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Social information about others' affective states

in a human-altered world

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Abstract

10 As a result of human-induced environmental change, animals increasingly face challenges that differ from those encountered 11 throughout their evolutionary history. Whilst this has caused dramatic declines for many species, some can persist by 12 gathering information to reduce uncertainty, thereby minimising risks and exploiting new opportunities. The strategic use of 13 social information can be particularly useful in enabling such uncertainty-reduction. Here, we argue that the behavioural and 14 affective states of others provide vital social information for animals to guide evaluations of risks and opportunities. 15 Specifically, attending and responding to indicators of others' affective states through processes such as emotional contagion 16 may facilitate information transmission. For instance, when exposed to a novel, ambiguous anthropogenic stimulus that 17 could indicate either an opportunity or a threat, animals may use social information about others' affective states to decide 18 whether to approach or avoid the stimulus. To increase immediate and long-term benefits, individuals might also alter their 19 social behaviour and information use flexibly based on critical early-life experiences, the socio-ecological context, or the 20 behaviour and states of associates in the social network. Finally, given that an individual's affective state can influence how 21 it copes with changing environments and makes appropriate decisions, we argue that there is a need for greater synergy 22 between animal welfare and conservation efforts. Bridging the gap between ensuring individual-level welfare and population-23 level resilience will be crucial for ethical policies to protect wild animals responsibly in the face of human-induced rapid 24 environmental change.

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26 Key words

27 affective states, behavioural flexibility, cognition, conservation, environmental change, social information, uncertainty, welfare

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31 **1 | Introduction**

32 Despite the unprecedented challenges posed by the rapid pace of human-induced environmental changes, some 33 animals can persist and even thrive in human-altered environments. As evolutionary change through natural selection is 34 often too slow to enable adaptation, these animals seem to cope with anthropogenic change due to their high behavioural 35 flexibility (Vardi & Berger-Tal, 2022). Often referred to as "urban adapters" and "exploiters" (see Glossary for definitions 36 of key terms), these species can take advantage of environments with varying levels of human disturbance by altering aspects 37 of their behaviour (McKinney, 2006). For instance, a comparative study on wild boar (Sus scrofa) populations showed that 38 urban individuals' diets contained a higher proportion of anthropogenic foods, suggesting that changes in feeding behaviour 39 supported the exploitation of urban niches (Castillo-Contreras et al., 2021; Sih et al., 2011). Although there is growing 40 evidence that many different species can benefit from exploiting novel resources in urban environments (Sih et al., 2011), 41 human activities can also generate substantial uncertainty, which may require animals to attend and respond to information 42 to make adaptive decisions (Lee & Thornton, 2021). Uncertainty, a concept from information theory (Shannon, 1948), is 43 considered high when different outcomes of variables, such as external stimuli or an individual's actions, are equally likely 44 or useful. Thus, uncertainty can be high if an animal is faced with an ambiguous anthropogenic stimulus, such as a novel 45 object, that could indicate a threat and/or an opportunity. The reduction of such uncertainty could be achieved through 46 different mechanisms, potentially involving cognition (Griffin et al., 2017; Lee & Thornton, 2021) and affective states, and 47 recent theories propose that uncertainty reduction is a key function of the brain (Friston, 2010).

48 Although they are often considered separately, cognition and affective states are likely complementary and closely 49 linked mechanistically and functionally in resolving uncertainty and driving decision-making in animals (Pessoa, 2008). 50 Cognition can broadly be defined as the neural processes that involve gathering, processing, storing, and acting upon 51 information from the environment (Shettleworth, 2010), and the role of cognition in coping with environmental change has 52 sometimes been referred to as a "cognitive buffer" (Sol, 2009b, 2009a). Information that is processed cognitively can be 53 obtained individually (personal information), or from other individuals, such as conspecifics and heterospecifics (social 54 information) (Danchin et al., 2004). Affective states are also an important mechanism through which animals evaluate their 55 environment and make decisions (Mendl & Paul, 2020). Whilst there is no ubiquitous definition of affective states, we define 56 them as short- and long-term mental states which are valanced: that is, they are positive or negative; pleasant or unpleasant 57 (Mendl & Paul, 2020; Russell, 2003). This definition stems from our own conscious experiences of mental states ('feelings') 58 that we label as emotions or moods (Mendl et al., 2022). Because we cannot directly measure subjective states in non-human 59 animals (we use language as a gold-standard, yet fallible, measure in humans), we cannot be certain about whether and which 60 other species consciously experience them; so, this issue remains a topic of heated debate (e.g. Boly et al., 2013; Klein & 61 Barron, 2016; Panksepp, 2005; Paul et al., 2020). Nevertheless, by considering affective states as comprising components 62 including subjective, behavioural, physiological, neurological, and cognitive changes (Paul et al., 2005; Scherer, 1984), it is 63 possible to scientifically study animal affect in the absence of certainty about the conscious subjective component, by 64 measuring the other components (Mendl et al., 2022). Thus, indicators of affective states in response to environmental 65 stimuli, such as anthropogenic stimuli, can be objectively measured through physiological, neurological, behavioural, and 66 cognitive markers (Mendl & Paul, 2020).

