

Heritability of Gray Matter Structural Covariation and Tool Use Skills in Chimpanzees

(*Pan troglodytes*): A Source-Based Morphometry and Quantitative Genetic Analysis

William D. Hopkins^{1,2}, Robert D. Latzman³, Mary Catherine Marenó⁴, Steven J. Schapiro⁴, Aida Gómez-Robles⁵ & Chet C. Sherwood⁵

¹ Neuroscience Institute, Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA 30302

² Division of Developmental and Cognitive Neuroscience, Yerkes National Primate Research Center, Atlanta, GA 30322

³ Department of Psychology, Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA 30302

⁴ Department of Veterinary Sciences, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Bastrop, TX 78602

⁵ Department of Anthropology and Center for the Advanced Study of Human Paleobiology, The George Washington University, Washington, DC 20052

Abstract

Nonhuman primates, and great apes in particular, possess a variety of cognitive abilities thought to underlie human brain and cognitive evolution, most notably, the manufacture and use of tools. In a relatively large sample ($N = 226$) of captive chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*) for whom pedigrees are well-known, the overarching aim of the current study was to investigate the source of heritable variation in brain structure underlying tool use skills. Specifically, using source-based morphometry (SBM), a multivariate analysis of naturally occurring patterns of covariation in gray matter across the brain, we investigated 1) the genetic contributions to variation in SBM components, 2) sex and age effects for each component, and 3) phenotypic and genetic associations between SBM components and tool use skill. Results revealed important sex- and age-related differences across largely heritable SBM components and associations between structural covariation and tool use skill. Further, shared genetic mechanisms appear to account for a heritable link between variation in both the capacity to use tools and variation in morphology of the superior limb of the superior temporal sulcus and adjacent parietal cortex. Findings represent the first evidence of heritability of structural covariation in gray matter among nonhuman primates.

Keywords: Source-based morphometry, gray matter covariation, heritability, tool use, chimpanzee

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3 Primates, in general, and great apes specifically have been particularly important
4 species in comparative neuroscience studies because of their phylogenetic similarity to
5 humans. Furthermore, compared to more distantly related primate species, great apes
6 display a variety of behavioral and cognitive abilities that are thought to underlie human
7 brain and cognitive evolution, such as rudimentary linguistic skills, delay of gratification,
8 complex social cognition, and with specific reference to this study, the manufacture and
9 use of tools (Savage-Rumbaugh ES 1986; Savage-Rumbaugh ES and R Lewin 1994; de
10 Waal FBM 1996; Shumaker RW et al. 2011; Vaesen K 2012; Beran MJ 2015). Indeed,
11 save humans, the complexity and scope of tool manufacture and use in chimpanzees is
12 unmatched among primates. For instance, a variety of forms of tool manufacture and use
13 have been described across different geographical regions of Africa as well as in different
14 captive settings (Whiten A et al. 1999; Whiten A et al. 2001; Shumaker RW *et al.* 2011).
15 Within communities of wild chimpanzees, there is evidence of intergenerational
16 transmission of local forms of tool use expression suggesting that social learning plays an
17 important role in the acquisition and maintenance of these specific traditions. Thus, the
18 manufacture and use of tools in chimpanzees is highly adaptive skill and was likely
19 strongly selected for in human evolution after the split from the last common ancestor
20 with chimpanzees.
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44 Despite the significance of tool manufacture and use in primate evolution, there
45 are relatively few studies on their genetic and neural basis in nonhuman primates, and
46 particularly chimpanzees. In humans, meta-analyses of functional brain imaging data
47 have identified a set of connected regions within the frontal, parietal and temporal cortex,
48 particularly in the left hemisphere, that are implicated in planned tool use actions
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3 (Johnson-Frey SH 2004; Frey SH et al. 2005). There is also evidence that lesions to
4 regions within this circuit can result in deficits in the representation and execution of
5 planned motor actions, including language and speech (Goldenberg G and J Randerath
6 2015; Weiss PH et al. 2015). Studies in captive chimpanzees have previously found that
7 variation in skill and hand use are linked to variation in gray matter volume and
8 asymmetry, particularly within premotor, parietal and primary motor cortex, as well as
9 the cerebellum (Hopkins WD et al. 2007; Cantalupo C et al. 2008; Gilissen E and WD
10 Hopkins 2013; Hopkins WD et al. 2017).

21 Here, instead of using an a priori region-of-interest approach and method, we
22 assessed phenotypic associations in tool use skill with structural covariation in gray
23 matter measured from magnetic resonance images (MRI). Specifically, we used source-
24 based morphometry (SBM), a relatively new method used to characterize gray matter
25 structural covariation in a sample of MRI scans of chimpanzees (Alexander-Bloch A et
26 al. 2013; Bard KA and WD Hopkins 2018). Unlike univariate analytic methods, such as
27 voxel-based morphometry (VBM), SBM is a multivariate, data-driven analytic approach
28 that utilizes information about relationships among voxels to group voxels carrying
29 similar information across the brain. Without requiring prior determination of regions of
30 interest, the resulting components or sources are identified based on the spatial
31 information between voxels grouped in a natural manner and represent similar
32 covariation networks between subjects; thus, this approach has been described as a
33 multivariate version of VBM (Xu L et al. 2009). Previous studies in humans have
34 identified roughly 30 distinct gray matter sources that encompass a variety of different
35 cortical regions that are presumably involved in different behavioral and cognitive
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3 functions, and may be disrupted in certain clinical populations (Xu L *et al.* 2009;
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5 Kasperek T *et al.* 2010; Caprihan A *et al.* 2011; Rektorova I *et al.* 2014; Grecucci A *et al.*
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7 2016).
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10 Based on the components derived from the SBM analysis, we subsequently
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12 correlated individual variation in the weighted scores for each subject and component
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14 with a measure of tool use skill previously measured in the chimpanzees (Hopkins WD *et*
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16 *al.* 2009). Of specific interest was whether performance measures of tool use skill were
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18 associated with source-based component scores, that reflected structural covariation in
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20 gray matter in regions within the frontal, parietal and temporal cortex.
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24 In addition, we also tested for genetic associations between individual differences
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26 in gray matter structural covariation and tool use skill in the chimpanzee sample using
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28 quantitative genetic analyses. Notably, following methods we and others have previously
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30 used in humans (Eylar LT *et al.* 2012; Jansen AG *et al.* 2015; Strike LT *et al.* 2015),
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32 chimpanzees and other nonhuman primates (Rogers J *et al.* 2007; Fears SC *et al.* 2009;
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34 Kochunov PV *et al.* 2010; Fears SC *et al.* 2011; Gomez-Robles A *et al.* 2015; Gomez-
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36 Robles A *et al.* in press), we initially estimated heritability for (1) each component
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38 derived from the SBM analysis and (2) tool use performance measures (Hopkins WD *et*
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40 *al.* 2015). For those SBM components that showed significantly heritability and
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42 phenotypically correlated with tool use performance, we then performed genetic
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44 correlations to test whether common genes underlie their expression (i.e., pleiotropy).
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46 Evidence of significant genetic association would suggest that potentially common genes
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48 underlie individual variation in both tool use skill and gray matter structural covariation.
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Materials and Method

Subjects

This study includes data from 226 captive chimpanzees (136 females, 85 males), comprising 88 chimpanzees housed at the Yerkes National Primate Research Center (YNPRC) and 138 chimpanzees housed at the National Center for Chimpanzee Care (NCCC). Ages at the time of their *in vivo* magnetic resonance image scans ranged from 8 to 53 years ($Mean = 27.04$, $SD = 6.74$). Of the 226 chimpanzees for which MRI scans were obtained, measures of tool use skill were available for 204 individuals, including 123 females and 81 males. Of these 204 apes, 134 were housed at NCCC and 70 at the YNPRC. These subjects were included in all analyses pertaining to phenotypic associations between tool use skill and the SBM components. All tool use data were collected within three years of the acquisition of the MRI scans. We note here that the NCCC and YNPRC are genetically isolated populations of captive chimpanzees. That is to say, these populations were created from separate founder chimpanzees and there was no interbreeding between chimpanzees living in these two facilities. We took advantage of this opportunity to evaluate consistency and reproducibility in the estimates of heritability in SBM components and their association with tool use skill measures in our analyses ((see Baker M 2016)).

Tool Use Skill

The apparatus and procedure used to quantify tool use skill, as well as heritability, have been described in detail elsewhere (Hopkins WD *et al.* 2009; Hopkins WD *et al.* 2015). Briefly, to assess tool use skill, we recorded the latency to insert a small stick into a hole to extract food, averaged across a total of 50 trials in each

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3 chimpanzee. The average latency scores were converted to standardized z -scores within
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5 the NCCC and YNPRC to account for differences in the duration of experience that
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7 chimpanzees at each colony had with the tool use device. In previously published studies
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9 (Hopkins WD *et al.* 2015), we found average tool latency to be significantly heritable (h^2
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11 = .395, s.e. = .129, $p < .001$) and this was the case for chimpanzees at both the NCCC (h^2
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13 = .356, s.e. = .155, $p < .007$) and YNPRC ($h^2 = .463$, s.e. = .190, $p < .007$) when
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15 analyzed separately.
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18 19 *Magnetic Resonance Image Collection*

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21 All chimpanzees were scanned during one of their annual physical examinations.
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23 Magnetic resonance image (MRI) scans followed standard procedures at the YNPRC and
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25 NCCC and were designed to minimize stress. Thus, the animals were first sedated with
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27 ketamine (10 mg/kg) or telazol (3-5mg/kg) and were subsequently anaesthetized with
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29 propofol (40–60 mg/(kg/h)). They were then transported to the MRI scanning facility and
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31 placed in a supine position in the scanner with their head in a human-head coil. Upon
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33 completion of the MRI, chimpanzees were briefly singly-housed for 2-24 hours to permit
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35 close monitoring and safe recovery from the anesthesia prior to return to the home social
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37 group. All procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
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39 Committees at YNPRC and NCCC and also followed the guidelines of the Institute of
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41 Medicine on the use of chimpanzees in research. Seventy-seven chimpanzees (all from
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43 YNPRC) were scanned using a 3.0 Tesla scanner (Siemens Trio, Siemens Medical
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45 Solutions USA, Inc., Malvern, Pennsylvania, USA). T1-weighted images were collected
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47 using a three-dimensional gradient echo sequence (pulse repetition = 2300 ms, echo time
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49 = 4.4 ms, number of signals averaged = 3, matrix size = 320 x 320, with 0.6 x 0.6 x 0.6
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3 resolution). The remaining 149 chimpanzees (11 from YNPRC, 138 from NCCC) were
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5 scanned using a 1.5T G.E. echo-speed Horizon LX MR scanner (GE Medical Systems,
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7 Milwaukee, WI). T1-weighted images were collected in the transverse plane using a
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9 gradient echo protocol (pulse repetition = 19.0 ms, echo time = 8.5 ms, number of signals
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11 averaged = 8, matrix size = 256 x 256, with 0.7 x 0.7 x 1.2 resolution).
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14 *Image Processing and SBM Analysis*

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17 All T1-weighted MRI scans were realigned in the AC-PC plane and skull-stripped
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19 using the BET function in FSL (Zhang Y et al. 2001; Smith SM et al. 2004) and
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21 resampled at .7 mm isotropic voxels. Following this initial preprocessing step, the images
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23 were analyzed following the steps used for voxel-based morphometry analyses using FSL
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25 (Analysis Group, FMRIB, Oxford, UK) (Smith SM *et al.* 2004). Specifically, images
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27 were registered to a chimpanzee template brain, then segmented into gray and white
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29 matter as well as CSF. Subsequently, a study-specific gray matter template brain was
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31 created and each subject's segmented scan was non-linearly registered to the template
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33 brain and the Jacobian warping matrix was saved for each subject. The gray matter
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35 intensity values were then multiplied by the Jacobian warp to estimate the modulated
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37 gray matter volume within each voxel.
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42 For the SBM, the individual modulated gray matter volumes were analyzed using
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44 the software program GIFT (Group ICA of fMRI Toolbox)
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46 (<http://mialab.mrn.org/software/gift/index.html>). In SBM, the images are concatenated
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48 into a 2-D array or matrix with the number of subjects and voxels as the matrix.
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50 Subsequently, principal components analysis (PCA) is performed on the matrix to reduce
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52 dimensionality using the Minimum Description Length (MDL) algorithm, which was
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3 estimated to be 24 for the combined chimpanzee sample. Consistent with other SBM
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5 studies in humans (Xu L *et al.* 2009; Grecucci A *et al.* 2016), the data were then
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7 subjected to spatial PCA using the Infomax algorithm, which produces a source and
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9 mixing matrix. The source matrix is a subject X PCA array with each value presenting
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11 the relative contributions of each subject's data to the composition of each PCA. The
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13 source matrix values were the primary dependent measure of interest. To visualize the
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15 component structures, we used the mixing matrix which is a 3D volume that depicts the
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17 characteristics of the spatial characteristics and covariation in gray matter for each PCA.
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19 Values within the mixing matrices are represented as standardized scores and can
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21 therefore take on both negative and positive values. Consistent with previous studies, we
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23 thresholded each PCA component at an absolute value of 3.00 and included only those
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25 clusters that survived this threshold as significant.
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30 *Heritability Analyses*

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33 From the SBM analysis, one outcome measure is the individual subject's
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35 weighted score in deriving each independent component. Much like in factor or principal
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37 component analysis, each subject's weighted score can vary on a continuous scale from
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39 negative to positive with the absolute indicating the magnitude of their score. To
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41 estimate heritability in our chimpanzee sample, the outcome measures for all identified
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43 SBM components were subjected to a quantitative genetic analysis to estimate heritability
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45 using the software program SOLAR (Almasy L and J Blangero 1998). SOLAR uses a
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47 variance components approach to estimate the polygenic component of variance when
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49 considering the entire pedigree (see Rogers J *et al.* 2007; Fears SC *et al.* 2009; Fears SC
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51 *et al.* 2011; Hopkins WD 2013; Hopkins WD, AC Keebaugh, *et al.* 2014; Hopkins WD,
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3 JL Russell, et al. 2014). We used SOLAR in two ways in this study. First, we used it to
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5 estimate and statistically determine whether the weighted component scores were
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7 significantly heritable in the entire chimpanzee sample as well as within each population
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9 to assess the reproducibility. Second, we used SOLAR to calculate genetic correlations
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11 between the tool use performance data and the SBM component scores. Covariates
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13 included sex, age, scanner magnet and rearing history of the subjects (i.e., wild-caught,
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15 mother-reared or human-reared).
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18 19 Results

20 21 Descriptive SBM Results

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23 From the SBM analysis, there were 24 components identified that were
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25 distributed throughout the cortex and cerebellum. An anatomical description of the 24
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27 components and their volumes are provided in Table 1. 3D renderings of each
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29 component are shown in Supplemental Figure 1.
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32 33 Heritability of SBM Component Scores

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35 For the SOLAR analyses, we estimated the heritability for the standardized SBM
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37 z -scores for each component. Age, sex, rearing history and scanner magnet served as
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39 covariates in these analyses. The proportion of variability attributed to genetic factors and
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41 the covariates are shown in Table 2. Significant heritability estimates were found for 18
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43 of the 24 components with significant h^2 values ranging from .246 to .886, suggesting
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45 moderate to strong effects. Significant covariate effects of scanner magnet were found for
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47 20 components which was not surprising given that the gray and white matter contrast is
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49 influenced by the scanner magnet. Age accounted for a significant proportion of variance
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51 in components 8, 11, 14, 19 and 21, respectively. Sex accounted for a significant
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3 proportion of variance in components 10, 12, 13, 15 19, and 23 while the rearing history
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5 variable was not significant for any components.
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7 *Sex and Age Covariate Effects*

