

Animal agency can accelerate behavioural and neuroscience research

Cédric Sueur, Sarah Zanaz, Marie Pelé

▶ To cite this version:

Cédric Sueur, Sarah Zanaz, Marie Pelé. Animal agency can accelerate behavioural and neuroscience research. 2021. hal-03299505v2

HAL Id: hal-03299505 https://hal.science/hal-03299505v2

Preprint submitted on 13 Aug 2021 (v2), last revised 14 Sep 2022 (v5)

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

- 1 Animal agency can accelerate behavioural and neuroscience research
- 2 Cédric Sueur^{1,2,3}, Sarah Zanaz^{1,4}, Marie Pelé⁵

3 1 Université de Strasbourg, CNRS, IPHC UMR 7178, Strasbourg, France

- 4 2 Institut Universitaire de France, Paris, France
- 5 3 CEERE Centre Européen d'Enseignement et de Recherche en Ethique, Strasbourg, France
- 6 4 Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras, Puebla
- 7 5 Anthropo-Lab, ETHICS EA7446, Lille Catholic University
- 8 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 9

10 Abstract

11 Despite increasing numbers of publications showing that many animals possess the neural substrates involved in emotions and consciousness, animals are still constrained and forced 12 13 to take part in applied or fundamental research. However, these constraints stress animals and may result in false negatives or false positives. A change is needed in our work paradigm 14 with animals to progress in behavioural and neuroscience research and thus gain access to 15 hitherto inaccessible yet important scientific results. Animals interact in their own ways with 16 17 the world and we need to adopt these ways, i.e. their agency, to perform better research 18 and develop a better understanding of how the brain and behaviour evolve. This paper 19 discusses how animal agency can not only be the key to more wide-ranging and improved research in existing domains, but can also lead to new research questions resulting from our 20 21 anthropocentric view.

22 Keywords: 3Rs, animal research, ethology, ethics, sentience

23 Introduction

24 By definition, animal research requires the involvement of animals. Although researchers have made great progress and improved experimental conditions for animals through 25 application of the 3R rules (replace, reduce, refine), some behavioural experiments showed 26 27 that animals are still forced to enter experimental apparatus through different processes such as throw nets, restraint chairs, cages or food privation. Thirty percent of researchers 28 still continue to use methods that entail negative reinforcement, whilst 70% of procedures 29 using restraint chairs could comprise positive reinforcement methods¹. Beyond the ethical 30 31 issues of such constraints for animals, these examples of experimental set-ups lead us to consider which possibilities and results have yet to be investigated and more importantly, 32 whether such invasive protocols could lead to false negatives or false positives $^{2-5}$. Indeed, 33 stress and contention can not only modify some animal behaviours but also entirely prevent 34 others from being displayed $^{6-8}$. Some authors consider that the current 3R framework is not 35 sufficient to ensure that animals are meaningful participants, which is crucial to guarantee 36 that scientific results are not altered. These contexts offer few meaningful opportunities for 37 38 animals to exercise agency in their relationships, both between each other and with humans⁹. Gillepsie wrote that 'there is a long tradition of studying nonhuman animals in 39 spaces of animal use and exploitation, where researchers and teachers in effect become 40 complicit through passive participation in violence against nonhuman animals...'¹⁰. 41 According to Blattner et al. (2020)⁹ who worked on animal agency in rehomed farm animals 42 and from which this paper is inspired, 'longstanding ideological blinders and anthropocentric 43 bias frame animals as limited beings whose lives unfold according to fixed genetic or species-44 45 specific scripts, rather than as complex subjects who act with intention and purpose, both 46 individually and collectively'. We believe that constraint-based experiments are severely limited in terms of what we can learn from animals, in individual and group contexts. 47

Indeed, increasing numbers of publications show that many animals (mammals, birds and other creatures including octopuses) possess the neural substrates involved in emotions and consciousness ^{11,12}. Rats, primates and pigeons are capable of metacognition, i.e. knowing if they are wrong or right in a test ^{13,14}. Cetaceans and apes are conscious of their own existence, and that of others ¹⁵. Self-awareness was also found in cleaner fishes ^{16,17}. Apes know what their conspecifics know ¹⁸ and believe ¹⁹. Empathy has been observed in apes ²⁰

and in rats ²¹. Finally, some apes have a sense of morality ^{22–24}. Researchers obtained these 54 results by changing their way of thinking from an anthropocentric approach ²⁵ to an 55 acceptance of anthropomorphism ²⁶. For instance, self-awareness was not found in some 56 species when the mirror test was used, but it was found when researchers used the senses 57 of animals, such as the sense of smell for dogs²⁷ or vocalisations in gibbons²⁸. Merleau-58 Ponty had already noted this problem in his Causeries back in 1948: researchers usually do 59 not try to understand animals in their singularity, as they are, but rather in comparison with 60 human beings, projecting essentially human characteristics on to animals²⁹. However, this is 61 a means to measure the distance between human beings and other animals rather than a 62 tool allowing a real understanding of how animals live and express a subjective existence 63 ^{30,31}. Studied in the light of properly human normative references, animals always lack 64 something ²⁹. For as long as animals are studied from a human perspective and are tested in 65 terms of human problems (capacity to count, to draw, to speak a human language) instead 66 of their own questions and problems, they will always respond "as they can"³², without ever 67 being able to fully express their agency. Animals interact with the world in their own ways 68 69 and these ways, i.e. their agency, are precisely what we need to adopt to perform better research and develop a better understanding of how the brain and behaviour evolve. 70

