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Darwin in Mind: New Opportunities for Evolutionary Psychology

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Abstract

Evolutionary Psychology (EP) views the human mind as organized in each underpinned by psychological adaptations designed to solve Pleistocene ancestors. We argue that the key tenets of the established require modification in the light of recent findings from a number of human genetics, evolutionary biology, cognitive neuroscience, developmental psychology, and paleoecology. For instance, many human genes have recent selective sweeps; humans play an active, constructive role in their own development and evolution; and experimental evidence often

process, rather than a modular account, of cognition. A redefined E theoretical insights of modern evolutionary biology as a rich source concerning the human mind, and could exploit novel methods from research fields.

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Abbreviations: AI, artificial intelligence; EEA, environment of evolutionary origin; EP, Evolutionary Psychology

In the century and a half since Charles Darwin's publication of the theory of evolution, evolutionary theory has become the bedrock of modern biology; yet the application of evolutionary theory to the human mind remains steeped in controversy [1]–[13]. Darwin himself applied evolutionary theory to human evolution, most notably in *The Descent of Man*, where he suggested that human “mental faculties” are the outcome of evolution by natural selection and insisted that they should be understood in light of what he called “the laws of evolution.” This evolutionary interpretation of human cognition was taken up in the development of contemporary evolutionary psychology, which rapidly became dominant in the field of psychology. The essence of this brand of Evolutionary Psychology (EP) is neatly summarized by a quote that “Our modern skulls house a Stone Age mind” [2].

Box 1. The Major Tenets of Evolutionary Psychology

According to the Santa Barbara school of Evolutionary Psychology, human minds are organized into a large number of evolved psychological modules.

psychological adaptations designed to solve recurrent problems of hunter-gatherer ancestors [30]. These evolutionary psychological theories provide criteria for “carving the mind at its natural joints” [104], and reverse-engineering from an observable phenomenon to its proximate cause.

In the 1980s, four major tenets of EP crystallized, and these ideas became widespread. While not all evolutionary psychologists endorse this perspective, these ideas have nonetheless shaped the broader field and are extremely prevalent.

1. *The environment of evolutionary adaptedness (EEA)*. This concept is the notion that our psychological mechanisms have evolved in response to the features of ancestral environments [87]. While the EEA has frequently been equated with an African Pleistocene savanna, this version of the EEA has been strongly critiqued [66], and the more recent formulation of the EEA presents a broader, less specific theoretical landscape of our past environment as an abstract statistical composite of all relevant past selective environments.

2. *Gradualism*. Evolutionary psychologists argue that minds are not finely-tuned adapted gene complexes that are unable to respond quickly to environmental changes [105],[106]. When combined with the concept of the EEA, gradualism suggests that human beings experience an *adaptive lag* [88], such that evolved psychological mechanisms may not produce adaptive responses in modern human environments that have undergone dramatic recent changes [105].

3. *Massive modularity*. Given that different sets of adaptive problems require different computational solutions, the mind is argued to be composed predominantly of domain-specific, modular programmes [105]. Whether the mind also contains evolved general-purpose processes remains debated [104].

4. *Universal human nature*. The evolved computational programmes of the human mind are assumed to be responsible for producing a universal (or typical) human nature [105]. At the same time, different outcome programmes are suggested to be triggered by different environmental conditions, leading to the prediction of both universal behavioural tendencies and locally specified adaptive solutions [105].

However, many evolutionarily minded psychologists, evolutionary biologists, and philosophers of science disagree with the theoretical proposals put forth by Barbara evolutionary psychologists, and the discipline has been the subject of numerous debates [1],[3]–[13]. Here, we assess the impact of recent developments in evolutionary and developmental biology, paleoecology, and cognitive science, and then go on to suggest that these developments provide new avenues for research.

Reassessing the Major Tenets of Evolutionary Psychology

EP is encapsulated by four major tenets (see [Box 1](#)) that have generated discussion. Here, we argue that all of these basic assumptions need the light of contemporary evidence.

The Environment of Evolutionary Adaptedness and Gradualism

EP argues that human cognitive processes evolved in response to selection pressures acting in ancestral conditions—in an environment of evolutionary adaptedness (EEA)—and are not necessarily adaptive in a contemporary world that has changed radically in recent millennia. From this vantage point, genetic evolution cannot keep pace fully with the extraordinary rate at which human technological environments are changing. Tied up with this notion of adaptive lag (or mismatch between our biology and our environment) is an emphasis on evolutionary gradualism: complex adaptations, particularly with respect to complex adaptations in the human mind, evolved and occurred slowly; too slowly to have led to significant genetic change in the few generations that have elapsed since the end of the Pleistocene, or since the appearance of modern humans around the world over the last 50,000 years.

