

1 **Differential neural activity patterns mediate learning across contexts in a social cichlid fish**  
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39 **Abstract**

40 Learning and decision-making are greatly influenced by the social context surrounding  
41 individuals. When navigating a complex social world, individuals must quickly ascertain where  
42 to gain important resources and which group members are useful sources of such information.  
43 Such dynamic behavioral processes require neural mechanisms that are flexible across contexts.  
44 Here we examined how the social context influences the learning response during a visual cue  
45 discrimination task and the neural activity patterns that underlie acquisition of this novel  
46 information. Using the cichlid fish, *Astatotilapia burtoni*, we show that learning of the task is  
47 faster in social groups than in a non-social context. We quantified the expression of Fos, an  
48 immediate-early gene, across candidate brain regions known to play a role in social behavior and  
49 learning, such as the putative teleost homologues of the mammalian hippocampus, basolateral  
50 amygdala, and medial amygdala/BNST complex. We found that neural activity patterns differ  
51 between social and non-social contexts. Our results suggest that while the same brain regions  
52 may be involved in the learning of a discrimination task independent of social context, activity in  
53 each region encodes specific aspects of the task based on context.

## 54      **Introduction**

55              For group-living species, social interactions provide a key source of information that can  
56              greatly impact the fitness and well-being of individual group members. It is commonly assumed  
57              that learning from others, or *social learning*, is inherently adaptive as it allows individuals to  
58              avoid costs associated with learning by themselves, or *non-socially* [1]. The benefits of social  
59              learning allow individuals to gain information from conspecifics, such as to which foods to eat,  
60              which routes to take to feeding locations, and how to escape from predators [2]. These wide-  
61              ranging behaviors have been studied across species, such as in instances of socially transmitted  
62              food preferences [3, 4], social learning of certain skills [5, 6, 7], mate preference learning  
63              [reviewed in 8], predator avoidance [9], and fear transmission [10, reviewed in 11]. The  
64              behavioral mechanisms that underlie these behaviors are diverse, ranging from stimulus  
65              enhancement (when another individual draws the observer's attention to a particular stimulus or  
66              object) to observational learning [12, 13, 14], allowing animals to acquire new information  
67              important for their survival and which can incidentally be transmitted to conspecifics [15, 16, 17,  
68              18]. While a lot is known about the neural basis of learning in non-social contexts [reviewed in  
69              19], few studies have examined whether and how these mechanisms might operate in the context  
70              of social learning.

71              Studies in rodents and songbirds have expanded our understanding of the neurobiological  
72              mechanisms that mediate social learning, such as the brain regions that are important for  
73              acquisition and maintenance of socially-transmitted food preferences in rats [reviewed in 20].  
74              Subregions of the hippocampus (specifically, the subiculum and dentate gyrus) have been shown  
75              to be critical for the retention of socially acquired food preferences [21-23]. Social learning of

76 fear has been found to be also modulated in part by the lateral nucleus of the amygdala in both  
77 rhesus monkeys and humans [11, 24].

78 At the molecular level, social learning requires neural activity-dependent changes in gene  
79 expression, much like long-lasting alterations in the strength of synaptic connectivity important  
80 for associative learning [25, 26]. Activation of immediate early genes (IEGs) is a critical  
81 mediator in this process [27, 28]. Previous studies in rodents have shown that IEGs such as *cfos*  
82 are expressed following acquisition and consolidation of associative learning [29 – 32]. In  
83 addition, rats trained on a test of social transmission of food preference show greater *cfos*  
84 expression in subregions of the hippocampus in a time-dependent manner [29, 30]. The medial  
85 amygdala plays a key role in mouse social cognition, as oxytocin receptors in this region are  
86 essential for recognizing familiar conspecifics [33]. In songbirds, differential Fos expression has  
87 been shown to underlie different aspects of song learning and production [34, 35]. There is also  
88 evidence in songbirds that differential neural activity underlies different phases of sexual  
89 imprinting, a type of social learning by which a juvenile learns specific characteristics of a parent  
90 or other familiar individual [36]. Taken together, these findings suggest that across species  
91 associative learning in social contexts is driven by differential neural activity patterns across  
92 multiple brain regions.