71 Animal agency

Agency is the capacity of an actor to act in a given environment. In the broadest sense, 72 agency is the ability to have an influence or an effect on something. In this sense, the agency 73 is owned by all humans and animals, but also by viruses, stones or tornadoes as explained by 74 Blattner et al. (2020)⁹. However, its focus might be narrower when agency is considered as 75 76 the expression or manifestation of a subjective existence; agency implies affecting the world in ways that reflect a subject's desires or will ³³. It refers to an individual pursuing its own 77 good in its own way ³⁴. Blattner et al. ⁹ investigate animal agency in a sanctuary for formerly 78 farmed animals, considering how a careful exploration of dimensions of agency in this 79 setting might inform ideas of interspecies interactions (work, research, politics, etc.) and 80 ethics. Their study focused on multispecific animals living in a sanctuary. For the owners of 81 the sanctuary and for the study researchers, the sanctuary is an 'integrated multispecies 82 community or society whose members shape spaces and practices together, take on 83 recognised social roles, and create and transmit social norms across species lines'. The 84

85 authors affirmed that we need to spend time in community with animals, to learn from them, and to be prepared to respond and adjust our learning process through relationships 86 with them. This can be extended to scientific research, and means that animals should no 87 longer be considered as the subjects of our experiments, but rather as participants. For 88 example, when it comes to assessing animal intelligence, the researchers' focus should 89 encompass goals that are meaningful, useful and of interest to animals instead of focusing 90 on goals that are only relevant to the human scientist ³⁵. Animals should no longer be seen 91 as objects of knowledge, or mere matter for the act of the human knower, but should rather 92 be granted a status as an *agent* in the production of knowledge ³⁶. Interaction and 93 communication have to go in both directions. We need to make ourselves understandable to 94 95 animals. Of course, this communication would only be possible for some species, such as 96 apes and some monkeys, cetaceans, certain birds including parrots or corvids, social 97 carnivores and cephalopods. However, we need to extend this circle as some other species are surely able to understand our intentions as behavioural or even neuroscientific 98 experiments. When researchers allow too little room for the animals' own forms of agency, 99 the true abilities of these individuals are obscured³⁷. 100

The study of agencies in animals can be divided into four schemes according to Blattner et al.
 (2020) ⁹ (Figure 1):

1. Agency through space and time: animals are mobile and explore/exploit their 103 environments. This exploration and exploitation can be used to better understand 104 105 the behaviours of animals but also their preferences in terms of habitats, sleeping areas and social relationships. Whilst this agency seems obvious for many 106 researchers and is often applied for livestock and farmed animals ^{38–40}, it is rarely 107 108 applied in comparative psychology or neuroscience. Specifically, modifications of the 109 environment can be used to shape animal decisions and can remove some of the negative reinforcement that is still applied to animals. Animals could experience less 110 111 stress in some parts of their environment than others, and carrying out experiments in these places could increase their motivation to participate and decrease the risk of 112 false negatives ^{41,42}. 113

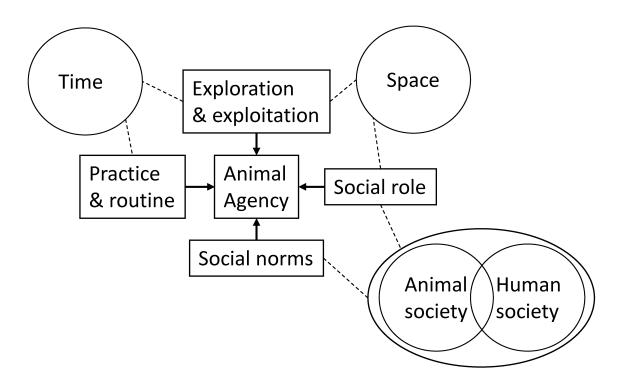
Agency through practice and routine: Animals have habits, even in the wild. Social
 animals collectively organise their day in order to meet their requirements and

maintain the advantages of living in groups ⁴³. Rather than forcing animals to 116 117 participate in experiments, accepting that animals can accept or refuse to participate according to their routine would increase the robustness and viability of results. Any 118 animals that want to be tested seek to use tablets or other interactive apparatus that 119 are based on technologies such as RFID^{44,45}; these tools respect their habits and 120 routines. Medical aspects such as health checks or medical procedures that require 121 constraints and restraints should also be based on these routines to decrease animal 122 stress and injuries, as already shown in their use by zoos. 123