Anthropogenic activities may pose uncertainty that could induce and influence measurable cognitive, behavioural,
 and affective responses in animals (Anderson et al., 2019) (Figure 1). For example, urban herring gulls (*Larus argentatus*) show

69 similar behavioural and affective responses to conspecific alarm calls and human shouting (Di Giovanni et al., 2022). Human 70 shouting induces uncertainty here because it may correspond to a human threatening the gull, or the shouting may be 71 unrelated to the gull's presence and thus would not pose a threat. In animals including humans, uncertainty tends to induce 72 a negative affective state, such as discomfort and distress (although positive affective states are also possible) (Anderson et 73 al., 2019; Grupe & Nitschke, 2013). Such a negative affective state may, in turn, serve as a mechanism eliciting adaptive 74 responses to resolve such uncertainty, for example by driving the animal to gather additional information about a stimulus 75 (thus alleviating the affective state of discomfort). Therefore, affective states can be an important mechanism driving 76 decision-making in animals (Mendl & Paul, 2020), and as such, should be considered to better understand the decisions that 77 animals make when confronted with anthropogenic change.

78 Here, we argue that the ability to utilise social information about the affective states of others may play a significant 79 role in enabling adaptive behavioural flexibility and could thus be an important mechanism driving decision-making in 80 animals (Mendl & Paul, 2020) faced with anthropogenic change. For instance, a study conducted on bottlenose dolphins 81 (Tursiops truncatus) showed that individuals that performed synchronous swimming at a higher rate (an affiliative behaviour) 82 were more likely to respond to ambiguous cues as predicting a positive rather than less positive outcome (Clegg et al., 2017). 83 Indeed, Clegg et al. (2017) reasoned that more affiliative behaviour may cause or be caused by a more positive affective state, 84 which could also act to buffer stress in response to uncertainty. The ability to process information about their own and 85 others' affective states, such as through affiliative behaviour, may allow some animals to respond appropriately in uncertain 86 situations by distinguishing between the likelihood of a situation or stimulus predicting a threat as opposed to an opportunity: a vital skill in human-altered environments. 87

88 To cope with human-altered environments through social information use, animals may integrate cognitive and 89 affective processes (Figure 1c). One cognitive process, social learning, which can be defined as "learning that is influenced 90 by observation of, or interaction with, another animal (typically a conspecific) or its products" (Heyes, 1994), may have an 91 inherently affective component (Gruber et al., 2021). For instance, an affective component in social learning could enable 92 transfer of information about the value of stimuli and serve as feedback from the demonstrator to the learner (Gruber et al., 93 2021). If affective states become salient to conspecifics, for example via cues or signals such as vocalisations (Briefer, 2018) or facial expressions (Parr et al., 2009), then individuals may use others' affective states as a source of social information 94 95 (Van Kleef, 2009) to reduce uncertainty and to make adaptive decisions in human-altered environments. One could argue 96 that it is sufficient for animals to use the overt behaviours of other individuals performing a task (e.g. approaching a novel 97 object or food item) as sources of information without the need to attend or respond to indicators of affective states. 98 Although this may often be the case, we argue that attention to (potentially subtle) cues of others' affective states may 99 provide additional, more fine-scaled social information about stimuli and outcomes in the environment. Attending to this 100 aspect of how a task is performed is potentially more beneficial than just attending to the main elements of task performance. 101 For example, an individual may observe a conspecific approaching a novel food item while expressing behaviour indicative 102 of fear- or disgust-like affective states. This has been found in great tits (Parus major), which, after observing a conspecific 103 consuming a visually recognisable food source and expressing visual aversion signals such as dropping seeds and beak-104 wiping, subsequently showed a significant aversion to that specific food item (Landová et al., 2017). Here, dropping seeds is 105 directly related to task performance, whereas beak-wiping is more likely to be related to the animal's affective state, expressing 106 a subtle vet noticeable cue of the individual's discomfort. Information about affective states may thus provide more salient, 107 fine-scale information about the potential opportunities and risks associated with a stimulus as compared to simply observing 108 the conspecific approach the food item. As affective states often manifest through behaviours, animals are likely to use 109 behavioural indicators as sources of social information. Attending to overt behaviours is thus a prerequisite for the ability to

110 respond to affective states.

111 Our understanding of whether affective states could help animals to cope with anthropogenic change is currently 112 very limited. Indeed, whilst there is growing evidence from laboratory studies that affective states influence decision-making 113 (Harding et al., 2004; Mendl & Paul, 2020), affective states are seldom considered in the context of environmental change, 114 particularly in the wild (Crump, 2021). In this opinion piece, we address this gap by considering how social information 115 about conspecifics' affective states may help wild animals navigate human-altered environments by reducing uncertainty 116 about opportunities and threats (Oliveira & Faustino, 2017). In Section 2, we ground our arguments in evolutionary theory 117 and behavioural ecology to discuss how animals may use and benefit from information about their own, and others', affective 118 states to guide decision-making in response to anthropogenic environmental change. In Section 3, we end by examining the 119 potential implications and applications for individual-level animal welfare and population- and species-level conservation. 120

- We argue that both perspectives are equally relevant and should be carefully integrated.
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2 | Social information about affective states can guide animals' decisions in a human-122 123 altered world

