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5 **Studying animal innovation at the individual level: A ratings-based**  
6 **assessment in capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus [Cebus] sp.*)**

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### **Author Note**

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### Abstract

Large-scale studies of individual differences in animal innovation are rare firstly because discovery behaviour itself is often rare, and secondly because of logistical difficulties associated with obtaining observational data on a large number of innovative individuals across multiple groups and locations. Here we take a different approach, using observer ratings to study innovative behaviour in 127 brown capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus [Cebus] sp.*) from 15 social groups and 7 facilities. Capuchins were reliably rated by 1 to 7 raters (mean  $3.2 \pm 1.6$  raters/monkey) on a 7-point Likert scale for levels of innovative behaviour, task motivation, sociality, and dominance. In a subsample, we demonstrate these ratings are valid: rated innovation predicted performance on a learning task, rated motivation predicted participation in the task, rated dominance predicted social rank based on win/loss aggressive outcomes, and rated sociality predicted the time that monkeys spent in close proximity to others. Across all 127 capuchins, individuals that were rated as being more innovated were significantly younger, more social, and more motivated to engage in tasks. Sociality, task motivation, and age all had independent effects on innovativeness, whereas sex, dominance and group size were non-significant. Our findings are consistent with long-term behavioural observations of innovation in wild white-faced capuchins. Observer ratings may therefore be a valid tool for studies of animal innovation, and our findings highlight in particular several possible scenarios through which innovative behaviour might be selected for among capuchins.

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### Introduction

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Some species have a proclivity towards behavioural innovation, in which members of those species use new or modified behaviours to solve new or existing problems (Lee, 1991; Reader & Laland, 2003). Innovation has significant links with intelligence (Lee & Therriault, 2013; Ramsey, Bastian, & van Schaik, 2007), species differences in brain size (Lefebvre, 2013; Lefebvre, Reader, & Sol, 2004; Reader, 2003; Reader & Laland, 2002), the evolution of tool use and “culture” (Biro et al., 2003; Boesch, 1995; Lefebvre, 2013; Reader, Hager, & Laland, 2011; Tian, Deng, Zhang, & Salmador, 2018), and the breadth of a species’ ecological niche (Ducatez, Clavel, & Lefebvre, 2015; Overington, Griffin, Sol, & Lefebvre, 2011). To date, however, the proximate and ultimate causes that shape innovative behaviour remain largely unknown.

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A range of dispositional and situational factors can play a role in generating innovative behaviour (Amici, Widdig, Lehmann & Majolo, 2019; Brosnan & Hopper, 2014; Griffin & Guez, 2014; Lee, 1991; Lee & Moura, 2015; Moura & Lee, 2004; Ramsey et al., 2007; Reader & Laland, 2003). At its core, however, being “innovative” requires, at the very least, being able to *discover* (implicitly or explicitly) novel or modified behaviours (Ramsey et al., 2007; Reader & Laland, 2003). Unless an animal learns to repeat a discovery, the discovery will likely be lost from the repertoire of the individual, thereby reducing the likelihood of it being detected and hence studied as “an innovation” by researchers. For this reason, large-scale studies on individual differences in animal innovation are relatively few in number firstly because observations on innovative behaviour itself are rare, and secondly

125 because of logistical difficulties associated with observing new innovations across a large,  
126 multi-site sample of individuals, including time, money, and using standardised methods  
127 (Biro et al., 2003; Haslam et al., 2009).

128         Observer ratings may help overcome such limitations. Indeed, a growing number of  
129 studies have shown that observer ratings are a reliable and valid tool for assessing a wide  
130 variety of behaviours and cognitive traits in animals, including primates which are renowned  
131 for their innovative behaviour (Freeman et al., 2013; Freeman & Gosling, 2010; Morton, Lee,  
132 & Buchanan-Smith, 2013; Morton, Lee, Buchanan-Smith, et al., 2013; Morton et al., 2015;  
133 Weiss, Adams, Widdig, & Gerald, 2011; Weiss, Inoue-Murayama, King, Adams, &  
134 Matsuzawa, 2012). Ratings also enable researchers to obtain data on multiple variables across  
135 a large sample of subjects within a reasonable timeframe, with the same definitions and  
136 methods (e.g. 7-point Likert scales) used consistently across observers, locations, and  
137 subjects to facilitate comparability.

138         In the current study, we obtained observer ratings on innovative behaviour within a  
139 large, multi-site sample of captive brown capuchin monkeys (*Sapajus [Cebus] sp.*). To help  
140 explain individual variation in innovative behaviour, we examined six variables (age, sex,  
141 dominance, task motivation, group size, and sociality) often linked to innovation that may  
142 reflect a myriad of reasons why individuals might be innovative, such as individual  
143 differences in personality (Benson-Amram, Weldele, & Holekamp, 2013; Huebner & Fichtel,  
144 2015; Weiss & King, 2015), physiology (Hopper et al., 2014), brain development/decline  
145 (Liao & Scholes, 2017), behavioural ecological niche (Aplin & Morand-Ferron, 2017;  
146 Giraldeau & Lefebvre, 1987; Liker & Bokony 2009), and experience (Henke-von der  
147 Malsburg & Fichtel, 2018). While indeed many other factors may contribute to innovative  
148 behaviour, we opted to limit the number of variables to avoid oversaturating our model.

149           As with any study of animal innovation where subjects cannot be monitored  
150 continuously across their lifespan, it was not possible in the current study to observe and  
151 verify “new” innovations in our capuchins. Thus, to begin to assess the validity of observer  
152 ratings on capuchins’ innovative behaviour, we tested, in a subsample of our capuchins,  
153 whether the ratings could predict a relevant psychological construct *related* to innovative  
154 behaviour, specifically monkeys’ associative learning abilities. Being able to discriminate  
155 novel actions (e.g. exploring foreign objects) and learn associations between those actions  
156 can play an important role in the innovative process (Reader & Laland, 2003). If, for  
157 example, an animal cannot discriminate between novel actions and learn new associations  
158 from those actions, then the chances of making a new discovery (and hence making an  
159 association and repeating the innovation in the future) will be very limited. Under  
160 experimental conditions, animals that are more innovative are also better associative learners  
161 (Overington, Cauchard, Cote, & Lefebvre, 2011; Griffin, Guez, Lermite, & Patience, 2013).  
162 Thus, in the current study, we predicted that “highly innovative” monkeys would have better  
163 associative learning abilities than “less innovative” individuals.

164           To further assess the validity of our observer ratings, we determined whether the same  
165 factors that predicted innovative behaviour across our entire sample of capuchins were  
166 consistent with findings from a 10-year observational study of innovations in wild white-  
167 faced capuchins (*Cebus capucinus*) (Perry, Barrett, & Godoy, 2017). Specifically, we  
168 predicted that, like white-faced capuchins, individual differences in our capuchins’ age and  
169 sociality (defined in terms of the amount of time individuals spent within proximity to others)  
170 would be the single most important predictors of their innovative behaviour, whereas sex and  
171 dominance (defined in terms of avoids, cowers, flees, and supplants) would show minimal,  
172 non-significant effects.

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## Methods

**174 Study sites and subjects**

175           Subjects were 127 captive brown capuchins that were at least 1 year old, belonging to  
176 15 social groups from 5 sites in the United States, 1 site in the UK, and 1 site in France  
177 (Table S1). Across all sites there were 60 males and 67 females. Age ranged from 1 to 40  
178 years and the mean age was 11.0 years ( $SD = 8.9$ ). To test the validity of item ratings,  
179 eighteen of these monkeys were observed at the Living Links to Human Evolution Research  
180 Centre, affiliated with the Royal Zoological Society of Scotland (RZSS), U.K. Further details  
181 of housing and husbandry are provided in the ‘Supplementary Information’ (SI).