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10 To further evaluate the contributions of the factors sex and age, we performed
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12 several follow-up analyses. For the SBM components in which age was a significant
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14 effect, we fit polynomial lines between age and weighted scores for components 8, 11,
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16 14, 19 and 21 using stepwise multiple regression. The outcome measures were the
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18 component scores, while the predictor variables were sex, scanner strength, the linear
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20 age, then curvilinear age variables. We calculated the significance in change in R^2 to
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22 determine which age distribution best explained the variability in the SBM component
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24 score. The scatterplots between age and the SBM-weighted scores, as well as the best fit
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26 line are shown in Figures 1a to 1e. For component 8, the overall model was significant;
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28 $R=.239 F(4, 219)=3.313, p = .012$. Significant changes in R^2 (.170 to .235) were found
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30 for the linear; $F(1, 220)=6.179, p = .012$ but not the curvilinear (.235 to .239); $F(1,$
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32 $219)=0.379, p = .539$ age variable. Component 8 is comprised of the right cerebellum
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34 and left cuneus and the association was positive with older individuals having higher
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36 values compared to younger individuals. For component 11, the overall model was
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38 significant; $R=.487 F(4, 219)=17.012, p = .001$. Significant changes in R^2 (.149 to .219)
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40 were found for the linear; $F(1, 220)=20.876, p = .001$, but not the curvilinear (.219 to
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42 .223); $F(1, 219)=2.153, p = .144$ age variable. Component 11 included the dorsal lateral
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44 prefrontal cortex, frontopolar and anterior cingulate cortex and the associations were
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46 negative with older individuals having lower values compared to younger apes. For
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48 component 14, the overall model was significant; $R=.405 F(4, 219)=10.751, p = .001$.
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SBM analysis in chimpanzees 12

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3 Significant changes in R^2 (.373 to .402) were found for the linear; $F(1, 220)=5.656, p =$
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5 .018, but not the curvilinear (.401 to .405); $F(1, 219)=0.825, p = .365$ age variable.
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7 Component 14 was comprised of the anterior temporal, inferior temporal and anterior
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9 insular cortex. The linear association was negative, suggesting that older subjects have
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11 lower values. For component 19, the overall model was significant; $R=.543 F(4,$
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13 $219)=22.885, p = .001$. Significant changes in R^2 (.439 to .541) were found for the linear;
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15 $F(1, 220)=31.043, p = .001$ but not the and curvilinear (.541 to .543); $F(1, 219)=0.724, p$
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17 $= .396$ age variables. Component 19 was comprised of frontopolar cortex, and older
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19 chimpanzees had relatively higher weighted scores compared to middle-aged and
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21 younger individuals. Finally, for component 21, the overall model was significant;
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23 $R=.255 F(4, 219)=3.803, p = .005$. Significant changes in R^2 (.148 to .197) were found
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25 for the linear; $F(1, 220)=3.824, p = .052$ and the curvilinear (.197 to .255); $F(1,$
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27 $219)=6.153, p = .014$ age variables. Component 21 was comprised of vermis of the
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29 cerebellum. Older and younger chimpanzees had relatively lower weighted scores
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31 compared to middle-aged individuals. The mean weighted z-scores for components 10,
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33 12, 13, 15 19, and 23 in male and female chimpanzees are shown in Figure 2. Males had
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35 significantly higher weighted scores compared to females on all components with the
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37 exception of 13 (see Table 1 for descriptions of the regions).
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Phenotypic and Genetic Associations between Tool Use Skill and SBM Components

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45 For this analysis, we used partial correlation coefficients between the standardized
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47 z-scores of the tool use latency measures and each SBM component while statistically
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49 controlling for sex, scanner magnet, rearing history, and age of the subjects. Three
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51 subjects (all females) were removed from this analysis because they were identified as
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3 outliers on their tool use performance measure based on boxplots of the standardized z -
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5 scores. Significant positive associations were found between tool use latency scores and
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7 two SBM regions, including components 3 ($r = -.211, p = .003$) and 13 ($r = -.168, p =$
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9 $.019$) (see Figure 3). Component 3 consisted of the posterior superior temporal sulcus and
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11 superior parietal cortex while component 13 was comprised of primary visual cortex and
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13 cuneus. The associations were negative, thus subjects with slower average latency scores
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15 contributed less to the component scores within each these regions. Finally, we
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17 calculated genetic correlations between the tool use skill measures and each of the SBM
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19 components (see Table 3). Significant and large genetic correlations were found between
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21 tool use skill and components 3 ($rhog = .519, p = .03$) and 13 ($rhog = .717, p = .02$).
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26 Reproducibility Between Chimpanzee Populations

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28 Recall that we tested two colonies of genetically unrelated chimpanzees that were
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30 scanned on different platforms. Thus, to assess the consistency in results between the two
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32 colonies, we performed several additional analyses. First, we performed separate
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34 heritability analyses in the NCCC ($n = 138$) and YNPRC ($N = 88$) chimpanzees for each
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36 SBM component derived from the entire sample (see Figure 4). Within the NCCC
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38 samples, 17 of the 24 components were significantly heritable compared to only 7 within
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40 the YNPRC sample. Further, the average heritability across all 24 components was
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42 significantly higher in the NCCC ($h^2 = .575$) compared to YNPRC ($h^2 = .233$) sample
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44 $t(23)=3.434, p = .002$. Ten of the 24 SBM components showed consistently significant
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46 or non-significant heritability in both the NCCC and YNPRC samples (Components 1, 2,
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48 3, 4, 15, 16, 19, 20, 22 and 24, respectively). In addition, we assessed the phenotypic
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50 correlations between the tool use performance measures and the SBM components scores
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SBM analysis in chimpanzees 14

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3 within the NCCC and YNPRC samples. These data are shown in Table 3. As can be
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5 seen, for component 3 significant negative associations were found between tool use skill
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7 and the SBM weighted component scores for the entire sample as well as within both the
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9 NCCC and YNPRC samples. A similar pattern was observed for component 13, although
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11 the YNPRC did not reach conventional levels of statistical significance ($p < .05$). Indeed,
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13 although the estimate did not reach the $p < .05$ level of significance, the magnitude of the
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15 correlation within the YNPRC sample (-.150) was very similar to the significant ($p < .05$)
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17 association in the full combined sample (-.168).
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Discussion

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24 There were five main findings in this study. First, we found 24 gray matter SBM
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26 components in chimpanzees. Second, gray matter structural covariation was influenced
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28 by sex and age. Third, a majority of the SBM components were significantly heritable,
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30 suggesting that genetic factors may influence their expression across subjects. Fourth,
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32 heritability of the SBM components were modestly consistent between two genetically
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34 isolated populations of captive chimpanzees. Finally, we found significant phenotypic
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36 and genetic correlations between tool use skill and two SBM components. These latter
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38 findings have several important implications for primate brain evolution and the
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40 emergence of tool manufacture and use.
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45 With respect to the 24 component revealed by the SBM analysis, this is fewer
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47 than the number reported in at least some previous reports in human brains (Xu L *et al.*
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49 2009). The differing numbers of components may reflect inherent differences in the
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51 covariation of gray matter between humans and chimpanzees; however, we cannot rule
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53 out that the potential differences in SBM organization between humans and chimpanzees
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3 may be a result of different sample size, scanner parameters, voxel resolution, or other
4 methodological factors. Notwithstanding, many of the components identified in our
5 chimpanzee sample have been similarly described in human SBM analyses (Grecucci A
6 *et al.* 2016).
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12 Second, gray matter structural covariation in the chimpanzee brain was influenced
13 by age and sex. Males and females differed significantly on 6 of the 24 components and
14 these differences presumably underlie behavioral, affective, motor or cognitive functions
15 that distinguish the two sexes. Certainly male and female chimpanzees differ with respect
16 to social behavior, such as aggression and grooming partners, as well as in their role
17 within the community where, for example, males typically patrol the home range and
18 females do not (Goodall J 1986; Boesch C and H Boesch-Achermann 2000; Mitani JC
19 and DP Watts 2005; Lehmann J and C Boesch 2008). Further, there is some evidence of
20 sex differences in learning, hand use, and performance on tool use tasks in chimpanzees
21 (Pandolfi SS *et al.* 2003; Lonsdorf EV *et al.* 2004; Gruber T *et al.* 2010; Bogart SL *et al.*
22 2012; Sanz CM *et al.* 2016). While it is tempting to speculate that the observed sex-
23 dependent gray matter covariation differences reported here underlie male-female
24 behavioral differences, we have no direct evidence to support this assertion. This will
25 require additional studies beyond the scope of this report.
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44 Age significantly and linearly correlated with 4 components and showed a
45 significant quadratic association for one component. For components 8 and 19, we found
46 positive associations between age and the weighted scores, suggesting that older
47 individuals are contributing more to the generation of these components than younger
48 individuals. These two sources largely comprised prefrontal, premotor and portion of the
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3 cerebellum and the most parsimonious explanation is that maturational factors contribute
4 to the increased covariation in gray matter density within these regions (Terribilli D et al.
5 2011; Lemaitre H et al. 2012). Age was negatively correlated with components 11 and 14
6 which included superior frontal, supplementary motor and anterior temporal cortex
7 suggesting a reduction in covariation with increasing age. The associations between age
8 and component 21 is slightly more difficult to interpret because it exhibited curvilinear
9 relationship. Older and younger chimpanzees had relatively lower weighted scores than
10 middle-aged apes for this component, which was comprised entirely of the cerebellum.

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12 It is worth noting that, within the larger context of studies on age-related changes
13 in the great ape brain (Gearing M et al. 1994; Gearing M et al. 1997; Rosen RF et al.
14 2008; Perez SE et al. 2013; Edler MK et al. 2017), the results reported here are somewhat
15 novel. For instance, Sherwood and colleagues (2011) failed to find any significant age-
16 related changes in overall gray and white matter volume in a sample of 99 chimpanzees.
17 More recently, Autrey and colleagues (2014), in a sample of 219 chimpanzee MRI scans,
18 reported that chimpanzees show (1) increasing gyrification with age, (2) a cubic
19 association between age and white matter volume, and (3) a negative association between
20 age and the depth and width of the fronto-orbital sulcus. Recall that here, we found
21 significant linear and quadratic associations between gray matter covariation and age, a
22 finding not previously reported in the chimpanzee brain at least with respect to gray
23 matter variation.

24
25 Regarding heritability, there are some reports of the genetic contributions to
26 individual differences in cortical organization in nonhuman primates, including
27 chimpanzees (Rogers J et al. 2007; Fears SC et al. 2009; Kochunov PV et al. 2010;
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3 Rogers J et al. 2010). For instance, Gomez-Robles et al. (2015) have previously reported
4 modest heritability of cortical shape and for different linear measures of sulci in
5 chimpanzees. Our findings similarly reveal moderate heritability in most (18 of 24
6 components, see Table 2), but not all structurally co-varying gray matter regions in the
7 chimpanzee brain. We also found modest consistency in heritability between the NCCC
8 and YNPRC chimpanzee populations. Ten of the 24 components showed consistent
9 heritability (or lack thereof) between the two populations. One limitation in our effort to
10 replicate the heritability results between the two chimpanzee populations were (1)
11 differences in the sample sizes (2) variation in the scanner platform and magnet strength
12 and (3) the composition of the number of differentially reared chimpanzees. There were
13 138 NCCC chimpanzees and 88 YNPRC and all the NCCC chimpanzees were scanned
14 on a 1.5T machine while 77 of the YNPRC apes were scanned on a 3T machine and
15 remaining on a 1.5T magnet. Additionally, the proportion of nursery-reared chimpanzees
16 was higher in the YNPRC compared to NCCC chimpanzees. Previous studies have
17 shown that differences in early rearing can influence gray matter structural covariation in
18 chimpanzees (Bard KA and WD Hopkins 2018) and therefore these experiences may
19 have altered the genetic basis of development as manifest by reduced heritability.
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42 Finally, we found that individual variation in tool use motor skill was associated
43 with structural covariation in two SBM components that were largely comprised of
44 superior temporal, parietal, and cerebellar cortex. The phenotypic associations between
45 tool use performance and components 3 and 13 were consistent and significant within
46 each chimpanzee population. Further, we found significant genetic correlations between
47 tool use skill and components 3 and 13, which include areas within the posterior superior
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3 temporal sulcus, posterior cingulate, visual cortex and the brainstem, suggesting that
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5 common genetic mechanisms may underlie their expression.
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8 As noted above, component 3 is comprised of the cuneus and the superior portion
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10 of the superior temporal sulcus (STS) that projects dorsally into the parietal lobe while
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12 component 13 includes occipital regions. Clinical and functional neuroimaging studies in
13
14 humans have clearly implicated portions of the parietal lobe as playing an important role
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16 in providing visual feedback during planned visuo-motor actions, such as grasping an
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18 object or in the use of tools (Johnson-Frey SH 2004; Stout D and T Chaminade 2012;
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20 Gilissen E and WD Hopkins 2013; Caminiti R et al. 2015; Bruner E and A Iriki 2016).
21
22 Furthermore, some have suggested that expansion of the parietal lobe and cuneus was
23
24 associated with the emergence of increasing complex motor, cognitive and linguistic
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26 functions during primate brain evolution (Gannon PJ et al. 2005; LeRoy F et al. 2015;
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28 Bruner E and A Iriki 2016; Bruner E et al. 2017). Our results suggest that these as yet
29
30 unknown genetic mechanisms, may account for a heritable link between variation in the
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32 capacity to use tools and variation in the morphology of the inferior and superior parietal
33
34 lobe. Such heritable covariation is key for natural selection as an explanation for the co-
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36 evolution of tool skill and cortical structure in humans and apes. Indeed, our results
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38 suggest that increased selection for tool use skill may have resulted selective changes in
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40 the size, connectivity or organization of the parietal cortex in humans after that split from
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42 the last common ancestor.
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49 In summary, the findings reported here are the first evidence of heritability in
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51 structural covariation in gray matter among nonhuman primates. Though this study
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53 focused on associations between tool use skill and gray matter structural covariation,
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3 future studies should expand this analytic approach to additional behavioral and cognitive
4 phenotypes. This approach could potentially identify brain regions in chimpanzees that
5 exhibit heritable variation associated with particular behavioral or cognitive abilities,
6 providing insight into neuroanatomical targets that could have been selected for
7 expansion in hominins after the split from a last common ancestor. Additionally, this
8 approach could be used to identify key brain regions as foci for subsequent gene
9 expression analyses that could lead to the discovery of candidate genes linked to typical
10 and atypical praxic functions.
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For Peer Review

Table 1

Anatomical Description and Volume of Each SBM Component

<u>Component</u>	Volume
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<u>Component 1</u>	
Precuneus (L), Precentral gyrus (L), Medulla oblongata	4264.18
<u>Component 2</u>	
Lateral cerebellar hemispheres (inferior), bilateral	8019.00
<u>Component 3</u>	
Superior parietal cortex, bilateral	6313.60
<u>Component 4</u>	
Anterior cingulate cortex (R), Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (R), Supplemental motor area (R)	5621.77
<u>Component 5</u>	
Primary visual cortex (L)	7319.62
<u>Component 6</u>	

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Frontopolar cortex (B)	9232.19
<u>Component 7</u>	
Primary motor and premotor cortex (dorsal) (B)	8512.57
<u>Component 8</u>	
Cuneus (L), Lateral cerebellar hemisphere (R)	5761.37
<u>Component 9</u>	
Cuneus (B), Hippocampal formation (R)	5140.88
<u>Component 10</u>	
Lateral cerebellar hemispheres (B)	7903.75
<u>Component 11</u>	
Anterior cingulate cortex (B), Frontopolar cortex (B), Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (B)	9430.10
<u>Component 12</u>	
Primary visual cortex (R)	5181.70
<u>Component 13</u>	
Primary visual cortex (B), Cuneus (B)	9880.11

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Component 14

Anterior temporal cortex (B), Anterior insular cortex (B),
Inferior temporal cortex (R) 4870.26

Component 15

Anterior temporal cortex (B) 9169.76

Component 16

Basal forebrain (B) 5470.51

Component 17

Primary motor and somatosensory cortex (dorsal) (B) 8646.34

Component 18

Lateral cerebellar hemispheres (B) 10408.68

Component 19

Frontopolar cortex (B) 5212.23

Component 20

Lateral cerebellar hemispheres (B) 8719.75

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Component 21

Cerebellar vermis (B) 9140.95

Component 22

Primary visual cortex (B) 9248.31

Component 23

Cerebellar vermis and medial hemisphere (B) 8076.21

Component 24

Superior parietal cortex (B) 8040.95

Volumes are in mm³. (R) = right hemisphere, (L) = left hemisphere, (B) = bilateral

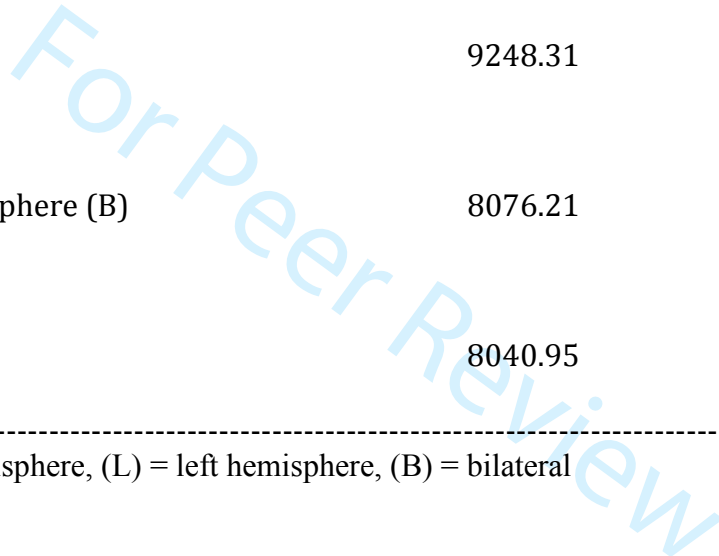


Table 2

Heritability and Covariate Effects for Each SBM Component

Component	h^2	s.e.	p	Covariates	Variance
1	.378	.156	.004	Scanner	.290
2	.886	.115	.0000001	Scanner	.127
3	.854	.101	.0000001	None	
4	.314	.132	.003	Scanner	.218
5	.341	.162	.01	Scanner	.131
6	.216	.112	.065	None	
7	.184	.161	.107	Scanner	.395
8	.260	.141	.025	Age	.035
9	.374	.126	.0007	Scanner	.197
10	.497	.171	.001	Scanner, Sex	.252
11	.658	.171	.0003	Scanner, Age	.189
12	.366	.159	.006	Scanner, Sex	.103
13	.565	.157	.0003	Scanner, Sex	.433
14	.304	.153	.016	Scanner, Age	.151
15	.146	.147	.139	Scanner, Sex	.215
16	.038	.111	.363	Scanner	.292
17	.465	.137	.00001	Scanner	.305
18	.154	.148	.127	None	
19	.531	.149	.00005	Scanner, Sex, Age	.252
20	.830	.121	.0000001	Scanner	.076
21	.579	.166	.00003	Scanner, Age	.008
22	.000	.000	.5000	Scanner	.034
23	.246	.153	.039	Scanner, Sex	.136
24	.252	.129	.014	Scanner	.219

h^2 = heritability coefficient, s.e. = standard error. Covariates indicates those variables that accounted for a significant proportion of variance in the SBM scores and proportion of variance accounted for them.