Recent developments in human genetics have challenged the concept of evolutionary gradualism. EP originated in the early 1980s, when our knowledge of the human genome was limited and gradualism dominated evolutionary thinking. At that time, attempts to estimate rates of selection in nature were in full flow in the Santa Barbara school's gradualism assumption contentious from then, geneticists have not only mapped the genome, but have devised methods for detecting which genes have been subject to recent selection [15]—and have found substantial human genetic changes in the last 50,000 years, with perhaps as many as 10% of human genes affected [19]. Events in the Holocene (the last 10,000 years), particularly the adoption of agriculture, domestication of animals, and the resulting human densities that these practices afforded, were a major source of selection pressure on species [17]–[22], and possibly accelerated human evolution [20],[21]. The recent human genome strongly suggests that recent human evolution has been driven by responses to features of the environment that were constructed by humans, such as culturally facilitated changes in diet, to aspects of modern living that have promoted the spread of diseases [22],[23]. Genes expressed in the brain are over-represented in this recent selection [11],[12].

Evolutionary biologists have also measured the rate of response to selection in a wide variety of animals [14],[24], finding that evolutionary change typical of natural selection is faster than hitherto thought. A recent meta-analysis of 63 studies that measured the rate of natural selection in 62 species, including more than 2,500 estimates of selection coefficients, concluded that the median selection gradient (a measure of the rate of change in trait value with trait value) was 0.16, which would cause a quantitative trait to change by one standard deviation in just 25 generations [24]. If humans exhibit equivalent rates of significant genetic evolution would occur over the course of a few thousand generations. If fast evolution is far from inevitable, there is nonetheless strong evidence that rapid genetic change frequently occurred in humans. EP has yet to come to terms with the implications of rapid genetic changes with their potential for associated neural reorganization.

Even if we consider the selection pressures that acted on ancestral

during the Pleistocene epoch (approximately 1.7 million to 10,000 years ago). The concept of stable selection pressures in the EEA is challenged by recent findings in paleoecology and paleoanthropology. The Pleistocene was apparently not only being variable, but progressively changing in the pattern of environmental pressures. The world experienced by members of the genus *Homo* in the early Pleistocene was very different from that experienced in the late Pleistocene, and even early *Homo sapiens* that lived around 150,000 years ago led very different lives from Paleolithic people (40,000 years ago) [27]–[29].

Universalism

EP has also placed emphasis on the concept of human nature, comprising a specific repertoire of universal, evolved psychological mechanisms such as a preference for in-group members, a cheater-detection mechanism, to a preference for certain characteristics. This putative universal cognition can be rendered consistent with observed diversity in human behaviour by recourse to context-dependent mechanisms. From this perspective, the mind shifts between pre-specified behavioural responses to differential environmental influences [30],[31].

This explanation of human behavioral variation is also contentious. The view of universalism has led to the view that undergraduates at Western universities are a representative sample of human nature, a view that has been questioned by anthropologists and psychologists [33]–[35]. Moreover, by EP's focus on genetic and developmental effects simply evoke alternative genetically programmed behaviours. Recent trends in developmental psychology and neuroscience have emphasized the malleability of the human brain, emphasizing how experience tunes synaptic connectivity, neural circuitry and gene expression in the brain. The remarkable plasticity in the brain's structural and functional organization has led neuroscientists to be aware since the 1980s that the human brain's architectural complexity for it to be plausible that genes specify its structure. Therefore, developmental processes carry much of the burden of environmental influences on neural connections.

In parallel, emerging trends in evolutionary theory, particularly the gene-culture co-evolution theory, developmental systems theory, epigenetic inheritance, and niche-construction theory have placed emphasis on organisms as active constructors of their environments [38]–[40]. The development of an organism, including the characteristics of its environment, involves a complex interaction between genetically inherited information, environmental influences, and learning in response to constructed features of the environment [5],[40]–[45]. From this viewpoint, the human mind does not consist of specified programmes, but is built via a constant interplay between genetic programmes and environment [45],[46], a point made by developmental psychologists many years ago. By constructing their worlds (for example, by building cities, crops, and setting up social institutions), humans co-direct their own evolution [22],[39],[48],[49].