124 3. Agency through social roles: A social role is the behaviour expected of an individual who occupies a given social position or status. Individuals understand the place that 125 conspecifics hold in their society. The adoption of roles that are recognised and 126 acknowledged by others, and indeed mutually constructed with conspecifics, is an 127 important dimension of relational agency and a means by which we can effectively 128 affirm our subjective existence within a community. This role can be intraspecific or 129 interspecific. Roles of individuals inside their group 'have been amply described in 130 131 terms of dominance (policing behaviours, protecting groups), kinship and maternal relationships ⁴⁶. Individuals also develop strong relationships when they share similar 132 133 attributes as sex or age. Group members influence each other, and particularly share knowledge ⁴⁷. Dominant or old individuals can transmit important information to 134 others, and this social transmission can be used to make animals learn how to use 135 136 experimental apparatus or spaces. These individuals can consequently become leaders. Multispecific and positive interactions or associations are also found 137 138 naturally in the wild in situations such as multispecies group protection, interspecies grooming and predator alerts, even if negative interactions (cheating, predating, 139 competition) are also observed. Blattner et al.⁹ described multispecies interactions in 140 the sanctuary for formerly farmed animals. Individuals of specific species adopt 141 different roles with geese, cows or dogs acting as guardians and policers, cows 142 teaching sheep and multispecies friendship and parenting. Multispecific leadership is 143 also described in different reports with geese leading ducks and chickens, and goats 144 leading sheep 48-50. 145

Agency through social norms: Social norms are the customary rules that govern
 behaviour in groups and societies ⁵¹. The previous example of learners and teachers

148 brings us to the subject of social norms. Behavioural rules and social systems are partly genetic in animals but are also transmitted by cultures. In macaques, for 149 instance, species are divided into grades ranging from despotic and aggressive to 150 tolerant and democratic ⁵². However, if an individual from one specific grade is 151 transferred into a group of another grade, it will adopt their behaviours. Many 152 traditions of tool use and social habits have been described in chimpanzees or 153 macaques ⁵³. Although collective decision processes are species-specific, variations 154 are observed between groups of the same species. The roles played by individuals 155 can lead to a strong leadership or the development of a more democratic process 156 such as votes ⁵⁴. Voting systems ⁵⁵ are described in many species, with intentional 157 behaviours and perceptions of the mental states of conspecifics indicating some 158 theory of mind and reinforcing the idea of agency. A sense of community ⁹ seems to 159 exist in chimpanzees and in cetaceans, and indeed many other animals know exactly 160 who belongs or does not belong to their group by recognising the faces or voices of 161 group members. 162



163

164 Figure 1: The four schemes of animal agency (squares) and the environmental factors

165 affecting them (circles)

167 These different instances show that animals have agency over their spatial, temporal and 168 social environment. Animals can therefore be viewed as *agents*; their choice to act has direct consequences on their environment, or they can also resist conditions that do not please 169 them, and act accordingly to change them ⁵⁶. Researchers could use this agency to increase 170 animal welfare and obtain more viable and robust results, whilst extending the scope of 171 behavioural and neuroscience research. Indeed, the great difficulty today is to measure the 172 behaviours or the neuronal activities of aware animals whilst seeking to do so in natural 173 174 conditions: the results of many experiments have been criticised, as the associated captivity, 175 animal microbiota, genetic or behavioural variance of animals made it impossible to allow to reproduce or generalise any results that were unaffected by false negatives or false positives 176 ^{57–59}. Often, in the research process, many of the limitations shown by the animals to date 177 are actually the limitations of the scientific methods, rather than the animals themselves⁶⁰. 178 Similarly, Frans De Waal argues: 'All that most experiments have done thus far is testing the 179 ape's theory of the human mind. We would do better to focus on the ape's theory of the ape 180 mind'²². Following the concept of animal agency, we propose a future research framework 181 182 to work with animals and progress in research.

183 Future research framework

184 We remember some years ago, talking with colleagues in neuroscience or medical research 185 about applying the use of touchscreens in macaques, or suggesting to doctors that studying mouse personality could help to avoid false negatives or false positives. Our interlocutors 186 187 laughed, saying that our suggestions were either unnecessary or impossible. Yet today, these projects have become reality. Touchscreens or joysticks are used to understand cognition 188 and self-agency ⁶¹ in a wide range of species (pigs, macaques, baboons, goats, horses, 189 etc.^{45,62–65}). However, this use is still limited to behavioural studies and should now be 190 extended to neuroscience¹. There is a huge amount of literature describing how animal 191 personality and microbiota can influence results. This success demonstrates the importance 192 of not limiting our imagination about how we could work with animals to obtain new results 193 194 in biological sciences.

