

# **Domain-Specific Knowledge in Human Children and Non-Human Primates: Artifact and Food Kinds**

**Laurie R. Santos, Marc D. Hauser, and Elizabeth S. Spelke**

## **Introduction**

One of the most important things an organism needs to recognize is how to direct its attention. In order to act effectively, an organism needs to focus its attention on properties and events that are relevant to the problem at hand. The task of discovering what information to attend to, and what to ignore, presents a challenge because different types of information must be selected in different situations. For example, a monkey in the canopy searching for a branch to climb on must pay attention to the shape, size, strength, and position of potential branches, ignoring other information such as the color of the branches and smell of the fruit. A few minutes later, the same monkey looking for a ripe piece of fruit must attend to color and smell, the very features he disregarded a few seconds earlier. How do organisms decide which features to attend to in order to build effective strategies for classifying the complicated assortment of objects in their world?

Researchers in a number of fields including cognitive development (Gelman 1990; Hirschfeld and Gelman 1994; Keil 1989), evolutionary psychology (Cosmides and Tooby 1994; Pinker 1997), animal cognition (Gallistel 1990; Hauser 2000; Shettleworth 1998), neuropsychology (Caramazza 1998; Santos and Caramazza, in press), anthropology (Sperber 1994), and archaeology (Mithen 1996) have answered this question by appealing to notions of domain-specific constraints on learning. From a domain-specific perspective, the mind consists of a collection of specialized learning systems designed for processing different types of input.

Advocates of the domain-specificity view argue that organisms are endowed with domain-relevant content that both biases and guides their attention to conceptually relevant perceptual inputs. The domains that make up an animal's cognitive architecture are thought to have evolved in response to the computational problems that were most salient over the animal's phylogenetic history.

In the past decade, considerable research has investigated the ontogeny of human domains of knowledge (Gelman 1990; Hirschfeld and Gelman 1994; Keil 1989; Keil et al. 1998). Relatively little work, however, has explored whether the domains of knowledge that constitute the human mind are shared with our closest evolutionary relatives, the non-human primates. If accounts of domain-specificity are correct, then many of the domains of understanding that comprise human cognition may be phylogenetically quite ancient and thus, shared by other non-human animals, especially non-human primates. It is also possible, of course, that human evolution led to the emergence of new domain-specific systems (e.g., Mithen 1996).

We have attempted to address this problem by examining how human children and two non-human primate species- captive cotton-top tamarins and free-ranging rhesus monkeys- reason about problems in two different domains. Specifically, we have focused on the features that primates use when categorizing foods and artifacts. Here, we systematically contrast the knowledge about food and artifacts shown by mature tamarins and rhesus monkeys with the human child's developing knowledge of these domains. We argue for important similarities in the ways that these three species reason about objects in these domains.

## **Children's understanding of the relevant features of artifacts**

Human children are surrounded by artifacts from birth. As one might predict from this rich early experience, humans develop some understanding of artifacts at a rather young age. Five-year old children understand which properties are important for classifying artifacts (e.g., shape, rigidity, size) and perceive these as distinctive from the set of features that are important for categorizing other kinds of things such as animals (e.g., color, material composition, surface markings, see Carey 1985; Keil 1989; Keil et al. 1998). There is also evidence that toddlers possess some understanding of the causally-relevant properties of an artifact, and specifically, its functional capacity. Brown (1990) designed a tool task in which 1-3 year old children were trained to use a cane-shaped tool to obtain an out-of-reach toy. Once children successfully obtained the toy with a particular tool, they were tested on new tools, designed to assess the salience of particular featural transformations. Children readily used tools of a different color to perform the same function, suggesting that color plays a relatively insignificant role in the child's understanding of a functional tool. However, children rejected tools that were too flimsy to pull the toy or whose tops were shaped inappropriately for the pulling task. This suggests that shape and rigidity play significant roles in the child's understanding of a functional tool. More importantly, new evidence suggests that children as young as two years of age generalize new object labels based on information about an object's function, not merely its shape and overall physical appearance (Kemler Nelson 1999; Kemler Nelson et al. 2000).