The view that a universal genetic programme underpins human cognition is not consistent with current genetic evidence. Humans are less genetically

species, including other apes [50], largely because human effective population sizes were small until around 70,000 years ago [51],[52]. Nonetheless, the variation to have supported considerable adaptive change in the human genome in recent thinking amongst geneticists is that our species' unique reliance on culture and behaviour may have relaxed allowable thresholds for genetic diversity [21],[53]. Human behavioral genetics has also identified genes underlying an extensive list of cognitive and behavioural characteristics.

While variation within populations accounts for the bulk of human genetic diversity, around 5%–7% of genetic differences can be attributed to variation between populations [55]. Some of the significant genetic differences between human populations are from recent selective events [56],[57]. Gene-culture coevolution may explain the characteristic pattern of evolutionary change in humans over recent history [22],[58] (see Box 2). From this perspective, cultural practices are likely to exert selection pressures on the human brain, raising the possibility that they may lead to biases in the human cognitive processing between, as well as within, populations. In summary, there is no uniform human genetic program.

Box 2. Gene-Culture Coevolution

Gene-culture coevolutionary theory explores how genetic and cultural factors interact over evolutionary time [22],[58]. Changes in diet afforded by cultural practices, such as agriculture and the domestication of plants and animals, are compelling examples of gene-culture coevolution, demonstrating how cultural practices have transformed the selection pressures acting on humans. The rise to some of the genetic differences between human populations in recent history. There is now little doubt that dairy farming created the selective pressure that favoured the spread of alleles for adult lactose tolerance [85],[110]. One example concerns the evolution of the human amylase gene: Population geneticists have found that copy number of the salivary amylase gene (*AMY1*) is positively correlated with salivary amylase protein level and that individuals from populations with high-starch diets have, on average, more *AMY1* copies than those with traditionally low-starch diets. Indeed, the transition to novel diets following the advent of agriculture and the colonization of new habitats worldwide have been a major source of selection on humans [17],[110], and this selection is related to the metabolism of carbohydrates, lipids, and phosphorus [17]–[19].

More generally, human dispersal and subsequent exposure to new environments, aggregation and exposure to new pathogens, and farming and dietary changes are now widely thought to be the source of selection for many of the human alleles [22]. Amongst the overrepresented categories in genome-wide scans of recent selection are numerous alleles expressed in the brain, particularly in the system and brain [17]–[19]. This raises the possibility that complex cognitive functions, which culture is reliant on (social intelligence, language, and challenge), have been shaped by selection with constructing and adapting to new environmental conditions. This is a key area of human brain evolution. Mathematical models exploring how genetic and cultural processes interact provide strong support for the role of gene-culture coevolution in human evolution.

in human evolution [92],[111]–[115]. Analyses of these models find patterns and rates of change that are uncharacteristic of more traditional population genetic theory [92,114–116]. Gene-culture dynamics are stronger and operate over a broader range of conditions than evolutionary dynamics [22],[83],[117],[118].

EP's emphasis on a universal human nature has hindered its exploration of opportunities to examine human diversity utilizing evolutionary biology. Evolutionary theory makes predictions about behavioural variation within and between populations in traits commonly studied by evolutionary psychologists. Differences in mate preferences constitute a large proportion of EP research, which is generally assumed to exhibit universal patterns (e.g., [59],[60]); however, evolutionary theory suggests that a number of factors, such as sex-biased mortality, population density, and variation in mate quality, will affect sex roles (see Box 3). EP should make greater use of the theoretical insights of modern evolutionary biology to test of testable hypotheses [3],[6].

Box 3. Reconsidering the Evolution of Sex Roles

Based on the classic work of Bateman [119] and Trivers [120], evolutionary theory predicts differences in the relative competitiveness and choosiness of males and females when seeking mating partners. Males are generally assumed to be more competitive and to favour more sexual partners than women and to base their choice on mate health, and physical attractiveness of prospective partners; in contrast, females are assumed to be more choosy than men and to base their judgement on the mate's willingness of males to invest resources in their offspring [59]. However, contemporary sexual selection theory [121],[122] suggests that a number of factors, such as sex-biased mortality, population density, and variation in mate quality, will affect how competitive and choosy males and females are. Evolutionary theory predicts that, in human beings, both sexes will be choosy when mating rates with potential mates are high, particularly where the population sizes of both sexes are large and not too different, and/or where the quality of both sexes is high, and males are likely to be choosy in the presence of a female-biased adult sex ratio and considerable paternal investment.