**182 Observer ratings**

183           Ratings data come from a previous study (Morton, Lee, Buchanan-Smith, et al.,  
184 2013). Raters consisted of 25 researchers and 3 care staff who had known their subjects for at  
185 least one year. Definitions and scales for observer ratings on capuchins’ innovative  
186 behaviour, sociality, dominance, and task motivation came from items from the Hominoid  
187 Personality Questionnaire (Morton, Lee, Buchanan-Smith, et al., 2013; Weiss et al., 2009).  
188 Each subject was rated by one to seven raters ( $3.2 \pm 1.6$  raters per monkey) on each item based  
189 on the frequency of monkeys’ behaviour on a 1 (absent) to 7 (very common) scale. Ratings  
190 were averaged across raters for each monkey. Measures of innovative behaviour came from  
191 the “innovation” item in the HPQ, which was defined such behaviour as “the subject engages  
192 in new or different behaviours that may involve the use of objects or materials or ways of  
193 interacting with others”. We later asked some of these raters to provide a few examples of  
194 innovative behaviour in their monkeys. For instance, one rater reported that one of their  
195 monkeys was seen on several occasions using a stick to sweep chow from under the fence  
196 into his reach, something others in his group did not do (Leverett and Rossetti, personal  
197 communication). In another instance, a rater reported that one of their female monkeys  
198 would take a piece of wood, break pieces off of it, and then use it to scratch or comb her



199 back, which had not been seen by anyone else in that group (Leverett and Rossetti, personal  
200 communication).

201 Measures of dominance came from the “dominance” item in the HPQ, which was  
202 defined as “the subject is able to displace, threaten, or take food from other individuals; or the  
203 subject may express high status by decisively intervening in social interactions”. Measures of  
204 sociality came from the “sociability” item in the HQP, which was defined as “the subject  
205 seeks and enjoys the company of other individuals and engages in amicable, affable,  
206 interactions with them”. Measures of task motivation came from the “curiosity” item in the  
207 HPQ, which was defined as “the subject has a desire to see or know about objects, devices, or  
208 other individuals; this includes a desire to know about the affairs of other individuals that do  
209 not directly concern the subject”.

210 Of the sample, 121 capuchins were rated by two to seven raters ( $M = 3.35$ ;  $SD =$   
211  $1.57$ ). Two intraclass correlations (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979) were used to determine interrater  
212 reliabilities for subjects rated by at least two raters. The first,  $ICC(3,1)$ , indicates the  
213 reliability of individual ratings. The second,  $ICC(3,k)$ , indicates the reliability of the mean of  
214  $k$  ratings. Collectively, there was high inter-observer agreement across each item per monkey:  
215 dominance [ $ICC(3,1)=0.57$ ,  $ICC(3,k)=0.82$ ], innovation [ $ICC(3,1)=0.57$ ,  $ICC(3,k)=0.82$ ],  
216 sociability [ $ICC(3,1)=0.57$ ,  $ICC(3,k)=0.82$ ], and curiosity [ $ICC(3,1)=0.57$ ,  $ICC(3,k)=0.82$ ]  
217 (from Morton et al. 2013). Since there was no evidence that raters were unreliable, mean  
218 ratings for each item for all 127 monkeys were included in our analyses.

219 Raters’ reliabilities were as good or even better than human studies, as well as other  
220 studies using ratings to examine animal behaviour (e.g. McCrae and Costa, 1987; Freeman  
221 and Gosling, 2010; Gartner et al., 2014). Because our raters passed the ICC reliability  
222 criteria, this also meant that no single rater was significantly biased towards over or under-  
223 rating a given monkey (e.g. if they witness more behaviours compared to the other raters).

224 Indeed, raters were instructed not to discuss their ratings and to make their ratings based on  
225 their *own* observations (not those mentioned by other people). Regarding the innovation  
226 ratings specifically, the Likert scale helped to ensure that raters made their ratings on the  
227 basis of behavioural frequency – not just one-off observations. Ratings data were normally  
228 distributed, not skewed, indicating that ratings were not biased towards raters recalling  
229 particular occasions of striking innovation in some monkeys but not others.

### 230 **Testing the validity of observer ratings**

231 Behavioural data (Table S3) were collected by an independent observer on the 18  
232 capuchin monkeys at Living Links up to a year after those monkeys were rated on items.  
233 These data were used to validate interpretations of behaviour derived from ratings:

234 **Innovative behaviour.** Data on the Living Links capuchins' performances on a  
235 discrimination learning task were used to validate innovative behaviour ratings. While all 18  
236 subjects were given the opportunity to voluntarily participate in the task, 15 of these monkeys  
237 participated. Testing occurred between 15 February 2012 and 1 April 2012, at 12 trials per  
238 session, four sessions per week. Monkeys were tested individually in cubicles to ensure all  
239 animals had the opportunity to engage in testing. The goal of the task was for individuals to  
240 learn the location of a hidden food reward by discriminating between two cups that were  
241 different sizes (details in SI). Learning performance was calculated for each monkey by  
242 dividing the total number of trials they completed correctly by the total number of trials they  
243 underwent, multiplied by 100.

244 **Task motivation.** Motivated animals are, of course, likely to voluntarily participate in  
245 tasks that require them to use their cognitive abilities (Skinner, 1938). Data on rates of  
246 voluntary participation in the learning task (see 'Innovative behaviour' above) were available  
247 for all 18 of the Living Links monkeys and therefore used to validate ratings on task  
248 motivation. Participation was calculated by dividing the number of sessions the monkey

249 engaged in by the total number of session offered to them, multiplied by 100 (Morton, Lee, &  
250 Buchanan-Smith, 2013).

251         **Sociality.** Data on monkeys' time spent in close proximity to other group members  
252 were available on 18 of the Living Links capuchins, and therefore used to validate ratings on  
253 sociality. Capuchins who spend more time in close proximity with other group members are  
254 more sociable; they are more likely to engage in affiliative acts like grooming, food sharing,  
255 and coalitionary support (Morton et al., 2015), which is very typical of wild and captive  
256 capuchins (Ferreira et al., 2006; Fragaszy et al., 2004). Focal observations on all 18 monkeys'  
257 spatial proximity to others were made between May and August, 2011, totalling 3 hours per  
258 individual. Monkeys were sampled evenly between 9:00 and 17:30. Using point sampling  
259 methods (Martin & Bateson, 2007), group members within two body lengths from the focal  
260 were recorded at 1-min intervals for ten minutes per animal per day. On a given point sample,  
261 if no monkey was within two body lengths, the focal was described as "solitary". Scores were  
262 recorded at 1-min intervals and calculated within 10-minute sessions. Monkeys were  
263 observed on rotation across all 19 individuals; meaning, most of the time a given monkey was  
264 observed once a day, but on 20 occasions a monkey was observed more than once. On these  
265 occasions, sampling was separated by at least 21 minutes (M= 220.7 minutes, SD= 160.2  
266 minutes).

267         **Dominance.** To test whether dominance ratings reflect social rank of individuals,  
268 social dominance was determined using data that were available on 18 of the Living Links  
269 capuchins (Morton, Lee, Buchanan-Smith, et al., 2013; Morton et al., 2015) by calculating  
270 David's Scores (DS) using data on win/loss outcomes during monkey's aggressive  
271 interactions (Gammell, De Vries, Jennings, Carlin, & Hayden, 2003). All occurrences of  
272 fighting within the group were recorded while performing focal sampling of individuals  
273 outlined above (see '*Sociality*').

## 274 **Statistical analyses**

275           In the subsample of 18 monkeys used to validate ratings, we used Pearson correlations  
276 to examine relationships between individual differences in item ratings, behaviours, and task  
277 performance. Across the entire sample (N=127 monkeys), age was skewed but normalised  
278 with a log (base=10) transformation. A linear mixed effects model was used to test for  
279 independent effects of age, sex, dominance, task motivation, sociality, and group size on  
280 innovative behaviour. This approach facilitates unbiased linear estimation of coefficients and  
281 robust standard errors that are adjusted for the clustering of animals by including random  
282 effects variance components for social group (intercept) and group size (slope). For this  
283 model, we calculated the percent adjusted  $R^2$  that a particular covariate contributes to the full  
284 model, which we estimated using the leave-one-out method. As our group-id captured  
285 information about location, and group size is a group-level variable, models were fit using  
286 linear mixed models with random intercept for group and random slope for group size. While  
287 bounded between 1 and 7, our dependent variable (innovative behaviour) and our key  
288 independent variables (sociality, task motivation, and dominance) are not discrete. Rather,  
289 because we measured them using a robust multi-rater design where values were averaged  
290 across raters as discussed above, they are continuous variables within the bounds. To bolster  
291 our argument that a linear model is appropriate for these analyses, we performed Shapiro-  
292 Wilk tests for the normality of each of these variables (Royston, 1982), though only our  
293 dependent variable need meet this assumption.

