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4 **Oxytocin modulates social value representations in the amygdala**
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ABSTRACT [149 words]

36 Humans exhibit considerable variation in how they value their own interest relative to
37 the interests of others. Deciphering the neural codes representing potential rewards for
38 self and others is crucial for understanding social decision-making. Here we integrate
39 computational modeling with fMRI to investigate the neural representation of social
40 value and the modulation by oxytocin, a nine-amino acid neuropeptide, in participants
41 evaluating monetary allocations to self and other (self-other allocations). We found
42 that an individual's preferred self-other allocation serves as a reference-point for
43 computing the value of potential self-other allocations. In more-prosocial participants,
44 amygdala activity encoded a social-value-distance signal, i.e. the value dissimilarity
45 between potential and preferred allocations. Intranasal oxytocin administration
46 amplified this amygdala representation and increased prosocial behavior in
47 more-individualist participants but not in more-prosocial ones. Our results reveal a
48 neurocomputational mechanism underlying social-value representations and suggest
49 that oxytocin may promote prosociality by modulating social-value representations in the
50 amygdala.

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54 Humans live in complex social environments and rely heavily on social reciprocity.
55 Many of our important decisions are made in social contexts where the costs and
56 benefits to both ourselves and other people need to be considered¹. Deciphering the
57 neural codes that represent potential rewards to oneself and others is crucial for
58 understanding social reciprocity and social decisions². Recent studies of social
59 decision-making find that people are rarely purely self-centered or altruistic: they care
60 about both themselves and others' interests, but with considerable individual variation
61 in how they weigh equity of self-other gain³ and cooperation with others^{3,4} during their
62 decision-making. Individuals with prosocial preferences tend to prefer allocations
63 considering the interests of both self and other and often seek to minimize the self-other
64 difference (henceforth prosocials). In contrast, individuals with selfish preferences tend
65 to maximize resources for themselves and generally prefer self-centered allocations
66 (henceforth individualists).

67 Individual differences in social preference may stem from individual variation in
68 preferred social allocations and differences in neural representations of potential
69 relative to preferred allocations⁵⁻⁷. It remains unclear how the difference between
70 potential and preferred self-other allocations is computed and represented in the brain
71 and how these computations and neural representations are related to social
72 decision-making. Here, we propose that the preferred self-other allocation (i.e., what an
73 individual hopes the allocation will be) serves as a social reference-point against which
74 potential allocations are represented and that quantity can guide social value-based
75 decisions (social reference model). The deviation from the preferred allocation
76 generates an "error" signal that could drive adaptive actions to reduce the size of the
77 deviation. In much the same way as reward prediction errors⁸ represent differences
78 between expected and actual rewards and provide a basis for value-based decisions^{9,10},
79 this social error signal could represent deviation from the preferred allocation and serve
80 as a basis for value-based decisions in the social domain.

81 The amygdala, with a large number of oxytocin and dopamine receptors^{11,12} and
82 strongly implicated in social cognition and social decision-making^{3,13}, is a prominent
83 candidate to encode deviations from a social reference-point. Recent studies have

84 shown that amygdala activity tracks the subjective values of rewards and
85 punishments¹⁴ and reflects individual preferences¹⁵. Notably, the amygdala has been
86 suggested to encode error signals that represent the differences between expectations
87 and outcomes⁹, a quantity that is fundamental for value-based decision-making².
88 Amygdala activity has also been shown to encode “aversive” signals to absolute
89 inequality when evaluating reward pairs for self and other³ and in response to dishonest
90 behavior¹⁶. One untested possibility is that amygdala activity encodes the deviation of a
91 potential self-other allocation from a reference-point that depends on
92 individual-specific social preferences.

93 Prosocials and individualists, who should differ in their social reference-point, would
94 be expected to engage different neural substrates for social value representations. For
95 prosocials, the distance from their social reference-point could signal deviation from
96 normative social principles such as inequity aversion, which is associated with the
97 amygdala³. On the other hand, individualists employing a self-interest maximizing
98 strategy in their decision-making could represent deviation from this reference-point
99 mainly as conflict with self-interest, engaging lateral prefrontal regions associated with
100 inhibition of self-interest and self-other allocation trade-off¹⁷, such as lateral
101 orbitofrontal cortex (IOFC)^{18,19} and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dlPFC)²⁰.

102 It has also been suggested that individual differences in social behavior result in part
103 from differences in the neuromodulatory regulation of neural circuits⁶. The
104 neuropeptide oxytocin, an evolutionarily conserved hormone, is a potential candidate²¹.
105 Oxytocin has been found to play an important role in social interaction and social
106 decision-making²², including promoting social motivation²³, increasing trust and
107 cooperation with own-group members²⁴, and reducing social distance²⁵. Whether and
108 how oxytocin modulates the basic computations of social preference and social value
109 representations remains largely unexplored. Individual differences in social
110 preferences in nonhuman primates have been shown to be due in part to oxytocinergic
111 regulation of amygdala-related neural circuits^{6,7}. In nonhuman primates, exogenous
112 inhaled oxytocin promotes social donation behavior²⁶ and focal infusion of oxytocin
113 into the amygdala significantly increases prosocial decisions⁷. In humans, it has been
114 suggested that individual differences in oxytocin effects are adaptive depending on an

115 individual's social disposition²¹ such that intranasal oxytocin produces stronger effects
116 on cooperation in less socially proficient individuals⁴. Oxytocin differentially impacts
117 cooperative and aggressive choices in individuals with different pre-existing beliefs in
118 prosociality²⁷. We therefore predicted differential effects of oxytocin on regulating
119 prosocial behavior between prosocials and individualists by selectively increasing
120 prosociality in individualists via amplification of amygdala social value
121 representations.

122 Here, we set out to test whether intranasal administration of oxytocin differentially
123 modulates the neural representation of social values in prosocials and individualists
124 performing a monetary outcome-pair evaluation task during fMRI scanning in a
125 double-blind placebo-controlled between-subjects design. We first show that our social
126 reference model most parsimoniously explains behavior consistent with social values
127 being encoded as distance to an individual-specific reference-point. While prosocials
128 represent social values relative to a more prosocial reference-point than individualists,
129 oxytocin selectively increased prosociality in individualists and not prosocials in both
130 competitive and non-competitive contexts. Moreover, these findings were replicated in
131 two additional behavioral experiments. Using model-based fMRI analysis, we found
132 that under placebo, amygdala activity in prosocials encodes a social value distance
133 reflecting the degree to which a potential self-other allocation deviates from an
134 individual-specific reference-point. Oxytocin selectively amplified the neural
135 representation of social values in the amygdala in individualists, suggesting a link
136 between oxytocin and prosociality via modulation of social value representations in the
137 amygdala.

138 **RESULTS**

139 ***Experimental settings***

140 In the fMRI experiment, we first invited participants ($n=282$) to a behavioral session to
141 identify their social dispositions (i.e., prosocials vs. individualists) using the triple
142 dominance⁵ and social value orientation (SVO)²⁸ decision-making tasks
143 (*Supplementary Fig. 1*). Thereafter, eligible prosocials and individualists ($n=127$)
144 administered oxytocin or placebo performed a monetary outcome-pair evaluation task

145 during fMRI scanning (**Fig. 1a**). On each trial, participants were presented with pairs of
146 monetary outcomes for himself and another participant (referred to as the partner) and
147 evaluated his preference on each pair.

148 All monetary allocations were evenly sampled on the circumference of a circle centered
149 at the origin (0, 0) in the Cartesian coordinate space spanned by social values (with
150 monetary outcomes for self as the x-axis and outcomes for the partner as the y-axis,
151 radius=5, **Fig. 1a**). Monetary outcomes for oneself and the partner define an angle θ ,
152 which samples the space from -90° to 180° . The angle between any two potential
153 allocations is both necessary and sufficient to quantify their relationship. Both positive
154 and negative values were included for a comprehensive investigation of social value
155 representations, except for those in the third quadrant due to invariant preference rating
156 shown in an independent sample (Methods).

157 We also ran two additional behavioral experiments, one experiment with a large sample
158 (behavioral online-replication experiment, $n=315$) providing a replication for our
159 finding that the social reference model outperforms other models and one experiment
160 providing a replication of the oxytocin effect (oxytocin-replication experiment, $n=80$
161 males, within-subjects design, 40 prosocials and 40 individualists). To improve the
162 ability to distinguish between different models, both additional experiments were run
163 on a modified design where monetary pairs were sampled on 3 circles of different
164 circumference (radius=5, 6, 9), with θ ranging from -90° to 180° with different
165 intervals (5° , 17° , 23°). These specifications were identified based on model recovery
166 analysis, which suggested that the combination of these parameters would lead to
167 maximal discriminability between our social reference model and an inequality
168 aversion model. The task design for these additional experiments was otherwise
169 identical to the fMRI experiment.

170 **Representing social values according to an individual-specific reference-point**

171 In the fMRI experiment, we first plotted z-scored preference ratings for each social
172 allocation across participants for visualization purposes (**Fig. 1b**). In general,
173 participants most preferred self-gain/other-gain pairs and least preferred
174 self-loss/other-gain pairs, suggesting that participants considered the interests of both
175 self and partner. Based on preference ratings for all allocations, we computed an

176 individual-specific *reference-point*, referred to as ϕ . The principle of ϕ calculation was
177 consistent with the “mean orientation” measure in a map-like structure^{29,30} (**Fig. 1c**).
178 The degree of ϕ indicated how much a participant preferred the potential outcome for
179 the partner in relation to himself, with larger angles corresponding to stronger
180 preference for allocations that benefit the partner relative to oneself and thus greater
181 prosociality.

182 We then calculated cosine similarity between each allocation θ and the
183 individual-specific reference-point ϕ to compute *social value distance*, the dissimilarity
184 distance of that allocation to the participant’s preferred allocation (also the deviation
185 from the social reference-point, calculated as $1-\cos(\theta-\phi)$). This measurement
186 allowed us to quantify the difference between the second (self-loss/other-gain pairs)
187 and fourth (self-gain/other-loss pairs) quadrants (**Fig. 1c**), which is not feasible when
188 only including gains or using absolute value differences^{3,28}. The *social reference model*
189 was consistently the most parsimonious model across all studies: the fMRI during-scan
190 experiment, the post-scan behavioral experiment, the behavioral online-replication
191 experiment and the oxytocin-replication experiment (supported by model comparisons
192 using variational free energy as the model selection criteria, *Supplementary Fig. 2*).