124 2.1. Affective states as a source of information and a mechanism for decision-making in animals

125 The behavioural responses of animals to human disturbances are well-documented (e.g., Lott & McCoy, 1995; Sih, 126 2013; Treves, 2015), but less attention has been given to how animals appraise these changes via changes in their own 127 affective states and those of others. Humans' presence, whether direct, through activities such as tourism and outdoor sports, 128 or more indirect, for example through habitat destruction or pollution, can elicit and influence a range of indicators of 129 affective states in animals such as behaviours, physiological, or cognitive components (Crump, 2021). These include markers 130 of positive states as in excitement, joy, or relief after avoiding a negative outcome, as well as of negative states like fear, 131 anxiety, or frustration (Goumas et al., 2022; Mendl & Paul, 2020; Nelson et al., 2023). A clear example of a direct influence 132 of human activities on affective states is seen in the artificial feeding zones established for macaques in tourist-heavy temple 133 areas. A study on wild male Barbary macaques (Macaca sylvanus) in Morocco found a strong positive correlation between the 134 frequency of aggressive encounters with tourists and an increase in self-scratching behaviour - a well-established indicator 135 of anxiety (Castles et al., 1999; Maestripieri et al., 1992) - as well as elevated faecal glucocorticoid (fGC) levels during the 136 interactions (Maréchal et al., 2011). By contrast, human-induced environmental change may also impact affective states of 137 wild animals more indirectly. Habitat destruction can influence local population density, which in turn affects the likelihood, 138 intensity, and outcomes of aggressive interactions among conspecifics, as well as foraging effort (see Fisher et al. 2021, for 139 how environmental change may impact social interactions). A relevant example comes from a study on ring-tailed lemurs 140 (Lemur catta) in two fragmented forests in Madagascar. Gabriel et al. (2018) found that the population with the highest 141 individual density exhibited elevated fGC metabolite concentrations. These increased stress hormone levels were associated 142 with behavioural factors such as foraging effort, intergroup encounter rate, and intragroup agonism, suggesting heightened

143 social stress due to habitat reduction. However, glucocorticoid levels alone may not be reliable indicators of affective valence

144 (Buwalda et al., 2012). Understanding how animals appraise and respond to human-induced changes through affective states

145 is therefore essential for assessing the broader consequences of anthropogenic activities on animal behaviour and decision-146 making.

147 Animals can use their own and others' affective states as a heuristic and source of information to make decisions 148 (Mendl & Paul, 2020). 'Optimistic' or 'pessimistic' judgements about ambiguous situations, as mentioned earlier for dolphins, 149 are hypothesised to be linked to background affective state with animals in a more negative state being predicted to show 150 more 'pessimistic' decisions (Mendl et al., 2010; Mendl & Paul, 2020). This may have adaptive value, and hence cross-species 151 generality, given that threatening environments are likely to generate negative affective states which can then, in turn, be 152 used by the animal as a heuristic, or Bayesian prior, indicating elevated likelihood of dangerous outcomes and thus promoting 153 cautious (e.g. 'pessimistic') decisions. Such judgement biases have been studied by training animals that one cue predicts a 154 positive outcome (e.g. food) which can be obtained by performing one type of response, whilst a different cue predicts a 155 negative outcome (e.g. no food; noise) that can be avoided using a different type of response (Harding et al., 2004). 156 Ambiguous cues that are intermediate between the training cues are then occasionally presented to see whether the animal 157 demonstrates the response predicting the positive ('optimistic') or negative ('pessimistic') outcome. Studies indicate that, as 158 predicted, animals assumed to be in more positive states generally show more optimistic' judgement biases (Neville et al., 159 2020) and therefore that these biases can be a valuable cognitive marker of animal affective states.

160 Affective states may be coupled with and solidify the process of learning associations between stimuli and their 161 outcomes, for instance in the case of fear learning (Olsson & Phelps, 2007). For example, mobbing or alarm responses of 162 conspecifics, which may reflect and induce negative affective states in mobbers (as described in the example on herring gulls 163 above; Di Giovanni et al., 2022), may be sufficient for some animals, such as blackbirds (Turdus merula), jackdaws (Coloeus 164 monedula), and American crows (Corrus brachyrhynchos) to learn to avoid novel heterospecifics (Cornell et al., 2012; Curio et al., 165 1978; Lee et al., 2019). This may facilitate adaptive responses that allow animals to avoid a novel, potentially threatening 166 situation. Thus, indicators of affective states in others could be used as a way of summarising information about the 167 environment. This may be particularly relevant in changing, uncertain environments and social information may be 168 particularly useful under such circumstances (as seen in the use of "copy when uncertain" social learning strategies - Laland, 169 2004). For example, bumblebees (Bombus terrestris) relied more on social learning when rewards were highly variable (i.e., 170 more uncertain) than when they were not (Smolla et al., 2016). In the case of the example on Barbary macaques mentioned 171 above, using social information about the self-scratching behaviour indicating anxiety of other individuals may allow 172 observers to reduce uncertainty about the situation, and may cause them to become more alert, and thus potentially avoid 173 danger.

