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1	Cultural cognition and technology: Mechanical actions speak louder than
2	bodily actions. Comment on "Blind alleys and fruitful pathways in the
3	comparative study of cultural cognition" by Andrew Whiten
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Main text

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The distinction between imitation and emulation has gained popularity and attracted much interest and enthusiasm since its introduction by Tomasello and his colleagues three decades ago [1–3]. Imitation describes social learning in which the observer reproduces both the model's actions (i.e., the means) and the result (i.e., the end). By contrast, emulation occurs when the observer reproduces only the result. As stressed by Whiten [4] (see also, e.g., [5]), the tricky question is, what do "model's actions" mean, particularly in the case of instrumental activities such as tool use? The first possibility is to consider that model's actions refer to the mechanical actions performed by the model (i.e., the interaction between the tool and other objects). The second is to consider that model's actions refer to the motor actions performed by the model (hereafter called bodily action to follow Whiten's [4] terminology). In line with Byrne and Russon's [6] concept of 'program level imitation', Whiten [4] argues that the bodilyaction level is not really relevant – if not misleading – for studying the transmission of technical behavior between individuals and suggests to reorient the focus towards the mechanical-action level (for a similar view, see [7–10]). Interestingly, the same debate between bodily-actioncentered versus mechanical-action-centered explanations has also occurred in the cognitive science literature to describe the cognitive processes at work when humans use tools (for reviews, see [11,12]). Recent evidence suggests the existence of a mechanical-to-motor cascade mechanism, which gives priority to mechanical actions over bodily actions. Said differently and to paraphrase Bernstein [13], a pioneer in the study of motor control, one must concentrate on the 'what' of the action (i.e., the mechanical action), the 'hows' (i.e., bodily actions) come later by themselves. Here we briefly present the work that supports this perspective before discussing how this finds echo in Whiten's [4] perspective.

Most of our understanding of human tool-use behavior in the cognitive science literature comes from research on brain-damaged patients with tool-use disorders, also called apraxia of

tool use [14]. These patients show difficulties in selecting the familiar tools and in performing the mechanical actions appropriate for a given activity. These difficulties are not due to sensorimotor deficits (e.g., hemiplegia, hemiparesis) or, said simply, to a kind of clumsiness [15,16]. Since the last century, these disorders have been interpreted as reflecting the loss of tool-use motor programs [17–20], which contain information about the bodily actions associated with the use of familiar tools (e.g., broad oscillation of the elbow and a power grip for a hammer). As apraxia of tool use is common after damage to the left inferior parietal lobe, it has been hypothesized that tool-use motor programs are stored within this brain region. Yet, as Whiten [4] argued, "... in acquiring much of our 'cultural know-how', such as widespread technologies like cooking, weaving, basket-making, pottery and weapon-making, any bodily imitative element is typically intimately meshed with copying resulting movements of objects, including the actions of tools on other objects" (p. 227). The same is true here. Why would these patients' difficulties necessarily reflect a deficit at the "bodily-action" level and not at the "mechanical-action" level? Answering this question necessitated an epistemological shift.

This shift was initiated by a series of studies, particularly Goldenberg and colleagues' ones, in which left- and right-brain-damaged patients were asked to select, use and even sometimes make novel tools to solve mechanical problems [21–24]. These studies found a strong behavioral link between performance in these novel tool-use tasks and performance in the classical familiar tool-use tasks commonly used to characterize tool-use disorders. Brain-lesion studies also revealed that a same cerebral network involving the area PF within the left inferior parietal lobe was critical for both novel and familiar tool use (e.g., [22,25]; for review, see [26]), thus implying that the same cognitive processes were at work in both tasks. As claimed by Goldenberg and Spatt [22], "[w]e found that parietal lesions interfered even more with Novel than with Common Tools and, among the subscores of Novel Tools, even stronger with their selection than their actual use. These results support the conclusion that the parietal

lobe contribution to tool use concerns general principles of tool use rather than knowledge of the prototypical use of common tools and objects, and the comprehension of mechanical interactions of the tool with other tools, recipients or materials rather than the selection of grip formation and manual movements" (p. 1653). The role of the left area PF in the understanding of mechanical actions and, more generally, of physical principles was confirmed by neuroimaging studies, which demonstrated that this brain region is preferentially activated when healthy participants (1) focus on mechanical actions and not on bodily actions in tool-use tasks [27], (2) observe others performing tool-use actions but not non-tool-use actions (e.g., grasping an object) [28], and (3) reason about physical events (e.g., a tower that falls) [29]. The cortical thickness of the left area PF also predicts performance in psychotechnical tests [30]. To sum up, the left area PF plays a key role in a more general cerebral network dedicated to the understanding of our physical world and of the techniques we, humans, have developed over time. Contrary to the tool-use motor programs hypothesis, this perspective stresses that we do not use tools because we are able to manipulate them, but because we understand the underlying physical principles. The selection of the appropriate bodily actions to use tools "comes only later by themselves". Evidence for this mechanical-to-motor cascade mechanism has been provided recently by a series of eye-tracking studies, which have shown that healthy participants tend to fixate first the functional part of a tool (e.g., the head of a hammer) and then the manipulative part (e.g., the handle of a hammer) when a pair of tools are presented on a screen ([31]; see also [32]). Also consistent with this cascade mechanism, this pattern is observed only when the mechanical action between the two objects is easy to infer mechanically (e.g., salami-steel knife). However, when the mechanical action between the tool and the object is not easy to infer mechanically (e.g., alarm clock-bottle opener), participants spend more time looking at the functional part of the tool and almost no time at the manipulative part, suggesting that the cascade mechanism does not take place [31,33,34].

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Taken together, these findings support the same conclusions as the one drawn by Whiten [4] with respect to cultural phenomena: How technological know-how is transmitted between individuals and how individuals use this know-how to use tools seem to be first and foremost driven by mechanical-action-centered cognitive processes. This conclusion does not imply that this is true in domains other than the technological one (e.g., communicative gestures, dance), for which bodily-action-centered cognitive processes could play a primary role (for a similar view, see [4,7,8,10]; see also [4]). This is also in accordance to the idea that witnessing a model acting can lead to social learning, which is true not only for humans [35] but also for nonhuman species such as chimpanzees [36]. Simply, moving the focus to the mechanical-action level inevitably incites us to envisage that non-social cognitive processes (e.g., causal understanding; see [37,38]) have a greater role to play in cultural phenomena than commonly thought [4,9,10,39–43]. This in turn raises new questions such as, why do some species extract more information from observing conspecifics' technical behavior than others? What are the cognitive processes that allow an individual to assimilate novel improvements to its repertoire [44,45]? These new avenues can lead us, as suggested by Whiten [4], to explore new fruitful pathways not only in the comparative study of cultural cognition, but also more generally in cognitive sciences.

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