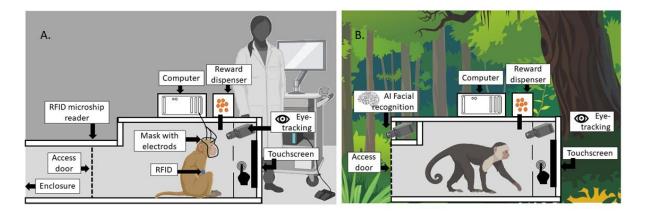
First we need to change our way of thinking to a perspective of working *with* animals rather
than *on* animals. Animals are agents endowed with intentions which transcend traditional
subject-object relations. We need to trust their capabilities in order to increase our research

198 possibilities. Experimental set-ups that restrain animals, such as restraint chairs or food privation, stress animals and prevent them both physically and mentally from fully 199 expressing their agency. This challenge may certainly take time, but would be hugely 200 beneficial. Patter and Blattner⁶⁶ suggest core principles to follow with animals: non-201 maleficence, beneficence and voluntary participation ⁶⁷. Economic or convenience 202 euthanasia of animals should not be an option ^{68,69}. Euthanasia also has a strong impact on 203 the emotions of caretakers ⁷⁰. Positive methods exist and have proved to be efficient ^{6,71–75}. 204 205 The readiness of chimpanzees to voluntarily participate in interactions or allow humans to observe them can facilitate the measurement of embryo development and brain activities in 206 unanesthetized and unrestrained individuals (Figure 2⁴⁴). Unrestrained and voluntary 207 animals can be trained to put their head in a mask ⁷⁶ and be tested whilst receiving fruit 208 juice. This allows the measurement of different metrics with eye tracking ^{19,77,78} and non-209 invasive neuroimaging ⁷⁹ (Figure 3.A). 210



- 212
- 213 e 2: (A) Developmental neuroscience. Fetal brain development in chimpanzees was
- 214 measured by a non-invasive ultrasound technique. (B) EEG recordings in a chimpanzee. The
- 215 chimpanzee quietly sat on the chair and allowed the experimenter to put electrode patches
- on the skin of her forehead and the top of her head. Photos provided with the courtesy of
- 217 Satoshi Hirata.
- 218

219 Traditional approaches involve bringing animals into a lab and restraining them while they perform tasks in order to ensure stable gaze-tracking and neural recordings (in the case of 220 neuroscience). However, this unnatural setting does not permit the study of brain activity 221 during natural, social and complex behaviours. Specific ethical guidelines exist now for 222 research in the wild ^{80,81}. The likely benefits and possible negative effects of our presence 223 224 and field methods on study subjects, their environment and the local human community should, of course, be considered ⁸². New technologies allow us to bring science into the wild 225 226 and test animals in a free condition in their natural environment, thus removing any experimental source of stress and measuring their entire behavioural repertoire. The 227 animals studied can be identified using RFID techniques⁸³ but also via artificial intelligence 228 with the recognition of individuals by videotracking $^{84-86}$. The latter removes the need to 229 230 catch animals. A location can then be defined where different touchscreens deliver food, with activation only for certain species and individuals. We can imagine going beyond the 231 232 use of touchscreens with the implementation of eye-tracking and neuroimaging apparatus in 233 the wild (Figure 3.B). This could open up new research avenues in species that are in danger 234 of extinction or cannot be easily maintained in captivity.



235

Figure 3: (A) Non-invasive neuroimaging and eye-tracking system with voluntary experience in the lab. (B) Non-invasive touchscreen system with voluntary engagement and individual identification in the wild. This figure was realized using FAVPNG.com and Biorender.

239

Some research, and especially the biomedical or physiological/cellular domains, cannot be
 performed outside the research structure. It is important for these experiments to respect
 the 3Rs but also to think about the Bateson cube ⁸⁷, meaning that scientists need to evaluate

243 the ethical acceptability of their research for society as a whole, including animals. The 3Rs can be extended by testing animals in viable conditions. Indeed, lab conditions were 244 standardised for many years in terms of animal genetics, husbandry, food for study 245 comparison and repeatability. However, this way of doing research is criticised today as 246 animals are agents interacting with their world, and the lab conditions in which they live 247 have a strong effect on them and thus on scientific results. Moreover, it is difficult to 248 replicate similar conditions in the laboratory, as even animals that are genetically similar and 249 live in similar environments develop different personalities ⁸⁸. Moreover, even if animals are 250 living in similar conditions, similar food and litter sources affect their microbiota ^{89–91} and 251 their behaviours differently ⁹². Animal sociality was long forgotten in neuroscience or 252 biomedical research, but it is an important part of animal agency ⁹. Indeed, sociality has an 253 important impact on the health of animals, and a great number of publications highlight the 254 link between sociality and health ageing ^{93–95}. Making use of the sociality of animals, i.e. their 255 agency, can even reverse cognitive decline and extend longevity ^{96–98}. 256

257 Conclusion

258 There is still much progress to be made to attain a more compassionate, less stressful and 259 more robust animal research model. This requires training and teaching researchers to adopt 260 new methods including animal agency and change their view of the role animals play in research. As Jacques Derrida wrote in The Animal That Therefore I Am, the traditional 261 scientific and philosophical discourse on animals observes and speaks of non-human animals 262 but never really engages with, experiments with or gains experience with the latter ⁹⁹: this 263 264 type of discourse can therefore only position animals as mere passive objects of the theoretical knowledge these disciplines build. Such methods are completely blind to the 265 animals' own processes of interacting with their world ⁹⁹, and are completely blind to their 266 agency. This view of animals as objects is not limited to research but is also found in 267 different aspects of everyday life (food, work, clothing, etc.). Researchers worldwide must 268 have the conviction that ethical animal research must consider individuals as subjects of 269 270 their own life and of their own world, and as co-creators of knowledge. Accepting this cocreation of knowledge can create new research questions from our anthropocentric view, as 271 animal cognition dimensions are different from ours²⁵. Animals are agents in our research. 272 273 They are active in the research process and some researchers have even gone so far as to

