1 Title

- 2 Division of Labor: A Democratic Approach to Understanding Manual Asymmetries in
- 3 Non-Human Primates

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14 Abstract

15 A consequence of the 'gold rush' like hunch for human-like handedness in non-16 human primates has been that researchers have been continually analyzing 17 observations at the level of the population, ignoring the analysis at the level of an 18 individual and, consequently, have potentially missed revelations on the forms and 19 functions of manual asymmetries. Recently, consecutive studies on manual 20 asymmetries in bonnet macaques, Macaca radiata [Mangalam et al., 2014a; 21 Mangalam et al., 2014b] revealed both the functional and the adaptive significance 22 of manual asymmetries respectively, and pointed towards the division of labor as

23 being the general principle underlying the observed hand-usage patterns. We 24 review the studies on manual asymmetries in capuchin monkeys, Cebus spp. and 25 argue that the observed hand-usage patterns might reflect specialization of the two 26 hands for accomplishing tasks that require different dexterity types (i.e., 27 maneuvering in three dimensional space or physical strength). To this end, we do a 28 step-by-step analysis of the various tasks used in the studies on manual 29 asymmetries in capuchin monkeys, wherein we: (a) analyze the different manual 30 tasks that have been used to study manual asymmetries in non-human primates on 31 the basis of the attributes such as the number of hands required to solve a given 32 task (i.e., unimanual, pseudo unimanual, or bimanual) and the spatiotemporal 33 progression of manual actions (i.e., sequential or concurrent). (b) Determine the 34 forms and functions of manual asymmetries that these tasks can potentially elicit 35 within the broader scope of the behavioral repertoire of an individual, a population, 36 or a species. (c) Qualify the scope of the inter-individual, -population, or -species 37 comparisons. We then describe the division of labor as a general principle 38 underlying manual asymmetries in non-human primates, and propose experimental 39 designs that would elaborate the forms and functions of manual asymmetries in 40 non-human primates, and the associated adaptive value.

41 *Keywords:* capuchin monkey; *Cebus* sp.; hand performance; hand preference;
42 laterality; manual asymmetry; manual specialization

43

44 Introduction

45 Approximately 90% humans preferentially use the right hand to perform complex 46 manual actions [Raymond and Pontier, 2004]. In order to understand the adaptive 47 value of this population-level right-handedness, which is peculiar to humans, it is 48 important to understand the evolutionary origin of manual asymmetries, in humans 49 as well as in their phylogenetic relatives, the non-human primates. Manual 50 asymmetries of some kind or the other are almost ubiquitous among the non-51 human primates. However, for a long time the population-level lateral bias in hand 52 usage in non-human primates remained equivocal; considering that the exogenous 53 factors, such as the initial position of a stimulus with respect to a subject, body 54 posture of the subject, etc. might influence hand usage, researchers considered 55 manual asymmetries in non-human primates to be analogous and not homologous 56 to manual asymmetries in humans. Regardless of such an ambiguity, hand 57 preference in non-human primates has been hypothesized to have evolved owing to 58 functional and morphological adaptations to feeding in arboreal contexts [Bradshaw 59 and Rogers, 1993; Papademetriou et al., 2005; Ward and Hopkins, 1993].

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As opposed to the prevailing ideas on population-level right-hand preference in humans, MacNeilage et al. [1987] argued that human-like population-level lateral bias in hand usage is evident in non-human primates, and proposed the postural origins theory. According to the postural origins theory, among non-human primates initially the left hand became specialized for visually guided movements, and the right hand became specialized for postural support. Subsequently, in nonhuman primate species that adopted a relatively more terrestrial lifestyle, the right 68 hand became more specialized for physical manipulation than for postural support, 69 owing to the decreasing demands on the right hand to support vertical posture. 70 However, the postural origins theory fails to describe why initially the left-hand 71 (and not the right hand) became specialized for visually guided reaching, and more 72 importantly, how a population-level right-handedness evolved during the transition 73 from monkeys to apes to humans [McGrew and Marchant, 1997]. Overall, the 74 postural origins theory incorporates the physical constraints on hand usage imposed 75 by the body posture, but does not explain the variations in hand-usage patterns, 76 corresponding to the novelty and the spatiotemporal scale of the manual actions.

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78 In the earlier studies on manual asymmetries in non-human primates, terms such 79 as 'task complexity' and 'task demands' were used without ever being 80 comprehensively defined. For example, complexity of a reaching-for-food task was 81 measured in terms of the number of steps preceding the terminal act of reaching 82 for food, with almost no reference to the precision of movement in any of the 83 manual actions. This made it difficult to draw any conclusions with regard to the 84 forms and functions of manual asymmetries in non-human primates. Subsequently, 85 based on the perspective put forward by MacNeilage et al. [1987], while 86 simultaneously acknowledging the possibility that hand-usage patterns might vary 87 with novelty and the spatiotemporal scale of the manual actions, as indicated by 88 the previous studies on hand-usage patterns in non-human primates, Fagot and 89 Vauclair [1991] put forward the task complexity theory. The task complexity theory 90 proposes: (a) low-level tasks (i.e., tasks involving cognitively less demanding 91 actions that are practiced frequently) elicit symmetrical hand-usage patterns at the

92 level of the population and manual preferences at the level of an individual, not 93 necessarily indicative of any kind of specialization. (b) High-level tasks (i.e., tasks 94 involving cognitively more demanding manual actions that are practiced rarely) 95 elicit asymmetrical hand-usage patterns at the level of the population, likely to be 96 indicative of some kind of cognitive specialization. They also argued that 97 inconsistencies in directional biases arise owing to the diversity in the tasks used to 98 elicit manual asymmetries and the cognitive processes involved in solving them. 99 Overall, these two types of tasks, low-level and high-level, elicit two different types 100 of lateralization, hand preference and manual specialization.