## **Non-human primates' understanding of the relevant features of artifacts**

In contrast to the wealth of studies examining what children understand about the functional properties of objects, relatively few studies have critically evaluated non-human primates' understanding of artifacts. Tool-use is present throughout a number of primate species, both in the lab (Povinelli 2000, this volume; Tomasello and Call 1997; Visalberghi and Tomasello 1998) and in the wild (Goodall 1986; Matsuzawa 1994; McGrew 1992). Although this research has conclusively demonstrated that several primate species use tools, only a few studies (Hauser 2000; Povinelli 2000; Visalberghi and Tomasello 1998) have explored non-human primates' understanding of tools and in particular the features that give tools their particular functions.

To examine these issues, Hauser (1997) initiated a research program with cotton-top tamarins (*Saguinus oedipus*). In the first task, modeled after Brown's (1990) studies of children, subjects were required to pull one of two blue canes to gain access to an out of reach piece of food (see Figure 1). Once subjects learned to selectively pull the blue cane with food inside the hook, in preference to a cane with food outside the hook, they were tested with a variety of new tools of varying sizes, shapes, colors, and textures. In critical test trials, subjects were presented with a choice of two canes that differed from the original blue cane on only one featural dimension (see Figure 2). Subjects had to choose, for example, between a pink cane (new color) and a fat blue cane (new size) or between a ribbed blue cane (new texture) and an oddly shaped cane (new shape). Based on both first trial performance and session performance, results showed that tamarins chose tools with novel colors over those with novel sizes, and chose tools with novel textures over those with novel shapes. In the absence of explicit training, tamarins evidently understand that size and shape are more causally relevant to a tool's functionality than are color and texture.

After presenting subjects with single feature changes, Hauser presented the tamarins with new test trials in which additional features of the objects were altered, some of which changed their functional properties. Tamarins reliably preferred the more functional of the two tools, even when the more functional object was perceptually quite different from the original blue cane, and even when a novel but functionally-appropriate tool was pitted against a familiar tool placed in an orientation that blocked the exercise of its function.

Hauser and colleagues (1999) turned next to a modified version of this task in which tamarins were trained to choose one of two pieces of cloth to obtain a food reward. As in the previous experiments, tamarins focused on changes to the cloth that affected its affordances (see Gibson 1979). For example, subjects rejected pulling cloths made of material which did not afford pulling (e.g., pieces of cloth connected with chipped wood, sand or a broken rope), and they chose cloths of radically different shapes (e.g., triangles, circles, teeth-shaped) that functionally supported the food reward. Further they distinguished between cloths that supported the food reward and cloths that were merely in contact with the food and thus functionally inappropriate.<sup>1</sup> Once again, subjects distinguished the features that were relevant for the cloth tool's function from those that were not.

Santos, Miller, and Hauser (under review) then set out to examine whether primates understand which features are most causally relevant to an artifact's function in the absence of direct physical experience with that type of artifact. To this end, Santos and her colleagues used an expectancy violation paradigm. The logic behind the expectancy violation paradigm is that subjects will look longer at events that violate their expectations about the physical world than at events that are consistent (see Hauser and Carey 1998; Spelke 1985, 1991). Santos et al. habituated tamarins to an event in which a novel object -- a purple L-shaped tool made of

Play-Doh -- pushed a grape down a ramp and onto a lower platform (see Figure 4a), and then they presented subjects with one of two test trials. In one test trial, subjects saw a tool of a different color but a similar shape push the grape down the ramp (Figure 4b). In the other test trial, subjects saw a tool of the same color but a different shape (an I-shaped tool) appear to push the grape down the ramp. This new shape test trial was considered unexpected from the perspective of a human observer because the flat base of the tool was too short to effectively push the grape (see Figure 4c). Results showed that subjects looked longer at the new shape test trial than the new color test trial, suggesting that a change in the tool's shape was more important to its functioning than a change in the tool's color.

Santos and colleagues then extended their work to free-ranging rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) living on the island of Cayo Santiago, Puerto Rico, a population with far less experience with artifacts than the captive tamarins.<sup>2</sup> They conducted the same expectancy violation experiments, involving the same Play-Doh objects, and obtained similar results. Rhesus monkeys, who lack experience with artifacts of any kind, looked longer when the tool-use event was performed after a change in the object's shape -- a change that should have impaired the tool's function--than after a change in the object's color. Even when free-ranging rhesus are presented with tools with which they have no direct physical experience in tasks that involve no training, they appear to understand at some level which features are relevant to an artifact's function.

