

1 **Decision-making in a social world: integrating cognitive ecology and social neuroscience**

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24 **Highlights**

25 - Social neuroscientists and cognitive ecologists study animal decision-making
26 - We retrace the development and current state of integration of the two fields
27 - We propose several approaches toward further integration
28 - We highlight exemplary model systems that are flourishing at this junction

29

30 **Abstract**

31 Understanding animal decision-making involves simultaneously dissecting and reconstructing
32 processes across levels of biological organization, such as behavior, physiology, and brain
33 function, as well as considering the environment in which decisions are made. Over the past few
34 decades, foundational breakthroughs, originating from a variety of model systems and
35 disciplines, have painted an increasingly comprehensive picture of how individuals sense
36 information, process it, and subsequently modify behavior or states. Still, our understanding of
37 decision-making in social contexts is far from complete and requires integrating novel
38 approaches and perspectives. The fields of social neuroscience and cognitive ecology have
39 approached social decision-making from orthogonal perspectives. The integration of these
40 perspectives (and fields) is critical in developing comprehensive and testable theories of the
41 brain.

42

43 Social neuroscience has made great strides in understanding the key pathways and
44 neuromodulators of important social behavioral processes like affiliation, reproduction, and
45 aggression. Conversely, cognitive ecology has examined a diverse set of taxa to analyze
46 behavior in social groups, determine decision-making rules and the factors that modulate them,
47 and contextualize these processes in naturalistic scenarios to understand their adaptive value.
48 The integration of these perspectives (and fields) is critical in developing comprehensive and
49 testable theories of the brain (Buzsáki 2020, Poeppel & Alolli 2020, Hofmann et al. 2014). Here
50 we review complementary insights into social decision-making from the perspectives of both
51 social neuroscience and cognitive ecology. We describe each area of research and its
52 development in recent decades, including a brief discussion of studies that have attempted
53 integrated both fields. We then outline several steps to further integrate social neuroscience and
54 cognitive ecology towards a more complete understanding of social decision-making.

55

56 **What is social neuroscience?**

57 Social neuroscience is the study of the neural mechanisms of social behavior and as such is
58 situated within the tradition of neuroethology (Zupanc 2010; Zilkha et al. 2016), which
59 historically has included the study of social behavior as well as investigations of reward,
60 motivation, and decision-making (e.g. Watson & Platt 2008). From this foundation, social
61 neuroscience emerged as an independent field of research in the early 1990's (Cacioppo and
62 Berntson 1992) with the aim of understanding the neural, hormonal, cellular, and genetic
63 underpinnings of social behavior (Cacioppo & Decety 2011). It is this integration across levels of
64 biological organization, and how they relate to the social realm, that separates social
65 neuroscience from the more reductionist approaches in much of modern neuroscience (where
66 behavior is often an afterthought, see Krakauer et al. 2017) and from the organism-level outlook
67 characteristic of animal behavior research and psychology (Insel 2010). Importantly, almost
68 from its inception social neuroscience has also embraced a diversity of model systems and
69 attempted to infer evolutionary insights.

70

71 Current research in social neuroscience primarily stem from two areas of research (Insel 2010):
72 a neuroethological perspective on sensory processing, and a neuroendocrinological perspective
73 on suites of social behaviors such as sexual behavior (including sexual signaling, mate choice,
74 and courtship), aggression (including dominance, competition, and territoriality), parental care,
75 and affiliation/avoidance (including, cooperation and prosociality) (see Taborsky & Oliveira
76 2012, Weitekamp & Hofmann 2016). Research on sensory processing has amassed a

77 comprehensive and detailed inventory of the pathways, cells, and circuits that process social
78 information from a multitude of modes (e.g. pheromones, acoustic and visual courtship signals
79 and cues) (Traniello et al. 2019) Conversely, research in the neuroendocrinology realm has
80 demonstrated how remarkably conserved (in form, function, and occasionally both) the
81 mechanisms of social behaviors are across taxa, from sex steroids to nonapeptides to reward
82 neuromodulators (dopamine, serotonin), to stress modulators (cortisol) (Goodson 2005,
83 O'Connell & Hofmann 2011, 2012, Kanwisher 2006, Toth & Robinson 2007).