193 **More prosocial reference-points for social value representations in prosocials**

194 We quantified the difference in the estimated reference-point between prosocials and
195 individualists under placebo. We found significantly higher values of ϕ in prosocials
196 than individualists ($F(1,59)=33.49$, $p=2.91\times 10^{-7}$, $\eta^2=0.36$, **Fig. 2a**), which was
197 replicated in the large sample online experiment ($F(1,313)=92.14$, $p=2.71\times 10^{-19}$,
198 $\eta^2=0.23$, **Fig. 2b**). Moreover, in the online-replication experiment, the social
199 reference-point derived from the social reference model was correlated with
200 individuals’ SVO scores ($r=0.55$, $p=4.38\times 10^{-26}$, 95% CI=[0.47, 0.62], **Fig. 2c**),
201 suggesting a more prosocial reference-point in prosocials both at a group and individual
202 level. The pattern of more prosocial reference-points in prosocials than individualists
203 was similarly observed in the competitive context in the post-scan experiment
204 ($F(1,59)=12.59$, $p=7.69\times 10^{-4}$, $\eta^2=0.18$, **Fig. 2d**) and in the oxytocin-replication
205 experiment ($F(1,78)=28.27$, $p=9.78\times 10^{-7}$, $\eta^2=0.27$, **Fig. 2e**).

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207 Under placebo, ϕ was significantly correlated with independent measures of previously
208 established prosocial behavior (Methods), with positive correlations between ϕ and the
209 amount of contribution in a public goods game ($r=0.52, p=2.44 \times 10^{-5}$) and in a dictator
210 game ($r=0.44, p=0.0006$). The degree of ϕ was also correlated with the degree of
211 absolute inequality aversion (which reflected a general preference for fairness and
212 resistance to inequalities, with higher values indicating higher inequality aversion,
213 $r=0.65, p=1.54 \times 10^{-8}$), measured in an independent task²⁸(Methods). Note that a ϕ of 45°
214 indicates a preference for equal offers. Within a fairly small range of ϕ corresponding
215 to most of our participants (-30 to 45°), the larger the ϕ , the more prosocial a
216 participant.

217 It has been suggested that decision time reflects perceived conflicts between prior
218 expectation and current choice, with faster responses for preferred and less conflicted
219 choices^{31,32}. Thus, we would expect faster decision-making when conflict is minimal
220 and the potential allocation is close to the individual-specific reference-point. As the
221 social value distance increased, longer decision times were predicted. We indeed found
222 that decision time for a potential allocation increased as a function of deviation from
223 individual-specific reference-point, and such correlation was stronger in individualists
224 than prosocials under placebo (independent-samples t-test on the Fisher z-scored
225 correlation coefficients, individualists vs. prosocials: 0.18 ± 0.03 vs. 0.09 ± 0.02 ;
226 $t(59)=2.33, p=0.023$ in the fMRI experiment, with a similar trend in the
227 oxytocin-replication experiment, paired-samples t-test: $t(78)=1.86, p=0.067$,
228 *Supplementary Fig. 3*). The greater the dissimilarity between potential and preferred
229 allocations, the longer individualists took to evaluate potential allocations.

230 **Selective oxytocin effects on promoting prosociality in individualists**

231 We evaluated the oxytocin effect on the social value representations. First, we checked
232 the relationship between baseline salivary oxytocin and social value representations
233 across all participants. The individual-specific reference-point ϕ was independent of
234 baseline salivary oxytocin ($r=0.03, p=0.75$) (*Supplementary Fig. 4*). We also measured
235 participants' social perceptions of their partner by rating the first impression, likeability

236 and attractiveness of the partner. There was no significant difference across all groups
237 on any of these measures (*Supplementary Fig. 5*). Therefore, any significant effect of
238 Social Disposition and/or Treatment on the social value representation cannot be
239 attributed to baseline oxytocin or social perception differences.

240 We conducted ANOVA on ϕ , with Social Disposition (prosocial vs. individualistic)
241 and Treatment (oxytocin vs. placebo) as between-subjects factors. There was a
242 significant main effect of Social Disposition ($F(1,121)=28.09, p=5.29 \times 10^{-7}, \eta^2=0.19$),
243 with prosocials (vs. individualists) using a more prosocial reference-point to evaluate
244 potential allocations. Interestingly, we found a significant Social Disposition x
245 Treatment interaction ($F(1,121)=6.35, p=0.013, \eta^2=0.05$, **Fig. 2a**), as intranasal
246 oxytocin significantly increased the reference-point ϕ towards a preference for more
247 prosocial allocations in individualists (independent-samples *t*-test, $t(57)=2.21$,
248 $p=0.031$), but not in prosocials ($t(64)=-1.54, p=0.13$, **Fig. 2a**), indicating that oxytocin
249 selectively increased prosociality in individualists. Furthermore, there was no effect of
250 scanning order or partner type on ϕ (*Supplementary Fig. 6*).

251 We replicated the selective oxytocin effect on promoting prosociality in individualists
252 in the independent oxytocin behavioral experiment where we employed a
253 within-subjects design and included monetary pairs sampled on 3 circles of different
254 circumferences (Social Disposition: $F(1,78)=19.51, p=3.19 \times 10^{-5}, \eta^2=0.20$; Social
255 Disposition x Treatment interaction: $F(1,78)=6.73, p=0.011, \eta^2=0.079$, **Fig. 2e**).
256 Moreover, the within-subjects design, where each participant was invited to both
257 oxytocin and placebo sessions, allowed us to examine whether the oxytocin effect
258 varied as a function of individual scores in social value orientation. We expected a
259 negative correlation between SVO scores and the oxytocin effect on prosociality, and
260 indeed found a significant negative correlation between SVO scores and the size of
261 oxytocin effect on social reference-point ($r=-0.23, p=0.041$, **Fig. 2f**), suggesting that
262 the more selfish the individual, the stronger the effect of oxytocin on promoting a
263 prosocial reference-point.

264 Finally, to determine whether the lack of oxytocin effect on prosocials was due to a
265 ceiling effect (i.e., prosocials already care about others' outcomes), we introduced a
266 competitive social context in the post-scan behavioral task where self-interest and
267 other-interest were in direct competition. In the *competitive* context, we framed the

268 payoff in a “winner takes all” manner, so that one would be motivated to make selfish
269 decisions to gain more than the partner. If oxytocin can promote prosociality in
270 prosocials, which is masked by a ceiling effect in the *non-competitive* setting, we would
271 expect oxytocin to affect prosocials in the *competitive* context. We conducted an
272 ANOVA on ϕ in prosocials, with Treatment as between-subjects factor and Context
273 (competitive vs. non-competitive) as within-subjects factor. There was a significant
274 main effect of Context ($F(1,64)=68.61, p=1.02\times 10^{-11}, \eta^2=0.52$), but no Treatment
275 effect ($F(1,64)=0.856, p=0.358$), or interaction with Context ($F(1,64)=1.33, p=0.254$),
276 suggesting that the lack of a prosocial effect of oxytocin in prosocials was not due to a
277 ceiling effect given their relative “self-centered” social value preference in the
278 *competitive* compared to *non-competitive* context. A similar ANOVA on individualists
279 showed that oxytocin increased prosociality for individualists across both competitive
280 and non-competitive contexts (Treatment: ($F(1,57)=8.56, p=0.005, \eta^2=0.131$;
281 Treatment x Context: $F(1,57)=0.018, p=0.894$). Furthermore, the ANOVA on ϕ (**Fig.**
282 **2a, d**), with Social Disposition and Treatment as between-subjects factors and Context
283 as a within-subjects factor, revealed the expected significant main effect of Context
284 ($F(1,121)=145.92, p=1.59\times 10^{-22}, \eta^2=0.55$), with decreased prosociality in the
285 competitive context. There was a significant Social Disposition x Treatment interaction
286 ($F(1,121)=5.28, p=0.023, \eta^2=0.042$). Moreover, this interaction was not affected by
287 Context ($F(1,121)=0.697, p=0.406$), suggesting that the oxytocin effect on promoting
288 prosociality was selective to individualists across multiple contexts.

289 *Amygdala in prosocials represents a social value distance signal*

290 Based on the behavioral model, we looked for brain regions that encoded the social
291 value distance between potential and preferred allocations. We created a parametric
292 modulator for the social value distance^{29,30}: $1-\cos(\theta(t)-\phi)$, based on our *social reference*
293 *model*, where $\theta(t)$ is the angle of a current allocation at trial t and ϕ is the
294 individual-specific reference-point. This measure reflects the degree to which an
295 allocation deviates from the reference-point, with higher values indicating greater
296 distance (i.e., lower desirability) between potential and preferred allocations. At the
297 second-level analysis, we found that the posterior cingulate cortex (peak coordinate in
298 MNI space: -6/-64/42) and middle frontal gyrus (peak coordinate in MNI space:
299 -34/8/54) encoded social value distance when collapsing over the four groups

300 (whole-brain significant at a voxel-wise threshold $p < 0.001$ and a cluster-wise FWE
301 correction with $p < 0.05$).