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175 2.2. Animals can influence each other's affective states and decision-making in a human-altered world

Not only do animals use social information about others' affective states to make decisions; but perceiving another's state may lead to its direct transmission through emotional contagion: defined as the matching of affective states among individuals (Figure 1; Meyza et al., 2017; see Dezecache et al., 2015 and Pérez-Manrique & Gomila, 2022 for more comprehensive reviews about emotional contagion in animals). This phenomenon, thought to be potentially widespread among (social) vertebrates (Pérez-Manrique & Gomila, 2022), can propagate positive and negative affective states within dyads and groups and is therefore of particular importance for the transmission of social information. Emotional contagion can be underpinned by different mechanisms and sensory modalities. For emotional contagion to arise, animals may use and be influenced by different visual, auditory, olfactory, and tactile, indicators of affective states, and may also integrate information across modalities (Pérez-Manrique & Gomila, 2022 and references therein). For instance, animals may use information obtained from visual stimuli, such as facial expressions (Palagi et al., 2020) or body language (e.g. self-scratching reflecting anxiety) (Castles et al., 1999) but also auditory stimuli, such as the acoustic features of calls (Briefer, 2018).

187 Emotional contagion can have implications for the welfare of social animals (Špinka, 2012). Consequently, 188 investigations into emotional contagion have focused extensively on social animals in captive conditions, particularly in 189 relation to empathy: defined as an affective response to the affective state of another individual (De Waal, 2008; Preston & 190 de Waal, 2002). For example, early studies demonstrated that rats exhibited a fear-like state (characterised by a reluctance to 191 press a lever) in response to distressed conspecifics, whilst more recent works show that rats free conspecifics from restraint, 192 even when given the alternative of a food reward (Ben-Ami Bartal et al., 2011; Church, 1959), suggesting an empathetic 193 response to a conspecific's plight (but see (Silberberg et al., 2014). Using a judgement bias approach, Adriaense et al. (2019) 194 showed that common ravens (Corvus corax) observing conspecifics in an induced negative affective state showed 'pessimistic' 195 responses to ambiguous cues indicating emotional contagion from demonstrator to observer. Emotional contagion has been 196 thought to be the biological basis of empathy, with the latter requiring additional processes related to theory of mind, that 197 is reasoning about others' mental states (De Waal, 2008). Distinguishing emotional empathy from emotional contagion (e.g. 198 behavioural and physiological matching) remains a challenging enterprise (Edgar, Nicol, et al., 2012). Nevertheless, both 199 emotional contagion and empathy-like states may have adaptive value in facilitating efficient transfer of information, for 200 example about threats and opportunities. This could unfold via processes such as social buffering and social stress 201 transmission, which we discuss below.

202 Social buffering and social stress transmission could be viewed as two complementary forms of emotional contagion 203 and information transmission (Brandl et al., 2022; Kikusui et al., 2006; Oliveira & Faustino, 2017). Social buffering occurs 204 when social support provided by social partners attenuates stress responses (Kikusui et al., 2006). This process can occur 205 without consolation (such as physical touch) from a conspecific: that is, simply the presence of a close affiliate is sufficient in eliciting a calming effect (Kikusui et al., 2006). Social buffering has been reported in multiple species, and can be mediated 206 207 through visual, vocal, and olfactory signals (Kiyokawa & Takeuchi, 2017; Peirce et al., 2000; Rukstalis & French, 2005). For 208 example, wild chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii) exhibited lower urinary glucocorticoid levels in response to a natural 209 stressor (such as inter-group encounters) in situations in which they were accompanied by a bonded partner compared to 210 when they were with non-bonded individuals (Wittig et al., 2016). Conversely, social transmission of stress occurs when the 211 state of distress of individuals can elicit a stress response in others (Brandl et al., 2022). For example, when in colonies with 212 stress-exposed individuals, non-stressed exposed zebra finches (Taeniopygia guttata) reduced their movement and strengthened 213 their pair-bonding behaviour but maintained fewer relationships with other group members, indicating stress transmission 214 (Brandl & Farine, 2024). These processes of emotional contagion can also be conceived as a transmission of social 215 information to reduce uncertainty about a given situation, such as to evaluate a potential threat (Oliveira & Faustino, 2017). 216 Uncertainty may arise when an individual is confronted with a situation that could equally likely pose an opportunity and a 217 threat; for instance, whether it is best to approach or retreat from a novel stimulus. Individuals may use social information 218 to compare their own to others' affective states and adjust their behaviour accordingly (Oliveira & Faustino, 2017). An 219 individual may experience fear when faced with a novel stimulus, but other individuals' behaviour may indicate the absence 220 of danger - this social information about others' states could then lead to social buffering of the distressed individual's 221 affective state. For example, wild meerkat (Suricatta suricatta) pups were more likely to incorporate novel foods into their diet 222 if they had previously interacted with experienced adults consuming those foods (Thornton, 2008). The use of social 223 information during decision-making under uncertainty has been shown to increase true positives and decrease false positives, 224 thus enhancing the accuracy of decisions (Wolf et al., 2013). The efficiency of emotional contagion (i.e. social buffering and 225 social stress transmission) may itself be influenced by anthropogenic change. For instance, noise pollution could impact the 226 effectiveness of vocal signals mediating social buffering or the transmission of stress responses (Wong & Candolin, 2024).