84

85 A decade ago, Adolphs (2010) proposed a set of “next steps” in research on social
86 neuroscience. These included new model systems, an emphasis on region mapping of socio-
87 cognitive processing in the brain, and investigating generality versus domain-specificity in social
88 information processing. All these suggestions reflected a need to more closely integrate a more
89 naturalistic (or ecological) perspective into the field, as we discuss later. More specifically,
90 Adolphs (2010) identified that one strength of social neuroscience is its grounding in animal
91 studies then *subsequent* extension to humans, rather than the other way around. This is one
92 challenge that social neuroscience encounters: studies amass a vast and often bewildering
93 array of relationships between mechanisms and complex behavior, emotion, or personality
94 traits, yet it only rarely addresses the functional implications, evolutionary constraints, or fitness
95 consequences of the identified relationships (O'Connell & Hofmann 2011, Cacioppo & Decety
96 2011). We posit that a cognitive ecology framework will prove beneficial in contextualizing the
97 results within a larger evolutionary framework.

98

99 **What is cognitive ecology?**

100 Cognitive ecology has its roots in classical ethology's emphasis on an integrative understanding
101 of *natural* behavior (Tinbergen 1963). The distinction of cognitive ecology from neuroethology
102 and behavioral ecology was articulated by Real (1993), who put forward a “cognitive approach”
103 towards understanding animal decision-making. Intended as an alternative to a strictly
104 behaviorist/adaptationist approach, an individual's decision is no longer seen as an objective
105 weighing of external stimuli, but rather a product of a series of processes (perception, encoding,
106 storage, and representation) that are the product of evolution (Real, 1993). Shettleworth later
107 defined cognition as “*all [the] ways in which animals take in information through the senses,
process, retain and decide to act on it.*” (Shettleworth 2001). Behavioral ecologists have
108 increasingly embraced the implications of cognitive processes in their experimental designs,
109 thus integrating research into animal cognition with behavioral ecology, a research field now

111 often referred to as cognitive ecology (Dukas 1998). Cognitive ecology has oscillated between a
112 more ecological and a more psychological perspective (Hulse 1993, Kamil 1998). The
113 ecological approach has proven invaluable in structuring testable and discrete hypotheses for
114 cognitive processes (e.g. bird food caching (Sonnenberg et al. 2019), fish transitivity in mate
115 choice decisions (Reding & Cummings 2018), bat prey cue assessment (Page & Ryan 2005)).
116 In contrast, a psychological approach has increased our understanding of the cognitive
117 processes that human and non-human animals share, primarily through assessment of primate
118 cognition (Wellman & Gelman 1992).

119

120 Different cognitive domains are those that require different types of cognitive performance
121 (Deary et al. 2010). Common domains assessed in cognitive ecology literature include spatial
122 learning, associative learning (including discrimination learning), cognitive flexibility (such as
123 inhibitory control and reversal learning) and innovative problem solving/ novel motor learning.
124 Cognitive test batteries are studies that employ multiple cognitive assays to compare
125 performance across domains, and there has been a recent call to improve the universality of
126 cognitive test batteries (as well as expand this type of testing to additional animal models)
127 (Shaw & Schmelz 2017).

128

129 Model systems in cognitive ecology have been selected based on their unique behavioral
130 repertoire (e.g. cleaner mutualism in fish and shrimp (Soares et al., 2017; Vaughan et al. 2017),
131 bats navigating via echolocation (Spanjer Wright et al. 2011), vocal learning in songbirds
132 (Searcy & Nowicki 2019). Given the diverse species studied, numerous often ingenious assays
133 have been developed to assess cognition in a manner most appropriate for and relevant to the
134 model system. However, examining cognitive behavior in a way that is efficient, robust, and
135 relevant across species given their differences in natural and evolutionary history poses another
136 great challenge (Pollen & Hofmann 2008). Designing an experimental paradigm that is 'fair', i.e.,
137 not biased towards any one of the species under investigation, is difficult as species differences
138 that are not directly relevant to the behavior under study might interfere in non-obvious ways.
139 For example, in studies on spatial learning using a food reward, one species might simply be
140 more motivated by the food reward used, and yet would appear to be superior at spatial learning
141 (Odling-Smee & Braithwaite 2003). Nevertheless, the diversity of model systems has been an
142 obvious boon for the field, yet inferring the mental processes taking place inside an animal's
143 brain from behavioral observations alone remains another major challenge (Shuttleworth 2001).
144 This is particularly true when we consider different social environments where cognitive