93 Here, we investigate the neural activity patterns that differentiate social and non-social  
94 learning in a model system that readily forms naturalistic social groups in the laboratory. The  
95 African cichlid fish, *Astatotilapia burtoni*, is a model system in social neuroscience because of  
96 its remarkable phenotypic plasticity and sophisticated social cognition [37, 38]. Dominant males  
97 of this species are territorial and aggressive, while subordinates typically do not hold territories  
98 and are overall less aggressive [38, 39]. In a recent study, we found that although dominant

99 males of this species had strong influence over the movement of their social groups under normal  
100 conditions, they were less influential in a more complex learning task [40]. This effect was  
101 primarily driven by the socially aversive behavior of dominant males, which, although central in  
102 interaction networks, occupied peripheral positions in spatial networks. IEG expression in  
103 response to different types of social information has also been shown in this species [41 – 44],  
104 suggesting that differences in learning in social or non-social contexts may induce differential  
105 patterns of neural activity.

106 We examined IEG expression in different brain regions of *A. burtoni* males and females  
107 during learning in social groups or without a conspecific informant. We first compared the  
108 learning response rates in a social and non-social context as measured by the latency to acquire a  
109 cue association. We hypothesized that social facilitation mechanisms would allow groups to  
110 learn the task faster than individuals in the non-social context. To understand how the brain  
111 acquires a cued association across social contexts, we then quantified expression of Fos, an IEG,  
112 across the putative teleost homologues of the mammalian hippocampus, basolateral amygdala,  
113 and medial amygdala/bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (BNST) complex, which are key nodes  
114 of the Social Decision-Making Network (SDMN) [45, 46]. We predicted that neural activity  
115 during learning in a social context would be highest in brain regions important for mediating  
116 social behavior in this species, such as the supracommissural part of the ventral pallium (Vs, the  
117 putative homologue of the mammalian medial amygdala/BNST complex) and the medial part of  
118 the dorsal telencephalon (Dm, the putative homologue of the basolateral amygdala); as well as  
119 those important for associative learning, such as specific sub-regions of the lateral part of the  
120 dorsal telencephalon (Dl, the putative homologue of the hippocampus). In addition, we expected  
121 neural activity in Dl to increase in both contexts once learning occurs. Finally, we predicted that

122 neural activity in regions important for social behavior would be relatively low in the non-social  
123 context. Our results reflect differences in how new information is acquired in different social  
124 contexts.

125

126 **2. Methods**

127 *Animals*

128 *Astatotilapia burtoni* descended from a wild caught stock population were kept in stable  
129 naturalistic communities of eight males and eight females, as described previously [46] until  
130 being transferred to experimental aquaria. Brooding females were stripped of fry immediately  
131 prior to being placed in experimental aquaria. All work was done in compliance with the  
132 Institutional Animal care and Use Committee at The University of Texas at Austin. All relevant  
133 code and analyses are available online at [https://github.com/neuromari/neuro\\_social\\_learning](https://github.com/neuromari/neuro_social_learning).

134

135 *Visual cue discrimination task*

136 Our protocol broadly followed that of Rodriguez-Santiago, Nührenberg et al. (2020). A  
137 detailed description of the task setup, task training in a social and non-social context, as well as  
138 the response criterion we used to consider a task to have been completed successfully is provided  
139 in the Supplemental Materials. Because *A. burtoni* communities form social dominance  
140 hierarchies, we accounted for social hierarchy dynamics and group behavior in the social  
141 context, as described in Supplemental Materials.

142

143 *Sample processing and immunohistochemistry for examining neural activity*

144 To examine neural activity patterns across learning trials, three individual samples were  
145 collected from each community. In groups with a dominant male informant, the second largest  
146 male, subordinate male, and a female were collected. In groups with a subordinate male  
147 informant, the dominant male, and third largest male, and a female were collected. For all non-  
148 socially trained individuals, males and females were euthanized after trials 6, 14, or 22. A  
149 detailed description of the immunohistochemical procedures and the quantification of Fos-  
150 positive cells is provided in the Supplemental Materials.