294           All Pearson correlations and log transformations were performed in SPSS 24 (IBM  
295 Corp., Chicago, IL, USA). Multivariate analyses were performed in the latest development  
296 release of R (R Core Team, 2019) using the “lmerTest” library for tests of linear mixed  
297 models (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, and Christensen, 2017).

## 298 **Results**

**299 Validity of observer ratings**

300 Scores on innovative behaviour were significantly and positively related to  
301 performance on the discrimination learning task when all participants were included in the  
302 analysis ( $r=0.598$ ,  $P=0.019$ ,  $N=15$  monkeys) and when only those participants that  
303 participated in  $>80\%$  of sessions were included ( $r=0.787$ ,  $P=0.02$ ,  $N=8$  monkeys). Ratings on  
304 task motivation were significantly and positively related to participation in the novel task  
305 ( $r=0.618$ ,  $P=0.006$ ,  $N=18$  monkeys). Dominance ratings were significantly and positively  
306 related to social rank ( $r=0.833$ ,  $P<0.001$ ,  $N=18$  monkeys). Sociality ratings were significantly  
307 and positively related to the amount of time individuals spent with other group members  
308 ( $r=0.495$ ,  $P=0.037$ ,  $N=18$  monkeys).

**309 Independent effects between innovative behaviour and sociality scores**

310 One monkey was rated by a single rater. Given that ratings for monkeys with more  
311 than one rater were reliable, and that ratings were valid (see above), we included this  
312 individual with the remaining 126 monkeys for the following analysis.

313 A linear mixed effects regression model revealed that across all 127 capuchins,  
314 sociality, motivation to engage in tasks, and age all had independent and significant effects on  
315 innovativeness, whereas sex, dominance, and a random effect of group size did not (Table 1).  
316 Individual differences in innovative behaviour were significantly and positively related to  
317 sociality and task motivation, but negatively related to age (Figure 1).

318 The small amount of variation explained by group size warranted retaining the  
319 covariate in the model as a random effect. We also ran a linear mixed model with an  
320 equivalent specification as our GEE. The variance component associated with "location" was  
321 0.004 which is negligible. The resulting random effects ("Supplementary information")  
322 differed only slightly in magnitude and thus any concern over a location or group bias is  
323 unfounded. With the exception of Dominance, each test resulted in our failure to reject the

324 null that each variable was drawn from an underlying normal distribution. For Dominance,  
325 the deviation from normality is explained by the fact that dominance in these groups was  
326 highly distributed across individuals. Moreover, the shape of the histogram of this variable  
327 (Figure S1 and S2) suggested that it was drawn from an underlying uniform distribution  
328 which is supported by a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Conover, 1971) of uniformity  
329 (statistic=0.149, p-value=0.117) (Table S4). Such deviations might be problematic for the  
330 linear model as an outcome (dependent variable) but it is fine for an independent variable.  
331 Finally, the scatterplots of the dependent variable against the independent variables showed  
332 no observable heteroscedasticity that would indicate a violation of the underlying linearity of  
333 the relationship per the assumptions of the Pearson-product moment correlation or the linear  
334 model estimation.

### 335 **Discussion**

336 We used reliable observer ratings to study innovative behaviour in a large, multi-site  
337 sample of 127 brown capuchins. In a subsample of these capuchins, we show that the ratings  
338 predict real-world behavioural patterns that were independently recorded up to a year later:  
339 scores on innovative behaviour were correlated with performance on an operant learning task,  
340 task motivation scores were correlated with participation in the learning task, dominance  
341 scores were correlated with social rank based on win/loss aggressive outcomes, and sociality  
342 scores were correlated with the amount of time spent with other group members. Across all  
343 127 monkeys, sociality had a significant and positive association with innovative behaviour,  
344 independently of age, sex, dominance, motivation to engage in tasks, and group size. Our  
345 findings for sociality, age, sex, and dominance reflect those reported in wild white-faced  
346 capuchins (Perry et al., 2017), ruling out captivity and methodological limitations of ratings  
347 as likely explanations for our results. Collectively, our findings support the notion that  
348 observer ratings may be a valid tool for studies of animal innovation.

349           As previously discussed, researchers very rarely have the luxury of being able to  
350 follow the same population continuously and across multiple generations to observe and  
351 verify new innovations. Thus, psychometric tasks (e.g. giving animals a puzzle feeder) are  
352 often used as an objective approach to experimentally induce animals to innovate and solve  
353 the novel task (Huebner & Fichtel, 2015; Lee & Therriault, 2013). Such approaches,  
354 however, come with their own limitations. For instance, it can be difficult to establish  
355 whether innovators are *truly* innovative or just more motivated, less distracted, or have better  
356 experience or opportunities to engage in testing than other individuals. For this reason,  
357 psychometric tasks are not necessarily any more objective than observer ratings. Thus, much  
358 like on-going discussions from the animal personality literature (e.g. Freeman et al., 2013),  
359 future studies will likely benefit from using a combination of psychometric and ratings data  
360 to further test convergent validity between methods to study innovation.

361           In a similar vein, the psychological mechanisms that drive innovative behaviour in  
362 capuchins and other animals remain largely unknown (Ramsey et al., 2007). As demonstrated  
363 in a subsample of our monkeys, ratings used in the current study may reflect at least the  
364 associative learning processes related to capuchins' innovative behaviour (Overington,  
365 Cauchard, et al., 2011; Ramsey et al., 2007; Reader, 2003). To better understand the  
366 psychological underpinnings of innovation in capuchins, we encourage future studies to use a  
367 much broader range of tasks varying in complexity and design, particularly those that  
368 measure other types of learning, inhibitory control, and intelligence (Huebner & Fichtel,  
369 2015; Lee & Therriault, 2013). Studies of birds (*Sturnus tristis*), for instance, have shown that  
370 better innovators are better at solving discrimination tasks, but do not perform as well on  
371 reversal tasks, suggesting that associative learning, not flexible learning, is more relevant to  
372 innovation within these animals (Griffin et al., 2013).

373           Regarding our measure of sociality (i.e. time in close proximity to others), Morton et  
374 al. (2016) found that individuals who spend less time in close proximity to the alpha also take  
375 longer to approach food when the alpha is close by, which reflects wild capuchin studies (e.g.  
376 Janson, 1990). In a different study, Morton et al. (2015) found that proximity loads onto the  
377 same factorial component as coalitions, food sharing, and grooming; meaning, at least in  
378 capuchins, all of these more “subtle forms” of sociality simply map onto the same thing:  
379 affiliative behaviour. Nevertheless, future work might consider whether these and other  
380 specific forms of sociality are better predictors of innovativeness, particularly time spent  
381 grooming, sharing food, and watching others while feeding. Using social network analysis  
382 can also provide a multi-dimensional approach to sociality for comparison.

383           Finally, captive animals are unlikely to face the same level of ecological pressure as  
384 in the wild (e.g. no predation risk), and can have a tendency to be more innovative than wild  
385 individuals of the same species (Benson-Amram et al., 2013). Nevertheless, our findings are  
386 consistent with those found in wild capuchin monkeys. Future comparisons between captive  
387 and wild brown capuchins using the same or similar methods can therefore provide  
388 *complimentary* insight into the innovativeness of this species, for instance, in terms of  
389 controlling for factors like inter-group competition and predator vigilance, which might  
390 impact the amount of time wild (but not captive) capuchins can devote to being innovative.

### 391 **Disentangling possible scenarios for the evolution of capuchin innovation**

392           Cognitive traits, including those linked to innovative behaviour, may be advantageous  
393 to animals’ fitness (O’Shea, Serrano-Davies, & Quinn, 2017; Pasquier & Grunter, 2016;  
394 Polo-Cavia & Gomez-Mestre, 2014; Raine & Chittka, 2008; Rutkowska & Adkins-Regan,  
395 2009; Whitfield, Kohler, & Nicholson, 2014), particularly when facing unpredictable  
396 conditions within the environment (Lee & Moura, 2015). Nevertheless, it is difficult to  
397 predict whether or how such pressures might affect the evolution of traits, like innovation,



398 that are themselves plastic. If, for example, plasticity always produces an optimal phenotype,  
399 then genetic variation may be restrained from natural selection, thereby limiting the evolution  
400 of that trait (Foster, 2013). Understanding the evolution of innovation therefore requires  
401 having knowledge about different fitness optima and selective pressures on innovative  
402 behaviour across time and contexts. Our study has identified at least three potential sources of  
403 selective pressure to consider in future studies of brown capuchin innovation, including  
404 sociality, task motivation, and age.