Table 3

Phenotypic Correlations Between Tool Use Skill and SBM Component Scores for the

Entire Sample and within the NCCC and YNPRC Chimpanzee Colonies

	Overall	NCCC	YNPRC
1	+0.018	+0.103	-0.125
2	-0.035	-0.046	-0.030
3	-0.211	-0.202	-0.248
4	+0.057	+0.106	-0.021
5	+0.026	-0.023	+0.187
6	-0.053	-0.104	-0.010
7	-0.111	-0.061	-0.213
8	-0.110	-0.127	-0.079
9	-0.058	+0.004	-0.165
10	-0.055	-0.041	-0.068
11	+0.028	+0.104	-0.115
12	-0.017	-0.027	-0.032
13	-0.168	-0.296	-0.150
14	+0.031	+0.065	-0.052
15	-0.030	+0.057	-0.053
16	+0.078	-0.003	-0.180
17	+0.126	+0.091	+0.190
18	+0.079	+0.146	-0.141
19	-0.002	-0.017	+0.028
20	+0.030	-0.005	+0.110
21	+0.075	+0.100	+0.033
22	+0.008	-0.038	+0.194
23	+0.022	+0.015	+0.067
24	-0.027	-0.017	-0.069

Bolded values are significant at $p < .05$

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Scatterplots showing significant associations between age and SBM components a) 8 b) 11 c) 14 d) 19 and e) 21. Left panel shows the scatterplot between age and the weighted SBM component scores and the right panel shows regions comprising each component.

Figure 2: Left panel: Mean SBM weighted scores for males and females for components 10, 12, 13, 15 19, and 23. Right panel: Brain regions comprising each component.

Figure 3: upper and lower left panel = Scatterplot between tool use performance measures and weighted scores for SBM components 3 (left) and 13 (right). Upper and lower bottom panel shows brain regions in SBM component 3 and 13.

Figure 4: Heritability for each SBM component in the NCCC (red) and YNPRC (blue) chimpanzee populations.

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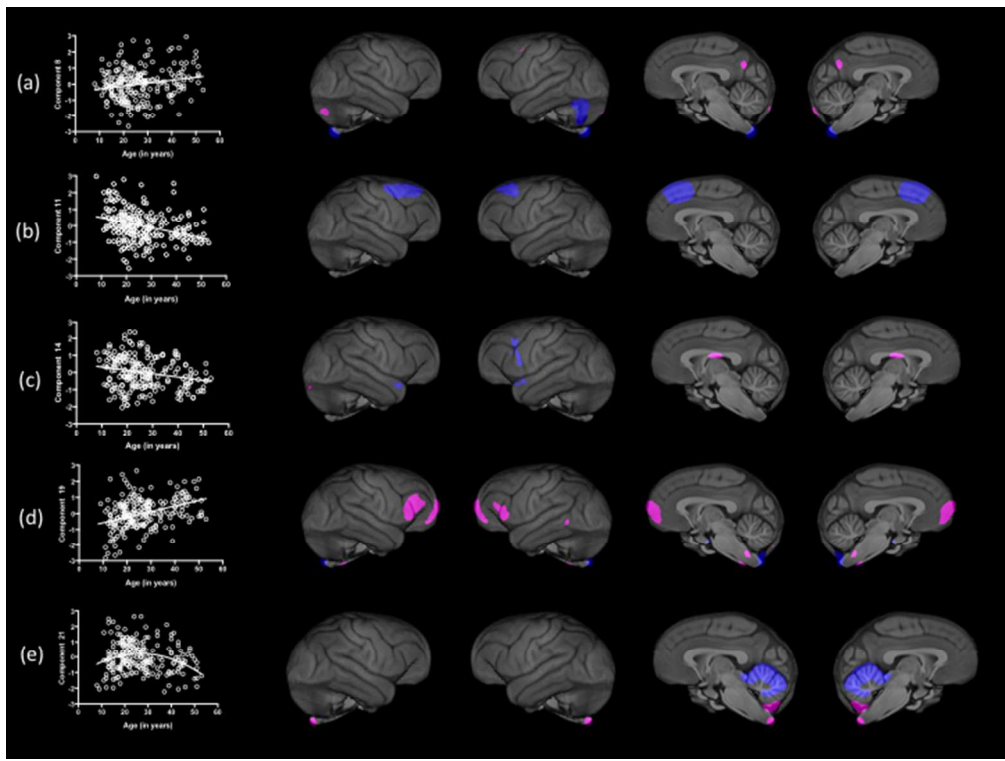


Figure 1: Scatterplots showing significant associations between age and SBM components a) 8 b) 11 c) 14 d) 19 and e) 21. Left panel shows the scatterplot between age and the weighted SBM component scores and the right panel shows regions comprising each component.

254x190mm (72 x 72 DPI)

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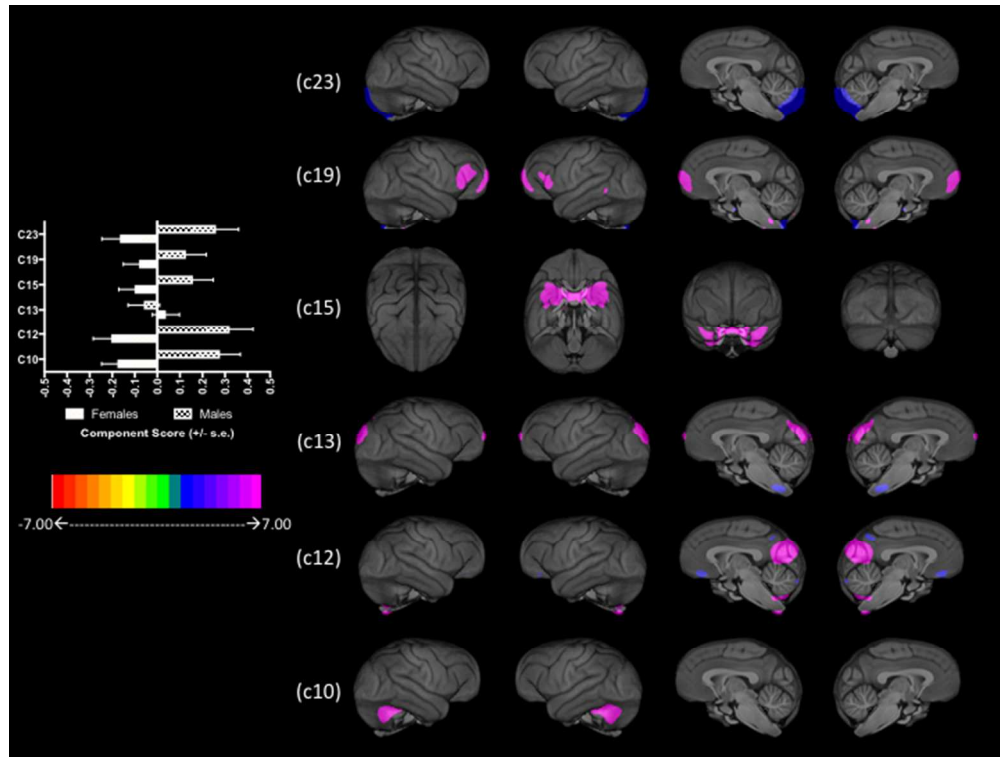


Figure 2: Left panel: Mean SBM weighted scores for males and females for components 10, 12, 13, 15, 19, and 23. Right panel: Brain regions comprising each component.

254x190mm (72 x 72 DPI)

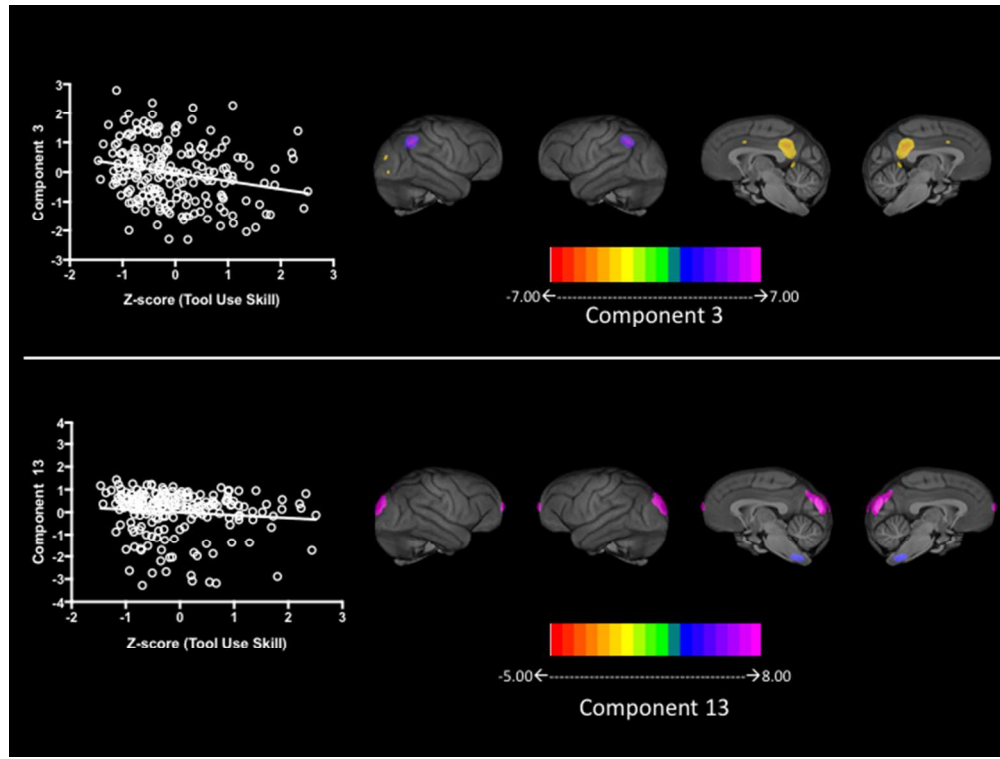


Figure 3: upper and lower left panel = Scatterplot between tool use performance measures and weighted scores for SBM components 3 (left) and 13 (right). Upper and lower bottom panel shows brain regions in SBM component 3 and 13.

254x190mm (72 x 72 DPI)

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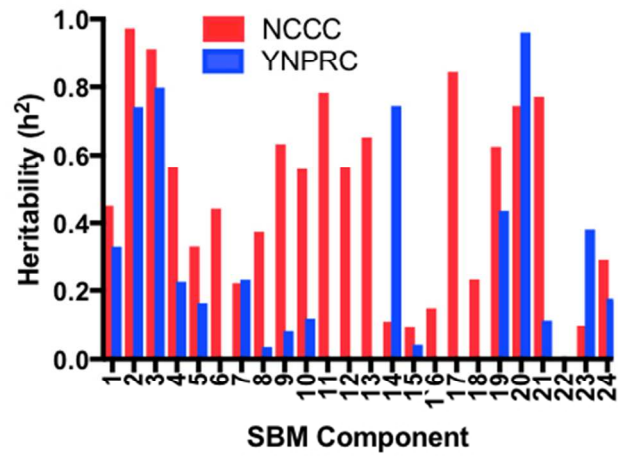
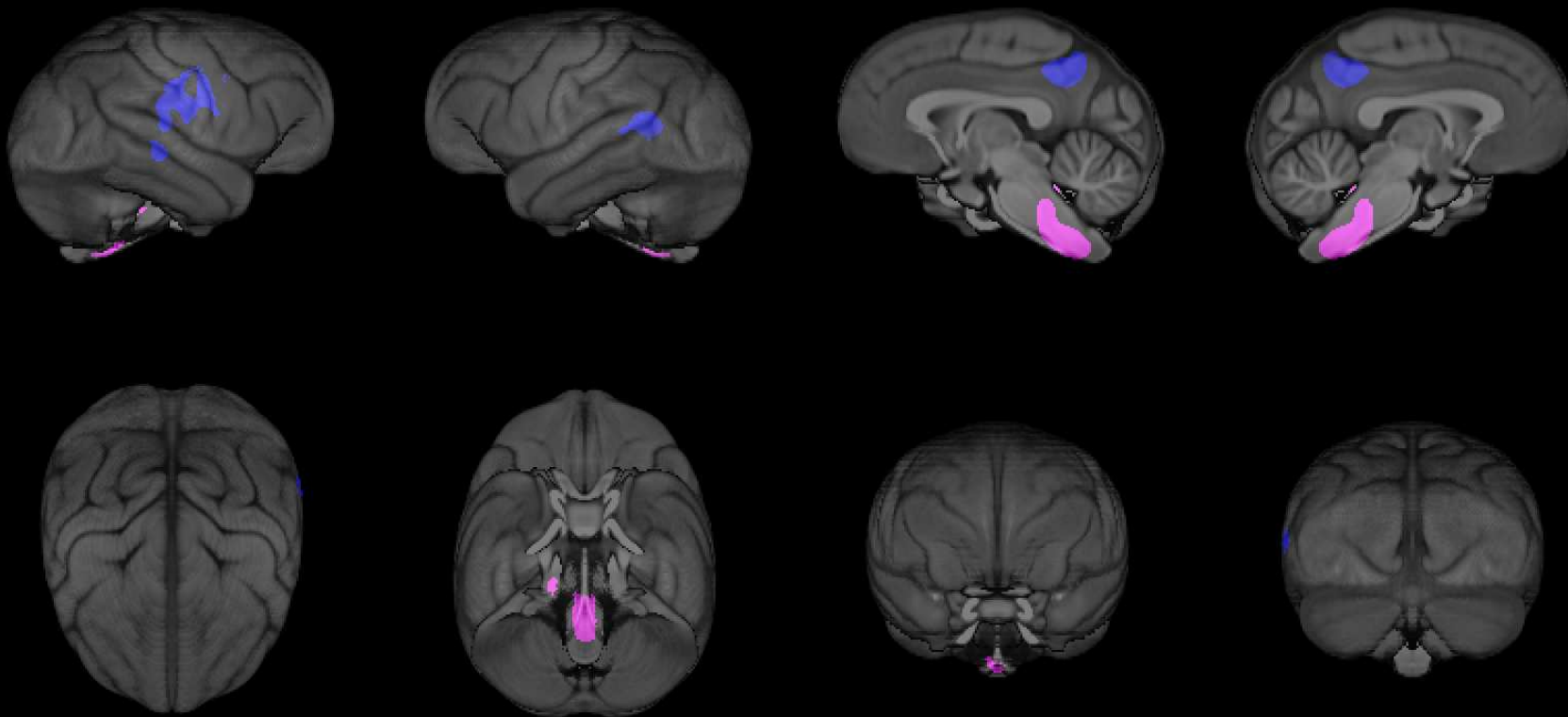


Figure 4: Heritability for each SBM component in the NCCC (red) and YNPRC (blue) chimpanzee populations.