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228 2.3. Flexibility in social information use about affective sates to cope with environmental change

229 In the face of rapid human environmental change, using social information about others' affective states may allow 230 animals to exhibit and enhance behavioural flexibility. Some individuals' flexibility may be limited by certain behavioural and 231 cognitive biases (Mendl et al., 2009), such as neophobia and caution in the presence of novel ambiguous stimuli, which are 232 likely linked with a negative affective state. Moreover, the propensity to influence and be influenced by others' affective 233 states may not be equal among individuals. For example, it may depend on factors such as one's own affective state (Leighton 234 et al., 2010). Despite such predispositions, relatively neophobic individuals may expand their behavioural options and 235 flexibility by gathering social information such that they may approach a novel stimulus provided they have learned from 236 other individuals that the stimulus is safe. For example, in wild jackdaws, a corvid species demonstrating high levels of 237 neophobia, risk-taking behaviour towards novel anthropogenic stimuli was contagious, i.e. dependent on the behaviour of 238 others (Greggor et al., 2016). When they encounter novel foods or objects, jackdaws often exhibit wariness, with stereotyped 239 "fear hops" and other behaviours potentially reflecting negative affective states such as anxiety. However, if they observe 240 others interacting with the novel stimuli (potentially without the occurrence of such fear signals), these fear responses are 241 reduced, allowing them to approach and sample the novel stimulus. Therefore, using available social information about 242 others' behaviour and affective states could be particularly adaptive because it allows animals to adjust their knowledge about ambiguous stimuli: thereby facilitating the avoidance of danger and utilisation of new opportunities. 243

244 Social information use of animals may vary in the level of flexibility across the lifespan, for instance due to early-life 245 experiences (Farine et al., 2015). This flexibility may allow animals to use social information more strategically depending on 246 different environmental conditions and past experience (Laland, 2004). For example, some animals may maintain a high 247 level of flexibility throughout their lives, allowing them to switch strategies if conditions change in the short-term. By 248 contrast, individuals may also experience a critical period of flexibility during a certain developmental stage, for example 249 early in life, that may shape their responses in the long-term. Conditions experienced in early life impacting their physiology, 250 affective states, cognition, and behaviour, may thus have short-term or potentially long-lasting effects on social behaviour 251 (Boogert et al., 2014) and social information use (Farine et al., 2015), which may constrain flexibility later in life. For example, 252 zebra finch fledglings that were exposed to an experimental treatment increasing their stress hormone levels were less likely 253 to use social information from their parents than juveniles in a control condition (Farine et al., 2015). Therefore, an early-254 life physiological difference, which may be associated with an altered affective state, could serve as a developmental cue eliciting adaptive behavioural shifts, such as changes in social learning strategies. Higher levels of stress hormones in offspring may be linked to insufficient parental provisioning (Greggor et al., 2017), potentially corresponding to suboptimal information parents might have about the current environment. This in turn could make a shift in social associations and social information use by offspring adaptive. When faced with human-induced rapid environmental change, animals may be more likely to rely on such shifts in social information use.

260 Animals may also use social information about affective states flexibly depending on the socio-ecological context, 261 such as different aspects of human-altered environments or different aspects of their social environment. For example, 262 individuals may have accurate personal information about novel anthropogenic food, but may be more uncertain about 263 potential anthropogenic threats, thus relying more on social information in the latter context. Alternatively, reliance on social 264 information use may vary seasonally, as seen in the study on jackdaws discussed above (Greggor et al., 2016). Individuals 265 may also be flexible in their use of social information about others' affective states depending on the type and quality of their 266 social relationships. For example, hens show marked physiological and behavioural responses to behavioural indicators of 267 affective state in their chicks (Edgar et al., 2011), but not to those from familiar adult conspecifics (Edgar, Paul, et al., 2012). 268 This may indicate constrained flexibility in responding to social information from less closely bonded individuals. For 269 example, when faced with an ambiguous anthropogenic stimulus, an individual's response may be influenced more by the 270 affective state of a closely bonded partner than by the affective states of other individuals. Flexibility in social information 271 use may also be advantageous if some social partners provide more reliable information than others, and individuals may 272 thus benefit from discriminating between different social partners when using social information (social learning strategies: 273 Laland, 2004).

