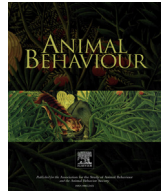




Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Animal Behaviour

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/anbehav

Logical inferences from visual and auditory information in ruffed lemurs and sifakas

Francesca De Petrillo ^{a, b, *}, Alexandra G. Rosati ^{b, c}

^a Institute for Advance Study in Toulouse, 1, Esplanade de l'Université, Toulouse, France

^b Department of Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, U.S.A.

^c Department of Anthropology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, U.S.A.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 17 October 2019

Initial acceptance 24 December 2019

Final acceptance 31 January 2020

Available online xxx

MS. number: A19-00797R

Keywords:

auditory information
inference by exclusion
lemur
logical inference
visual information

Inference by exclusion, or the ability to select a correct course of action by systematically excluding other potential alternatives, is a form of logical inference that allows individuals to solve problems without complete information. Current comparative research shows that several bird, mammal and primate species can find hidden food through inference by exclusion. Yet there is also wide variation in how successful different species are as well as the kinds of sensory information they can use to do so. An important question is therefore why some species are better at engaging in logical inference than others. Here, we investigate the evolution of logical reasoning abilities by comparing strepsirrhine primate species that vary in dietary ecology: frugivorous ruffed lemurs (*Varecia* spp.) and folivorous Coquerel's sifakas, *Propithecus coquereli*. Across two studies, we examined their abilities to locate food using direct information versus inference from exclusion and using both visual and auditory information. In study 1, we assessed whether these lemurs could make inferences when full visual and auditory information about the two potential locations of food were provided. In study 2, we then compared their ability to make direct inferences versus inferences by exclusion in both the visual and auditory domains. We found that these lemur species can use visual information to find food, but that only ruffed lemurs were also able to use auditory cues, mirroring differences in the complexity of their wild ecology. We further found that, unlike many anthropoid species tested to date, these strepsirrhine species failed to make inferences by exclusion. These results highlight the importance of natural history in understanding the evolution of logical inference and help reconstruct the deeper phylogeny of primate cognition.

© 2020 The Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

When navigating their physical or social world, both humans and nonhuman animals face problems where the information necessary for optimal action is incomplete or even missing. In such situations, being able to use the information available to reconstruct or infer what information is missing can be advantageous. Inferential reasoning therefore allows individuals to adaptively respond to situation when fragmentary information is available, by associating a perceivable and an inferred or imagined event (Premack, 1995). A dominant view in cognitive science is that inferential reasoning is dependent on language and requires a long developmental process in humans (Carruthers, 2002; Cesana-Arlotti, et al., 2018; Falmagne, 1990; Piaget, 1953). As such, both nonhuman animals and human infants might be limited in their abilities for reasoning, combining information flexibly or in

thinking abstractly (Penn, Holyoak, & Povinelli, 2008; Premack, 2007; Shettleworth, 2012; Spelke, 2002). Thus, whether nonverbal creatures are able to make inferences is a crucial issue for understanding the evolution of intelligent behaviour (e.g. Call, 2004; Hill, Collier-Baker, & Suddendorf, 2011; Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009; Schoegl et al., 2009; see Völter & Call, 2017, for a review).

In fact, several lines of evidence indicate that preverbal human infants (Cesana-Arlotti et al., 2018) and some nonhuman animal species (Völter & Call, 2017) are able to engage in at least simple forms of inferential reasoning. For example, inference by exclusion is the ability to select the correct alternative by excluding other potential alternatives. In the simplest version of a task assessing inference by exclusion in animals, individuals are presented with two opaque containers, of which only one is baited with a food reward. Individuals are then provided with explicit information about the contents of either the baited container or the empty one. Then, they can choose between the two in order to get the food

* Correspondence: F. De Petrillo, Institute for Advance Study in Toulouse, 1, esplanade de l'Université, 31080, Toulouse, Cedex 06, France.

E-mail address: fdepetri@umich.edu (F. De Petrillo).

(Call, 2004). Thus, decision-makers can potentially use the information that one container is empty to infer that the other container must have the reward. This paradigm has been used extensively to investigate inference by exclusion abilities across a wide range of species including primates, mammals and birds (see Völter & Call, 2017, for a review). In fact, many animal species can solve this problem, including great apes (chimpanzees, *Pan troglodytes*; bonobos, *Pan paniscus*; gorillas, *Gorilla*; orang-utans: *Pongo pygmaeus* and *Pongo abeli*; Call, 2004), Old World monkeys (olive baboons, *Papio hamadryas anubis*: Schmitt & Fischer, 2009; Tonkean macaques, *Macaca tonkeana*: Petit et al., 2015), New World monkeys (capuchins, *Cebus apella*: Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008; spider monkeys, *Ateles geoffroyi*: Hill et al., 2011; cottontop tamarins: *Saguinus oedipus*: Heimbauer, Johns, & Weiss, 2019), dwarf goats, *Capra aegagrus hircus*, Nawroth, von Borell, & Langbein, 2014), domestic dogs, *Canis familiaris* (Bräuer, Kaminski, Riedel, Call, & Tomasello, 2006; Erdőhegyi, Topál, Virányi, & Miklósi, 2007), Asian elephants, *Elephas maximus* (Plotnik, Shaw, Brubaker, Tiller, & Clayton, 2014) and birds, including ravens, *Corvus corax* (Schloegl et al., 2009), carrion crows, *Corvus corone corone* (Mikolasch, Kotschal, & Schloegl, 2012), New Caledonian crows, *Corvus moneduloides* (Jelbert, Taylor, & Gray, 2015), keas, *Nestor notabilis* (Schloegl et al., 2009), and African grey parrots, *Psittacus erithacus* (Mikolasch, Kotschal, & Schloegl, 2011; Pepperberg, Koepke, Livingston, Girard, & Hartsfield, 2013). While animals may solve this task using different strategies (Mikolasch et al., 2012; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009), this pattern suggests that a basic form of reasoning, or at least a precursor to that kind of inference, is both independent from language and widespread in the animal kingdom.

These results also show important variation in performance across species, with some species showing more successful performance than others. For example, while carrion crows and ravens can find food using inference by exclusion (Mikolasch et al., 2012), jackdaws, *Corvus monedula*, are unable to do so (Schloegl, 2011). Comparative work on nonhuman primates, so far comprising 14 species to date, also indicates that there is large variability in abilities (Call, 2004; Heimbauer, Antworth, & Owren, 2012; Maille & Roeder, 2012; Marsh, Vining, Levendoski, & Judge, 2015; Schloegl et al., 2009). For example, while many primate species can use visual information to make inferences from exclusion about hidden rewards (e.g. visually showing animals that one location is empty), using auditory information (e.g. providing an audible cue, or lack of such a cue, that food is present by shaking a container) seems to be more challenging on the whole. While apes and capuchin monkeys seems to be able to use both visual and auditory information to locate food, orang-utans, Tonkean macaques, baboons, rhesus monkeys, *Macaca mulatta*, and cottontop tamarins were unable to use auditory information in similar contexts (Heimbauer et al., 2019; Hill et al., 2011; Petit et al., 2015; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009).

What is the origin of this kind of variation in cognition across species? Many views on the evolution of cognition have emphasized that socioecology may play an important role in shaping cognitive abilities. While social organization has long been thought to be the major selective pressure in primate cognitive evolution (Byrne & Whiten, 1988; Dunbar, 1998; Dunbar & Shultz, 2007; Humphrey, 1976; Jolly, 1966), other views argue that at least some cognitive abilities evolved in response to different cognitive challenges posed by various features of the diet. In particular, species foraging on more complex food – in terms of a heterogeneous spatiotemporal distribution, greater environmental uncertainty or high degree of necessary processing – may have evolved more sophisticated cognitive skills and larger brains (Byrne, 1997; Clutton-Brock & Harvey, 1980; Deaner, Barton, & van Schaik,

2003; DeCasien, Williams, & Higham, 2017; MacLean, Barrickman, Johnson, & Wall, 2009; Milton, 1981; Parker & Gibson, 1977; Rosati, 2017). Along these lines, empirical evidence highlights that ecological complexity may be especially important for understanding the evolution of memory, decision making and executive functions – cognitive capacities that play a crucial role in supporting effective foraging behaviour (Addessi, Paglieri, & Focaroli, 2011; De Petrillo, Ventricelli, Ponsi, & Addessi, 2015; Heilbronner, Rosati, Stevens, Hare, & Hauser, 2008; MacLean et al., 2012; Platt, Brannon, Brieese, & French, 1996; Rosati & Hare, 2012, 2013; Rosati, Rodriguez, & Hare, 2014; Rosati, Stevens, Hare, & Hauser, 2007; Stevens, 2014; Stevens, Rosati, Ross, & Hauser, 2005; for reviews, see ; De Petrillo & Rosati, 2019; Rosati, 2017).

The ability to make these kinds of inferences may also be related to foraging behaviour and ecological complexity, as reasoning capacities can allow animals to select (and exclude) potential food patches based on whether they are plausibly resource-rich or depleted. For example, frugivorous species depend more on food sources that are patchily distributed in the environment and more difficult to locate (Milton, 1981; Rosati, 2017). As such, they may need to make such inferences on a routine basis, whereas folivorous species feed on relatively homogeneously distributed leaves where such inferences may be less important. A given species' natural history may further shape the kinds of information that they preferentially attend to when making inferences. Given that only apes and capuchins show robust use of auditory information when making inferences by exclusion (Call, 2004; Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008), this suggests that some species may have evolved a propensity to also attend to auditory cues in foraging contexts in response to their specific feeding ecology. For example, capuchin monkeys will tap nuts in order to assess their contents based on the sounds produced (Visalberghi & Néel, 2003), and also use stones to crack and open nuts (Visalberghi & Fragaszy, 2013). Similarly, apes may be able to flexibly use different kinds of causal cues, including auditory information (Bräuer et al., 2006), because they also forage on foods that are not directly visible, like insects, and engage in extensive tool use behaviours including nut cracking (Boesch & Boesch, 1990; Brewer & McGrew, 1990; McGrew, 2010; Sanz, Call, & Morgan, 2009).