254x190mm (72 x 72 DPI)

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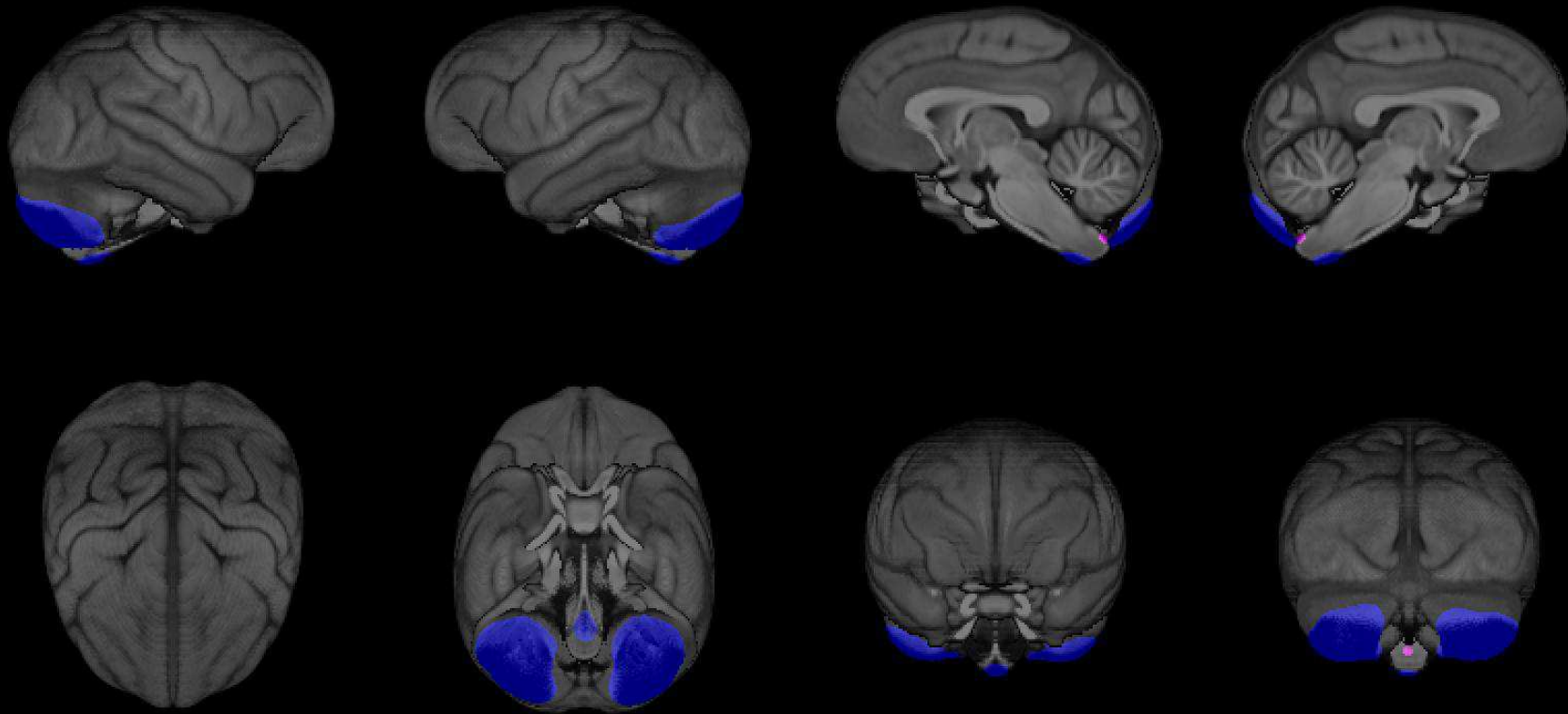
Component 1



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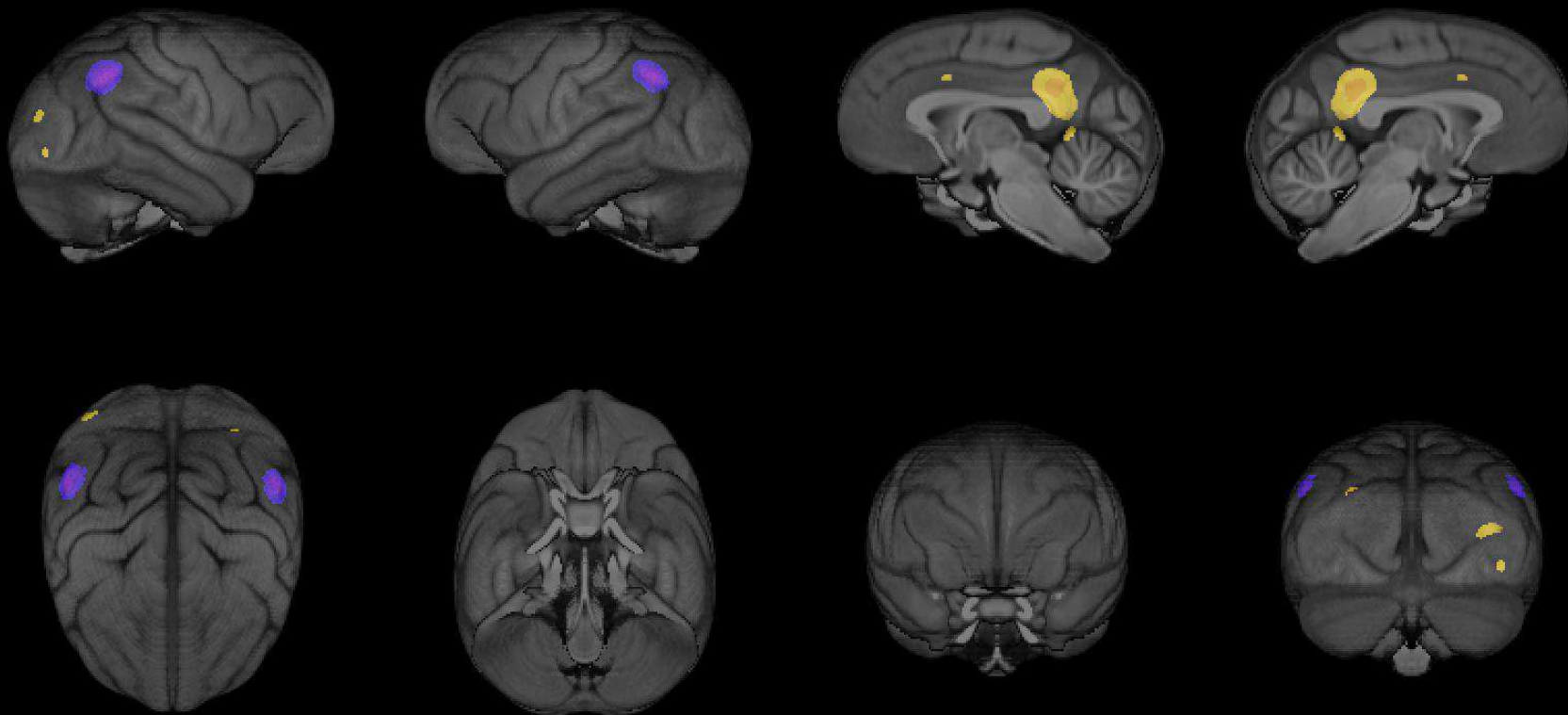
Component 2



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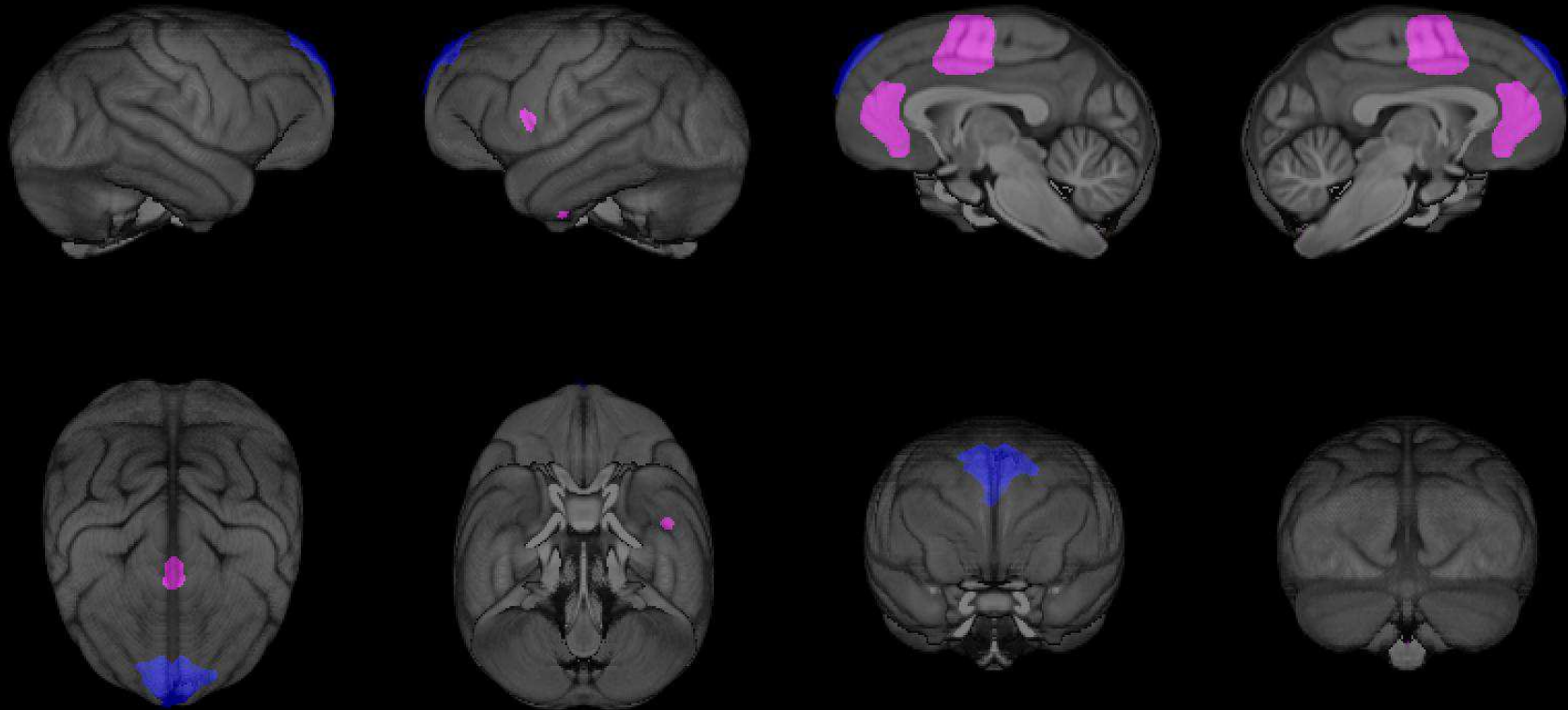
Component 3



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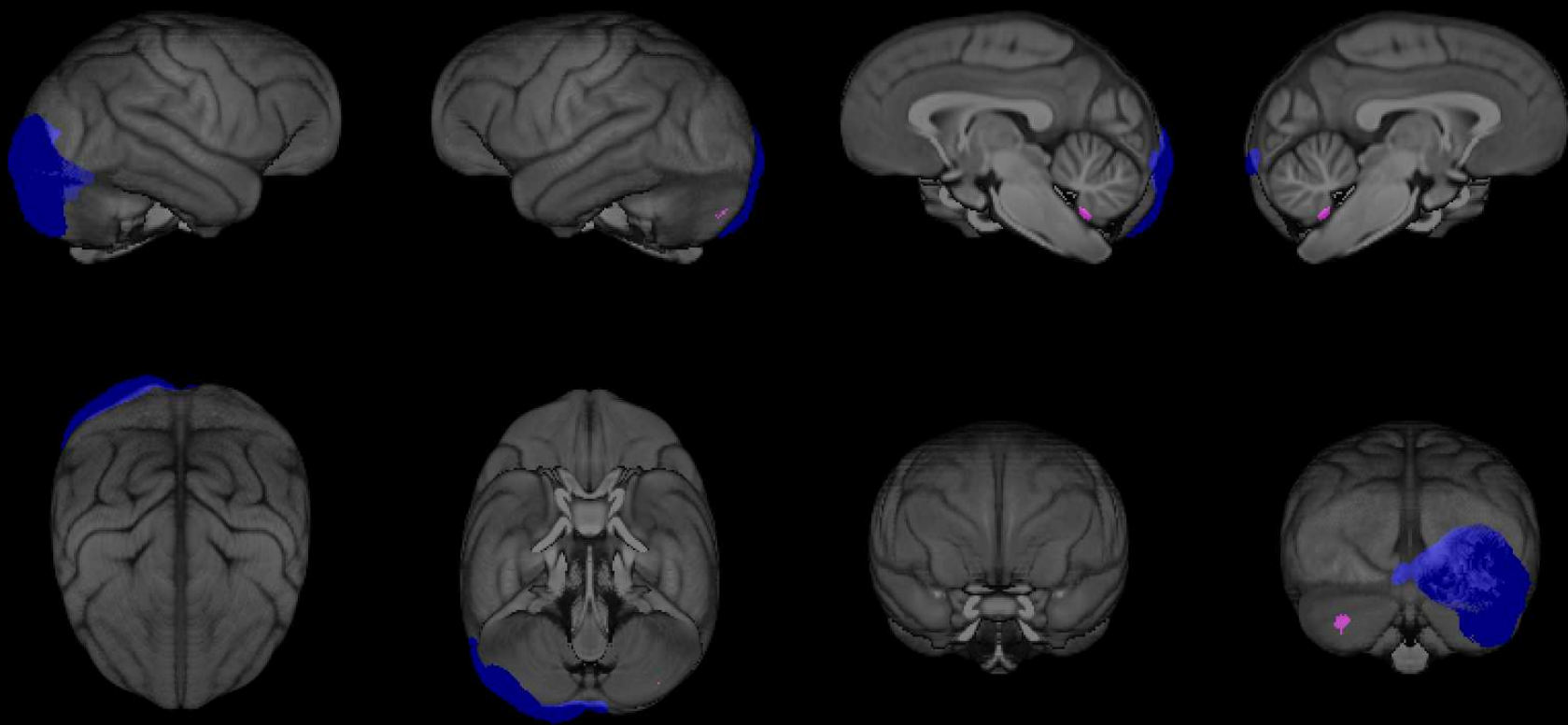
Component 4



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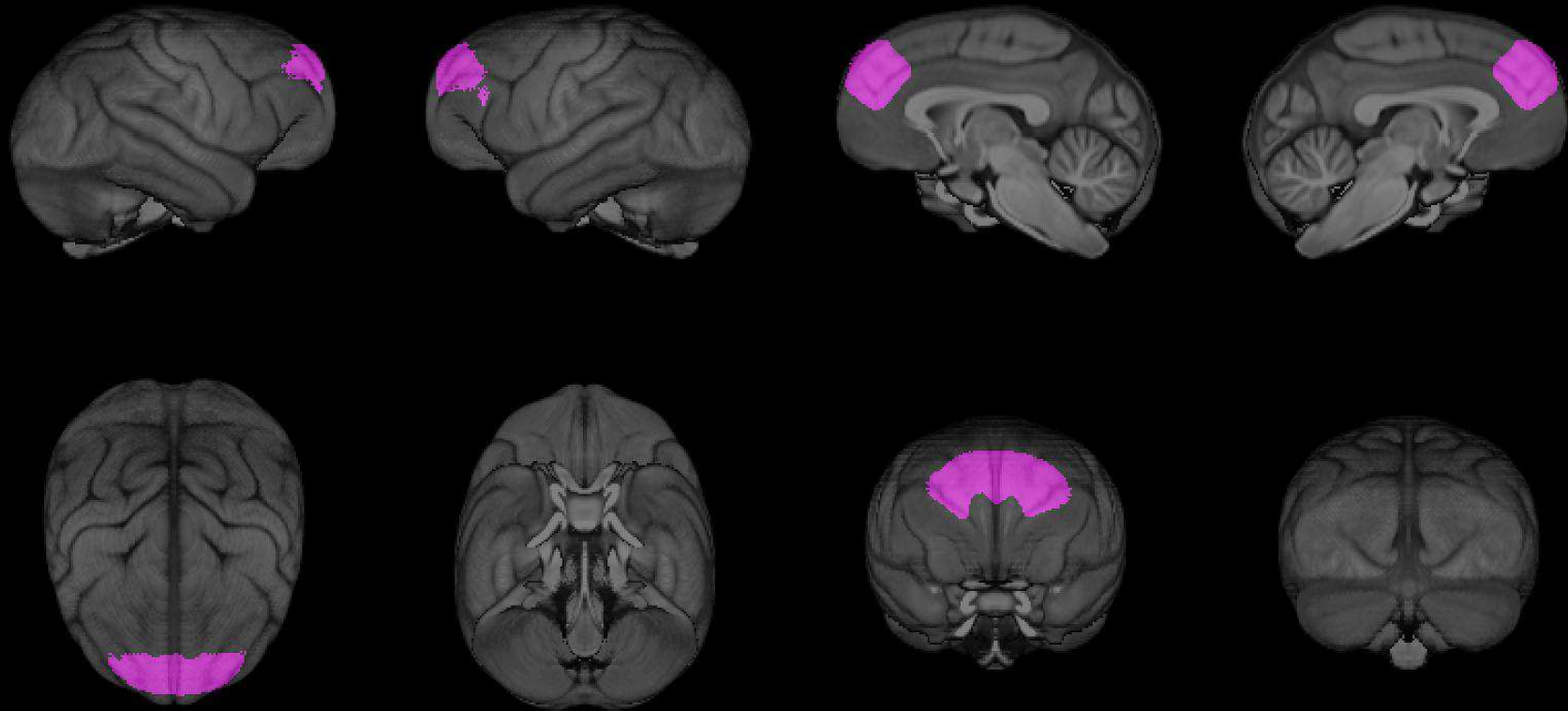
Component 5