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102 Since the conception of the postural origins theory and the task complexity theory, 103 there have been a plethora of studies on manual asymmetries in non-human 104 primates with titles like "Laterality of hand functions in...," "Hand preferences in 105 different tasks in...," "Consistency of hand preference across low-level and high-level 106 tasks in...," "Hand preferences in unimanual and coordinated-bimanual tasks by...," 107 "Posture and reaching in...," etc. These studies generally have not independently 108 considered the constraints consider by the task complexity theory and the postural origins theory. The task complexity theory incorporates the physical constraints 109 110 imposed by tasks, whereas the postural origins theory incorporates the physical 111 constraints imposed by body postures. These different types of physical constraints, 112 however, may not necessarily elicit mutually consistent hand preferences. They 113 have focused essentially on hand preference (i.e., the relative incidence of the use 114 of either hand for responding) as the primary measure to assess manual 115 asymmetries, with almost no reference to the forms and functions. Moreover, they

have continually ignored several individual-specific traits, such as the feeding
ecology and niche structure, and task-specific characteristics, such as the
spatiotemporal requirements of the task, which might together influence handusage patterns. In such a situation, conclusions drawn from studies incorporating
variable methodologies and task requirements, and not incorporating the
differences between individuals, populations, or species, are likely to be misleading.

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123 During the course our study titled "Flexibility in food extraction techniques in urban 124 free-ranging bonnet macaques, Macaca radiata [Mangalam and Singh, 2013]," we 125 observed a peculiarity in the hand-usage patterns of the study individuals. The 126 hand used for the terminal act of reaching remained almost consistent irrespective 127 of the number of steps involved in the food extraction process. This, rather counter-128 intuitive observation provoked us to carry out a systematic study on manual 129 asymmetries in bonnet macaques. Two consecutive studies [Mangalam et al., 130 2014a; Mangalam et al., 2014b] revealed both the functional and the adaptive 131 significance of manual asymmetries respectively, and pointed towards the division 132 of labor as being the principle underlying the observed hand-usage patterns. In 133 contrast to the conventional ideas on manual asymmetries in non-human primates, 134 these observations demonstrated the specialization of the two hands for tasks 135 requiring maneuvering in three-dimensional space or those requiring physical 136 strength, as inferred by their consistent usage across a variety of spontaneous and 137 experimental tasks. Also, our task apparatus revealed some peculiarities in the 138 forms of manual asymmetries, which galvanized us to analyze the tasks used to 139 elicit manual asymmetries in the other studies. We thus decided to summarize our

analysis of these tasks and put forward our ideas on the division of labor in handusage in the present review article.

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143 On the basis of our studies on manual asymmetries in bonnet macagues [Mangalam 144 et al., 2014a; Mangalam et al., 2014b], our review of studies on manual 145 asymmetries in capuchin monkeys, Cebus sp., and our analysis of the various tasks 146 used in these studies, we found that: (a) A consequence of the 'gold rush' like 147 hunch for human-like handedness in non-human primates has been that 148 researchers have been continually analyzing observations at the level of the 149 population, ignoring the analysis at the level of an individual and, consequently, 150 have potentially missed revelations on the forms and functions of manual 151 asymmetries. (b) These studies lack an a priori description of a cognitively 152 demanding and/or less-demanding manual action and the requirements of the task 153 in terms of the form (e.g., power or precision grip; see Napier [1956]) or function 154 (e.g., maneuvering in three-dimensional space and providing physical strength) 155 and, therefore, remain largely contextual. (c) In multi-step tasks, even when 156 requiring less precision, step(s) preceding the terminal act might not be a part of 157 the behavioral repertoire of an individual, a population, or a species, in which case, 158 inter-individual, -population, or -species comparisons of hand-usage patterns are 159 likely to be erroneous. Thus, in the present review, we emphasize the need to 160 explicitly study manual asymmetries in non-human primates with respect to the 161 forms and functions, and the associated adaptive value, propose the appropriate 162 experimental designs, and qualify the scope of inter-individual, -population, or -163 species comparisons.

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165 We review the studies on manual asymmetries in capuchin monkeys, *Cebus* spp. 166 and argue that the observed hand-usage patterns might reflect specialization of the 167 two hands for accomplishing tasks that require different dexterity types. To this 168 end, we do a step-by-step analysis of the various tasks used in the studies on 169 manual asymmetries in capuchin monkeys, wherein we: (a) analyze the different 170 manual tasks that have been used to study manual asymmetries in non-human 171 primates on the basis of the attributes such as the number of hands required to 172 solve a given task (i.e., unimanual, pseudo unimanual, or bimanual) and the 173 spatiotemporal progression of manual actions (i.e., sequential or concurrent). (b) 174 Determine the forms and functions of manual asymmetries that these tasks can 175 potentially elicit within the broader scope of the behavioral repertoire of an 176 individual, a population, or a species. (c) Qualify the scope of the inter-individual, -177 population, or -species comparisons. We then describe the division of labor as a 178 general principle underlying manual asymmetries in non-human primates, and in 179 order to substantiate this possibility, propose experimental designs that would 180 elaborate the forms and functions of manual asymmetries in non-human primates, 181 and the associated adaptive value.