However, the evolutionary processes shaping abilities for logical reasoning in primates are currently unclear, as most work on inference by exclusion to date has focused on the proof of existence of this skill in nonhuman animals and often has involved only single species (sometimes only a few individuals), or examining distantly related species that can be less useful for these kinds of evolutionary inferences due to a phylogenetic signal in cognitive traits (MacLean et al., 2012; Nunn, 2011). In addition, in studies of primates there has been a heavy focus on anthropoid primates (monkeys and apes). Although understudied compared with anthropoids, strepsirrhine primates (lemurs and lorises) represent an important model of the ancestral primate mind (Fichtel & Kappeler, 2010) and are a strong test for hypotheses about cognitive evolution because they exhibit high levels of diversity in evolutionarily relevant characteristics such as social system, ecology and activity patterns (Fichtel & Kappeler, 2010; Richard & Dewar, 1991; Rosati, 2017). Yet despite this diversity in evolutionarily relevant characteristics, Malagasy primates are a monophyletic group with many overall similarities in lifestyle that account for other potential sources of variation in cognitive abilities, such as brain size (Horvath et al., 2008; Karanth, Delefosse, Rakotosamimanana, Parsons, & Yoder, 2005; Yoder, Cartmill, Ruvolo, Smith, & Vilgalys, 1996).

To date, however, little is known about logical inference abilities in lemurs with two main exceptions. First, one previous study examined transitive reasoning, a form of deductive reasoning

according to which if A exceeds B, and B exceeds C, then A thereby exceeds C (MacLean, Merritt, & Brannon, 2008). Yet only one study has investigated inference by exclusion abilities specifically in lemurs, testing a small sample of black and brown lemurs (*Eulemur macaco* and *Eulemur fulvus*, $N = 3$ per species) on choices involving visual or auditory information (Maille & Roeder, 2012). This study showed limited evidence for inferential reasoning by exclusion in lemurs – but also more success at the auditory cue, which is surprising given data from anthropoids. Furthermore, while strepsirrhines generally have a less developed visual acuity than anthropoids (Kirk, 2004; Kirk & Kay, 2004), prior work shows that lemurs can use visual cues to differentiate food items (Rushmore, Leonhardt, & Drea, 2012). Overall, this study therefore suggests that lemurs may differ in their inference abilities compared to anthropoids, both in terms of their abilities to make inferences from exclusion and in the kinds of information they focus on to do so.

In the current study, we therefore investigated logical reasoning abilities in lemurs that differ in their wild ecology: red ruffed lemurs, *Varecia rubra*, black-and-white ruffed lemurs, *Varecia variegata*, and Coquerel's sifaka, *Propithecus coquereli*. While both sifakas and ruffed lemurs live in medium-sized family groups (mean group sizes for sifakas: 6.1; for ruffed lemurs: 5.4; MacLean et al., 2009, 2013), they exhibit major differences in their diet. Both black-and-white ruffed lemurs and red ruffed lemurs (classed as *V. variegata* subspecies until recently; Mittermeier et al., 2008) are among the most highly frugivorous of lemurs, with diets that can exceed 90% fruit (Britt, 2000; Schmidt et al., 2010; Vasey, 2005). Sifakas, in contrast, are adapted for a leaf-based diet with specialized dentition and gut structure that allows the microbial fermentation of fibrous foods (Campbell, Eisemann, Williams, & Glenn, 2000; Richard, 1977). These robust ecological differences make these species a strong test case to examine how ecological complexity shapes cognitive abilities for inferential reasoning. We modified the task developed by Call (2004) for lemurs, and directly compared these species' abilities to make inferences from direct evidence versus by exclusion, using both visual and auditory information. In the first study we investigated lemurs' success in using direct visual and auditory information about the location of food. In the second study, we examined lemurs' abilities to make direct inferences versus reason by exclusion to locate the food based on either complete or partial visual and auditory information. Since there is evidence that ruffed lemurs and sifakas can use visual cues to identify food (Rushmore et al., 2012), we predicted that both ruffed lemurs and sifakas would exploit direct visual information. However, frugivorous species might also benefit from attending to auditory cues, for example, the sound of a fruit falling from a tree, such that ruffed lemurs would be better able to use auditory information. Finally, we also predicted that the frugivorous ruffed lemurs would be generally better at making inference by exclusion compared to folivorous sifakas, due to differences in dietary complexity.

STUDY 1: USING DIRECT EVIDENCE TO FIND FOOD

In study 1, we examined whether lemurs can use complete visual versus auditory information to find food in one of two containers. Lemurs observed that one piece of food was hidden inside one of two possible containers but they did not know which one. Then they were provided with either visual or auditory information about the contents of both containers. We had two main goals with this study: (1) to test lemurs' ability to use visual versus auditory information; and (2) to identify lemurs who could use direct information in order to subsequently test whether they can make inferences by exclusion in study 2.

Ethics Statement

All noninvasive behavioural tests had ethics approval from Duke University's Institution Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol No. A268-16-12).

Subjects

Our final sample included 19 lemurs at the Duke Lemur Center in Durham, North Carolina, U.S.A. (see Appendix, Table A1 for detailed subject information): 10 ruffed lemurs (3 black-and-white ruffed lemurs, 7 red ruffed lemurs, 3 females, 7 males; mean \pm SE age = 6.9 ± 0.7 years, range 1–30 years; analyses were collapsed across these groups given their overall similarity and classification as subspecies until recently) and nine Coquerel's sifaka (4 females, 5 males; mean \pm SE age = 12.4 ± 0.6 years, range 2–29 years; Table A1). Lemurs were housed in species-appropriate social groups, and all had access to indoor and outdoor rooms; many also could semi-free-range in forest enclosures for more than half the year, temperature permitting. They had ad libitum access to water during the sessions, were not food-restricted for testing and were fed a species-appropriate daily diet of fruit, vegetables, leaves and chow. Subjects completed no more than one test session per day, and all tests were voluntary: if the lemur stopped participating, the session was stopped. To our knowledge, these lemurs were naïve to inference by exclusion tasks and had little or no prior experience in relevant cognitive tasks that involved making choices between containers that contained hidden food (e.g. four individuals, 2 sifakas and 2 ruffed lemurs, had participated in MacLean et al., 2012, several years previously). All lemurs therefore completed several initial introductory sessions to familiarize them with the set-up for these tasks (described below) before completing the main test session. An additional nine subjects (8 sifakas, 1 ruffed lemur) were initially tested in those introductory sessions but were not tested in the main experiment because they either failed to reach criterion in the introductory sessions ($N = 6$) or stopped participating ($N = 3$).

Set-up and General Procedure

Lemurs were individually tested in one of their familiar indoor rooms. The primary experimenter (E1) sat outside the room, separated from the lemur by wire mesh, and presented the experiment on a plastic table (length 76.2 cm, width 45.72 cm, height 49.53 cm); a second identical table was placed inside the lemur's room so the lemur could sit on it (see Fig. 1 for diagram of set-up and Video S1 for example). A second experimenter (E2) filmed lemurs' choices and recorded choices live on paper (without directly interacting with the lemur or study materials). In the basic procedure for the main test, E1 showed the lemur a reward and then baited one of two visually distinct boxes behind an occluder, out of the lemur's view. The experimenter then covered the boxes with a corresponding lid. Then E1 removed the occluder and presented either a visual cue (opening the lids) or auditory cue (shaking the boxes) for both boxes in succession (see Fig. 1). Lemurs then could indicate their choice by either touching a box or approaching one of the boxes within 3 cm from their initial centred staring position (note that many lemurs habitually indicate choices by moving their heads directly near the option, rather than touching the option with their hands; see Video S1). We used portions of Craisins as rewards for the ruffed lemurs and portions of peanuts for the sifakas, as these species have different dietary needs. To produce a consistent auditory cue across the different food types, we also hid a small rock in a secret compartment at the bottom of the boxes so that both boxes would produce identical

noise when shaken. To control for any olfactory cues, we rubbed both boxes with food before the session started.

Supplementary video related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2020.03.010>

Sessions and Conditions

Lemurs completed three sessions: (1) a familiarization session, (2) an introductory session and (3) a direct cue test session. The familiarization and introductory sessions were implemented to introduce lemurs to this basic procedure and making binary choices between options, as most of these lemurs were fairly naïve to such situations as described previously. As such, in these sessions, the baiting process occurred in full view of the subjects. Then, in the direct cue test, the baiting occurred behind an occluder, out of the subject's view (see Fig. 1).

Familiarization Session

The familiarization session was designed to acclimate the lemurs to the basic procedure of making choices between two containers. Here, lemurs first experienced two trial types involving choices between two identical light-blue coloured rectangular boxes (10.16×5 cm each) after observing food being placed in one of them. Then, they experienced two additional trial types where they were provided with either a visual or an auditory cue about the contents of just one box in addition to observing it being baited. In both cases, lemurs indicated their choice by moving towards or touching a box on the side of the table from their initial centre starting position. Within each familiarization session, the position of the reward (left or right box) was counterbalanced within a trial type and quasi-randomized with the restriction that it could not be on the same side more than twice in a row. Lemurs completed a minimum of 12 and a maximum of 16 total trials in the following order.

(1) Exposure: visible food (choice between two boxes; at least two trials). Here, the two boxes (with their lids on top) were placed in the centre of the table, and the experimenter visibly placed a piece of food on the top of one of the box's lids. She then moved the

boxes apart to the sides of the table in view of the lemur, and let the subject choose. This allowed lemurs to learn to choose one of the boxes in response to clearly visible food rewards. If the subject did not choose correctly on the first two trials, they could repeat up to two additional trials.