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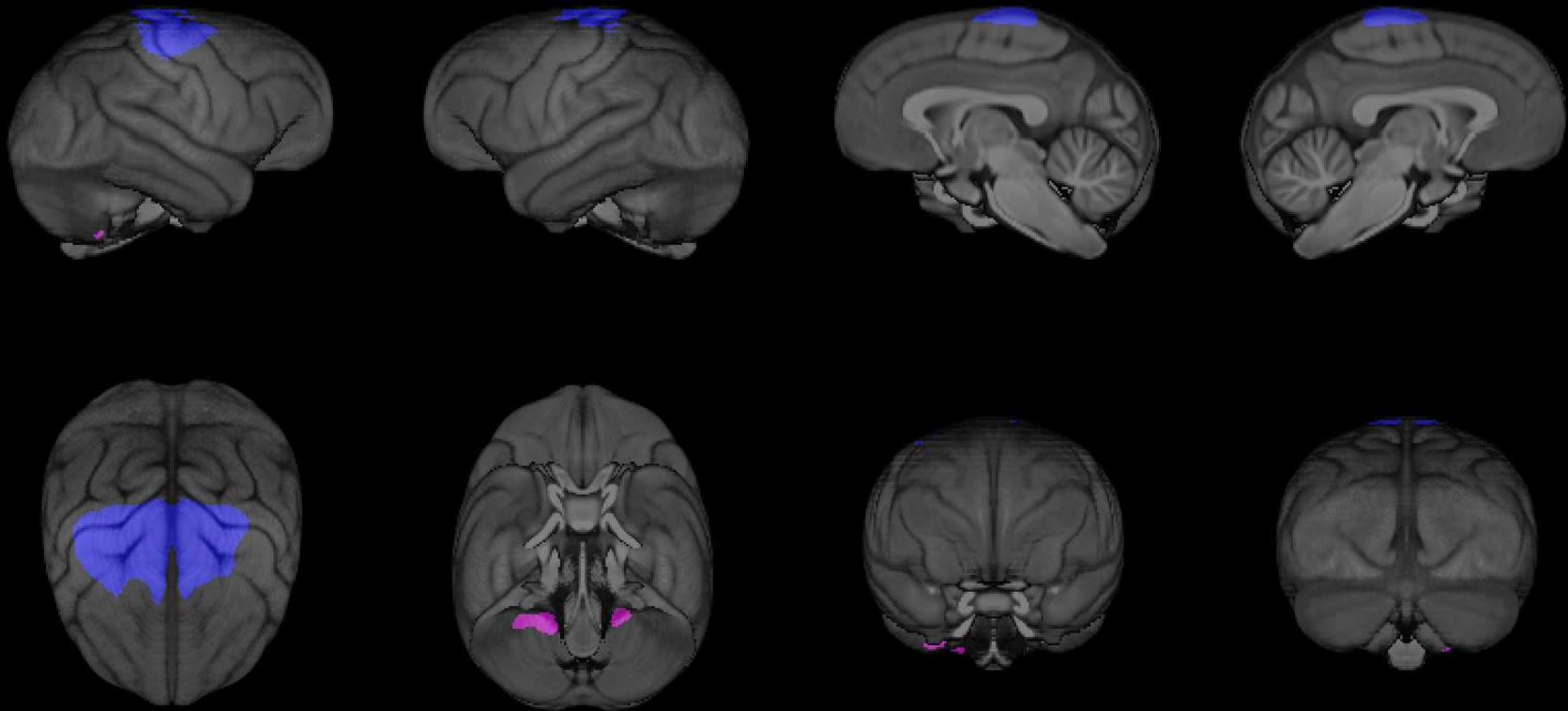
Component 6



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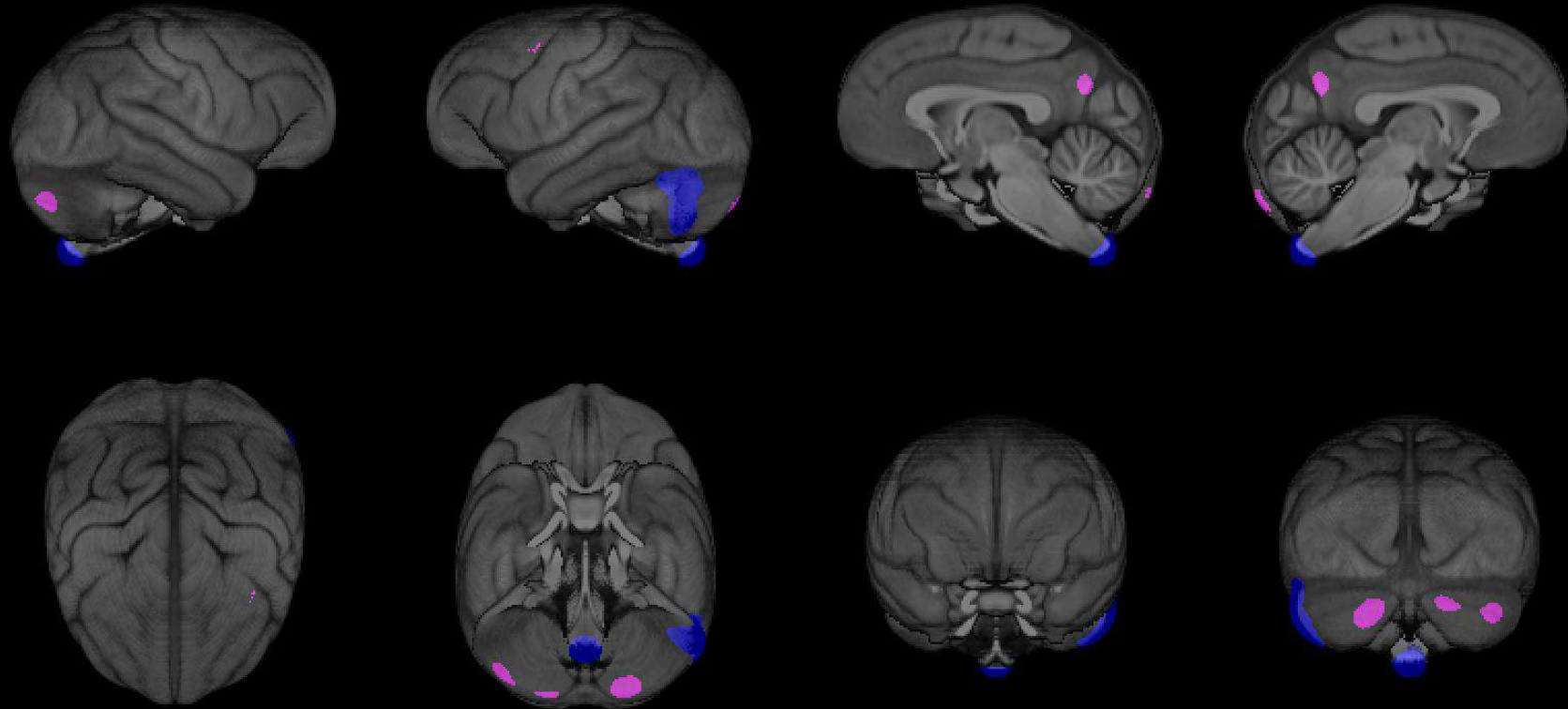
Component 7



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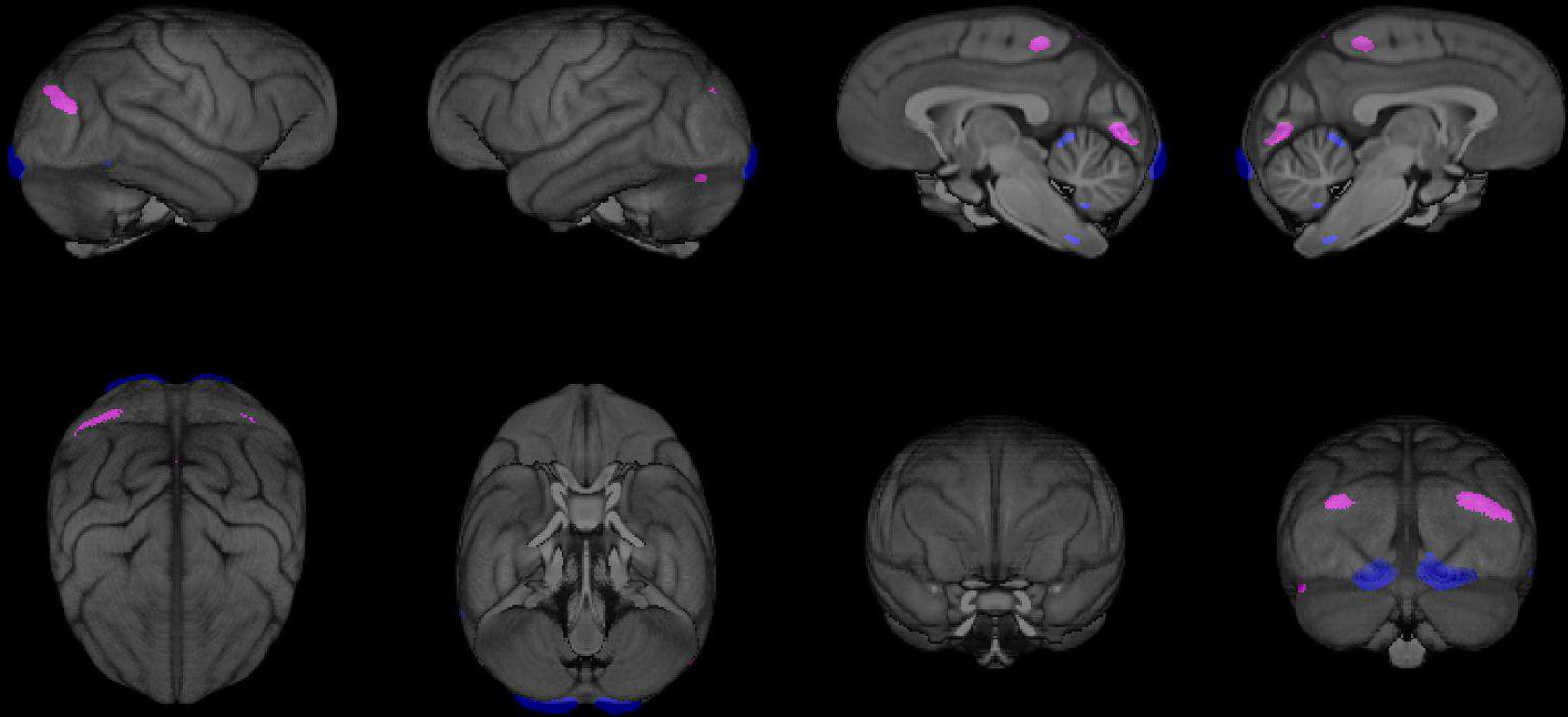
Component 8



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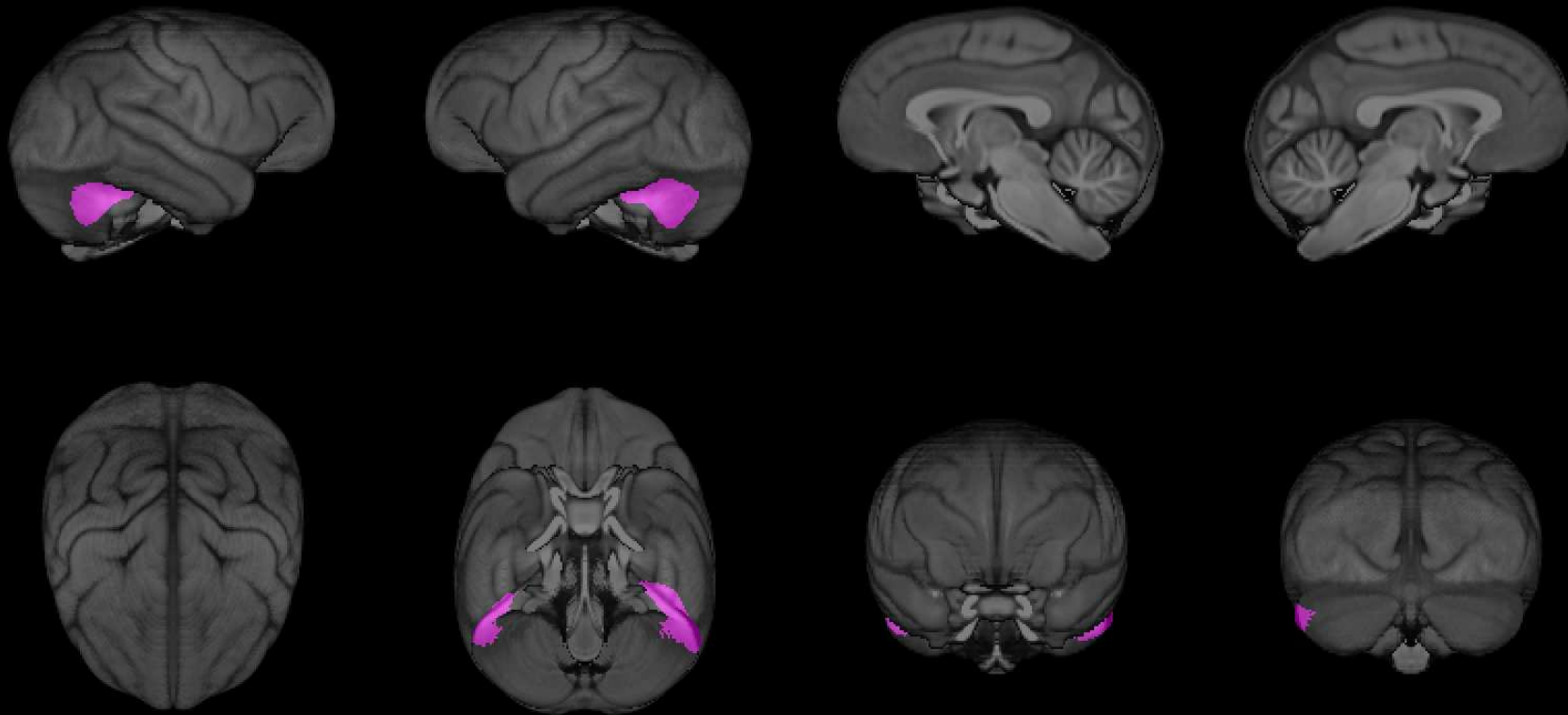
Component 9