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183 Manual Asymmetry Paradigms

184 Manual asymmetries did not first evolve in primates, but hemispheric specialization 185 preceded manual symmetries instead, or in other words, evolved as a by-product of 186 a more fundamental cerebral asymmetry affecting sensorimotor functioning 187 [Witelson, 1988]. Accordingly, tasks that are likely to challenge the differential 188 abilities of the two hemispheres are more likely to elicit manual asymmetries: hand 189 preference, that is, the preferential usage of one hand to perform a unimanual task 190 or to execute the most complex action while performing a bimanual task, or hand 191 performance, that is, differential performance of the two hands in solving the same 192 task [Fagot and Vauclair, 1991]. In the manual preference paradigm, repetitive 193 presentations of a given task produce individual scores of right- and left-hand uses. 194 These scores are then used to derive the strength and the bias of manual 195 lateralization. The strength is obtained in several statistical ways, all of which 196 basically calculate some index of the deviation from a random 50% hand usage 197 regardless of the hand preferred, wherein the bias refers to the direction of manual 198 preference (left or right). In the manual performance paradigm, on the basis of the 199 differential reaction time or accuracy of the two hands in solving the same task 200 individuals are classified as right- or left-handers when one hand performs better 201 on average than the other. Studies on manual asymmetries in non-human primates 202 make use of an array of spontaneous and experimental tasks to describe the two 203 kinds of manual asymmetries, which we attempt analyzing below.

204

205 (i) Quadrupedal (Pseudo) Unimanual Reaching-For-Food Tasks

Typically, quadrupedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food tasks involve reaching for food placed on the ground, on a platform, tray or in a vessel accessible directly [Fragaszy and Mitchell, 1990; Garber et al., 2008; Lilak and Phillips, 2008; Meunier and Vauclair, 2007; Parr et al., 1996; Spinozzi et al., 1998; Westergaard et al., 1997; Westergaard et al., 1998a; Westergaard and Suomi, 1993a], or through a hole [Spinozzi et al., 2004; Westergaard et al., 1998a], using one hand (here, we
use the word 'pseudo' before unimanual because the whole process of obtaining
food does involve both hands as there just cannot be any unimanual reaching-forfood task for any quadrupedal individual).

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216 An appropriate assessment of hand preference with regard to unimanual reaching-217 for-food tasks has several underlying assumptions: (a) a subject is equally likely to 218 use any of its two hands, which is practically possible only when the subject is 219 acquiring either sitting or bipedal posture such that there are no ergonomic 220 constraints on the usage of any of the two hands. (b) Food is located exactly on the 221 sagittal plane of the body of the subject so that its spatial arrangement does not 222 influence hand preference (though this assumption is almost always met as there is 223 an equal probability of food being located towards the right and left of the sagittal 224 plane).

225

226 Whereas guadrupedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food tasks are assumed to 227 involve only one hand, they implicitly involve the other hand which is required to 228 passively maintain tripedal posture. This hand faces an increase in physical load 229 when the other hand is set free for prehension. Thus, one hand is used to maintain 230 tripedal posture and the other hand is used to maneuver in three-dimensional 231 space or to make precision grips, following the principle of division of labor. Also, 232 under experimental conditions, ergonomic constraints imposed by the possible 233 asymmetries in the body posture of an individual, together with or independent of

the preferential use of one hand for maintaining tripedal posture, is likely to
influence hand preference in quadrupedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food
tasks. However, studies on hand preference in capuchins have drawn conclusions
with regard to the effect of the complexity of the tasks on hand preference without
ever deploying a purely unimanual task independent of these influences.

239

240 (ii) Bipedal (Pseudo) Unimanual Reaching-For-Food Task

Typically, bipedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food tasks involve obtaining a
single piece of food placed on a high-rise platform, tray or in a vessel accessible
directly [Spinozzi et al. , 1998; Westergaard et al. , 1997; Westergaard et al. ,
1998a] or through a hole [Parr et al. , 1996; Westergaard et al. , 1998a], using one
hand (as in the case of the quadrupedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food
tasks, we use the word 'pseudo' before unimanual).

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248 Bipedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food tasks can only be solved using both 249 hands and in no less than two or three steps: (P1) two-step process: step 1: 250 setting one hand, hand-1 (i.e., either left or right hand), free from maintaining 251 quadrupedal posture and using it to hold a high-rise structure (this action is 252 physically demanding as the body is lifted/pulled upwards) while maintaining 253 tripedal posture using the other hand, hand-2; step 2: setting the other hand, 254 hand-2, free from tripedal posture and using it to reach for food while maintaining 255 bipedal posture using the other hand, hand-1. (P2) Three-step process: step 1: 256 setting one hand, hand-1, free from maintaining guadrupedal posture and using it

to hold a high-rise structure (as mentioned above, this action is physically
demanding as the body is lifted/pulled upwards) while maintaining tripedal posture
using the other hand, hand-2; step 2: setting the other hand, hand-1, free from
tripedal posture and using it to hold the high-rise structure; step 3: using one hand,
(P1a) hand-1 (in which case the sequence is functionally similar to the previous
one) or (P2b) hand-2, to reach for food.