145 processes – such as the assessment of valence and salience, associative learning and memory
146 retention, and the speed and accuracy of decision making – can change dynamically across
147 social contexts (Weitekamp & Hofmann 2017). Integrating proximate mechanisms into the
148 research agenda of cognitive ecology has long been seen as critical (Shettleworth 2001), yet
149 progress in this direction is ripe for additional exploration.

150

151 Integrating social neuroscience and cognitive ecology

152 To assess where integration between social neuroscience and cognitive ecology is already
153 occurring, we conducted a quantitative literature search in both [Google Scholar](#) and [PubMed](#),
154 using representative search terms (see Figure 1 legend for details). Here, we only report the
155 analysis for PubMed as the two databases yielded concordant results. We identified 19,669
156 publications for the search term “social neuroscience,” 17,883 publications for “animal
157 cognition,” and 1,068 publications for “cognitive ecology.” The fields of social neuroscience and
158 animal cognition have been growing steadily since the mid-1990s, with the latter initially
159 outpacing the former (Figure 1A). In contrast, cognitive ecology began to take off only about 15
160 years ago, albeit at a slower pace. To examine the state of integration of these fields we then
161 scaled each separately to its respective year with the most publications (Figure 1B).
162 Interestingly, the intersection of social neuroscience and animal cognition (2,564 publications)
163 largely follows the trajectory of social neuroscience, while the intersection between social
164 neuroscience and cognitive ecology (113 publications) began to accelerate only in the last
165 decade (Figure 1B). Our analysis shows that both social neuroscience and cognitive ecology
166 are thriving disciplines, and that the very recent and ongoing integration of cognitive ecology
167 and social neuroscience is an exciting and promising frontier.

168

169 Promising approaches for further integration

170 We propose four approaches that cognitive ecologists and social neuroscientists may want to
171 consider as they conduct integrative work between these two areas. These suggestions are not
172 meant to be exclusive, rather they reflect research directions that have already yielded novel
173 insights – as demonstrated by the examples we provide – and are likely to play an important
174 role in the future integration of these fields.

175

176 1) Assess social behavior and cognitive performance in the same subjects across 177 cognitive and social domains.

178 The social environment is a rich landscape, and individuals that navigate it often rely on
179 cognitive processes. When possible, assessing the same individuals in social behavior assays
180 *and* cognitive tasks can facilitate a better understanding of which social factors are relevant for
181 certain cognitive abilities. The ability to correlate social factors with cognitive processes then
182 allows researchers to generate specific hypotheses on how proximate mechanisms (such as
183 neuromodulators) should vary across individuals and across these social factors.

184

185 For example, the prairie vole, *Microtus ochrogaster*, has become a model system for
186 understanding social monogamy and the role of nonapeptides in social affiliation and salience.
187 In this model system, a series of elegant studies of behavioral, neuromolecular, and genetic
188 mechanisms have transformed our understanding of the role of nonapeptides in both social
189 behavior (Donaldson & Young 2008), and spatial memory (Rice et al. 2017). Further work
190 comparing these social categories and cognitive domains is a critical step in identifying
191 relationships between social behavior and cognition that can then be explored at a mechanistic
192 level (e.g. Okhovat et al. 2015). The evolution of our understanding of the function of the
193 nonapeptides (Donaldson and Young 2008; Goodson 2005, Robinson et al. 2019) exemplifies
194 the utility of investigating mechanisms in alternative contexts. Oxytocin was originally
195 considered a neuromodulator of “social affiliation.” But further exploration provided evidence for
196 an expanded role, and now we more clearly understand its role in “social salience,” or the
197 orienting of responses to social cues. This expanded role explains the role of oxytocin in both
198 the typical prosocial aspects of social behavior (such as trust and empathy) as well as antisocial
199 aspects (such as aggression and envy) (Shamay-Tsoory & Abu-Akel 2016, Beery & Kaufer
200 2015). It is important that mechanisms are not pigeon-holed into investigation only within
201 traditional contexts and traditional model organisms. It is also important to record non-cognitive
202 behavioral traits during assays, as they may be influencing the perceived cognitive performance
203 (Van Horik et al. 2018).