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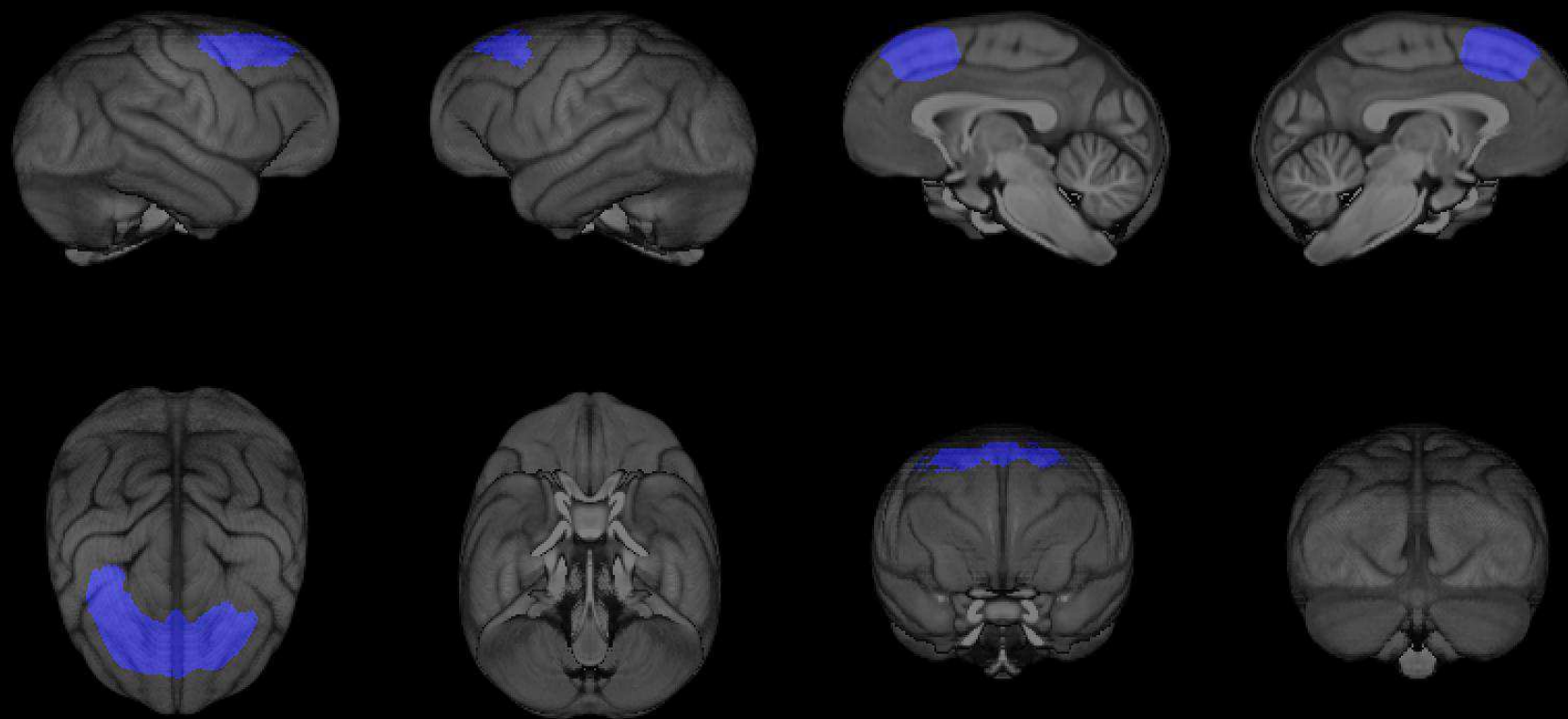
Component 10



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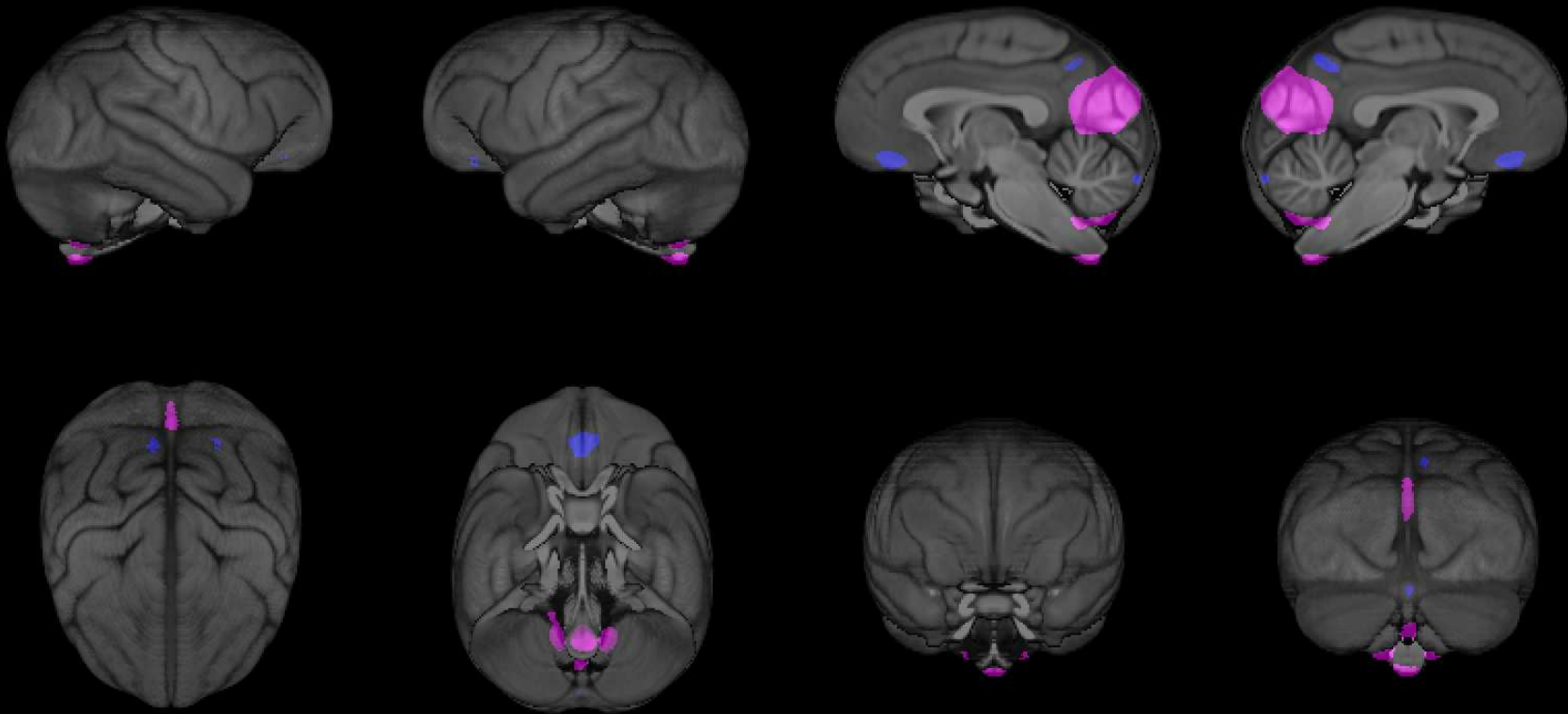
Component 11



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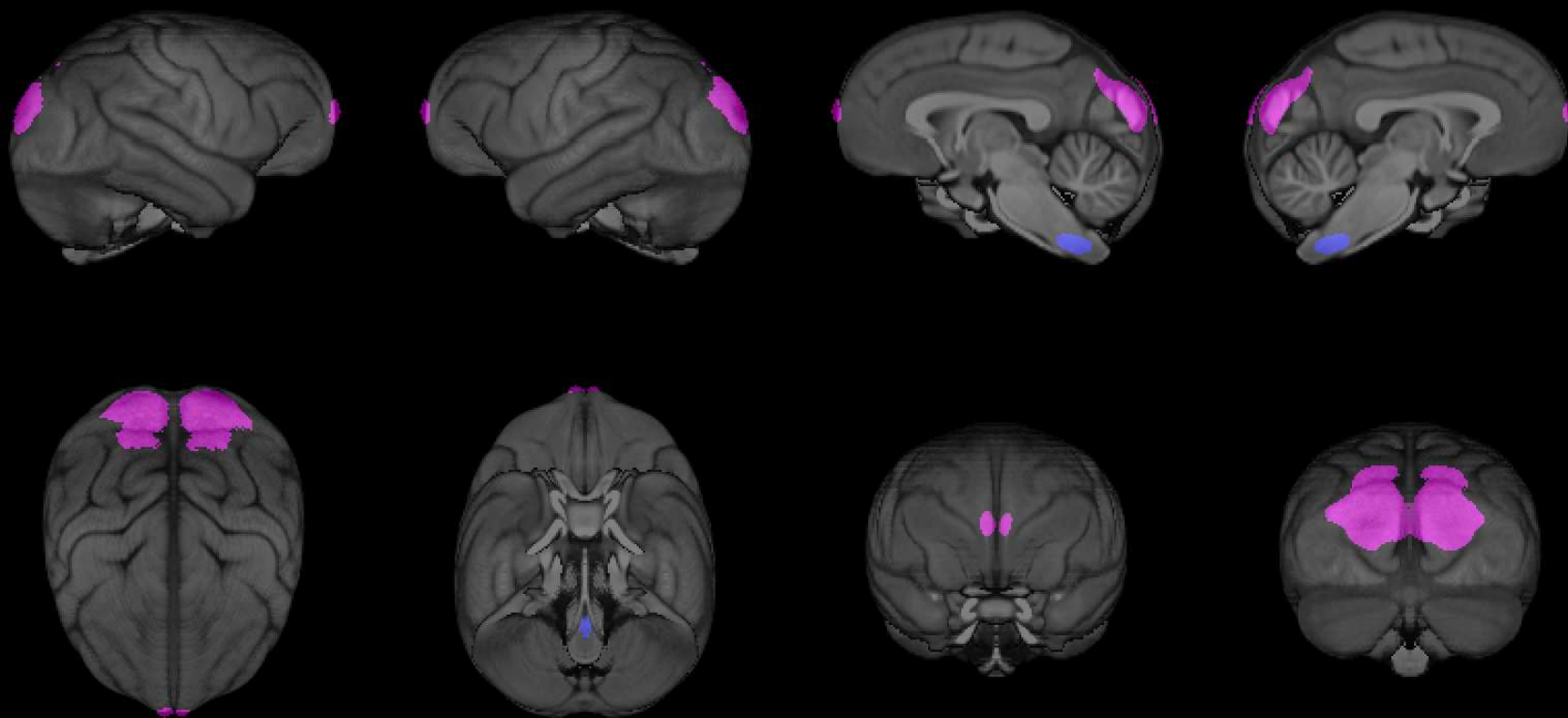
Component 12



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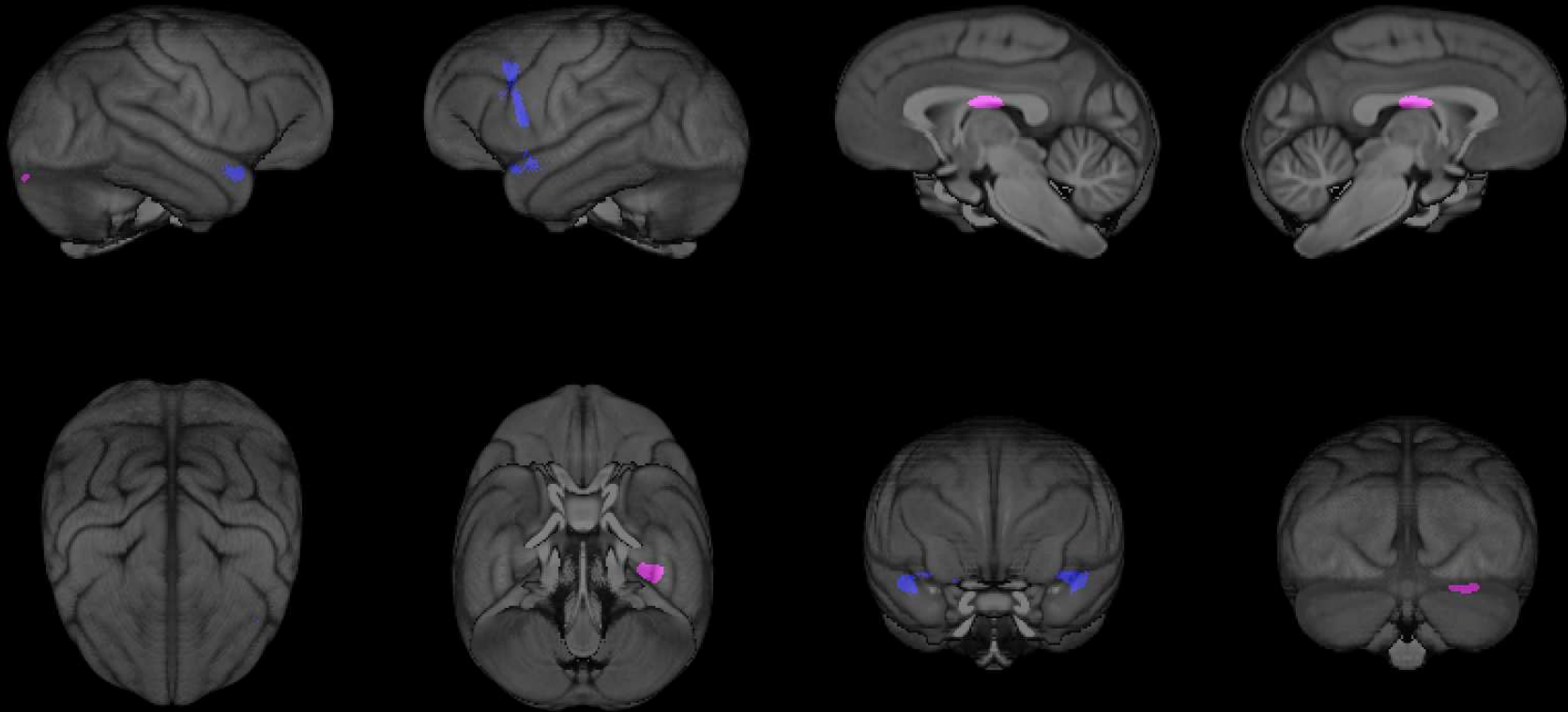
Component 13



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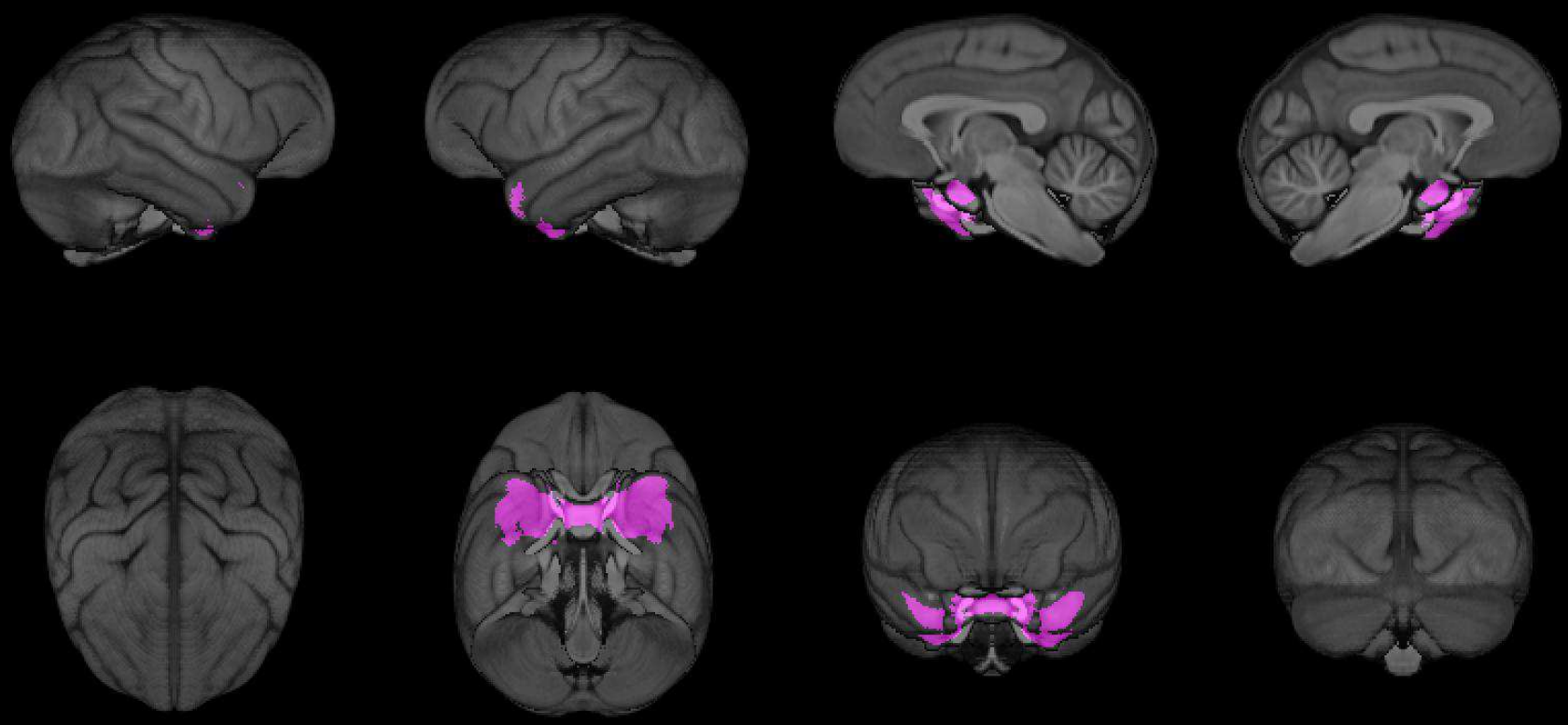
Component 14