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264 These sequences of manual actions involve both hands, following the principle of 265 division of labor, that is, one hand is used to perform the actions demanding 266 relatively more physical strength (e.g., lifting/pulling the body) and the other hand 267 is used to perform the actions demanding more sophistication (e.g., making 268 precision grips or maneuvering in three-dimensional space). However, studies on 269 hand preference in capuchins have almost never reported the stepwise usage of 270 the two hands for solving bipedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-for-food tasks 271 as described above, restricting their data collection and analysis only to manual 272 actions that are directly associated with prehension. Comparative assessment of 273 hand preference in the quadrupedal and bipedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-274 food tasks, as reported by Spinozzi et al. [1998] and Westergaard et al. [1997, 275 1998], demonstrates that capuchins consistently use one hand for prehension in 276 both types of tasks, which is possible only while following either the two-step 277 process (i.e., P1) or the second of the three-step processes (i.e., P2b) for solving 278 bipedal (pseudo) unimanual reaching-for-food tasks.

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280 (iii) Quadrupedal/Bipedal Coordinated Bimanual Task

281 Typically, solving a coordinated bimanual task involves obtaining food from ~ 10 to 282 15 cm long and \sim 3 to 5 cm wide transparent/opague tube [Lilak and Phillips, 283 2008; Meunier and Vauclair, 2007; Spinozzi et al., 1998; Spinozzi et al., 2007; 284 Westergaard and Suomi, 1998]. An individual that is assuming a guadrupedal 285 position can solve the task in two or three steps: (P1) step 1: picking up the tube 286 with one hand, hand-1, while maintaining tripedal posture with the other hand, 287 hand-2; step 2: attaining bipedal posture by freeing hand-2 and extracting the food 288 from the tube with the same hand. (P2) step 1: picking up the tube with one hand, 289 hand-1, while maintaining tripedal posture with the other hand, hand-2; step 2: 290 attaining bipedal posture by freeing hand-2, and shifting the tube from hand-1 to 291 hand-2; step 3: extracting the food with hand-1. Thus, it needs to be determined 292 whether an individual continued holding the tube with the same hand or shifted it to 293 the other hand. In case of the shift the observed hand-usage pattern can be 294 explained using the principle of the division of labor (as described by Mangalam et 295 al. [2014a]); and in the other case as well as when an individual is assuming a 296 bipedal posture while picking up the tube, sequential planning of motor actions. 297 However, studies do not analyze manual asymmetries in solving coordinated 298 bimanual tube task from this perspective and, therefore, present only a partial 299 picture.

300

301 (iv) Sequential Unimanual/Bimanual versus Concurrent Bimanual Tasks

302 Typically, solving a box task involves obtaining a single piece of food placed on a 303 tray inside a clear plexiglass box. The box can be opened by lifting its lid that is 304 hinged to one of its walls. There are two different versions of the box task. In one 305 version, the lid may remain open once it is lifted beyond a point [Lilak and Phillips, 306 2008; Spinozzi and Truppa, 2002], in which case the task can be solved in either 2 307 steps: lifting the lid and reaching for food, in a sequential unimanual/bimanual 308 manner (L-L/R-R, L-R/R-L, B-L/B-R); or 3 steps: lifting the lid, holding the lid up, 309 and reaching for food, in a concurrent bimanual manner (L-RL/R-LR, L-LR/R-RL, B-310 LR/B-RL). In another version, the box includes a stop screw on the back of the lid 311 which causes the lid to fall shut if it is not held open [Lilak and Phillips, 2008; 312 Spinozzi and Truppa, 2002], in which case the task can be solved only in 3 steps: 313 lifting the lid, holding the lid up, and reaching for food, in a concurrent bimanual 314 manner (L-RL/R-LR, L-LR/R-RL, B-LR/B-RL; in the latter two cases, the sequence is 315 functionally similar to the previous one).

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Spinozzi and Truppa [2002] did an assessment of hand preference in 23 tufted capuchins using the box tasks. While solving the sequential unimanual/bimanual box task, the capuchins indiscriminately (in 48.8% and 36.9% trials) used the strategies involving no differentiation (L-L/R-R, i.e., lifting the lid and reaching for food with the same hand), and differentiation of roles for the two hands (L-R/R-L, i.e., lifting the lid with one hand and reaching for food with the other hand); and