add them in the acknowledgments or even list them as co-authors ^{66,100}. This recognition of 274 animals as agents rather than objects is not approved of by some researchers, who consider 275 that this is tantamount to removing animal agency, committing over-anthropomorphism and 276 overstepping the will of animals to cooperate. Acknowledging animal agency could facilitate 277 social acceptance of animal research ⁶⁷ and be of benefit to the animals concerned (well-278 being through learning, creating and participating¹⁰¹). The consideration of animals as agents 279 could be extended from research to other domains: a new ontology considering non-human 280 281 animals as agents can have political, ethical and legal consequences. The concept of capital 282 applied to animals needs to be extended to social capital, ecological capital and cultural capital ¹⁰²: we can learn from animals and they can be part of our societies ¹⁰³. This new way 283 of viewing animal agency can therefore raise critical ethical questions in regard to the 284 285 treatment of animals in research and to the place we grant them politically in our social world. 286

287

288

292

289 References

2.

- McMillan, J. L., Bloomsmith, M. A. & Prescott, M. J. An International Survey of Approaches to
 Chair Restraint of Nonhuman Primates. *Comp. Med.* 67, 442–451 (2017).
- 293 monkeys after learning precise visual-proprioceptive association for mirror images. *Proc. Natl.*294 *Acad. Sci.* **114**, 3258–3263 (2017).

Chang, L., Zhang, S., Poo, M. & Gong, N. Spontaneous expression of mirror self-recognition in

- Huttunen, A. W., Adams, G. K. & Platt, M. L. Can self-awareness be taught? Monkeys pass the
 mirror test—again. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **114**, 3281–3283 (2017).
- 4. Liu, X., Liu, T. & Huang, X. Commentary: Spontaneous expression of mirror self-recognition in
- 298 monkeys after learning precise visual-proprioceptive association for mirror images. *Front.*
- 299 *Psychol.* **8**, 1151 (2017).
- 300 5. Ueno, H. *et al.* Behavioural Changes in Mice after Getting Accustomed to the Mirror. *Behav.*
- 301 *Neurol.* **2020**, (2020).

- 302 6. Prescott, M. J. Online resources for improving the care and use of non-human primates in
 303 research. *Primate Biol.* **3**, 33 (2016).
- 304 7. Mason, S. *et al.* Effective chair training methods for neuroscience research involving rhesus
 305 macaques (Macaca mulatta). *J. Neurosci. Methods* **317**, 82–93 (2019).
- 306 8. Lecorps, B., Weary, D. M. & von Keyserlingk, M. A. G. Captivity-Induced Depression in Animals.
- 307 *Trends Cogn. Sci.* (2021) doi:10.1016/j.tics.2021.03.010.
- 308 9. Blattner, C. E., Donaldson, S. & Wilcox, R. Animal Agency in Community. *Polit. Anim.* 6, 1–22
 309 (2020).
- 10. Gillespie, K. A. For a politicized multispecies ethnography. *Polit. Anim.* **5**, 17–32 (2019).
- 11. Low, P. *et al.* The Cambridge declaration on consciousness. in 1–2 (2012).
- 12. Ben-Haim, M. S. *et al.* Disentangling perceptual awareness from nonconscious processing in
- 313 rhesus monkeys (Macaca mulatta). *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **118**, (2021).
- 13. Le Neindre, P. *et al.* Animal consciousness. Summary of the multidisciplinary assessment. (2017).
- 14. Le Neindre, P., Dunier, M., Larrère, R. & Prunet, P. *La conscience des animaux*. (Quae, 2018).
- 15. Gallup Jr, G. G., Anderson, J. R. & Shillito, D. J. The mirror test. *Cogn. Anim. Empir. Theor.*
- 317 Perspect. Anim. Cogn. 325–333 (2002).
- de Waal, F. B. Fish, mirrors, and a gradualist perspective on self-awareness. *PLoS Biol.* 17,
 e3000112 (2019).
- 320 17. Kohda, M. *et al.* If a fish can pass the mark test, what are the implications for consciousness and
 321 self-awareness testing in animals? *PLoS Biol.* **17**, e3000021 (2019).
- 322 18. Kaminski, J., Call, J. & Tomasello, M. Chimpanzees know what others know, but not what they
- 323 believe. *Cognition* **109**, 224–234 (2008).
- 19. Krupenye, C., Kano, F., Hirata, S., Call, J. & Tomasello, M. Great apes anticipate that other
- individuals will act according to false beliefs. *Science* **354**, 110–114 (2016).
- 326 20. De Waal, F. B. The antiquity of empathy. *Science* **336**, 874–876 (2012).