302 We then searched for brain regions that encoded the social value distance respectively
303 for individualists and prosocials. We found that, under placebo, amygdala activity
304 encoding social value distance was significantly stronger in prosocials than
305 individualists (voxel-wise threshold $p < 0.001$ and a cluster-wise FWE correction with
306 $p < 0.05$, peak MNI coordinate: 20/-10/-12, **Fig. 3a**, *Supplementary Table 1*). Previous
307 studies have linked inhibition of self-interest and top-down control of selfish behavior
308 with right lateral prefrontal cortex¹⁷, such as right IOFC^{18,19} and right dlPFC²⁰. We
309 hypothesized that individualists would represent deviation from preferred allocations
310 mainly as a conflict with self-interest and a social value distance representation might
311 be present in these areas. Comparison of individualists and prosocials under placebo
312 revealed that right IOFC activity encoded social value distance to a greater degree in
313 individualists than prosocials (voxel-wise threshold $p < 0.001$, small volume correction
314 $p < 0.05$ for an anatomically defined right IOFC mask, using combined
315 connectivity-based parcellations 8-11 covering right IOFC³³, **Fig. 3b**). This
316 relationship was not present for right dlPFC. Further region of interest (ROI) analysis
317 revealed a significant interaction between brain areas (right IOFC vs. amygdala) and
318 Social Disposition (individualist vs. prosocials) under placebo ($F(1, 58) = 11.210$,
319 $p = 0.0014$, $\eta^2 = 0.162$). Here, the amygdala and right IOFC ROIs employed anatomically
320 defined masks.

321 We extracted beta estimates associated with encoding social value distance from an
322 anatomically defined amygdala ROI. We found that the strength of the amygdala social
323 value distance representation was correlated with the degree of inequality aversion
324 ($r = 0.296$, $p = 0.0012$, *Supplementary Fig. 7*), whereas right IOFC activity bore no
325 relationship to inequality aversion ($r = -0.13$, $p = 0.59$). A moderation analysis revealed
326 that this positive correlation was significantly stronger in prosocials than individualists
327 under placebo (R^2 change = 0.06, $p = 0.003$, *Supplementary Fig. 7*).

328 **Oxytocin modulates social value representations in the amygdala in individualists**

329 We then searched for the main effect of Treatment and the interaction effect of Social
330 Disposition and Treatment in the whole brain. There was no significant main effect of
331 Treatment. The Social Disposition x Treatment interaction F contrast revealed a
332 significant cluster in the amygdala (**Fig. 4a**, peak voxels in the right amygdala survived
333 voxel-wise FWE correction: $p < 0.05$). Intranasal oxytocin selectively amplified the
334 neural representation of social value distance in the amygdala of individualists, but not
335 prosocials. A similar interaction pattern was found in other brain regions, including the
336 right temporoparietal junction (TPJ) and ventral striatum (*Supplementary Fig. 8*).
337 Moreover, as illustrated in *Supplementary Fig. 9a-d*, amygdala activity increased as a
338 function of deviation from an individual-specific reference-point in prosocials under
339 placebo (slope estimate of the linear fit = 0.222, $p = 0.001$) and this pattern was not found
340 under oxytocin (slope estimate = 0.010, $p = 0.88$). In contrast, amygdala activity
341 increased as a function of deviation from an individual-specific reference-point in
342 individualists under oxytocin (slope estimate = 0.232, $p = 0.003$) and this pattern was not
343 found under placebo (slope estimate = 0.042, $p = 0.50$). Amygdala responses were not
344 related to absolute value differences or deviations from the allocentric reference
345 (*Supplementary Fig. 9e-l*, all $p > 0.5$).

346 We then examined the relationship between neural responses and evaluations of
347 monetary allocations on a trial-by-trial basis to test whether the amygdala or right IOFC
348 activity explained trial-by-trial variation in subjective preference ratings that was
349 independent of the predicted social value distance. At the first-level
350 (individual-subject-level) analysis, we modelled each trial separately and extracted
351 beta estimates for amygdala and right IOFC for each trial. We then regressed the
352 trial-by-trial amygdala and right IOFC responses (as x in the regression) respectively
353 onto the evaluation made for each monetary allocation on each trial (as y in the
354 regression), while controlling for the deviation of each potential allocation from the
355 individual-specific reference-point. In doing so, we ensure that the beta estimates
356 associated with the trial-by-trial amygdala and right IOFC activity reflect unique
357 variance in predicting preference ratings based on amygdala and right IOFC responses
358 above and beyond variance explained by predicted social value distance. We conducted
359 a Social Disposition-by-Treatment ANOVA on the trial-by-trial correlation coefficient
360 and found a significant interaction between Social Disposition and Treatment
361 ($F(1,115) = 6.722$, $p = 0.011$, $\eta^2 = 0.057$, **Fig. 4b**). The amygdala responses in prosocials

362 negatively predicted trial-by-trial preference ratings under placebo, which was reduced
363 by oxytocin. In contrast, amygdala activity negatively predicted trial-by-trial
364 preference ratings in individualists under oxytocin vs. placebo. The negative
365 correlation indicated that the stronger the amygdala activity encoding social value
366 distance, the lower the preference. This pattern of results was consistent with the
367 amygdala providing an input signal for preferences, and fluctuations in the amygdala
368 responses can explain trial-by-trial deviations from average preferences. No such
369 results were found for right IOFC activity.

370 Furthermore, we conducted a general linear model (GLM) with preference rating for
371 each monetary allocation as a parametric modulator to identify any neural activity
372 sensitive to subjective preference ratings. We found activity in the medial prefrontal
373 cortex (mPFC) and IOFC, brain regions typically associated with value-coding^{34,35},
374 correlated with subjective preference ratings for monetary allocations collapsing across
375 the four groups. Moreover, there was a significant interaction between Social
376 Disposition and Treatment for the mPFC and IOFC activity that encoded preference
377 ratings (height threshold $p < 0.001$, cluster-based FWE correction, $p < 0.05$;
378 *Supplementary Fig. 10*). No significant Social Disposition x Treatment interaction was
379 found in the amygdala encoding the preference rating at the whole-brain or ROI level,
380 suggesting that the amygdala activity encoding social value distance does not simply
381 reflect the reverse of the preference signal.

382 We performed a generalized psycho-physiological interaction (gPPI) analysis with
383 anatomically defined bilateral amygdala as the seed region at the whole-brain level. We
384 found that amygdala activity encoding social value distance was coupled with ventral
385 mPFC activity. Moreover, amygdala-vmPFC coupling was significantly stronger in
386 prosocials than in individualists under placebo (height threshold $p < 0.001$, uncorrected,
387 *Supplementary Fig. 11*). Further, the ROI analysis suggested that oxytocin increased
388 the strength of functional connectivity between amygdala and vmPFC in encoding
389 social value distance in individualists (independent-samples t -test, $t(54) = 2.69$, $p = 0.009$)
390 but not in prosocials ($t(58) = 0.067$, $p = 0.95$, *Supplementary Fig. 11*). Given that the
391 vmPFC is typically associated with value computation and value-guided choice^{34,35},
392 these results may suggest a potential amygdala pathway linked to social preferences
393 and social value-based decisions, which can be modulated by oxytocin in

394 individualists.

395

DISCUSSION

396 Our results suggest that the representation of social values is a relational map that
397 encodes the distance between potential values for oneself and others on the same
398 coordinate system. This representation can guide how we interact with others and how
399 we respond to perceived unfairness. We provide empirical evidence that social value
400 representations are constructed in relation to individual-specific social preferences,
401 with the distance between potential and preferred allocations determining the value of
402 social allocations. Prosocials represent social values relative to a more prosocial
403 reference-point than individualists, even in a competitive social context where self- and
404 other-interest are in direct competition. Moreover, the social reference-point derived
405 from our *social reference model* accounts for individual variation in prosocial
406 behaviors (e.g., cooperation, generosity and inequality aversion) and therefore could
407 serve as a compact description of social decision-making.

408 This dissimilarity distance measure bears some similarity to variables in value-based
409 decision-making frameworks². Social value distance is encoded by the amygdala in
410 prosocials: the more dissimilar a potential allocation to the individual-specific
411 reference-point (i.e., their preferred allocation), the greater the amygdala response. Our
412 results offer a mechanistic account of how social value representations contribute to
413 decision-making in prosocials. Trial-by-trial amygdala activity encoding social value
414 distance reflects how attractive potential social allocations are judged to be by
415 prosocials (i.e., the stronger the amygdala response, the less attractive the allocation).
416 Our control analyses show that amygdala activity is better explained by
417 individual-specific reference-points than by egocentric or allocentric frames of
418 reference (Methods). Thus, amygdala activity might encode the difference between
419 potential and preferred allocations (i.e., a “surprise” signal) much like dopamine firing
420 represents reward prediction errors reflecting the difference between outcomes and
421 expectations¹⁰.

422 We found an amygdala representation of social value distance that reflects a deviation
423 from the most preferred allocation (what an individual hopes the allocation to be). This
424 result is consistent with studies in both nonhuman primates⁷ and in human

425 neuroimaging studies¹⁶ suggesting that the amygdala represents how undesirable an
426 outcome is. Providing further support, we found that trial-by-trial amygdala activity
427 was negatively correlated with the desirability of potential social allocations. Moreover,
428 we found evidence that social value distance is also encoded by neural responses in the
429 ventral striatum and TPJ in prosocials, consistent with previous findings linking
430 prosocial decisions with several hubs in the social brain network^{7,36}, including the
431 amygdala, ventral striatum and TPJ. For example, TPJ activity encodes the subjective
432 value of altruistic choice and the value of generosity³⁶⁻³⁸.

433 We also found some evidence for a social value distance representation in the right
434 IOFC in individualists relative to prosocials, which may reflect a distinct coding
435 scheme for representing social values, although this activity did not survive
436 whole-brain cluster-level correction and was not predictive of trial-by-trial preference
437 ratings or modulated by oxytocin. However, this pattern is consistent with previous
438 studies related to right IOFC function³⁹. Right IOFC activation is associated with
439 inhibition of self-interest, reward-guided decisions and detecting and evaluating threats
440 to self-interest^{18,19}. The right dlPFC, another region implicated in social
441 decision-making and top-down control of selfish behavior²⁰, did not have any
442 significant social value distance representation in either individualists or prosocials.

443 Taken together, individuals may consider or calculate self-interest, altruistic values and
444 evaluation of threat to self-interest when comparing potential and preferred allocations.
445 These processes differ among individuals with different social orientations. Social
446 value distance signals in prosocials may also relate to mentalizing about the needs of
447 others^{36,37}, integrating social information into estimates of subjective value⁴⁰, and
448 calculating altruistic values⁴¹ in the social brain network. However, it is possible that
449 individualists perceive deviations from their preferred allocation mainly as conflicts
450 with self-interest, consistent with studies related to inhibition of self-interest conflict
451 and evaluating threats to self-interest^{18,19}.