The prediction that sex roles will vary between populations is borne out by the variance in mating and reproductive success in current and historical human populations, which does not support the notion of a single universal human nature. In addition, evolutionary psychologists have themselves begun to explore cultural variation in mate preferences and to examine whether variation in adult sex ratios and local pathogen loads can explain within- and between-population variation in mating behaviour (e.g., [31]). However, evolutionary theory generally assumes that context-specific strategies are pre-programmed, evolved psychological mechanisms, such that individuals possess innate mating strategies that are differentially elicited by certain external factors. Individuals develop a particular strategy as a result of environmental factors.

on evolved developmental systems during early life (e.g., [30],[6 more flexible and variable the exhibited behaviour, the less exp be attributed to evolved structure in the mind.

An alternative perspective, supported by developmental system construction theorists (e.g., [38],[39]), posits that the human mind solely of pre-specified programmes and that brain development influenced by transmitted culture. One of the key contrasts between perspective and traditional EP is therefore the role that socially has to play in the development of the brain and behaviour [32]. I consider how the relatively recent developments of agriculture (construction), high-density populations, and the evolution of soc (transmitted culture), have dramatically changed the ecological mating decisions from what would have occurred in hunter-gath According to the aforementioned theory, the increasing encour practices likely afforded should have led to much greater choos modern men and women compared to their Pleistocene ancest evolutionary theory has much to offer evolutionary psychologists eschew a focus on universality.

Massive Modularity

EP has proposed that the mind consists of evolved cognitive modul referred to as the massive modularity hypothesis [61],[62]. Massive somewhat idiosyncratic interpretation of Fodor's [63] original conce Essentially, Fodor suggested that what he called input systems (suc auditory and visual perception, but also in language) were modular relative isolation from each other. Information from these modular s passed on to central systems (involved in problem solving or thoug were thought not to be modular. EP has extended modularity to inv mind/brain.

The thesis of massive modularity is not supported by the neuroscie [64]–[67]. Firstly, comparative psychology presents an unassailable of domain-general mechanisms. The processes of associative lear animals and have general properties that allow animals to learn ab relationships among a wide variety of events [68],[69]. For instance theory rule, known as the Rescorla–Wagner rule [70], has proved e explaining the results of hundreds of experiments in diverse anima honeybees, avoidance conditioning in goldfish, and inferential rea:

Secondly, there is broad involvement of diverse neural structures in processes, and there is feedback even to the most basic perceptua instance, the hominid brain has not only witnessed a proportional e neocortex, but the neocortex has become intricately interconnected projections into the medulla and spinal cord [71]. This has allowed b intricate routines of movement and complex manual tasks, becaus executive part of the brain can directly monitor the fingers and the

projections allow exhibit fine control of the tongue, vocal chords, and other structures, which humans probably could not have learned to speak [71]. After evidence consistent with Fodor's original proposals, Bolhuis and colleagues suggested that there is no evidence for modularity in the central system involved in learning and memory. With regard to cognitive mechanisms, data from animal experiments is consistent with a general-process view rather than an interpretation involving adaptively specialized cognitive mechanisms [64],[65],[67],[72].

A large part of EP's emphasis on massive modularity drew from artificial intelligence research. While the great lesson from AI research of the 1970s was that domain specificity was critical to intelligent behaviour, the lesson of the new generation of intelligent agents (such as driverless robotic cars) is that they require integrating information across domains, regularly utilize general-process tools such as search, analysis, stochastic modelling, and optimization, and are responsive to environmental cues [73]. However, while AI research has shifted away from domain specificity, some evolutionary psychologists continue to argue that it would have favoured predominantly domain-specific mechanisms. Others have started to present the case for domain-general evolved mechanisms (e.g., [75],[76]), and evidence from developmental psychology suggests that domain-general learning mechanisms frequently build on knowledge of domain-specific perceptual processes and core cognition [44]. Both domain-general and domain-specific mechanisms are compatible with evolutionary theory, and their relative importance in human information processing will only be revealed through further experimentation, leading to a greater understanding of how the brain works.

