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**IDENTIFICATION OF THE SOCIAL AND COGNITIVE PROCESSES UNDERLYING
HUMAN CUMULATIVE CULTURE**

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SUPPLEMENTARY ONLINE MATERIAL

This document contains additional methodological details and results to those given in the main article.

METHODS

We exposed social groups of 3-4 year-old children, adult and juvenile chimpanzees and capuchin monkeys to an experimental puzzle box (Figure 1, Figure S1) that could be solved at three sequential levels to retrieve rewards of increasing desirability. The study was designed to evaluate eight separate hypotheses concerning the factors necessary for cumulative cultural learning (Table S5, below). Two experiments were conducted. The first involved presenting groups of naive subjects with the puzzlebox, across two conditions (an ‘open’ condition where groups could gain access to all stages, and a ‘scaffolded’ condition, where guards prevented access to the manipulanda associated with higher stages until performance at the lower stage reached criterion), and recording which individuals interacted with it, when and how as well as who observed these interactions. This experiment was carried out with all three species, although the capuchins experienced only the scaffolded

27 condition. The second experiment was carried out with chimpanzees only and
 28 involved training demonstrator animals, of high and low status, to solve the box
 29 and retrieve food effectively. These trained individuals were then reintroduced
 30 into their native groups with the puzzlebox, and allowed to demonstrate
 31 successful solutions. We again monitored which individuals interacted with the
 32 puzzlebox as well as when, how and who observed these interactions. This
 33 second experiment was designed to determine whether the failure of the
 34 chimpanzees to achieve high-level solutions in the first experiment could be
 35 attributed to an absence of quality demonstration, as well as to evaluate whether
 36 the status of the demonstrator affected the likelihood of individuals adopting a
 37 behaviour pattern.

38

39 **Subjects**

40 *(i) Chimpanzees.* Subjects were housed at the Michale E. Keeling Center, MD
 41 Anderson Cancer Center, Bastrop, TX, USA. They were tested in the outdoor
 42 portion of their enclosures, which are octagonal corrals 24.3 metres in diameter.
 43 Chimpanzees were not food deprived before the experiment, but were not tested
 44 within an hour of a large feed.

45 Table S1. Chimpanzee groups participating in the experiment.

Experiment	Group Number	Condition (Exp 1)/ Demonstrator rank (exp 2)	Number of males	Number of females	Number of adults	Number of sub-adults/ juveniles	Mean age of group (yrs) (\pm standard error)
1	C1	Open	4	4	7	1	25 (\pm 2.60)
1	C5	Open	4	6	8	2	19.3 (\pm 2.03)
1	C6	Scaffolded	3	5	8	0	32.4 (\pm 3.59)
1	C8	Scaffolded	2	5	6	1	31.6 (\pm 6.17)

2	C2	High	7	6	12	1	26.5 (±3.39)
2	C3	Low	4	5	9	0	22.7 (±1.87)
2	C4	Low	2	9	10	1	23.5 (±3.40)
2	C7	High	2	6	8	0	31.6 (±3.39)

46

47 The 74 subjects were aged between 6 and 48 years old and were housed in 8
48 multi-male, multi-female groups, ranging in size from 7 to 13 individuals (Table
49 S1).

50

51 (ii) *Capuchins*. Subjects were housed at the Centre de Primatologie, Strasbourg,
52 France. The single population was tested in the outdoor portion of their
53 enclosure, consisting of two interconnected runs measuring 45m² in total. The
54 puzzlebox was placed at the end of the larger run with access allowed to both
55 outdoor runs during the experiment.

56

57

Table S2. Capuchins participating in the experiment. * Individuals that were removed from the group in March 2008

Name	Sex	Month/Year of birth	Age category 2007/2008	Rank 2007/2008	Rank category 2007/2008
Accroc*	Male	08/1996	Adult	1/NA	High/NA
Alila	Female	08/1999	Adult	15/3	Mid/High
Arnaud	Male	07/1998	Adult	2/1	High/High
Asson*	Female	05/1989	Adult	6/NA	High/NA
Boy	Female	01/1973	Adult	17/8	Low/Mid
Kinika	Female	06/1992	Adult	7/13	High/Low
Kiwi	Female	~1980	Adult	3/10	High/Mid
Kolette	Female	08/1999	Adult	11/9	Mid/Mid
Olive*	Female	09/2000	Adult	16/NA	Low/NA
Paola	Female	06/2001	Adult	18/11	Low/Mid
Petula	Female	04/2001	Adult	13/12	Mid/Low
Pistou	Male	04/2001	Adult	4/4	High/High
Popeye	Male	05/2001	Adult	10/5	Mid/High
Raven	Male	08/2002	Adult	8/2	Mid/High
Rosy	Female	05/2002	Adult	5/7	High/Mid
Samir	Male	05/2003	Adult	9/6	Mid/Mid
Shaka*	Female	07/2003	Adult	14/NA	Mid/NA
Velvet	Male	10/2006	Juvenile/ Subadult	21/14	Low/Low
Vicky	Female	03/2006	Juvenile/ Subadult	20/16	Low/Low
Vlad*	Male	05/2006	Juvenile/ Subadult	12/NA	Mid/NA
Wallis	Male	05/2007	Infant/ Juvenile	19/15	Low/Low
Willow	Female	08/2007	Infant/ Juvenile	22/17	Low/Low

58

59 The capuchin group was a multi-male, multi-female group with ages ranging
60 from 0.5 years to over 30 years (Table S2). Testing was carried out in two
61 sessions, in November - December 2007 and June 2008. During the intervening
62 six months, five members of the group were removed to start a new colony at a
63 separate facility. For the 2007 cohort $N= 22$, and for the 2008 cohort $N=17$.

64

65 *(iii) Children.* Participants were tested at three nursery schools, namely St.
66 Andrews Nursery School, Lawhead Primary School and Westfield Nursery
67 School, in east Fife, UK. They were tested in an area of their schools that was
68 separate from the main class, but was familiar to them. Where required by the
69 school, a teacher was present in the room also, although they were requested not
70 to speak or interact with the children during the trial sessions.

71

72 Eight groups of children were tested with group sizes of 4 and 5. The age range
73 of the groups was 40 to 59 months. There was always a mix of sexes within the
74 groups, although exact sex ratio varied (Table S3). The parents of all children
75 involved in the study had signed consent forms agreeing that their child could
76 participate.

