).  
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