Towards a New Science of the Evolution of the Brain

We have reviewed how developments in a number of scientific fields have questioned the key tenets of EP. Fortunately, these developments do not pose insurmountable problems for EP, but also suggest potential solutions. We argue that the methodological and conceptual integration of EP with adjacent fields is essential for progress.

Traditionally, EP has tested hypotheses using the conventional tools of psychology (questionnaires, computer-based experiments, etc.). Generally the focus is on the functional perspective—that is, EP proposes that a particular mechanism evolved to enhance reproductive success in our ancestors. However, Nobel laureate Tinbergen [77] famously proposed that understanding behavior requires considering not only its *function* and *evolution*, but also of its *causation* and *development*. He argued that a complete understanding of behavior involves addressing all four questions. These distinctions are relevant because accounts of the evolution of human cognition cannot in themselves explain the brain's underlying workings since these are logically distinct questions. While evolutionary analysis provides clues as to the mechanisms of human cognition, these are best regarded as hypotheses, not established explanations, that need to be tested empirically [1]. In instances where such evolutionary hypotheses about mechanisms are rejected [1]. Here, we ask which of Tinbergen's questions is currently being addressed in the field of EP and describe how EP could expand its focus to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the brain.

understanding of human behaviour.

Evolutionary psychologists commonly seek to study how the human knowledge of evolution to formulate, and sometimes test, hypotheses about the function of cognitive architecture. While functional or evolutionary hypotheses can be used to test hypotheses about mechanisms, considerations in one domain can generate hypotheses concerning problems in the other domain. For example, the evolution of a certain cognitive trait may generate hypotheses about the function of that trait. Evolutionary psychologists have conducted hundreds of studies to test the predictions generated by consideration of evolutionary arguments, but we should be clear that such studies do not test the evolutionary hypothesis directly, but rather test whether the predictions about the psychological mechanism are upheld [6],[81]. For example, the numerous studies supporting the idea that humans are predisposed to detect cheaters in social situations [74], have been given several evolutionary explanations. While the original researchers argued that detection has resulted from a selective history of reciprocal altruism, other evolutionary explanations, for instance that a history of cultural group selection selected for this trait [83], and non-evolutionary explanations, are also available.

The recent trend within the behavioural sciences has been away from the rejection of a single hypothesis towards the far more powerful simultaneous testing of multiple competing statistical models through model selection procedures. In EP would, as standard practice, conduct empirical studies designed to test between multiple competing adaptive and non-adaptive explanations. In the following sections, we examine how EP could expand to cover all forms of questions, the evolutionary historical, as well as the proximate, aspects of its function.

i) A modern EP would evaluate the *evolution* of a character by constructing population genetic models, estimating and measuring responses to selection, and the covariation of phenotypic traits or genetic variation with putative selective environments, making comparisons across species and seeking correlates to selection, and so forth, as do contemporary evolutionary biologists. In addition to these established tools, researchers can also exploit modern statistical methods applied to cultural and behavioural variation [85]. In addition, coevolutionary theory [22],[58],[83],[86] to reconstruct human evolution. The function of reliable aspects of human cognition, and of consistent behaviours, can be explored utilizing the same methods. An important point here is that these are not restricted to considerations of the *current* function of evolved traits. The established methods are available to reconstruct the evolutionary history of cognition.

ii) With regard to *functional* questions, while EP has stressed the idea that behaviours are adapted to past worlds [87], a niche-construction perspective argues that humans are predicted to build environments to suit their adaptations. These solutions to self-imposed challenges, aided and abetted by the extraordinary adaptive plasticity afforded by our capacities for learning and cultural transmission, adaptiveness is far from guaranteed, from this theoretical perspective humans are expected to experience far less adaptive lag than anticipated by EP.

examining the relationship between evolved psychological mechanisms and modern success in modern environments will not necessarily be an unproductive

Consistent with this hypothesis is the observation that humans have achieved extraordinary levels of population growth, indicative of increments in fitness during the Holocene whilst exposed to modern, culturally constructed environments [60]. However, rather than simply pronouncing that human behaviour is adaptive, a modern EP would carry out quantitative analyses across behavioural and cognitive traits to measure to what extent, or on what scale, human behaviour is currently adaptive (e.g., [89]). We anticipate that the future of human behavioural ecology are likely to be productive even in more complex instances (e.g., [90],[91]). Where the use of optimality models prove unproductive, cultural evolution and gene-culture coevolutionary models could be used to investigate whether the data conform to equilibria that are not globally optimal. Researchers could go on to explore which factors explain this variation by measuring, among diverse traits and across a broad range of populations, what percentage of the variance in behaviour is explained by local ecological factors and what percentage is better predicted by cultural history (e.g., [93]).