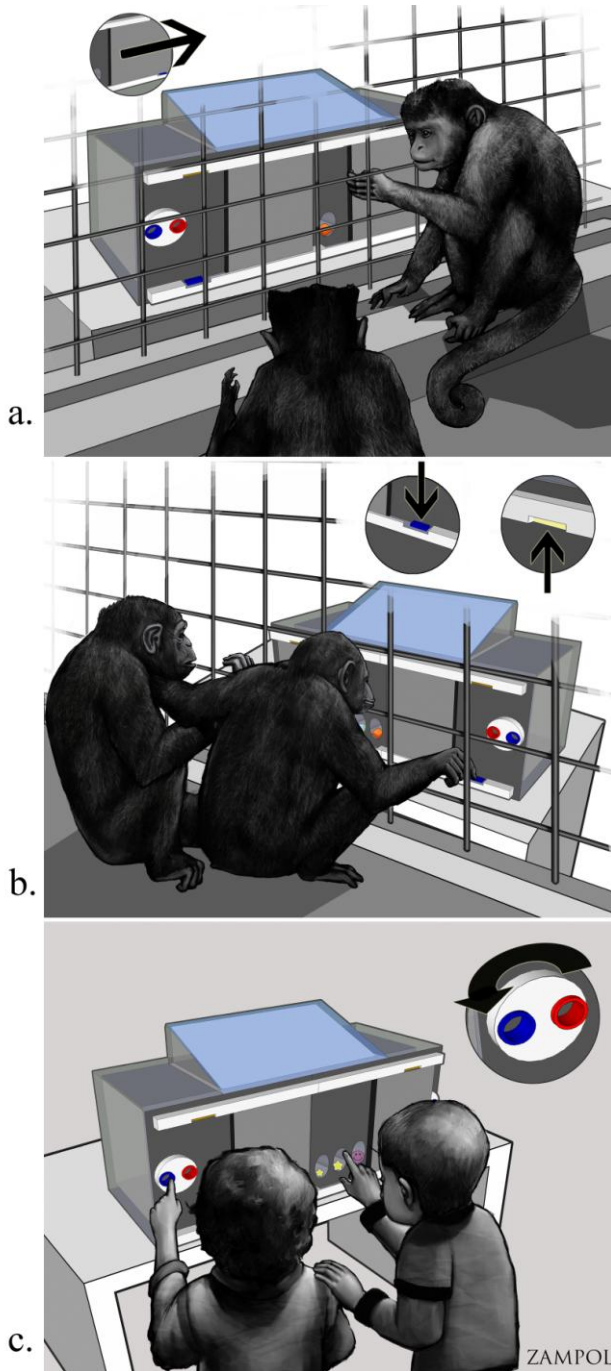
77 Table S3. Child groups participating in the experiment.

Group identity	Condition	Number of males	Number of females	Mean age of groups (yrs/months) (\pm standard error [months])
1	Scaffolded	3	1	3.6 (\pm 1.5)
2	Scaffolded	3	1	4.1 (\pm 1.9)
3	Scaffolded	4	1	4.7 (\pm 1.3)
4	Scaffolded	2	2	3.9 (\pm 3.1)
5	Open	4	1	3.9 (\pm 2.0)
6	Open	1	3	4.2 (\pm 2.0)
7	Open	3	2	4.3 (\pm 2.1)
8	Open	2	2	3.8 (\pm 1.9)

78

79 **Ethics Approval**

80 All research was approved by the ethics committee of the University of St.
81 Andrews, in addition chimpanzee and capuchin work was approved by the ethics
82 committees of MD Anderson Cancer Center and the Centre de Primatologie
83 respectively. All research complied with both the legislation of the UK and the
84 countries in which the research was conducted.



85

86 Figure S1: The puzzlebox used in the experiments, showing the three different species interacting
87 with the puzzlebox. A- capuchins opening stage 1, B- chimpanzees pushing the down button to
88 solve stage 2, C- children using the blue fingerhole to solve stage 3.

89
90

91 *Apparatus*

92 The puzzlebox used in this experiment could be solved sequentially, at three
93 separate levels, or 'stages'. The three stages offer successively more desirable
94 rewards, but require more complex manipulations to solve, with each stage
95 building upon the previous one (see Fig. S1). The box was designed
96 symmetrically, allowing two parallel options (alternative doors could be slid left
97 or right at stage 1, alternative buttons at the top or bottom could be depressed at
98 stage 2, and alternative coloured finger-holes enabled the dial to rotate clockwise
99 or counter-clockwise at stage 3) with which to complete each stage. This two-
100 action, two-option design allowed us to distinguish between alternative social
101 learning mechanisms.

102

103 The first stage could be opened by sliding one of the two doors outwards in a
104 horizontal plane, the left-side door moving to the left and the right-side door to
105 the right. This action revealed a feeding chute through which a low-level reward
106 could be delivered, with each door revealing a separate symmetrically placed
107 tube. The second stage could be opened by pushing one of two buttons; either
108 the button in the top runner, upwards, or the button in the bottom runner,
109 downwards. Depression of either of these buttons allowed the door to be slid
110 open wider to reveal a second food tube on that side, from which a mid-level
111 reward was delivered. Once again, there were symmetrically placed upper and
112 lower buttons on each side of the box, and symmetrically placed mid-level

113 feeding tubes on right and left sides. The final stage was opened by turning a dial,
114 using either a red or blue bordered finger hole, which allows the door to be slid
115 open even further, to reveal a third feeding tube on that side from which a high-
116 level reward could be retrieved. Again, there were symmetrically placed dials on
117 each side of the box, and symmetrically placed feeding tubes delivering high-
118 level food on the right and left side. Olfactory holes were drilled into each
119 puzzlebox door, to help ensure that the subjects were aware of the presence of
120 the rewards behind them.

121

122 The puzzleboxes given to children, chimpanzees and capuchin monkeys differed
123 only in size, being scaled appropriately to the mean size of the subject.

124

125 *(i) Chimpanzees.* The puzzlebox used with chimpanzees was 700mm (l) x 300
126 mm (h) x 300(w)mm, with the main frame constructed of Perspex. The doors
127 were 220 (h) x 160 (w)mm and were made of acrylic veneered with steel for
128 added strength. The acrylic buttons at stage two were positioned 130mm from
129 each end of the puzzlebox and measure 40 (l) x 10 (w) mm. The dials (diameter
130 100mm) were positioned 50mm from each end of the puzzlebox and were also
131 made from acrylic. The entire puzzlebox was bolted to a cart to ensure the safety
132 of animals and experimenters and to assist in transport.

