1	Title (up to 8 words)
2	Primates pass dynamically social anticipatory-looking false belief tests
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22 Three recent studies have shown that nonhuman apes and macaques pass anticipatory-looking (AL) 23 false-belief (FB) tests [1-3], inspired by seminal work with humans [e.g. 4]. These results raise the 24 possibility that both apes and monkeys understand that others' actions are driven not by reality but by 25 beliefs about reality, even when those beliefs are false. In response, Horschler, MacLean, and Santos 26 [5] argued that these findings 'should be interpreted cautiously due to methodological and theoretical 27 challenges paralleling trends in the human literature.' We agree that continued work is necessary to 28 identify factors that influence reproducibility of AL paradigms, and also to specify the mechanisms 29 and functions of the observed behaviors in primates. However, inferences from the human literature 30 (summarized in [5]) should be made with caution because key nonhuman results have largely been 31 replicated and extended across different groups and species [1-3], so far providing a different picture 32 from more variably replicable human studies. Moreover, nonhuman studies retain only the conceptual 33 design of human paradigms with various improvements and optimization for nonhuman primates (Box 34 1). What we see as the more pressing—but potentially interwoven—matter is resolving discrepancies 35 among comparative findings: apes and monkeys have passed AL-FB tests (visually anticipating that 36 an agent would search for an object where she falsely believed it to be) but monkeys have not 37 succeeded in violation-of-expectation (VoE) FB paradigms [e.g. 6] (they do not look longer when an 38 agent's search is inconsistent with her FBs). Below, we spotlight crucial methodological differences 39 that may explain the unique success of nonhuman AL paradigms. In concluding, we discuss adaptive 40 significance and future directions.

Departing from most human AL paradigms and from nonhuman VoE studies, nonhuman AL tasks have embedded FB content within dynamic social interactions with intuitive action goals (e.g., agent seeks a competitor or contested object). Stimuli were crafted to motivate social primates to closely track agents' interactions and understand agents' goals. Agents' approach or reaching actions were designed to appear natural and goal-directed, to evoke spontaneous anticipatory-looking to proximal action targets. Notably, in the absence of such dynamic social stimuli, apes do not reliably anticipate agents' actions [7, 8] (but see diverse stimuli in [3]). Moreover, among the most replicable 48 human AL studies are those that promote understanding and action-anticipation through verbal story-49 telling and anticipation-prompting questions [9]. We suggest that nonverbal equivalents, such as 50 familiar stories and anticipation-prompting scene configurations (e.g. Tom-and-Jerry, Y-shaped tunnel; 51 [10]) accomplish the same. Including these elements in nonhuman VoE studies may also improve 52 performance. Working in free-ranging settings, nonhuman VoE studies have employed relatively 53 simplistic live-acted events, but high rates of distraction may indicate shallower engagement with 54 these stimuli. Although these paradigms have demonstrated standard true-belief (TB) phenomena, it 55 is possible that only the most engaging and motivating stimuli can reveal primates' (including 56 humans') full range of capacities.

57 VoE and AL both offer powerful and complementary nonverbal methods for tapping, under 58 minimal task demands, what we suspect are largely the same socio-cognitive phenomena. However, 59 procedural differences also exist: whereas VoE uses general, reactive metrics (attention to displayed 60 outcomes), AL uses specific, proactive ones (anticipatory gaze to action targets). AL tasks often 61 remove the goal object before the agent seeks it, reducing cognitive demands while precluding a reality 62 bias. Proactive/targeted looks and object removal also control for the possibility that participants 63 expect random error or uncertainty from the agent by attributing ignorance rather than belief. 64 Accordingly, AL uses two FB conditions to prompt distinct patterns of anticipation, akin to VoE TB-65 FB designs (but note TB-FB comparisons: [2]). It remains an open question whether these procedural 66 differences influenced nonhuman findings.

67 Importantly, AL but not VoE allows direct observation of online action anticipation, which 68 hints at inherent functional advantage in social interaction. Relatedly, we think it unlikely that primates' 69 FB-related capacities are entirely implicit (lacking expression beyond eye-movements). Actionable 70 FB understanding may have been obscured by the repeated use of a single context (food-competition) 71 in previous ape studies [11], where FB-consistent performance could not be dissociated from 72 knowledge-ignorance interpretations. Note that departure from that paradigm has provided evidence 73 for such dissociation in an action-based task [12]. Critically, to date, researchers have been unable to 74 test FB understanding in other fitness-relevant contexts (e.g., severe aggression, mating, infant

75 survival) because they are challenging to capture experimentally (although AL allows closer 76 reproduction of some related contexts). Yet, it might be in those scenarios - confronting agents 77 engaged in risky social interactions with important fitness consequences - that FB understanding is 78 most reliably expressed. Future work must further explore action-based, VoE, and AL paradigms, the 79 design and contextual factors that shape performance and replicability, and the mechanisms by which 80 primates pass FB tests. Only with this combination of efforts-and careful experimental control of 81 competing influences on behavior (including gaze)-will we be able to fully characterize the 82 representations and processes that support primate social cognition.

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88 Box 1. Methodological differences between nonhuman and human AL-FB studies

89 Nonhuman AL-FB studies were optimized for nonhuman primates, and improved based on criticism 90 of original human AL designs, by 1) counterbalancing the side in which key events occurred during 91 familiarization and test [1-3]; 2) adopting multi-scenario/trial designs to stabilize within-individual 92 response variation [1, 3] (note that comparing individual differences across studies is therefore more 93 meaningful than doing so within studies); 3) using short movies involving dynamic social interactions 94 [1-3] and a training procedure [3] to maintain attention and engagement; 4) using familiar props (e.g. 95 haystack, metal mesh, stone, door) and intuitive scenarios to aid nonhuman participants' understanding 96 of characters' actions and goals [1-3]; 5) presenting natural reaching and approach scenes that evoke 97 anticipatory looking to proximal targets; and 6) using challenging conditions (e.g., FB2) with fewer 98 low-level explanations in all tests [1-3]. It remains untested whether some of these changes could 99 improve replicability in human AL-FB studies. Moreover, some parameters, such as optimal analysis 100 windows of anticipatory looks (first looks and total looking duration), could be further evaluated in 101 future human and nonhuman AL-FB tasks-although this should be optimized in each task, rather 102 than simply standardized across tasks, because cognitive demands vary across tasks (e.g. [1, 2]).

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