204

205 **2) Compare social phenotypes over time and across developmental trajectories**

206 As mentioned previously, study systems that display variation in a social attribute can be very
207 useful for studies of cognitive ecology and social neuroscience, and this is even more the case
208 when this variation can be organized into discrete phenotypes (e.g. male/female, parenting/non-
209 parenting, dominant/subordinate, breeder/helper). Once the behavioral and mechanistic
210 repertoires of social phenotypes are distinguished, it is then useful to employ repeated
211 measures designs to understand the repeatability versus flexibility of the phenotypes.

212 Employing repeated measures across contexts (e.g. across time or development) facilitates
213 understanding the limits of phenotypic variation in behavior and underlying mechanisms.

214

215 The African cichlid fish *Astatotilapia burtoni* is a fish species that has emerged as a model
216 system in social neuroscience (Maruska & Fernald 2018). Studies have disentangled the
217 relevant modalities and social information males use to ascend or descend in social dominance
218 status as well as detailing the physiological and neural transitions that parallel social change.
219 Recent literature in this species has additionally disentangled how these social dominance
220 phenotypes influence group learning (Rodriguez-Santiago et al. 2019).

221

222 Social neuroscience has extensively studied developmental aspects of social behavior and
223 trajectories, a perspective cognitive ecologists can benefit from. Furthermore, investigating
224 developmental trajectories can be a useful tool in understanding the evolutionary origins and
225 conservation of social decision-making. In zebra finches (*Taeniopygia guttata*) as well as other
226 songbird species, the neural circuits and critical developmental periods of song learning have
227 been well characterized, as well as the ecological consequences (e.g. mate preference
228 behavior). Care has been taken to disentangle the learned versus innate aspects of song, and
229 attention and interpretation of stimuli. Additionally, explorations on this topic have characterized
230 the anatomical constraints of song production (Riede & Olson 2020).

231

232 **3) Increase the number of model systems studied in naturalistic communities.**

233 As we noted above, diverse and unique study species have featured prominently in both social
234 neuroscience and cognitive ecology, suggesting that investigating non-traditional model
235 systems can be particularly fruitful. Often, model systems are chosen due to a complex behavior
236 or extreme social phenotype that they exhibit such as archerfish or naked mole rats.

237 Additionally, species often *vary* considerably in social attributes (that potentially change over
238 time), which allows researchers to explicitly test evolutionary hypotheses and infer which
239 mechanisms are similar (and possibly conserved) across species (see approach 4) below). This
240 requires extensive knowledge of the social environment of the system. It is easy to overlook
241 basic naturalistic characterizations, but the initial description of a species' life history, social
242 organization, and naturalistic behavior is critical in establishing baseline predictions regarding
243 cognitive performance. For example, in honeybees, studies of the relationship between spatial
244 navigation and social communication, as well as the underlying neural mechanisms, have a rich
245 history grounded in painstaking observations of behavior in nature (Menzel 2012; Zayed &

246 Robinson 2012). Studies of primate societies, particularly geladas, rhesus macaques, and
247 savannah baboons, have turned the limitations of studies conducted in the wild into a strength
248 through detailed recording of social interactions paired with physiological and molecular
249 assessments (Wilson 2016, Snyder-Mackler et al. 2019, Jablonski 2020). Importantly, research
250 on primates has been instrumental in building our understanding of higher-order cognitive
251 processes, such as theory of mind and subjective mental states, from an ecological rather than
252 anthropocentric perspective. In addition to establishing new model systems via basic naturalistic
253 characterizations (Kabelik & Hofmann 2018), longstanding biomedical model systems (e.g., the
254 nematode worm *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the fruitfly *Drosophila melanogaster*, and the mouse
255 *Mus musculus*) will greatly benefit from more ecological perspectives that historically have not
256 been central in their literature (e.g. Taborsky et al. 2015; Williamson et al. 2016).