151

152 *Statistical analysis*

153 All statistical analyses were conducted using R Studio (version 1.0.143) and the  
154 ‘survival’ package [47]. We analyzed the learning response using a survival analysis. We used  
155 the nonparametric log-rank test because the proportional hazard assumption was not met, given  
156 that it does not support multiple response variables, such as social context, informant status, and  
157 individual sex. Thus, we used a series of log-rank tests to examine the overall effect of social  
158 context and pairwise differences between informant status in the social context and sex in the  
159 non-social context. In a separate analysis, we examined differences between informant status  
160 effects in a social context, as well as sex differences in response rate in the non-social context  
161 using repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA).

162 We used Principal Components Analysis (PCA) to identify how neural activity patterns  
163 across brain regions clustered based on social context conditions and individual-level traits.  
164 Independent ANOVA tests were used to compare PC scores between social condition (social v  
165 non-social), trial, and learning response. To account for repeated measures of the same fish  
166 across treatments, generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) were used for Fos expression

167 analyses, which are a proxy for neural activity. To examine how learning context, trial, and  
168 individual-level traits influence learning and neural activity patterns, we used the R package  
169 glmmTMB which ranks models based on Akaike Information Criterion scores, corrected for  
170 sample size (AICc) [48], and allows for usage of the beta family, which is appropriate for  
171 modeling proportional data. We first performed an overall GLMM that included both social and  
172 non-social learning conditions, and also did a separate model on the social and non-social  
173 conditions. In the overall model, we included learning condition, trial, sex, whether the learning  
174 criterion was met, and group as dependent variables and brain region (Dl-g, Dl-v, Dm-1, Dm-3,  
175 and Vs) as the independent variables. In the social condition model, the dependent variables were  
176 trial, sex, observer status, informant status, whether the learning criterion was met, and group. In  
177 the non-social condition model, the dependent variables were trial, sex, and learning as the  
178 dependent variables. Model results and tables can be found in the Supplemental Materials.

179

180

181 **3. Results**

182 *Social facilitation results in faster response rates compared to a non-social context*

183 We first asked whether the cumulative response rate differed between the social and non-  
184 social contexts and found that the cumulative probability of consecutive group responses during  
185 the cue discrimination task is significantly greater than the response rate of individuals in a non-  
186 social context (log-rank test:  $X^2 = 8.1$ ,  $P = 0.004$ ; Figure 1a). However, the number of trials it  
187 took to reach the response criterion did not differ between the social and non-social contexts  
188 (Wilcox test:  $W = 41$ ,  $p = 0.426$ ; Figure 1b). To our surprise, the social status of the informant –

189 dominant vs. subordinate – did not have any effect on learning rate (log-rank test:  $X^2 = 0.005$ ,  $P$   
190 = 0.94), contrary to our previous study [40].

191

192 *Neural activity patterns depend on the social context*

193 We used PCA to determine which aspects of the social context and individual-level traits  
194 influence neural activity patterns during a learning task, and how these contextual aspects  
195 contribute to a learning response. We first conducted a PCA that included variables in both social  
196 conditions: the trial at which individuals were taken (trial), the context condition (social v non-  
197 social), and whether the response criterion was met (yes or no). We found that principal  
198 component 1 (PC1) accounted for 59.6% of the total variance and differed significantly between  
199 social conditions across trials (Figure 2). There was a main effect of both social context ( $F_{1,91} =$   
200 385.4,  $p < .001$ ) and trial ( $F_{2,91} = 7.47$ ,  $p = 0.0009$ ), though no significant interaction effect ( $F_{2,91}$   
201 = 1.911,  $p = 0.154$ ; Figure 2d). However, there was a significant interaction between trial and  
202 learning response (learning response:  $F_{1,91} = 22.37$ ,  $p < .001$ ; trial:  $F_{2,91} = 3.396$ ,  $p = .04$ ;  
203 response x trial:  $F_{2,91} = 8.3$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Figure 2e), and strong main effects of learning response  
204 and context (learning response:  $F_{1,91} = 71.038$ ,  $p < .001$ ; context:  $F_{1,91} = 269.57$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Figure  
205 2f). There was a strong main effect of trial and learning response on PC2, as well as interactions  
206 between trial and context, and learning response and context (Figure 2g: context:  $F_{1,91} = 1.086$ ,  $p$   
207 = .3; trial:  $F_{2,91} = 76.24$ ,  $p < .001$ ; interaction:  $F_{2,91} = 19.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Figure 2h: learning  
208 response:  $F_{1,91} = 59.61$ ,  $p < .001$ ; trial:  $F_{2,91} = 26.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ; trial x learning response:  $F_{2,91} =$   
209 .064,  $p = .938$ ; Figure 2i: learning response:  $F_{1,91} = 47.93$ ,  $p < .001$ ; context:  $F_{1,91} = 13.493$ ,  $p =$   
210 .004). Given the striking differences in neural activity patterns between the social and non-social  
211 contexts in both the comparisons of estimated Fos+ cells across brain regions and the PCA, we