- Bartal, I. B.-A., Decety, J. & Mason, P. Empathy and pro-social behavior in rats. *Science* 334,
 1427–1430 (2011).
- 329 22. De Waal, F. "Morally Evolved.". Primates Philos. Moral. Evolved 1–80 (2006).
- 330 23. Jensen, K., Call, J. & Tomasello, M. Chimpanzees are vengeful but not spiteful. *Proc. Natl. Acad.* 331 *Sci.* **104**, 13046–13050 (2007).
- 332 24. Tomasello, M. & Vaish, A. Origins of human cooperation and morality. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* 64,
 333 231–255 (2013).
- Birch, J., Schnell, A. K. & Clayton, N. S. Dimensions of animal consciousness. *Trends Cogn. Sci.*(2020).
- 336 26. Griffin, D. R. *Animal minds: Beyond cognition to consciousness*. (University of Chicago Press,
 337 2013).
- 27. Cazzolla Gatti, R. Self-consciousness: Beyond the looking-glass and what dogs found there. *Ethol. Ecol. Evol.* 28, 232–240 (2016).
- 340 28. D'Agostino, J., Pasetta, C. & Reichard, U. Preliminary results of a vocal self-recognition test in
- 341 northern white-cheeked gibbons (Nomascus leucogenys). in vol. 162 157–157 (WILEY 111
- 342 RIVER ST, HOBOKEN 07030-5774, NJ USA, 2017).
- 343 29. Merleau-Ponty, M. *Causeries 1948*. (Média Diffusion, 2017).
- 344 30. Sueur, C. & Pelé, M. Editorial: Anthropomorphism, between merits and demerits. Lett. CEERE
- 345 *Cent. Eur. Enseign. Rech. En Ethique* **107**, 1 (2017).
- 346 31. Sueur, C., Forin-Wiart, M.-A. & Pelé, M. Do They Really Try to Save Their Buddy?
- 347 Anthropomorphism about Animal Epimeletic Behaviours. (2020)
- 348 doi:10.20944/preprints202008.0711.v1.
- 349 32. Canguilhem, G. La connaissance de la vie. (Vrin, 1992).
- 350 33. Krause, S. R. Beyond non-domination: Agency, inequality and the meaning of freedom. *Philos.*
- 351 Soc. Crit. **39**, 187–208 (2013).

352 34. Taylor, P. W. *Respect for nature: A theory of environmental ethics*. (Princeton University Press,

353 2011).

354 35. Pepperberg, I. M. Intelligence and rationality in parrots. (2006).

- 355 36. Haraway, D. J. Primate visions: Gender, race, and nature in the world of modern science.
- 356 (Psychology Press, 1989).
- 357 37. McFarland, S. E. & Hediger, R. *Animals and agency: An interdisciplinary exploration*. vol. 8 (Brill,
 358 2009).
- 359 38. Bouissou, M.-F., Boissy, A., Le Neindre, P. & Veissier, I. The social behaviour of cattle. *Soc.*360 *Behav. Farm Anim.* 113–145 (2001).
- 361 39. Scanes, C. G. Animal Agriculture: Livestock, Poultry, and Fish Aquaculture. Animals and Human
- 362 *Society* 179 (Elsevier Inc., 2018). doi:10.1016/b978-0-12-805247-1.00007-1.
- 363 40. Sosa, S. O. *et al.* Impact of Group Management and Transfer on Individual Sociality in Highland
 364 Cattle (Bos taurus). *Front. Vet. Sci.* 6, 183 (2019).
- 365 41. Coe, J. & Hoy, J. Choice, control and computers: Empowering wildlife in human care.

366 *Multimodal Technol. Interact.* **4**, 92 (2020).

- 42. Matsuzawa, T. WISH cages: constructing multiple habitats for captive chimpanzees. (2020).
- 43. Sueur, C. A Non-Lévy Random Walk in Chacma Baboons: What Does It Mean? *PLoS ONE* **6**,

369 e16131 (2011).

- 44. Matsuzawa, T. Evolution of the brain and social behavior in chimpanzees. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*371 **23**, 443–449 (2013).
- 45. Claidière, N., Gullstrand, J., Latouche, A. & Fagot, J. Using Automated Learning Devices for
- 373 Monkeys (ALDM) to study social networks. *Behav. Res. Methods* 49, 24–34 (2017).
- 46. Krause, J. & Ruxton, G. D. *Living in groups*. (Oxford University Press, 2002).
- 47. Duboscq, J., Romano, V., MacIntosh, A. & Sueur, C. Social Information Transmission in Animals:

