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**Intentional gesturing increases social complexity by allowing recipient’s understanding
of intentions when it is inhibited by stress**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Examining the links between intentional communication and social relationships provides
24 insights into the cognitive skills needed to manage a differentiated set of social bonds. Great
25 apes gesture intentionally, but how this intentionality relates to sociality is still unclear. Stress
26 in the form of dominant audience members inhibits understanding of intentions downgrading
27 cognition to understanding of behavior but intentional communication may enable social
28 bonding in stressful conditions. We examined the associations between gestural
29 communication, sociality, stress and the outcome of interactions in wild chimpanzees. Social
30 network size was positively associated with intentional but not non-intentional communication.
31 When a dominant bystander was present with whom the recipient was weakly bonded, and
32 gesturing was non-intentional, recipients produced avoidance response towards signalers to
33 whom they were weakly bonded, indicating understanding of behavior. Signalers used
34 intentional gestures more frequently to recipients who were stressed, and intentional gestures
35 evoked approach behavior by the recipients, indicating understanding of intentionality. These
36 results suggest that the presence of dominant bystanders is stressful, inhibiting understanding
37 of intentionality. However, intentional gestures facilitate social bonding by allowing
38 understanding of intentions. The cognitive skills underpinning intentional gestures may
39 therefore play a key role in enabling primates to meet the demands of sociality.

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42 Key words: intentional gesture, social network, chimpanzee, audience checking, response
43 waiting, elaboration, dominant bystander

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47 **1. Introduction**

48 An understanding of intentionality, defined as the ability to appreciate that others have
49 different thoughts from us, and that these thoughts affect their behavior [1] is central to being
50 human and is what makes our social relationships so complex. Studies of primate gestural
51 communication (e.g. movements of the hands, head and body) have shown that they have some
52 understanding of intentionality as evidenced by a signaler's use of audience checking (directing
53 visual attention at recipient prior to signal), response waiting (directing visual attention at
54 recipient after signaling) and elaboration of signals (using a new signal after the first signal in
55 sequence) until their goal is obtained, or failure is indicated [1]. This cognitive flexibility is
56 required to monitor and manage social relationships in a dynamic social environment. Primates
57 must not only keep track of their own relationships, but also monitor third party relationships
58 between other group members, as changes in these relationships (e.g. a change in dominance
59 rank) can have implications for their own position in their group.

60 Although intentionality in gestural communication has been considered from the
61 standpoint of the signaller, recent studies argue for the important role of intentionality in
62 gesturing from the recipient's perspective [2]. For recipients, understanding of intentionality,
63 is cognitively demanding because it requires use of selective attention to focus on social goals
64 of individual importance, as represented in the working memory [2]. This capacity allows the
65 recipient to respond flexibly in novel social conditions, when the absence of direct experience
66 with the social partner would limit the complexity of social relationships. In this context,
67 intentional gesturing facilitates understanding of intentionality by increasing the ability of the
68 recipient to process information about the social and ecological environment.

69 However, examining understanding of intentionality from recipient's perspective is not
70 straight forward; it is difficult to disentangle whether primates use gestures to influence

71 recipient's intentional states (i.e. what the other knows – indicating second order intentionality,
72 or formal theory of mind) or behaviour (i.e. what the other does without the involvement of
73 knowledge – indicating simple first order intentionality). Examining social interactions in the
74 context of social stressors can enable us to draw firm conclusions about mental capacities
75 underlying the processing of information by the recipients. Exposure to social stressors
76 dysregulates dopamine dynamics to downgrade functioning of the higher order brain structures
77 that are involved in understanding of intentionality, such as the prefrontal cortex [3]. In
78 contrast, the lower level structures based on the understanding of behaviour such as the striatum
79 are not inhibited by stress [3]. We hypothesize that gestures that are intentional in form (gestures
80 accompanied by presence of audience checking, response waiting, or elaboration) as opposed
81 to gestures that are non-intentional in form (when these features are absent) allow
82 understanding of intentionality by releasing it from inhibition. This intentionality in
83 communication, as seen in chimpanzee gestural communication, may enable primates to
84 maintain more complex social relationships.

85 The complexity of a social group in primates depends on the complexity of social
86 relationships between animals, as the social group itself is an emergent property of these micro-
87 level interactions [4]. Primates allocate differentiated amounts of time into affiliative
88 interactions such as grooming with both related and unrelated group members, giving rise to
89 networks of strong (frequent interactions) and weak (infrequent interactions) social bonds [5].
90 For individual primates, the level of social complexity can be measured by the size of their
91 social network. In smaller networks, primates form relatively strong ties with all network
92 members, with frequent interactions based on multiple different behaviours. However, as
93 network size increases, the social bonds primates have with other individuals become on
94 average increasingly weak, with less frequent interactions and an increasing dissociation
95 between different behaviours, as primates use different types of behaviours to maintain the

96 different types of ties [4]. These weaker, indirect ties are cognitively complex to manage, and
97 this is especially true for central group members who have affiliative interactions with many
98 conspecifics, as compared to peripheral individuals who have fewer interactions. Thus, in more
99 complex social networks one may predict that there will be increased use of intentional gestures
100 because of the need to use increasingly sophisticated strategies to maintain an increasing
101 number of weaker social ties.