405         Sociality has been linked to better fitness in capuchins within stable groups (Kalbitzer  
406 et al., 2017), but longitudinal, multi-generational data are needed using a direct measure of  
407 fitness (e.g. reproductive success) to determine whether highly innovative and social  
408 individuals have an advantage. We suggest at least two testable scenarios for how sociality  
409 might – under optimal conditions (Foster, 2013) – provide fitness-related benefits to brown  
410 capuchins. Like most group-living primates, capuchins use strategies such as grooming,  
411 coalitions, and food sharing to achieve greater social embeddedness within their group  
412 (Ferreira et al., 2006; Fragaszy et al., 2004; Morton et al., 2015; Tiddi et al., 2012), and being  
413 more social may reduce stress, improve infant survival, provide better access to food and  
414 mating opportunities, and, in turn, lead to better fitness (Kalbitzer et al., 2017; Ostner &  
415 Schulke, 2018; Silk, 2007; Silk, Alberts, & Altmann, 2003; Silk et al., 2009). Thus, a positive  
416 association between innovative behaviour and sociality may arise if, for example, being  
417 innovative enables individuals to concurrently improve their social status within groups  
418 because doing so can result in fitness-related benefits. On the other hand, since sociality is  
419 linked to better fitness, individuals that are more social may simply have better opportunities  
420 in terms of the time and energy they can devote to experiment and engage in learning  
421 compared to less social individuals (Kummer & Goodall 1985). Such opportunities may not  
422 necessarily be used to improve one's social status *per se* (e.g. foraging and self-directed

423 innovativeness). This latter scenario might arise if “being social” is a means through which  
424 capuchins solve an otherwise ecological problem (e.g. resource acquisition and protection  
425 from predators), and in turn, allow more opportunities for innovative behaviour to aid an  
426 individual’s fitness. Examining longitudinal associations between capuchins’ innovative  
427 behaviour, sociality, and direct measures of fitness will help tease apart these and other  
428 possibilities.

429         Motivation is an intrinsic part of innovative behaviour (Lee & Moura, 2015), and task  
430 motivation was positively associated with capuchins’ innovative behaviour independently of  
431 sociality, age, sex, dominance, and group size. While task motivation explained the most  
432 variance in innovative scores, this does not mean that motivation solely explains capuchins’  
433 behaviour, which has been suggested in studies of problem-solving abilities in other animals  
434 (van Horik & Madden, 2016). Rather, task motivation in capuchins appears to play a *partial*  
435 role in their performance, explaining 21.17% of the variance (Table 1). It is unclear whether  
436 capuchins’ motivation to engage in tasks is underpinned by personality, particularly traits like  
437 curiosity and neophobia (Benson-Amram et al., 2013; Kidd & Hayden, 2015; Overington,  
438 Cauchard, et al., 2011). Although our task motivation data were based on an item labelled  
439 ‘curiosity’, scores on this item may simply reflect food-related motivation to engage in  
440 cognitive testing since, indeed, scores on this item were positively correlated with  
441 participation on a task in which participants received food rewards. That being said,  
442 capuchins are naturally curious and readily investigate novel situations (Fragaszy & Adams-  
443 Curtis, 1991; Visalberghi & Guidi, 1998), which likely facilitates innovative behaviour as  
444 well as performance on cognitive tasks in general (Alberti & Witryol, 1994; Gottlieb,  
445 Oudeyer, Lopes, & Baranes, 2013). Thus, delineating possible interactions between task  
446 motivation (a situational effect) and personality (a dispositional effect) is required to better  
447 understand how innovative behaviour is generated within this species.

448           Age had a significant and independent effect on capuchins' innovativeness, whereby  
449 older individuals were rated as being less innovative in general. Such findings may be  
450 explained by the simple fact that younger, small-bodied capuchins may not possess the  
451 necessary physical strength and dexterity that older capuchins have, thereby making  
452 innovations more necessary for them (Reader & Laland, 2001; Kummer & Goodall, 1985).  
453 On the other hand, older capuchins may be less innovative due to age-related decreases in  
454 general playfulness and objective manipulation compared to younger individuals, which may  
455 reduce their probability of making innovative "discoveries" (Visalberghi & Guidi, 1998).  
456 Lastly, ageing may place constraints on the natural selection of innovative behaviour due to  
457 age-related neurological decline (Massimiliano, 2015; Roskos-Ewoldsen, Black, & McCown,  
458 2008; Zwoinska, Maklakov, Kawecki, & Hollis, 2017).

459           While sex differences in psychological traits, including those related to  
460 innovativeness, have been reported in various birds and mammals (Amici et al., 2019;  
461 Boogert, Fawcett, & Lefebvre, 2011; Reader & Laland, 2001), we found no evidence of a  
462 significant and independent effect of sex on innovation within brown capuchins. Again, these  
463 findings are similar to those reported in white-faced capuchins whereby males and females  
464 show minimal differences in innovation (Perry et al., 2017). It is unclear why species show  
465 sex differences in innovation, but the strength of sexual selection on cognitive traits related to  
466 innovative behaviour may play a crucial role (Boogert et al., 2011; Chen, et al., 2019). For  
467 capuchins specifically, sexual selection appears to be an unlikely pathway through which  
468 innovation is selected for within either genera, and perhaps sexual differences in the cognitive  
469 abilities that underpin their innovations as well.

#### 470 **Future directions for cross-species studies of innovation using observer ratings**

471           Observer ratings are a reliable and valid tool for studying the behaviour and cognition  
472 of many other wild and captive animals besides primates, such as horses (*Equus ferus*)

473 (Lloyd, Martin, Bornett-Gauci, & Wilkinson, 2008), hyenas (*Crocuta crocuta*) (Gosling,  
474 1998), cats (*Felis spp.*) (Gartner, Powell, & Weiss, 2014), deer (*Dama dama*) (Bergvall,  
475 Schapers, Kjellander, & Weiss, 2011), and elephants (*Loxodonta africana* and *Elephas*  
476 *maximus*) (Lee & Moss, 2012; Seltsmann, Helle, Adams, Mar, & Lahdenpera, 2018). Future  
477 studies might therefore benefit from using the same or similar methods as in the present study  
478 to compare our findings to innovative behaviour in other animal species. In particular, we  
479 suggest that comparative studies focus on species that differ in ecological niche (e.g. dietary  
480 specialists), social structure (e.g. “fission-fusion” societies), social tolerance (e.g. egalitarian  
481 or highly despotic species), brain size, cognitive ability, and cultural diversity (e.g. number  
482 and types of cultural traditions). Doing so will improve our understanding of the validity of  
483 observer ratings in studies of animal innovation, as well as facilitate discussions on factors  
484 that might impact the evolution of innovation throughout the animal kingdom.

### 485 **Conclusions**

486 Large-scale observational studies of individual differences in animal innovation are  
487 rare due to logistical difficulties. We took a different approach using a large dataset of  
488 reliable ratings of innovative behaviour brown capuchin innovation. Ratings were valid  
489 predictors of real-world behavioural outcomes within a subsample of capuchins, and factors  
490 associated with innovative behaviour across our entire sample were consistent with  
491 observations on wild capuchins. Observer ratings may therefore provide researchers with a  
492 valid alternative approach to studying innovation in capuchins and, perhaps, other species as  
493 well.