323	while solving the concurrent bimanual version of the task, the capuchins
324	predominantly (in 73.4% trials) used the strategy involving complete differentiation
325	of roles for the two hands (L-LR/R-RL, i.e., lifting the lid and holding it up with the
326	same hand, while simultaneously reaching for food with the other hand) more often
327	than the other two possible strategies (L-RL/R-LR and B-LR/B-RL). In a nutshell,
328	the capuchins did not show any difference in the direction and strength of hand
329	preference for prehension between the sequential unimanual/bimanual and
330	concurrent bimanual versions of the box task, demonstrating the similarity between
331	them.
332	
333	This example demonstrates that sequential unimanual/bimanual and concurrent
334	bimanual box tasks elicit similar direction and strength of hand preference. This
335	also holds true for several other tasks as described above. In fact, a general
336	principle involving partial/complete differentiation of roles for the two hands is likely
337	to underlie manual asymmetries and, therefore, sequential unimanual/bimanual
338	and concurrent bimanual tasks should not be treated differently.
339	

340 (v) Haptic Search Tasks

Typically, solving a haptic search task involves obtaining food mixed with some
non-edible material [Parr et al. , 1996; Spinozzi and Cacchiarelli, 2000] or placed in
the crevices on the surface of variably shaped objects [Lacreuse, 1999; Lacreuse
and Fragaszy, 1996; Lacreuse and Fragaszy, 1997] from the inside of an opaque
box (~ 15 to 30 cm X 15 to 30 cm X 15 to 30 cm) through a small opening

346 (diameter < 5 cm; these dimensions allow inserting only one hand at a time). 347 Haptic discrimination has been found to be more difficult that visual discrimination 348 in non-human primates (see, for example, Wilson [1965] in rhesus macaques), 349 perhaps because haptic perception without visual guidance is uncommon in natural 350 settings. Thus, haptic judgments are likely to be novel and consequently, 351 cognitively more demanding as compared to visually guided judgments. Studies on 352 manual asymmetries therefore make use of haptic search tasks to differentially 353 challenge the perceptual motor abilities of the hands, which are likely to be affected 354 by functional differences between the left and right hemispheres. However, studies 355 do not compare hand-usage patterns between haptic and visually guided reaching 356 (though Spinozzi and Cacchiarelli [2000] and Lacreuse [1999] stand out as an 357 exception), rather just describe manual asymmetries in haptic search tasks; this 358 hardy reveals something substantial as studying haptic judgments in isolation from 359 visually guided judgments, fail to resolve manual asymmetries stemming from the 360 absence of the visual cues alone.

361

362 (vi) Probing/Tool-Using Tasks

Typically, solving a (pseudo) unimanual probing task involves manipulating a
wooden dowel inserted into a small hole in a clear Plexiglas box in order to displace
a food reward off a shelf where it could be retrieved manually [Garber et al. ,
2008], using a stick to obtain food material present inside a vessel with a narrow
opening while maintaining a tripedal posture [Anderson et al., 1996; Westergaard
et al. , 1998a; Westergaard et al., 1998b; Westergaard and Suomi, 1994a;
Westergaard and Suomi, 1994b] (another version may involve using a sponge

370 [Westergaard and Suomi, 1993a]) or a bipedal posture [Lilak and Phillips, 2008; 371 Westergaard, 1991; Westergaard et al., 1998a]; another tool-using task is nut-372 cracking that involves coordinated bimanual handling of stones to crack nuts 373 [Westergaard and Suomi, 1993b; Westergaard and Suomi, 1996]. It is important to 374 note here that the above probing/tool-using tasks are similar in terms of the 375 number of hands required to solve the task (i.e., unimanual, pseudo unimanual, or 376 bimanual) and the spatiotemporal progression of manual actions (i.e., sequential or 377 concurrent) except for the fact that they involve an extension of the body, 378 controlling which requires finer finger adjustments through response-produced 379 feedback. Thus, functionally similar to simple reaching-for-food tasks, probing/tool-380 using tasks are likely to prove helpful only if the form of manual asymmetries (i.e., 381 with respect to grip type) is considered.

382

383 (vii) Spontaneous Tasks

384 Hand-usage patterns in tasks such as grooming [Fragaszy and Mitchell, 1990], 385 maternal cradling and infant positioning [Hopkins, 2004; Panger and Wolfe, 2000; 386 Westergaard et al., 1999] are more likely to be influenced by the specialization of 387 the two hands for more common activities such as feeding than these tasks 388 themselves. For example, a female capuchin which has its left hand specialized for 389 fine finer adjustments or maneuvering in three dimensional space and its right hand 390 specialized for physical support is more likely to use its right hand for maternal 391 cradling and infant positioning just to keep its left hand free for the usual feeding 392 activities (as they require more sophisticated manual actions). However, studies

- 393 merely describe the hand used for these activities without considering the forms
- and functions of the associated manual asymmetries.
- 395

396 Forms and Functions of Manual Asymmetries

397 The corticomotoneuronal connections innervating the hands regulate the timing and 398 precision of the muscular forces required for fine finger adjustments through 399 response-produced feedback (see, for example, Porter [1985]). It follows from this 400 fact that actions with finer sequential finger movements are more likely to elicit 401 manual asymmetries than simpler actions, as Elliott and Chua [1996] proposed in 402 humans (also see Healey et al. [1986], Steenhuis [1996], and Steenhuis and 403 Bryden [1989]). There exists a possibility that lateral asymmetry in the number of 404 corticomotoneuronal connections innervating the hands govern the forms and 405 functions of manual asymmetries: the hand with lesser corticomotoneuronal 406 connections is specialized for manual operations that primarily involve physical 407 strength or those that require power grips, and the hand with greater 408 corticomotoneuronal connections is specialized for manual actions that involve 409 maneuvering in three-dimensional space or those that require precision grips (see 410 Mangalam et al. [2014b]). A step-by-step analysis of any of the above tasks 411 reveals sequential or concurrent fundamental manual actions. These fundamental 412 manual actions can then be classified in terms of the form into either the power or 413 precision grip, or in terms of the function into either 'maneuvering in three 414 dimensional space or providing physical strength.