452 Oxytocin is believed to facilitate social approach and to increase the salience of social
453 cues in promoting adaptive social behaviors²¹. While individualists focus on
454 self-interest and personal goals when making decisions^{3,4}, oxytocin may increase
455 prosociality by shifting reference-points to more prosocial allocations and increasing
456 the weights of outcomes for others, possibly through amplifying the amygdala

457 representation of social value distance. This is consistent with studies showing that the
458 amygdala plays a critical role in allocating attention to other people⁷ and in integrating
459 social information⁴² and social emotions¹³ into decision-making. However, oxytocin
460 fails to show a prosocial effect in prosocials. This does not necessarily mean that
461 oxytocin makes prosocials greedy, as we found that prosocials still have greater
462 prosociality than individualists under oxytocin. This is also not likely to be a ceiling
463 effect, as there is no oxytocin effect on increasing prosociality even when prosocials
464 employ a more “self-centered” reference-point in a competitive context.

465 We found that oxytocin significantly reduces the strength of amygdala social value
466 distance representations in prosocials and this was associated with a trend towards
467 reduced prosociality. More sensitive changes in neural responses have often been
468 observed in previous studies of prosocial behavior⁴³. In the current study, one possible
469 account is that social desirability or social pressure prevents prosocials from engaging
470 in more self-centered performance. Although oxytocin significantly reduces amygdala
471 representations of social values, consideration of both reputation⁴⁴ and others’
472 approval⁴⁵ may prevent neural effects from translating into explicit changes in
473 behavior. Finally, in the within-subjects oxytocin replication experiment, we showed
474 that the oxytocin effect on shifting the social reference-point towards greater
475 prosociality varied as a function of an individual’s disposition of social value
476 orientation, suggesting that the dichotomous comparison in the between-subjects
477 design may prevent identification of an effect that depends on individual disposition.

478 Oxytocin has been implicated in many social behaviors, from promoting trust,
479 generosity and cooperation^{21,22,46,47} to aggravating mistrust and aggressive behavior^{48,49}.
480 The variable nature of oxytocin effects on prosociality is increasingly recognized.
481 Seemingly contradictory oxytocin effects may be moderated by poorly understood
482 individual and contextual differences^{21,24}. Our finding of distinct oxytocin effects on
483 the social reference-point for prosocials and individualists provides evidence for the
484 underlying computational and neural basis for oxytocin’s effect on prosociality and
485 helps reconcile conflicting results in the literature. A concern in previous studies is that
486 post hoc explorations of different modulations by individual differences risk inflating
487 the rate of Type I errors⁵⁰. The current study examined only a single a priori specified
488 modulator as we screened participants for social disposition before the oxytocin

489 experiment, which allowed us to specifically test for different effects of oxytocin in
490 prosocials and individualists. We consistently found across multiple studies that the
491 selective effect of oxytocin on promoting prosociality in individualists was present in
492 both competitive and non-competitive contexts, in both within- and between-subjects
493 designs and with different experimental task designs.

494 Taken together, our results reveal a neural mechanism that underlies social value
495 representations, providing new insight into the processes that influence human social
496 decisions. Our results demonstrate that oxytocin adaptively modulates social value
497 representations in the amygdala and imply a fundamental role of oxytocin in social
498 decision-making. These insights and the identification of a selective effect of oxytocin
499 on prosociality in individualists may have implications for treating neuropsychiatric
500 disorders with social deficits, including autism and sociopathy.

501 **METHODS**

502 Methods, including additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries,
503 statements of data availability and any associated accession codes are available in the
504 online version of the paper.

505

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519 and Y.M. performed the fMRI experiment; S.L. and X.Y. performed the replication
520 experiments; Y.L., S.L., W.Lin. and Y.M. analysed the data and interpreted the results
521 of the fMRI and behavioral experiments; and Y.L., W.Lin., R.B.R. and Y.M. wrote the
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523

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525

526

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- 647

648 **Figure legends.**

649 **Figure 1.** Experimental design. (a) Participants were presented with monetary outcome
650 pairs specifying potential amounts of money (“+” indicated gain and “-” indicated loss)
651 received by themselves (labeled as self) and another player (labeled as other).
652 Participants had 3 s to rate their preferences from 1 (least preferable) to 4 (most
653 preferable) for each monetary outcome pair, followed by a 1-5 s jittered inter-trial
654 interval. Monetary outcomes for the self and other define an angle θ , which samples the
655 space from -90° to 180° . (b) Mean standardized preference ratings across all

656 participants were plotted against monetary allocations for the self and other. (c) Based
657 on the preference ratings, we computed the “*reference-point*” in the social value
658 representation φ , closely related to the preferred allocation that best accounts for the
659 participant’s social preferences over all allocations. Higher values of φ correspond to a
660 stronger preference for allocations that benefit the partner relative to oneself, indicating
661 greater prosociality.

662
663

664 **Figure 2.** Oxytocin boosts prosociality selectively in individualists. More prosocial
665 reference-points for social value representations in prosocials than individualists in the
666 fMRI during-scan experiment (**a**, 31 prosocials and 30 individualists, $p=2.91\times 10^{-7}$,
667 under placebo), in the online-replication experiment (**b**, $n = 315$, 160 prosocials and
668 155 individualists, $p=2.71\times 10^{-19}$), in the fMRI post-scan experiment (**d**, in a
669 competitive context via framing the payoff in a “winner takes all” manner, $p=7.69\times 10^{-4}$,
670 under placebo), and in the oxytocin-replication experiment (**e**, 40 prosocials and 40
671 individualists, $p=9.78\times 10^{-7}$, under placebo). In the online-replication experiment, the
672 estimated social reference-point was positively correlated with individual SVO scores:
673 the more prosocial the disposition, the higher the φ (**c**, $n = 315$, Pearson’s $r = 0.55$, $p =$
674 4.38×10^{-26}). Moreover, intranasal oxytocin increased prosociality in individualists but
675 not in prosocials, by moving their *reference-point* φ towards a preference for more
676 prosocial allocations in the fMRI during-scan experiment (**a**, $n = 125$, individualists
677 under placebo: $n = 30$ males, under oxytocin: $n = 29$ males; prosocials under placebo: n
678 $= 31$ males, under oxytocin: $n = 35$ males, $p = 0.013$) and in the oxytocin-replication
679 experiment (**e**, 40 prosocials and 40 individualists, $p = 0.011$). Moreover, in the
680 oxytocin-replication experiment, SVO scores were negatively correlated with the effect
681 of oxytocin on social reference-point (**f**, $n = 80$, Pearson’s $r = -0.23$, $p = 0.041$). The
682 individual specific reference-point $\varphi < 0^\circ$ indicates a preference for pairs with self-gain
683 and other-loss; $\varphi = 0^\circ$ indicates a preference for self-gain without consideration of
684 other’s outcome; $0^\circ < \varphi < 90^\circ$ indicates a preference for self-gain/other-gain pairs; $\varphi >$
685 90° indicates a preference for self-loss/other-gain pairs). Error bars represented
686 standard error of the mean across participants within each group ($*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$,
687 and $***p < 0.001$; n.s., not significant).

688

689

690 **Figure 3.** Amygdala activity in prosocials ($n = 30$ males) and right IOFC activity in
691 individualists ($n = 30$ males) encode social value distance relative to an
692 individual-specific reference-point. **(a)** Coronal view of activations in the amygdala
693 that encode the social value distance, the difference between potential and preferred
694 social allocations, was significantly stronger in prosocials than individualists under
695 placebo ($P < 0.05$, FWE-corrected at the cluster level after voxel-wise thresholding at P
696 < 0.001). **(b)** Axial view of right IOFC activity encoding social value distance to a
697 greater degree in individualists than prosocials (voxel-wise threshold $p < 0.001$, small
698 volume correction $p < 0.05$ for an anatomically defined right IOFC mask).
699 Independent-samples t test was used in **(a)** and **(b)** on the beta estimates from ROIs of
700 amygdala ($t(58) = 2.75$, $p = 0.008$, 95% CI = [0.05, 0.33]) and right IOFC ($t(58) =$
701 -2.46 , $p = 0.017$, 95% CI = [-0.04, -0.004]). The amygdala and right IOFC ROIs
702 employed anatomically defined masks (amygdala based on AAL bilateral anatomical
703 mask, an anatomically defined right IOFC mask, using combined connectivity-based
704 parcellations 8-11 covering right IOFC³³).

705

706

707 **Figure 4.** Oxytocin promotes amygdala activity in representing social values in
708 individualists ($n_{\text{placebo}} = 30$, $n_{\text{oxytocin}} = 26$ in individualists, $n_{\text{placebo}} = 30$, $n_{\text{oxytocin}} = 30$ in
709 prosocials). **(a)** Coronal view of amygdala showing interaction effect between
710 Treatment and Social Disposition (peak voxels in right amygdala, FWE-corrected
711 $p=0.02$). Social Disposition-by-Treatment ANOVA showed significant interaction on
712 the beta estimates from anatomically defined amygdala ($F(1, 112) = 12.536$, $p =$
713 5.83×10^{-4} , $\eta^2 = 0.057$). **(b)** Trial-by-trial amygdala responses in predicting preference
714 rating, after controlling for predicted social value distance for each trial. The Social
715 Disposition-by-Treatment ANOVA on the trial-by-trial correlation coefficient showed
716 a significant interaction between Social Disposition and Treatment ($F(1, 115) = 6.722$,
717 $p = 0.011$, $\eta^2 = 0.057$). Error bars represented standard error of the mean across
718 participants within each group, $*p < 0.05$ and $**p < 0.01$.