102 Group living inevitably leads to stresses arising from competition over resources such
103 as food and mates [6]. Displacement activities such as scratch, are a common group of
104 behavioural measures used to identify anxiety [7], which can be used to complement measures
105 based on behavioural data such as communication patterns [8]. A range of studies have shown
106 that scratch rates increase markedly above baseline levels in situations that induce anxiety such
107 as following aggression [7], or the presence of a dominant bystander in close proximity [6].

108 One of the primary mechanisms to offset stress, both in humans and primates, is social
109 affiliation. The close social bonds of subordinates with the dominants are a direct response to
110 the competition over resources, buffering individuals from stress. However, the greater time
111 and cognitive constraints on forming social relationships in complex social networks imply that
112 not all individuals will have a strong bond with the dominant group members. Subordinates
113 who are in close proximity to a dominant group member with whom they have a weak bond
114 should experience higher stress, as they are at a higher risk of competition and aggression.

115 In response to stressful events primates form a less diverse grooming network: they
116 avoid unfamiliar conspecifics and focus a greater proportion of their grooming effort on a
117 smaller number of strongly bonded conspecifics [9]. This suggests that the level of stress
118 primates experience affects how they manage their social relationships. Stress increases the
119 ambiguity of social interactions, particularly for weakly bonded conspecifics who may show

120 incongruent responding where desirable interactions may appear undesirable, causing
121 inhibition [3]. Thus, in stressful conditions, one may predict that there will be increasing
122 avoidance of weakly bonded dyad partners, as primates prioritise social interactions with the
123 strongly bonded conspecifics [9]. However, the use of intentional gestures may facilitate
124 approaches towards weakly bonded conspecifics by enabling perception that the interaction is
125 desirable. Further, surprising low probability events (i.e. novel signal, secondary context,
126 higher intensity) also potentially upregulate cognitive processing, signifying their use should
127 also co-occur with the use of intentional gestures [10].

128 Studies show that intentional gestures play an important role in sociality. For instance,
129 chimpanzees preferentially direct right-handed over left-handed gestures at weakly bonded
130 conspecifics, which elicits a response at a higher rate than if the gesture was left-handed [8].
131 However, it remains unclear how primates process social information received in the context
132 of intentional and non-intentional gestures. We hypothesised that intentional gestures upgrade
133 understanding of behaviour by allowing intentional processing as a more sophisticated form of
134 cognition [11]. To test this hypothesis we observed social interactions in the fluid fission-fusion
135 social system of wild chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii*) and examined if: 1) the
136 complexity of the communication network is positively associated with the complexity of the
137 social network; 2) a weak bond with the dominant bystander is a source of stress for the
138 subordinate recipient (using scratching rates as a measure of stress); 3) a weak bond with a
139 dominant bystander influences the perception of social interactions as undesirable as seen in
140 response to threatening or aversive events, and intentional gestures change that perception; 4)
141 intentional gestures influence the convergence in gesture repertoire.

142 **2. Methods**

143 *(a) Study site, data collection and coding*

144 We collected data on adult, habituated chimpanzees (six male, six female) at the Budongo
145 Conservation Field Station, Budongo Forest Reserve in Uganda for 9 months (2006 – 2008).
146 The observation duration was similar across subjects (mean number of hours \pm standard
147 deviation = 18.03 ± 0.67 , see Supplementary Information 1). We conducted focal follows of
148 18-minute duration (9 scans at 2-minute intervals) and recorded the activity of the focal
149 individual; the identity, activity, bodily orientation and distance of the most dominant
150 individual; and the nearest adult neighbor relative to the focal subject. We also recorded the
151 identity of all individuals present within 10 m of the focal subject. This was accompanied by
152 continuous recording of communication using a digital video camera. We coded video
153 recordings according with description given in Supplementary Information 1, Table 2. For each
154 gesture, the social bond of the dominant chimpanzee towards the recipient and the recipient
155 towards signaller was determined using the Composite Sociality Index [12] – see
156 Supplementary Information 1 for details.

157 *(b) Generalized linear mixed models (GLMM)*

158 For the key inferential statistics, we used independent events from our dataset, i.e.
159 communicative signals that occurred as a first in the sequence and that were not a scratch. To
160 test factors influencing the intentional communication, we included three control predictors:
161 age difference (two levels: different age category when there was more than 5 years age
162 difference between individuals in the dyad, same age category when there was no more than 5
163 years age difference between individuals in the dyad), signaller sex (two levels: female, male),
164 recipient sex (two levels: female, male). The same control variables were included when testing
165 the effect of intentionality marker (audience checking, response waiting and elaboration
166 combined) and other variables on the recipient's response (two levels: avoidance, approach),
167 additionally including oestrous status of the dyad (two levels: reproductive dyads included
168 dyads of male and oestrous females when on the day of signalling female was in oestrous

169 showing sexual swelling and mating with the males, non-reproductive included all other
170 dyads.). We did not control for influence of oestrous status of the dyad in all models (Table 2),
171 because this measure was correlated with the strength of the social bond of the recipient with
172 the signaller, but not with the reciprocated bonds (Table 1). Further, all communication in this
173 context occurred between unrelated dyads, including in the dataset adult to adult
174 communication only. In all GLMM, we included the following predictor variables: context of
175 signal production (two levels: secondary context for gesture type, primary context for gesture
176 type), modality (two levels: visual, auditory or tactile), dominant/ recipient bond (two levels:
177 weak, strong), recipient/ signaller bond (two levels: weak, strong), recipient orientation (two
178 levels: away, towards). In all GLMM, the data had a hierarchical structure composed of Level
179 1 (identity of signaller) and Level 2 (identity of recipient of the gesture). The models were fitted
180 using a binomial error structure with logit link. The random effects included were the signaller
181 identity and the signaller identity by recipient identity: for these effects, random intercepts were
182 used. All data analyses were performed using SPSS 25.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