274 Individual variation in flexible social information use could have fitness consequences because being responsive to 275 others' affective states may only be adaptive in certain contexts. It is well understood that, despite being less costly to obtain 276 than individually acquired information, social learning is only adaptive if it is strategic or targeted, allowing animals to avoid 277 acquiring socially transmitted information that is outdated, irrelevant, or dangerous (Giraldeau et al., 2002). Animals can 278 achieve such targeted information acquisition by employing social learning strategies such as "when"- and "who"-strategies 279 that allow them to learn only under specific circumstances (such as when unsuccessful) and from certain individuals (such 280 as successful individuals) (Laland, 2004). Similarly, animals may also be expected to be selective, and potentially flexible, in 281 how susceptible they are to emotional contagion. For instance, being unresponsive to others' affective states could be 282 maladaptive if it means that an individual does not acquire information about the presence of a potential predator (i.e., a 283 "false negative" response). Conversely, unselectively acquiring the affective states others, regardless of their characteristics 284 or identity, could also be maladaptive (e.g. in the case of "false positives"). For instance, it is conceivable that associating 285 with stressed or 'pessimistic' individuals (leading to emotional contagion) may cause one to inappropriately assess risk, 286 resulting in lost opportunities (Brandl et al., 2022). We should therefore expect the affective states of some individuals to be 287 more influential than others and that individuals will vary in their susceptibility to being influenced by others' affective states. 288 For example, one could hypothesise that experience- and age-dependent differences exist in terms of the susceptibility to 289 (being influenced by) false alarms. This is seen in vervet monkeys (Chlorocebus pygerbythrus), where infants are less 290 discriminative in their alarm responses than adults, but infant responses become more adult-like in the presence of their 291 mothers (Seyfarth & Cheney, 1980).

293 2.4. Value and importance of social information use about affective states

As we have highlighted, the use of social information about affective states can influence an individual's wellbeing (synonymous with welfare, of which affective state is a key determinant) and fitness outcomes (i.e. survival and reproduction), and as such, it has applied welfare and conservation consequences. For example, assessing affective states could provide a valuable indicator of a population's overall health, by identifying negative effects of anthropogenic stressors through more nuanced information than measures such as morbidity and mortality. Developing our understanding of how affective states are propagated and buffered can also help to identify species whose social structure may leave them particularly vulnerable or resistant to anthropogenic change: allowing for more targeted welfare and conservation measures. For instance, species which form strict dyads such as pair-bonds may be more susceptible to emotional contagion from their partner than species that form loose associations in larger groups. Conversely, forming strong social bonds may increase resilience by facilitating social buffering. Despite its importance, there remains a paucity of interest in affective states within the field of conservation. We consider this issue in Section 3 and discuss the applied value of considering welfare in the context of conservation.



Figure 1 | Human induced-environmental changes (fig 1a) can generate uncertain situations confronting animals with ambiguous anthropogenic stimuli (fig 1b) that will elicit cognitive and affective responses based on both internal and external cues (fig 1c/e). Those responses may entail social information that can influence others' states and responses (fig 1d). By acting upon such cues, animals can – on the long term- shift their behaviour, physiology or ecology, which can have an influence on the human induced environmental changes themselves (e.g., abandon a site previously occupied Carrete et al., 2007) (fig 1f). Mental states of animals can play a significant role in how they respond to human-induced anthropogenic change. Both cognitive processes and affective states can influence how an animal processes, evaluates, and acts upon information about external anthropogenic stimuli. In some cases, animals' responses to human-

315 induced change may also feedback to influence human behaviour. For example, in Sydney, Australia, wild sulphur-crested cockatoos

316 (Cacatua galerita) have learned to open bins to access food, which led humans to respond with countermeasures. This could potentially

317 lead to an "innovation arms race" between cockatoos and humans (Klump et al., 2022). Jackdaw silhouettes in fig 1d are from *Phylopic*

318 (uploaded by Birgit Lang and Ferran Sayol).

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320 **3** | Applied consequences and implications

321 To date, our concern for the wellbeing of animals has predominantly focused on those under human control (such 322 as companion, agricultural and zoo animals) because of a widespread opinion that wild animals are not our responsibility 323 (Brakes, 2019). Whilst this may seem reasonable because we are less directly involved in influencing their lives, and because 324 they are affected by many other factors beyond our control such as predation and competition between conspecifics, human-325 induced environmental change is now so profound that many wild species are affected by our actions. We therefore have a 326 moral responsibility to better understand our impact on their health and welfare (Brakes, 2019). There are various 327 philosophical and ethical frameworks through which the impact of human activities on wild animal welfare could be 328 evaluated to inform appropriate actions. For example, utilitarian views, which are grounded in the idea that actions should 329 be evaluated based on its consequences, we should maximise greater good and minimise harm. This may be taken to extend 330 to all sentient beings including animals (for a discussion of sentience, see Browning & Birch, 2022). According to this 331 framework, harming sentient beings, for example for the purpose of biomedical research, is acceptable provided the total 332 benefits (e.g. reducing human disease and suffering) outweigh the harms. By contrast, deontological frameworks take a 333 stronger, more abolitionist view, arguing that animals have inherent rights that we have the duty to defend, and that this duty 334 cannot be overridden by specific interests and circumstances. Although some frameworks posit this duty extends to all wild 335 animals, others consider that welfare concerns are mainly pertinent in the context of improving conservation outcomes: for example, interventions aimed at reversing or slowing population decline (Beausoleil et al., 2018; Hecht, 2021). Indeed, current 336 337 research focuses on the global benefits and costs of anthropogenic change, using metrics such as reproductive success, 338 species abundance or distribution and density to gauge stability and resilience of populations (Akçakaya et al., 2018; Harvey 339 et al., 2020). However, one must not confuse stable populations with positive welfare because it is possible to survive and 340 reproduce whilst experiencing incessantly negative affective states (Harvey et al., 2020).