(2) Exposure: hidden food (choice between two boxes; at least two trials). Here, lemurs experienced that the food could be placed inside the boxes. The procedure was largely the same as in the visible trials, but the experimenter visibly placed a piece of food inside one of the boxes, and then tilted both boxes towards the subject at the same time. When the lemur had clearly seen the contents of the boxes, the experimenter moved the boxes apart, and the lemur could choose. If the subject did not choose correctly on the first two trials, they could repeat up to two additional trials.

(3) Visual cue experience trials (one box; four trials). These trials were designed to introduce the lemurs to the visual cues used in the main test session, but note that lemurs did not need to use the cue to locate the food because there was only one box present. The experimenter placed a piece of food inside the box in full view of the subject, tilted the box and showed its contents to the lemur for approximately 4 s, then covered it with the lid. Finally, the experimenter moved the box to one side of the table, and the subject could choose.

(4) Auditory experience trials (one box; four trials). These trials introduced the auditory cues, again without the need to use this cue to locate the food. Here, the experimenter placed a piece of food inside one box in full view of the subject and then covered it with a lid. Then, she shook the box for approximately 4 s. After the experimenter had moved the box to one side of the table, the subject chose.

To proceed to the next introductory session, lemurs had to choose correctly for two consecutive times in both of the initial exposure trials types. If they failed, they repeated the entire familiarization session the next day. In both the visual experience trials and in the auditory experience trials, if the subject did not choose the box within 30 s, the trial was aborted and repeated for a maximum of three consecutive times. If the subject still did not choose, the session was halted and repeated on a different day. Lemurs completed a minimum of one session and a maximum of

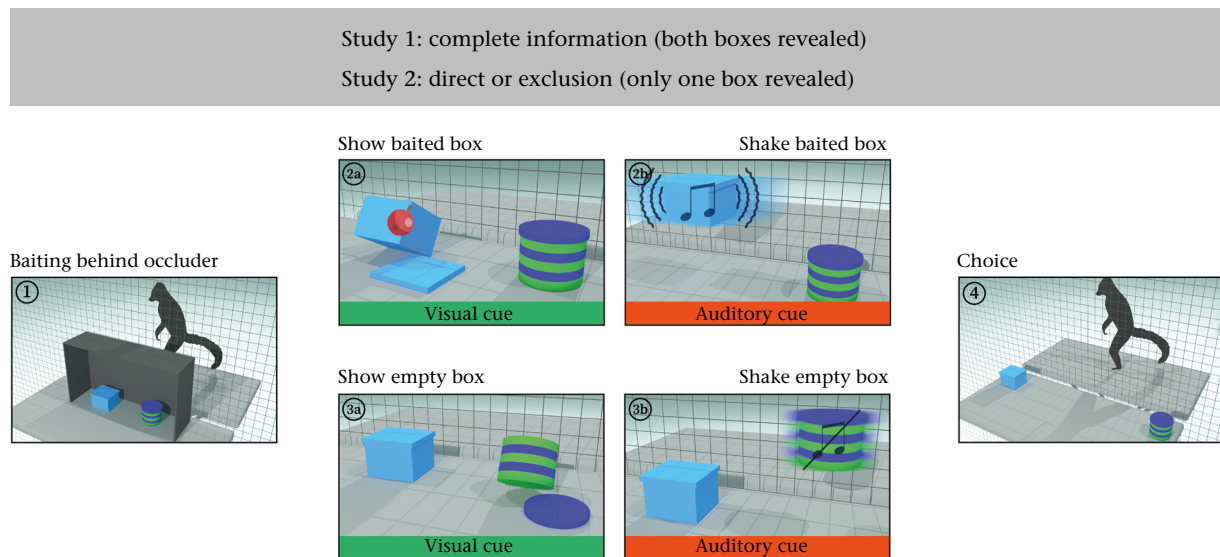


Figure 1. Experimental set-up for studies. The experimenter (1) baited one of the two boxes with a food reward behind a black cardboard occluder. Once the occluder was removed, in study 1 the experimenter either revealed the contexts of both boxes, or in study 2, revealed just one (e.g. either the baited container or the empty one). In the visual information conditions, this involved opening the lids (panels 2a and 3a) and in the auditory information condition the experimenter shook both boxes (panels 2b and 3b). Finally, the lemur could make a choice (4).

three sessions before reaching criterion and proceeding to the introductory session (ruffed lemurs needed on average 1.2 sessions to reach criterion, and sifakas needed on average 1.3 sessions to reach criterion in the familiarization session).

Introductory Session

The introductory session provided lemurs with experience making binary choices about hidden food, a major component of the main test procedure. Here, lemurs were presented with choices between two visibly different containers to help them differentiate the two locations: a light-blue coloured rectangular box (10.16 × 5 cm) and a round box coloured with dark blue and green stripes (10.16 cm; see Fig. 1). Side assignment of the boxes was constant across subject and trials, with the rectangular box always on the left and the round box always on the right. The baiting location was counterbalanced and quasi-randomized as before. Lemurs completed a minimum of 14 and a maximum of 16 total trials in the following order.

(1) Exposure trials: hidden food (at least two trials). Lemurs completed additional trials that were identical to those of this trial type in the familiarization session. If the subject did not choose correctly on the first two trials, they could repeat up to two additional trials.

(2) Visual cue choice trials (four trials). The experimenter placed a piece of food inside one of the boxes in full view of the subject. Then, she tilted each box (left, then right) and showed their contents to the lemur for 4 s (Fig. 1a) before covering the boxes with the lids. After the experimenter had moved the boxes apart, the subject could choose a box. Note that lemurs observed the baiting, so they did not need to use the cue to locate the food in these trials, unlike in the main test. To also ensure that lemurs understood that one box was always baited when two boxes were present, lemurs were allowed to self-correct and select the baited box within 30 s of their original choice if they initially approached the empty box.

(3) Auditory cue choice trials (four trials). The experimenter placed a piece of food inside one of the boxes in full view of the subject and then covered both boxes with lids. She then shook each box (left, then right) for 4 s; shaking the baited box produced an audible sound, while shaking the empty box did not produce any sound. (Fig. 1b). Lemurs again did not need to use the cue to locate the food in these trials as they observed the baiting, and they were allowed to self-correct as in the visual cue trials.

(4) No-cue control choice trials (four trials). These trials were designed to introduce the occluder and show the lemurs that they could not otherwise detect the presence of food without either auditory or visual cues. Here, the experimenter showed the lemur a piece of food and placed it inside one of the boxes, but here the baiting was blocked by the occluder. The experimenter then removed the occluder and moved the boxes apart without giving any information about the contents of either. Again, lemurs were allowed to self-correct.

Lemurs could self-correct in order to ensure that they had experienced that one of the boxes was always baited, and across all sessions, lemurs self-corrected their choice in 95% of the trials in which they had previously selected the empty box. Importantly, in order to proceed to the main test, they had to demonstrate proficiency with correctly selecting the baited box first. In particular, lemurs had to select the baited box in six out of eight total trials across the visual and auditory cue trials (note that there was no equivalent 'correct' response for the no-cue controls). This criterion was selected to ensure that lemurs showed a basic facility with the task without overtraining them on particular cues that they might

not naturally use. Lemurs completed a minimum of one session and a maximum of six sessions before reaching criterion (ruffed lemurs needed on average 2.5 sessions to reach criterion and sifakas needed on average 2.2 sessions). Overall, lemurs chose the baited box significantly more when they watched the baiting than when no information about the contents of the boxes was initially provided (paired samples *t* test: cue trials: mean = $0.80 \pm SE = 0.02$; no-cue trials: 0.37 ± 0.04 ; $t_{18} = 10.751$, $P < 0.0001$; see Table A1 for information about individuals performance).

Direct Cue Test Session

In the main test, lemurs were then provided with information about the contents of both boxes in two different sensory modalities. We used the same basic procedure as in the introductory session except for two main differences. First, the occluder was always used during the baiting process, so that the location of the food was not directly observed by the subject and could only be detected during the cue phase. In particular, here the experimenter either showed the contents of both boxes (visual trials) or shook both boxes (auditory trials) before the lemur made a choice. Second, subjects were not allowed to self-correct if they initially approached the empty box in these trials. Lemurs completed eight visual cue trials and eight auditory cue trials (see Fig. 1, Video S1). The trials were presented in blocks with the same modality type, with order (e.g. visual versus auditory trials first) counterbalanced across subjects. As in the introductory session, the boxes' locations were constant, and the side assignment of the baited location was counterbalanced and quasi-randomized. Finally, the cues (visually showing or auditory shaking) were always provided from the left box to the right box. Lemurs' first session (e.g. their initial performance) was analysed for this study, but note that some individuals repeated the session before proceeding to study 2, as detailed below (see Study 2, Subjects).

Coding and Data Analysis

Choices were coded live by the experimenters, and a coder blind to the study's hypotheses coded 20% of all trials; the index of concordance was high (Cohen's kappa = 0.99). For analyses, we used generalized estimating equations (GEE) to analyse test choices on a trial-by-trial basis while accounting for correlation of responses due to repeated measurements of the same subject (Liang & Zeger, 1986; Pekár & Brabec, 2018). We implemented models using the 'geepack' software package in the statistics program R (R Core Team, 2017) with exchangeable correlation structure to account for within-subject correlations across trials, and robust standard errors. Best-fitting models were selected on the basis of the lowest QICu (i.e. quasi-likelihood ratio tests; Cui, 2007; Pan, 2001).