183 *(c) Social network analysis*

184 Double Dekker Semi-Partialling Multiple Regression Quadratic Assignment Procedure
185 (MRQAP) was used to determine the relationships between behavioral networks calculated as
186 the frequency of behaviour per hour dyad partners spent within 10 meters [13]. This was to
187 take into account any potential collinearity issues due to the significant correlations that may
188 arise between different variables. In MRQAP regressions, we included four control variables:
189 age similarity (two levels: different age category when there was more than 5 years age
190 difference between individuals in the dyad, same age category when there was no more than 5
191 years age difference between individuals in the dyad), sex similarity (two levels: different sex
192 male-female dyads vs same sex male-male or female-female dyads), kinship (two levels: non-
193 kin vs kin, where kin included only mother/ adult son dyads as these were the only related

194 dyads in the dataset), oestrous similarity (two levels: reproductively inactive denoted non-
195 mating partners such as un-oestrous female-male or male -male dyad, reproductively active
196 denoted potential mating partners such as oestrous female-male dyad). We tested the effect of
197 overlap in repertoire on the rate of intentional and non-intentional gestures according to
198 modality of the signal as visual, tactile, auditory short-range and auditory long-range. We used
199 the Cohen's Kappa coefficient between each dyad of the whole repertoire of gestures to create
200 a matrix of agreement in the repertoire of gestures between pairs of chimpanzees – see
201 Supplementary Information 1 for details.

202 Further, we examined whether the strength of the social bond between the dominant bystander
203 and the recipient of gesturing predicted the rate of scratching produced by recipient in the
204 presence of the bystander. To this end, we included in the analysis only those instances of social
205 bonds when interactions between adult subjects occurred in the presence of a bystander. In the
206 case of one dyad, the social bond varied between years; in this case, we used the social bond
207 in the first observation year. In order to examine the relationship between rate of scratching
208 produced by the recipient of signaling in the presence of the signaler and intentionality of
209 gestures, we transposed the scratching network (exchanged the rows and columns so that i
210 becomes j , and vice versa). We used network matrices to calculate centrality measures using
211 normalized degree centrality. This measure represents the average value of each row or column
212 of the network matrix (i.e., the average value of that behavior for each focal chimpanzee). Since
213 the network of social behaviors was directed, indegree and outdegree were calculated
214 separately. Outdegree refers to behaviors directed by the focal chimpanzee to conspecifics,
215 whilst indegree refers to behaviors directed by conspecifics toward the focal chimpanzee.
216 Second, to obtain the measure of overall network size (the total number of edges connected to
217 a particular node), we calculated the normalized degree (n degree) of social and communication
218 networks, dichotomizing and symmetrizing social networks. In the analyses, we used four

219 control variables: proximity to oestrous female outdegree (duration of time focal subject spent
220 in proximity to oestrous female per hour spent in the same party outdegree), proximity to kin
221 outdegree (duration of time focal subject spent in proximity to kin per hour spent in the same
222 party outdegree), sex (two levels: male, female), age (age of focal subject in years). The details
223 of all social network models can be found in Supplementary Information 2. UCINET 6 for
224 Windows was used to carry out all data transformations and social network analyses.

225 **3. Results**

226 **Overview of social networks**

227 In the overall social bonding network, the chimpanzees were connected to a majority of all
228 other focal individuals—66.6% of potential connections to group members were present (range
229 46–100%). In terms of the behavioural measures, per hour spent within 10 meters, chimpanzees
230 directed overall a mean (range) of 1.71 (0–32) intentional and 0.33 (0–15.8) non-intentional
231 gestures at the dyad partner. The mean degree (range) of intentional gestures was 48.4% (18–
232 100%) of connections to all network members and non-intentional gestures was 24.2% (0–
233 64%) of connections.

234 **Does communicative complexity increase with social complexity?**

235 We used node level regressions to examine whether centrality in the social network predicted
236 centrality in the intentional gesture network. We found that there was a significant positive
237 association between social network size (composite sociality index n degree), and the size of
238 the network of intentional communication (presence of audience checking, response waiting,
239 elaboration combined n degree) ($r^2=0.700$, $\beta= 0.718$, $p = 0.044$, Fig. 1) but not the size of the
240 network of non-intentional communication (absence of audience checking, response waiting,
241 elaboration combined n degree) ($r^2=0.736$, $\beta= 0.124$, $p = 0.391$).

242 Examining predictors of composite sociality index indegree by 1) intentional and non-
243 intentional communication in- and outdegree and 2) approach and avoidance in- and outdegree
244 we found that chimpanzees who received a higher rate of social bonding behaviour received
245 communication accompanied by intentionality markers (audience checking, response waiting,
246 elaboration combined) at a higher rate ($r^2=0.902$, $\beta= 0.900$, $p = 0.028$) than the peripheral
247 chimpanzees in the social network. Further, chimpanzees who received a higher rate of social
248 bonding behaviour responded with approach at a higher rate ($r^2=0.992$, $\beta= 2.032$, $p = 0.046$)
249 than peripheral chimpanzees in the social network.