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723

724 **Table 1**

725 *Independent effects of sociality, age, sex, dominance, and motivation to engage in tasks on*  
 726 *individual differences in capuchins' scores on innovative behaviour*

	Estimate	Robust S.E.	Robust t	%R <sup>2</sup>	Pr(> t )
<b>(Intercept)</b>	<b>2.17</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>3.29</b>	---	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
<b>Sociality</b>	<b>0.22</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>2.44</b>	<b>8.37</b>	<b>0.02</b>
<b>log(Age, base = 10)</b>	<b>-0.79</b>	<b>0.31</b>	<b>-2.49</b>	<b>9.66</b>	<b>0.01</b>
Sex	0.05	0.18	0.27	0.18	0.79
Dominance	-0.05	0.06	-0.90	1.42	0.37
<b>Task Motivation</b>	<b>0.36</b>	<b>0.09</b>	<b>4.09</b>	<b>21.17</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

727 *Note.* Significant results ( $P < 0.05$ ) in boldface.  $N$  in all cases = 127 monkeys. % R<sup>2</sup> is the  
 728 percent contribution to the full model adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of a particular covariate by the leave-one-  
 729 out method. Model fit statistics: Approximate Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = 0.351, F-test: 13.07 on 5 and  
 730 120 d.f.,  $P < 0.0001$ . Random effects variance components were of trivial size (Social Group  
 731 Intercept  $< 0.002$  and Group Slope  $< 0.005$ ).

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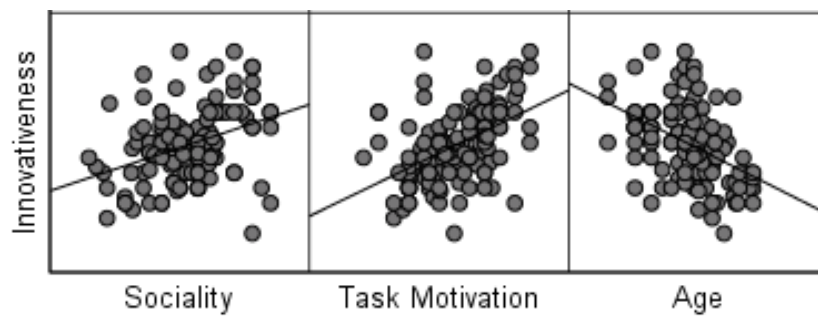
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742 **Figure 1**743 *Independent associations between capuchins' innovative behaviour and individual*744 *differences in sociality, task motivation, and age (in years) (N=127 capuchins)*

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763 **Supplementary Online Materials**764 *Information about monkey housing conditions:*

765 The following information contains housing conditions of subject from each site

766 (further details in Morton et al. 2013):

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768 **Table S1**769 *Age, sex, and number of study subjects at each research site*

<b>Location</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>Age (mean years <math>\pm</math> SD)</b>	<b>Sex Ratio (M:F)</b>
Bucknell University	13	1	8.77 $\pm$ 6.18	4:9
Primate Centre, Strasbourg	18	1	13.67 $\pm$ 7.84	6:12
GSU	12	2	9.67 $\pm$ 5.65	7:5
Living Links, UK	19	2	10.32 $\pm$ 10.99	12:7
Living Links, USA	29	2	14.90 $\pm$ 11.06	11:18
National Institutes of Health	26	6	8.39 $\pm$ 7.33	16:10
Yale University	10	1	7.9 $\pm$ 5.28	4:6

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771 **Living Links, UK.** Nineteen capuchins were from the ‘Living Links to Human

772 Evolution’ Research Centre at the Royal Zoological Society of Scotland, Edinburgh Zoo, UK

773 (MacDonald and Whiten, 2011). These individuals were from two breeding groups, and each



774 cohabited with a group of common squirrel monkeys. One of these individuals died prior to  
775 collecting behavioural data used to validate item ratings. Groups were housed in identically  
776 designed, mutually exclusive, 189 m<sup>3</sup> indoor enclosures with natural light and near-  
777 permanent access to a 900 m<sup>2</sup> outdoor enclosure containing trees and other vegetation,  
778 providing ample opportunity to engage in natural behaviours. At the time the ratings were  
779 made, the first group contained 4 adult males, 3 adult females, no sub-adults, 1 juvenile, and  
780 3 infants (following age-sex class definitions in Fragaszy et al. 2004). The second group  
781 contained 4 adult males, 3 adult females, no sub-adults, 4 juveniles, and 1 infant. All group  
782 members were captive born except an adult male from the first group, who was hand-reared,  
783 and the original wild-caught alpha male of the second group; both of these individuals came  
784 to LL as established members of their groups. All monkeys received commercial TrioMunch  
785 pellets supplemented with fresh fruits/vegetables three times daily, and were given cooked  
786 chicken and hard boiled eggs weekly. Water was available *ad libitum* at all times.

787 **Primate Centre, University of Strasbourg.** Eighteen capuchins belonged to a  
788 single group at the Primate Centre of the University of Strasbourg, France, and consisted  
789 of 6 adult males, 12 adult females, 4 juveniles, and 0 infants. All monkeys were captive born  
790 except for the eldest female, which was hand-reared and most likely wild-born. The hand-  
791 reared female has been a member of the group since 1987. Monkeys were provided  
792 commercial monkey diet pellets and water *ad libitum*, and received fruit once a week.  
793 Monkeys were never food-deprived. All subjects were housed in an indoor (99m<sup>3</sup>) and  
794 outdoor (45m<sup>2</sup>) enclosure, consisting of multiple compartments.

795 **Language Research Center, Georgia State University.** Twelve capuchins belonged  
796 to two groups at Georgia State University (GSU) in Atlanta, Georgia, USA. The first group  
797 consisted of 2 adult males, 2 adult females, 2 juveniles, and 0 infants. The second group  
798 consisted of 1 adult male, 2 sub-adult males, 2 adult females, 1 juvenile, and 0 infants. All

799 monkeys were captive born. For both groups, enclosures consisted of an indoor room (Group  
800 1: 75.84m<sup>3</sup>; Group 2: 54.42m<sup>3</sup>) connected to a large outdoor enclosure (Group 1: 13.51m<sup>2</sup>;  
801 Group 2: 21.15m<sup>2</sup>). Group members spent most of their time in the outdoor area throughout  
802 the year, except when engaged in research, during bad weather, or overnight. Monkeys were  
803 provided commercial monkey chow three times a day (morning, noon, evening), and fruits  
804 and vegetables were given every evening. Water was available *ad libitum* at all times,  
805 including during cognitive and behavioural testing. The enclosures were made of chain link  
806 fencing and were equipped with swings, ropes, and other materials to create three-  
807 dimensional living conditions to enrich the monkeys. The older study subjects had previously  
808 been housed together in various combinations at Yerkes National Primate Research Center,  
809 before being relocated to GSU 5 years ago, prior to the survey. S. F. B. worked with the  
810 animals at both facilities.

811       **Bucknell Primate Lab, Bucknell University.** Fourteen of the capuchins belonged to  
812 a single group at Bucknell University in Lewisburg, Pennsylvania, USA. They were housed  
813 in one social group consisting of 2 adult males, 2 adult females, 5 sub-adult females, 5  
814 juveniles, and 0 infants. All monkeys were captive born. The enclosure consisted of a series  
815 of seven compartments (totalling 630m<sup>3</sup>) made of caging wire, which were interconnected by  
816 doorways or tunnels also made of caging wire. The compartments included various perches,  
817 swings, and poles to ensure a most naturalistic environment for climbing and movement.  
818 Monkeys were provided commercial monkey chow twice per day (morning, evening), fruits  
819 and vegetables were given once per day (morning), and an afternoon snack consisting largely  
820 of peanuts, raisins, and low-sugar cereal was given in the afternoon. Water was available *ad*  
821 *libitum* at all times. The older subjects (N = 4) had previously been housed at Yerkes  
822 National Primate Research Center before being relocated to Bucknell University 12 years  
823 ago.

824           **Living Links, Yerkes National Primate Research Center, USA.** Twenty-six brown  
825 capuchin monkeys housed in two separate social groups at Living Links, part of the Yerkes  
826 National Primate Research Center. One group consisted of 15 monkeys housed in 25 m<sup>2</sup>, and  
827 the other of 11 monkeys in 31 m<sup>2</sup>. Both groups had access to indoor and outdoor areas and  
828 were visually, but not acoustically isolated from each other. The monkeys received Purina  
829 monkey chow and water *ad libitum*, and trays containing fresh produce every evening.  
830 Monkeys were never food or water deprived and all procedures were approved by the  
831 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) prior to the commencement of the  
832 study.