415

416 Inter-Individual, -Population, or -Species Comparisons

417 Some intermediate step(s) involved in solving a multi-step task might not be a part 418 of the behavioral repertoire of an individual, a population, or a species. 419 Consequently, the perceived complexity of a task might vary across individuals, 420 populations, or species, making inter-individual, -population, or -species 421 comparisons of hand preferences across complex tasks erroneous. Diversity in 422 factors causing spatiotemporal inter-individual, -population, or -species variations 423 in manual actions may also influence hand-usage patterns at multiple levels of 424 organization. For example, Sfar et al. [2014] did a comparative assessment of hand 425 preference in red howlers, *Alouatta seniculus* and yellow-breasted capuchins, 426 Sapajus xanthosternos: the red howlers, which habitually use the mouth to obtain 427 food, selectively took part in the reaching-for-food tasks and also exhibited stronger 428 hand preferences than the yellow-breasted capuchins in the tasks that were 429 relatively simple to solve. However, differences in the strength of hand preference 430 diminished with the increasing complexity of the reaching-for-food tasks, that is, 431 the relatively more complex tasks were perceived as equally complex by both the 432 red howlers and the yellow-breasted capuchins. Both these observations 433 demonstrate that the feeding ecology and niche structure influence hand-usage 434 patterns, bringing about the differences in hand preference out of the contingent 435 nature of the complexity of a task. Thus, manual asymmetries in non-human 436 primates should be investigated not just in isolation, but within the broader scope 437 of the behavioral repertoire of an individual, a population, or a species.

438

439 **Division of Labor as a General Principle**

Our experience with studies on hand-usage patterns in bonnet macaques
[Mangalam et al. , 2014a; Mangalam et al. , 2014b; Sfar et al. , 2014], our review
of studies on hand-usage patterns in capuchins, and our analysis of various tasks
used in these studies, collectively suggest that 'division of labor' is a general
principle underlying manual asymmetries in non-human primates. In order to
substantiate this possibility, we propose that:

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447 (i) Division of Labor in Hand Usage Is Likely to Be Prominently Visible in

448 **Transitions between Tasks with Variable Requirements**

449 Individuals may have to make transitions between tasks with variable requirements 450 and depending on these, vary hand usage. Suppose, for example, an individual that 451 preferentially uses the left hand to make power grips and the right hand to make 452 precision grips is solving a reaching-for-food task that involves obtaining food items 453 from a portable container (e.g., a water bottle); the individual holds the container 454 in the left hand and retrieves the food items with the right hand. A conspecific then 455 approaches this focal individual and so it moves with the bottle to some other 456 location, say to a nearby high-rise platform, or to a distant branch. There can be 457 two ways an individual can do that: (a) by holding the bottle in the left hand and 458 climbing with the right hand or (b) by shifting the bottle to the right hand, setting 459 the left hand free, and climbing with the left hand. If one hand is specialized for 460 manual operations that require power grips and the other hand is specialized for 461 manual operations that require precision grips, or alternatively for maneuvering in 462 three-dimensional space and providing physical strength, the second way seems 463 more plausible (see Mangalam et al. [2014b] for another such example). So, if the

transition involves tasks with variable requirements, division of labor becomes
evident. We propose an experimental design to observe the division of labor in
hand usage based on task demands. One should examine hand preference across
situations synonymous to that in the above example. Stringent changes in handusage patterns while shifting contexts would demonstrate division of labor in hand
usage.

470

471 (ii) Division of Labor in Hand Usage Is Likely to Be Visible and Understood

472 in Tasks with Differential Requirements

473 Napier [1956] described prehensile functions of the human hand, such as grasping 474 and gripping: an object can be grasped/gripped by either holding it in a clamp 475 formed by partly flexed fingers and palm, while applying a counter pressure by the 476 thumb lying more or less in plane of the palm-the 'power' grip, or pinching it between the flexor aspects of the fingers and the opposing thumb-the 'precision' 477 478 grip. Performing certain manual operations primarily requires power and precision 479 plays a secondary role, whereas performing certain other manual operations 480 primarily requires precision and power plays a secondary role. And this task-specific 481 requirement of power and precision grip is likely to influence hand-usage patterns 482 in a given manual operation. In New World monkey species, the typical hinge-483 shaped joint of the thumb at the base of the palm allows abduction/adduction and 484 flexion/extension movements, but not rotational movement, the key factor in 485 opposability [Napier and Napier, 1967]. For a long time it was thus held, that no 486 New World monkey species could grasp objects with precision [Bishop, 1964; Napier, 1993; Napier and Napier, 1967]. However, comparative behavioral studies 487

demonstrated that capuchins stand out from other platyrrhine species because of
their (a) high degree of manual dexterity [Fragaszy, 1986; Lacreuse and Fragaszy,
1996; Panger, 1988], (b) frequent use of precision grips that mainly involve lateral
aspects of digits for picking up small objects [Christel and Fragaszy, 2000; Costello
and Fragaszy, 1988; Spinozzi et al. , 2004], and (c) capacity to perform relatively
independent movements of the digits [Christel and Fragaszy, 2000; Costello and
Fragaszy, 1988].