### **Children's understanding of the relevant features of foods**

In light of evidence that both human and non-human primates attend to the features of shape and orientation when reasoning about artifacts, we now turn to a different domain- food- in which these features play little or no causal role. Despite the fact that food is critical to the survival of all animals, relatively few studies have been devoted to examining children or non-human animals' understanding of this domain (see Macario 1991; Rozin 1990 for exceptions). The little work that has been done suggests that children possess some understanding of food objects from a rather early age.

For example, children as young as two and a half-years of age predict that objects of the same color will have the same smell and taste (see Macario 1991). Santos, Miller, and Hauser (1999; see Figure 5) examined the features that 4-year old children attend to when learning words for food objects. They first taught children labels for novel objects made of pretzel material of a particular shape and color (e.g., blue squiggly x-shape) and then asked whether other objects of similar shapes and colors shared the same label. When children were told that the novel object was an artifact, they transferred the label to objects of the same shape (see also Landau et al. 1998). When children were told that the novel object was a kind of food, in contrast, they transferred the new label to objects of the same color as the originally labeled object. In other words, children used the feature of color, not shape, when generalizing labels to new food objects. Similarly, Lavin and Hall (1999) found that three year-old children use color and texture information when learning labels for novel food objects, disregarding information about the object's shape. Taken together, these results suggest that young preschoolers have some understanding that substance properties such as color and texture are more relevant to categorizing food objects than are form properties like shape. Children's substance bias for food

objects stands in contrast to their selective attention to form when categorizing and reasoning about artifacts.

### **Non-human primates' understanding of the relevant features of foods**

Despite the enormous attention that behavioral ecologists in the field and laboratory have devoted to studies of foraging (Stephens and Krebs 1986; Ydenberg 1998), relatively little research has explored what non-human animals understand about food objects. Garcia's ground-breaking work on avoidance learning established that rats are more likely to associate nausea with the ingestion of a novel food than with a bright light or other stimulus (Garcia and Koelling 1966). Although this result suggests that organisms take into account different information when learning about food than when learning about other kinds of stimuli, it does not speak to the question of whether or not organisms spontaneously divide objects into different categories (e.g., foods and non-foods) and attend to different properties of each. To better examine these questions, Bovet and Vauclair (1998) examined whether or not captive baboons naturally categorize objects as edible or inedible. They trained baboons to pull one rope when presented with an apple and to pull a different rope when presented with a padlock. After this initial training, they presented subjects with 80 novel objects, half of which were food, half of which were non-food. Baboons spontaneously generalized their responses to appropriate objects, pulling the apple-rope for food objects and the padlock-rope for non-food objects. These results suggest that baboons classify objects as food or non-foods in the absence of training, although they do not reveal the features the baboons use when making these categorizations.



We have initiated a research strategy that explores how non-human primates spontaneously categorize novel food objects using a somewhat different technique, and focusing especially on the features that guide categorization in the absence of training (Santos, Hauser, and Spelke, under review; see Figure 5). We tested adult rhesus macaques from the Cayo Santiago population with natural but unfamiliar food objects. In the first condition, an experimenter presented monkeys with two novel foods (e.g., a baby carrot vs. a lemon slice), ate one while holding the other near the face, placed one of each of these foods on spatially separated platforms, stepped away and allowed the monkey to approach and eat one of the food objects. We found that subjects selectively approached the platform containing the object that the experimenter had previously eaten. These findings provide evidence that monkeys show an effect of past experience on their food choice, and they set the stage for our critical studies.

In these experiments, rhesus monkeys were initially presented with two objects of different colors and shapes, each of which was made of the same material (Play-Doh) as the objects in our previous studies of tool use in this population (Santos, Miller and Hauser, under review). As the experimenter presented the two objects to a subject, she pretended to eat one of the objects and acted on the other object in a different, attention-getting way (e.g., rolling it on the ground or sticking it in her ear). Then the experimenter placed copies of the two objects on two platforms, as in our previous studies, and watched the subject's patterns of approach to the platforms. Monkeys selectively approached the object with the same shape and color as the object that the experimenter had pretended to eat. These findings provide evidence that monkeys show a social facilitation effect across species (i.e., from a human facilitator) and across novel kinds of objects (i.e., objects that fail to resemble any foods the monkey might have eaten). They set the stage for our critical tests of domain-specific learning and generalization.