257

258 Importantly, new technologies such as automated tracking and machine learning have facilitated
259 a renaissance of detailed behavioral observations, often in naturalistic contexts (Dell et al.
260 2014). Scientists are also swiftly advancing neural recordings of freely-interacting animals (e.g.
261 Scribner et al. 2020) as an alternative to more restrictive techniques that require animals to be
262 fixed to a stage. Often, the analysis of these complex datasets requires new statistical
263 approaches. Social network analysis, for example, has been a particularly fruitful subfield within
264 the study ecologically-relevant social behavior. The observation of complex group social
265 dynamics yields equally complex datasets and require sophisticated statistical approaches
266 (Williamson et al. 2016, Pinter-Wollman et al. 2014). These statistical approaches have
267 undergone rapid development and have vastly improved our ability to interpret group social
268 dynamics (Webber & Vander Wal 2019). The rapid pace at which these technological and
269 statistical advances occur provides exciting opportunities for the integration of social
270 neuroscience and cognitive ecology (Amodio & Keysers 2018).

271

272 **4) Employ phylogenetic comparative analyses of mechanisms and behaviors**

273 It is clear that for both social neuroscientists and cognitive ecologists, understanding animal
274 behavior (in particular social decision-making) requires an evolutionary framework. From the
275 social neuroscience perspective, understanding the shared pathways and brain region
276 homology (Goodson, 2005; O'Connell & Hofmann 2011, 2012) is critical in determining the roles
277 of key mechanisms and circuits. From the cognitive ecology perspective, understanding the
278 fitness consequences of a behavior provides insight into its maintenance in any given
279 population.

280
281 Poeciliid fishes (a family of freshwater livebearing fish encompassing guppies, mollies,
282 swordtails, and platys) initially became a model systems for understanding life history tradeoffs
283 in response to predation, and since have emerged as a model for mate choice, as closely
284 related species vary in mating system. Studies on male visual ornaments and coloration paired
285 with experience-dependent female mate choice and its neural mechanisms have all been
286 grounded in an evolutionary framework of sexual conflict and alternative reproductive tactics
287 (Cummings 2018).