495

496 Anatomical and physiological features of the neural substrate that control manual 497 actions might explain the high manual dexterity in capuchins. Capuchins can act out 498 highly fractionated movements of the fingers/digits owing to the large number and 499 extension of the corticomotoneuronal connections that innervate the hand 500 [Kuypers, 1981; Lemon, 1993; Muir and Lemon, 1983; Shinoda et al., 1981], as 501 observed in humans and chimpanzees [Bortoff and Strick, 1993]. Moreover, studies 502 reported that the individuals that preferentially used the right hand to reach for 503 food in a concurrent bimanual tube task, exhibited a greater leftward bias of the 504 anterior cerebellum [Phillips and Hopkins, 2007], and had a shallower central sulcus 505 [Phillips and Sherwood, 2005] as well as a smaller overall corpus callosum in the 506 contralateral hemisphere [Phillips et al., 2007], compared to those that 507 preferentially used the left hand or did not show hand preference; although there 508 was no difference in the size of the left-frontal petalia between the two [Phillips and 509 Sherwood, 2007].

510

511 A few studies investigated manual asymmetries with respect to the control and 512 movement of the fingers/digits in capuchins. Christel and Fragaszy [2000] reported 513 that the individuals did not exhibit considerable patterns in hand preference or hand 514 performance with respect to the power or precision grips used to grasp currants 515 and grapes lying on a tray. Spinozzi et al. [2004] reported that the individuals 516 preferentially used one hand to grasp a food item fixed on a tray, and did not show 517 any difference in performance with respect to the power or precision grips, but 518 extracted the food faster with the preferred hand than the non-preferred hand with 519 respect to the precision grips (and not with respect to the power grips). Spinozzi et 520 al. [2007] reported that the individuals preferentially used one hand to retrieve a 521 raisin from a transparent hollow tube fixed horizontally to the upper end of a 522 vertical metal bar, and extracted the food faster with the preferred hand than the 523 other hand. Whereas these findings indicate that precise control/movement of the 524 fingers/digits are more likely to elicit manual asymmetries than the imprecise ones, 525 there are problems with the experimental setups.

526

527 If, suppose, one hand is specialized for manual operations that primarily involve 528 physical strength and, therefore, require power grips, and the other hand is 529 specialized for those that involve maneuvering in three-dimensional space and, 530 therefore, require precision grips, a manual operation that primarily requires either 531 one or the other of the two forms and functions of the hand is likely to influence 532 hand-usage patterns with respect to a particular type of grip as well as grip-533 formation patterns with respect to a particular hand. The three studies-Christel and 534 Fragaszy [2000], Spinozzi et al. [2004], and Spinozzi et al. [2007]–employ

reaching-for-food tasks that primarily involve maneuvering in three-dimensional space and, therefore, require precision grip. This is likely to be the reason why Christel and Fragaszy [2000] did not find manual asymmetries with respect to the types of grips and Spinozzi et al. [2004] did not find a difference in performance between the two hands with respect to the power grips, presenting a distorted and partial picture of manual asymmetries.

541

542 We propose an experimental design to unambiguously determining the forms and 543 functions of manual asymmetries in non-human primates. One should examine 544 hand preference in a concurrent, bimanual reaching-for-food task. In one scenario, the manual operations should require a power grip followed by a precision grip; in 545 546 another scenario, the manual operations should require a precision grip followed by 547 a power grip. Contrasting hand-usage patterns in these two scenarios would 548 indicate that the individuals preferentially used the two hands depending on the 549 requirements of the tasks, that is, one hand to perform the manual operations 550 involving maneuvering in three-dimensional space and the other hand to perform 551 those involving physical strength. One should then examine hand performance with 552 regard to the requirements of the tasks in a concurrent, bimanual hand-553 performance-differentiation task. In one scenario, this task should ergonomically 554 force the usage of either the left or the right hand to perform a manual operation 555 requiring either a power grip or a precision grip; in another scenario, this task 556 should ergonomically force the usage of either the left or the right hand to perform 557 a manual operation requiring a precision grip and the other hand to perform the 558 one requiring a power grip. A more effective and/or efficient power grip in one

- 559 scenario and a precision grip in the other scenario would indicate that the
- 560 individuals used the two hands depending on the specializations, that is, difference
- 561 in the manual dexterity of the two hands.