719

720

METHODS

721 **Participants**

722 For the oxytocin-fMRI and behavioral oxytocin-replication experiments, we recruited
723 only male participants to avoid potential confounds of sex differences in oxytocin
724 effects^{21,51}, consistent with previous studies examining oxytocin effects on social
725 cognition. All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and reported no
726 history of neurological or psychiatric diagnoses, or medication, drug or alcohol abuse.
727 Participants provided informed consent after the experimental procedure had been fully
728 explained and were informed of their right to withdraw at any time during the study.
729 The experimental protocol was in line with the standards of the Declaration of Helsinki
730 and approved by the research ethics committee at the State Key Laboratory of
731 Cognitive Neuroscience and Learning, Beijing Normal University (Beijing, China).

732 *Oxytocin fMRI experiment.* There were 282 male college students (mean age = 22.3 ±
733 2.12 years) that participated in this study as paid volunteers. Participant's disposition in
734 social value orientation was measured in the behavioral session (149 prosocials and 83
735 individualists were identified). Among these, 127 participants were qualified and
736 willing to participate in the fMRI experiment (at least 7 days after the behavioral
737 session). Two participants (1.6%) were excluded due to technical issues during
738 scanning, leaving 125 participants in the behavioral analysis (individualists under
739 placebo: $n = 30$ males, mean age 22.2 ± 2.35 years, under oxytocin: $n = 29$ males, mean
740 age 21.7 ± 2.39 years; prosocials under placebo: $n = 31$ males, mean age 22.1 ± 2.70
741 years, under oxytocin: $n = 35$ males, mean age 22.1 ± 2.70 years). An additional 9
742 participants (7.2%) were excluded from further fMRI analysis due to excessive head
743 movement during scanning (> 3 mm), leaving 116 participants for fMRI data analysis.
744 In the end, there were 60 prosocials including 30 administered placebo (mean age, 22.7
745 ± 2.61 years) and 30 administered oxytocin (mean age, 21.8 ± 2.38 years), and 56
746 individualists including 30 administered placebo (mean age, 23.0 ± 2.29 years) and 26
747 administered oxytocin (mean age, 22.5 ± 3.03 years) in the formal fMRI data analysis.
748 Prosocials and individualists receiving oxytocin or placebo were matched on state and
749 trait anxiety, depression, subjective well-being and happiness ratings (all $p > 0.05$ on
750 both the main and interaction effects of Treatment and Social Disposition;
751 *Supplementary Table 3*).

752 The sample size of the fMRI study was determined prior to data collection. We
753 conducted sample size estimation using G*Power 3.1⁵² to determine the number of
754 participants sufficient to detect a reliable effect. Based on an estimated average
755 small-to-medium effect size of oxytocin effect on social behaviors (Cohen's $d = 0.28$)
756 ⁵³. 104 participants were needed to detect a significant effect ($\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.80$,
757 two-by-two mixed ANOVA interaction effects). We planned to recruit 125 participants
758 (assuming 10-20% participants would be removed from the fMRI data analysis due to
759 excessive head movement). In the end, we recruited 127 participants because the 41th
760 and 42th participants did not complete the experiment due to technical issues during
761 scanning. For comparison, we also considered the 58 oxytocin-fMRI studies published
762 at the time we initiated our experiment in June 2015, of which 23 employed
763 between-subject design recruiting healthy individuals. On average, the sample size was
764 50.89 in total, 25.82 for the placebo group and 25.47 for the oxytocin group. Thus, our
765 planned sample size of 125 participants was a decent sample size compared to the
766 average across oxytocin-fMRI studies. Moreover, the sample size of 116 participants
767 (after removal of subjects due to technical issues and excessive head movement) was
768 adequate to reveal reliable effects, exceeding the 104 participants needed for 80%
769 power.

770 *Oxytocin-replication experiment.* We conducted an additional behavioral experiment
771 for the replication of the oxytocin effect using a double-blind, randomized,
772 placebo-controlled, within-subjects crossover design. The sample size was
773 predetermined based on the effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.45$) from our original finding in
774 the fMRI study. The G*Power calculation suggested that 40 participants (20 for each
775 group) were required to detect a reliable effect ($\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.80$ for a within (oxytocin
776 vs. placebo)-between (prosocial vs. individualist) interaction). To obtain a better sense
777 of the robustness of the original findings, we doubled the estimated sample size, aiming
778 to enroll 40 participants per group, with corresponding power equal to 98%. We
779 replicated the selective oxytocin effects on promoting prosociality (i.e., ϕ) in
780 individualists in the whole sample (40 prosocials and 40 individualists), as well as in
781 the first 20 prosocials and 20 individualists (as estimated by the G*Power analysis).
782 140 males (mean age, 22.33 ± 3.35 years) were invited to a behavioral session to
783 identify their disposition in social value orientation. Among these, 82 participants were

784 qualified and willing to participate in the oxytocin experiment (at least 7 days after the
785 first behavioral session). Two participants did not show up for the second session. Thus,
786 80 participants (40 prosocials, mean age, 22.08 ± 3.47 years; 40 individualists; mean
787 age, 21.54 ± 2.42 years) were included in the final data analysis.

788

789 *Online-replication experiment.* We conducted an online experiment with a large
790 sample ($n = 315$, 132 males, 160 prosocials, mean age = 22.40 ± 3.27 ; 155
791 individualists, mean age = 22.48 ± 3.30) to provide a replication for our finding that the
792 social reference model outperforms other models. Prosocials and individualists did not
793 differ in their ratings on the first impression, likeability and attractiveness of the online
794 partner (independent-samples t test, impression: $t_{313} = 1.03$, $p = 0.305$; likeability: t_{313}
795 = 0.98 , $p = 0.328$; attractiveness: $t_{313} = 0.73$, $p = 0.465$).

796

797 ***Procedure.***

798 Participants were first invited to the behavioral session to identify their social
799 disposition and be screened for eligibility of the fMRI and oxytocin behavioral
800 experiments. Participants recruited in the fMRI experiment were randomly assigned to
801 the intranasal administration of oxytocin or placebo in a double-blind
802 placebo-controlled between-subjects design. In the oxytocin experiment, participants
803 received either oxytocin or placebo intranasally in two separate sessions, with a
804 5-7-day washout period between two sessions. The order of oxytocin and placebo
805 treatment was counterbalanced across participants. All participants were instructed to
806 abstain from cigarette, alcohol and caffeine during the 24 hours prior to the experiment,
807 and to refrain from eating or drinking anything except water for 2 hours before the
808 experiment. Participants self-administrated oxytocin or placebo 35 min⁵⁴ before the
809 main task, i.e., a monetary outcome-pair evaluation task (a revised one with monetary
810 pairs sampled on 3 circles of different circumference was used in the
811 oxytocin-replication experiment).

812 *Social disposition measurements.* In the fMRI and the oxytocin-replication
813 experiments, participants were first invited to a behavioral session to identify their

814 dispositions in social preference. In the behavioral session, all participants provided
815 demographic information and completed the triple dominance (TD)⁵ and social value
816 orientation (SVO)²⁸ tasks, which were conventional measurements of one's stable
817 disposition in social value orientation. To incentivize authentic responses during social
818 interactions, participants were recruited in groups of 8-10 individuals (all were
819 strangers to each other). For each economic game, participants were paired with a new,
820 mutually anonymous partner.

821 The TD task is a 9-item measure of one's social disposition by asking participants to
822 choose from 3 types of hypothetical self-other monetary allocation options (e.g.,
823 prosocial option: self = 100, other = 100; individualistic option: self = 110, other = 60;
824 and competitive option: self = 100, other = 20). Based on their decisions to the 9 items,
825 participants were classified as prosocial (who chose prosocial options on 6 or more
826 items), individualist (who chose individualistic options on 6 or more items), or
827 competitor (who chose competitive responses on 6 or more items). Participants who
828 failed to choose the same type of options on at least 6 items were referred to as
829 "unidentified". In the current study, we referred to both "individualist" and "competitor"
830 as "individualists" in comparison to "prosocial".

831 The SVO slider measure included 6 primary items and 9 secondary items. For each
832 item, participants were asked to choose the most preferred one from 9 monetary
833 allocation choices over a well-defined continuum of joint payoffs. Based on the inverse
834 tangent of the ratio between mean allocations for the self and the paired partner, the 6
835 primary items yielded a measure that categorized participants into: altruist, prosocial,
836 individualist, and competitor²⁸. Here, we referred to both "altruist" and "prosocial" as
837 "prosocials" (i.e., $SVO^\circ > 22.45^\circ$), and both "individualist" and "competitor" as
838 "individualists" (i.e., $SVO^\circ < 22.45^\circ$). The scores of 9 secondary items of SVO are used
839 to calculate an independent measure of inequality aversion, i.e., the general preference
840 for fairness and resistance to inequalities. To ensure a reliable measure of social
841 disposition, only participants who were consistently classified by the TD and SVO
842 tasks were deemed "qualified" (either "prosocial" or "individualist").

843 *Prosocial behavior measures.* Participants were also invited to the public goods game
844 (PGG) and the dictator game (DG). The contribution participants made in these two

845 games have been separately used as indicators of the levels of cooperation and altruism
846 - two key characteristics of prosocial behaviors^{24,55-57}.

847 In the 4-player PGG, participants initially receive 80 experimental monetary units (MU)
848 and decide the amount of MU to contribute to a 4-player common project vs. to keep for
849 themselves. The money contributed to the common project would be doubled and
850 evenly divided among the 4 players. The final payoff is equal to the sum of money they
851 keep for the self and money split from the common project. The amount of money
852 contributed to the common project reflects cooperative behavior.

853 In the DG, “the dictator” (i.e., the participant), determines how to split 80 MU between
854 himself and another player. The other players, “the recipient”, simply receive the
855 remainder of the endowment left by the dictator. The recipient's role is entirely passive
856 and has no input into the outcome of the game. The amount the dictator sent to the
857 recipient indicates his altruistic behavior.