376 Lessons from Studies of Diffusion. *Front. Psychol.* **7**, (2016).

48. Baratay, E. *Bêtes de somme-Des animaux au service des hommes*. (Points, 2011).

- 49. Baratay, É. Pour une histoire éthologique et une éthologie historique. *Etudes Rural.* **189**, 91–
- 379 106 (2012).
- 380 50. Baratay, E. *Biographies animales. Des vies retrouvées*. (Le Seuil, 2017).
- 381 51. Bicchieri, C. & Muldoon, R. Social norms. (2011).
- 382 52. Thierry, B. Unity in diversity: Lessons from macaque societies. *Evol. Anthropol. Issues News Rev.*
- **16**, 224–238 (2007).
- Laland, K. N. & Hoppitt, W. Do animals have culture? *Evol. Anthropol. Issues News Rev.* 12, 150–
 159 (2003).
- 386 54. King, A. J. & Sueur, C. Where Next? Group Coordination and Collective Decision Making by
- 387 Primates. Int. J. Primatol. **32**, 1245–1267 (2011).
- 388 55. Pennisi, A. & Giallongo, L. Animal Biopolitics: How Animals Vote. *Int. J. Semiot. Law-Rev. Int.*389 Sémiot. Jurid. **31**, 491–499 (2018).
- 390 56. Carter, B. & Charles, N. Animals, agency and resistance. *J. Theory Soc. Behav.* 43, 322–340
 391 (2013).
- 392 57. Rader, K. Making Mice: Standardizing Animals for American Biomedical Research, 1900-1955.
- 393 (Princeton University Press, 2004).
- 394 58. Barbee, R. W. & Turner, P. V. Incorporating Laboratory Animal Science into Responsible
- Biomedical Research. *ILAR J.* **60**, 9–16 (2019).
- 396 59. Voelkl, B. *et al.* Reproducibility of animal research in light of biological variation. *Nat. Rev.*397 *Neurosci.* 21, 384–393 (2020).
- 398 60. Savage-Rumbaugh, E. S., Rumbaugh, D. M. & Fields, W. M. Language as a window on rationality.
 399 (2006).
- 400 61. Kaneko, T. & Tomonaga, M. The perception of self-agency in chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes).
 401 *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* 278, 3694–3702 (2011).
- 402 62. Zeagler, C., Gilliland, S., Freil, L., Starner, T. & Jackson, M. Going to the dogs: towards an
- 403 interactive touchscreen interface for working dogs. in 497–507 (2014).

- 404 63. Tomonaga, M. *et al.* A horse's eye view: size and shape discrimination compared with other
 405 mammals. *Biol. Lett.* 11, 20150701 (2015).
- 406 64. Jacobson, S. L., Kwiatt, A. C., Ross, S. R. & Cronin, K. A. The effects of cognitive testing on the
- 407 welfare of zoo-housed Japanese macaques (Macaca fuscata). *Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.* 212, 90–
 408 97 (2019).
- 409 65. Croney, C. C. & Boysen, S. T. Acquisition of a Joystick-Operated Video Task by Pigs (Sus scrofa).
 410 *Front. Psychol.* 12, (2021).
- 411 66. Patter, L. E. V. & Blattner, C. Advancing Ethical Principles for Non-Invasive, Respectful Research
 412 with Nonhuman Animal Participants. *Soc. Anim.* 28, 171–190 (2020).
- 413 67. Webb, C. E., Woodford, P. & Huchard, E. Animal ethics and behavioral science: An overdue
- 414 discussion. *BioScience* **69**, 778–788 (2019).
- 415 68. Hayashi, M., Sakuraba, Y., Watanabe, S., Kaneko, A. & Matsuzawa, T. Behavioral recovery from
 416 tetraparesis in a captive chimpanzee. *Primates* 54, 237–243 (2013).
- 417 69. Matsuzawa, T. Euthanasia is not an option: 10 years' care of a chimpanzee with acute
- 418 tetraparesis. (2016).
- 419 70. Coleman, K. Caring for non-human primates in biomedical research facilities: scientific, moral
- 420 and emotional considerations. *Am. J. Primatol.* **73**, 220–225 (2011).
- 421 71. Laule, G. E., Bloomsmith, M. A. & Schapiro, S. J. The Use of Positive Reinforcement Training
- 422 Techniques to Enhance the Care, Management, and Welfare of Primates in the Laboratory. J.
- 423 Appl. Anim. Welf. Sci. 6, 163 (2003).
- 424 72. Prescott, M. J. & Buchanan-Smith, H. M. Training nonhuman primates using positive
- 425 reinforcement techniques. J. Appl. Anim. Welf. Sci. 6, 157–161 (2003).
- 426 73. Prescott, M. & Buchanan-Smith, H. Training laboratory-housed non-human primates, part I: a
- 427 UK survey. Anim. Welf.-POTTERS BAR THEN WHEATHAMPSTEAD- 16, 21 (2007).