Results and Discussion

Our primary question in study 1 concerned lemurs' abilities to use direct evidence from auditory versus visual modalities (see Fig. 2). Ruffed lemurs and sifakas both successfully used visual information to locate the food, with overall performance significantly above chance (ruffed lemurs: 0.76 ± 0.05 ; one-sample *t* test: $t_9 = 5.547$, $P = 0.0004$; Coquerel's sifakas: 0.76 ± 0.04 ; $t_8 = 6.825$, $P = 0.0001$; Fig. 2a). However, we found a different pattern for auditory information. While ruffed lemurs were able to choose the baited location using sound (one-sample *t* test: 0.64 ± 0.06 ; $t_9 = 2.400$, $P = 0.04$; Fig. 2a), sifakas did not (0.49 ± 0.05 ; $t_8 = -0.286$, $P = 0.78$; Fig. 2a). Comparisons between species showed a trend for ruffed lemurs to outperform sifakas for auditory

information, but not visual cues (independent samples *t* test: visual cue: $t_{16.67} = -0.227, P = 0.98$; auditory cue: $t_{16.82} = 2.015$, two-tailed $P = 0.06$). We found a similar pattern when we compared the first trial for each sensory modality, before lemurs got additional feedback and experience about correct responses. Overall, lemurs successfully used visual information, but not auditory information, on their first trial (binomial test: visual cue: $P = 0.02$; auditory cue: $P = 0.65$; note that here we collapsed across species due to sample size; Fig. 2b).

We then used GEEs to directly compare species' performance across these different modalities of information, modelling test trial response as a binary outcome. Our base model included subject as a random factor to account for repeated trials, as well as condition order (visual cue first or auditory cue first), trial number (to account for any learning over trials) and the number of introductory sessions to criterion for that individual (to account for each individual's learning experiences prior to the main test). In a second model, we then added trial type (visual cue trials or auditory cue trials) to test whether lemurs showed different performance across modalities, which improved model fit (QICu = 383.40 in model 2 versus 394.90 in model 1; see Table 1 for parameters of this best-fitting model). To examine whether the species differed in performance, we added species as a factor. However, contrary to our prediction, this predictor did not improve model fit compared with the second model (QICu = 383.54). Finally, we tested the interaction between species and trial type, but this also did not improve fit (QICu = 384.00). In the full model, neither species nor the species*trial type interaction was a significant predictor.

These results therefore indicate that both ruffed lemurs and sifakas used visual information to locate food, even from their first trial. However, lemurs were also clearly more successful in using visual information than auditory information to make their choices. This aligns with other diurnal primate species that also seem to find auditory cues more challenging to use in foraging contexts (Heimbauer et al., 2019; Petit et al., 2015; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009). While we did not find strong evidence that the species differed in their performance, ruffed lemurs seemed to exploit both auditory and visual information, whereas sifakas did not, suggesting that visual information might be more ecologically relevant for them.

STUDY 2: INFERENCE BY EXCLUSION

In study 2 we directly compared lemur's abilities to use direct information versus indirect information (inference by exclusion) to

locate food. As in study 1, lemurs saw a piece of food being hidden inside one of two boxes, behind an occluder. Then, they were provided with either visual or auditory information about the contents of only one box: either the baited box (direct cue) or the empty box (indirect cue).

Subjects

Eighteen of the 19 subjects that participated in study 1 were tested in study 2. Lemurs first had to successfully demonstrate proficiency with using direct information before they could proceed to this study (e.g. they choose the baited box in at least 6 of 8 trials in each sensory modality in the study 1 test session). Lemurs that did not initially pass this criterion in their first experience (the data analysed in study 1) could then repeat the same session up to three additional times. All lemurs from study 1 passed this criterion except one ruffed lemur who was no longer available for testing due to a change in her social group. Ruffed lemurs needed on average 1.9 direct test sessions to reach the criterion, and sifakas needed on average 2.8 sessions.

General Procedure

The general procedure of study 2 was the same as that of study 1. However, in the current experiment, lemurs received information about the contents of only one box using either visual or auditory cues: the contents of either the baited box (direct cue) or the empty box (inference by exclusion; see Fig. 1, Video S2). Note that, in study 1, lemurs had complete information about both boxes, whereas here lemurs only had information about one box (e.g. the baited box) in the direct cue condition. As in study 1's test session, the occluder was always used during baiting. In the direct visual cue, E1 showed only the contents of the baited box (e.g. the food), whereas in the exclusion visual cue she showed only the contents of the empty box. Likewise, in the direct auditory cue, E1 shook the baited box (which produced a noise) while in the exclusion auditory cue, she shook only the empty box. Lemurs completed one session composed of 16 total trials divided into two blocks for each sensory modality. Within each sensory modality, the order of direct and inference by exclusion trials was quasi-randomized.

Supplementary video related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2020.03.010>

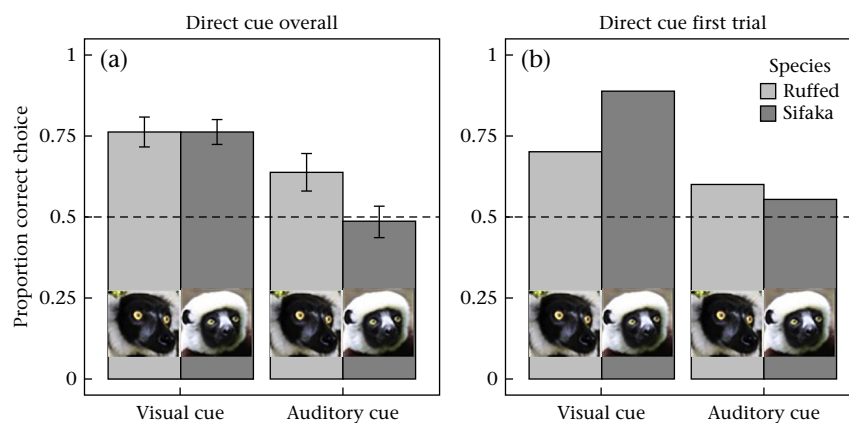


Figure 2. Mean proportion of choices of the baited box in study 1. (a) Lemurs' mean proportion of correct choices for each sensory modality; error bars indicate standard error. (b) Proportion of individuals who made the correct choice in their first trial of each sensory modality; note that there are no error bars here as each individual had only one trial. Dashed line indicates chance.

Table 1
Parameters from the best-fitting model predicting lemurs' choice in study 1 (direct cue test)

Predictor	Estimate	SE	Wald χ^2	P
Condition order (reference: auditory first)	0.135	0.239	0.32	0.57
Trial number (1–16)	0.001	0.024	0.00	0.97
Introductory sessions to criterion	0.090	0.102	0.78	0.38
Trial type (reference: visual cue)	-0.909	0.209	18.80	<0.001

Additional models added species and the species*trial type interaction, which decreased model fit. Significant effects are shown in bold.

Coding and Data Analysis

Choices were coded in the same way as in study 1. A coder unfamiliar with the aims of the study coded 100% of all trials with perfect inter-rater reliability. We used the same basic statistical analysis approach as in study 1.

Results and discussion

Our primary question concerned lemurs' abilities to use either direct evidence, or make inference by exclusion from auditory versus visual modalities (see Fig. 3). We first examined lemurs' performance when presented with information about the contents of the baited box (direct cue) and the contents of the empty box (exclusion cues) in each sensory modality. In line with the findings from study 1, when direct information was presented, ruffed lemurs and sifakas successfully used visual information (one-sample t test: ruffed lemurs: 0.77 ± 0.06 ; $t_8 = 4.264$, $P = 0.003$; Coquerel's sifakas: 0.72 ± 0.07 ; $t_8 = 2.874$, $P = 0.02$; Fig. 3) but not auditory information (ruffed lemurs: 0.64 ± 0.10 ; $t_8 = 1.348$, $P = 0.21$; Coquerel's sifakas: 0.55 ± 0.06 ; $t_8 = 1.00$, $P = 0.35$) to locate the food. When provided with information about the contents of the empty box, neither ruffed lemurs nor sifakas located the food above chance in either the visual cue condition (ruffed lemurs: 0.61 ± 0.10 ; $t_8 = 1.079$, $P = 0.31$; Coquerel's sifakas: 0.53 ± 0.07 ; $t_8 = 0.359$, $P = 0.73$) or the auditory cue condition (ruffed lemurs: 0.53 ± 0.06 ; $t_8 = 0.426$, $P = 0.68$; Coquerel's sifakas: 0.53 ± 0.11 ; $t_8 = 0.262$, $P = 0.79$).

As in study 1, we then used GEEs to model each individual test trial response as a binary outcome. We fitted a first model including subject as a random factor, and trial number and number of study 1 test sessions needed to meet criterion and proceed to this study. This model indicated that lemurs' overall performance was not affected by the number of trials or the number of direct test sessions. To test lemurs' relative success with visual versus auditory information, we then added trial type (visual or auditory), which

improved fit (QICu = 390.92 in model 1 versus 390.01 in model 2), confirming our results from study 1. We then tested whether lemurs were able to find the food with partial information by including the interaction between trial type*cue type (direct or exclusion), which also improved the model fit (QICu = 387.93); lemurs were more successful in finding food using direct information, with no interaction with trial type (see Table 2 for the parameters from this best-fitting model). Finally, there was no significant improvement by including species (QICu = 389.60) or the species*cue type*trial type interaction (QICu = 395.00), indicating no difference between ruffed lemurs' and sifakas' performance across conditions.

Overall, these results again confirm that lemurs are better at using direct visual information than direct auditory information to locate food, here in a slightly different set-up where they only received information about the baited box (e.g. not the complete information about both boxes as provided in study 1). However, we also found that they generally failed to reason by exclusion when they were provided with information about the contents of the empty box.