133

134 Chimpanzees were tested at an observation 'window' in the outdoor corrals. This
135 was 1(h) x 1.93 (w)m and covered with bars 51mm apart. Subjects were able to
136 reach through the bars and operate the puzzlebox, which was located outside the
137 enclosure. When first presented to them, the puzzlebox was novel to all animals

138 in the group, although the required actions were similar to those displayed by
139 the chimpanzees when presented with other puzzleboxes (e.g. Whiten et al.,
140 2007). The actions required to solve the puzzlebox were, therefore, likely to be in
141 the repertoire, or similar to actions in the repertoire, of the chimpanzees. In
142 Experiment 2, individual demonstrator training took place in the indoor
143 enclosures of the chimpanzee facility as described below.

144

145 *(ii) Children and capuchins.* The puzzlebox used with capuchins and children was
146 constructed in the same way as the chimpanzee puzzlebox, except that the doors
147 did not require a veneer of steel. This puzzlebox measured 540 (l) x 180 (h) x
148 190(w) mm. The doors measured 120(w) x 115(h) mm each and, when closed,
149 were 140mm from the end of the puzzlebox. The buttons measured 30(l) x
150 5(w)mm and were positioned 75mm from each end of the puzzlebox. The dials
151 were 50mm in diameter and were positioned 90mm from the bottom of the
152 puzzlebox and 45mm from each end.

153

154 For the capuchins, the puzzlebox was placed outside of the outdoor enclosure
155 with capuchins being able to reach through the 50mm² mesh to reach and
156 manipulate it.

157

158 For the children, the puzzlebox was positioned on a table and children were
159 instructed before the start of the first trial where in the room they were allowed
160 to walk. If necessary a barrier of chairs prevented the children walking directly
161 behind the puzzlebox, in order to ensure they did not gain visual access to the
162 mechanisms under the control of the experimenter.

163

164 When in use, the experimenter sat behind the puzzlebox to reset and re-bait the
165 box with the rewards. The experiments were filmed with a Sony Handicam DCR-
166 HC27E, which was positioned behind the experimenter for the chimpanzee and
167 capuchin trial and to one side of the box in the children trials.

168

169 ***Procedure***

170

171 *Reward preference testing*

172 Prior to the experiment, food preference testing was carried out with the
173 chimpanzees and capuchins in order to establish suitable low-, mid- and high-
174 level rewards. In the case of the chimpanzees, initial trials utilised food identified
175 in previous food preference trials carried out by Brosnan et al. (Brosnan SF,
176 Talbot C, Ahlgren M, Lambeth SP & Schapiro SJ 2010 *Animal Behaviour* 79, 1229-
177 1237; Brosnan, pers. comm.). Each chimpanzee group was tested with a separate
178 food preference test. Testing occurred when chimpanzee groups were allowed
179 back into their indoor enclosures following husbandry procedures. Half a kilo of
180 three foods, *(i)* grapes, and grape-sized pieces of *(ii)* carrots, and *(iii)* apples -
181 were each separately placed in four piles, totalling 12 piles of food spaced evenly,
182 in a randomised order, across the floor of the enclosure. The food first consumed
183 by each subject in the group was recorded, as well as the order in which the four
184 piles of food were completely consumed. This was repeated three times with
185 every experimental group prior to the commencement of the experimental trials.

186

187 The capuchin food preference testing exploited the fact that the capuchins were
188 previously trained to exchange items and have been involved in experiments in
189 which they choose between two options offered to them by an experimenter.
190 Whilst the group were freely associating in their outdoor enclosure, individuals
191 were presented with two foods (from carrot, apple and grape) and were allowed
192 to choose one food, which they were able to consume. The order of food
193 presentation and the hands in which foods were presented was randomised over
194 time. Due to dominance in the group, some individuals received more tests than
195 others as they displaced the focal individual, however, eighteen (81%) of the
196 population each received at least five food preference tests.

197

198 In both chimpanzees and capuchins we observed an unambiguous pattern of
199 preference, with grape being deemed most desirable, then apple, then carrot.

200

201 Children were given stickers as rewards, as is common in developmental
202 psychology studies (e.g. Herrmann et al., 2007). Prior to the experimental
203 sessions the children were told that during the game they might get stickers,
204 although they were not told that these rewards would come from the puzzlebox.

205 A pilot study with five children, none of whom took part in the main experiment,
206 was conducted; in this study children were asked to stick a range of stickers on a
207 piece of paper in order of desirability. Stickers were chosen for the main
208 experiment that appeared in the hierarchies in the same order in the pilot,
209 regardless of the exact rank each child gave the sticker. Experimental groups
210 were told the order of desirability of stickers with small stars being bettered by

211 large stars, which were, in turn, bettered by stickers displaying a smiling face and
212 a glittery background.

213

214 *Experiment 1*

215 (i) Chimpanzees

216 All trials were one hour in duration and were conducted in the morning between
217 9am and 12pm. Trials were conducted at least 30 minutes after the usual
218 morning feed of vegetables and fruit and before the provision of the chow feed.
219 The exact timing of the trials was randomised to control for feeding motivation
220 of animals throughout the morning. In four instances early termination of testing
221 was required, due to malfunctioning of the puzzlebox or a security breach. All
222 groups were exposed to the puzzlebox for a total of 30 hours.

223

224 The trials were conducted from August to October 2007, and from August 2008
225 to January 2009. One trial, per group, was conducted per day as frequently as
226 practicable.

227

228 The procedure differed across two conditions, designed to examine the
229 importance of satisficing and conservatism (hypothesis 8, Table S5), by
230 controlling the protocol in which rewards are given.

231

232 *"Open" Condition*

233 Two groups ($N=8$ & $N=10$) were presented with the puzzlebox with food
234 provided at all stages. Individuals were able to manipulate the puzzlebox to any
235 stage and receive the food reward at that level. If an individual successfully

236 opened the puzzlebox to stage three then all manipulandi were immediately
237 reset and the food tubes restocked. However, if animals performed unsuccessful
238 manipulations or successfully manipulated the box and opened stage one or two
239 then two minutes after the initial manipulation all manipulandi were reset and
240 the food tubes restocked.