In these tests, monkeys again observed an experimenter pretend to eat one of two Play-Doh objects of different colors and shapes, but then they were given an approach task presenting objects that differed in shape, color, or both. When both test objects had the same shape as the originally eaten object but only one presented the same color, monkeys selectively approached the object with the same color. When both test objects had the same color as the originally eaten object but only one presented the same shape, monkeys selected at random between the two objects. Finally, when one object differed from the originally eaten object in color and the other object differed from that object in shape, monkeys selectively approached the object with the same color. These findings provide clear evidence that monkeys generalize their learning about edible objects along the dimension of color, not along the dimension of form.

Our social facilitation studies with monkeys support three conclusions. First, just as monkeys can learn about the functional properties of tools by observation, without direct physical experience, they can also learn by observation about the functional properties of food. Monkeys who observed a person raking a grape with a stick learned to represent the stick as a tool, and those who observed a person eating a pink Play-Doh ball learned to represent this object as food. Second, observational learning is a robust process, which can take place even when a monkey observes a demonstrator of a different species (a human) acting on an object that is entirely artificial (Play-Doh). Third and most importantly, monkeys show different patterns of attention, and therefore generalization, to the features of objects in different domains. Presented with Play-Doh objects that are used as food, monkeys generalize their learning to new objects of the same color and different shapes; presented with Play-Doh objects that are used as tools, monkeys generalize their learning to new objects of the same shape and different colors. These findings closely resemble those obtained in our studies of human children (Santos, Miller and

Hauser 1999), who generalized from one object to new objects by color when the object was presented as food and by shape when the object was presented as a tool. Like humans, monkeys represent and reason about objects differently in different domains.

### **The ontogeny and phylogeny of domain-specific understanding**

The data presented here suggest that human and non-human primates share important similarities in the way they categorize objects in two different domains.<sup>3</sup> Adult monkeys and human children recognize that the properties that are important for categorizing food objects are different from those that are important for categorizing artifacts. These findings suggest that at least two domains of human knowledge are shared with other primate species.

While these results provide an important first step towards understanding what other species know about different kinds of objects, more work is needed to assess the deeper similarities between human and non-human reasoning in different domains. For example, when human children reason about artifacts, they often take into account its intended history: the function for which it was originally designed (see Bloom 1996). Given that no non-human animals create tools as extensively and flexibly as humans do, it is important to ask whether any non-human animals share our intuition that an artifact's original purpose is important for its current use. Further questions about human categorization of objects are suggested by our studies of non-human primates. For example, when learning whether or not an object is edible, non-human primates pay attention to the behavior of other individuals and particularly, whether or not another individual eats a novel food (see Santos, Hauser and Spelke, under review). Do human children similarly use the eating behavior of other animals, human and non-human, to

help them categorize food objects? Examining questions like these will provide a richer understanding of the deeper similarities and differences between human and non-human domains of knowledge, and of the contributions both of our phylogenetic history and of our ontogenetic experience in the development of these knowledge systems.

### **Author note**

The authors wish to thank Dr. Alfonso Caramazza and Dr. Asif Ghazanfar for their insightful comments on the paper. All of this research conforms to federal guidelines for use of animals and humans in research. LRS was supported by the Mind, Brain, and Behavior Program, the Harvard University McMasters Fund, the Mellon Scholars Program, and an NSF Predoctoral Fellowship. MDH was supported by the NSF (SBR-9357976) and by Harvard University. ESS was supported by the NIH (237-HD23103) and by MIT. Correspondence concerning this chapter should be addressed to Laurie R. Santos, Harvard University, Department of Psychology, 33 Kirkland St., Cambridge, MA 02138, U.S.A. Electronic mail may be sent via internet to [Irsantos@wjh.harvard.edu](mailto:Irsantos@wjh.harvard.edu).

## Notes

1. Surprisingly, chimpanzees tested on a comparable task fail to appreciate this distinction (Povinelli, 2000).
2. The only artifact the monkeys on Cayo Santiago have regular contact with is a food trough that holds the chow that they eat.
3. Human children and non-human primates also share an understanding of other domains of knowledge. These at least include the domain of animate objects (see Gelman 1990; Hauser 1998; Mandler and McDonough 1993; Santos and Caramazza, in press), spatial navigation (see Cheng 1986; Cheng and Gallistel 1984; Hermer and Spelke 1996; Wang et al. 1999), number (Hauser and Carey 1998; Hauser et al. 1996; Wynn 1998), and some of the building blocks of theory of mind (see Hare, this volume).