Table 2
Parameters from the best-fitting model predicting lemurs' choice in study 2 (inference by exclusion test)

Predictor	Estimate	SE	Wald χ^2	P
Condition order (reference: auditory first)	-0.330	0.267	1.52	0.22
Trial number (1–16)	0.012	0.023	0.24	0.62
Study 1 sessions to criterion	-0.101	0.147	0.47	0.49
Trial type (reference: visual cue)	-0.718	0.349	4.23	0.04
Cue type (reference: direct cue)	-0.832	0.373	4.96	0.03
Trial type*cue type	0.551	0.544	1.02	0.31

Additional inclusion of species and species*trial type*cue type did not improve model fit. Significant effects are shown in bold.

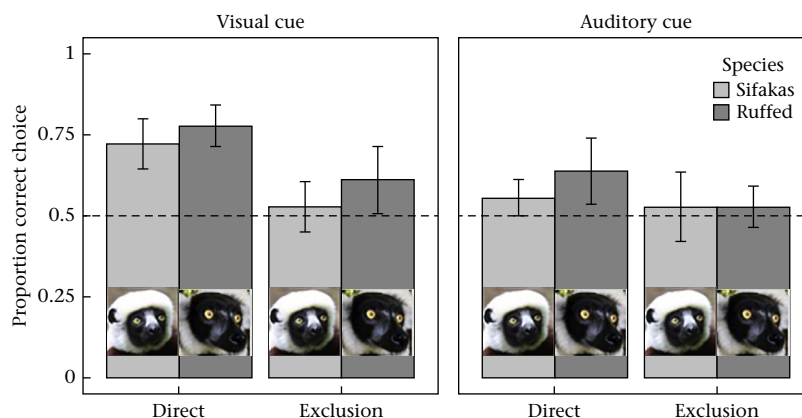


Figure 3. Mean proportion of choices of the baited box in study 2. Proportion of choices of the baited box when information about either the contents of the baited box (direct cue) or the contents of the empty box (exclusion cue) was provided in the two sensory modalities. Error bars indicate standard error, and dashed line indicates chance.









		 Direct visual cue	 Exclusion visual cue	 Direct auditory cue	 Exclusion auditory cue
 Apes	Chimpanzees ^{1,2,3}	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Bonobos ^{1,2,3}	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Gorillas ¹	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Orang-utans ¹	✓	✓	X	X
	Siamangs ²	✓	✓	X	X
 Old World monkeys	Tonkean macaques ⁴	✓	✓	✓	X
	Rhesus macaques ⁴	✓	X	X	X
	Olive baboons ^{4,5}	✓	✓	X	X
 New World monkeys	Capuchin monkeys ^{6,7,8,9}	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Squirrel monkeys ⁹	✓	X	✓	X
	Spider monkeys ²	✓	✓	X	X
	Cottontop tamarins ¹⁰	✓	✓	X	X
 Strepsirrhine	Black lemurs ¹¹	✓	X	✓	X
	Brown lemurs ¹¹	✓	X	✓	✓
	Ruffed lemurs	✓	X	✓	X
	Coquerel's sifakas	✓	X	X	X

Figure 4. Distribution of inference by exclusion abilities across primates. Patterns of performance across different primate species tested on inference by exclusion tasks to date, including results from the present study. ¹ Call (2004). ² Hill et al. (2011). ³ Bräuer et al. (2006). ⁴ Petit et al. (2015). ⁵ Schmitt and Fischer (2009). ⁶ Sabbatini and Visalberghi (2008). ⁷ Paukner et al. (2009). ⁸ Heimbauer et al. (2012). ⁹ Marsh et al. (2015). ¹⁰ Heimbauer and Johns (2019). ¹¹ Maille and Roeder (2012).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Our studies reveal three main findings. First, lemurs are able to locate food when they possess full information about the potential food locations, and are more adept at doing so when provided with visual compared to auditory information. In study 1, both ruffed lemurs and sifakas successfully found the food when they could see the contents of both boxes. Even though all lemurs had to show additional proficiency at using both visual and auditory cues in the full information context before proceeding to the second study, our results from study 2 show that ruffed lemurs and sifakas were again better at using visual information when they were provided with information only about the baited box. Second, only ruffed lemurs could use auditory information to some degree to locate food when both containers were shaken in study 1. Finally, we found that neither lemurs nor sifakas were able to use inference by exclusion to find food. Along with prior work examining two *Eulemur* species (Maille & Roeder, 2012), this suggests that strepsirrhines are less adept at making inferences by exclusion compared to anthropoid primates. As shown in Fig. 4, anthropoid primates tested in the two-location inference by exclusion paradigm (Call, 2004) showed better performance with visual information than with auditory information, similar to the performance of lemurs in the present study on direct cues. Indeed, only great apes and capuchins have demonstrated success in making inference by exclusion with auditory cues, while orang-utans, Tonkean macaques, baboons, rhesus macaques, squirrel monkeys and cottontop tamarins performed poorly when auditory cues were provided (Call, 2004; Petit

et al., 2015; Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009; see Fig. 4).

What can account for the variation in logical reasoning abilities across species, as well as the different proficiency that animals seem to have for visual versus auditory information? Current evidence aligns with the hypothesis that dietary ecology can at least partially explain these results. For example, many of the anthropoid primates tested to date forage primarily for fruits or leaves that can easily be found using visual cues alone (Heimbauer et al., 2012; Petit et al., 2015; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009). As a result, these species may have evolved a propensity to favour visual information over auditory information in foraging contexts. In fact, only a few species tested thus far, in particular capuchins and chimpanzees, succeed at using auditory cues to solve inference by exclusion tasks; these species rely more heavily on extractive foraging and consequently may need to use sound as cue to locate food in their wild environments (Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009). Our results extend this ecological hypothesis to variation in strepsirrhine primates' cognition. Both ruffed lemurs and sifakas are diurnal species that likely preferentially exploit visual over auditory information in their environment. Yet we also found that more frugivorous ruffed lemurs, but not folivorous sifakas, were able to use both direct visual cues and direct auditory cues to find food. Similarly, previous studies have shown that both ruffed lemurs and ringtailed lemurs, *Lemur catta*, can flexibly rely on different sensory cues when they search for food using either visual or olfactory cues in isolation, whereas sifakas require both kinds of sensory information in tandem to

best detect food, a difference also interpreted in terms of their differing dietary complexity (Rushmore et al., 2012). In contrast, the only previous work examining inference by exclusion in lemurs suggests that black and brown lemurs perform better with auditory information than with visual information (Maille & Roeder, 2012). While that study had a small sample size, it is notable that *Eulemur* species tend to be cathemeral, showing a mixture of daytime and night-time activity (Curtis & Rasmussen, 2006; Donati, Baldi, Morelli, Ganzhorn, & Borgognini-Tarli, 2009), and auditory cues may be especially useful for locating food in low-light conditions. Thus, an important question for future work concerns cognitive abilities in nocturnal strepsirrhines in general, and in nocturnal species or those that use extractive foraging techniques like the aye-aye, *Daubentonia madagascariensis*, in particular. Uniquely among strepsirrhine primate, aye-ayes regularly use tap-scanning behaviour to extract hidden invertebrates (Erickson, 1991, 1994), which is more similar to the extractive foraging of capuchins and chimpanzees. Thus, this ecological view predicts that they would be especially sensitive to or even prioritize auditory information, unlike many other anthropoids and the sifakas and ruffed lemurs tested here.

Our findings show that both ruffed lemurs and sifakas failed to make inferences by exclusion across sensory modalities, unlike many anthropoid primates tested to date (see Fig. 4). One possibility is that differential experience with cognitive testing may play a role. For example, more capuchin monkeys could use auditory information to solve an inference by exclusion task when they could first directly experience the properties of the full and empty containers (Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008). More generally, as discussed earlier, the lemurs tested here had fairly limited experience with cognitive experiments involving binary choices, unlike many other primate populations assessed so far. While these lemurs did demonstrate motivation to participate (as all tasks were voluntary) and succeeded at initial familiarization and introductory sessions, this study involved only one experimental session for the exclusion task. Another possibility is that this represents a true phylogenetic gap between anthropoid primates and strepsirrhines. Indeed, the only prior study of lemurs did not find strong evidence for inference by exclusion abilities (Maille & Roeder, 2012), whereas most studies of anthropoids find that they can succeed at least when visual information is provided (Call, 2004; Heimbauer et al., 2012, 2019; Hill et al., 2011; Marsh et al., 2015; Paukner, Huntsberry, & Suomi, 2009; Petit et al., 2015; Sabbatini & Visalberghi, 2008; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009). Notably, anthropoids and strepsirrhines differ in many aspects of their typical social organization, diet and activity patterns, and there was a major adaptive shift in morphology and behaviour at the base of the anthropoid clade (Kay, Williams, Ross, Takai, & Shigehara, 2004; van Schaik & Kappeler, 1996; Williams, Kay, & Kirk, 2010; Wright, 1999). This includes major reorganization of sensory systems and the brain as a whole (Gilad, Wiebe, Przeworski, Lancet, & Pääbo, 2004; Isler et al., 2008; Jacobs, 2008; Kirk, 2004; Kirk & Kay, 2004), which is relevant for understanding cognitive and behavioural evolution across primates. As such, more studies of cognition across diverse strepsirrhine species are crucial to reconstruct the evolutionary history of logical inferential abilities, as well as the evolutionary roots of the primate mind more generally.