250 Finally, examining predictors of approach response produced in response to signalling
251 (approach indegree) by intentional and non-intentional communication indegree, we found that
252 chimpanzees who received a higher rate of intentional communication approached signallers
253 at a higher rate than the chimpanzees who received a lower rate of intentional communication
254 ($r^2=0.993$, $\beta= 0.956$, $p = 0.005$).

255 **Do chimpanzees experience higher stress in the presence of a weakly bonded dominant** 256 **bystander?**

257 Using MRQAP regression, we examined whether the strength of the social bond between a
258 dominant bystander and the recipient of the signalling predicted the rate of scratching produced
259 by the recipient. We found that recipients scratched at a higher rate in the presence of a
260 dominant bystander who was weakly bonded to them than in the presence of all other dyads
261 ($r^2=0.078$, $\beta= 0.165$, $p = 0.042$).

262 **Do chimpanzees direct intentional gestures at recipients who experience higher stress?**

263 Using MRQAP regression we examined whether rate of intentional and non-intentional
264 gestures (considered for each marker separately) predicted the rate of scratching produced by
265 the recipient of the signalling who was in the presence of the signaller. Signallers who received

266 a higher rate of scratch by the recipient of gesturing directed a higher rate of gestures
267 accompanied by audience checking ($r^2=0.088$, $\beta= 0.207$, $p = 0.035$) and response waiting
268 ($r^2=0.107$, $\beta= 0.263$, $p = 0.027$) at the recipient of gesturing as compared to those signallers
269 who received a lower rate of scratching by the recipient. Further, signallers who received a
270 lower rate of scratching by the recipient of gesturing directed a higher rate of gestures
271 unaccompanied by audience checking ($r^2=0.088$, $\beta= -0.154$, $p = 0.029$) and response waiting
272 ($r^2=0.107$, $\beta= -0.197$, $p = 0.014$) at the recipient of the gesturing as compared to chimpanzees
273 who received a higher rate of scratching. The production of elaboration was not associated with
274 the scratch behaviour of the recipient.

275 **Is avoidance more common in response to weakly bonded dominant bystander (stress**
276 **source), weak social bond of recipient towards signaller, and absence of intentionality**
277 **marker?**

278 GLMM was used to examine the predictors of whether the recipient of gestural communication
279 approached the signaller, as compared to avoidance (Fig. 2). An approach by the recipient was
280 significantly more likely than avoidance when the gestures involved intentional rather than
281 non-intentional communication, when the gesture was made in a primary context for the
282 gesture type than secondary context, and when the gesture was visual, as compared to auditory
283 or tactile. Further, the recipients were more likely to approach the signaller when the dominant
284 bystander was strongly bonded to them and when the recipient had a strong bond with the
285 signaller. Males were more likely to approach than females and the approaches were more
286 commonly produced towards females rather than towards males. Reproductive dyad partners
287 were more likely to approach than non-reproductive dyad partners (Table 1).

288

289 **Is intentional signalling more common in response to weakly bonded dominant bystander**
290 **(stress source), weak social bond of recipient towards signaller, and presence of**
291 **approach?**

292 We used GLMM to examine whether the social bond between the dominant bystander and
293 recipient, the social bond between the recipient and the signaller, the type of communication
294 event and the recipient's response predicted presence or absence of intentionality marker
295 accompanying gesturing (Fig. 3).

296 (a) Audience checking

297 Audience checking was significantly more frequent when there was approach than avoidance.
298 Further, audience checking was more common when the recipient was a female, and when the
299 modality of the signal was auditory or tactile compared to visual (Table 2a).

300 (b) Response waiting

301 Signals accompanied by response waiting were more likely to be associated with approach than
302 with avoidance. Response waiting was more likely to occur when the gesture type was
303 produced in a secondary context as opposed to primary context for a given gesture type.
304 Further, response waiting was more likely to occur when gestures were auditory or tactile when
305 compared with visual. Social bonding influenced use of response waiting: chimpanzees used
306 response waiting when the social bond of the dominant bystander towards the recipient was
307 weak as compared to strong. Further, the signallers also used response waiting, when the social
308 bond of the recipient towards them was weak as compared to strong. In addition, there was an
309 influence of recipient's sex and age on response waiting. Partners of a different age class and
310 females were more likely to be targeted with response waiting than the same age partners or
311 the males. When the recipient's attention was oriented away from the signaller, signallers were
312 more likely to use response waiting than if the signaller was oriented towards them (Table 2b).

313 (c) Elaboration

314 Elaboration was more likely to be produced when signallers use gesture in a secondary-when
315 compared with primary context. Chimpanzees were more likely to direct elaboration at the
316 recipients who were strongly bonded to them, and when gesturing occurred in the presence of
317 the dominant bystander who was weakly bonded to the recipient. Chimpanzees elaborated
318 towards partners who were females and who were of a different age class to themselves.
319 Further, the recipients were more often oriented away from the signaller than towards during
320 elaboration. Elaboration was more commonly produced by the males than the females (Table
321 2c).