- 428 74. Schapiro, S. J., Bloomsmith, M. A. & Laule, G. E. Positive Reinforcement Training As a Technique
 429 to Alter Nonhuman Primate Behavior: Quantitative Assessments of Effectiveness. *J. Appl. Anim.*430 *Welf. Sci.* 6, 175 (2003).
- 431 75. Prescott, M. J. et al. Refinement of the use of food and fluid control as motivational tools for
- 432 macaques used in behavioural neuroscience research: report of a Working Group of the NC3Rs.
- 433 *J. Neurosci. Methods* **193**, 167–188 (2010).
- 434 76. Slater, H. et al. Individually customisable non-invasive head immobilisation system for non-
- 435 human primates with an option for voluntary engagement. *J. Neurosci. Methods* **269**, 46–60
- 436 (2016).
- 437 77. Machado, C. J. & Nelson, E. E. Eye-tracking with nonhuman primates is now more accessible
 438 than ever before. *Am. J. Primatol.* **73**, 562–569 (2011).
- 439 78. Ryan, A. M. *et al.* Non-invasive Eye Tracking Methods for New World and Old World Monkeys.
 440 *Front. Behav. Neurosci.* 13, (2019).
- 441 79. Basso, M. A. *et al.* Using non-invasive neuroimaging to enhance the care, well-being and
- 442 experimental outcomes of laboratory non-human primates (monkeys). *NeuroImage* 228,
- 443 117667 (2021).
- 444 80. Costello, M. *et al.* Field work ethics in biological research. (2016).
- 445 81. Soulsbury, C. D. *et al.* The welfare and ethics of research involving wild animals: A primer.
- 446 *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **11**, 1164–1181 (2020).
- 447 82. MacKinnon, K. C. & Riley, E. P. Field primatology of today: current ethical issues. (2010).
- 448 83. Fehlmann, G. & King, A. J. Bio-logging. *Curr. Biol.* **26**, R830–R831 (2016).
- 449 84. Schofield, D. *et al.* Chimpanzee face recognition from videos in the wild using deep learning. *Sci.*
- 450 *Adv.* **5**, eaaw0736 (2019).
- 451 85. Ferreira, A. C. *et al.* Deep learning-based methods for individual recognition in small birds.
- 452 *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **11**, 1072–1085 (2020).

453 86. Poirotte, C. & Charpentier, M. J. E. Unconditional care from close maternal kin in the face of

454 parasites. *Biol. Lett.* **16**, 20190869 (2020).

87. Bout, H. J., van Vlissingen, J. M. F. & Karssing, E. D. Evaluating the ethical acceptability of animal
research. *Lab Anim.* 43, 411–414 (2014).

457 88. Bierbach, D., Laskowski, K. L. & Wolf, M. Behavioural individuality in clonal fish arises despite

458 near-identical rearing conditions. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 15361 (2017).

- 89. Bradford, M. A., Tordoff, G. M., Eggers, T., Jones, T. H. & Newington, J. E. Microbiota, fauna,
 and mesh size interactions in litter decomposition. *Oikos* 99, 317–323 (2002).
- 461 90. McCoy, K. D., Geuking, M. B. & Ronchi, F. Gut Microbiome Standardization in Control and

462 Experimental Mice. *Curr. Protoc. Immunol.* **117**, 23.1.1-23.1.13 (2017).

- 463 91. Xiang, Q. *et al.* Effects of diet on gut microbiota of soil collembolans. *Sci. Total Environ.* 676,
 464 197–205 (2019).
- 465 92. Montiel-Castro, A. J., González-Cervantes, R. M., Bravo-Ruiseco, G. & Pacheco-López, G. The
 466 microbiota-gut-brain axis: neurobehavioral correlates, health and sociality. *Front. Integr.*

467 *Neurosci.* **7**, 70 (2013).

- Boyer, F., Jaouen, F. & El Chérif Ibrahim, E. G. Deficits in social behavior precede cognitive
 decline in middle-aged mice. *Front. Behav. Neurosci.* 13, (2019).
- 470 94. Rosati, A. G. et al. Social selectivity in aging wild chimpanzees. Science **370**, 473–476 (2020).
- 471 95. Lacreuse, A., Raz, N., Schmidtke, D., Hopkins, W. D. & Herndon, J. G. Age-related decline in
- 472 executive function as a hallmark of cognitive ageing in primates: an overview of cognitive and
- 473 neurobiological studies. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* **375**, 20190618 (2020).
- 474 96. Baker, N., Wolschin, F. & Amdam, G. V. Age-related learning deficits can be reversible in
- 475 honeybees Apis mellifera. *Exp. Gerontol.* **47**, 764–772 (2012).
- 476 97. Richardson, T. O. *et al.* Ant Behavioral Maturation Is Mediated by a Stochastic Transition
- 477 between Two Fundamental States. *Curr. Biol.* **30**, 1–8 (2020).

478 98. Wild, B. *et al.* Social networks predict the life and death of honey bees. *Nat. Commun.* **12**, 1–12

479 (2021).

480 99. Derrida, J. *The animal that therefore I am*. (Fordham Univ Press, 2008).

- 481 100. Savage-Rumbaugh, S., Wamba, K., Wamba, P. & Wamba, N. Welfare of Apes in Captive
- 482 Environments: Comments On, and By, a Specific Group of Apes. J. Appl. Anim. Welf. Sci. 10, 7–
- 483 19 (2007).
- 484 101. Franks, B., Webb, C., Gagliano, M. & Smuts, B. Conventional science will not do justice to
- 485 nonhuman interests: A fresh approach is required. *Anim. Sentience* **4**, 17 (2020).
- 486 102. Pelé, M., Georges, J.-Y., Matsuzawa, T. & Sueur, C. Editorial: Perceptions of Human-Animal
- 487 Relationships and Their Impacts on Animal Ethics, Law and Research. *Front. Psychol.* **11**, (2021).
- 488 103. Donaldson, S. & Kymlicka, W. *Zoopolis: A political theory of animal rights*. (Oxford University

489 Press, 2011).

490