## References

- Bloom, P. (1996). Intention, history, and artifact concepts. *Cognition* 60: 1-29.
- Bovet, D. and Vauclair, J. (1998). Functional categorization of objects and of their pictures in baboons (*Papio anubis*). *Learning and Motivation* 29: 309-322.

Brown, A. (1990). Domain-specific principles affect learning and transfer in children. *Cognitive Science* 14: 107-133.

Caramazza, A. (1998). The interpretation of semantic category-specific deficits: What do they reveal about the organization of conceptual knowledge in the brain? *Neurocase* 4: 265-272.

Carey, S. (1985). *Conceptual Change in Childhood*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Cheng, K. (1986). A purely geometric module in the rat's spatial representation. *Cognition* 23: 149-178.

Cheng, K. and Gallistel, C. R. (1984). Testing the geometric power of an animal's spatial representation. In *Animal Cognition*, ed. H. L. Roitblat, T. G. Bever, and H. S. Terrace, pp. 409-423. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cosmides, L. and Tooby, J. (1994). Origins of domain specificity: The evolution of functional organization. In *Mapping the Mind: Domain Specificity in Cognition and Culture*, ed. L. A. Hirschfeld and S. A. Gelman, pp. 85-116. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Gallistel, C. R. (1990). *The Organization of Learning*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Garcia, J. and Koelling, R. (1966). Relation of cue to consequence in avoidance learning. *Psychonomic Science* 4: 123-124.

Gelman, R. (1990). First principles organize attention to and learning about relevant data: Number and the animate-inanimate distinction as examples. *Cognitive Science* 14: 79-106.

Gibson, J. J. (1979). *An Ecological Approach to Visual Perception*. Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin.

Goodall, J. (1986). *The Chimpanzees of Gombe*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.

Hauser, M. D. (1997). Artifactual kinds and functional design features: What a primate understands without language. *Cognition* 64: 285-308.

Hauser, M. D. (1998). A non-human primate's expectations about object motion and destination: The importance of self-propelled movement and animacy. *Developmental Science* 1: 31-38.

Hauser, M. D. (2000). *Wild Minds: What Animals Really Think*. New York: Henry Holt Publishers.

Hauser, M. D., and Carey, S. (1998). Building a cognitive creature from a set of primitives: Evolutionary and developmental insights. In *The Evolution of Mind*, ed. D. Cummins and C. Allen, pp. 51-106. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hauser, M. D., Kralik, J., and Botto-Mahan, C. (1999). Problem solving and functional design features: Experiments on cotton-top tamarins (*Saguinus oedipus*). *Animal Behaviour* 57: 565-582.

Hauser, M. D., MacNeilage, P., and Ware, M. (1996). Numerical representations in primates. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 93: 1514-1517.

Hermer, L. and Spelke, E. (1996). Modularity and development: The case of spatial reorientation. *Cognition* 61: 195-232.

Hirschfeld, L. A. and Gelman, S. A. (1994). *Mapping the Mind: Domain Specificity in Cognition and Culture*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Keil, F. C. (1989). *Concepts, Kinds, and Cognitive Development*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Keil, F. C. , Smith, W. C., Simons, D. J., and Levin, D. T. (1998). Two dogmas of conceptual empiricism: Implications for hybrid models of the structure of knowledge. *Cognition* 60: 143-171.

Kemler Nelson, D. G. (1999). Attention to functional properties in toddlers' naming and problem solving. *Cognitive Development* 14: 77-100.

Kemler Nelson, D. G., Frankenfield, A., Morris, C., and Blair, E. (2000). Young children's use of functional information to categorize artifacts: Three factors that matter. *Cognition* 77: 133-168.



Landau, B., Smith, L., and Jones, S. (1998). Object perception and object naming in early development. *Trends in Cognitive Science* 2: 19-24.

Lavin, T. and Hall, G. (1999). Perceptual properties and children's acquisition of words for solids and non-solids. Poster presented at the biennial meeting for the Society for Research in Child Development. Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Macario, J. F. (1991). Young children's use of color and classification: Foods and canonically colored objects. *Cognitive Development* 6: 17-46.

Mandler, J. M. and McDonough, L. (1993). Concept formation in infancy. *Cognitive Development* 8: 291-318.