858

859 *fMRI session.* A pair of participants, who were strangers to each other, was invited to
860 the fMRI experiment at the same time. Upon arrival, participants’ mood was measured
861 using Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS), which was later measured again
862 after the experiment to quantify potential mood change. There was no significant mood
863 change overall and no significant interaction effect with division of Social Disposition
864 or Treatment (*Supplementary Table 4*). We measured participants’ salivary oxytocin
865 baseline levels by collecting their salivary samples before oxytocin or placebo
866 administration (*Supplementary Fig. 4*). There was no significant main effect or
867 interaction effect between Social Disposition and Treatment on the salivary oxytocin
868 level. Each pair of participants was given 5 min to introduce themselves to each other to
869 strengthen the oxytocin effect on social cognition⁵⁸. We ensured that participants
870 introduced their names to each other, which were also presented on the screen for each
871 monetary allocation. Participants in each pair were scanned in sequence and randomly
872 treated with oxytocin or placebo. The procedure of oxytocin or placebo administration
873 was similar to previous research²⁴. A single dose of 24 IU oxytocin or placebo
874 (containing the active ingredients except for the neuropeptide) was intranasally
875 self-administered by nasal spray approximately 35 min before the fMRI scanning under
876 an experimenter’s supervision. The spray was administered to participants three times

877 with each administration consisted of one inhalation of 4 IU into each nostril. The
878 choice of 24 IU oxytocin and its effect on brain oxytocin level is explained in
879 *Supplementary Note 1*. After scanning, participants were asked to perform a similar
880 post-scan monetary outcome-pair evaluation task in a competitive context. The
881 duration of the fMRI scanning and the post-scan test were carefully controlled within
882 the time frame of the oxytocin peak response in the brain⁵⁴.

883 *Monetary outcome-pair evaluation task during MRI scanning.* In the MRI scanner,
884 participants were presented with pairs of monetary outcomes assigned to the self and
885 the paired participant (referred as partner). Participants evaluated their preference of
886 each monetary allocation on a 4-point Likert scale (1=least preferable to 4=most
887 preferable) by a button press. To encourage genuine responses and minimize the
888 influences of social norms or social pressure, the preference ratings were unknown to
889 the other player. Participants were told that their preference rating for each monetary
890 outcome pair would determine the overall gains for self (G_s) and the partner (G_p),
891 i.e., $G_s = \sum ms_i * p_i$, and $G_p = \sum mp_i * p_i$, where p_i is participants' preference rating for the
892 monetary outcome pair, i ; ms_i/mp_i is the monetary amount for self or the partner in
893 monetary pair, i . In each trial, the monetary allocation was presented for 3 s, followed
894 by a jittered time interval, pseudo-randomized from 1 s to 5 s (with mean interval of 3 s;
895 **Fig. 1a**). There were two sessions with 90 trials per session, presented in a random
896 order.

897 To determine appropriate monetary allocations for the fMRI scanning, we first
898 conducted a pilot behavioral experiment on an independent sample ($n = 60$), where we
899 included the full space of monetary outcome pairs and asked participants to rate their
900 preference for each allocation on a 9-point Likert scale (1 = least preferable; 9 = most
901 preferable). We found that participants reported invariably with the least preferable for
902 pairs in the third quadrants and along the negative X- or Y-axis, where both self and the
903 partner lose money (average preference rating of 1.8 on a 1-9 scale, with no rating
904 scores higher than 3). Therefore, these pairs (i.e., $\$Self \leq 0$ and/or $\$Other \leq 0$) were not
905 included in the fMRI task. The monetary outcome pairs for self and the partner, as
906 illustrated in **Fig. 1a**, were designed in a way as to form angles that evenly sampled
907 from -90° to 180° with an interval approximately 5° , based on an egocentric
908 reference-point (i.e., 0° , which indicates perfect alignment with the positive X-axis).

909 We also included pairs where only the self or the partner gained money (evenly
910 sampled along the positive X/Y-axis) while the opponent received zero. These pairs
911 were used to generate functional masks for fMRI ROI analysis and were not included in
912 formal behavioral analyses.

913 *Monetary outcome-pair evaluation task in a competitive context.* Participants
914 completed a post-scan behavioral experiment largely the same as that in the fMRI task,
915 but with two key differences. First, participants reported their preference of each
916 monetary outcome pair on 10 instead of 4 levels (0 = least preferable to 9 = most
917 preferable). Second, we induced a self-interest and other-interest conflict situation by
918 framing the payoff in a competitive context, where participants would get a bonus
919 reward if and only if the sum of gains to the themselves was larger than that to the
920 partner. Otherwise, they gained nothing (i.e., “winner takes all”). Therefore, the self
921 and partner’s interest were in direct competition in this context. There was one session
922 with 90 trials presented in a random order.

923 *Monetary outcome-pair evaluation task in oxytocin-replication and online replication*
924 *experiments.* The task design for the replication experiments was identical to the fMRI
925 experiment except that the monetary pairs were sampled on 3 circles of different
926 circumference (radius=5, 6, 9), with θ ranging from -90° to 180° with different
927 intervals (5° , 17° , 23°). There was one session with 82 trials presented in a random
928 order.

929 **Behavioral analysis.** We constructed 8 behavioral models based on theoretical
930 considerations (*Supplementary Fig. 2*). For the *social reference model* (the winning
931 model, *Supplementary Fig. 2*), we modeled z-scored preference ratings (P) for each
932 participant: $P = \beta_1 * \cos(\theta) + \beta_2 * \sin(\theta)$. In this model, β_1 and β_2 are weights for how
933 much people care about the value of a potential payoff for themselves (\$Self) and for
934 the partner (\$Other), respectively. The angle θ depends on the difference between those
935 values. We then computed a single individual-specific reference-point ϕ for each
936 participant based on the ratio of β_1 and β_2 : $\phi = \text{atan}(\beta_2/\beta_1)^{29,30}$ (**Fig. 1c**). The social
937 value distance reflects the difference between a potential self-other allocation θ and a
938 preferred allocation ϕ that reflects an individual-specific reference-point against which
939 potential allocations are compared.

940 When all monetary pairs lie on the circumference of a circle, $\cos(\theta)$ can be seen simply
941 as the amount offered to the self and $\sin(\theta)$ as the amount offered to the other, divided
942 by the radius of the circle. However, when including monetary pairs from circles with
943 different radii (i.e., the modified design used in additional experiments), $\cos(\theta)$ and
944 $\sin(\theta)$ provide a compact index that permits investigation of the relationship between
945 self and other in a value-insensitive way (since $\cos(\theta)^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 = 1$).

946

947 **fMRI acquisition and preprocessing.**

948 *Imaging acquisition.* Whole-brain imaging data was collected on a GE 3-Tesla MR
949 scanner with a standard head coil (HDx, Signa MR 750 System; GE Healthcare,
950 Milwaukee, WI). Functional images were collected using an echo-planar imaging
951 sequence (axial slices, 32; slice thickness, 4 mm; gap, 1 mm; TR, 2000 ms; TE, 30 ms;
952 voxel size, $3.75 \times 3.75 \times 5$ mm; flip angle, 90° ; FOV, 240×240 mm; and 285 volumes
953 for each session, two sessions in total). Structural images were acquired through 3D
954 sagittal T1-weighted magnetization-prepared rapid gradient echo (180 slices; TR,
955 8.208 ms; TE, 3.22 ms; slice thickness, 1 mm; voxel size, $0.47 \times 0.47 \times 1.0$ mm³; flip
956 angle, 12° ; inversion time, 450 ms; FOV, 240×240 mm).

957 *Imaging preprocessing.* Brain imaging data was preprocessed using Statistical
958 Parametric Mapping (SPM12; <http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm>). The first 5 functional
959 images from each session were discarded for signal equilibrium and participants'
960 adaptation to scanning noise. Remaining images were corrected for slice acquisition
961 timing and realigned for head motion correction. Subsequently, functional images were
962 coregistered to each participant's grey matter image segmented from corresponding
963 high-resolution T1-weighted image, then spatially normalized into a common
964 stereotactic Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) space and resampled into 2-mm
965 isotropic voxels. Finally, images were smoothed by an isotropic 3D Gaussian kernel
966 with 8-mm full-width at half-maximum.

967 *GLM analysis.* After preprocessing, we estimated parameters of different general linear
968 models (GLMs). All models included regressors for monetary outcome pair
969 presentation separately for trials on and off the X/Y axis, button press, instructions, six
970 nuisance regressors for motion-related artefacts, and various parametric modulations

971 associated with these regressors (detailed below). Parametric regressors were not
972 orthogonalized in the design matrix, ensuring that parameter estimates were not
973 confounded by spurious correlations due to signals related to other regressors⁵⁹. All
974 regressors (parametrically modulated or not) were convolved with the canonical
975 hemodynamic response function (HRF) in SPM before entering the GLM. Data were
976 high-pass filtered at 1/128 Hz. We controlled for decision times for all fMRI analyses.

977 We created parametric regressors that were associated with the value distance or value
978 difference between self and other, at the monetary outcome-pair presentation to search
979 for brain regions that encoded the subjective distance in social value representation. In
980 the fMRI analysis, we included 10 GLM models: a social value distance from an
981 individual-specific reference-point (i.e., $1 - \cos(\theta(t) - \phi)$, $\theta(t)$ is the angle of a potential
982 allocation at trial t and ϕ is the individual-specific reference-point derived from our
983 social reference model), an egocentric reference (i.e., $\cos(\theta(t))$), an allocentric
984 reference (i.e., $\sin(\theta(t))$), an objective equality reference-point (i.e., $\cos(\theta(t) - 45^\circ)$),
985 monetary outcome for the self (i.e., $\$Self$), monetary outcome for the partner (i.e.,
986 $\$Other$), absolute value difference ($|\$Self - \$Other|$ or advantageous (i.e., $\max(0, \$Self$
987 $-\$Other)$) or disadvantageous inequality aversion (i.e., $\max(0, \$Other - \$Self)$)
988 separately, or with preference rating as parametric modulator in the GLM.

989 In building different GLMs, we are not arguing that the social reference model is
990 *superior* to other models in all environments nor claiming the dissimilarity measure is
991 the best measure for capturing amygdala responses as this was not our aim⁶⁰. Rather,
992 we aimed to identify brain regions that could specifically represent deviations from the
993 reference-point of social preference.