212 conducted separate PCAs on the social (Supplemental Figure 5) and non-social contexts. The  
213 results of these analysis can be found in the Supplemental Materials and Figures.

214

215 *Neural activity patterns during acquisition of learning differ across social contexts*

216 To disentangle the factors that contribute to the stark PCA differences we see with the  
217 learning context, we examined neural activity in key nodes of the SDMN across trials and  
218 contexts. We used relative Fos expression as a marker of neural activity across Dl-g, Dm-1, and  
219 Vs brain regions involved in social behavior and association learning. We compared neural  
220 activity across social conditions (social, non-social) and learning task trial (6, 14, 22) using two-  
221 way ANOVAs (Figure 3a,c,e; Supplemental Table 3 for statistics). We found that the trial and  
222 context had significant main effects on Fos expression in the Dl-g, but there was no significant  
223 interaction. In the Dm-1, there was both a significant main effect of trial and context as well as  
224 an interaction. In the Vs, there was a main effect of trial and context. In addition, we also  
225 examined neural activity in the Dl-v and the Dm-3 subregions and found no significant effect of  
226 trial, although there was a significant effect of context (data not shown, statistics in Supplemental  
227 Table 3).

228 When we examined whether Fos expression changed with learning, we found a  
229 significant difference between context treatments (Figure 3b,d,f; see Supplemental Table 4 for all  
230 statistics). Across all brain regions, there was a main effect of context and learning response.  
231 There was an interaction between learning and context in the Dm-1 only. There was no  
232 difference in Fos expression in the non-social context based on whether individuals learned the  
233 task, while in the social context Fos expression was highest in observers that learned the task in  
234 the Dl-g ( $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 3b) as well as in the Vs ( $p = 0.001$ ; Figure 3f). Despite the large

235 differences between Fos expression across social contexts in the five brain regions measured  
236 over trials, when we looked closer at factors that impact this difference within the social context  
237 we found no significant differences in expression based on the social rank of observers or based  
238 on the informant status (data not shown).

239  
240

#### 241 **4. Discussion**

242 In the present study, we found large differences between a social and non-social context  
243 in behavioral and neural activity during an associative learning task. Specifically, we discovered  
244 a significant difference in learning rate between contexts, such that social groups had a higher  
245 cumulative probability of reaching the response criterion sooner than individuals in a non-social  
246 context. This striking behavioral difference is reflected in the neural activity pattern differences  
247 between contexts, with specific brain regions encoding different aspects of our learning  
248 paradigm, suggesting that the acquisition of a learning response to a cue association is mediated  
249 by different brain regions depending on the social context.

250

251 *Observational learning and stimulus enhancement accelerate associative learning of a visual  
252 cue discrimination task*

253 By examining the cumulative learning rate probability of acquiring a cue association  
254 response across two experimental contexts, we found that social groups had a significantly  
255 higher cumulative probability of learning than individuals in a non-social context. This is not  
256 necessarily surprising given the prevalence of social learning strategies across species and the  
257 notion that social learning is more adaptively beneficial as it confers fewer costs and allows

258 individuals to gain new information more quickly [49]. In addition, information diffusion is  
259 typically accelerated in social groups [20].