241

242 *"Scaffolded" Condition*

243 Two groups ($N=8$ & $N=7$) were presented with regulated access to parts of the
244 puzzlebox. Here, the dial and buttons of the task were shielded, using guards,
245 such that the subjects could only gain access to the stage one doors. When 75%
246 of the group had successfully manipulated the doors of the puzzlebox at least five
247 times in a trial (a criteria judged as indicating 'learning' of the technique), the
248 guards covering the button manipulandi for stage 2 were removed. At this point
249 the reward was removed from stage 1, thus animals must successfully
250 manipulate stage 2 (having manipulated stage one with no reward) to receive a
251 reward. This procedure was to be repeated in transition of individuals from
252 stage two to stage three of the puzzlebox. As with the open condition, the
253 manipulandi were returned to their original positions two minutes after they
254 were first manipulated unless individuals solved the puzzlebox to the maximum
255 level possible at the time and had received a food reward, in which case the
256 puzzlebox was immediately reset.

257

258 (ii) Capuchins

259 Two, one hour, trials were conducted daily with a total of 53 trials over two time
260 periods (November to December 2007 and June 2008). The first trial was

261 conducted in late morning (starting 10.30-11am) and the second trial in the
262 afternoon (starting 1.30-2.30pm) with no less than 90 minutes between trials.
263 The capuchin group was tested using the scaffolded condition only.

264

265 (iii) Children

266 Each group received five trials of 30 minutes each, with one trial per day, with a
267 space of one to three days between trials. In accordance with the testing context
268 for the non-human primates, the children were allowed to leave the room and
269 return to their classroom at any time. The stickers that individuals collected
270 were placed in an opaque cup that they were allowed to carry with them. This
271 allowed the stickers to be stored in one discrete place, but also allowed limited
272 visual access by other members of the group, making it less likely they could
273 assess the skill of another individual from results alone, in the same manner as
274 non-humans would eat the food rewards they received. Four groups were tested
275 in the open condition and four in the scaffolded condition, with conditions
276 balanced across the three nurseries.

277

278 *Experiment 2*

279 Four groups of chimpanzees took part in the second experiment. From each of
280 these groups a female was isolated and trained to use the puzzlebox to access
281 stage three reliably, rapidly and consistently. In two groups ($N=13$ and 8) a high-
282 ranking female demonstrator was trained whilst in two groups ($N=11$ and 9) a
283 low-ranking female demonstrator was trained. Females were chosen as
284 demonstrators as they can be isolated more easily and reintroduced to the group
285 with less aggression, and they tend to concentrate for longer during training

286 sessions (Whiten A, Horner V & DeWaal F, 2005. Conformity to cultural norms of
287 tool use in chimpanzees. *Nature* 437, 737-740). Demonstrators of different rank
288 were used to assess whether there was a difference in the spread of a cumulative
289 innovation depending upon the rank of the 'innovator'.

290

291 During demonstrator training, tutee demonstrators observed demonstrations by
292 the experimenter and the trainer at the facility. Rewards were handed to the
293 chimpanzee once the trainer had demonstrated how to get to the stage. In
294 addition further rewards, where necessary, including fruit, yoghurt and peanut
295 butter, were placed on the button and dial of the puzzlebox to scaffold learning.
296 Training sessions never took more than 20 minutes and the animals were then
297 reintroduced carefully back into their groups to avoid any violence towards
298 them. Animals were judged to have learned to use the puzzlebox when they
299 could reach stage three on six successive attempts, for three trials all of which
300 were conducted on different days.

301

302 The trials in the second experiment were three hours in duration, each group
303 receiving eight trials, which were randomised between morning (8.30-11.30am)
304 and afternoon (2-5pm) sessions. One trial was conducted per day over two
305 weeks with a space between trials of one to three days. During trials a maximum
306 of one small feed of vegetables and fruit was given by the care staff. This was
307 insufficient to satiate the subjects or distract them for more than approximately
308 five minutes.

309

310 In two groups, one with a low-ranking demonstrator and one with a high-
311 ranking demonstrator, rewards were available at all levels for the first four trials
312 and in the subsequent four trials there was food only available at the final stage.
313 In the other two groups rewards were only available at the final stage for the
314 first four trials and were available at all stages for the next four. This reward
315 regime replicated the manipulation of 'open' and 'scaffolded' conditions in
316 Experiment 1, but within rather than between subjects.

317

318 *Demonstrator performance*

319 All trained chimpanzee demonstrators solved the task consistently during the
320 open diffusion trials, giving a mean of 150.9 (standard error \pm 20.4)
321 demonstrations reaching stage three per trial.

322

323 *Data Collection*

324 All data were coded from the video taken during the experimental trials. A
325 second observer coded 2% of the data coded in each species. Inter-observer
326 reliabilities were >94% for all recorded behaviour. All occurrences sampling was
327 used to record each time an individual contacted the puzzlebox, and each
328 unsuccessful and successful manipulation of the functionally relevant parts
329 (stage 1-3) of the puzzlebox. Unsuccessful and successful manipulations were
330 defined as those in which an individual did not and did retrieve a food reward,
331 respectively. In each case the identity of the individual interacting with the
332 puzzlebox was recorded as was the identity of the individuals in proximity to the
333 puzzlebox (defined as an area of 1.5m around the puzzlebox) when the events
334 occurred. In addition, the latency at which all individuals arrived and left the

335 area defined as proximity was recorded. Any aggression (defined as any
 336 interaction in which one individual struck another, displayed or exhibited an
 337 aggression face) or scrounging (defined as one individual removing food from
 338 the hand of another individual or from the puzzlebox before the individual who
 339 opened the door retrieved it) that took place within the area in proximity was
 340 recorded.

341

342 Table S4: The definitions of codes and additional clarifications that were coded from the video.
 343 Inter-observer reliability was calculated from both the code and additional comments combined.