833           **Laboratory of Comparative Ethology, National Institutes of Health.** Twenty-six  
834 capuchins came from two captive breeding group and several small bachelor groups at the  
835 Laboratory of Comparative Ethology, NICHD. At the time of the study, one group comprised  
836 5 adults (4 female and 1 male, aged 7-30 years) and 4 juveniles (2 female and 2 male, aged 1-  
837 3 years). Three infants (1 female and 2 male, aged <6 months) were part of the group but  
838 were not rated for the current study. The second breeding group comprised 4 adults (3 female  
839 and 1 male, aged 5-12 years) and 4 juveniles (1 female and 3 male, aged 2-4 years). A further  
840 nine animals were pair-housed in cages; two pairs and a group of 3 animals were subadult to  
841 adult males (aged 4-9 years), and one pair was an adult female with a juvenile male (aged 25  
842 and 1 year respectively). All monkeys were captive born, mother-reared, and housed in the  
843 LCE primate facilities at the NIH Animal Center near Poolesville, MD. Breeding groups  
844 were housed in one or two parts of three indoor runs (6.9 x 4.1 x 2.1m each), which were  
845 connected via sliding doors. Runs were furnished with swings, ladders and various platforms.  
846 Cage-housed monkeys were housed in quad cages (1.63 x 1.63 x .71 m per pair). All  
847 monkeys were provided with a variety of plastic and metal manipulanda. Monkeys were not  
848 food deprived for this study, and received daily nutritional supplements of seeds and fresh

849 fruit or nuts. Commercial monkey biscuits (Labdiet 5045) and water were available *ad*  
850 *libitum*.

851 **Comparative Cognition Laboratory, Yale University.** Ten monkeys were at the  
852 Comparative Cognition Laboratory at Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut, USA. This  
853 group consisted of 4 adult males, 4 adult females, and 2 juvenile females. All monkeys were  
854 captive born. The monkeys were housed in an indoor enclosure (32 m<sup>3</sup>) consisting of multiple  
855 compartments. Commercial monkey pellets were provided twice daily (morning, afternoon)  
856 and supplemented with fruits, vegetables, nuts, and cereal daily. Water was available *ad*  
857 *libitum*.

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#### 859 **Methods for the learning task at Living Links**

860 The Living Links monkeys can volunteer to participate in non-invasive cognitive and  
861 learning experiments during morning and afternoon sessions four times a week (Monday,  
862 Tuesday, Thursday, Friday). On each research day, each group undergoes a morning session  
863 from 8:30 to 10:30, and an afternoon session from 11:00 to 13:00. Typically, due to  
864 scheduling demands from other researchers, each group undergoes testing on a particular  
865 experiment per day (either the morning or afternoon session). Since the establishment of LL  
866 in 2008, subjects have been involved in a number of cognitive studies, with a wide array of  
867 methodological designs; however, the tasks and methods of administration in the present  
868 study had not been used before.

869 All monkeys (N=18, excluding infants) were given the opportunity to engage in a  
870 learning task, but only 15 monkeys volunteered to participate in the task. Testing took place  
871 in research cubicles, which were divided into two compartments (both 54.6cm x 66cm x 71.1  
872 cm) and separated by a transparent plastic door that was halfway open. Subjects could freely  
873 volunteer to participate in testing by walking into the research cubicles, which were

874 connected to monkeys' indoor/outdoor enclosures. Participating monkeys could freely walk  
875 between the two compartments.

876         During each trial, two white-opaque cups were placed in front of the monkey, one cup  
877 was on the left side of the sliding door and one cup was on the right side. The position of  
878 each cup (left or right compartment) was randomly selected for each new trial. The two cups  
879 differed in size, with one cup twice as tall as the other cup. For this task, the goal was for the  
880 monkey to learn that by moving and sitting in the compartment facing the larger cup, they  
881 would receive a food reward that was located inside the cup. If the monkey failed a trial, no  
882 food was rewarded, and the trial was ended. Monkeys received a maximum of 12 trials per  
883 session, with each trial separated by 5-7 seconds. Each monkey received 12 trials per session  
884 per day until they met learning criteria (i.e. >80% correct across three consecutive sessions),  
885 or for a maximum of 264 trials. For each correct trial, subjects received a food reward (e.g.  
886 raisin or piece of papaya). During testing, movements made by the experimenter (F.B.M.)  
887 were limited only to setting up each new trial. Temperature and lighting are controlled within  
888 the indoor testing enclosures (V. Dufour, pers. com.). Eye gaze of the experimenter during  
889 testing was directed at the floor; eye gaze and position of the experimenter behind the  
890 apparatus remained the same for each trial to prevent subjects from making "associative  
891 cues". All sessions were video recorded using a SONY 60X HD camcorder mounted 1.5m  
892 away from the test subject (and directly behind the experimenter) on a tripod; videos were  
893 later coded by the experimenter. A binomial test established that subjects would need to score  
894 at least 80% of trials (i.e.  $\geq 10/12$  trials) correctly on a given session for it to be statistically  
895 above chance (Morton et al. 2013). Individuals scoring  $\geq 80\%$  of trials correctly on three  
896 consecutive sessions were considered to have learned the task, and their training subsequently  
897 ended.

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905 **Table S2**906 *Data used to perform analyses on 127 capuchins*

Monkey	Location	Social Group	Group size	Age (Years)	Log_Age	Sex	Dominance	Curiosity	Sociability	Innovation
1	6	1	22	15	1.18	M	6.67	5.33	4.67	3.67
2	6	1	22	12	1.08	F	3	4	4.6	3.8
3	3	7	11	14	1.15	F	5.86	4.38	5.29	3.29
4	5	12	9	7	0.85	F	5	4	4.5	3.5
5	6	1	22	13	1.11	M	6.2	5.6	3.2	3.8
6	6	1	22	22	1.34	F	2.33	3	4.33	2.67
7	7	15	10	14	1.15	M	1	2.5	2.5	1.5
8	4	10	15	12	1.08	F	3.33	5.33	4.67	4.33
9	4	10	15	6	0.78	F	4	4.67	4.67	3.33
10	4	10	15	8	0.9	M	3.67	5.67	4.67	3.33
11	4	10	15	25	1.4	F	3.67	4.67	4.33	2.67
12	6	1	22	38	1.58	F	1.2	3	2.4	3
13	3	7	11	5	0.7	M	2.43	5.57	6	5.71
14	3	7	11	2	0.3	M	3	5.17	6.33	4.83
15	1	2	14	16	1.2	M	3.5	5	3.5	5.5
16	1	2	14	10	1	F	1	3.5	3.5	3
17	3	14	12	40	1.6	M	6.67	3.67	5	2.48
18	3	14	12	10	1	M	2.4	2.8	3.2	1.78
19	2	9	6	21	1.32	M	5	4.75	5.25	4
20	7	15	10	12	1.08	M	7	4	4.5	3
21	3	14	12	5	0.7	M	3.5	5.5	5.5	4.98
22	2	8	6	13	1.11	M	7	5.25	4.25	3.25
23	2	8	6	14	1.15	F	1.2	3	2.2	3.2
24	5	12	9	19	1.28	M	6.67	4	5.33	4.33
25	4	10	15	6	0.78	F	4.33	3.67	4	4.33
26	4	10	15	8	0.9	F	3.33	4	3.33	4
27	2	9	6	14	1.15	M	7	5	4.25	3.5
28	7	15	10	2	0.3	M	4	6	4.5	4.5