260 There are at least two mechanisms by which learning might have occurred in our social  
261 paradigm, social facilitation (when the presence of an informant affects the observer's behavior)  
262 and stimulus enhancement (where the observer's behavior changes after watching an informant  
263 interact with a stimulus). To demonstrate that the group response is due solely to the presence of  
264 an informant (i.e., social facilitation), it would be necessary to test individual group members by  
265 themselves following acquisition. While we did not examine this retention by observers in the  
266 present study, it should be noted that the informants themselves were trained in naïve groups and  
267 then transplanted to new groups, where they were the only informed individual. Importantly, all  
268 informants displayed a correct response to the cue within one or two trials in their new  
269 communities, suggesting that the observers in our study in fact acquired the association and were  
270 not just copying other group members' behavior. It seems thus likely that individuals in social  
271 groups learned by means of observation or stimulus enhancement, which ultimately led them to  
272 respond faster than lone individuals. However, it cannot be ignored that *A. burtoni* is a highly  
273 social species, and although individuals in the non-social context had blind cave fish as a social  
274 buffer, their slow learning rate could be due to stress factors from being apart from conspecifics.

275

276 *Hippocampal sub-regions differentially mediate learning in social and non-social contexts*

277 When we examined the neural activity across brain regions in different trials of the  
278 learning task, we found significant differences in neural activity (measured as number Fos-  
279 immunoreactive cells) between the social and non-social contexts as well as depending on  
280 whether the task had been learned or not. In Dl (the lateral part of the dorsal telencephalon and

281 putative homologue of the mammalian hippocampus), we found a significant increase in Fos  
282 expression (or ‘activity’) from trial 6 to trial 14 in the social context in the Dl-g sub-region,  
283 which was also significantly higher in groups that learned the task. In the Dl-v sub-region, there  
284 was a significant main effect of social context across trials, and a significant decrease in activity  
285 between trials 14 and 22. Activity in the Dl-v was not correlated with learning. The Dl-g and Dl-  
286 v are subdivisions of the dorsal pallium, a region implicated in the learning of spatial and  
287 temporal relationships in teleosts [50, 51]. Previous work has also shown that the major  
288 pathways within the dorsal pallium are highly recursive and have complex reciprocal  
289 connections with subpallial regions [52]. Based on tract-tracing neuroanatomical data, as well as  
290 lesions studies that implicate the Dl and other dorsal pallial regions in learning and memory  
291 tasks, Elliott et al. (2016) suggested that the dorsal pallial circuitry (which includes the Dl  
292 subregions) can implement the same pattern separation and completion computations ascribed to  
293 the mammalian hippocampal dentate gyrus and CA3 fields. Taken together, these results suggest  
294 a differential role for these Dl subregions in the acquisition of this association learning task.

295

296 *The basolateral amygdala likely encodes social group formation, not learning of the association*  
297 *task*

298 We found a significant difference in neural activity across social contexts in subregions  
299 of Dm (medial part of the dorsal telencephalon and putative homologue of the mammalian  
300 basolateral amygdala). More specifically, we found a significant decrease in activity across trials  
301 in the social context in Dm-1, and a significant decrease from trial 14 to 22. Activity in Dm-1  
302 was not associated with group learning, and there was no difference across learning response in  
303 the Dm-3 (not shown). These findings are consistent with previous studies in goldfish that have

304 shown that Dm lesions disrupt trace and delay avoidance conditioning [51, 53], as well as fear  
305 and heart-rate classical conditioning [22], while such lesions have no effect on spatial memory  
306 and cue learning [54, 55]. The effects of these lesions in fish are similar to lesions of the  
307 amygdala in mammals [56 – 59] and in part based on this evidence the teleost medial pallium  
308 (which includes the Dm) has been proposed as homologous to the pallial amygdala of mammals  
309 [51]. In *A. burtoni* males, Dm activity is correlated with the level of engagement in joint territory  
310 defense, although the sign of the correlation depends on an individual's role in this cooperative  
311 behavior [44]. In the present study, we found that activity in the Dm complex was significantly  
312 higher in trial 6 compared to 14 and 22. Given that few groups had learned the task prior or by  
313 trial 6, it is not surprising that Dm activity was also higher in groups that had not yet successfully  
314 learned the task. Interestingly, individuals from groups that did reach the learning criterion by  
315 trial 6 or sooner showed lower Dm activity, which further indicates that Dm is not involved in  
316 learning the cue association task. Instead, this result suggests that the Dm regions, and the Dm-1  
317 in particular, may play a role in some aspect of social group formation rather than being involved  
318 in the acquisition of the cue association task, providing further support for a role of this brain  
319 region in affective processing.