Code	Additional comments noted	Definition
Contact	The area of the puzzlebox (e.g. 'left door' or 'top').	An individual touches the puzzlebox, but does not operate any of the moving parts of the puzzlebox.
Unsuccessful manipulation	Right/ left door	An individual opens the right/left door in the two minutes before the food reward has been replaced and therefore receives no food reward.
	Down on right/left The method of pushing the button (i.e. pushing with hands or biting)	An individual pushes on the down button on the right/left after another individual has pressed it, but before it has been reset.
	Up on right/left The method of pushing the button (i.e. pushing with hands or biting)	An individual pushes on the up button on the right/left after another individual has pressed it, but before it has been reset.
	Dial on right/left The method of turning the dial (i.e. red or blue hole)	An individual turns the dial after another individual.
Successful manipulation	Right/ left door. Stage to which door is pushed. Note whether the individual takes the food or not	An individual pushes the door open to reveal a reward.
	Up on right/left. The method of pushing the button (i.e. pushing with hands or biting)	An individual either pushes the up button or bites the button, unlocking the second stage of the puzzlebox.
	Down on right/left. The method of pushing the button (i.e. pushing with hands or biting)	An individual either pushes the down button or bites the button, unlocking the second stage of the puzzlebox.
	Dial on right/left. The method of turning the dial (i.e. red or blue hole)	An individual turns the dial to unlock the third stage of the puzzlebox.
Altruism	Identity of individual that donates reward and individual that receives it.	An individual gives a reward it has obtained from the puzzlebox to another individual.
Aggression	Identity of individual	Any interaction in which one individual strikes

	perpetrating aggression and those being attacked.	another, displays or exhibits an aggression face.
Scrounging	Identity of the scrounger and the victim	An individual removes food from the hand of another individual or from the puzzlebox before the individual who opened the door retrieves it.
Teaching	Method of teaching (i.e. verbal, gestural or a mixture)	An individual produces a gesture or vocalisation (or both) that functions to facilitate learning in another individual by imparting knowledge about the solutions to the puzzlebox.
Vocalisation		<i>Non-human primates:</i> an individual produces a food call (as defined in capuchins by Fragaszy et al., 2004 and chimpanzees by Slocombe & Zuberbühler, 2005).
	<i>Children:</i> The words spoken by the individual or a description of the vocalisation if non-verbal.	<i>Children:</i> an individual produces a vocalisation, either a verbal or non-verbal.

344

345 *Analyses*

346 All analyses were carried out using the *R* statistics package (R-Development-
347 Core-Team). The data were tested for normality using a Shapiro’s test and non-
348 parametric tests were used only where the assumptions of parametric tests were
349 violated. Below we provide further detail, where necessary, detailing how the
350 eight hypotheses outlined, in the main text, were evaluated.

351

352 To allow greater resolution in the assessment of the performance of individuals,
353 rather than analysing data on a 0-3 scale based upon the puzzlebox stage the
354 individual achieved, a species-specific ‘achievement rank’ was calculated for each
355 individual. The ‘achievement rank’ ranks individuals first upon the stage that
356 they achieved and differentiates further between individuals by the number of
357 times they successfully manipulated the puzzlebox at that stage. In the case of a
358 tie at this point, the number of successful manipulations performed at previous
359 puzzlebox stages is used to differentiate between the individuals. This has the
360 advantage that it renders the distribution continuous, which is better suited to
361 analyses and affords greater statistical power.

362

363 Table S5: Eight alternative hypotheses specifying why humans, but not other animals possess
 364 cumulative culture and the extent to which each is supported by comparing the performance of
 365 capuchins, chimpanzees and children.

Hypotheses	Capuchins	Chimpanzees	Children	Hypothesis supported?
Social Cognition				
1. A lack of teaching in non-human primates hinders ratcheting (2,6,13)	No direct teaching events. Mother—juvenile-offspring dyads are significantly more likely to have reached a different stage than mother—adult-offspring dyads.	No direct teaching events. Individuals significantly more likely to scrounge from their juvenile offspring than from their mother. No significant difference between the stage reached by mother—juvenile-offspring dyads and mother—adult-offspring dyads	Substantive teaching, with a significant correlation between the number of teaching events received and achievement rank.	Supported
2. Communication in non-human primates is not sufficient to support ratcheting (13).	Few food calls emitted. No increase in recruitment following calls.	Few food calls emitted. No increase in recruitment following calls.	All instances of teaching involve vocalization. Significant correlation between amount of verbal instruction and achievement rank.	Supported
3. Lack of imitation in non-humans hinders ratcheting (1,2,6).	Do not match recently observed actions.	Do not match recently observed actions	Match recently observed actions. Significant correlation between proportion of matching manipulations and achievement rank.	Supported
4. Lack of prosociality in non-humans hinders ratcheting (2,13).	No voluntary donation of rewards.	No voluntary donation of rewards.	Frequent voluntary donation of rewards. Significant relationship between gifts received and achievement rank.	Supported
Social Structure				
5. Scrounging, or being scrounged from, hinders learning (20).	No correlation between scrounging and achievement rank. Positive correlation between number of times scrounged from and achievement rank.	Positive correlation between scrounging, and number of times scrounged from, and achievement rank.	Positive correlation between scrounging, and number of times scrounged from, and achievement rank.	Not supported
6. Dominants monopolise resources preventing low rankers from gaining access to the task (17).	Dominant individuals use the puzzlebox significantly more than low rankers in 2007, but not in 2008.	Low and mid rankers use the puzzlebox significantly more than high rankers.	No significant difference between the number of manipulations performed by low and high rankers	Not supported
7. Lack of attention to low rankers and/or juveniles hinders diffusion (18,19).	No significant difference between the amount of attention paid to individuals of different rank or age.	No significant difference between the amount of attention paid to individuals of different rank or age.	No significant difference between the amount of attention paid to individuals of different rank.	Not supported
Non-Social Cognition				
8. Non-human animals are conservative and satifce (8,16).	Individuals perform a significant number of non-conservative manipulations.	Receiving rewards at all stages does not hinder performance relative to scaffolded condition. Individuals perform a significant number of non-conservative manipulations.	Receiving rewards at all stages does not hinder performance relative to scaffolded condition. Individuals perform a significant number of non-conservative manipulations.	Not supported

366

367 ***Additional methods for hypothesis testing***

368

369 Hypothesis 1

370 *A lack of teaching in non-human primates hinders the spread of cumulative*

371 *innovations throughout the population*

372 We defined teaching by direct instruction as ‘any instance in which an individual

373 engaged in an act that clearly functioned to facilitate learning in another

374 individual’, in this instance by imparting knowledge about the solutions to the

375 puzzlebox task. In the capuchins and chimpanzees we went on to consider more

376 subtle forms of ‘teaching’, such as *scaffolding*, defined as facilitating learning in

377 others through acting in a manner that functions to draw attention to the task or

378 rewards, or create learning opportunities for others. We specifically considered

379 scaffolding afforded by tolerated theft by comparing the frequency of food

380 transfer from mothers to juveniles to that from juveniles to mothers.