A final important question concerns whether current evidence for inference by exclusion abilities from multiple nonhuman species that have been assessed using the two-option task (e.g. Call, 2004) represents true instances of logical reasoning. Indeed, some animals may be able to solve this task using simpler alternative strategies, for instance through the learning of a simple rule to avoid the container that does not provide the food (Mikolasch et al., 2012; Schmitt & Fischer, 2009), although other work

controls for this possibility (Call, 2004). In addition, recent work from developmental psychology argues that animals and young children tested in this basic set-up may represent both A and B as the two possible locations for the reward, but without considering dependent relationship between them (the 'maybe A, maybe B' interpretation; Mody & Carey, 2016). In this view, when individuals see that location A is empty, they eliminate A from their possible options and therefore avoid choosing it. However, since A and B are considered independent from each other, instead of updating their information about location B and consequently following the logic that food must be in B if it is not in A, individuals simply search on location B based on their initial premise that the food might have been in B. Thus, to demonstrate true logical inference by disjunctive syllogism, it may be necessary to use a new variant of the task with more than two options that can discriminate between the 'A not B' and the 'maybe A, maybe B' interpretations (Mody & Carey, 2016). Otherwise, evidence from the two-location task for nonhumans might represent a simpler precursor to human-like logical inference, and representation of these logical concepts might indeed require human-like language. Yet the current work, taken in tandem with prior studies, also demonstrates the power of a comparative approach – it is precisely because many different nonhumans have been tested on the two-container task that it is possible to tease apart what skills are present across many diverse species and how they are used. A crucial next question is then how or to what extent nonhuman animals' logical inferences resemble those found in humans, as well as what selective pressures led to the emergence of more complex reasoning abilities like those seen in our test species.

Data accessibility

All trial-by-trial data from these studies is available in Dryad Digital Repository (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.c59zw3r44>); see Table A1 for subject summary data.

Conflict of Interest

None.

Acknowledgments

We thank Megan Cole and Averill Cantwell for assistance with data collection, Parvathy Nair for assistance with coding and CSCAR at the University of Michigan for statistical consulting. We are grateful to the Duke Lemur Center, especially to Erin Ehmke, Erin Shaw, Kay Welser and Melanie Simmons for their assistance and to two anonymous referees for their comments on a previous version of the manuscript. This work was supported by a Sloan Foundation Fellowship and National Science Foundation grant 1944881 to A.G.R. Funding from the French Agence Nationale de la Recherche (under the Investissement d'Avenir programme, ANR-17-EURE-0010) is gratefully acknowledged. F.D.P. was supported by ANR Laboratoires d'excellence (Labex) Institute for Advanced Study in Toulouse (IAST). This is Duke Lemur Center publication No. 1449.

References

- Addressi, E., Paglieri, F., & Focaroli, V. (2011). The ecological rationality of delay tolerance: Insights from capuchin monkeys. *Cognition*, 119(1), 142–147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2010.10.021>.
- Boesch, C., & Boesch, H. (1990). Tool use and tool making in wild chimpanzees. *Folia Primatologica*, 54(1–2), 86–99. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000156428>.
- Bräuer, J., Kaminski, J., Riedel, J., Call, J., & Tomasello, M. (2006). Making inferences about the location of hidden food: Social dog, causal ape. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 120(1), 38–47. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-012-0531-9>.

- Brewer, S. M., & McGrew, W. C. (1990). Chimpanzee use of a tool-set to get honey. *Folia Primatologica*, 54(1–2), 100–104. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000156429>.
- Britt, A. (2000). Diet and feeding behaviour of the black-and-white ruffed lemur (*Varecia variegata variegata*) in the Betampona Reserve, eastern Madagascar. *Folia Primatologica*, 71(3), 133–141. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000021741>.
- Byrne, R. W. (1997). The technical intelligence hypothesis: An additional evolutionary stimulus to intelligence. In A. Whiten, & R. Byrne (Eds.), *Machiavellian Intelligence II: Extensions and evaluations* (pp. 289–311). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Byrne, R. W., & Whiten, A. W. (Eds.). (1988). *Machiavellian intelligence: Social expertise and the evolution of intellect in monkeys, apes, and humans*. Oxford, U.K.: Clarendon Press.
- Call, J. (2004). Inferences about the location of food in the great apes (*Pan paniscus*, *Pan troglodytes*, *Gorilla gorilla*, and *Pongo pygmaeus*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 118(2), 232. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7036.118.2.232>.
- Campbell, J. L., Eisemann, J. H., Williams, C. V., & Glenn, K. M. (2000). Description of the gastrointestinal tract of five lemur species: *Propithecus tattersalli*, *Propithecus verreauxi coquereli*, *Varecia variegata*, *Hapalemur griseus*, and *Lemur catta*. *American Journal of Primatology*, 52(3), 133–142. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2345\(200011\)52:3<133::AID-AJP2>3.0.CO;2-#23](https://doi.org/10.1002/1098-2345(200011)52:3<133::AID-AJP2>3.0.CO;2-#23).
- Carruthers, P. (2002). The cognitive functions of language. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 25(6), 657–674. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X02000122>.
- Cesana-Arlotti, N., Martín, A., Téglás, E., Vorobyova, L., Cetnarski, R., & Bonatti, L. L. (2018). Precursors of logical reasoning in preverbal human infants. *Science*, 359(6381), 1263–1266. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aao35539>.
- Clutton-Brock, T. H., & Harvey, P. H. (1980). Primates, brains and ecology. *Journal of Zoology*, 190(3), 309–323. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.1980.tb01430.x>.
- Cui, J. (2007). QIC program and model selection in GEE analyses. *STATA Journal*, 7(2), 209–220. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1536867X0700700205>.
- Curtis, D. J., & Rasmussen, M. A. (2006). The evolution of cathemerality in primates and other mammals: A comparative and chronoecological approach. *Folia Primatologica*, 77(1–2), 178–193. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000089703>.
- De Petrillo, F., & Rosati, A. G. (2019). Ecological rationality: Convergent decision-making in apes and capuchins. *Behavioural Processes*, 164, 201–213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beproc.2019.05.010>.
- De Petrillo, F., Ventricelli, M., Ponsi, G., & Addessi, E. (2015). Do tufted capuchin monkeys play the odds? Flexible risk preferences in *Sapajus* spp. *Animal Cognition*, 18(1), 119–130. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-014-0783-7>.
- Deaner, R. O., Barton, R. A., & van Schaik, C. (2003). Primate brains and life histories: Renewing the connection. In P. M. Kappeler, & M. E. Pereira (Eds.), *Primates life histories and socioecology* (pp. 233–265). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.
- DeCasien, A. R., Williams, S. A., & Higham, J. P. (2017). Primate brain size is predicted by diet but not sociality. *Nature Ecology and Evolution*, 1, 0112. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-017-0112>.
- Donati, G., Baldi, N., Morelli, V., Ganzhorn, J. U., & Borgognini-Tarli, S. M. (2009). Proximate and ultimate determinants of cathemeral activity in brown lemurs. *Animal Behaviour*, 77(2), 317–325. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2008.09.033>.
- Dunbar, R. I. (1998). The social brain hypothesis. *Evolutionary Anthropology*, 6(5), 178–190. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1520-6505\(1998\)6:5<178::AID-EVAN5>3.0.CO;2-8](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6505(1998)6:5<178::AID-EVAN5>3.0.CO;2-8).
- Dunbar, R. I., & Shultz, S. (2007). Evolution in the social brain. *Science*, 317(5843), 1344–1347. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1145463>.
- Erdőhegyi, Á., Topál, J., Virányi, Z., & Miklósi, Á. (2007). Dog-logic: Inferential reasoning in a two-way choice task and its restricted use. *Animal Behaviour*, 74(4), 725–737. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2007.03.00>.
- Erickson, C. J. (1991). Percussive foraging in the aye-aye, *Daubentonia madagascariensis*. *Animal Behaviour*, 41, 793–801. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-3472\(05\)80346-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0003-3472(05)80346-X).
- Erickson, C. J. (1994). Tap-scanning and extractive foraging in aye-ayes, *Daubentonia madagascariensis*. *Folia Primatologica*, 62, 125–135. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000156769>.
- Falmagne, R. J. (1990). Language and the acquisition of logical knowledge. In W. F. Overton (Ed.), *Reasoning, necessity, and logic: Developmental perspectives* (pp. 111–131). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Fichtel, C., & Kappeler, P. M. (2010). Human universals and primate symplesiomorphies: Establishing the lemur baseline. In P. M. Kappeler, & J. B. Silk (Eds.), *Mind the gap: Tracing the origins of human universals* (pp. 395–428). New York, NY: Springer.
- Gilad, Y., Wiebe, V., Przeworski, M., Lancet, D., & Pääbo, S. (2004). Loss of olfactory receptor genes coincides with the acquisition of full trichromatic vision in primates. *PLoS Biology*, 2(1), e5. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0020005>.
- Heilbronner, S. R., Rosati, A. G., Stevens, J. R., Hare, B., & Hauser, M. D. (2008). A fruit in the hand or two in the bush? Divergent risk preferences in chimpanzees and bonobos. *Biology Letters*, 4(3), 246–249. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2008.0081>.
- Heimbauer, L. A., Antworth, R. L., & Owren, M. J. (2012). Capuchin monkeys (*Cebus apella*) use positive, but not negative, auditory cues to infer food location. *Animal Cognition*, 15(1), 45–55. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-011-0430-5>.
- Heimbauer, L. A., Johns, T. N., & Weiss, D. J. (2019). Inferential reasoning in the visual and auditory modalities by cotton-top tamarins (*Saguinus oedipus*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 133(4), 496–501. <https://doi.org/10.1037/com0000184>.
- Hill, A., Collier-Baker, E., & Suddendorf, T. (2011). Inferential reasoning by exclusion in great apes, lesser apes, and spider monkeys. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 125(1), 91. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020867>.
- Horvath, J. E., Weisrock, D. W., Embry, S. L., Fiorentino, I., Balhoff, J. P., Kappeler, P., et al. (2008). Development and application of a phylogenomic toolkit: Resolving the evolutionary history of Madagascar's lemurs. *Genome Research*, 18(3), 489–499. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.7265208>.
- Humphrey, N. K. (1976). The social function of intellect. In P. P. G. Bateson, & R. A. Hinde (Eds.), *Growing points in ethology* (pp. 303–317). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Isler, K., Kirk, E. C., Miller, J. M., Albrecht, G. A., Gelvin, B. R., & Martin, R. D. (2008). Endocranial volumes of primate species: Scaling analyses using a comprehensive and reliable data set. *Journal of Human Evolution*, 55(6), 967–978. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhevol.2008.08.004>.
- Jacobs, G. H. (2008). Primate color vision: A comparative perspective. *Visual Neuroscience*, 25(5–6), 619–633. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0952523808080760>.
- Jelbert, S. A., Taylor, A. H., & Gray, R. D. (2015). Reasoning by exclusion in New Caledonian crows (*Corvus moneduloides*) cannot be explained by avoidance of empty containers. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 129(3), 283. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039313>.
- Jolly, A. (1966). Lemur social behavior and primate intelligence. *Science*, 153(3735), 501–506. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.153.3735.501>.
- Karanth, K. P., Delefosse, T., Rakotosamimanana, B., Parsons, T. J., & Yoder, A. D. (2005). Ancient DNA from giant extinct lemurs confirms single origin of Malagasy primates. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 102(14), 5090–5095. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0408354102>.
- Kay, R. F., Williams, B. A., Ross, C. F., Takai, M., & Shigehara, N. (2004). Anthropoid origins: A phylogenetic analysis. In J. G. Fleagle, & R. F. Kay (Eds.), *Anthropoid origins* (pp. 91–135). Boston, MA: Springer.
- Kirk, E. C. (2004). Comparative morphology of the eye in primates. *Anatomical Record Part A: Discoveries in Molecular, Cellular, and Evolutionary Biology*, 281(1), 1095–1103. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ara.20115>.
- Kirk, E. C., & Kay, R. F. (2004). The evolution of high visual acuity in the Anthropoidea. In J. G. Fleagle, & R. F. Kay (Eds.), *Anthropoid origins* (pp. 539–602). Boston, MA: Springer.
- Liang, K. Y., & Zeger, S. L. (1986). Longitudinal data analysis using generalized linear models. *Biometrika*, 73(1), 13–22. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/73.1.13>.
- MacLean, E. L., Barrickman, N. L., Johnson, E. M., & Wall, C. E. (2009). Sociality, ecology, and relative brain size in lemurs. *Journal of Human Evolution*, 56(5), 471–478. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhevol.2008.12.005>.
- MacLean, E. L., Matthews, L. J., Hare, B. A., Nunn, C. L., Anderson, R. C., Aureli, F., et al. (2012). How does cognition evolve? Phylogenetic comparative psychology. *Animal Cognition*, 15(2), 223–238. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-011-0448-8>.
- MacLean, E. L., Merritt, D. J., & Brannon, E. M. (2008). Social complexity predicts transitive reasoning in prosimian primates. *Animal Behaviour*, 76(2), 479–486. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2008.01.025>.
- MacLean, E. L., Sandel, A. A., Bray, J., Oldenkamp, R. E., Reddy, R. B., & Hare, B. A. (2013). Group size predicts social but not nonsocial cognition in lemurs. *PLoS One*, 8(6). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0066359>. e66359.
- Maille, A., & Roeder, J. J. (2012). Inferences about the location of food in lemurs (*Eulemur macaco* and *Eulemur fulvus*): A comparison with apes and monkeys. *Animal Cognition*, 15(6), 1075–1083. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-012-0531-9>.
- Marsh, H. L., Vining, A. Q., Levandoski, E. K., & Judge, P. G. (2015). Inference by exclusion in lion-tailed macaques (*Macaca silenus*), a hamadryas baboon (*Papio hamadryas*), capuchins (*Sapajus apella*), and squirrel monkeys (*Saimiri sciureus*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 129(3), 256–267. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039316>.
- McGrew, W. C. (2010). In search of the last common ancestor: New findings on wild chimpanzees. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 365(1556), 3267–3276. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0067>.
- Mikolasch, S., Kotrschal, K., & Schloegl, C. (2011). African grey parrots (*Psittacus erithacus*) use inference by exclusion to find hidden food. *Biology Letters*, 7, 875–877. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2011.0500>.
- Mikolasch, S., Kotrschal, K., & Schloegl, C. (2012). Is caching the key to exclusion in corvids? The case of carrion crows (*Corvus corone corone*). *Animal Cognition*, 15, 73–82. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-011-0434-1>.
- Milton, K. (1981). Distribution patterns of tropical plant foods as an evolutionary stimulus to primate mental development. *American Anthropologist*, 83(3), 534–548. <https://doi.org/10.1525/aa.1981.83.3.02a00020>.
- Mittermeier, R. A., Ganzhorn, J. U., Konstant, W. R., Glander, K., Tattersall, I., Groves, C. P., et al. (2008). Lemur diversity in Madagascar. *International Journal of Primatology*, 29(6), 1607–1656. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10764-008-9317-y>.
- Mody, S., & Carey, S. (2016). The emergence of reasoning by the disjunctive syllogism in early childhood. *Cognition*, 154, 40–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2016.05.012>.
- Nawroth, C., von Borell, E., & Langbein, J. (2014). Exclusion performance in dwarf goats (*Capra aegagrus hircus*) and sheep (*Ovis orientalis aries*). *PLoS One*, 9(4). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2016.05.012>. e93534.
- Nunn, C. L. (2011). *The comparative approach in evolutionary anthropology and biology*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Pan, W. (2001). Akaike's information criterion in generalized estimating equations. *Biometrics*, 57(1), 120–125. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0006-341X.2001.00120.x>.
- Parker, S. T., & Gibson, K. R. (1977). Object manipulation, tool use and sensorimotor intelligence as feeding adaptations in *Cebus* monkeys and great apes. *Journal of Human Evolution*, 6(7), 623–641. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2484\(77\)80135-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2484(77)80135-8).