322 **Does intentionality in gestures increase overlap in the repertoire of gestures?**

323 Finally, we used MRQAP regression to examine whether overlap in visual, tactile and auditory
324 signals (kappa value) between signaller and the recipient predicted the rate at which signallers
325 directed intentional and non-intentional gesturing at the recipient. We found that signallers who
326 displayed a higher overlap in repertoire of visual gestures with the recipient directed a higher
327 rate of signals accompanied by an intentionality marker at the dyad partner ($r^2=0.215$, $\beta= 0.436$,
328 $p = 0.002$) than the chimpanzees who displayed a lower overlap in the repertoire of visual
329 gestures.

330 **4. Discussion**

331 The hallmark of increasingly large groups and complex sociality of primates is
332 managing the weak social bonds between group members because it requires an understanding
333 of intentionality. However, more complex sociality imposes higher stress through higher levels
334 of competition for resources by dominant bystanders. Understanding intentionality is impaired
335 during stress, causing understanding to be downgraded to a simple understanding of behaviour

336 and a reduction in the size of a social network. We suggest that the use of intentional gestures
337 facilitates complex sociality during stress, by enabling understanding of intentionality [2].

338 We used social network analysis to show that the complexity of the social network
339 (total number of social connections produced and received) was positively associated with the
340 size of the intentional gesture network (total number of connections produced and received
341 through gestures accompanied by audience checking, response waiting or elaboration) but not
342 non-intentional gesture network (total number of connections produced and received through
343 gestures not accompanied by these markers) directed by chimpanzees in the social network.
344 Examining mechanisms underlying this association, we explored the contexts in which
345 chimpanzees experienced higher stress. We found that chimpanzees experienced higher stress
346 in the presence of a weakly bonded dominant bystander and directed intentional gestures at
347 conspecifics who were stressed. To identify whether intentional gestures played a role in
348 reducing the influence of stress on cognitive processing, we used generalised linear models to
349 examine audience effects on intentionality in gesturing. We found that use of intentional
350 gestures was predicted by presence of stress source, weak bond of recipient towards signaller
351 and presence of approach. Avoidance in response to signalling was common by weakly bonded
352 recipients, when the recipients were stressed and when signalling was non-intentional. Finally,
353 overlap in the repertoire of gestures was positively associated with the use of a higher rate of
354 intentional but not non-intentional gestures. These results suggest that intentional gestures play
355 a key role in sociality by allowing understanding of intentions during stress. These findings go
356 beyond findings reported in previous research on wild apes where the function of intentional
357 gestures was to transfer encoded meaning from the signaller to the recipient [14, 15].

358 One interpretation of our findings could be that chimpanzees responded to
359 understanding behaviour rather than intentions. Understanding of behaviour demands that
360 individuals adapt to the challenges of sociality by having to experience social interactions

361 directly and this would limit the capacity of the recipient to respond flexibly in novel social
362 conditions such as interacting with weakly bonded conspecifics. If chimpanzees only
363 understood behaviour, then there should not be an association between the use of intentional
364 gestures and the complexity of the social network. In contrast, we found that the number of
365 social bonds in the network was positively associated with use of intentional but not non-
366 intentional gestures, suggesting an understanding of intentionality.

367 The transition from small social groups, where primates can maintain strong social
368 bonds primarily with related conspecifics, to large groups, where primates form social bonds
369 with a large number of unrelated conspecifics, is believed to have been accompanied by an
370 understanding of intentionality [4]. Such ability enables primates to integrate in real time
371 perception and accumulation of information about social relationships to form representations
372 of other's future behaviour. This in turn allows them to form social bonds in the absence of
373 prior social interactions, whereby representations of the future goal state give rise to a positive
374 emotional state and approach motivation [5]. In this study, chimpanzees who received a higher
375 rate of intentional gestures approached a wider range of social partners at a higher rate. Our
376 findings suggest that intentional gestures mediate the transition from less complex to more
377 complex sociality of primates by enabling understanding of intentionality.

378 Given these results it is important to explore the mechanisms underpinning the
379 relationship between size of the intentional gesture and sociality networks. Social complexity
380 imposes stress due to a higher cognitive load of managing multiple social relationships,
381 promoting processing based on understanding of behaviour and this is particularly true for
382 central individuals in the network who manage a larger number of differentiated social bonds
383 [16]. In our study, we show that chimpanzees who had a larger number of social bonds,
384 received intentional gestures at a higher rate to facilitate understanding of intentionality.

385 Further, social complexity is believed to be associated with greater stress due to greater
386 scarcity of resources in larger groups, and greater monopolisation potential by dominant group
387 members. One important finding of our study was that recipients of signalling were more
388 stressed when they interacted in the presence of a dominant bystander who was weakly bonded
389 to them. The effects of stress on cognitive processing are well understood. Stress impairs
390 information processing as shown by reduced attention to positive information about the social
391 target [17], increased focus on familiar conspecifics [9], avoidance of unfamiliar conspecifics
392 [18], increased perception that social interaction is undesirable [19] and increased negative
393 emotions [20]. In line with these findings, our study shows that chimpanzees downgraded their
394 cognition to an understanding of behaviour during stress experienced by the recipient of
395 gesturing in the presence of a weakly bonded dominant bystander. When chimpanzees were
396 stressed, the gesturing was non-intentional, and the bond of the recipient towards signaller was
397 weak the recipients avoided the signallers, suggesting they perceived the social interactions as
398 undesirable. If responses to intentional gestures were likewise readouts of behavioural state,
399 then chimpanzees should respond to intentional gestures with avoidance and during stress. On
400 the contrary, we observed that chimpanzees prioritised use of intentional gestures when
401 recipients were stressed, the social bond of the recipient towards signaller was weak, and the
402 chimpanzees approached conspecifics at a higher rate, suggesting the recipients perceived the
403 social interaction as less threatening or positive. This evidence therefore strongly shows that
404 intentional gestures disinhibited understanding of intentions, and this was particularly
405 important when recipients were stressed.