320

321 *The extended medial amygdala encodes social context*

322 In Vs (the supracommissural part of the ventral pallium and putative homologue of the  
323 mammalian medial amygdala/BNST) we found a significant main effect of social context. Also,  
324 Vs activity increased in social groups in trials 14 and 22, possibly as a consequence of more  
325 groups successfully learning the task at these later trials. Homology of this brain region has  
326 historically been difficult to characterize due to the eversion, rather than invagination, of the

327 neural tube during teleost development [60 – 63]. However, developmental studies have found  
328 similar genetic markers, namely *Dlx2*, *Lhx7*, *Nkx2.1b*, between the Vs and the extended  
329 amygdala [64]. Stimulation of the Vs has been shown to increase aggression in male bluegill fish  
330 [65]. In our species, *A. burtoni*, this region is under social and reproductive modulation [42] and  
331 shows varying levels of sex steroid receptor expression in males when given the opportunity to  
332 ascend or descend in status. Taken together, this suggests that Vs plays a predominant role in  
333 mediating social information, which is why we see large differences in neural activity here  
334 between the social and non-social learning contexts.

335

### 336 *Disentangling the effects of group formation and learning on neural activity patterns*

337 While we see evidence for differential neural activity across multiple brain regions during  
338 the acquisition of an association in both social and non-social contexts, we are unable to fully  
339 separate the effects of group formation time from the effects of learning. Even though there are  
340 significant differences in neural activity in specific brain regions (Dl, Dm) based on whether  
341 groups demonstrated learning, it remains unclear how group formation impacts learning. In other  
342 words, there could be a dampening of response in early trials due to social instability simply  
343 because the groups did not have time to acclimate prior to the start of the trials. In the non-social  
344 context, we observed a general dampening of neural activity specifically in early trials that  
345 coincided with lower behavioral activity levels. Disentangling the effects of social stability  
346 formation from the increased probability of learning after repeated trials in both social and non-  
347 social contexts will require subsequent rigorous behavioral examination with automated tracking.

348

### 349 *What Fos expression tells us about the observed neural activity patterns*

350                   An important aspect of examining IEG induction as a measure of neural activity is that  
351                   we examined this expression 1 hour after the last learning trial the animals underwent – whether  
352                   it was trial 6, 14, or 22. Expression of IEGs such as Fos is widely used as a measure of neural  
353                   activity [66,67] as most IEGs encode transcription factors or DNA-binding proteins that  
354                   coordinate the cellular response to a stimulus [28]. By examining Fos protein expression within  
355                   60-90 minutes following the last stimulus exposure, we aimed to capture the brain regions that  
356                   were active, and presumably important, for the animal’s behavioral response. Animals did not  
357                   perform these behaviors in isolation, and it is possible that both in the social and non-social  
358                   contexts their neural activity reflects a response to the environment rather than the stimulus cue  
359                   itself. For example, there could have been a salient social signal occurring in the aquarium at the  
360                   same time as the cue (such as high territorial aggression by a dominant male). However, given  
361                   the high Fos expression in the Dm-1 in trial 6 compared to later trials in both the social and non-  
362                   social contexts, the observed IEG pattern in this region is likely reflective of the animal’s  
363                   response to other salient cues in the (social) environment besides the stimulus cue. In addition,  
364                   we found no correlation between neural activity and informant aggression (data not shown),  
365                   although the aggressive behaviors of other observer males could have had an effect on the neural  
366                   activity patterns seen in the social context.

367

368                   *Group learning and neural activity patterns are independent of social status*

369                   Communities of *A. burtoni* naturally form rank hierarchies with some males establishing  
370                   social dominance by aggressively defending territories for mating with females, while the  
371                   majority of males are socially subordinate and reproductively suppressed [37, 68]. We have  
372                   previously shown for this species that the social status of an informant can have a strong effect

373 on how fast a group learns the visual cue discrimination task we used in the present study.