29	7	15	10	1	0	F	2.5	6	6.5	6
30	7	15	10	9	0.95	F	1.5	3	5	2.5
31	7	15	10	4	0.6	F	2	3	4.5	2.5
32	5	5	3	9	0.95	M	6.67	4.33	3.67	3.67
33	5	4	2	6	0.78	M	6.33	5.33	3.33	4.33
34	5	12	9	3	0.48	M	2	5.5	5	4.5
35	5	12	9	2	0.3	M	1.5	5.5	4	4.5
36	4	11	11	36	1.56	M	3.5	3	4.5	2.5
37	3	14	12	2	0.3	M	2.75	5.75	6.75	2.5
38	5	12	9	10	1	F	1.67	2.67	4.67	3
39	5	12	9	31	1.49	F	3.5	3	5	3.5
40	5	12	9	3	0.48	M	4.5	6	4.5	4.5
41	5	12	9	13	1.11	F	5.5	4.5	5.5	3.5
42	5	4	2	5	0.7	M	1.33	5.33	3.67	4
43	7	15	10	13	1.11	F	6	4	6.5	4.5
44	5	5	3	7	0.85	M	3.67	4.33	4	3.67
45	3	7	11	11	1.04	F	3.86	5.23	5.29	5.14
46	3	7	11	6	0.78	M	2.14	5.95	2.57	5.29
47	6	1	22	19	1.28	F	3.4	3.4	5	3.8
48	6	1	22	24	1.38	F	4.6	3.8	3	2.2
49	6	1	22	12	1.08	F	4.2	5	5.4	3.6
50	3	14	12	11	1.04	F	3	4	4	4
51	4	11	11	10	1	F	6	4.83	4.83	3
52	4	11	11	9	0.95	F	3.5	5.5	5.5	5.5
53	5	3	2	5	0.7	M	3	4	5.5	4
54	2	9	6	3	0.48	F	4	5.67	4	5
55	2	8	6	7	0.85	M	1	7	5	4
56	5	13	8	5	0.7	F	4.25	5.5	5.25	4.75
57	2	9	6	14	1.15	F	6	4.5	4	4
58	5	13	8	12	1.08	F	5	4.2	5.2	4
59	5	13	8	3	0.48	M	6.5	4	4.5	4
60	5	6	2	1	0	M	1.5	4.5	4.5	4
61	2	8	6	6	0.78	M	3.5	6.25	5.25	6.25
62	5	13	8	5	0.7	F	2.67	5.33	5.33	5
63	4	11	11	12	1.08	M	5.5	5.5	6	3
64	5	6	2	26	1.41	F	2	3	4	2
65	5	13	8	2	0.3	M	1.5	5.5	5	4
66	4	11	11	28	1.45	F	4	5.5	6	3
67	4	11	11	7	0.85	M	3.5	5.5	5.5	6.5
68	5	13	8	12	1.08	F	2	3.67	3.67	3.67
69	4	10	15	40	1.6	F	3.33	4.67	3.67	2
70	3	7	11	4	0.6	M	2.33	3.60	3.67	3.1
71	5	13	8	11	1.04	M	6.67	4.33	4.33	4.67
72	4	10	15	14	1.15	M	6	4.33	5	3

73	3	7	11	40	1.6	M	3.57	3.52	5.14	2.83
74	7	15	10	8	0.9	F	6.5	5.5	6.5	4.5
75	3	14	12	3	0.48	M	2.6	5.4	6.2	5
76	1	2	14	16	1.2	M	7	6.5	7	2
77	7	15	10	2	0.3	F	5.5	6.5	6.5	6.5
78	5	5	3	7	0.85	M	1.33	4	4.33	4
79	4	11	11	10	1	F	4	5	2.5	2.5
80	2	8	6	9	0.95	F	6	5.5	5.18	4.23
81	4	11	11	27	1.43	F	4	4	4	2
82	1	2	14	16	1.2	F	1	1.5	2	3.5
83	4	11	11	7	0.85	M	3.5	3.5	6	7
84	4	11	11	2	0.3	M	2	2	7	5
85	1	2	14	8	0.9	F	1	4	5.5	4
86	7	15	10	14	1.15	M	2	2.5	3	2
87	4	11	11	12	1.08	F	4.5	5.5	3.5	2.5
88	2	8	6	3	0.48	M	2.67	5.67	5.67	5
89	1	2	14	9	0.95	F	5	7	6.5	6.5
90	1	2	14	3	0.48	F	4	7	4.5	7
91	1	2	14	1	0	M	2	6.5	6.5	5.5
92	6	1	22	11	1.04	F	1.33	3.67	4.33	3.33
93	4	11	11	24	1.38	M	4	3.5	6.5	5.5
94	5	12	9	2	0.3	F	1.5	6	5	3.5
95	6	1	22	10	1	F	3.8	4.6	5.2	4
96	3	14	12	3	0.48	F	1.6	4.6	5.4	4.16
97	3	7	11	6	0.78	F	3.67	3.77	5.33	2.82
98	6	1	22	10	1	F	2.4	4.2	4.6	3.6
99	6	1	22	10	1	M	4.8	6.6	4.4	5.8
100	3	7	11	10	1	M	6.29	4.04	4.43	2.4
101	6	1	22	10	1	M	3.2	4.2	3.8	3.6
102	6	1	22	8	0.9	M	5.2	6	5.2	5.2
103	6	1	22	11	1.04	F	5.8	5.6	4.2	4.2
104	1	2	14	3	0.48	F	2	3	3	2
105	6	1	22	8	0.9	M	4.2	6	5.8	5
106	4	10	15	15	1.18	F	2	2	5	4
107	3	14	12	9	0.95	F	3.33	4.83	5	3.65
108	4	10	15	7	0.85	F	5	3.67	4.33	2.67
109	1	2	14	5	0.7	F	4	3	5	2.5
110	6	1	22	8	0.9	F	2.67	5	4.67	4.33
111	5	3	2	9	0.95	M	6.67	5	4	4.67
112	1	2	14	19	1.28	F	6	4.5	6.5	1
113	1	2	14	2	0.3	M	3	7	7	4.5
114	4	10	15	9	0.95	M	4	3.5	5.35	3.5
115	1	2	14	6	0.78	F	6.5	6.5	5.5	5
116	5	13	8	3	0.48	M	2.5	5	4	3.5



117	4	10	15	40	1.6	F	5	3.67	5	3
118	3	14	12	8	0.9	F	2.5	4.67	5.33	5
119	3	14	12	7	0.85	M	1.83	3.67	3.17	3
120	6	1	22	5	0.7	F	1.5	4.5	4	5
121	2	9	6	3	0.48	M	2	6	6	5
122	4	11	11	2	0.3	M	2	2	7	5
123	4	11	11	14	1.15	F	4.5	3	3.5	4.5
124	4	11	11	28	1.45	F	4.5	4	4.5	2.5
125	4	11	11	7	0.85	F	3.5	3.5	4.5	4
126	4	11	11	7	0.85	M	3	3.5	6	6
127	2	9	6	9	0.95	F	1.75	6.5	3.5	6.25

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932 **Table S3**933 *Behavioural data for Living Links monkeys*

Monkey	Behavioural Codings				Item Ratings			
	Social Rank	% Participation	Learning Performance	% Time Close Proximity	Dominance	Curiosity	Innovation	Sociability
1	14.58	88.89	59.10	55.87	5.86	4.38	3.29	5.29
2	-12.67	100.00	77.40	21.11	2.43	5.57	5.71	6.00
3	-8.00	100.00	79.30	51.11	3.00	5.17	4.83	6.33
4	9.33	.00	--	44.68	6.67	3.67	2.48	5.00
5	4.00	55.56	54.17	32.97	2.40	2.80	1.78	3.20
6	-.33	72.22	59.00	35.56	3.50	5.50	4.98	5.50
7	-1.67	100.00	51.70	53.51	2.75	5.75	2.50	6.75
8	.67	100.00	67.20	30.56	3.86	5.23	5.14	5.29
9	-6.17	100.00	86.70	15.56	2.14	5.95	5.29	2.57
10	6.67	5.56	41.70	71.19	6.00	4.83	3.00	4.83
11	-5.17	27.78	71.10	26.52	2.33	3.60	3.10	3.67
12	-6.67	72.22	59.20	40.00	2.60	5.40	5.00	6.20
13	-2.00	100.00	81.70	23.33	1.60	4.60	4.16	5.40
14	3.80	22.22	67.63	50.00	3.67	3.77	2.82	5.33
15	18.46	.00	--	45.81	6.29	4.04	2.40	4.43
16	4.67	11.11	50.00	58.10	3.33	4.83	3.65	5.00
17	-4.67	100.00	77.10	51.67	2.50	4.67	5.00	5.33
18	-9.33	.00	--	3.89	1.83	3.67	3.00	3.17