- Paukner, A., Huntsberry, M. E., & Suomi, S. J. (2009). Tufted capuchin monkeys (*Cebus apella*) spontaneously use visual but not acoustic information to find hidden food items. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 123(1), 26. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013128>.
- Pekár, S., & Brabec, M. (2018). Generalized estimating equations: A pragmatic and flexible approach to the marginal GLM modelling of correlated data in the behavioural sciences. *Ethology*, 124(2), 86–93. <https://doi.org/10.1111/eth.12713>.
- Penn, D. C., Holyoak, K. J., & Povinelli, D. J. (2008). Darwin's mistake: Explaining the discontinuity between human and nonhuman minds. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 31(2), 109–130. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X08003543>.
- Pepperberg, I. M., Koepke, A., Livingston, P., Girard, M., & Hartsfield, L. A. (2013). Reasoning by inference: Further studies on exclusion in grey parrots (*Psittacus erithacus*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 127(3), 272. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0031641>.
- Petit, O., Dufour, V., Herrenschmidt, M., De Marco, A., Sterck, E. H., & Call, J. (2015). Inferences about food location in three cercopithecine species: An insight into the socioecological cognition of primates. *Animal Cognition*, 18(4), 821–830. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-015-0848-2>.
- Piaget, J. (1953). *Logic and psychology*. Manchester, U.K.: Manchester University Press.
- Platt, M. L., Brannon, E. M., Brieese, T. L., & French, J. A. (1996). Differences in feeding ecology predict differences in performance between golden lion tamarins (*Leontopithecus rosalia*) and Wied's marmosets (*Callithrix kuhli*) on spatial and visual memory tasks. *Animal Learning & Behavior*, 24(4), 384–393. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03199010>.
- Plotnik, J. M., Shaw, R. C., Brubaker, D. L., Tiller, L. N., & Clayton, N. S. (2014). Thinking with their trunks: Elephants use smell but not sound to locate food and exclude nonrewarding alternatives. *Animal Behaviour*, 88, 91–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anbehav.2013.11.011>.
- Premack, D. (1995). *Cause/induced motion: Intention/spontaneous motion*. In J. P. Changeux, & J. Chavafina (Eds.), *Origins of the human brain* (pp. 286–308). Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press.
- Premack, D. (2007). Human and animal cognition: Continuity and discontinuity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 104(35), 13861–13867. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0706147104>.
- R Core Team. (2017). *A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- Richard, A. (1977). The feeding behaviour of *Propithecus verreauxi*. In T. H. Clutton-Brock (Ed.), *Primate ecology: Studies of feeding and ranging behavior in lemurs, monkey and apes* (pp. 71–96). Chicago, IL: Academic Press.
- Richard, A. F., & Dewar, R. E. (1991). Lemur ecology. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 22(1), 145–175.
- Rosati, A. G. (2017). Foraging cognition: Reviving the ecological intelligence hypothesis. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 21(9), 691–702. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2017.05.011>.
- Rosati, A. G., & Hare, B. (2012). Chimpanzees and bonobos exhibit divergent spatial memory development. *Developmental Science*, 15(6), 840–853. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2012.01182.x>.
- Rosati, A. G., & Hare, B. (2013). Chimpanzees and bonobos exhibit emotional responses to decision outcomes. *PLoS One*, 8(5). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0063058>. e63058.
- Rosati, A. G., Rodriguez, K., & Hare, B. (2014). The ecology of spatial memory in four lemur species. *Animal Cognition*, 17(4), 947–961. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10071-014-0727-2>.
- Rosati, A. G., Stevens, J. R., Hare, B., & Hauser, M. D. (2007). The evolutionary origins of human patience: Temporal preferences in chimpanzees, bonobos, and human adults. *Current Biology*, 17(19), 1663–1668. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2007.08.033>.
- Rushmore, J., Leonhardt, S. D., & Drea, C. M. (2012). Sight or scent: Lemur sensory reliance in detecting food quality varies with feeding ecology. *PLoS One*, 7(8). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0041558>. e41558.
- Sabbatini, G., & Visalberghi, E. (2008). Inferences about the location of food in capuchin monkeys (*Cebus apella*) in two sensory modalities. *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 122(2), 156–166. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7036.122.2.156>.
- Sanz, C., Call, J., & Morgan, D. (2009). Design complexity in termite-fishing tools of chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*). *Biology Letters*, 5(3), 293–296. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsbl.2008.0786>.
- van Schaik, C. P., & Kappeler, P. M. (1996). The social systems of gregarious lemurs: Lack of convergence with anthropoids due to evolutionary disequilibrium? *Ethology*, 102(7), 915–941. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0310.1996.tb01171.x>.
- Schloegl, C. (2011). What you see is what you get – reloaded: Can jackdaws (*Corvus monedula*) find hidden food through exclusion? *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 125(2), 162. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023045>.
- Schloegl, C., Dierks, A., Gajdon, G. K., Huber, L., Kotrschal, K., & Bugnyar, T. (2009). What you see is what you get? Exclusion performances in ravens and keas. *PLoS One*, 4(8), e6368. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0006368>.
- Schmidt, D. A., Iambana, R. B., Britt, A., Junge, R. E., Welch, C. R., Porton, I. J., et al. (2010). Nutrient composition of plants consumed by black and white ruffed lemurs, *Varecia variegata*, in the Betampona Natural Reserve, Madagascar. *Zoo Biology*, 29(3), 375–396. <https://doi.org/10.1002/zoo.20267>.
- Schmitt, V., & Fischer, J. (2009). Inferential reasoning and modality dependent discrimination learning in olive baboons (*Papio hamadryas anubis*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 123(3), 316–325. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016218>.
- Shettleworth, S. J. (2012). Modularity, comparative cognition and human uniqueness. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 367(1603), 2794–2802. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2012.0211>.
- Spelke, E. S. (2002). Developing knowledge of space: Core systems and new combinations. In A. M. Galaburda, S. M. Kosslyn, & Y. Christen (Eds.), *The languages of the brain* (pp. 239–258). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Stevens, J. R. (2014). Evolutionary pressures on primate intertemporal choice. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 281(1786), 20140499. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2014.0499>.
- Stevens, J. R., Rosati, A. G., Ross, K. R., & Hauser, M. D. (2005). Will travel for food: Spatial discounting in two new world monkeys. *Current Biology*, 15(20), 1855–1860. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2005.09.016>.
- Vasey, N. (2005). New developments in the behavioral ecology and conservation of ruffed lemurs (*Varecia*). *American Journal of Primatology*, 66(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajp.20124>.
- Visalberghi, E., & Frigaszy, D. (2013). The Etho-Cebus Project: Stone-tool use by wild capuchin monkeys. In C. Sanz, J. Call, & C. Boesch (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary perspectives on the cognition and ecology of tool using behaviors* (pp. 203–222). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Visalberghi, E., & Néel, C. (2003). Tufted capuchins (*Cebus apella*) use weight and sound to choose between full and empty nuts. *Ecological Psychology*, 15(3), 215–228. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326969ECO1503_2.
- Völter, C. J., & Call, J. (2017). Causal and inferential reasoning in animals. In J. Call, G. M. Burghardt, I. M. Pepperberg, C. T. Snowdon, & T. Zentall (Eds.), *APA handbook of comparative psychology: Perception, learning, and cognition* (pp. 643–671). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.
- Williams, B. A., Kay, R. F., & Kirk, E. C. (2010). New perspectives on anthropoid origins. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 107(11), 4797–4804. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0908320107>.
- Wright, P. C. (1999). Lemur traits and Madagascar ecology: Coping with an island environment. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology*, 110(Suppl. 29), 31–72. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1096-8644\(1999\)110:29+<31::AID-AJPA3>3.0.CO;2-0](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1096-8644(1999)110:29+<31::AID-AJPA3>3.0.CO;2-0).
- Yoder, A. D., Cartmill, M., Ruvolo, M., Smith, K., & Vilgalys, R. (1996). Ancient single origin for Malagasy primates. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 93(10), 5122–5126. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.93.10.5122>.