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562

563 (iii) Division of Labor in Hand Usage Is Likely to Improve Hand

564 **Performance in Terms of the Efficiency of the Power and Precision Grips**

565 Manual asymmetries might have ecological disadvantages as they can potentially 566 make an individual vulnerable to attack/defend appropriately only when the 567 prey/predator is present on a particular side. Also, as the stimuli are randomly 568 located with respect to the sagittal plane of an individual, i.e., towards left or 569 towards right, it might make it difficult to solve a particular task. However, manual 570 asymmetries are likely to help increasing manual specialization, the benefits of 571 which surpass the associated ecological disadvantages (reviewed by Vallortigara and Rogers [2005]). Trehub [1983] drew a distinction between mere hand 572 573 preference and manual specialization by exemplifying human infants who exhibit 574 manual specialization and not hand preference (this idea was carried forward by 575 Fagot and Vauclair [1991] in non-human primates). According to Trehub [1983], 576 hand preference refers to the consistent usage of one hand to solve familiar, 577 relatively simple, and highly practiced tasks, and may not be necessarily 578 accompanied by an improvement in hand performance; whereas manual 579 specialization refers to the consistent usage of one hand to solve novel, relatively 580 complex, and not-practiced tasks that require peculiar action patterns, and is 581 necessarily accompanied by an improvement in hand performance. Trehub [1983] 582 also described that individuals generally exhibit manual specialization only in the 583 context of tasks that involve cognitively demanding manual actions (see, for 584 example, Mangalam et al. [2014b] that showed manual specialization in bonnet 585 macagues in tasks requiring peculiar action patterns viz., in terms of tasks that

require either higher maneuvering dexterity or higher physical strength). Thus,
there exists a marked difference between hand preference and manual
specialization in terms of the resulting difference in performance of the two hands,
evidently visible while considering the forms and functions of manual asymmetries,
as described in the previous section.

591

592 Only one study examined the relationship between strength of hand preference and 593 the corresponding hand performance in capuchins. Fragaszy and Mitchell [1990] 594 reported that the individuals exhibited a weak, but statistically non-significant, 595 positive relationship between strength of hand preference and the corresponding hand performance in the (pseudo) unimanual and bimanual versions of the box 596 597 task. However, Fragaszy and Mitchell [1990] acknowledged that the strength of 598 hand preference could have affected the timing of the hand movements, thereby 599 affecting the relationship between strength of hand preference and the 600 corresponding hand performance. A similar study in another non-human primate 601 species-the bonnet macaque, Mangalam et al. [2014a], reported a negative 602 relationship between (a) hand performance of the preferred hand and the difference 603 in hand performance between the two hands in a hand-performance-differentiation 604 task, and (b) difference in hand performance between the two hands and the 605 difference in the strength of hand preference in another (pseudo) unimanual and 606 bimanual versions of the box task in bonnet macaques. These findings indicate that 607 a greater strength of hand preference is associated with a higher difference in the 608 performance of the two hands. However, research lacks sufficient evidence 609 supporting the hypothesis that hand preference, or better yet, division of labor in

hand usage improves hand performance in terms of the time and/or energyrequired to perform a given task.

612

613 We propose an experimental design to determine the adaptive value of hand 614 preference. One should examine hand preference in a (pseudo) unimanual 615 reaching-for-food task (wherein, the manual operation should require either a 616 power grip or a precision grip) and a concurrent, bimanual reaching-for-food task 617 (wherein, the manual operations should require a power grip with one hand 618 followed by a precision grip with the other hand, or a precision grip with one hand 619 followed by a power grip with the other hand). One should then examine hand 620 performance in a hand-performance-differentiation task that should ergonomically 621 force the usage of either the left or the right hand to perform a manual operation 622 requiring either a power grip or a precision grip, thus allowing to measure hand 623 performance independent of ceiling effects as this task is unlikely to elicit, or better 624 yet, prime any motor actions associated with the opposite hand). A positive 625 relationship between (a) hand performance of the hand with higher performance in 626 the hand-performance-differentiation task and normalized difference in hand 627 performance for the two hands, and (b) difference in hand performance for the two 628 hands in the hand-performance-differentiation task and difference in strength of 629 hand preference in the (pseudo) unimanual and bimanual reaching-for-food tasks, 630 with respect to the power grips, the precision grips, or both, would indicate that the 631 division of labor in hand usage improves hand performance.

632

633 Conclusions

634 Studies have investigated the evolutionary origin of hand-preference in non-human 635 primates. A careful analysis points towards the division of labor as being a general 636 principle underlying manual asymmetries. This principle is based on the difference 637 in the intrinsic requirements of the tasks, which can be broadly divided into 638 maneuvering in three-dimensional space and providing physical support, acquiring 639 power and precision grips respectively. Our review of studies on hand-usage 640 patterns in non-human primates reveals conceptual and logistic problems with the 641 spontaneous and experimental tasks used to determine hand-usage patterns; 642 moreover, methodology differs and confounding variables are often not 643 appropriately addressed. We suggest that studies on manual asymmetries in non-644 human primates should design experiments that do not undermine this possibility. 645 As far as the adaptive value of manual asymmetries are concerned, we suggest 646 that, to obtain more unambiguous answers, studies should be conducted with 647 experimental designs that allow comparing hand-usage patterns across species that 648 vary in their phylogenetic relatedness and/or ecology, over a range of spontaneous 649 activities and experimental tasks. It might be useful to study manual preferences 650 not just in isolation, but within the broader scope of the behavioral repertoire of the 651 species. Also, it might be advantageous to study the ontogeny of manual 652 preferences. Studies of these kinds may help to understand the forms and functions 653 of manual asymmetries, and the potential selection pressures under which manual 654 asymmetries are likely to appear and evolve.

655

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