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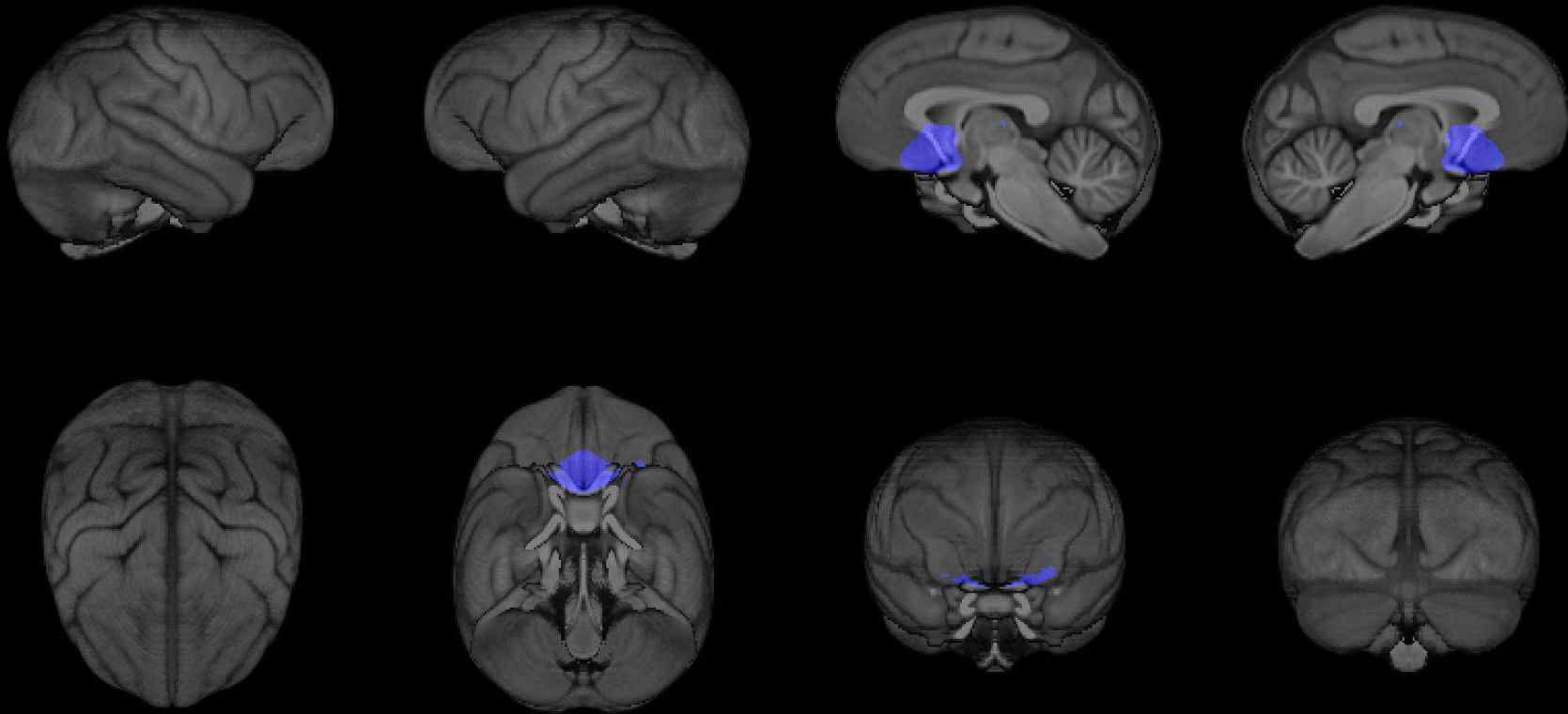
Component 15



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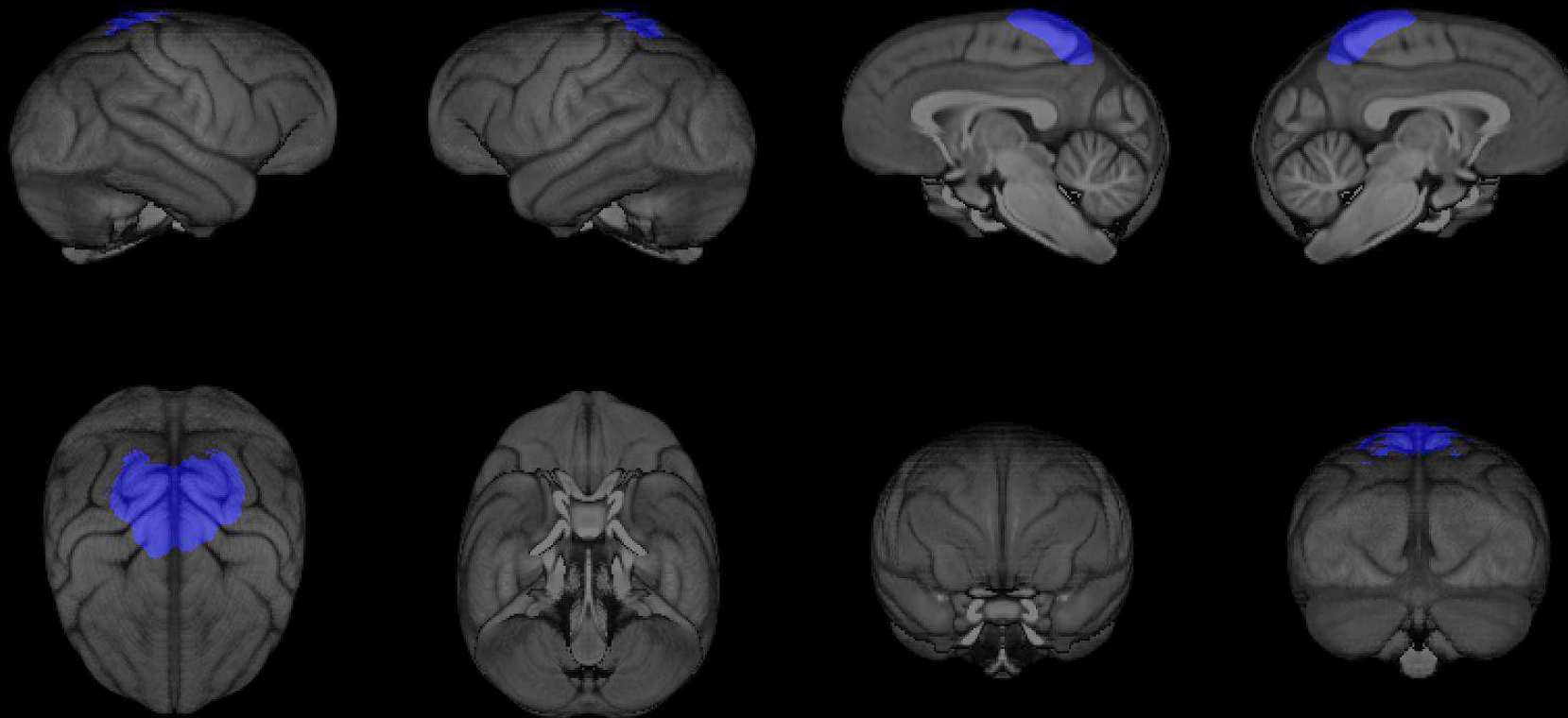
Component 16



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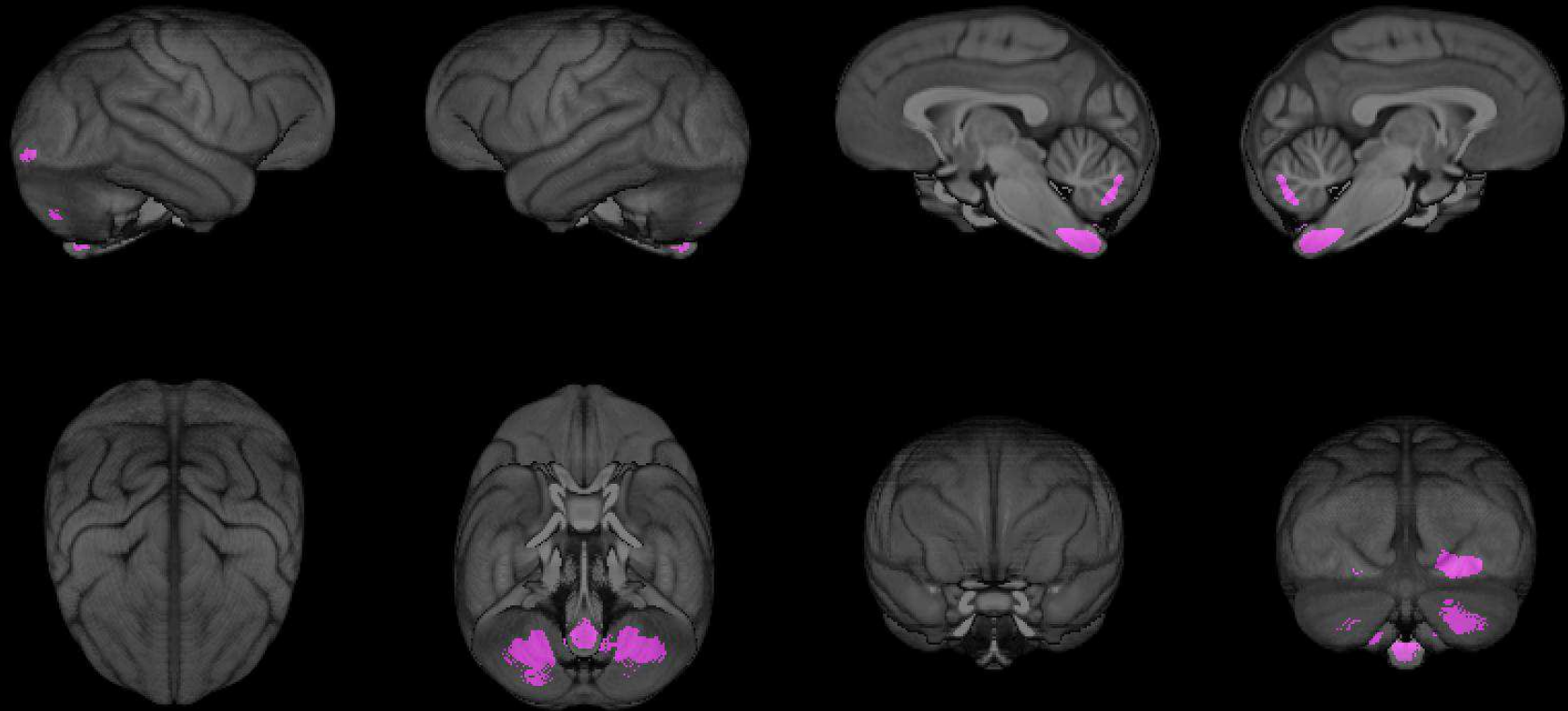
Component 17



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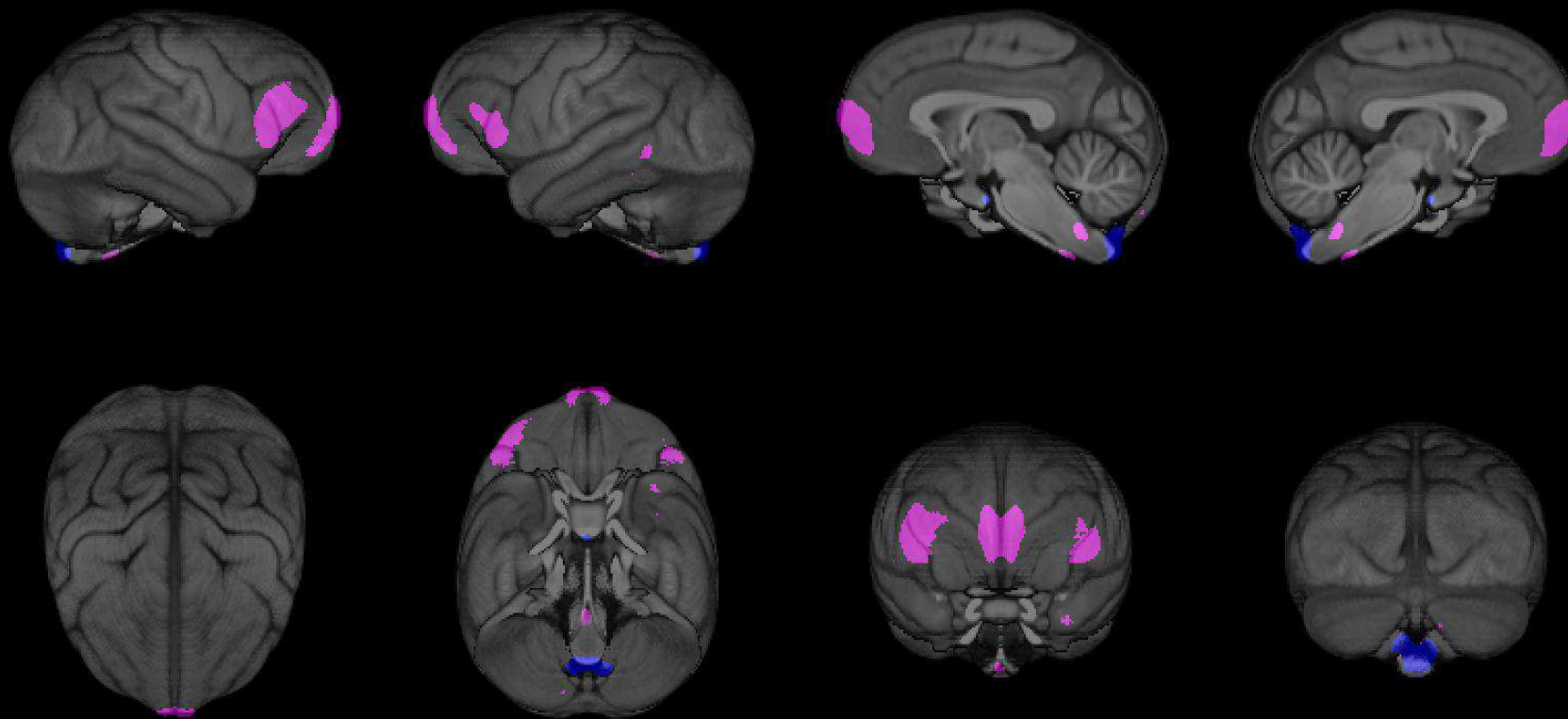
Component 18