381

382 Hypothesis 2

383 *Communication insufficient to support ratcheting*

384 With regard to the analysis of the recruitment potential of food-calls, we

385 computed the rate (arrivals/min) of animals entering proximity to the task in the

386 two minutes following an individual in proximity emitting a food call, and

387 compared this to the baseline rate of individuals entering proximity throughout

388 the trial. In children, we compared the success of individuals who had received

389 verbal instruction with those that had not.

390

391 Hypothesis 3

392 *Lack of imitation or other complex forms of social learning in non-humans hinders*
393 *the spread of cumulative innovations throughout the population*

394 To test whether observational learning played any role in the acquisition of
395 solutions to the puzzlebox, we examined whether individuals manipulated the
396 box in a matching manner, either because they copied the actions of others at the
397 puzzlebox (i.e. imitation) or because they made the same parts of the box move
398 in the same way (object-movement re-enactment, emulation). As physical access
399 to the puzzlebox was often blocked when other individuals were interacting with
400 it, the analysis determined whether an individual matched the manipulations of
401 another individual who had been manipulating the puzzlebox immediately prior
402 to their manipulation. As there was little progression beyond stage 1 in
403 experiment 1 with the chimpanzees, this analysis was carried out using data
404 from the second experiment, utilising those occasions when a skilled
405 demonstrator left the proximity of the task and another individual manipulated
406 the puzzlebox, provided both the demonstrator and observer had been in
407 proximity to the puzzlebox for at least a minute. For the capuchins, analysis
408 focussed on occasions where individuals skilled at stage two left the puzzlebox,
409 after having been observed by another individual in proximity for at least one
410 minute, and who went on to contact the puzzlebox in the subsequent minute. As
411 children left the puzzlebox less frequently than other species, all instances of
412 skilled children leaving the puzzlebox were considered until a time at which all
413 individuals in the group had learned to open stage three. Once again, we focused
414 on occasions where the first child had been observed by another child in
415 proximity for at least one minute, and where the second child went on to contact
416 the puzzlebox in the subsequent minute. In all cases, all classes of manipulations

417 by the 'demonstrator' (e.g. slide left door to left, push left upper button etc) were
 418 recorded in the minute preceding it leaving the puzzlebox, and all manipulations
 419 by the observer in the subsequent minute were recorded. Those manipulations
 420 that matched those performed by the demonstrator were classified as 'matching',
 421 while those that had not been performed by the demonstrator were classified as
 422 'non-matching' (Table S6).

423

424 Table S6: Actions performed by a demonstrator and the actions that were classed as matching if
 425 performed by an observer after observing that demonstrators action. All other actions were
 426 classified as non-matching.

Demonstrator's action	Matching actions
Contact puzzlebox (+ location on box touched)	Contact puzzlebox (+ same location on puzzlebox)
Unsuccessful/Successful right door	Contact right door: <i>touches but does not move door</i>
	Unsuccessful right door: <i>opens right door before it has been reset</i>
	Successful right door: <i>opens right door</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful left door	Contact left door: <i>touches left door but does not move door</i>
	Unsuccessful left door: <i>opens left door before it has been reset</i>
	Successful left door: <i>opens left door</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful down button on right (+method of pushing the button- i.e. pushing button with hands or biting)	Contact down on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>touches but does not move down button on right, using the same method</i>
	Unsuccessful down on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes down on right, but before it has been reset, using same method</i>
	Successful down on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes down on right, using the same method</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful down button on left (+method of pushing the button- i.e. pushing button with hands or biting)	Contact down on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>touches but does not move down button on left, using the same method</i>
	Unsuccessful down on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes down on left, but before it has been reset, using same method</i>
	Successful down on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes down on left, using the same method</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful up button on right (+method of pushing the button- i.e. pushing button with hands or biting)	Contact up on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>touches but does not move up button on right, using the same method</i>
	Unsuccessful up on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes up on right, but before it has been reset, using same method</i>

	Successful up on right (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes up on right, using the same method</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful up button on left (+method of pushing the button- i.e. pushing button with hands or biting)	Contact up on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>touches but does not move up button on left, using the same method</i>
	Unsuccessful up on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes up on left, but before it has been reset, using same method</i>
	Successful up on left (+ same method of pushing the button): <i>pushes up on left, using the same method</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful dial on right (+method of turning the dial- i.e. red or blue hole)	Contact dial on right (+same method of turning the dial): <i>touches but does not move the dial on right</i>
	Unsuccessful dial on right (+same method of turning the dial): <i>turns dial on right after another individual, using the same method</i>
	Successful dial on right (+same method of turning the dial): <i>turns dial on right after another individual, using the same method</i>
Unsuccessful/Successful dial on left (+method of turning the dial- i.e. red or blue hole)	Contact dial on left (+same method of turning the dial): <i>touches but does not move the dial on left</i>
	Unsuccessful dial on left (+same method of turning the dial): <i>turns dial on left after another individual, using the same method</i>
	Successful dial on left (+same method of turning the dial): <i>turns dial on left after another individual, using the same method</i>

427

428 To measure whether social learning was occurring at the first stage, we used
429 option-bias analysis (Kendal, R.L., Kendal, J.R., Hoppitt, W. & Laland, K.N. 2009.
430 Identifying Social Learning in Animal Populations: A New 'Option-Bias' Method.
431 *PLoSOne* 4(8): e6541) at the level of opening left door or opening right door,
432 testing whether individuals in a group were more likely to use one option
433 (opening one door), more than the other, which is likely to occur if social
434 learning is occurring. This method is more powerful than conventional
435 inferential statistics (Kendal et al., 2009).

436

437 Hypothesis 4

438 *Lack of prosociality in non-humans hinders the spread of cumulative cultural traits*

439 We recorded the number of altruistic events performed by each individual,
440 defining an altruistic event as any instance in which an individual voluntarily
441 gives a reward of any stage, accessed by themselves, to another individual.

442

443 Hypothesis 6 and 7

444 *Dominant individuals monopolise resources hindering lower ranking individuals*
445 *from gaining access, thereby limiting the number of individuals with the chance to*
446 *solve the task. Lack of attention to low-ranking and/or juvenile individuals hinders*
447 *learning from potentially skilled sections of the population*

448

449 Individuals were divided into rank categories, high, medium and low for
450 chimpanzees and capuchins and high and low for children. For chimpanzees
451 ranks were based upon data that had been previously gathered on aggression
452 during reintroductions and on feeding priority. Capuchin data were gathered on
453 displacement rates at a single monopolisable food source. Child data were
454 gathered by asking teachers to rank pupils on a scale of most socially dominant-
455 least socially dominant and bold-shy.