406 It could be argued that elaboration was underpinned by an understanding of behaviour
407 because chimpanzees used elaboration with strongly bonded dyad partners and during stress.
408 Whereas both audience checking and response waiting were produced at a higher rate towards
409 conspecifics who displayed a higher rate of scratching in the presence of a signaller, this was

410 not the case for elaboration. The fact that chimpanzees used elaboration in secondary contexts,
411 when the recipient's attention was directed away from the signaller and the response to the first
412 signal in the sequence was not by approach, suggests that signallers influenced understanding
413 of intentions rather than behaviour.

414 It is important to explore the breadth of strategies that chimpanzees use to facilitate
415 understanding of intentionality. We showed that use of intentional gestures was correlated with
416 the use of signals in their secondary contexts and higher intensity signals, suggesting that
417 intentional gestures mediated the influence of these factors on cognitive processing of social
418 interactions by the recipients. More importantly, we show that the intentional but not non-
419 intentional gestures influence overlap in repertoire of visual gesturing. Previous studies have
420 suggested that the repertoire is genetically fixed, and the overlap in gestures occurs in response
421 to repertoire pruning as chimpanzees learn which signals are effective [21]. If the gesture
422 repertoire was genetically fixed, then the overlap in the repertoire should occur among closely
423 related dyads regardless of the use of intentional gestures, suggesting that chimpanzees only
424 understand behaviour. In contrast, we infer that the repertoire of gestures was flexibly acquired,
425 because the use of intentional gestures influenced overlap in repertoire regardless of
426 relatedness. We propose that chimpanzees create novel gestures (e.g. structural modifications
427 of manual signals) to enable an understanding of intentionality and the recognition of the 'goal'
428 or 'why' of the social interaction that arises through novel gestures results in gesture learning,
429 whereby chimpanzees recognise contingencies between signals and the outcomes in the context
430 of tracking and responding to the signaller's goal.

431 Previous research used response waiting, audience checking and elaboration as a label
432 that describes a behaviour, which functions to intentionally transfer meaning embedded in the
433 signal [14]. Here we use these labels to imply a different cognitive process, namely that these
434 behaviours function to release overactive indirect pathway from inhibition to allow

435 understanding of intentionality as seen by approach of the recipient, when it is downgraded to
436 understanding of behaviour. Visual signals are particularly interesting because they differ from
437 high intensity signals such as tactile or auditory in the cognitive skills that need to be employed
438 in processing of social information due to the lower intensity of emotional arousal associated
439 with these signals, which makes them more adaptive in frequent one on one interactions
440 between strongly bonded partners [22]. Use of an intentionality marker such as response
441 waiting in conjunction with the visual gesture, may augment capacity of the recipient to process
442 social information. This causes co-activation of neural networks and communicative
443 convergence in both repertoire and context, whereby understanding of behaviour becomes
444 operational over time through being exposed to the relevant positive associations that occur
445 during understanding of intentionality. This supports efficient social interactions, whereby the
446 recipient experiences simultaneous activation of positive emotional state through synchronised
447 use of overlapping visual communication as well as activation of mental state through
448 intentional signalling. For instance, we showed that approach is most likely in response to
449 visual signals and also when signals are made in primary context and in conjunction with
450 intentionality marker.

451 Our study reveals that chimpanzee use of intentional gestures facilitates social bonding
452 by allowing two animals to approach each other and engage in a social bonding activity such
453 as grooming that resembles strategies that humans employ in language use and comprehension.
454 In language processing, at the initial stage of the interaction, the speech automatically activates
455 representations of all possible interaction outcomes in the memory of the recipient until the
456 appropriate outcome is strategically selected through controlled processing [23]. Our results
457 seem to suggest that, like language, chimpanzee intentional gestures activate representations
458 of desirable outcomes in the recipients. Whilst chimpanzee intentional gestures may include
459 precursors to language, the origins of language evolution are still hotly debated [24]. Based on

460 results of our study, we suggest that language evolution may have occurred to provide a more
461 effective social bonding mechanism than gestures, to facilitate social bonding and group
462 cohesion in increasingly large groups of hominins [25].

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- 529
- 530

531

532 Table 1. Effects of intentionality marker (audience checking, response waiting and elaboration
 533 combined), social bond, bodily orientation of the recipient, modality and context of signal
 534 production including control variables (signaller and recipient sex, age difference, oestrous
 535 difference) on recipient’s response (avoidance or approach). All communication in this context
 536 occurred between unrelated dyads (non-kin).