341 Considering wild animal welfare is of particular importance because, as we have discussed, salient information about 342 affective states can influence an individuals' resilience and vulnerability to environmental change (Brakes, 2019). Recent 343 efforts to bridge the gap between global- or population-scale conservation approaches and the individual focus of animal 344 welfare concerns through "conservation welfare" promise a pragmatic way forward (Beausoleil et al., 2018). Harvey et al. 345 (2020) propose a framework to integrate welfare considerations into conservation strategies, tailoring interventions to the 346 specific biotic and abiotic needs of species. In the context of reintroduction and relocation programs, scholars such as Miller 347 et al. (2022) and Logan et al. (2023) promote a more hands-on approach, involving enrichment (i.e., "identifying and 348 providing the environmental stimuli necessary for optimal psychological and physiological wellbeing"; Reading et al., 2013) 349 which has long been a tool used to enhance the welfare of captive animals (e.g. Newberry, 1995; Young, 2003). By combining 350 enrichment with the selection of individuals exhibiting behavioural temperaments or cognitive profiles better suited to the 351 wild environment (e.g., fast learners or those with lower neophobic responses), animals may not only be better cognitively

352 equipped to handle environmental challenges and opportunities upon release but may also experience a more positive 353 affective state by reducing fear and distress. These challenges, for example predation, can occur relatively quickly after the 354 introduction in their new environment. When introduced in a wild environment, individuals are often unable to cope with 355 predation risk as they are unable to recognize and act upon it (Reading et al., 2013). By preparing captive animals to detect 356 and avoid predators, enrichment methods can help reduce unnecessary stress and provide the adequate cognitive tools that 357 will facilitate predation recognition. This has for instance been done by Miller et al. (1990) who confronted captive-raised 358 Siberian polecats (Mustela eversmanni) with a remotely controlled stuffed owl and badger combined with a mild aversive 359 stimulus. The polecats showed an increase in alert behaviour after one single attack. Introducing individuals that are better 360 prepared for the environment could provide social support, enabling conspecifics to interpret affective states more 361 effectively and adapt more successfully to human-altered environments.

362 Evaluating the effectiveness of measures such as these is essential. Whilst conservation biology typically assesses success through long-term population indicators, assessment of individual welfare offers a complementary and more immediate 363 364 evaluation metric. As we have seen, although affective states cannot be directly measured, they can be inferred from 365 behavioural, physiological and cognitive indicators. For instance, thermal imaging has been used to successfully detect 366 physiological stress in wild birds and mammals. This method (which detects reductions in surface body temperature caused 367 by the sympathetic nervous system directing blood to the core during stress) is non-invasive and rapid: changes can be 368 detected in as little as ten seconds (Jerem et al., 2015). Although there are some methodological challenges for its use in 369 nature (such as controlling for ambient temperature), thermal imaging promises to provide a valuable insight into affective 370 responses to novel stimuli, social contagion and social buffering in the wild. As discussed earlier, cognitive techniques such 371 as the measurement of judgement bias have been used to assess affective states in many captive animals including rodents, 372 dogs, primates, dolphins, fish (Burman et al., 2011; Clegg et al., 2017; Lagisz et al., 2020; Neville et al., 2020) and even insects 373 (but note: whether insects experience affective states remains contentious- see Barron & Klein, 2016; Key et al., 2016), and 374 recently an ingenious approach has been used to measure this indicator in free-living fish (Freire & Nicol, 2024). Using the 375 fish's natural attraction to light, their avoidance of predators, and the following stimuli: (a) positive stimulus – light-only; (b) 376 negative stimulus - light and large predator-model; (c) ambiguous stimulus - light and small predator model; the authors 377 were able to run the task without training. They evaluated the number of fish attracted to the different stimuli, and how 378 attraction to the ambiguous stimulus was related to aspects of water quality that may influence fish health and associated 379 affective state (Freire & Nicol, 2024). The study found that fish approached the positive stimulus more than the negative, 380 whilst there was greater avoidance of the ambiguous stimuli as water quality decreased (increased salinity and phosphorus, 381 and lower pH): indicating a negative population-level judgement bias (Freire & Nicol, 2024). By measuring how individuals' 382 affective states are impacted by environmental changes such as an increase in water turbidity, the evaluation of anthropogenic 383 activities' impact is becoming more efficient and can drastically decrease the large-scale negative consequences over 384 populations or even ecosystems.

Not only can these methods allow us to measure affective states in the wild, but their results can provide the information necessary for improving existing welfare interventions. For example, providing supplemental bird feeders in residential gardens is such a popular pastime that it is now a multibillion-dollar industry (Plummer et al., 2019). Although this can be positive for conservation because it can improve the physiological health of individuals, increase local bird populations and engage people with nature (Cox & Gaston, 2016; Plummer et al., 2019; Wilcoxen et al., 2015), little is understood about its 390 impact on individual affective states. For instance, the design of feeders could inadvertently increase stress if they do not 391 allow for social support and buffering. Similarly, the installation of nestboxes has generally proved to be an effective 392 conservation method, particularly in human-altered environments. For example, breeding numbers of storm petrels 393 (Hydrobates pelagicus melitensis) on Benidorm Island, which dwindled due to habitat deterioration, increased greatly following 394 the installation of nestboxes (Libois et al., 2012). However, nestboxes in high densities could negatively impact affective 395 states by intensifying competition, aggression and stress. This seldom considered welfare concern deserves greater 396 investigation, not least because positive affective states have been linked to improved longevity, health and reproductive 397 fitness. Indeed, self-reported 'happy' humans live longer and suffer less morbidity (Diener & Chan, 2011), and negative affective states may also be linked to morbidity and mortality in other animals (see Walker et al., 2012 for a review). For 398 399 example, domestic dogs (Canis lupus familiaris), that exhibited very pronounced fear of strangers lived shorter lives, which 400 may indicate a potential impact of negative affective states on health and longevity. This link also suggests that affective 401 states could be important indicators of and causal factors for the resilience of wild populations in response to anthropogenic 402 change.