994 Coefficients for each regressor were estimated for each participant using maximum
995 likelihood estimates to account for serial correlations in the data. Statistical
996 significance was determined at the group level using a random-effects analysis.
997 Significant clusters from second-level analyses were determined using a height
998 threshold of $P < 0.001$ and an extent threshold of $P < 0.05$ with cluster-based
999 family-wise error (FWE) correction. We also applied voxelwise inference using the
1000 FWE-corrected threshold of $P = 0.05$ on the whole-brain analysis, given recent concern
1001 over cluster-wise inferences. For the relationship between value distance ($1 - \cos(\theta(t)) -$

1002 ϕ) and neural responses during monetary outcome-pair presentation, the peak voxels in
1003 right amygdala survived voxelwise FWE correction ($P = 0.02$).

1004 *Control analysis of amygdala responses.* One alternative hypothesis of the amygdala
1005 activity pattern is that it encoded \$Other or \$Disadvantageous Inequality, instead of the
1006 dissimilarity distance to the “reference-point” in our winning model, we reran the fMRI
1007 analysis from the first level controlling for \$Other and \$Disadvantageous Inequality as
1008 regressors in the GLM (without orthogonalization between regressors). We looked for
1009 the unique variance that can be explained by the dissimilarity distance to social
1010 reference-point over and beyond the variance explained by \$Other or
1011 \$Disadvantageous Inequality. The main result of a significant Social Disposition x
1012 Treatment interaction on the amygdala activity in coding deviations from the social
1013 reference-point was unchanged.

1014 We further tested another possibility of the amygdala response: it encoded \$Other in
1015 proportion to its importance to the individual. To test this possibility, we built another
1016 GLM model with the parametric regressor: $\beta_2 * \$Other$, where β_2 represented the
1017 estimated weight of \$Other on social preference, reflecting the individual-specific
1018 importance of \$Other in social preference evaluation for each participant. However, the
1019 amygdala activity did not simply encode \$Other to the extent that it predicts social
1020 preferences, either at the whole brain level (height $p < 0.001$, cluster-wise FWE, $p <$
1021 0.05) or ROI (anatomically-defined) level.

1022 **Statistics.** The oxytocin-fMRI and oxytocin-replication experiments were
1023 double-blind, i.e., both participants and experimenters were blind to experimental
1024 conditions (both treatment and social disposition conditions). Data analysis was not
1025 performed blind to the conditions of the experiments. We first conducted one-way
1026 ANOVA with Social Disposition as a between-subjects factor to compare the social
1027 reference-point between individualists and prosocials under placebo. To evaluate the
1028 oxytocin effect on the social value representation, we conducted ANOVAs on
1029 behavioral and fMRI data, with Social Disposition (prosocial vs. individualistic) and
1030 Treatment (oxytocin vs. placebo) as between-subjects factors, followed by planned
1031 two-tailed t tests to examine oxytocin effect separately in individualists and prosocials

1032 (independent-samples t test for fMRI study and paired-samples t test for the
1033 oxytocin-replication study). Data distribution was assumed to be normal but this was
1034 not formally tested. All correlations were performed by Pearson's correlation
1035 coefficient analysis.

1036 **Data Availability Statement.** The data that support the findings of this study and the
1037 analysis code are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

1038 **Code availability.** Analysis code to model the social value representation based on
1039 preference rating data is provided in the Supplementary Software.

1040

1041 **Life Sciences Reporting Summary.** Further information on research design is
1042 available in the Life Sciences Reporting Summary linked to this article.

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1047 **Method-only References**

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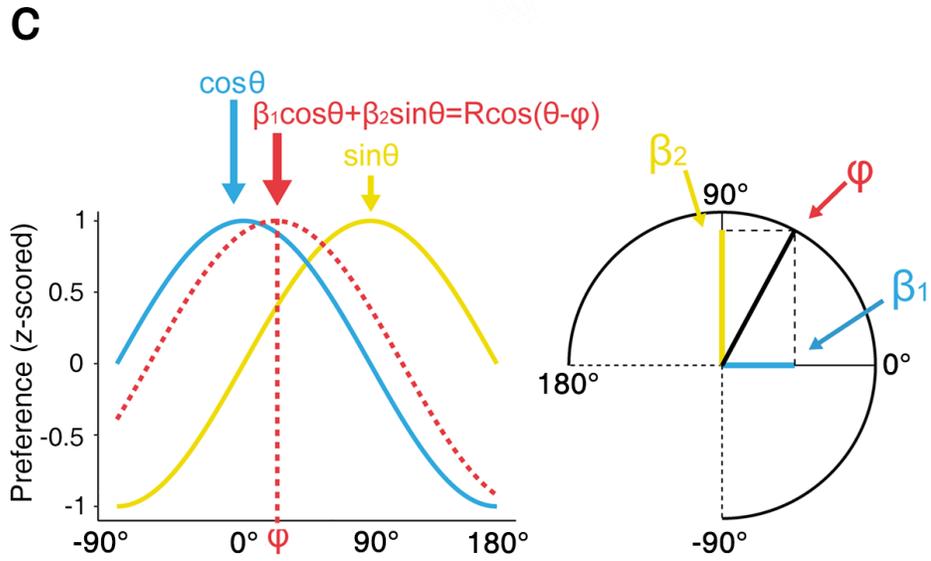
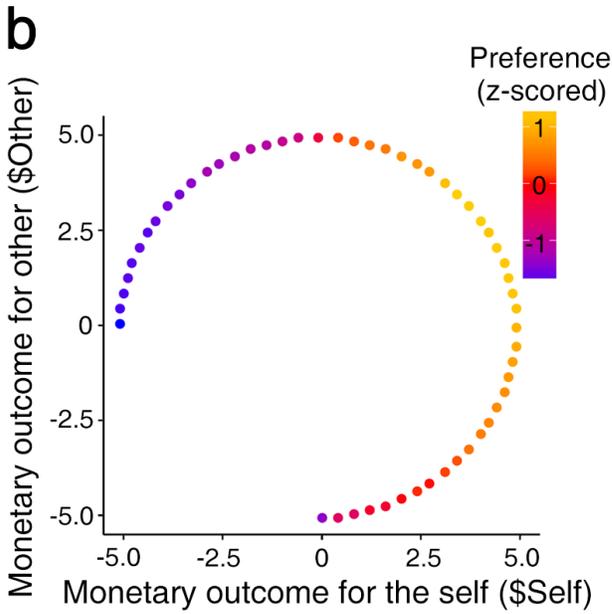
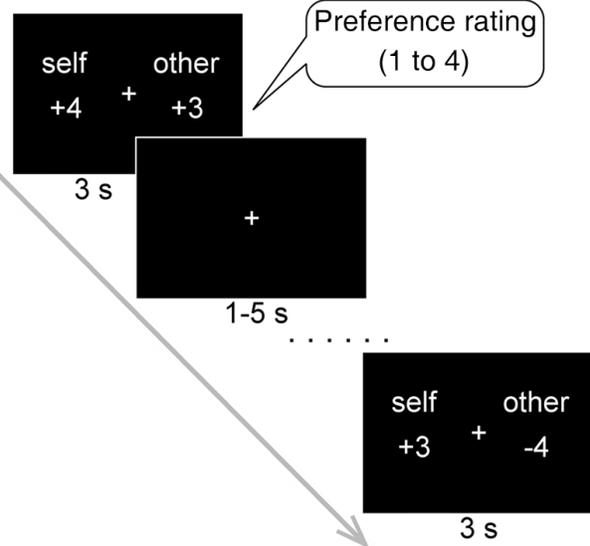
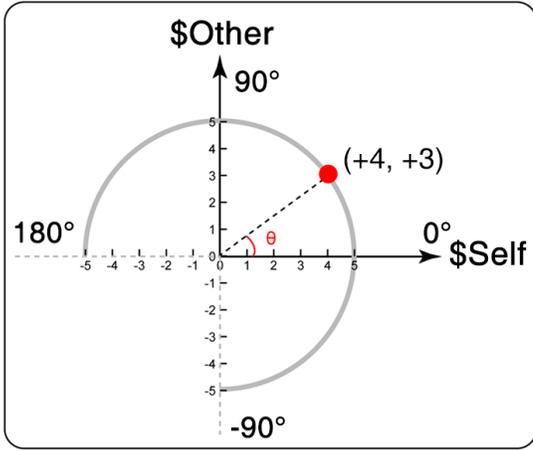
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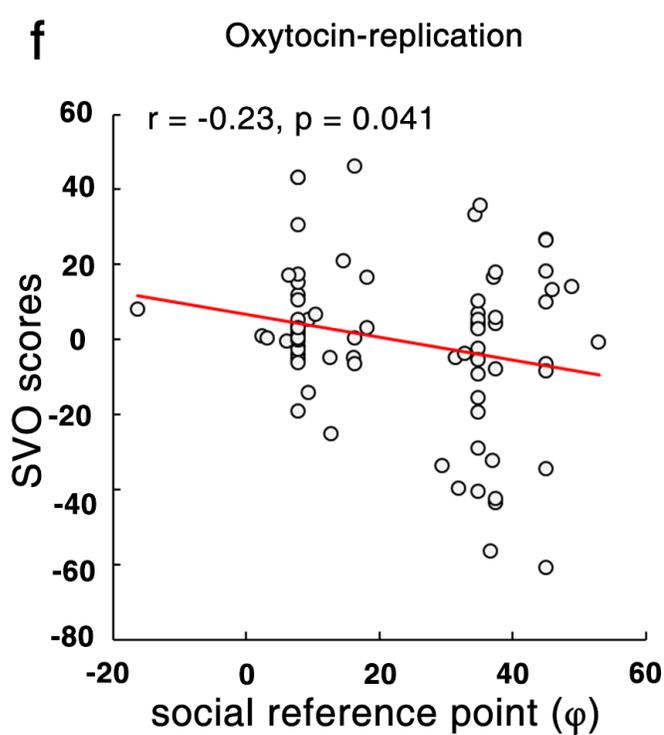
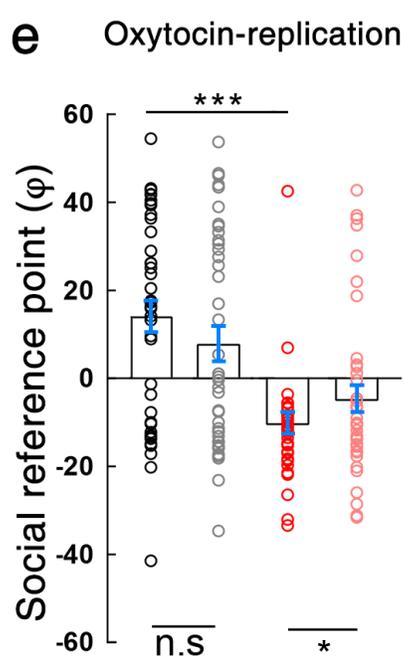
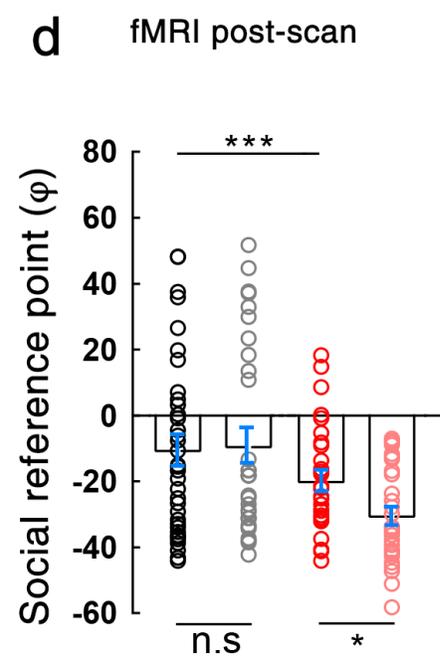
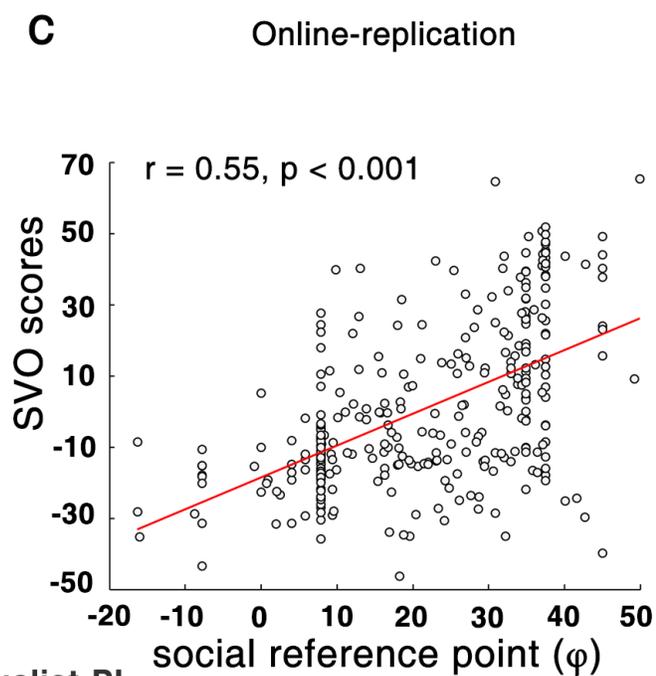
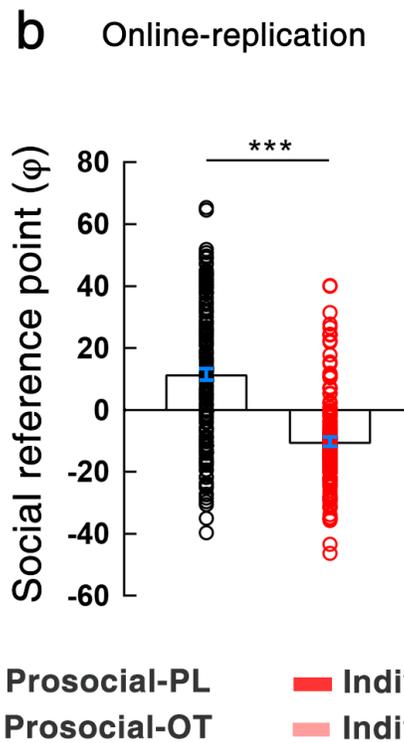
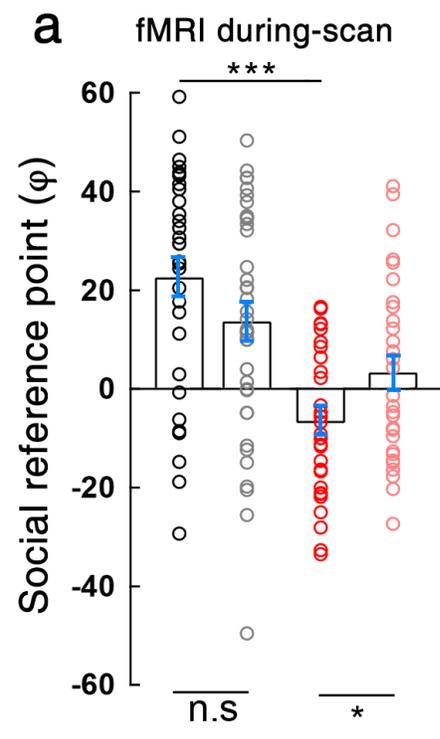
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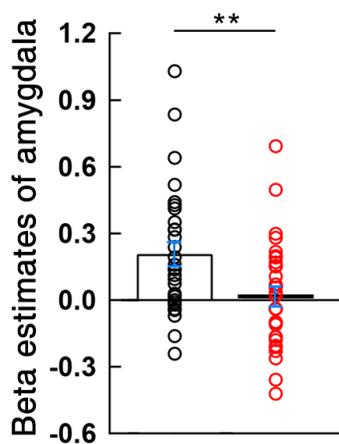
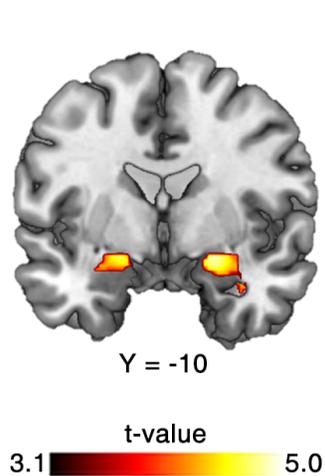
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a Self-other allocation