Matsuzawa, T. (1994). Field experiments on use of stone tools by chimpanzees in the wild. In *Chimpanzee Cultures*, ed. R. W. Wrangham, W. C. McGrew, F. B. M. de Waal, and P. G. Heltne, pp. 351-370. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

McGrew, W. C. (1992). *Chimpanzee Material Culture: Implications for Human Evolution*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mithen, S. (1996). *The Prehistory of the Mind: A Search for the Origins of Art, Religion, and Science*. London: Thames and Hudson.

Pinker, S. (1997). *How the Mind Works*. New York: Norton.

Povinelli, D. J. (2000). *Folk Physics for Apes : Chimpanzees, Tool-Use, and Causal Understanding*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rozin, P. (1990). Development in the food domain. *Developmental Psychology* 26: 555-562.

Santos, L. R. and Caramazza, A. (in press). The domain-specific hypothesis: A developmental and comparative perspective on category-specific deficits. In *Category-Specificity in Brain and Mind*, ed. G. Humphreys and E. Forde, pp. xxx-xxx. New York: Psychology Press.

Santos, L. R., Hauser, M. D., and Spelke, E. S. (under review). Representations of food kinds in the rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*): An Unexplored Domain of Knowledge. *Cognition*.

Santos, L. R., Miller, C. T., and Hauser, M. D. (1999). Knowledge of functionally-relevant features for different objects kinds. Poster presented at the Biennial Meeting for the Society for Research in Child Development. Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Santos, L. R., Miller, C. T., and Hauser, M.D. (under review). The features that guide them: Distinguishing between functionally relevant and irrelevant features of artifacts in cotton-top tamarins (*Saguinus oedipus oedipus*) and rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*). *Journal of Cognition and Development*.

Shettleworth, S. J. (1998). *Cognition, Evolution, and Behavior*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Spelke, E. S. (1985). Preferential looking methods as tools for the study of cognition in infancy. In *Measurement of Audition and Vision in the First Year of Post-Natal Life*, ed. G. Gottlieb and N. Krasnegor, pp. 37-61. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corp.

Spelke, E. S. (1991). Physical knowledge in infancy: Reflections on Piaget's theory. In *The Epigenesis of Mind: Essays on Biology and Cognition*, ed. S. Carey and R. Gelman, pp. 37-61. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sperber, D. (1994). The modularity of thought and the epidemiology of representations. *Mapping the Mind: Domain Specificity in Cognition and Culture*, ed. L. A. Hirschfeld and S. A. Gelman, pp. 39-67. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Stephens, D. W. and Krebs, J. R. (1986). *Foraging Theory*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Tomasello, M. and Call, J. (1997). *Primate Cognition*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Visalberghi, E. and Tomasello, M. (1998). Primate causal understanding in the physical and psychological domains. *Behavioural Processes* 42: 189-203.

Wang, R. F., Hermer, L. and Spelke, E. S. (1999). Mechanisms of reorientation and object localization by children: A comparison with rats. *Behavioral Neuroscience* 113: 475-485.

Wynn, K. (1998). Psychological foundations of number: Numerical competence in human infants. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences* 2: 296-303.

Ydenberg, R. C. (1998). Behavioral decisions about foraging and predator avoidance. In *Cognitive Ecology: The Evolutionary Ecology of Information Processing and Decision Making*, ed. R. Dukas, pp. 343-378. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 343-378.

## Figure Legends

Figure 1. An example of an original tool training condition. Subjects learned to pull one of these two canes to obtain the food reward (from Hauser 1997).

Figure 2. Feature change conditions. In this condition, subjects were presented a cane of a new size versus a cane of a new color (A) or a cane of a new shape versus a cane of a new texture (B). Subjects preferred canes with new colors (C) and textures respectively (D).

Figure 3. Santos, Miller, and Hauser (under review) expectancy violation experiment. Subjects were habituated to an event in which an purple L-shaped tool pushed a grape across a stage and down a ramp (A). Subjects were then tested with two test trials: a color change test trial (B) in which the color of the tool changed and a shape change test trial (C) in which the shape of the tool changed. Subjects looked reliably longer at the shape change test trial.

Figure 4. Santos, Miller, and Hauser (1999) word learning experiment. Subjects were taught a label for a novel food or artifact and then were asked to transfer this label to objects of the same and different colors and shapes.

Figure 5. Santos, Hauser and Spelke (under review) social facilitation test. Rhesus macaques watched a human experimenter eat one of two novel objects (A). The objects were then placed down (B) and subjects were allowed to choose one of the two items (C).