Appendix

Subjects and Performance

As described in the main test and shown in Table A1, in their introductory session, lemurs experienced both visual and auditory cue trials (4 of each; note that lemurs did not need to directly use the cues since they directly witnessed the baiting in the introduction). To proceed to the main test in study 1, lemurs had to meet the criterion of selecting the correct box first on six of eight total cued trials (note that lemurs also experienced the correct option in incorrect trials as they could self-correct in the introductory session). As such, they might not have succeeded equally in both sensory modalities in the introduction. We chose this criterion to balance the competing demands of ensuring the lemurs understood the set-up of the task and not overtraining them to use sensory cues they did not naturally attend to prior to the main test.

Nevertheless, when considering the introductory session in which lemurs reached the criterion, 13 lemurs (8 ruffed lemurs, 5 sifakas) selected the baited box at least three of four times in each sensory modality (e.g. proportion of correct choices ≥ 0.75). We therefore examined the performance of those 13 lemurs in the main test from study 1 to make sure that our results were not affected by this criterion from the introductory session. Overall, we found the same results as in the main analyses: lemurs chose the baited box above chance when they were provided with visual information (ruffed lemurs: 0.75 ± 0.06 ; one-sample t test: $t_7 = 4.320$, $P = 0.003$; sifakas: 0.72 ± 0.06 ; $t_4 = 3.674$, $P = 0.02$). However, only ruffed lemurs performed above chance when provided with auditory information (one-sample t test: 0.69 ± 0.06 ;

$t_7 = 3.240$, $P = 0.01$); sifakas' performance was at chance (0.45 ± 0.06 ; $t_4 = -0.784$, $P = 0.47$). Although only five sifakas were included in this analysis, comparisons between species showed that ruffed lemurs outperformed sifakas for auditory information,

but not visual cues (independent samples t test comparing species: visual cue: $t_{9.85} = 0.297$, $P = 0.77$; auditory cue: $t_{9.59} = 2.759$, two-tailed $P = 0.02$). These results align with the analysis including all lemurs reported in the main test.

Table A1
Subjects characteristics and performance across studies

Individual	Species	Sex	Age	Introductory sessions	Introductory performance	Study 1 performance	Study 1 sessions	Study 2 performance
Amor	<i>V. variegata</i>	M	4.7	1	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.75 A: 0.87	1	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.75, EA: 0.50
Arche	<i>V. rubra</i>	M	2.7	3	V: 1.00 A: 0.50	V: 0.87 A: 0.50	2	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.75 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.50
Bode	<i>V. rubra</i>	M	2.7	2	V: 0.75 A: 1.00	V: 1.00 A: 0.62	3	DV: 0.75, DA: 0.50 EV: 1.00, EA: 0.75
Borealis*	<i>V. rubra</i>	M	29.8	2	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.50 A: 0.50	3	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.50
Buzz	<i>V. rubra</i>	M	0.7	2	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.75 A: 0.87	1	DV: 0.75, DA: 1.00 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.25
Kalani	<i>V. rubra</i>	M	2.1	5	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.87 A: 0.87	1	DV: 0.75, DA: 1.00 EV: 1.00, EA: 0.25
Kizzy*	<i>V. variegata</i>	F	12.8	2	V: 1.00 A: 0.50	V: 0.75 A: 0.37	2	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.25 EV: 0.00, EA: 0.50
Rees	<i>V. variegata</i>	M	4.7	1	V: 0.75 A: 1.00	V: 0.87 A: 0.50	2	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.25 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.75
Sally	<i>V. rubra</i>	F	2.1	6	V: 1.00 A: 0.75	V: 0.62 A: 0.62	2	DV: 0.75, DA: 1.00 EV: 0.75, EA: 0.75
Pandora	<i>V. rubra</i>	F	6.7	1	V: 0.75 A: 1.00	V: 0.62 A: 0.62	—	—
Bertha	<i>P. coquereli</i>	F	7.4	2	V: 1.00 A: 0.50	V: 0.87 A: 0.37	3	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.50
Charlemagne	<i>P. coquereli</i>	M	11.5	3	V: 1.00 A: 0.50	V: 0.87 A: 0.75	1	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.25
Elliot	<i>P. coquereli</i>	M	5.1	2	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.75 A: 0.50	3	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.75 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.75
Francesca	<i>P. coquereli</i>	F	2.4	2	V: 0.50 A: 1.00	V: 0.75 A: 0.50	3	DV: 0.75, DA: 0.25 EV: 0.75, EA: 1.00
Gertrude	<i>P. coquereli</i>	F	4.5	4	V: 1.00 A: 1.00	V: 0.75 A: 0.37	3	DV: 1.00, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.75, EA: 0.50
Gordian*	<i>P. coquereli</i>	M	22.5	1	V: 1.00 A: 0.75	V: 0.75 A: 0.25	3	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.25
Julian*	<i>P. coquereli</i>	M	24.9	3	V: 0.50 A: 1.00	V: 0.75 A: 0.50	3	DV: 0.75, DA: 0.75 EV: 0.50, EA: 0.75
Luther	<i>P. coquereli</i>	M	14.4	2	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.87 A: 0.62	3	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.75 EV: 0.00, EA: 0.00
Rupillia	<i>P. coquereli</i>	F	19.0	1	V: 0.75 A: 0.75	V: 0.50 A: 0.50	3	DV: 0.50, DA: 0.50 EV: 0.75, EA: 0.75

*Indicates individuals with cognitive experience in [MacLean et al. \(2012\)](#). Data columns indicate: (1) number of introductory sessions to reach criterion and progress to study 1; (2) performance in the final introductory session (auditory versus visual cues); (3) performance in the first test session of study 1 (direct auditory or visual information); (4) Number of study 1 test sessions that the individual completed to reach criterion and progress to study 2 (note that one individual was not available for testing); and (5) performance in the study 2 test session (direct or exclusion auditory or visual information). See Methods for all details about comprehension criterions and individuals' progression through the study sessions. For performance data: V: visual cue; A: auditory cue; DV: direct visual cue; DA: direct auditory cue; EV: exclusion visual cue; EA: exclusion auditory cue.