iii) In order to study the *causal mechanisms* underlying the characterisation of human behaviour, researchers should employ methodologies that are available to modern cognitive psychology and neuroscientists, such as fMRI and related technology, and take advantage of advances in genetics. While much EP research describes human behaviour in terms of information processing, decision rules and cognition, the psychological adaptations are described at the level of the nervous system. Cognitive and behavioural psychologists have amassed a huge amount of research on the functioning of the brain, including the influence of genes on brain development. However, evolutionary psychologists rarely examine whether their hypotheses regarding the underlying mechanisms are supported by what is known about how the brain works. Evolutionary knowledge is less direct, and again relegated to the general category of hypotheses that can be tested using established protocols.

Variation in experimental procedures, patterns of connectivity, differences between individuals, and comparisons across species potentially allows researchers to determine what extent the circuitry associated with the focal mechanism is human-specific. Researchers should identify both the major genes involved and the environmental conditions that influence their expression. There is evidence that modern neuroscience techniques can be used to test hypotheses generated from evolutionary theory. Evolutionary psychologists are beginning to present evolutionary accounts of human variation underlying traits such as personality [98]–[100]. The aforementioned developments in cognitive neuroscience and genetics open up further avenues for broader EP.

iv) As discussed earlier, *development* is an extremely important factor in understanding the human mind and is built via a constant interplay between the individual and the environment. Recent work by developmental psychologists demonstrates that it is possible to detect the unlearned roots of cognition, such as deep, early-emerging understanding, through careful experimentation on young children. Such experiments also reveal the manner in which culturally and individually

emerge, through domain-general learning akin to bootstrapping, in culturally constructed, symbolically encoded environments [44]. In evolved psychological mechanisms, from fear of snakes to cheater mechanisms, could be subject to the same kind of detailed develop

Recent trends in developmental biology and cognitive neuroscience human brain and behaviour are shaped to an important extent by learning [36]. Hitherto, EP's theoretical stance led it to assume domain-specific cognition, resulting in the neglect of opportunities to investigate how social and asocial learning are reliant upon processes that apply a manner in which cross-domain general learning processes build on prior inputs. For instance, while behavioural innovation is critical to the success of organisms in changing and unpredictable environments, whether such innovation occurs in a context-specific manner is unclear. Innovation could instead be reliant on general mechanisms expressed in complex cognition, intelligence and learning. Innovation could involve learned behaviour patterns being adapted to new contexts. Available evidence suggests the latter scenario [76],[101].

Similarly, EP has engaged in a longstanding debate with advocates over whether human social learning is governed by evolved context-specific biases (e.g., for the sugar-rich food) or by domain-general context biases (e.g., conformity or prestige bias). There is sufficient empirical evidence for the deployment of context-specific biases, to render the casual dismissal of trans-contextual biases counterproductive [102],[103]. A broader EP could actively pursue testing experimentally whether human social learning is dominated by context-specific biases, and by investigating the factors that affect reliance on each type of bias. Innovation, social learning, and other aspects of development are constrained by the environment. Novelty into phenotype design space, thereby establishing new selection pressures [39],[41],[48], opens up new opportunities for investigating evolutionary processes. Social scientists can actively participate.

Conclusions

None of the aforementioned scientific developments render evolutionary psychology infeasible; they merely require that EP should change its daily practice. The current practice of EP have led to a series of widely held assumptions (e.g., that human evolution is unlikely to be adaptive in modern environments, that cognition is domain-specific, that there is a universal human nature), which with the benefit of hindsight are highly questionable. A modern EP would embrace a broader, more open, and more integrative theoretical framework, drawing on, rather than being isolated from, the knowledge and tools available in adjacent disciplines. Such a field would face the challenge of exploring empirically, for instance, to what extent human behaviour is general or domain specific, under what circumstances human behaviour is best to explain variation in human behaviour and cognition. The evidence from other disciplines suggests that, if EP can reconsider its basic tenets, it will become a more rigorous discipline.

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