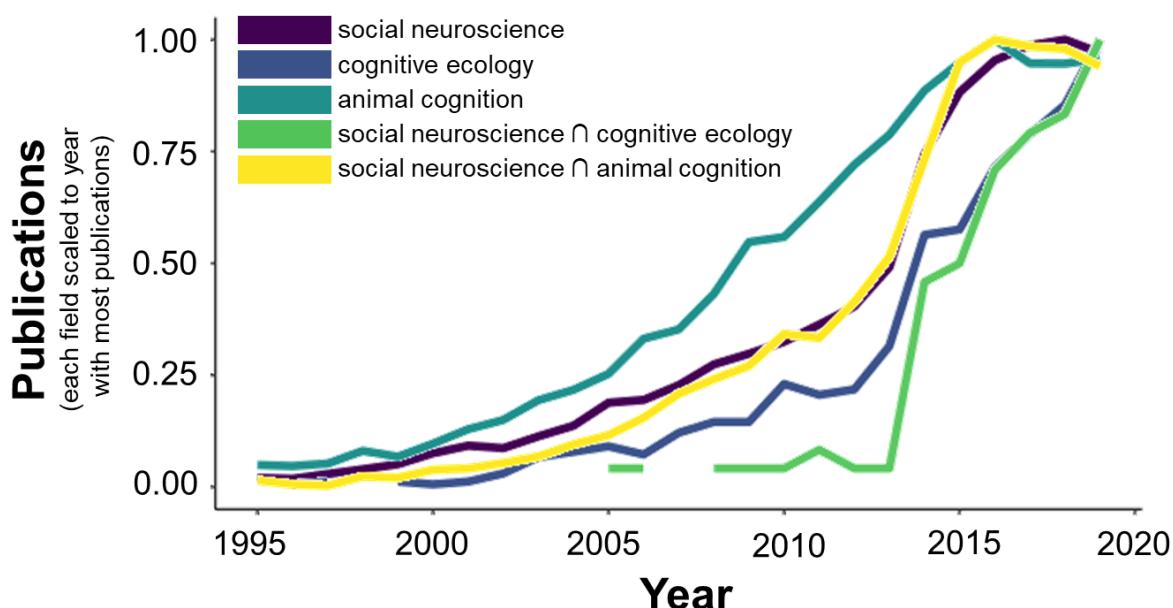
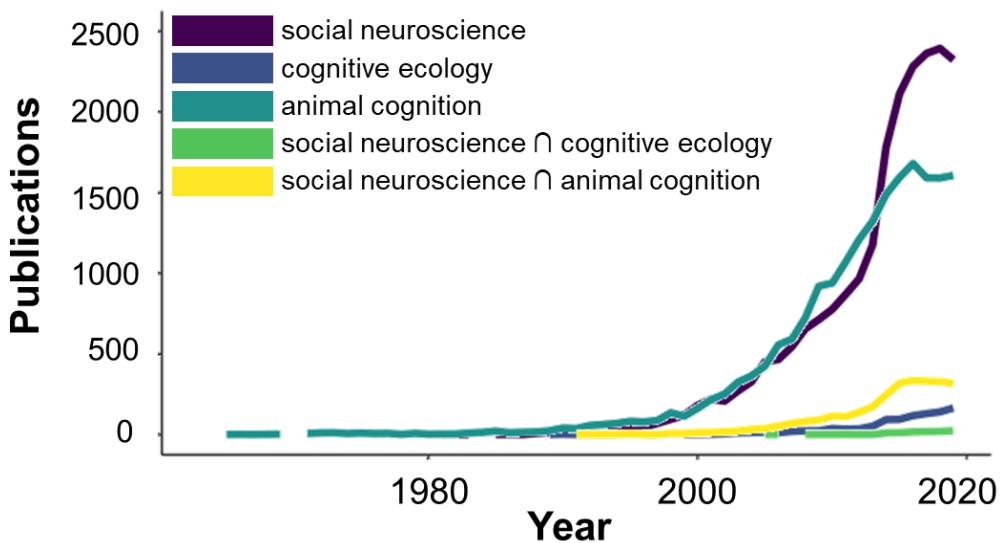
288
289 There is a ripe opportunity for researchers of social behavior to employ more rigorous
290 phylogenetic methods on large datasets across taxa to explicitly test observed conservation
291 (see Young et al. 2019). Phylogenetic analyses can more clearly paint an evolutionary trajectory
292 of critical social attributes and their mechanisms across time. For example, many hypothalamic
293 neuropeptides and releasing hormones are not only evolutionarily ancient but often show
294 conserved functions, including their effects on behavior (Robinson et al. 2019).

295
296 **Conclusion**
297 To understand how human and non-human animals make decisions in a social world, scientists
298 must integrate across biological levels and diverse perspectives. This integrative approach is
299 not a new concept, rather, integrative frameworks such as Tinbergen's four questions
300 (Tinbergen 1963) have facilitated enormous conceptual progress in our understanding of animal
301 behavior (Bateson & Laland 2013). But given the recent advances in neuroscience and
302 behavioral analyses (Boender & Young 2020), the ability to integrate these topics within single
303 studies has become much more accessible (Hofmann et al. 2014). We have described here the
304 complementary approaches that social neuroscientists and cognitive ecologists have used to
305 social decision-making, detailing their methodological strengths and weaknesses. The
306 intersection of these two fields is ripe for more integration, which no doubt will yield important
307 new insights.

308
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319 **Fig 1.** Quantitative analysis of the publication effort in Social Neuroscience, Animal Cognition,
 320 and Cognitive Ecology. Three searches were conducted in PubMed (selecting “all fields” and
 321 restricting the year to before and including 2019): “(social neuroscience) AND (animal)”,
 322 “(cognitive ecology) AND (animal)”, and “(animal cognition)”. Two additional searches assessed
 323 the intersections between the fields: “(social neuroscience) AND (cognitive ecology) AND
 324 (animal)”, and “(social neuroscience) AND (animal cognition)”. Shown are total research effort
 325 over time **(A)** and scaled research effort to facilitate comparison **(B)**. Primary data and analysis
 326 code can be found at: https://github.com/kellyjwallace/Wallace_Hofmann_literature_analysis.



328

329 **References**

330 * of special interest

331 ** of outstanding interest

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