374 Specifically, even though socially dominant males strongly influence their social groups through

375 aggressive displays and space use, they are significantly less effective in generating group

376 consensus during the association task than subordinate males [40]. In contrast, we did not find a

377 significant effect of informant status on group learning in the present study. This may not be

378 surprising given that the present study was not designed to examine the effects of social status on

379 group learning, and thus lacks the statistical power to robustly detect such an effect. It should

380 also be noted that in the Rodriguez-Santiago, Nührenberg et al. (2020) study, dominant males

381 were considerably larger than subordinate males, while in the present study the size difference

382 was much smaller. Previous work has shown that small size differences result in lower stability

383 of the social hierarchy in this species [69]. Although we did not quantify group stability here, the

384 behavioral traits that determine whether an individual is an effective informant – aggression and

385 space use – are highly context-specific and might explain the absence of a social status effect.

386 These factors may also explain why we did not find differences in neural activity patterns

387 between dominant and subordinate observers when learning the task. One interesting observation

388 of relevance here comes from social fear learning in rats, where subordinate animals display

389 increased fear responses after interacting with a dominant informant, which is also reflected in

390 distinct neural activity patterns [70].

391

392

## 393 **5. Conclusion**

394 We used the highly social African cichlid fish *A. burtoni* to demonstrate that social

395 learning is associated with increased neural activity (as measured by the expression of Fos, an

396 IEG) when compared to non-social learning across key brain regions important for learning and  
397 social behavior. These brain regions are important for modulating learning (hippocampus),  
398 emotional learning and fear avoidance (basolateral amygdala), and social behavior (medial  
399 amygdala/BNST), and are part of a greater Social Decision-Making Network that is important  
400 for mediating various aspects of social behavior [45, 46]. In addition, we found that activity in  
401 these regions was not modulated by the sex or social status of individuals, nor was it impacted by  
402 the status of informants in social groups. Thus, while these regions are important for different  
403 aspects of social learning [45], they do not appear to be modulated by group dynamics or  
404 individual-level traits in a social learning context. While future studies are needed to fully  
405 understand the mechanisms that drive social learning contexts (e.g. neuroendocrine or  
406 dopaminergic pathways), our results in *A. burtoni* highlight that there are neural activity pattern  
407 differences in how individuals acquire information in different social contexts.

408

409

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420

421 **7. Author Contributions**

422 MRS, AJ, and HAH designed experiments, MRS performed experiments and statistical  
423 analysis, MRS and HAH wrote the manuscript, MRS, AJ, and HAH revised manuscript.

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640 **Figure Captions**

641

642 **Figure 1. Learning rate is faster in a social context.** A) Comparison of the cumulative  
643 response probability to a visual cue discrimination task between a social and a non-social context  
644 shows that groups have a higher response probability than individuals in a non-social context ( $p$   
645 = 0.004). B) Although the rate of response probability is significantly different between social  
646 contexts, the total number of trials required to achieve this response criterion is not statistically  
647 different between contexts ( $p$  = 0.426).

648

649 **Figure 2. Principal component analysis (PCA) of neural activity shows differential  
650 expression pattern with learning context.** A) Scatter plot of all Fos expression data separates  
651 out by social condition (social, non-social) across PC1. B) Vector plot showing the PCA  
652 variables that load on PC1 and PC2. C) Plot showing the percent of the variance explained by  
653 each PC. PC1 (D-F) and PC2 (G-I) loadings plotted across trials based on social condition (D  
654 and G) and whether learning response was reached (E and H). Boxplot showing that PC1  
655 loadings (F) differentiates data by social condition but not by learning response while PC2  
656 loadings (I) differentiate do not differentiate context across learning response.

657

658 **Figure 3. Neural activity across brain regions varies over trials and with learning.** Fos  
659 expression was quantified as a marker of neural activity in the Dlg, Dm-1, and Vs regions of the  
660 forebrain (A, D, F). In the Dlg, there was a significant increase in activity from trial 6 to 14 in the  
661 social context, while there was no difference in activity across trials in the non-social context  
662 (B). Neural activity was significantly highest in learners in the social context (C). In the Dm-1,  
663 activity significantly decreased over trials (E). Activity was significantly highest in the Dm-1 in  
664 the social context when learning had not occurred (F). In the Vs, activity significantly increased  
665 after trial 6 in the social context (G) and was significantly higher in the social context with  
666 learning (H).