Model term	Coefficient	Standard error	Significance
Oestrous difference [non-reproductive]	-5.393	1.088	<0.001
Age [different class]	-3.864	1.933	0.048
Signaller sex [female]	14.328	1.667	<0.001
Recipient sex [female]	-4.340	1.111	<0.001
Context [secondary]	-3.301	1.033	0.002
Modality [visual]	5.933	1.130	<0.001
Dominant/ recipient bond [weak]	-5.488	1.063	<0.001
Signaller/recipient reciprocated bond [absent]	-6.103	1.734	0.001
Recipient orientation [away]	1.250	0.669	0.064
Intentionality marker [absent]	-5.949	1.058	<0.001

537

538 Table 2. Influence of recipient’s response, social bond (dominant with the recipient, recipient
 539 with signaller), context, modality, bodily orientation of the recipient and control predictors (age
 540 difference, signaller sex, recipient sex) on proportion of communication associated with a)
 541 audience checking, b) response waiting and c) elaboration. All communication in this context
 542 occurred between unrelated signaller and recipient (non-kin).

543 a) Audience checking

Model term	Coefficient	Standard error	Significance
Age [different class]	2.093	2.178	0.339
Signaller sex [female]	1.157	0.953	0.228
Recipient sex [female]	4.615	2.228	0.041
Context [secondary]	0.017	1.754	0.992
Modality [visual]	-4.824	2.314	0.040
Dominant/ recipient bond [weak]	2.279	2.149	0.291
Recipient/ signaller bond [weak]	0.172	0.681	0.801
Recipient orientation [away]	3.430	2.168	0.117
Recipient’s response [avoidance]	-2.563	0.871	0.004

544

545 b) Response waiting

Model term	Coefficient	Standard error	Significance
Age [different class]	13.848	2.132	<0.001
Signaller sex [female]	-4.285	3.450	0.217
Recipient sex [female]	5.926	1.945	0.003
Context [secondary]	4.248	1.090	<0.001
Modality [visual]	-10.929	2.223	<0.001

Dominant/ recipient bond [weak]	4.613	1.090	<0.001
Recipient/ signaller bond [weak]	3.184	1.524	0.039
Recipient orientation [away]	11.394	2.543	<0.001
Recipient's response [avoidance]	-9.293	1.826	<0.001

546

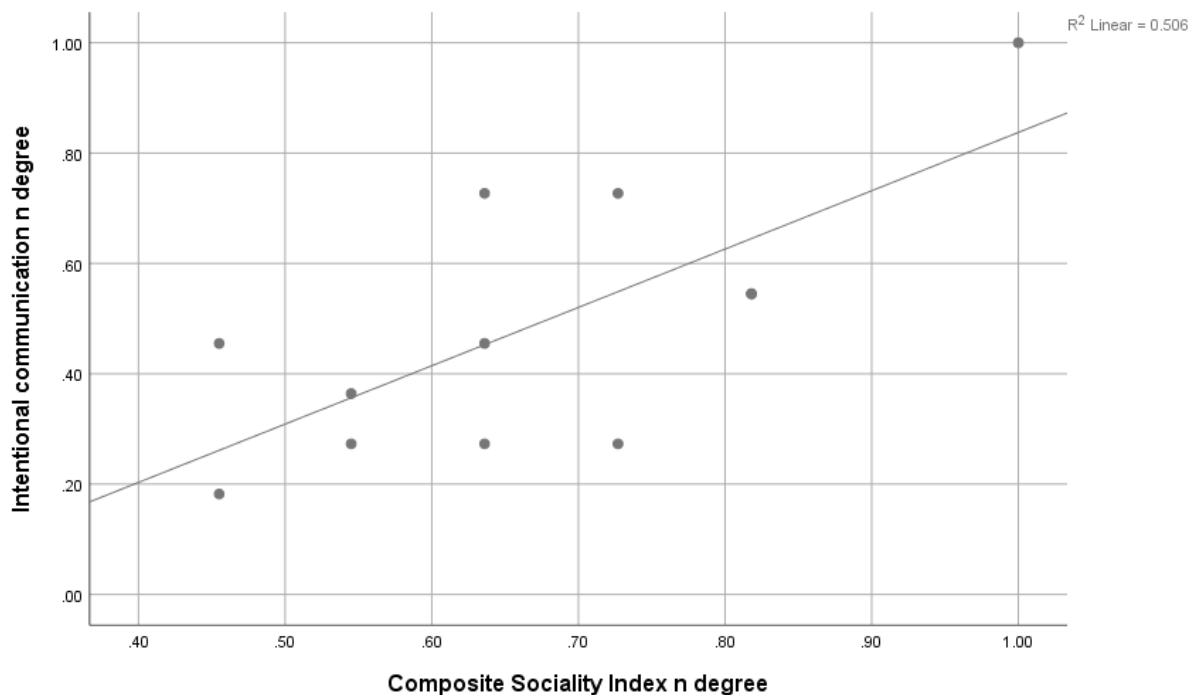
547 c) Elaboration

Model term	Coefficient	Standard error	Significance
Age [different class]	57.290	6.136	<0.001
Signaller sex [female]	-6.647	2.697	0.015
Recipient sex [female]	26.572	1.296	<0.001
Context [secondary]	28.309	2.769	<0.001
Modality [visual]	-0.960	2.218	0.666
Dominant/ recipient bond [weak]	26.478	3.833	<0.001
Recipient/ signaller bond [weak]	-25.606	1.687	<0.001
Recipient orientation [away]	14.977	0.529	<0.001
Recipient's response [avoidance]	-0.061	0.400	0.879

548

549 Figure 1. Relationship between size of the social bond network (composite sociality index n
550 degree) and the communicative complexity network (intentional communication n degree)