403

4 | Conclusion and future directions

404 In this paper, we aimed to synthesise current knowledge on how (wild) animals use their own and others' affective 405 states to cope with human-induced environmental change and highlight important gaps in our understanding. There is still 406 a dearth of research on affective states in wild animals, and their role as sources of social information in response to human-407 altered environments remains largely unexplored. Research on captive animals suggests emotional contagion may be 408 widespread and provides tools to determine the impacts of housing and husbandry on welfare, providing an evidence base 409 for effective interventions. However, little attention has been given to the assessment of affective states in wild animals as a 410 way of evaluating the impact of human-induced environmental change on their welfare, and establishing links between these 411 states and the ability to survive and reproduce. Bridging fundamental research on animal affective states with applied 412 approaches in welfare and conservation will be essential to addressing this knowledge gap. Additionally, technological 413 advances currently used to assess affective states in captive animals could be adapted for wildlife populations, providing 414 novel insights into their welfare and potential to respond adaptively to anthropogenic pressures. Given the growing influence 415 of human activities on natural ecosystems, we strongly encourage future research to prioritise this topic. A deeper 416 understanding of affective states in wildlife will be instrumental in developing more effective conservation strategies that 417 account for both population dynamics and individual wellbeing.

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424 Glossary

Term	Definition	Reference
Affective states	Valanced (that is, positive or negative) mental states which consist of short-term emotions and longer-term moods. Emotions last from seconds to minutes and are caused by a specific event, whilst moods are 'free floating' states not linked to any specific event.	(Mendl & Paul, 2020; Rault et al., 2025)
Appraisal	Inherently transactional process between the individual and the environment, in which the significance of the event must be detected and assessed by the appraiser. Appraisal components allow the evaluation of an event, by combining both the individual's affective state and the momentary environmental conditions as contributing factors to the appraisal process.	(Faustino et al., 2015)
Behavioural flexibility	The ability to modify behaviour in response to changing conditions, a crucial strategy for coping with anthropogenic impacts	(Wolf et al., 2008)
Distress	Negative affective state resulting from a stimulus for which the animal has no adaptive response	(Reading et al., 2013)
Emotional contagion	The matching of perceived affective states among conspecifics.In other words, an individual shifts their own affective state inthe same direction as another's.	(Meyza et al., 2017; Pérez-Manrique & Gomila, 2022; Špinka, 2012)
Empathy	The capacity to be affected by, and share, the perceived (invariably negative) affective state of another individual.	(De Waal, 2008; Preston & de Waal, 2002)
Human-induced environmental change	Refers to the alterations in the natural environment that are primarily caused by human activities. These changes can include various factors such as urbanisation, pollution, climate change, habitat destruction, and the introduction of non-native species.	(Mazza et al., 2020; Sih, 2013)
Judgement bias	Based on insights from human psychology which reveal that alterations in the way one processes information (known as a 'cognitive bias') can be an indicator of whether a person perceives a stimulus as positive or negative. One such cognitive bias is 'judgement bias': whereby self-reported 'happy people' respond more 'optimistically' to an ambiguous stimulus than 'pessimists' who suffer negative affective states. Studies on a range of species have revealed similar trends, and subsequently, the judgement bias task is considered the most validated method of assessing affective states in non-human animals.	(Appleby et al., 2018)

Social information	Information obtained from observing and tracking others'	(Danchin et al., 2004)
	behaviour and interactions with the environment. Social	
	information can be acquired from and about others.	
Stress response	A physiological response to external stimuli that are perceived	(Sapolsky et al., 2000)
	as stressor. Can involve changes in neural and hormonal	
	activity that induce shifts in metabolism to ensure the	
	maintenance of vital functions and the mobilisation of vital	
	resources.	
Uncertainty	A concept from information theory. The probability with	(Shannon, 1948)
	which a prediction can be made given available information.	
	Uncertainty is high when different outcomes of a parameter	
	are equally likely.	
Urban adapter	Refers to a species that has is able to occupy urban	(Shochat et al., 2006)
	environments but can utilise both natural and artificial	
	resources.	
Urban exploiter	Refers to species that thrive in urban environments and become	(Shochat et al., 2006)
	dependent on anthropogenic resources.	
Welfare/Wellbeing	Terms are used interchangeably to describe the quality of an	(Rault et al., 2025)
	animal's subjective experiences.	

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428 **References**

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