456

457 Hypothesis 8

458 *Non-human animals are conservative and satisfice, such that once they have a*
459 *solution that rewards them they do not change it*

460 We compared the performance of individuals in the open and scaffolded
461 conditions in experiment 1, in both the children and chimpanzees. (As we only
462 had access to one capuchin group, we were unable to make this comparison in
463 the capuchins). We reasoned that, if individuals do satisfice then individuals in

464 the scaffolded condition should manipulate the puzzlebox more at higher stages
465 than individuals in the open condition, since the latter would still be receiving
466 rewards at the lowest stage, and be inhibited from further learning. Expectations
467 for the rate of manipulating each part of the apparatus were derived from
468 performance in early trials. For the chimpanzees, the manipulations in the first
469 three trials after the scaffolded groups had stopped receiving a reward at a lower
470 stage were compared to the same time period in the open condition. For the
471 children, the first 10 minutes of the trial in which individuals in the scaffolded
472 groups did not receive rewards, at the lower stages, any more were compared to
473 the same time period in the open condition.

474

475 **Additional Results**

476 *General performance*

477 In experiment 1, following 30 hours of presentation of the cumulative puzzlebox,
478 in 1-hr sessions, to each of the four groups of chimpanzees, only a single
479 individual in a single group reached stage 3. In the same group and one other
480 group, a single individual reached stage 2, in a third group two individuals
481 reached stage 2, whilst the remaining group witnessed multiple solvers at stage
482 1, but not at higher levels. Likewise, in groups with trained demonstrators
483 (experiment 2), although multiple individuals solved stage 1, the solutions to
484 stages 2&3 did not spread. Thus the experiments provide no evidence for
485 cumulative cultural learning in any chimpanzee group, including in experiment 2,
486 where trained demonstrators performed stages 1-3 proficiently. The
487 chimpanzees were clearly capable of solving the apparatus at higher stages
488 (stage 2-3), as witnessed by the performance of innovative individuals in three

489 groups, as well as the trained demonstrators, but in no group is there any
490 evidence that these solutions spread to a second individual. A virtually identical
491 pattern is observed in the capuchins, where after 53 hours (year 1: 28, year 2:
492 25), no individual reached stage 3, whilst only two individuals reached stage 2,
493 and the majority of individuals solved only stage 1. These findings stand in stark
494 contrast to those of the children, where despite a far shorter exposure to the
495 apparatus (2.5 hours), five of the eight groups had at least two individuals (out of
496 maximum 5) who reached stage 3, with multiple solvers at stage 2 in all these
497 groups, providing clear and strong evidence for a cumulative cultural capability.
498 Of the groups not reaching stages 2 & 3, two expressed little interest in the box,
499 whilst in the third the children initially exhibited interest, leading to widespread
500 stage 1 solutions, before interest waned (see below for discussion).

501

502

503 Hypothesis 1

504 Figure S2A shows that we observed substantially greater rates of tolerated theft
505 of extracted food by mothers from offspring than vice-versa in chimpanzees
506 (*Wilcoxon* $W=16$, $P=0.026$) and no tolerated theft in mother-infant pairs of
507 capuchins.

508

509 Hypothesis 2

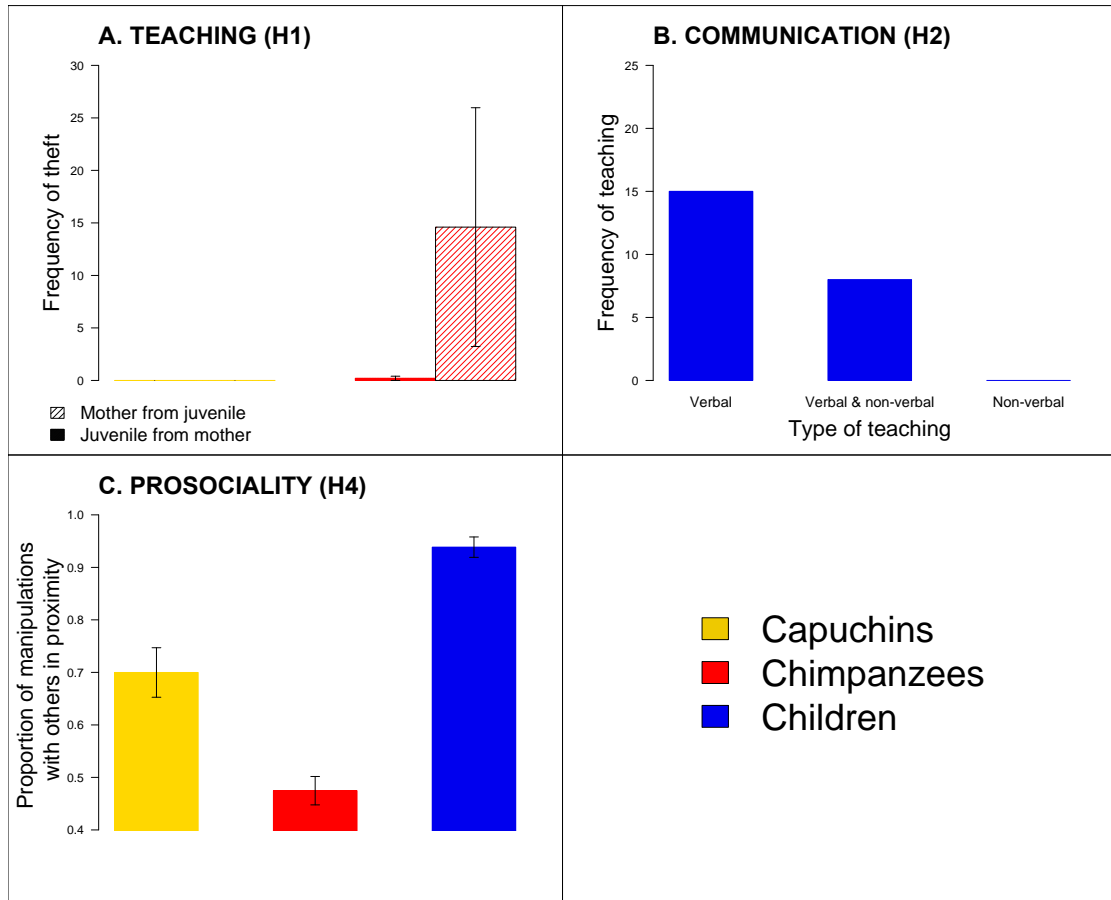
510 All teaching events by children involved verbal instruction and approximately
511 one third involved gesture (Figure S2B).