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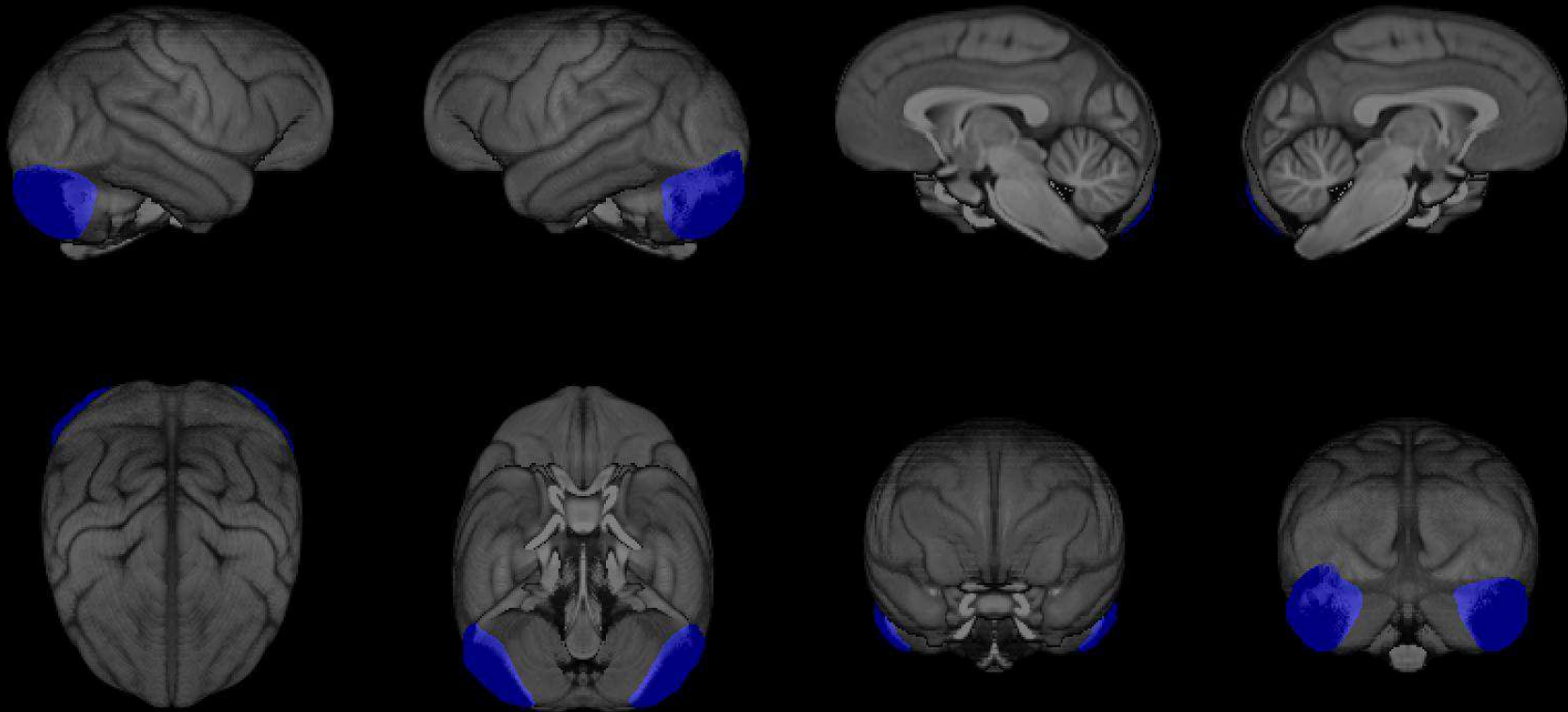
Component 19



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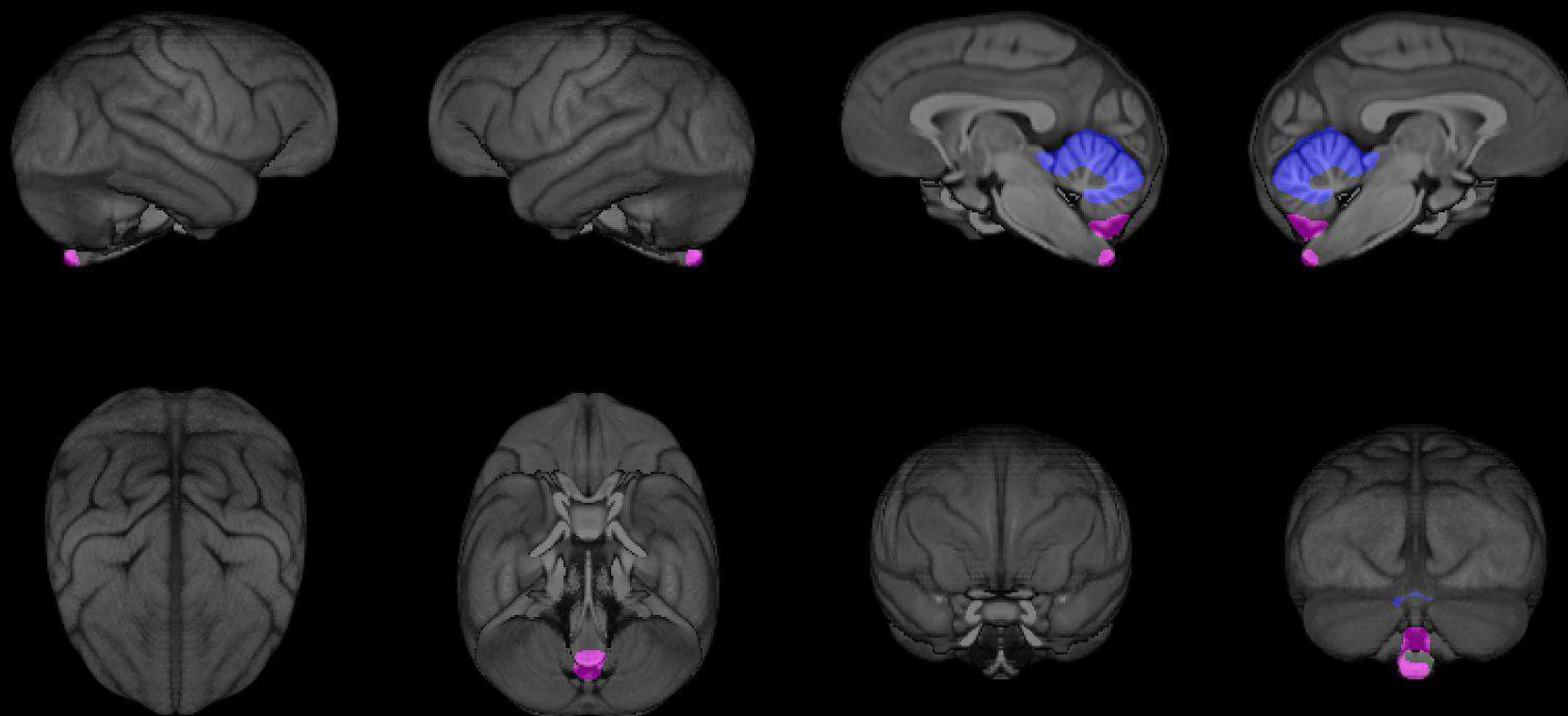
Component 20



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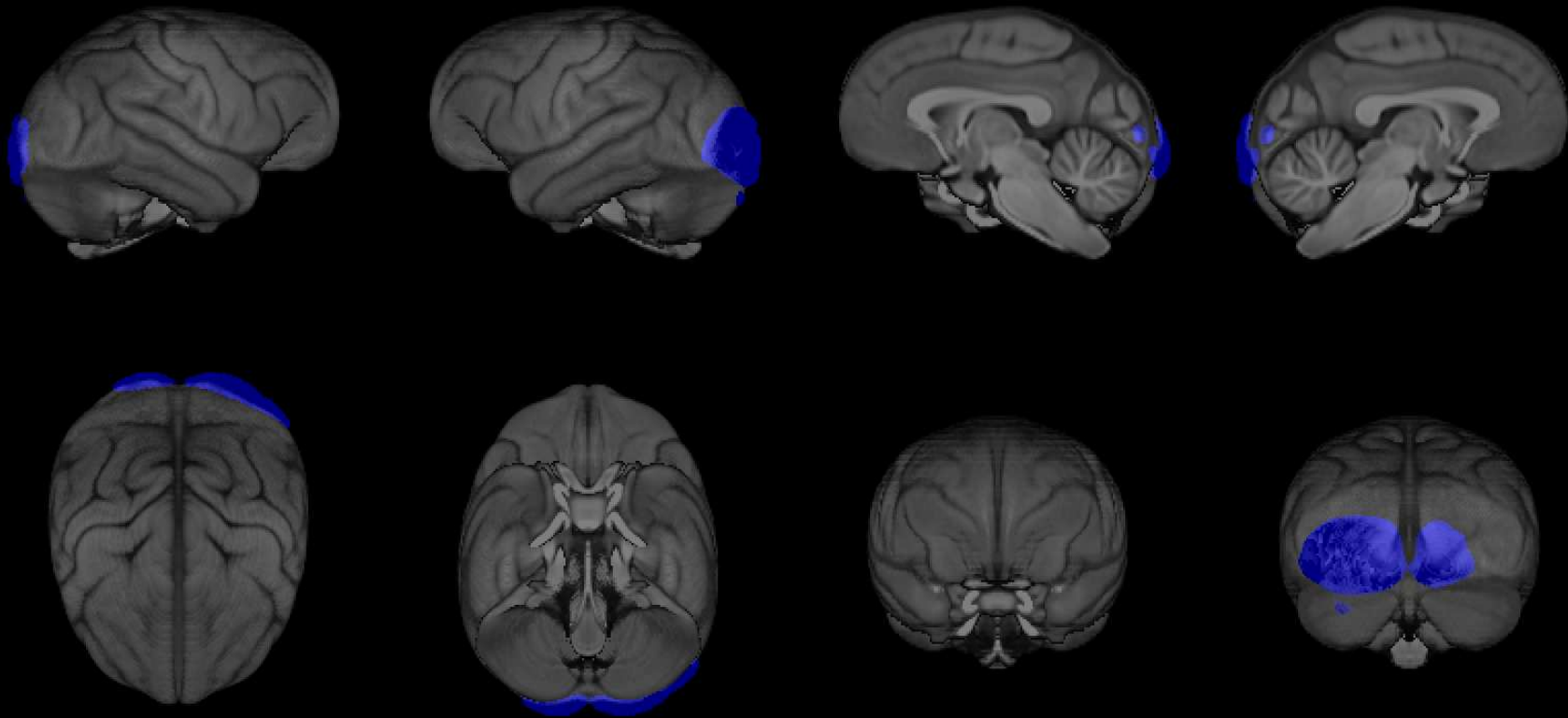
Component 21



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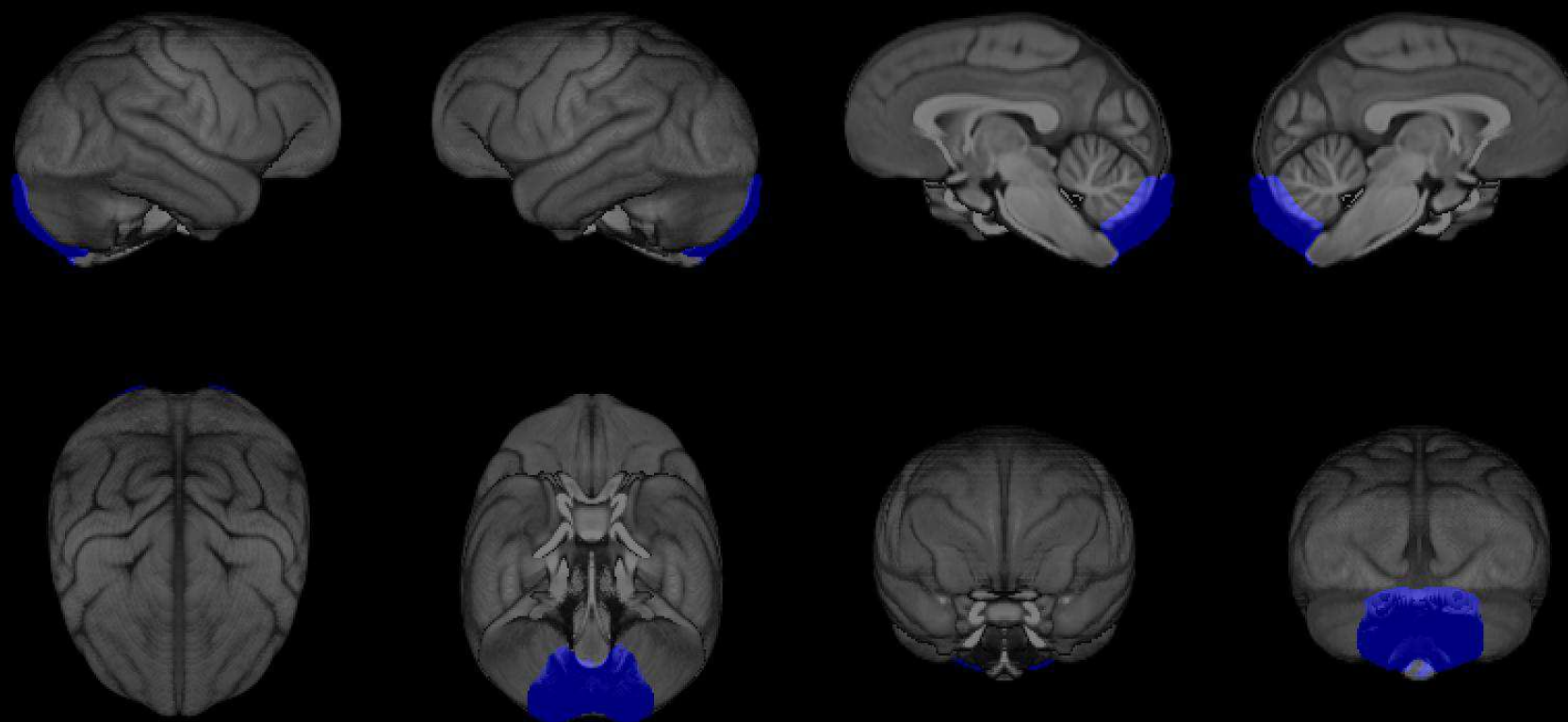
Component 22



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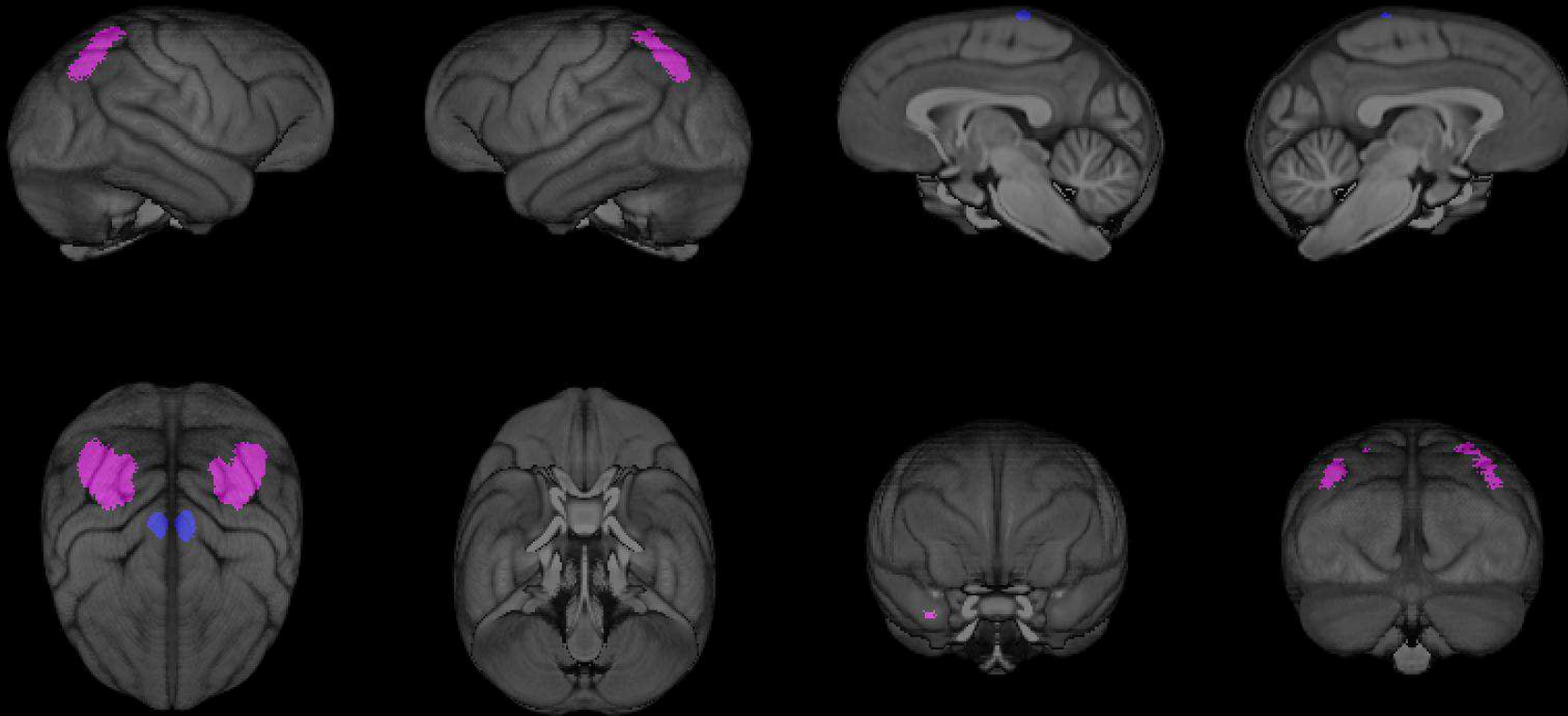
Component 23



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Component 24



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