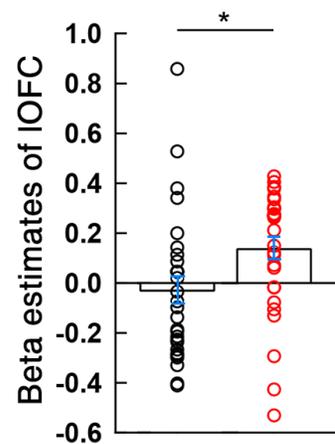
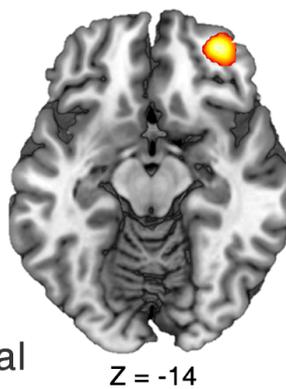


a Deviation from individual-specific reference-point



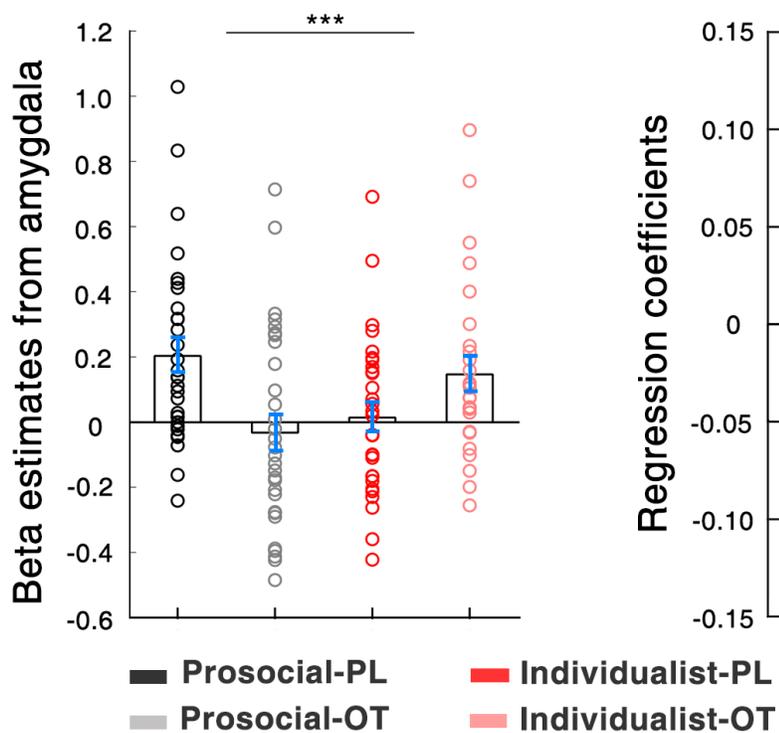
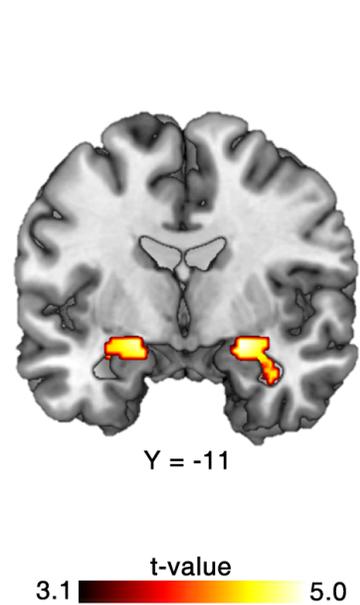
■ Prosocial
■ Individualist

b Deviation from individual-specific reference-point



a

Deviation from individual-specific reference-point

**b**

Amygdala prediction of trial-by-trial preference