551



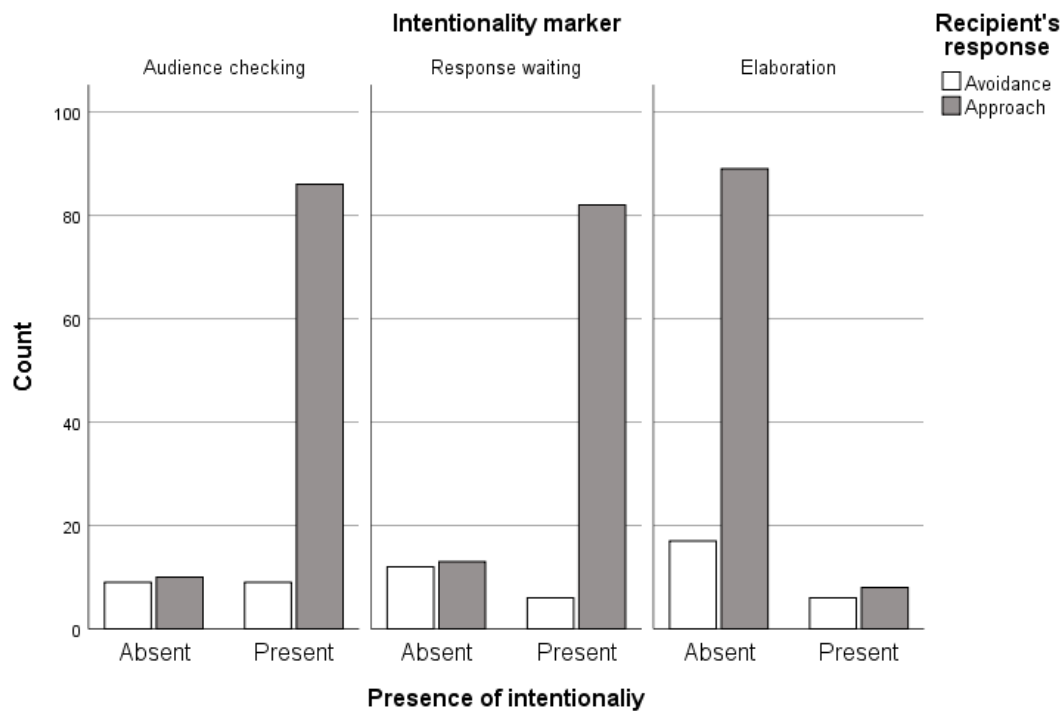
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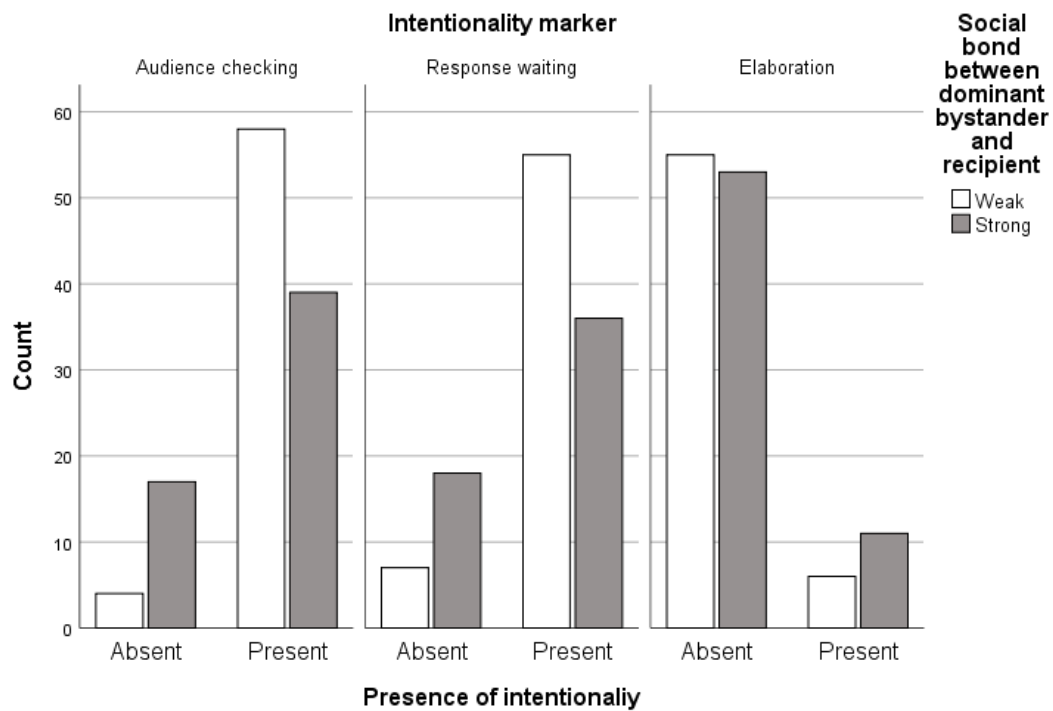
555 Figure 2. Relationship between use of intentional communication in wild chimpanzees
 556 (audience checking, response waiting, elaboration) and response by approach or avoidance

557



558

559 Figure 3. Influence of social bond between dominant bystander and the recipient of signalling
 560 on use of intentional communication: audience checking, response waiting and elaboration



561

562