512

513

514
515
516

Figure S2. Additional analyses.



517
518
519
520

521 Hypothesis 3

522 Using the option-bias method, there was no evidence of social learning of door
523 choice (left vs right) in capuchins (*Option bias* $\chi^2= 546.5, P=1$). However, there
524 was evidence of social learning by chimpanzees in experiment one at the level of
525 door choice, that is, stage 1 (*Option bias* $\chi^2= 941.6, P= 0.021$). Combined with the
526 lack of evidence for cumulative cultural learning in chimpanzees, and the low
527 levels of matching at higher stages, these findings support the view that
528 chimpanzees are capable of social transmission but not cumulative culture.

529

530 Hypothesis 4

531 A greater proportion of the manipulations by children were at the same time as
532 another individual than either chimpanzees or capuchins (*Kruskal-Wallis*
533 $\chi^2=39.56, df=2, P<.001$; Figure S2C).

534

535 Hypothesis 5

536 There was no evidence that scrounging negatively affected the performance of
537 either those individuals scrounging or those that were victims of scrounging. In
538 capuchins there was no significant correlation between the number of times an
539 individual scrounged from another and their achievement rank (*Spearman's*
540 *Rank Correlation: rho=0.34, S=1170.5, P=0.12*). Achievement rank in
541 chimpanzees was positively correlated with the number of scrounging events an
542 individual perpetrated (*Spearman's Rank Correlation: rho= 0.41, S=35466.2,*
543 *P=0.0005*). The achievement rank of children was significantly positively
544 correlated with the number of times an individual scrounged from others
545 (*Spearman's Rank Correlation: rho= 0.84, S=1165.90, P<0.001*).

546

547 Hypothesis 8:

548 We found no evidence that non-human animals are conservative and satisfice,
549 such that once they have a solution that rewards them they do not change it.
550 There were two capuchins that got to stage 2, thus suggesting that not all
551 individuals act conservatively (i.e. remained at level 1). Across the entire
552 population the number of non-conservative manipulations (that is,
553 manipulations different from the first solution) performed by individuals
554 (mean= 39.94 standard error= 22.41) was significantly different to zero (*Mann-*
555 *Whitney test: U=78, P=0.002*). Likewise, analysing whether chimpanzees act

556 conservatively after they have learned to get to the first stage reveals that
557 individuals do not always act conservatively. Across the populations the number
558 of non-conservative manipulations performed by individuals (mean= 76.71 non-
559 conservative actions, standard error= 42.37) was significantly different to zero
560 (*Mann-Whitney test: U=253, P<0.001*).

561

562 Children did performed a significantly larger proportion of non-conservative
563 actions (mean=0.34) than chimpanzees (mean=0.06) or capuchins (mean=0.18)
564 (*Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=6.60, df=2, P=0.037$*). Whilst this might be interpreted as a
565 difference in the conservative tendencies of the three species, other
566 interpretations are possible. For instance, the elevated number of non-
567 conservative actions performed by the children likely represents their elevated
568 performance in general, which requires a degree of non-conservative behaviour,
569 and hence may be attributable to the socio-cognitive processes discussed in the
570 main text.

571

572 **Results indicating that capuchins and chimpanzees recognised that the**
573 **higher quality resources were superior to the lower quality resources.**

574 In the pre-experiment food preference trial, capuchins showed a clear preference
575 for grapes over apples and over carrots. During the trials a higher proportion of
576 stage one rewards (carrot) were able to be scrounged than stage two (apple)
577 rewards (*Wilcoxon W=103, P=0.003*).

578

579 Pre-trial testing revealed that chimpanzees preferred grapes to apples and
580 apples to carrots. This supplemented other sources which also concluded this

581 order of food preference (Brosnan, pers. comm.). During the trials there was no
582 significant difference between the proportion of food that individuals allowed to
583 be scrounged at each stage (*Kruskal Wallis*: $\chi^2=1.05$, $df=2$, $P=0.59$). There were
584 29 instances of 'termiting' behaviour in which individuals probed the olfactory
585 holes in the puzzlebox doors with small sticks or grass. There was at least one
586 instance of this behaviour in seven of the eight groups (mean=3.63 instances per
587 group, standard error= 1.16), with all instances occurring at the highest stage
588 that was stocked with food.

589

590 Pre-trial testing revealed that children consistently preferred smiley face
591 stickers to large stars to small stars. During the trials the proportions of rewards
592 found that were stolen at stage one (mean=0.20, standard error=0.031) and
593 stage two (mean=0.17, standard error=0.027) were significantly greater to the
594 proportion of the rewards found that were stolen at stage three (mean=0.09,
595 standard error=0.03) (*Kruskal-Wallis*: $\chi^2= 6.88$, $df= 2$, $P=0.032$).

596

597 **Failure of 2 groups of children to interact with the cumulative task**

598 There was a notable finding with the children that in one group of children no
599 participants solved the puzzlebox and another group, in the scaffolded condition,
600 did not qualify as having solved the first stage to progress to the second stage.
601 These results contrast markedly with other species in which all but one of the
602 chimpanzees and 15 out of 22 capuchins learned to solve stage one. Shyness in
603 children of an unfamiliar experimenter and neophobia of the puzzlebox may
604 partially account for the lack of manipulations in some individuals, but are
605 unlikely to account for a group-level effect. In contrast to the chimpanzees and

606 capuchins studied, who live in colonies that regularly take part in a range of
607 extractive foraging experiments the children had not taken part in similar
608 experiments. Whilst shyness or neophobia are individual traits, a group
609 conformity effect may operate, whereby if one child does not step forward and
610 operate the puzzlebox, others will also refrain from doing so, and/or anxiety may
611 spread socially. This lack of solving in these two groups of children may,
612 therefore, also be due to the same socio-cognitive processes responsible for the
613 increased ability to solve the puzzlebox, with children operating as a group and
614 observing the performance of other individuals around them.

615

616 This conclusion is supported by the observation that, in one of the groups,
617 children engaged in a game, which was invented after one child dropped the cup
618 he had been given to store stickers during the first trial. This became known as
619 the 'cup game' among the group and consisted of throwing the cup, following it
620 and recovering it. Following its invention the game spread to all group members,
621 distracting them from the puzzlebox and providing a new social activity during
622 the trials.