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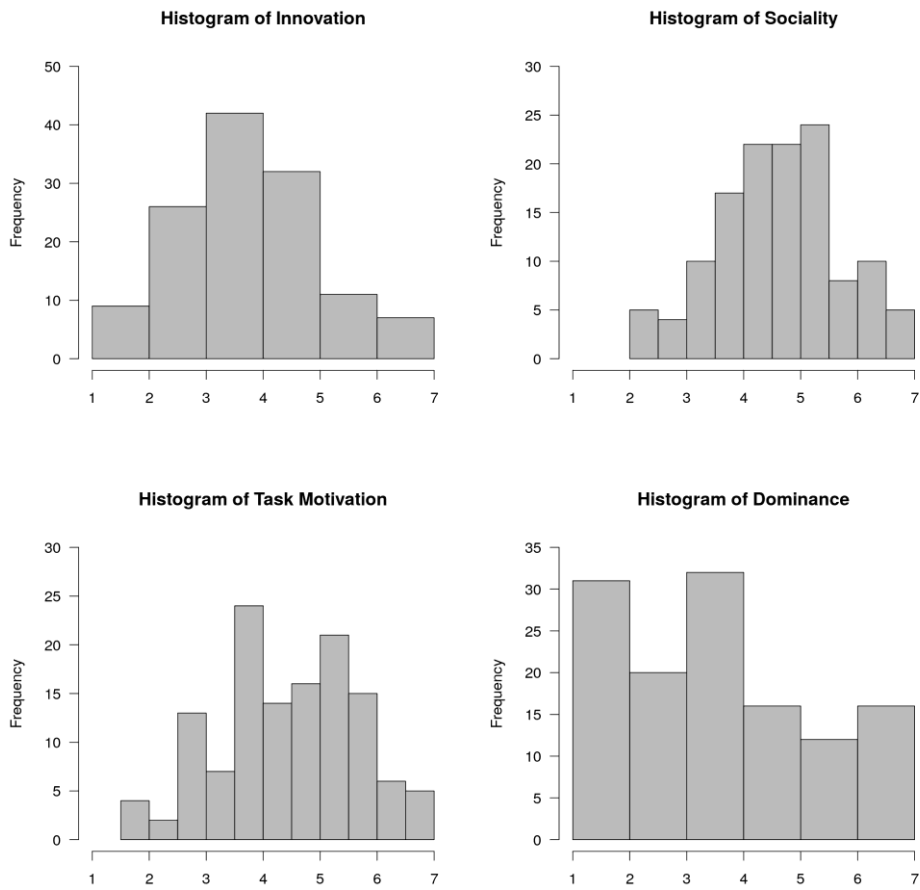
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945 **Figure S1**

946 *Histograms of the distribution of each ratings item*



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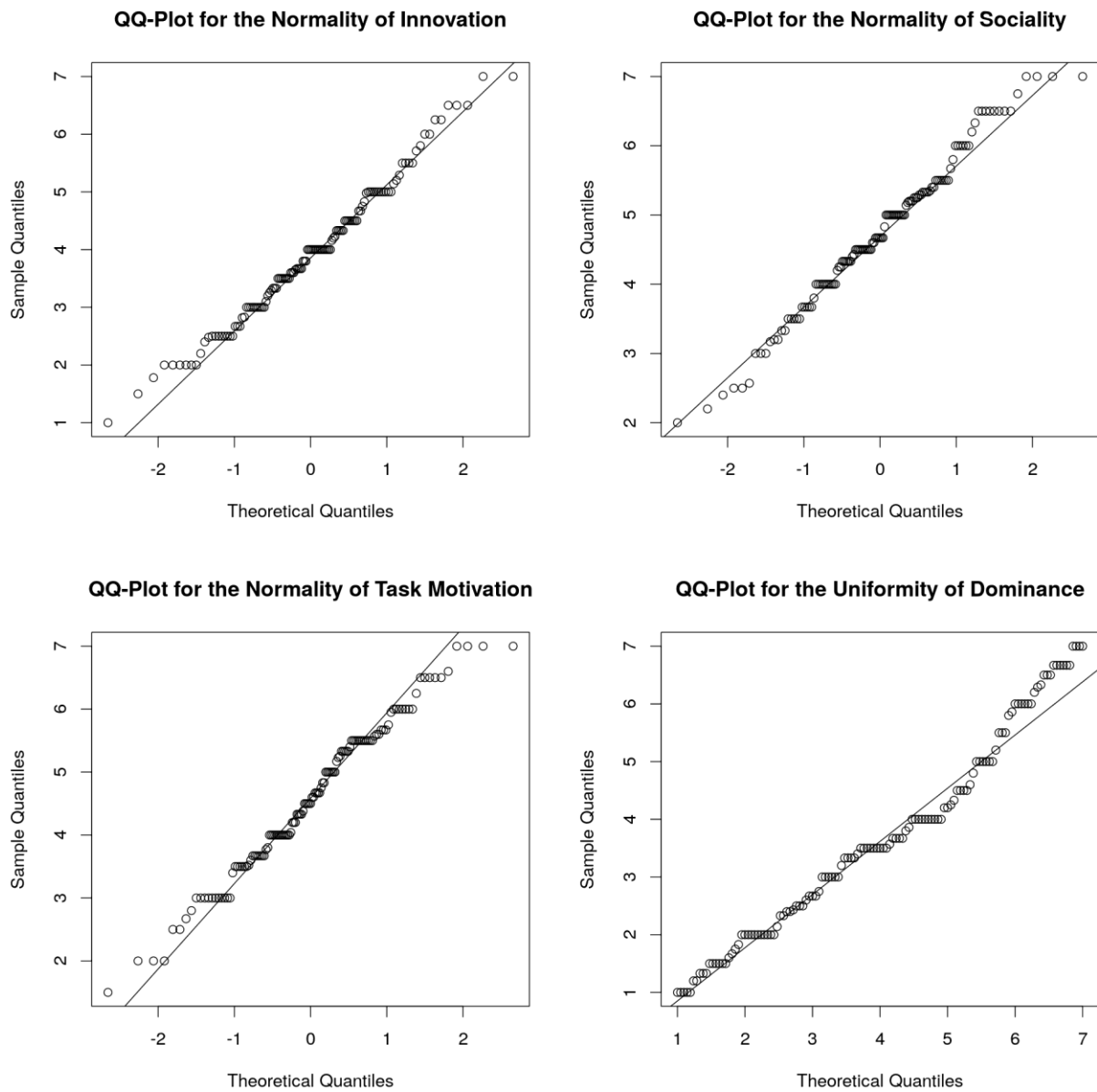
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960 **Figure S2**

961 *QQ-Plots for normality of innovation, sociality, task motivation and uniformity of dominance*



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969 **Table S4**970 *Shapiro-Wilk test of normality*

Variable	Statistic	P-value
Innovation	0.987	0.27
Sociability	0.986	0.213
Task Motivation	0.983	0.121
Dominance	0.949	0.001

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973 **Supplementary Analyses of Random Effects from Linear Mixed Models using Location**974 **as Grouping Factor:**975 Linear mixed model fit by REML [*lmerMod*']976 Formula: Innovation ~ Sociality + Group Size + log(Age, base = 10) + Sex + Dominance +  
977 Curiosity + (1| Location))

978 Data: capu

979

980 REML criterion at convergence: 376.3

981

982 Scaled residuals:

983	Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
984	-2.83647	-0.65876	-0.07075	0.55400	3.01234

985

986 Random effects:

987 Groups Name Variance Std.Dev.

988 Location (Intercept) 0.003887 0.06235

989 Residual 1.007382 1.00368

990 Number of obs: 127, groups: Location, 7

991

992 Linear mixed model fit by REML [`'lmerMod'`]993 Formula: Innovation ~ Sociality + log(Age, base = 10) + Sex + Dominance + Curiosity +  
994 (Group.size | Location)

995 Data: capu

996

997 REML criterion at convergence: 369.8

998

999 Scaled residuals:

1000 Min 1Q Median 3Q Max

1001 -2.84633 -0.62431 -0.09026 0.54429 3.09354

1002

1003 Random effects:

1004 Groups Name Variance Std.Dev. Corr

1005 Location (Intercept) 0.000e+00 0.000e+00

1006 Group.size 1.346e-14 1.160e-07 NaN

1007 Residual 9.987e-01 9.994e-01

1008 Number of obs: 127, groups: Location, 7